# Supplementary material for:

# Inconsistent defect labels: essence, causes, and influence

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## Appendix A. Causes of Inconsistent labels

### A.1. Actual causes of inconsistent labels for motivational examples

In this section, we analyze the actual causes of inconsistent labels in the motivational examples presented in Section 3. For each of the motivational examples, we conducted a manual analysis to examine the actual cause. The reverse analysis of the causes of inconsistent labels in motivation examples can be helpful in identifying deficiencies in existing defect collection approaches (or even problems that have not been noted in literatures, such as rollback changes and branch-merge conflicts), and thereby identifying opportunities for improvement in defect collection approaches.

**Example 1 (a semi-automatic SZZ-based approach [1]): the "XPathParser.java" instances in the Tika project**. The labels of the "XPathParser.java" instances were collected from the issue reports in JIRA and the commits in GIT. As shown in Fig. 5, the corresponding instances were marked as "buggy" on versions 1.0~1.9 but marked as "clean" on versions 1.10~1.17. By a Git query command[1], we find that there are four commits involved in the "XPathParser.java" instances: $C_1$ (7adc256, 2009-04-28), $C_2$ (5220653, 2011-10-10), $C_3$ (398d0b1, 2015-06-29), and $C_4$ (ff6d3fc, 2015-06-29). Fig. 1 shows their relationships with the corresponding versions. As can be seen, $C_3$ is a BFC, while $C_1$ is identified as BIC. This is the reason why the "XPathParser.java" instance is marked as "buggy" on versions 1.0~1.9 but as "clean" on versions 1.10~1.17. However, the labels on versions 1.10~1.17 are indeed mislabels. By examining the commit log, we find that $C_4$ is a rollback change for recovering the code modified in $C_3$, as it appears that $C_3$ is an incomplete fix. As a result, the "XPathParser.java" instances on versions 1.10~1.17 have the same code as on versions 1.0~1.9. In other words, they have the same buggy code. As a result, for example 1, the actual cause is that a rollback change leads to the mislabels on version versions 1.10~1.17.

**Example 2 (the time-window approach [2, 3]): the "SourceTree.java" instances in the Xalan project**. The labels of the "SourceTree.java" instances were collected based on the BFCs identified by the BugInfo[2] tool. Since the download link of the BugInfo tool provided in [3] had been closed, we cannot obtain the BFC information to further analyze the actual cause. However, Jureczko et al. [2, 3] pointed out the limitations they faced when linking defective modules to versions: "*The defects are assigned to versions according to the bugfix date. It could be probably better to assign a defect to the version, where the defect has been found, but unfortunately, the source code version control system does not contain such information.*". In other words, they believe that linking defective modules to versions based on BIC and BFC is more accurate. In this sense, the Metrics-Repo-2010 data set may contain many mislabels. In addition, according to the official website of the Xalan project[3], the release date of the four versions Xalan-2.4, 2.5, 2.6, and 2.7 are 2002-09-03, 2003-04-14, 2004-02-29, and 2005-08-08, respectively. The time intervals between the four versions are 7, 10 and 17 months, respectively. Since the intervals between versions are not fixed, the use of a fixed time-window (e.g., 6 months) may exacerbate the inaccuracy of the time-window approach. Therefore, for example 2, we believe that the actual cause is that the inaccuracy of the time-window mechanism introduces mislabels and hence results in inconsistent labels.

**Example 3 (the affected version approach [4]): the "KahaMessageStore.java" instances in the Activemq project**. By inspection, we find an issue report AMQ-1529[4]: (1) reports a bug in "KahaMessageStore.java"; (2) the version numbers recorded in the *affected version* field are 5.0.0, 5.1.0, and 5.2.0; and (3) the developer stated: "*Also in KahaMessageStore.java should be added removing the blob files when the message is removed.*" Furthermore, "KahaMessageStore.java" instances have the same code on versions 5.0.0, 5.1.0, and 5.2.0. Therefore, the "KahaMessageStore.java" instance on version 5.1.0 should be "buggy" instead of "clean". As a


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[1] Query command: git log -- tika-core/src/main/java/org/apache/tika/sax/xpath/XPathParser.java

[2] http://kenai.com/projects/buginfo

[3] http://archive.apache.org/dist/xml/xalan-j/

[4] https://issues.apache.org/jira/browse/AMQ-1529

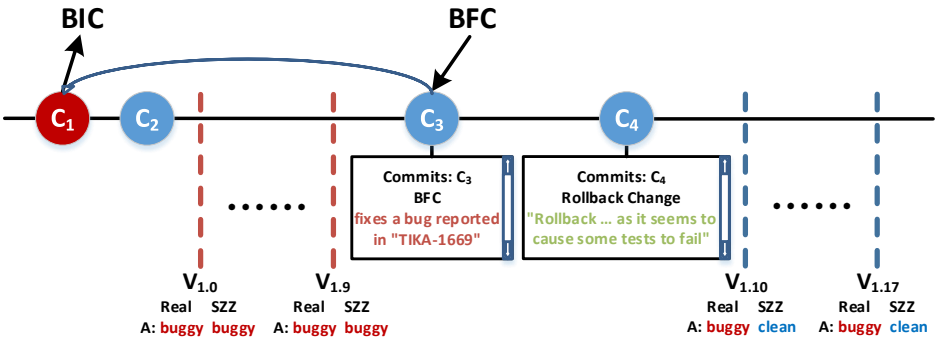


Fig. 1. SZZ-based approach: Schematic diagram of producing inconsistent labels in the "XPathParser.java" instances

result, for example 3, the actual cause is that the used affected version approach leverages only the earliest and the latest version numbers to link defective modules to versions, introducing mislabels and hence resulting in inconsistent labels (Note: this mislabeling problem may result from the issue report missing the version number 5.1.0 in the early maintenance phase).

**Example 4 (our replicated MA-SZZ [6] approach): the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances in the Zeppelin project**. The labels of the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances were collected from the issue reports in JIRA and the commits in GIT. As shown in Fig. 8, only version 0.6.0 was marked as "buggy", and the other four versions (0.5.5, 0.5.6, 0.6.1, and 0.6.2) were marked as "clean". By a Git query command, we find that there are eight commits involved in the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances: $C_1$ (bb96f42, 2015-08-09), $C_2$ (cd227fb, 2015-08-24), $C_3$ (54d4f48, 2015-10-16), $C_4$ (34e1385, 2016-01-17), $C_5$ (d85c7a1, 2016-01-18), $C_6$ (ed5b471, 2016-07-05), $C_7$ (3c93645, 2016-11-29), and $C_8$ (fa3f9f72, 2017-02-01). Fig. 2 shows their relationships with the corresponding versions. As can be seen, $C_6$ is a BFC. By MA-SZZ, $C_5$ is identified as BIC. This is the reason why MA-SZZ marks the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instance as "buggy" on version 0.6.0 but as "clean" on the other four versions (0.5.5, 0.5.6, 0.6.1, and 0.6.2). However, the labels on 0.5.5, 0.5.6, 0.6.1, and 0.6.2 are indeed mislabels. Furthermore, on the one hand, by examining the commit log, we find that: $C_4$ is a commit deleting "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" but $C_5$ is a rollback change for recovering this file. As a result, the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances on versions 0.5.5 and 0.5.6 have the same code as on 0.6.0. In other words, they have the same buggy code. On the other hand, the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances on version 0.6.1 and version 0.6.2 do not contain the code introduced by $C_6$. Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that there are branch-merge conflicts for versions 0.6.1 and 0.6.2. When these conflicts occur, developers only kept the content of "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" from the derived branch rather than the master branch. As a result, for example 4, a rollback change leads to the mislabels on version versions 0.5.5 and 0.5.6, while the branch-merge conflicts lead to the mislabels on versions 0.6.1 and 0.6.2.

As can be seen from motivational example 2, not all the existing defect data sets can find enough defect data information and background information to analyze the cause of each inconsistent label. In fact, due to a variety of objective factors such as age factor / limited information published / maintenance or changes of defect data information, it is difficult for other researchers who are not original collectors of existing defect data sets to completely and accurately restore the actual causes of all inconsistent labels in the existing data sets. In addition, it is extremely time-consuming to manually analyze the causes of inconsistent labels (requiring a manual review of every line of code). Therefore, the quantitative analysis of the actual causes of inconsistent labels may need and deserve the participation of as many researchers as possible, and perhaps even need the collaborative efforts of the whole software engineering community toward this end.

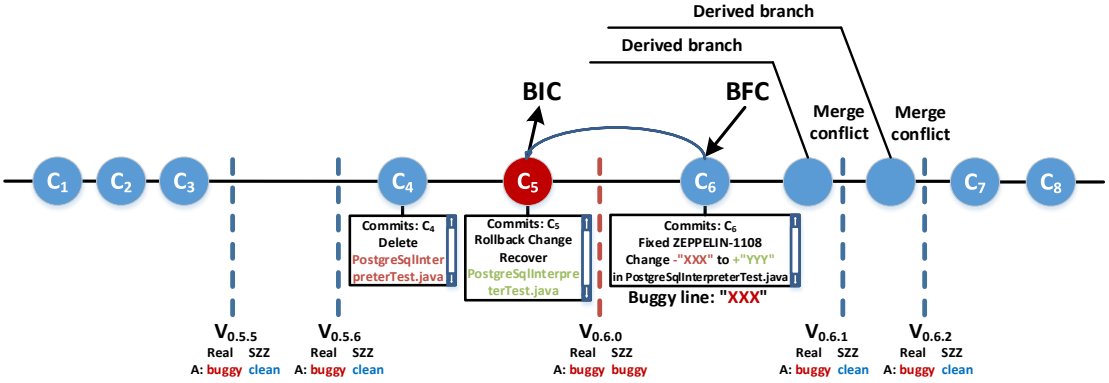


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of producing inconsistent labels in the "PostgreSqlInterpreterTest.java" instances

TABLE 1
Summary of forms of a pair of inconsistent labels caused by different factors

| Source | Occurrence Stage | | | | Mislabel | Real Labels | Inconsistent Labels |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Extrinsic bug(s) (Note: #1) | When a non-code-change external factor had changed that affect the defect status of the module: Changes in requirements, run-time environment, dependencies on the run-time environment, and bugs in external APIs | | | | FN | (buggy, buggy) | (clean, buggy) (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | | FP and FN | (clean, buggy) | (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | | Non-mislabeled | (clean, buggy) | (clean, buggy) |
| Source | Occurrence Stage | Factor type | Cause | | Mislabel | Real Labels | Inconsistent Labels |
| Mislabeling (Note: #2) | First step: identify BFCs | Incomplete or incorrect data in VCS and ITS (i.e. errors in issue reports and/or commits) | Misidentified/unrecognized BFCs | | FP | (clean, clean) | (clean, buggy) (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | | FN | (buggy, buggy) | (clean, buggy) (buggy, clean) |
| | Second step: analyze BFCs to determine which modules in a version are defective | Factors specific to a defect label collection approach (Note: #3) | SZZ-based | Imperfect code backtracking (non-source-code modification) | FP | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, clean) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | | | V1.2, V1.3 (clean, clean) | V1.2, V1.3 (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | Rollback change (type I) | FN | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, buggy) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | Rollback change (type II) | | V1.2, V1.3 (buggy, buggy) | V1.2, V1.3 (buggy, clean) |
| | | | Time-window | Mixed-purpose BFC(s) | FP | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, clean) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | | | V1.2, V1.3 (clean, clean) | V1.2, V1.3 (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | Incorrect time window length | FN | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, buggy) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | Affected version | Mixed-purpose BFC(s) | FP | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, clean) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | | | V1.2, V1.3 (clean, clean) | V1.2, V1.3 (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | Ignorance of non-earliest affected version(s) | FN | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, buggy) | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, clean) |
| | | | | Missing version(s) | FN | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, buggy) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | Error record(s) | FP | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, clean) | V1.1, V1.2 (clean, buggy) |
| | | | | | FN | V1.3, V1.4 (buggy, buggy) | V1.3, V1.4 (clean, buggy) |
| | | Factors common to all defect label collection approaches (Note: #4) | Branch-merge conflict | | FN | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, buggy) | V1.1, V1.2 (buggy, clean) |

#1 Inconsistent labels caused by extrinsic bugs can also be seen in Fig. 8 of our paper.
#2 Mislabeling here refers to mislabeling caused by factors other than extrinsic bug(s). Formally, the mislabeling corresponds to two situations: "buggy" is marked "clean", and "clean" is marked "buggy".
#3 Please refer to Fig. 9-14 (Section 4.1) for situations that generating inconsistent labels.
#4 Please refer to Fig. 15-18 (Section 4.2) for situations that generating inconsistent labels.
#5 The labels marked in red in the last column represent mislabels.

## A.2. Summary of forms of a pair of inconsistent labels caused by different factors

Our study combines theoretical analysis and reverse analysis to distill the causes behind inconsistent labeling. On the one hand, by reading literature, we theoretically analyze which factors at each phase in a label collection process can lead to inconsistent labels. On the other hand, by manually tracing back the label collection process for real inconsistent label examples, we reversely analyze which factors can lead to inconsistent labeling.

From Section 3.2, we can see that extrinsic bugs and mislabeling are two sources of inconsistent defect labels. On the one hand, extrinsic bugs are caused by many factors in external factors outside the code of a project, including changes in requirements, dependencies on the run-time environment, changes to the environment, and bugs in external APIs [7, 8, 9]. If there is no mislabeling, extrinsic bugs will lead to inconsistent but correct defect labels. On the other hand, mislabeling can also lead to inconsistent defect labels, regardless of whether intrinsic or extrinsic bugs are involved. The factors causing mislabeling can be classified to two categories: (1) incomplete or incorrect data in VCS and ITS; and (2) an imperfect defect label collection mechanism or implementation. In practice, multiple factors with respect to extrinsic bugs and mislabeling may be tangled together, leading to inconsistent defect labels in a multi-version-project data set.

When collecting defect labels, all the SZZ-based, time-window, and affected version approaches are not aware of bug categories (intrinsic and extrinsic). As mentioned before, at a high level, they consist of two steps: (1) identify BFCs usually by linking commits for fixing bugs recorded in VCS to issue reports recorded in ITS; and (2) analyze BFCs to determine which modules in a version are defective. At the first step, incorrect or incomplete data in VCS and ITS may result in many missing links (i.e., many BFCs are not found) and many incorrect links (i.e., many identified BFCs are not correct). For the former, the main reason is that developers may forget to write specific keywords in the logs of commits in VCS or leave links for commit log in issue report description in ITS [10-18]. It is also possible that some BFCs are not recorded in VCS or some issues are not recorded in ITS [19, 20]. For the latter, the main reason is that many issues reported as bugs in ITS are actually requests for new features, bad documentation, or refactoring [21]. In particular, BFCs may contain non-fixing changes

[22, 23]. At the second step, even if all the BFCs are correctly identified at the first step, an inaccurate defect label collection mechanism can also introduce mislabels (see Sections 4.1 and 4.2 of our paper).

Table 1 summarizes the factors behind inconsistent labeling that we have found so far, including the source (the 1st column), the occurrence stage (the 2nd column), the type of mislabel (the 3rd column), the real label (the 4th column), and the form of inconsistent label (the last column).

In Table 1, the discovery and confirmation process for each factor is as follows:

- The discovery and confirmation of the **"extrinsic bug(s)"** factor came from the literature [7]. Inspired by [7], we make a theoretical analysis that the extrinsic bug(s) is one of the causes of inconsistent labels. Please see Section 2.2 and the example shown in Fig. 8 in Section 3.2 of our paper for details.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"non-source code modification"** factor is inspired by literatures [6, 24-26] (see the example shown in Fig. 9 in Section 4.1 and Section 8.1 of our paper for details) and our manual verification. By changing our MA-SZZ code to original SZZ, we verified that non-source code modification factor do lead to mislabels and further lead to inconsistent labels.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"rollback change"** factor is derived from our manual analysis of BIC and BFC commits of motivational examples 1 and 4 (see the above Appendix A.1 for details).
- The **inaccuracy of the time-window mechanism** is demonstrated by literatures [2-4]. Please see Section 2.2 and the example shown in Fig. 11 in Section 4.1 of our paper and the motivational example 2 in the above Appendix A.1 for details.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"mixed-purpose BFC(s)" factor** is inspired by literatures [22, 23]. We find that the time-window approach and affected version approach do not exclude mixed-purpose BFC(s), which can lead to inconsistent labels. Please see the examples shown in Fig. 9 and Fig. 11-14 in Section 4.1 of our paper for details.
- The discovery of the **"ignorance of non-earliest affected version(s)"** stems from our analysis of the method description used in literature [5]. By manually analyzing the developer's records of issue reports, we find that the reported bugs affect not only the earliest version, but also other versions that were recorded. Please the example shown in Fig. 12 in Section 4.1 of our paper and the motivational example 3 in the above Appendix A.1 for details.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"missing version(s)"** factor is derived from our manual analysis of issue reports of motivational examples 3. Please see the above Appendix A.1 for details.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"error record(s)"** factor is inspired by literature [1] and our manual verification. The literature [1] showed that the *affected version* field can be filled with incorrect values. Through manual analysis of issue reports, we confirm the existence of incorrect version records in the *affected version* field. Please the example shown in Fig. 14 in Section 4.1 of our paper and the motivational example 3 in the above Appendix A.1 for details.
- The discovery and confirmation of the **"branch-merge conflict"** factor is derived from our manual analysis of BIC and BFC commits of motivational examples 4. During the forward and backward tracking of BIC and BFC, we find the phenomenon of branch missing. Further, by analyzing all branch histories in GIT, we confirm that the "branch-merge conflict" factor is one of the causes of inconsistent labels. Please see the motivational example 4 in the above Appendix A.1 for details.

## Appendix B. TSILI: A three stage inconsistent label identification approach

This section introduces our proposed TSILI approach, including objective, algorithm flow, effectiveness analysis, time complexity, running time, influencing factors and implication.

### B.1. Objective and principle of inconsistent label detection

The objective of inconsistent label detection is to find cross-version instances with inconsistent labels (i.e., the same code but different defect labels) from multi-version defect data sets. For intuitive understanding, we use the example shown in Fig. 3 to describe. Assume that a multi version defect data set has five versions ($V_1$~$V_5$); $X_1$, $X_2$ and $X_3$ are three cross-version instances, in which $X_2$ only exists in $V_1$, $V_3$, $V_4$ and $V_5$. The defect label of an instance is represented by "0" (non-defective) or "1" (defective). If the code of an instance is the same on both versions, we use a black line to connect it. In this context, the defect labels of $X_1$ on ($V_1$, $V_2$, $V_3$) are inconsistent labels, because the code of $X_1$ on ($V_1$, $V_2$, $V_3$) is the same, but the defect labels are different. Although the code of $X_1$ on ($V_4$, $V_5$) is the same, the defect labels of $X_1$ on ($V_4$, $V_5$) are not inconsistent labels because the defect labels are the same. Similarly, the defect labels of $X_2$ on ($V_1$, $V_3$) are inconsistent labels. The defect labels of $X_3$ on ($V_1$, $V_3$) and ($V_2$, $V_4$) are inconsistent labels. For a single version, the instances with inconsistent labels on $V_1$ and $V_3$ are ($X_1$, $X_2$, $X_3$), the instances with inconsistent labels on $V_2$ are ($X_1$, $X_3$), the instances with inconsistent labels on $V_4$ are ($X_3$), and the instances with inconsistent labels are not included on $V_5$. By detecting inconsistent labels, we can investigate the degree of inconsistent labels on each version of a collected defect data set, so as to assist in evaluating the label quality of a collected defect data set.

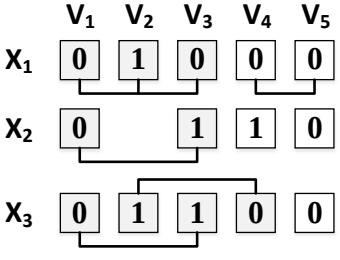


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of inconsistent label detection

## B.2. Algorithm

To automatically identify inconsistent labels in a multi-version-project defect data set, we propose an efficient and effective approach called **T**hree **S**tage **I**nconsistent **L**abel **I**dentification (TSILI). For the simplicity of presentation, we assume that a project consists of $n$ versions. For each version $V_i$, let $DV_i$ be the corresponding defect data set and $SV_i$ be the corresponding source code database, $1 \le i \le n$. In this context, the task of TSILI is to identify inconsistent labels for the multi-version-project defect data set consisting of $DV_1$, $DV_2$, …, and $DV_n$ (in the following, $DV_i$ will be called a component defect data set). Specifically, for each component defect data set $DV_i$, TSILI aims to add a feature to indicate which instances have inconsistent labels, $i \le n$. To this end, TSILI proceeds as follows. At the first stage (see Section B.2.1), given the inputs of a multi-version-project defect data set and the corresponding source code databases, an information table is generated to record those instances whose source codes can be found. At the second stage, the elements in the information table are analyzed to identify instances with inconsistent labels, i.e. those cross-version instances with the same name, the same source code, but different defect labels (see Section B.2.2). At the third stage, for each instance in the multi-version-project defect data set, a feature is added to indicate whether its label is inconsistent or not based on the inconsistent label information recorded in the information table (see Section B.2.3).

### *B.2.1. Stage 1: Generate an Information Table Recording Instances in all Versions*

For the first stage, the inputs are a multi-version-project defect data set (i.e. $DV_1$, $DV_2$, …, and $DV_n$) and the corresponding source code databases (i.e. $SV_1$, $SV_2$, …, and $SV_n$).

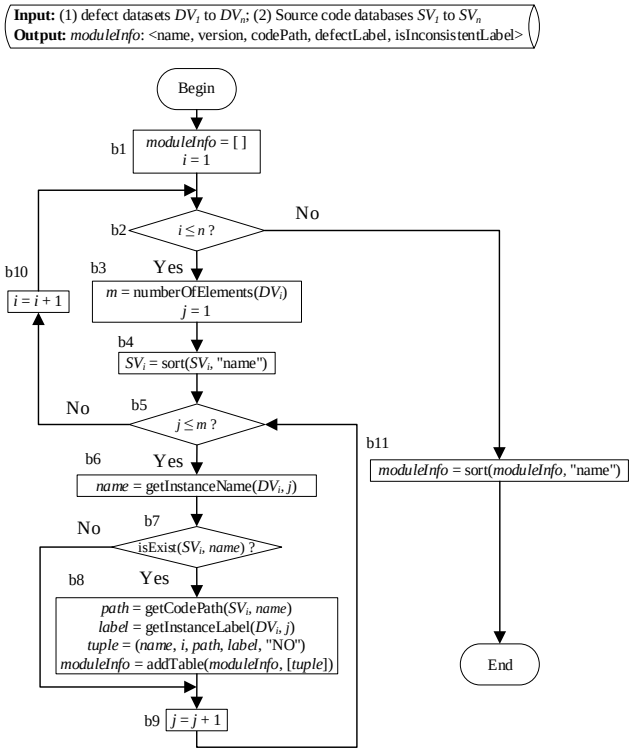


Fig. 4. The flowchart of generating an information table recording all instances in all versions

The output is an information table *moduleInfo* recording the following information for those instances whose source codes can be found in the source code databases: (1) "name": the name of an instance in multi-version-project defect data set (i.e. the name of the corresponding module in the source code databases); (2) "version": the version number of the project that the corresponding module of an instance belongs to; (3) "codePath": the path of the file in which the source code of the corresponding module of an instance is located; (4) "defectLabel": the defect label of an instance in the multi-version-project defect data set ("0" is clean and "1" is buggy); and (5) "isInconsistentLabel": whether the defect label is an inconsistent label ("NO" means non-inconsistent label, while "YES" means an inconsistent label).

As shown in Fig. 4, the first stage proceeds as follows. First, set *moduleInfo* as an empty table (b1). Second, analyze the multi-version-project defect data set and the corresponding source code databases to generate *moduleInfo* (b2~b10). Specifically, for each instance in $DV_i$, examine whether its name appears in $SV_i$ (b7). If the answer is "Yes", obtain the path of the corresponding source code recorded in $SV_i$ and the corresponding defect label recorded in $DV_i$. With such information, a five-tuple (i.e. <name, version, codePath, defectLabel, isInconsistentLabel>) is generated and added to *moduleInfo*, in which "isInconsistentLabel" is set as "NO" (b8). Third, sort the elements (each element is a five-tuple, corresponding to an instance) in *moduleInfo* in ascending order according to the instance name (b11). As a result, the instances with the same name on different versions (i.e. cross-version instances) are grouped together. This will facilitate the identification of cross-version instances with inconsistent labels in the next stage.

### *B.2.2. Stage 2: Identify Cross-version Instances with Inconsistent Labels*

For the second stage, the input is the information table *moduleInfo* generated in the first stage, in which all the instances have the same "NO" value for the attribute "isInconsitentLabel". The output is an updated *moduleInfo* in which inconsistent labels have been recorded, i.e. instances with inconsistent labels have a value "Yes" for the attribute "isInconsitentLabel".

As shown in Fig. 5, the second stage proceeds as follows. First, divide the elements (i.e. instances) in *moduleInfo* into different groups by their "name" values (b1). Within each group, the instances have the same instance name but are from different versions, i.e. they are cross-version instances. Second, for each group, identify which instances have the same source code but different defect labels (b2~b19). Specifically, for each group, obtain the corresponding set of defect labels *labelSet*. If $|labelSet| == 1$, skip this group as there is no inconsistent label (b19). Otherwise, the instances in the group are partitioned into equivalence classes by comparing their source codes (b6~b18). Within each equivalence class, the instances not only have the same name but also have the same source code. In order to reduce the influence of code format, the following measures are taken to format the code (b9) before the partition (b11): filter out comments and replace consecutive whitespaces and newlines with one whitespace character. For each

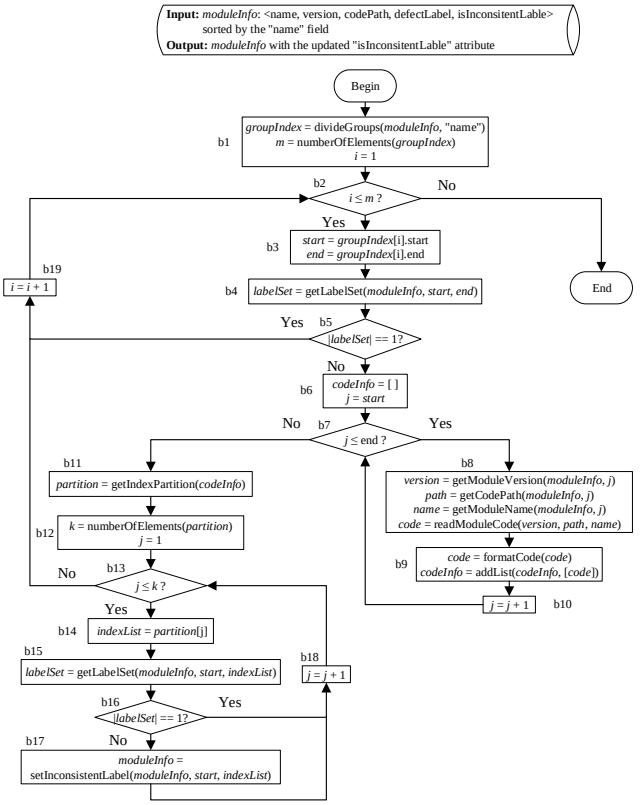


Fig. 5. The flowchart of identifying cross-version instances with inconsistent labels

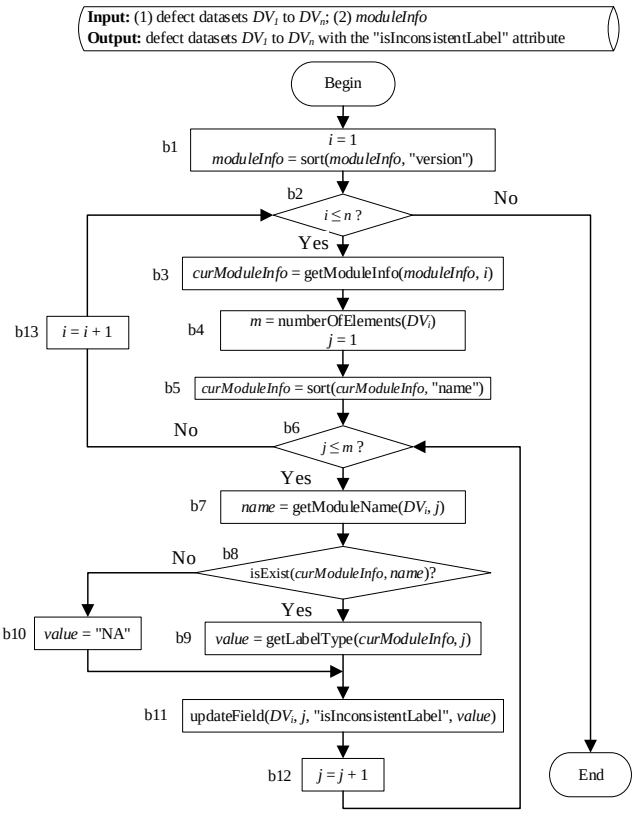


Fig. 6. The flowchart of augmenting the multi-version-project defect data set with inconsistent labels

equivalence class, examine whether all the instances have the same label (b16). If the answer is "No", this means that the instances in this equivalence class have inconsistent labels and update *moduleInfo* to record this information accordingly (b17). When the second stage terminates, it outputs *moduleInfo* with the updated "isInconsitentLabel" attribute.

#### *B.2.3. Stage 3: Augmenting the Multi-version-project Defect Data Set with Inconsistent Labels*

For the third stage, the input is the multi-version-project defect data set (i.e. $DV_1$, $DV_2$, …, and $DV_n$) and the information table *moduleInfo* generated at the second stage (in which all the instances have the "Yes" or "NO" value for the feature "isInconsitentLabel"). The output is the multi-version-project defect data set augmented with the feature "isInconsitentLabel" that indicates whether an instance has an inconsistent label: "NO" means non-inconsistent, "YES" means inconsistent, and "NA" means unknown (for an instance, if the corresponding source code cannot be found, its feature "isInconsitentLabel" will be assigned an "NA" value).

As shown in Fig. 6, the third stage proceeds as follows. First, sort the elements in *moduleInfo* according to their "version" values so that the instances whose corresponding modules belong to the same version are grouped together (b1). Second, for each component defect data set, add a feature "isInconsitentLabel" and set its value for each instance based on the inconsistent label information recorded in *moduleInfo* (b2~b13). Specifically, for $DV_i$, take all the elements belonging to the *i*th version from *moduleInfo* to *curModuleInfo* (b3). For each instance in $DV_i$, examine whether its name appears in *curModuleInfo* (b8). If the answer is "Yes", set its "isInconsitentLabel" as the corresponding value recorded in *curModuleInfo*; otherwise, set its "isInconsitentLabel" as a value of "NA" (b9~b11). When the third stage terminates, it outputs a multi-version-project defect data set augmented with inconsistent label information.

### B.3. Effectiveness and time complexity

**Effectiveness**. For TSILI, the core is to examine whether two cross-version instances have the exactly same (non-comment, non-blank) source code after excluding the influence of code format. In order to check the correctness of code comparison, we compare the results obtained from TSILI and Bcompare[5] (a commercial code comparison tool). On six different multi-version-project defect data sets, TSILI found a total of 10194 instances with inconsistent labels, in which 3628 different module names are involved (see Section 6.2). We extracted a statistically significant sample that was created based on 3628 with a confidence level of 99% and a margin of error of 5%, resulting in a stratified sample of 563 module names[6]. For each of 563 module names, we first sampled a pair of the corresponding cross-version instances with inconsistent labels. Then, we used Bcompare to compare their code. We found, after ignoring the factors such as comments and line feeds, Bcompare always produced the same result as reported by

[5] https://www.scootersoftware.com

[6] https://www.calculator.net/sample-size-calculator.html?type=1&cl=99&ci=5&pp=50&ps=3628&x=96&y=19

TSILI, i.e., the two modules were believed to have the same code. This is in line with expectations, because the code comparison function in TSILI is based on the Python APIs provided by the Understand[7] tool (a code analysis tool), while Bcompare is based on its own underlying API implementation. Both Understand and Bcompare are mature commercial software, which ensures the correctness of code comparison. Through the above inspections, we ensure the effectiveness of our TSILI algorithm (at least it did not produce false positive under our investigation). However, there may be a small number of inconsistent labels that cannot be recognized by TSILI due to objective factors, which will be discussed in Section B.5.

**Time complexity**. As mentioned above, for TSILI, the inputs are a multi-version-project defect data set (i.e. $DV_1$, $DV_2$, …, and $DV_n$) and the corresponding source code databases (i.e. $SV_1$, $SV_2$, …, and $SV_n$). In order to facilitate the complexity analysis of TSILI, we assume that: (1) $SV_i$ consists of $s_i$ modules and $DV_i$ consists of $d_i$ instances, $1 \le i \le n$; (2) $e_i$ is the number of instances in the intersection of $SV_i$ and $DV_i$, $1 \le i \le n$; (3) $s = \max(\{s_i \mid 1 \le i \le n\})$ and $d = \max(\{d_i \mid 1 \le i \le n\})$; and (4) $S = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i$ and $D = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i$. Let $E$ be the number of elements in the information table *moduleInfo*. Therefore, we have $E = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i$, $E \le S$, and $E \le D$. Furthermore, assume that $l$ is the number of characters of the module that has the most characters in the source code databases. Note that, for a given software version $V_i$, if the defect data collection process is accurate, we should have $e_i = s_i = d_i$, $1 \le i \le n$. In practice, however, due to a variety of unknown reasons, $s_i$ may be different from $d_i$, $1 \le i \le n$. In the following, for the simplicity of presentation, the former is called the "IDEAL" condition, while the latter is called the "REAL" condition.

The total time complexity of TSILI is equal to the sum of the time complexities of its three stages.

- Stage 1 has a time complexity of $O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s))$. The first stage consists of three parts: initialize *moduleInfo* (b1), generate *moduleInfo* (b2~b10), and sort *moduleInfo* (b11). The first part has a time complexity of O(1), while the third part has a time complexity of $O(E\times\log(E))$ (e.g. using quick sort). At the second part, each instance is examined one time, in which all statements but b4 and b7 have a complexity of O(1). As for b4, each execution requires $s_i\times\log(s_i)$ comparisons. Since b4 is executed $n$ times, the total number of comparisons is: $s_1\times\log(s_1) + \ldots + s_n\times\log(s_n) < S\times\log(S)$. As for b7, since $SV_i$ has been sorted, each search is a binary search and requires at most $\log(s)$ comparisons. Since b7 is executed $D$ times, the total number of comparisons is $D\times\log(s)$. Therefore, the time complexity of the second part is at most $O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s))$. As a result, stage 1 at most has a time complexity: $O(1) + O(E\times\log(E)) + O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s)) = O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s))$.
- Stage 2 has a time complexity of $O(E\times\log(n)\times l)$. The second stage consists of two parts: group instances (b1) and identify inconsistent labels (b2~b19). Since *moduleInfo* has already been sorted, the first part has a time complexity of $O(E)$. The second part iterates over each group: if the instances in the current group do not have the same label (b3~b5), then get the code (a filtered string) for each instance (b6~b10), partition instances into equivalence classes by the same code (b11), iterate over each equivalence class to examine the label (b12~b18). For the second part, "formatCode" in b9 and "getIndexPartition" in b11 dominate the time complexity. In "formatCode", the code is parsed to filter out comments, newlines, and extra spaces. For each execution, its time complexity is proportional to the code length (at most $l$). Since "formatCode" is executed at most $E$ times, the total time complexity of "formatCode" in b9 is at most $O(E\times l)$. In "getIndexPartition", the instances in the same group are compared by their codes to obtain equivalence classes. For a group with $x$ instances, the equivalence class partition can be performed by $x \times \log(x) \times l$ comparisons, i.e. each element needs $\log(x) \times l$ comparisons. Since $x$ is at most $n$ and the total number of instances in *moduleInfo* is $E$, the total time complexity of "getIndexPartition" in b11 is $O(E\times\log(n)\times l)$. As a result, stage 2 at most has a time complexity: $O(E) + O(E\times l) + O(E\times\log(n)\times l) = O(E\times\log(n)\times l)$.
- Stage 3 has a time complexity of $O(E\times\log(E) + D\times\log(d))$. The third stage consists of two parts: sort *moduleInfo* (b1) and augment the multi-version-project data set (b2~b13). The first part has a time complexity of $O(E\times\log(E))$. At the second part, each instance in the multi-version-project data set is examined one time, in which "sort" in b5 and "isExist" in b8 dominates the time complexity. For "sort" in b5, each execution requires $e_i\times\log(e_i)$ comparisons. Since b5 is executed $n$ times, the total number of comparisons is: $e_1\times\log(e_1) + \ldots + e_n\times\log(e_n) < E\times\log(E)$. For "isExist" in b8, since *curModuleInfo* has already been sorted, each search is a binary search and requires at most $\log(d)$ comparisons. Since b8 is executed at most $D$ times, the total number of comparisons is at most $D\times\log(d)$. Therefore, the time complexity of the second part is at most $O(E\times\log(E) + D\times\log(d))$. As a result, stage 3 at most has a time complexity: $O(E\times\log(E)) + O(E\times\log(E) + D\times\log(d)) = O(E\times\log(E) + D\times\log(d))$.

Therefore, under the "REAL" condition, at the worst case, the total time complexity of TSILI is: $O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s)) + O(E\times\log(n)\times l) + O(E\times\log(E) + D\times\log(d)) = O(S\times\log(S) + D\times\log(s) + E\times\log(n)\times l + D\times\log(d))$. Under the "IDEAL" condition, at the worst case, the total time complexity of TSILI will become $O(D\times\log(D) + D\times\log(n)\times l)$ (since $d < D$, $s = d$, and $E = S = D$).

### B.4. The running time of our TSILI algorithm

The method we adopted to generate the source code databases required by the TSILI algorithm is to download the

TABLE 2
Time consuming of the TSILI algorithm

| Dataset | Project (versions) | n, totalIns, sumSLOC | Running Time | Experimental environment |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Metrics-Repo-2010 | Log4j (1.0, 1.1, 1.2) | n=3, totalIns=411, sumSLOC=74857 | ≈ 25 seconds | Inter(R) Core(TM) i7-7700 CPU @ 3.6GHz and 16G RAM |
| JIRA-RA-2019 | Hive (0.9.0, 0.10.0, 0.12.0) | n=3, totalIns=5285, sumSLOC=974774 | ≈ 11 minutes | |
| ECLIPSE-2007 | Eclipse (2.0, 2.1, 3.0) | n=3, totalIns=25203, sumSLOC=3089619 | ≈ 3 hours | |

[7] http://scitools.com

codes corresponding to each version from the official website of each target project, and then use the Understand[8] tool to parse the code to generate source code databases (.udb file). We write a Python[9] script to implement the TSILI algorithm. In the second stage of TSILI, the source code of each module is parsed and filtered (b9 in Fig. 5) based on the Python API (application programming interface) provided by the Understand tool.

In order to observe the time required for the TSILI algorithm to detect inconsistent labels on projects of different orders of magnitude, we selected Log4j, Hive, and Eclipse projects from multi-version-project defect data sets Metrics-Repo-2010 [2], JIRA-RA-2019 [4], and ECLIPSE-2007 [5], respectively, and then ran TSILI and recorded the time spent. Table 2 lists the details of these three projects and the single thread running time of TSILI. The 2nd column lists the versions included in each project. The 3rd column lists the order of magnitude of the project size, where *n*, *totalIns*, and *sumSLOC* represent the number of versions, the total number of instances of all versions, and the total number of code lines of all versions, respectively. The 4th column reports the running time of TSILI. These three projects (Log4j, Hive, and Eclipse) were selected because they represented orders of magnitude of the size of the projects in their respective data sets (the ECLIPSE-2007 data set only has the Eclipse project). In addition, the size of the total number of instances of these three projects varies in turn by one order of magnitude, which is conducive to observe the running time of TSILI under different orders of magnitude data sets.

Table 2 shows that the running time of TSILI is positively correlated with the size of the data set. For the project with hundreds of instances (i.e., Log4j project), the running time is at the second level. For the projects with ten thousands of instances (i.e., Eclipse project), the running time is at the hour level. Because TSILI is an offline algorithm, the hour-level (even minute-level or second-level) running time is acceptable in practice.

### B.5. What factors would influence the number of inconsistent labels identified by the TSILI algorithm?

Section B.3 shows that our TSILI algorithm is effective in identifying inconsistent labels. The rationale of TSILI is simple: it only needs to compare the source code and defect labels of cross-version instances, without any other complex procedures and additional information. Therefore, the following question naturally arises: Can TSILI identify all identify inconsistent labels in a defect data set? The answer is No. Because, in practice, there are three factors that can influence the number of inconsistent labels that the TSILI algorithm can identify. First, TSILI cannot be applied to cross-version instances that have no source code. For example, for the Camel project in the JIRA-HA-2019 [4] and JIRA-RA-2019 [4] data sets, the cross-version instance "package-info.java" contains only comment statements. In addition, due to unknown reasons, about 1%~9% instance cannot be found in the source codes downloaded from the official websites. Specifically, for ECLIPSE-2007 [5], JIRA-HA-2019, and JIRA-RA-2019, about <1% instances in 77% (60/78) versions cannot be found; for IND-JLMIV+R-2020 [1], about 1%~9% instances in 13% (51/395) versions cannot be found; for METRICS-REPO-2010 [2], about 1%~7% instances in 78% (25/32) versions cannot be found[10]. In this case, for these instances, it is not possible to apply TSILI to identify inconsistent labels. Second, if the path name or file name of a cross-version instance has changed between versions, the TSILI algorithm is unable to detect inconsistent labels, even if its source code remain no change. In our implementation, TSILI identifies a cross-version instance (or module) among versions based on its full name (path name + file name). If the full name is changed, a cross-version instance will be treated as two different instances. In this case, TSILI may miss inconsistent labels. In our study, we did observe such a phenomenon in the investigated multi-version-project defect data sets, although it did not happen often. Third, the number of versions used will influence the number of inconsistent labels that TSILI can identify. As reported in [19, 20], for a project, it was common that a considerable proportion of bugs in a low version would not be discovered until in high versions. In our study, for ECLIPSE-2007, METRICS-REPO-2010, JIRA-HA-2019, and JIRA-RA-2019, each project contains only three to five versions. Nonetheless, TSILI still found a large number of inconsistent labels. Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that more inconsistent labels can be identified if more versions are analyzed, i.e., the multi-version-project defect data sets investigated in our study should contain more inconsistent labels than reported in Section 5.1 in our paper. This means that the influence of inconsistent labels may be underestimated in our study.

### B.6. Can software metrics be used as a proxy of source code to identify inconsistent labels?

In TSILI, inconsistent labels are regarded as found if a cross-version instance has the same source code but different labels in different versions. During this process, there is a need to compare source code to identify cross-version instances. However, in practice, it is common to see that a data set only provides for each instance a number of software metrics (i.e. features) and a label indicating whether it is defective. In other words, source code is external information for a defect data set, which needs to be acquired additionally. In this context, an interesting question naturally arises: Can we use software metrics as a proxy of source code to identify cross-version instances? Indeed, in previous studies [27-29], it is not uncommon to see that software metric information is used to identify "inconsistent instances" in a defect data set. In [27, 29], if two instances in a version had identical values for all features but different labels, they were called "inconsistent instances". In [28], inconsistent cross-version instances were also examined. In their view, inconsistent instances are problematic in the context of machine learning and hence should

[8] https://scitools.com
[9] https://www.python.org
[10] The exceptions are that in IND-JLMIV+R-2020, only 73% and 78% instances of "santuario-java-1.2.0" and "commons-math-1.1" can be found; In METRICS-REPO-2010, only 85% and 86% instances of "log4j-1.0" and "xerces-1.4" can be found, respectively.

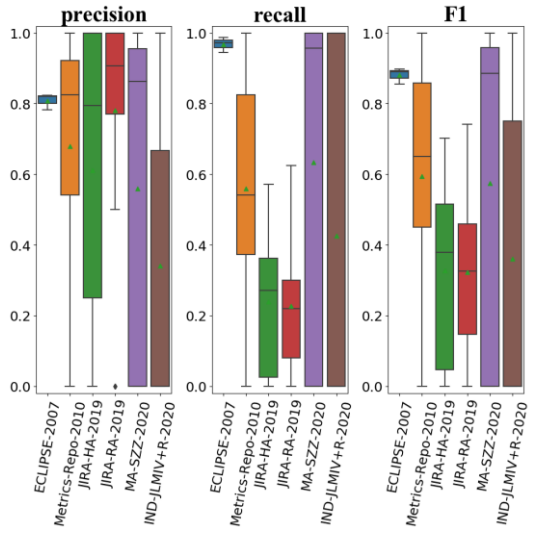


Fig. 7. Distribution of prediction performance scores of SMI for detecting inconsistent labels

be excluded when building and evaluating a defect prediction model. As can be seen, the concept of their inconsistent cross-version instances is very similar to the concept cross-version instances with "inconsistent labels" in our study. The difference is that the former uses software metrics rather than source code to identify cross-version instances. At a glance, it seems that we could use software metrics to replace source code to identify cross-version instances in our study. In fact, such a replacement is problematic due to the following two-fold reasons. On the one hand, the fact that two instances have identical source code does not necessarily mean that they have identical values for all features (i.e. metrics). The reason is that many metrics depend on the use context of an instance rather than only on its source code. For example, two functions with identical code may have different values for the "called-by number" feature. On the other hand, the fact that two instances have identical values for all features does not necessarily mean that they have identical source code. For example, it is possible that two instances with different source code have identical values for all features. As a result, if we use software metrics as a proxy to identify cross-version instances, it is possible to miss real "inconsistent labels" or report false "inconsistent labels", thus leading to a low accuracy of inconsistent label identification. Given this situation, we should not use software metrics as a proxy to identify inconsistent labels.

We next use the inconsistent labels identified by TSILI as the ground truth to empirically understand how good software metrics can be used as a proxy for inconsistent label identification. For the simplicity of presentation, we use SMI to denote the method that uses software metrics to identify inconsistent labels. Fig. 7 reports for SMI the *precision*, *recall*, and $F_1$ on six multi-version-project data sets. Here, *precision* denotes the percentage of inconsistent labels identified by SMI that are also identified by TSILI, *recall* denotes the percentage of inconsistent labels identified by TSILI that are also identified by SMI, and $F_1$ is the harmonic mean of *precision* and *recall*. As can be seen, for five out of the six data sets, all the three indicators vary in a large range. For ECLIPSE-2007, all the three indicators have a small variance, as the inconsistent label ratios are low on all the three versions. Furthermore, on the one hand, for most data sets, the median/mean recall is low, indicating a high false negative (i.e., real inconsistent labels are incorrectly identified as non-inconsistent labels by SMI). On the other hand, for most data sets, the median/mean precision is around or less than 0.8, indicating there is non-negligible false positive (i.e., non-inconsistent labels are incorrectly identified as inconsistent labels by SMI). Overall, the above results reveal that SMI has a low application value, even though it has a lower computation cost than TSILI.

### B.7. Implications

Our work contributes a validated automatic approach TSILI to detect inconsistent labels in defect data sets. In practice, inconsistent labels can be used as a risk indicator to evaluate the quality of defect data sets. For practitioners and researchers, this work (TSILI) has the following important implications:

(1) **Our work provides practitioners a simple but effective way to examine the quality of to examine the quality of labels in multi-version-project defect data sets before building defect prediction models.** This is helpful for them to exclude the potential label noise and hence obtain a quality defect prediction model. In practice, there are two approaches to examining the quality of a data set. The first approach is to apply a noise detection approach such as CLNI [30] to identify noisy instances, while the second approach uses manually-curated data in VCS/ITS to identify noisy instances [31]. However, for the former, it is inevitable to report false noisy instances, i.e. actually non-noisy identified as noisy. For the latter, it is time-consuming to manually curate the data. Compared with the first approach, Our TSILI approach does not report false noisy instances (i.e. false inconsistent labels). Compared with the second approach, Our TSILI approach is a light-weight approach and can be automated, as no manual curation is needed. As a result, we suggest using TSILI to examine the quality of multi-version-project defect data sets in practice.

(2) **Our work provides a means of generating (partial) noise ground truth, which can assist researchers in evaluating the effectiveness of existing noise identification approaches.** In the literature, multiple approaches have been proposed to detect the noise in a defect data set [27-30]. However, it is difficult to evaluate their effectiveness due to the following two reasons. On the one hand, it is time consuming to obtain the ground truth manually [21, 32]; on the other hand, it is difficult to obtain the ground truth for the data sets lacking background information (such as not knowing the tools, approaches, issue reports, and commits used). In this context, we recommend using our proposed TSILI approach to automatically identify inconsistent labels. As mentioned earlier, inconsistent labels mean noise data. Therefore, the identified inconsistent labels can be used as the (partial) noise ground truth to assist in the evaluation of noise identification approaches.

# Appendix C. Data sets information and software metrics used in the MA-SZZ-2020

## C.1. Multi-version-project defect data sets

In our study, we used the six multi-version-project defect data sets to conduct the experiment: ECLIPSE-2007 [5], Metrics-Repo-2010 [2, 3], JIRA-HA-2019 [4], JIRA-RA-2019 [4], MA-SZZ-2020, and IND-JLMIV+R-2020 data set [1].

- ECLIPSE-2007. This data set corresponds to one project with three versions. According to [5], an affected version approach was employed to collect the defect label data. After identifying BFCs by matching regular expressions with comments of commits, the first release listed in the "*version*" field of the corresponding issue reports in BUGZILLA was used to link defective modules to versions. During this process, the analyzed issue reports were limited to those reported in the first six months after release.
- Metrics-Repo-2010. This data set corresponds to 12 projects with 43 versions[11]. According to [2, 3], a time-window approach was used to link defective modules to versions. For each target version of interest, a tool called BugInfo was employed to identify its BFCs by regular expression matching. During this process, the time window was set to the period between the release time of the target version and the release time of the next version.
- JIRA-HA-2019. This data set corresponds to 9 projects with 32 versions. According to [4], a time-window approach (Yatish et al. regarded it as a heuristic approach, abbreviated as HA) was used to link defective modules to versions. For each target version of interest, a collection of regular expressions was applied on commit logs to identify BFCs. During this process, the time window was set as a 6-month period after the version of interest was released.
- JIRA-RA-2019. This data set was collected from the same projects as used in JIRA-HA-2019. However, an affected version approach (rather than a time-window approach) was used to link defective modules to versions. In [4], Yatish et al. regarded it as a realistic approach (abbreviated as RA). For each target version of interest, they first retrieved these issue reports in JIRA whose "*affected version*" fields listed the target version as the earliest affected version. Then, they leveraged the traceable links (provided by JIRA) between issue reports and code commits to identify BFCs. During this process, the complete history of the target version after release was analyzed in order to reduce false negative modules.
- MA-SZZ-2020. This data set corresponds to 5 projects with 50 versions. We first used MA-SZZ [6], the state-of-the-art SZZ variant, to collect BICs. When identifying BICs, the following changes were excluded: (1) non-semantic code changes (e.g. changes of annotations, spaces, and blank lines); (2) format changes (e.g. moving the bracket), and (3) meta-changes, including branch change (copy the project state from one branch to another), merge-change (apply change activity from one branch to another), property change (only impact file properties stored in the VCS). After that, we leveraged BFCs and their corresponding BICs to link defective modules to versions. Similar to [1, 4], we select Apache Java projects with Git VCS and JIRA ITS as the subject projects, because: (1) "Apache projects must have reached a certain level of maturity in order to be considered as a top-level project" [1]; and (2) they have a high (traceable) link rate between issue reports to commits[12]. In particular, they should have the property that a version with a smaller release number has an earlier release time. This property is important for the projects under consideration, as it helps accurately link defective modules to versions. To further ensure the maturity and popularity of projects, a project under consideration was required to have: (1) at least 10 versions; (2) at least 1000 stars on GitHub; and (3) at least 100 issue reports[13], each having a "Bug" *Type*, a "resolved" or "closed" *status*, and a "fixed" *Resolution*. Consequently, we obtained the following five projects: Zeppelin, Shiro, Maven, Flume, and Mahout. For each considered version of the five projects, we used a tool called "Understand" to collect 44 code metrics.
- IND-JLMIV+R-2020. This data set consists of 395 versions of 38 projects[14]. According to [1], a semi-automatic defect label collection approach was employed to collect the defect label data, which is called IND-JLMIV+R. In nature, IND-JLMIV+R is an improved SZZ-based approach combined with manual validation. It uses manual validation to identify BFCs which can be used as the ground truth and uses a variety of improved heuristic methods to improve the accuracy of SZZ approach in identifying BICs. Specifically, this approach reduces the introduction of mislabels in five ways. First, this approach uses manual classification to validate types of issue reports and correct type errors. Second, use "JIRA link" to establish the link between a BFC and an issue report. "JIRA link" refers to the fixed format (<project-ID>) used for the identifier of issue report in JIRA, and the corresponding BFC also uses the same format to indicate the fixed bug. Using "JIRA link" helps to avoid misidentification of BFCs. Third, the heuristic rules of "JIRA link" and original SZZ approach are used to search for BFCs, and then manual validation is carried out to select correct BFCs that can be used as the ground truth. Fourth, use the RA-SZZ approach [25], one of the latest SZZ variants, to identify BICs. The accuracy of RA-SZZ approach is further improved by using the RefactoringMiner [33] tool instead of RefDiff [34]. Fifth, according to the creation time of pairs of BICs and BFCs, link defective modules to ver-

[11] Note that the original Metrics-Repo-2010 data sets also include Ivy project with 1.1, 1.4, and 2.0 versions. However, we were unable to find their corresponding code from the official website and hence excluded them from our experiment.

[12] According to [18], "Apache developers are meticulous in their efforts to insert bug references in the change logs of the commits".

[13] All the issue reports had a "Created Date" less than "2019-12-03 12:00", as this was the time point we collected the data.

[14] Note: the original dataset contains 398 versions. We did not use three (santuario-java-1.5.9, parquet-mr-1.8.0, and parquet-mr-1.9.0) of them because of the lack of corresponding versions on the official website or GitHub, or because the version code cannot be parsed with the Understand tool. Considering the large number of versions of this data set, we refer the readers to Herbold [1] for the details.

TABLE 3
List of metrics in the MA-SZZ-2020 data set

| Type | Name | Definition | Tool for measuring metrics |
|---|---|---|---|
| Size Metrics | SLOC (loc in data set) | the non-commentary source lines of code in a class | We used the Perl script developed in previous studies [38, 39] to collect metrics based on the udb database, where the udb database is generated by the commercial software Understand. |
| | NMIMP | the number of methods implemented in a class | |
| | NumPara | sum of the number of parameters of the methods implemented in a class | |
| | NM | the number of methods in a class, both inherited and non-inherited | |
| | NAIMP | the number of attributes in a class excluding inherited ones | |
| | NA | the number of attributes in a class including both inherited and non-inherited | |
| | Stms | the number of declaration and executable statements in the methods of a class | |
| | Nmpub | number of public methods implemented in a class | |
| | NMNpub | number of non-public methods implemented in a class | |
| | NIM | Number of Instance Methods | |
| | NCM | Number of Class Methods | |
| | NLM | Number of Local Methods | |
| | AvgSLOC | Average Source Lines of Code | |
| Complexity Metrics | CDE | Class Definition Entropy | |
| | CIE | Class Implementation Entropy | |
| | WMC | Weighted Method Per Class | |
| | SDMC | Standard Deviation Method Complexity | |
| | AvgWMC | Average Weight Method Complexity | |
| | CCMax | Maximum cyclomatic complexity of a single method of a class | |
| | NTM | Number of Trivial Methods | |
| Coupling Metrics | CBO | Coupling Between Object | |
| | DAC | Data Abstraction Coupling: Type is the number of attributes of other classes. | |
| | DACquote | Data Abstraction Coupling: Type is the number of other classes. | |
| | ICP | Information-flow-based Coupling | |
| | IHICP | Information-flow-based inheritance Coupling | |
| | NIHICP | Information-flow-based non-inheritance Coupling | |
| Inheritance Metrics | NOC | Number Of Child Classes | |
| | NOP | Number Of Parent Classes | |
| | DIT | Depth of Inheritance Tree | |
| | AID | Average Inheritance Depth of a class | |
| | CLD | Class-to-Leaf Depth | |
| | NOD | Number Of Descendants | |
| | NOA | Number Of Ancestors | |
| | NMO | Number of Methods Overridden | |
| | NMI | Number of Methods Inherited | |
| | NMA | Number Of Methods Added | |
| | SIX | Specialization IndeX = NMO * DIT / (NMO + NMA + NMI) | |
| | PII | Pure Inheritance Index. | |
| | SPA | static polymorphism in ancestors | |
| | SPD | static polymorphism in descendants | |
| | DPA | dynamic polymorphism in ancestors | |
| | DPD | dynamic polymorphism in descendants | |
| | SP | static polymorphism in inheritance relations | |
| | DP | dynamic polymorphism in inheritance relations | |

sions (SZZ-based approach described in Section 2.1). After the above steps, the IND-JLMIV+R approach can be expected to have a high accuracy in defect data collection. In this sense, the IND-JLMIV+R-2020 data set collected by IND-JLMIV+R is expected to contain little or even no inconsistent labels.

### C.2. Software metrics used in the MA-SZZ-2020

Table 3 describes the size, complexity, coupling, and inheritance metrics in the MA-SZZ-2020 we collected. Note that for IND-JLMIV+R-2020, we use the same 44 code metrics as MA-SZZ-2020 to conduct our experiments, as the number of features in the original IND-JLMIV+R-2020 data set is far more than the number of instances. Prior studies found that when the EPV (Events Per Variable) index [35] is less than a certain value (usually 5 or 10), the performance of a model will be very unstable [36]. Due to the limitation of space, the metrics of other data sets can be found in the data sets in the online appendix[15] or refer to the original literature.

In Table 3, column "Type" represents the type to which each metric belongs to, column "Name" gives the acronym of each metric, column "Definition" provides an informal description of the corresponding metric, and column "Tool for measuring metrics" gives the source of the tool that we measure metrics from. Note that inheritance metrics are indeed a form of coupling metrics. In practice, however, many researchers distinguish inheritance metrics from coupling metrics. Our study follows a metric classification framework similar to that in Briand et al. [37].

## Appendix D. Supplementary results

In Sections 5.2 (influence on prediction performance) and 5.3 (influence on model evaluation), "CC vs. NC" and "NC vs. NN", are respectively used to investigate the influence of inconsistent labels in the training set on the model performance and the influence of inconsistent labels in the test set on the model evaluation. In this section, we report the results of more indicators for reference.

### D.1. Performance indicator

**Performance Indicators**. In the defect prediction scenario,

[15] http://github.com/sticeran/InconsistentLabels

TABLE 4
The comparison of prediction performance: CC vs. NC

| Learner | Metric | Median CC | Median NC | +/0/– | P-value | Effect size |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LR | *precision* | 0.23 | 0.208 | 78/2/17 | 2.27E-14 | 0.697 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.354 | 0.333 | 74/1/22 | 1.77E-10 | 0.600 (L) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 20/59/18 | 0.64 | 0.037 |
| NB | *precision* | 0.223 | 0.194 | 74/1/22 | 3.19E-11 | 0.621 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.352 | 0.306 | 68/1/28 | 7.77E-07 | 0.472 (M) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 20/56/21 | 0.549 | 0.013 |
| RF | *precision* | 0.689 | 0.654 | 58/13/26 | 1.43E-04 | 0.363 (M) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.729 | 0.699 | 55/12/30 | 0.002 | 0.286 (S) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 12/70/15 | 0.29 | -0.057 |
| MLP | *precision* | 0.37 | 0.357 | 63/1/33 | 4.84E-04 | 0.331 (M) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.498 | 0.497 | 60/0/37 | 0.003 | 0.275 (S) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 29/40/28 | 0.492 | -0.002 |
| ADT | *precision* | 0.3 | 0.256 | 62/2/33 | 5.12E-04 | 0.330 (M) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.4 | 0.358 | 64/1/32 | 1.12E-04 | 0.369 (M) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 14/56/27 | 0.01 | -0.235 (S) |
| SVM | *precision* | 0.217 | 0.192 | 73/1/23 | 9.46E-12 | 0.635 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.334 | 0.31 | 73/0/24 | 8.27E-09 | 0.547 (L) |
| | *IFA* | 2 | 2 | 16/43/38 | 0.002 | -0.289 (S) |

(1) +/0/–: CC has a larger/the same/a smaller performance value compared with NC
(2) L: large, M: moderate, S: small

TABLE 5
The sum of IFA: CC vs. NC

| Learner | Metric | Sum CC | Sum NC |
|---|---|---|---|
| LR | *IFA* | 81 | 90 |
| NB | | 115 | 81 |
| RF | | 64 | 71 |
| MLP | | 122 | 122 |
| ADT | | 130 | 254 |
| SVM | | 632 | 718 |

TABLE 6
The comparison of prediction performance: NC vs. NN

| Learner | Metric | Median CC | Median NC | +/0/– | P-value | Effect size |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LR | *precision* | 0.246 | 0.273 | 19/9/78 | 5.22E-10 | -0.572 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.369 | 0.371 | 47/0/59 | 0.085 | -0.167 (S) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 2/104/0 | 0.5 | 0.137 (S) |
| NB | *precision* | 0.24 | 0.247 | 14/5/87 | 4.96E-11 | -0.600 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.34 | 0.36 | 40/0/66 | 0.029 | -0.211 (S) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 2/102/2 | 1 | 0.001 |
| RF | *precision* | 0.641 | 0.64 | 45/16/45 | 0.567 | 0.056 |
| | $F_1$ | 0.676 | 0.632 | 80/1/25 | 9.47E-10 | 0.564 (L) |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 4/100/2 | 0.688 | 0.078 |
| MLP | *precision* | 0.384 | 0.389 | 25/10/71 | 5.45E-07 | -0.471 (M) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.461 | 0.472 | 55/0/51 | 0.704 | 0.037 |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 5/98/3 | 0.367 | 0.072 |
| ADT | *precision* | 0.278 | 0.294 | 19/11/76 | 1.10E-08 | -0.531 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.352 | 0.375 | 51/0/55 | 0.88 | -0.015 |
| | *IFA* | 0 | 0 | 3/100/3 | 0.812 | 0.002 |
| SVM | *precision* | 0.24 | 0.261 | 19/6/81 | 1.14E-09 | -0.562 (L) |
| | $F_1$ | 0.364 | 0.369 | 44/0/62 | 0.028 | -0.213 (S) |
| | *IFA* | 2 | 2 | 8/94/4 | 0.169 | 0.117 (S) |

(1) +/0/–: NC has a larger/the same/a smaller performance value compared with NN
(2) L: large, M: moderate, S: small

TABLE 7
The sum of IFA: NC vs. NN

| Learner | Metric | Sum NC | Sum NN |
|---|---|---|---|
| LR | *IFA* | 98 | 87 |
| NB | | 120 | 119 |
| RF | | 121 | 121 |
| MLP | | 132 | 119 |
| ADT | | 325 | 315 |
| SVM | | 607 | 579 |

for each instance in a test set, a defect prediction model outputs whether the instance is defective. Consequently, there are four outcomes: *TP* (the instance is actually defective and is predicted to be defective), *TN* (the instance is actually non-defective and is predicted to be non-defective), *FP* (the instance is actually non-defective and is predicted to be defective), and *FN* (the instance is actually defective and is predicted to be non-defective). In addition to the four performance indicators (*recall*, *pf*, *inspect*, and *MCC*) reported in our paper, we additionally use the following three commonly used performance indicators to measure the performance of a model.

- *Precision*: the proportion of correctly identified defective instances among all predicted defective instances. It is defined as: $precision = TP / (TP + FP)$.
- $F_1$ [40]: the harmonic mean of precision (i.e. $p = |TP| / (|TP|+|FP|)$) and recall (i.e. $r = |TP| / (|TP|+|FN|)$), i.e. $2 \times p \times r / (p + r)$.
- Initial False Alarms (*IFA*) [41]. *IFA* measures the number of instances until the first true defective instance is found when instances are ranked by their defect-proneness. A low *IFA* value indicates that few non-defective instances are ranked at the top, while a high *IFA* value indicates that developers will spend unnecessary effort on non-defective instances. The intuition behinds this measure is that developers may stop inspecting if they could not get promising results (i.e., find defective instances) within the first few inspected instances [42]. *IFA* is computed as: $k$.

Notably, the literature [43] stated that for class imbalanced data, the precision is an unstable indicator. Therefore, the above three performance indicators are for reference only.

### D.2. Supplementary results for Sections 5.2 (influence on prediction performance)

In this section, we report the results of more indicators (*precision*, $F_1$ and *IFA*) for reference. Table 4 summarizes the results from the comparison of CC and NC. The third column reports for CC and NC the median performance values. The fourth column reports how many times CC has a larger (+), the same (0), and a smaller (–) performance value compared with NC. The fifth column reports the p-value from the Wilcoxon signed-rank test [44] with a Benjamini-Hochberg [45] corrected pvalue: a p-value < 0.05 indicates that CC is significantly better than NC in defect prediction. In this table, a statistically insignificant p-value is shown in

gray background. Note that the higher the value of *precision* or $F_1$ is, the better the model performance is. The lower the value of *IFA* is, the better the model performance is. The last column reports the effect size to indicate whether their difference is practical important. According to [46], the effect size $r$ for the Wilcoxon signed-rank test is computed by $Z/\sqrt{N}$, where $Z$ is from the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and $N$ is the total size of training-test pairs. By convention, the effect size is considered trivial for $|r| < 0.1$, small for $0.1 \leq |r| < 0.3$, moderate for $0.3 \leq |r| < 0.5$, and large for $|r| \geq 0.5$.

Consequently, as can be seen from Table 4, on all three indicators, CC is significantly better than NC as a whole. Note that for *IFA*, there is no significant difference between CC and NC on four classifiers (LR, NB, RF, and MLP). The reason is that on these classifiers, the value of *IFA* on most training set-test set pairs is 0, so there is no room for significant performance improvement. Table 5 lists the sum of IFAs of CC and NC on 97 training set-test set pairs. As can be seen from Table 5, on all classifiers except SVM, the sum of IFAs of CC or NC is slightly more than 97 (less than 2 on average). Except NB, the sum of IFAs of CC is lower than NC. Therefore, in general, CC is still better than NC.

### D.3. Supplementary results for Section 5.3 (influence on model evaluation)

In this section, we report the results of more indicators (*precision*, $F_1$ and *IFA*) for reference. Table 6 summarizes the results from the comparison of NC and NN. In this table, a statistically insignificant p-value is shown in gray background (a p-value < 0.05 indicates that there is a statically significant difference in the prediction performance between NC and NN). Consequently, as can be seen from Table 6, in most cases, inconsistent labels in a test data set can lead to a considerable evaluation bias on the real performance: either overestimate or underestimate. Note that for *IFA*, there is no significant difference between NC and NN on all six classifiers. The reason is that on these classifiers, the value of *IFA* on most training set-test set pairs is 0, whether for NC or NN. Table 7 lists the sum of IFAs of NC and NN on 106 training set-test set pairs. As can be seen from Table 7, on all classifiers except SVM and ADT, the sum of IFAs of NC or NN is slightly more than 106 (less than 2 on average). Thus, there is no room for significant performance overestimation or underestimation for *IFA*.

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## Appendix E. To what extent might previous studies be potentially influenced by inconsistent labels?

Our experimental results show that existing multi-version-project defect data sets (such as ECLIPSE-2007 [A1], Metrics-Repo-2010 [A2], JIRA-HA-2019 [A5], JIRA-RA-2019 [A5], and IND-JLMIV+R-2020 [A6]) contain inconsistent labels. In particular, for a defect prediction model, the existence of such inconsistent labels may considerably change its prediction ability, evaluation, and model interpretation. This raises concerns on the reliability of the experimental results or conclusions reported in previous studies that used these data sets. Therefore, the following question naturally arises: how many previous studies might be potentially influenced by these multi-version-project defect data sets? In this section, we answer this question by investigating the number of previous studies that used them as the subject data sets to conduct their experiments.

In order to avoid ambiguity, we separate the two concepts of "number of citations" and "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets". The "number of citations" refers to the total number of citations by other literatures for the original papers that published the target multi-version-project defect data set. The "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" refers to the total number of other literatures, which not only cited the original papers of the target multi-version-project defect data set, but also used the target multi-version-project defect data set in their experiments. Generally, "number of citations" cannot be used as a proxy for the frequency of a data set usage, because other literatures may only introduce the methods or ideas of the cited paper. Therefore, we additionally count the "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" as a proxy for the frequency of a data set usage.

Table 8 summarizes the "number of citations" and "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" for the existing multi-version-project defect data sets investigated in our study. The first column lists the data sets. The second column lists the original paper(s) publishing each multi-version-project defect data set. The third column reports how many other literatures cite the original literature, i.e., "number of citations" (reported by Google scholar, March 26, 2021). The fourth column reports the total number of other literatures (written in English) that use the corresponding data sets to conduct their experiments, i.e., "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" (inspected by the first author and confirmed by the seventh author). Note that the Metrics-Repo-2010 data set was first published in [A2]. However, most literature cite [A3] and [A4] as its source. The reason was that [A3] was published in a well-known international conference on Predictive Models in Software Engineering (PROMISE), aiming to share publicly accessible data sets. In particular, Metrics-Repo-2010 was put on the corresponding promise repository website [A4]. Given this situation, we use them (i.e. [A2], [A3], and [A4]) as three sources to count the number of (different) citations. As can be seen, JIRA-RA-2019 (JIRA-HA-2019) and IND-JLMIV+R-2020 data sets were used by few studies (the "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" are 6 and 5 respectively), as they are two recently published multi-version-project defect data sets. However, ECLIPSE-2007 and Metrics-Repo-2010 data sets were widely used in previous studies (the "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets"

TABLE 8
Literatures potentially influenced by target multi-version-project defect data sets

| Defect data sets | Source | Number of citations | Number of literatures that had experimented with the target data sets | List number range of literatures that had experimented with the target data sets |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ECLIPSE-2007 | [A1] | 817 | 144 | [1~144] |
| Metrics-Repo-2010 | [A2, A3, A4] | 453 | 264 | [145~408] |
| JIRA-HA-2019 / JIRA-RA-2019 | [A5] | 17 | 6 | [409~414] |
| IND-JLMIV+R-2020 | [A6] | 9 | 5 | [415~419] |

is 144 and 264 respectively). This indicates that inconsistent labels have a potentially wide influence on previous studies. At the end of this section, we lists all the literatures we investigated.

It is important to note that the influence of inconsistent labels on the existing literature may be overestimated, although the "number of literatures that had experimented with the collected data sets" is a more secure proxy for estimating the potential influence of inconsistent labels than the "number of citations". This is because our study does not conduct replication experiments to investigate the specific influence of inconsistent labels on each of the existing literatures (it is a large amount of work that could not be done in our study alone). It is still an open problem to investigate the actual influence of each multi-version-project defect data set with inconsistent labels on the existing literatures, pending an in-depth or extensive empirical study in the future.

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