Repo Velocity: Diagnosing Git Repository Health

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1 Introduction

Understanding the health of open source projects is important to industry because it helps them assess risk associated with their technology stack. Forecasting health is important to investors because this information can help them make profitable investments in open source. Academia is interested to know if there are links between theory, such as programming language design [1], and the health of open source software. A previous metric used to assess open source software health is the Truck Factor [2]. Truck Factor is the smallest subset size of developers who contributed 50% of the code in an open source project. The underlying intuition is that open source projects with a lower Truck Factor are more susceptible to project disruption in the event of adverse circumstances.

By borrowing from Physics, this paper [1] contributes to the advancement of understanding the health of open source projects, studying a subset of GitHub repositories, with the following:

- Introducing a health measure that can be assessed at time $t_{i\pm k}$ where k is a multiple of i.
- New health measure can be used in forecasting as well as description
- Health measure is rooted in Physics so we can derive related measures using preexisting theory.

2 Related Work

Truck Factor reflects robustness of project [2] by computing the minimum number of developers required to comprise 50% of file ownership. The underlying intuition is that a project with a low number of dominant developers will be more susceptible to failing due to external shocks. Projects where file ownership is shared by a large number of developers are interpreted as more healthy with this approach.

Not all projects reflects software which requires support. Researchers have classified many project types such as 'software development projects', 'solutions for homework', 'projects with educational purposes', 'data sets', and 'personal web sites' [3]. The observation that many projects are not software development is also a noted peril when analyzing GitHub [4]. We may also find repositories containing code duplicates [5]. These factors may comprise threats to validity which are important to address in this analysis.

3 Methods

The Truck Factor assesses Git repository health at time t_i. We would like to better understand health at different points in time $t_{i\pm k}$ where $k \geq 1$. We can borrow from Physics to find such a measure. Velocity, $v(t)$, is a measure of distance over time. What is a proxy for distance in the context of Git

[1] Code available on GitHub: https://github.com/tbonza/EDS19

repository health? Total lines of code changed in a project during time t_i can tell us how quickly the code base is changing. We apply this definition of velocity, $v(t)$, for our new measure Repo Velocity.

$$\text{Repo Velocity } \approx v(t) = \frac{d}{t} = \frac{\text{lines added } - \text{ lines deleted}}{t} \qquad \forall i \pm k \in t | i \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \quad (1)$$

Equation 1 defines our target measure, Repo Velocity, and posits that the Physics concept of 'distance' can provide insight into how a GitHub repository is changing over time. We can compute velocity, $v(t_i)$ at time t_i where i is a real number. We can also compute average velocity, $v_{avg}(t_{i\pm k})$, at time t_i to time $t_{i\pm k}$. The Repo Velocity measure also has the advantage of allowing aggregation and disaggregation. Truck Factor is a measure which can only be analyzed at an aggregate level. There can be a lot of interesting variation below a Repository level aggregation. Repo Velocity can also be used to capture individual contributor velocity. The ability of Repo Velocity to be applied over time as well as at aggregated and disaggregated levels make the measure a unique contribution to the understanding of Git repository health. The remaining methodology seeks to establish Repo Velocity as an informative descriptive and predictive target or dependent variable.

3.1 Establishing Baseline Repo Velocity

In our effort to establish the Repo Velocity measure, we first examine behavior on Git repositories known to be either (a) active and currently in development, (b) previously active and not currently in development. The repositories I chose for the baseline subset are as follows:

1. torvalds/linux (a) - Linux kernel, a fundamental component in many cloud computing server operating systems such as Amazon Linux.
2. docker/docker-ce (a) - Community edition of Docker including the open repositories Docker Engine and Docker client, a popular enterprise application container platform currently heavily utilized in projects such as Kubernetes.
3. apache/spark (a) - Unified analytics engine for Big Data. Allows for an alternative to Map/Reduce and is currently widely favored by industry. One of the most active projects in the Apache Software Foundation [6].
4. apache/lucene-solr (a) - Mirror of Apache Lucene + Solr. Apache Lucene is a high-performance, full featured text search engine library written in Java. Apache Solr is an enterprise search platform written using Apache Lucene. Notably, Lucene is a major dependency for Elasticsearch [7]
5. apache/attic-lucy (b) - Mirror of Apache Lucy, search engine library provides full-text search for dynamic programming languages. Previously active project in the Apache "attic".
6. apache/attic-wink (b) - Apache Wink, simple yet solid framework for building RESTful Web services. Previously active project in the Apache "attic".

All GitHub repositories chosen for the baseline sample would be classified as 'software development projects', or *DEV*[2] using the ClassifyHub designations [3]. This paper establishes baseline Repo Velocity expectations using descriptive and predictive (forecasting) methodologies.

3.1.1 Descriptive Baseline

We establish a descriptive baseline for the Repo Velocity measure by examining changes the measure over time (2013-2018) across our baseline sample. Figure 1 shows diverging behavior within the baseline sample for repositories which are (a) active and currently in development, or (b) previously active and not currently in development. The common trend with (b) type repositories is that Repo Velocity is converging to zero. Apache Lucy (b), shows a decrease in velocity then a convergence to zero between 2013 and 2015. Apache Wink (b) has already converged to zero within the 2013-2018 time window; a longer term window shows similar behavior to Apache Lucy.

[2]The baseline distribution containing only DEV repositories is a fundamental part of the results presented in this paper.

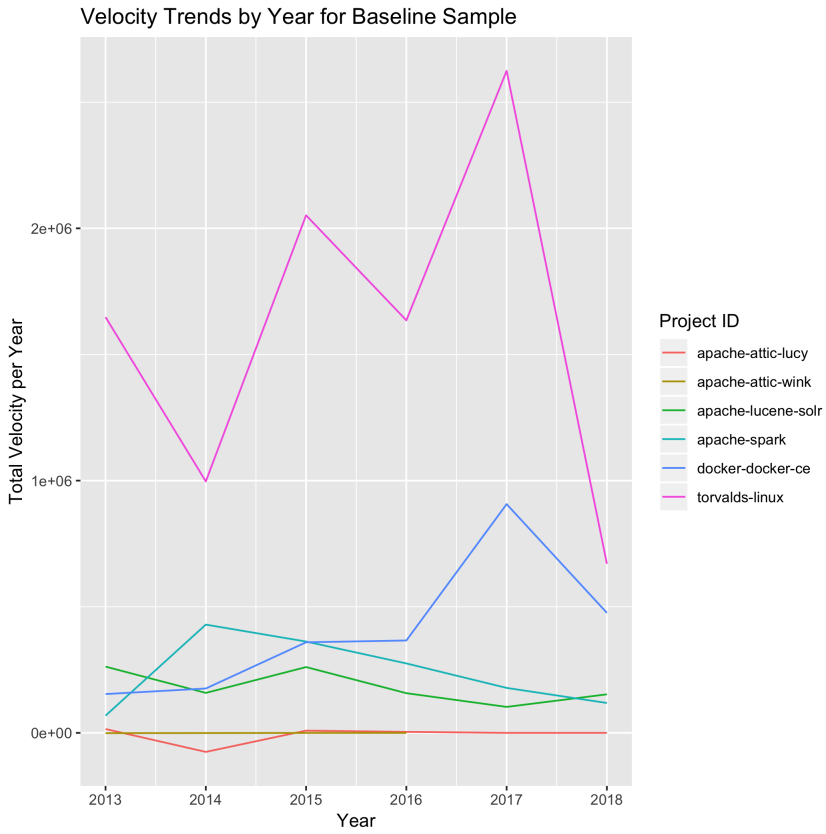

Figure 1: Repo Velocity Trends for Baseline Sample

Type (a) projects show considerable variance in Repo Velocity, such as 'torvalds/linux'. However, on average, we can see that Repo Velocity is not converging to zero. There is a clear and interesting trend with Apache Spark that is showing a downward trend in Repo Velocity between 2014 and the end of sample at December 2018. This downward trend may reflect a peril of mining GitHub [4], in that not all repositories are projects. For example, Yahoo is currently developing TensorFlowOnSpark [8] which allows Tensorflow programs to operate using Apache Spark clusters. The Yahoo project is directly competing with an offering by Google Cloud which does not appear to involve Spark [9]. We can see that GitHub repositories not representing the scope of a project is a potential threat to validity we must consider here.

Trends viewed in this descriptive baseline helped to inform the following hypothesis:

$H1_a$: As the absolute value of velocity diverging from zero (acceleration) increases, Git repo health will also increase.

Hypothesis $H1_a$ should hold when reviewing the predictive baseline, as well as at scale.

3.1.2 Predictive Baseline

The predictive baseline uses Repo Velocity as a target or dependent variable and seeks to explain which features contribute to this measure. This paper posits the following features play a strong role in explaining Repo Velocity:

- Number of authors in a given time period.
- Number of mentors; number of authors in a year that have made monthly commits for at least 6 months.
- Number of organizations; organization affiliations taken from authors email addresses (i.e. RedHat).

Figure 2 shows that these features are almost perfectly correlated in the baseline sample containing only 'software development type', DEV, projects. The almost perfect correlation between features means that we must adjust the forecasting model for multicollinearity so that predictions are not higher at the expense of not being able to control for possible intervening features during future analysis.

	# Authors	# Organizations	# Mentors
# Authors	1.0	1.0	0.99
# Organizations	1.0	1.0	0.99
# Mentors	0.99	0.99	1.0

Figure 2: Correlation Matrix for Features in Baseline Sample

The high collinearity of these features, seen in Figure 2, provides us with an expectation of a linear relationship best captured by a Linear Regression model. Equation 2 defines the linear model.

$$\hat{y} = \alpha + \beta_{1,\#Authors}x_1 + \beta_{2,\#Organizations}x_2 + \beta_{3,\#Mentors}x_3 + \epsilon \tag{2}$$

The linear model in Equation 2 is based on correlations of trends visually observed in Figure 1. We should not consider Equation 2 as a model which can establish causality.

3.2 Validating Repo Velocity at Scale

In order to validate the Repo Velocity measure at scale, we want to use a subset of GitHub repositories that have a higher probability of being classified as 'software development projects', DEV. This paper assumes that all projects posted on GitHub by these organizations are intended to be classified as actively maintained DEV projects [3]. The repositories were collected from: Apache Foundation, edX Online Learning, Facebook, Google, Microsoft, and Tensorflow (deep learning framework from Google). We will know if Repo Velocity is supported at scale if the descriptive trends and predictive modeling results associated with the baseline set are able to be replicated using Git repository data collected from these organizations.

3.3 Data Engineering

A majority of the work for this analysis went into Data Engineering. To streamline this work, the author wrote a Python package called Okra [4]. Data Engineering involved two phases of (1) data collection, and (2) data processing.

Repository names were retrieved using SQL queries from the GHTorrent relational database [5] hosted on Google BigQuery. GitHub repository names were compiled into a small text from the organizations: Apache, edX, Facebook, Google, Microsoft, and Tensorflow. Relevant information was then extracted using the 'git log' utility and processed using Okra.

3.3.1 Collecting Data

Initial exploratory efforts were undertaken to see if downloading all repositories from GitHub would be possible. This required an architecture which could clone and process the GitHub repositories in parallel. Kubernetes is an open source system for automating deployment, scaling, and management of containerized applications [6]. Many developers often associate Kubernetes with the deployment of web applications. However, Kubernetes it can also be used to orchestrate batch processing jobs. Figure 3 illustrates distributed batch processing using the Python package Okra and Kubernetes.

In theory, using Okra and Kubernetes would facilitate downloading all repositories on GitHub identified by GHTorrent. In practice, Google notified the author of a server usage limit. GitHub Developer Support notified the author that they "...reserve the right to suspend your Account or

[3] Later work should absolutely question this assumption.

[4] Distribution: https://pypi.org/project/okra/, Development: : https://github.com/tbonza/EDS19

[5] http://ghtorrent.org/gcloud.html

[6] https://kubernetes.io/

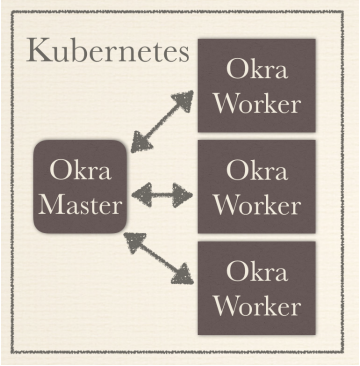

Figure 3: GitHub Repository Collection using Okra and Kubernetes

throttle your file hosting until you can reduce your bandwidth consumption…". Fortunately, the author prudently reached out to GitHub before running a batch process which could have been interpreted as a distributed-denial-of-service (DDoS) attack.

Secondary efforts to collect data consisted of being nice. The author queried all known GitHub repository names using Google BigQuery for the GitTorrent table. GitHub repository names owned by the following organizations were selected: Apache, edX, Facebook, Google, Microsoft, and Tensorflow. Each GitHub repository was Cloned and processed sequentially using a 10 second delay before each clone. All GitHub repository clones were done using SSH rather than the usual HTTPS. Figure 4 contains a breakdown of which GitHub repositories were successfully cloned and processed.

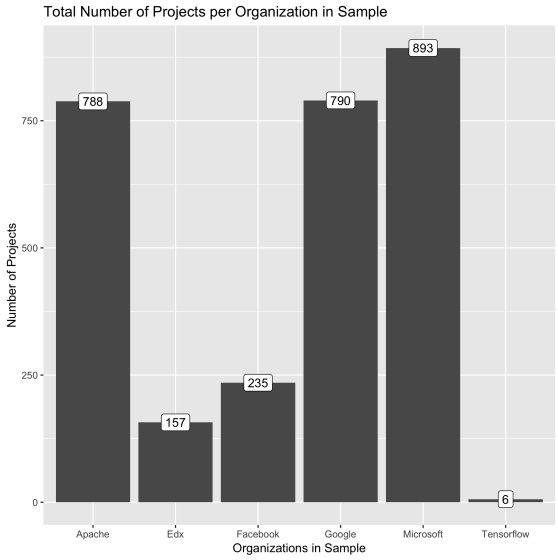

Figure 4: Number of GitHub Repositories Collected for Each Organization

A total of 2,927 repositories were requested, 2,869 repositories were retrieved and processed, 58 failed. Information processed using the 'git log' utility and Okra was stored in a SQLite database; one database file per GitHub repository. All 2,927 SQLite databases were compressed then persisted using cloud storage (AWS S3 buckets).

3.3.2 Processing Data

Data processing was initially designed to consolidate the 2,927 SQLite databases into Parquet files from 64-128mb in size, then use Apache Spark. It was necessary to use files with a guarantee of 64mb because Apache Spark was built with the intention of working on top of the Hadoop Distributed

File system (HDFS). The default file block size for HDFS was 64mb but it is currently 128mb [7]. Given that the author used Amazon EMR which pulled from S3 buckets, we cannot say the default file block size is a hard and fast rule. However, many assumptions in Spark are built off this HDFS default setting of a large (64-128mb) file block size so consolidating SQLite databases is justified.

It turns out that Spark isn't really the best for joining tables. The underlying difficulty is unclear given the author's current expertise in Apache Spark. Tuning strategies were attempted such as enabling the fairly new Cost Based Optimizer (CBO), and repartitioning the Resilient Distributed Dataset (RDD) before writing out to Parquet files. Switching to a relational database such as AWS RedShift [8] proved to be the recommended course of action by senior developers.

Given the scope of this class project, setting up AWS RedShift, populating it with data, joining tables in SQL, then writing formatting code for machine learning required too much work. The author already prototyped all joins, aggregations, and filters using Pandas. There were still 2,927 GitHub repositories stored as backups in independent SQLite databases. These details presented an opportunity for a parallel algorithm using immutable data structures (SQLite databases per Git repository).

The parallel algorithm implemented is something the author is calling "hack/reduce". Python 3.7 includes a 'multiprocessing' module in the standard library. This module is able to sidestep the Global Interpreter Lock used in Python by creating a specified number of subprocesses rather than threads. This approach is analogous to opening several terminal windows and running a Python script in each one. The author simply ran each data processing sequence separately on each GitHub repository SQLite database, wrote out a separate joined table, then appended all of the joined tables at the conclusion of all the subprocesses. This approach works best with a CPU containing multiple cores so an AWS *c5d.18xlarge* instance with 72 vCPU, 2 x 900 NVMe SSD was used. This approach allowed processing with multiple table joins, aggregations, and filters on 2,927 SQLite databases to be completed in about one minute.

It is possible that this divide and conquer, "hack/reduce", approach becomes more popular in the future because it allows for fine-tuning a subproblem using minimal hardware then scaling up by replicating the solution to that sub-problem across multiple cores. This type of data engineering solution is really fun. However, the author is not currently aware of anyone else who has adopted this type of data processing paradigm.

4 Experiment

Experiments were designed to test the methodology by reviewing descriptive and predictive baselines, then scaling up to see if those baselines continue to support hypothesis $H1_a$. We had to review the descriptive baseline in Figure 1 to establish trends that could inform $H1_a$.

4.0.1 Results from Predictive Baseline

The training/test/validation sets are broken out by year 2015/2016/2017 rather than pooling time and selecting observations randomly. We expect strong trends over time so random selection wasn't used when specifying the training/test/validation sets. Results from the linear model specified by Equation 2 are reported in Figure 5.

Dataset	Features	r^2 Value
Test	All	0.8291
Validation	All	0.9253
Test	# Authors	0.8104
Validation	# Authors	0.8726

Figure 5: Test/Validation Baseline Set Results from Equation 2

Figure 5 demonstrates encouraging results for the baseline set. The features from Equation 2 have a near perfect linear relationship with the velocity, $v(t)$, target. We should recognize that all Git

[7] http://hadoop.apache.org/docs/current/hadoop-project-dist/hadoop-hdfs/hdfs-default.xml
[8] https://aws.amazon.com/redshift/

repositories are 'software development projects', DEV, and this is most likely not true for all GitHub repositories owned by the organizations identified by the author.

4.0.2 Results from Scaled up Prediction

When we scale up the number of repositories from the baseline set, our statistical distribution changes considerably. Figure 6 contains the correlation matrix for features in the scaled up sample. We can see right away that the almost perfect correlation found in the baseline sample are no longer present.

	# Authors	# Organizations	# Mentors
# Authors	1.0	0.14	0.71
# Organizations	0.14	1.0	0.04
# Mentors	0.71	0.04	1.0

Figure 6: Correlation Matrix for Features in Scaled Up Sample

When running the Equation 2 linear regression model, we can see that results present in Figure 7 drop in a dramatic fashion. We go from seeing features having an almost perfect linear relationship in the baseline set to having almost no linear relationship in the scaled up data across test and validation sets.

Dataset	Features	r^2 Value
Test	All	0.0659
Validation	All	0.1607

Figure 7: Test/Validation Scaled Up Set Results from Equation 2

The change in results for the scaled up data is certainly a cause for concern. Figure 8 presents a residual plot of the scaled up test set. We can see that some residuals are valued at over ± 10 million when a well performing model would have residuals normally distributed around zero.

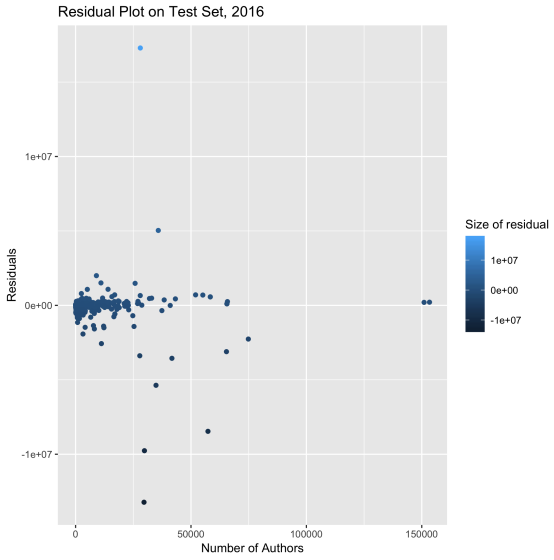

Figure 8: Residual Plot for Scaled Up Test Set

The presence of outliers is very clear here. Figure 9 provides a plot of cross-validation steps taken to penalize outliers using L2, ridge, regression. There were no discernible benefits from employing a regularization strategy given the magnitude of outliers present. The L2 regression results present in Figure 10 are actually slightly worse than the Linear regression results presented in Figure 7. These results suggest an issue with the data rather than the model. Prediction quality is effected by signal in the data and specification of the model. Given that the baseline results were very encouraging, results in Figure 7 and Figure 10 imply that a very different data distribution is present.

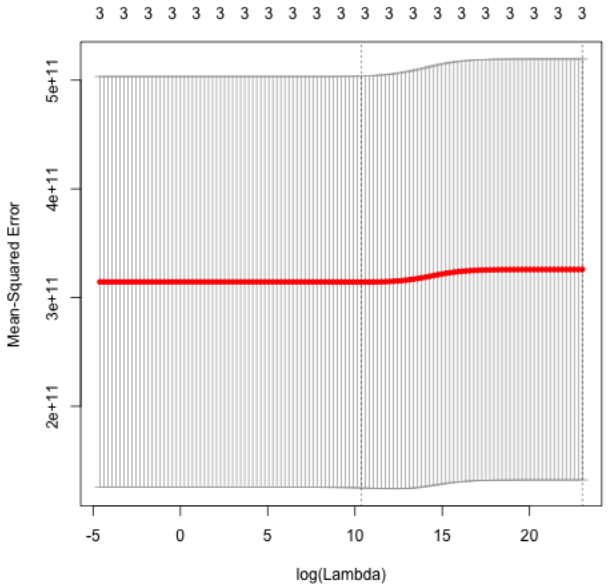

Figure 9: Cross Validation on Regularizing Parameter for L2 Regression

The data distribution in the scaled up sample shown via Figure 11 demonstrates that 57-70% of projects for 2/3 sampled organizations have a velocity which is near converging to zero. The baseline sample consisted mostly of 'software development projects', DEV, in active development with 1/3 in the 'attic' or not actively being maintained. Figure 11 suggests that most GitHub repositories owned by these organizations are not being actively maintained.

Dataset	Features	r^2 Value
Test	All	0.0613
Validation	All	0.1559

Figure 10: Test/Validation Scaled Up Set Results from Equation 2 using λ L2 Regularization

Results from the scaled up predictions clearly demonstrate a data distribution which has sharply diverged from the baseline distribution. This divergence is clear because the really encouraging findings from the baseline distribution have not generalized to the scaled up distribution.

5 Discussion

The author found that some correlation supports hypothesis $H1_a$ but causal mechanisms were not established through experimentation. A substantial amount of Data Engineering took place to get a meaningful scaled up sample in comparison to the baseline sample. Major threats to the validity of this study are the following:

- Correlation not causation
  - Forecasting model prototype worked well on baseline distribution but the findings didn't generalize when using the scaled up sample.
- Theoretical understanding of healthy software
  - Assumes that software development projects, DEV, must keep moving in order to survive.
  - Assumes that all software by organizations in the scaled up sample are software development projects.

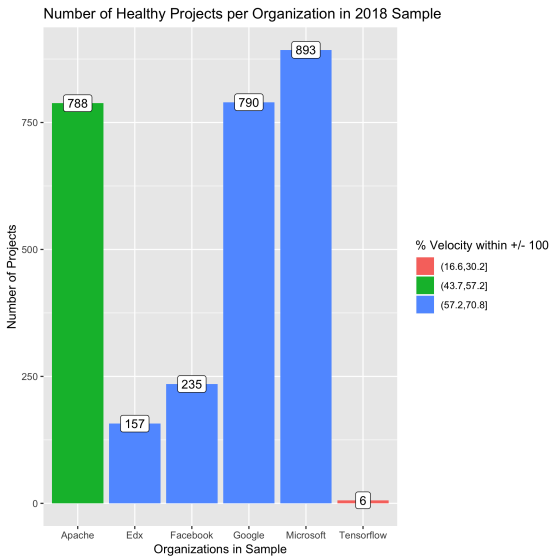

Figure 11: Repositories with Minimal Velocity in 2018 by Organization

Challenging the assumption that all software by organizations in the scaled up sample are software projects is a good first step to resolving discrepancies between baseline and scaled up data distributions. Applying the ClassifyHub [3] algorithm to the scaled up data distribution would be a solid next step to understanding why the baseline model in Equation 2 was unable to generalize from the baseline sample.

If future work is able to reconcile variances in the baseline and scaled up distributions, then a model providing predictive support for Hypothesis $H1_a$ will be possible. The use of natural experiments with GitHub repository data can help the field move away from an emphasis on correlation and embrace assertions of causality. Pursuing causal mechanisms, like those established in Physics, appears to be the most promising path forward for this subfield within Data Science.

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