



Article

Empirical Assessment of Machine Learning Techniques for Software Requirements Risk Prediction

Rashid Naseem ¹, Zain Shaukat ², Muhammad Irfan ^{3,*}, Muhammad Arif Shah ¹, Arshad Ahmad ¹, Fazal Muhammad ^{4,*}, Adam Glowacz ⁵, Larisa Dunai ⁶, Jose Antonino-Daviu ⁷ and Adel Sulaiman ⁸

- Department of IT and Computer Science, Pak-Austria Fachhochschule Institute of Applied Sciences and Technology, Haripur 22620, Pakistan; rnsqau@gmail.com (R.N.); arif.websol@gmail.com (M.A.S.); yaarshad@gmail.com (A.A.)
- Department of Computer Science, Iqra National University, Peshawar 25000, Pakistan; zsadozai22@gmail.com
- ³ Electrical Engineering Department, College of Engineering, Najran University Saudi Arabia, Najran 61441, Saudi Arabia
- Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Engineering and Technology, Mardan 23200, Pakistan
- Department of Automatic Control and Robotics, AGH University of Science and Technology, 30-059 Krakow, Poland; adglow@agh.edu.pl
- ⁶ Centro de Investigación en Tecnologías Gráficas, Universitat Politècnica de València, 46022 Valencia, Spain; ladu@upv.es
- Instituto Tecnologico de la Energía, Universitat Politecnica de Valencia, Camino de Vera s/n, 46022 Valencia, Spain; joanda@die.upv.es
- 8 College of Computer Science and Information Systems, Najran University, Najran 61441, Saudi Arabia; aaalsulaiman@nu.edu.sa
- * Correspondence: miditta@nu.edu.sa (M.I.); fazal.muhammad@uetmardan.edu.pk (F.M.); Tel.: +92-300-585-7502 (F.M.)

Abstract: Software risk prediction is the most sensitive and crucial activity of Software Development Life Cycle (SDLC). It may lead to the success or failure of a project. The risk should be predicted earlier to make a software project successful. A model is proposed for the prediction of software requirement risks using requirement risk dataset and machine learning techniques. In addition, a comparison is made between multiple classifiers that are K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN), Average One Dependency Estimator (A1DE), Naïve Bayes (NB), Composite Hypercube on Iterated Random Projection (CHIRP), Decision Table (DT), Decision Table/Naïve Bayes Hybrid Classifier (DTNB), Credal Decision Trees (CDT), Cost-Sensitive Decision Forest (CS-Forest), J48 Decision Tree (J48), and Random Forest (RF) achieve the best suited technique for the model according to the nature of dataset. These techniques are evaluated using various evaluation metrics including CCI (correctly Classified Instances), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Relative Absolute Error (RAE), Root Relative Squared Error (RRSE), precision, recall, F-measure, Matthew's Correlation Coefficient (MCC), Receiver Operating Characteristic Area (ROC area), Precision-Recall Curves area (PRC area), and accuracy. The inclusive outcome of this study shows that in terms of reducing error rates, CDT outperforms other techniques achieving 0.013 for MAE, 0.089 for RMSE, 4.498% for RAE, and 23.741% for RRSE. However, in terms of increasing accuracy, DT, DTNB, and CDT achieve better results.

Keywords: requirements; risk; machine learning; classification



Citation: Naseem, R.; Shaukat, Z.; Irfan, M.; Shah, M.A.; Ahmad, A.; Muhammad, F.; Glowacz, A.; Dunai, L.; Antonino-Daviu, J.A.; Sulaiman, A. Empirical Assessment of Machine Learning Techniques for Software Requirements Risk Prediction. *Electronics* **2021**, *10*, 168. https://doi.org/10.3390/electronics 10020168

Received: 5 November 2020 Accepted: 11 January 2021 Published: 14 January 2021

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

1. Introduction

The development of software consistently faces uncertain occasions that may have negative impact on the success of software development, such occasions are called software risks [1]. The risks have a vital impact on software requirements. They turn out to be the reason for damage to the software or stakeholders [1–3]. The Standish Group research illustrates an astounding 31.1% of projects terminate before completion while merely 16.2%

software projects are completed on-time and with-in-the-budget. In bigger organizations, the result is even worse: only 9% of the projects are deployed on-time and within the budget. Moreover, in the completed projects, many are no more than a mere shadow of their original specification requirements. Projects completed by the largest American companies have only approximately 42% of the originally proposed functionalities [4]. Risk assessment has basically two strategies, proactive and reactive. According to the literature the reactive strategy is not a mature strategy to assess the risk, since it increases the budget schedule and resources but degrades the quality and success of the project. Therefore, a proactive strategy has been employed using machine learning techniques to reduce the chances of project failure [5]. Also, the prediction of risks at this stage is more beneficial and raises the productivity of software. It also helps in reducing the probabilities of software project failure when risks are managed properly in requirements gathering phase [1].

In our preliminary paper [1], a risk dataset was proposed that is comprised of soft-ware requirements, risks attributes and relations between them, which are also necessary for the prediction of risks in the new software projects. The dataset can be used to predict risks over the Software Requirements Specification (SRS) of a project using machine learning techniques.

In this study, the main focus is on the empirical analysis of ten Machine Learning (ML) techniques. These include: K-nearest Neighbors (KNN), Average One Dependency Estimator (A1DE), Naïve Bayes (NB), Composite Hypercube on Iterated Random Projection (CHIRP), Decision Tree (DT), Decision Table/Naïve Bayes Hybrid Classifier (DTNB), Credal Decision Tree (CDT), CS-Forest, J48, and Random Forest (RF). All these techniques are explored first time for risk prediction and are employed on our previously proposed dataset [6].

It is relevant to note that although 10 different ML techniques are chosen on the basis of a pre-selection process where a comparison has been made among these classifiers on the basis of their effective results such as fast training/build time and accuracy on the different datasets as shown in Table 1.

Classifier	Dataset	Training Time	Input Scale	Input Data Types	Accuracy
			Low: Instances < 1000 Medium: > 1000 Instances < 10,000		
	-	Time to build model	High: Instances > 10,000	Numeric, String, Nominal	-
	Medical Imaging				Mean \pm standard
KNN	Datasets [7]	Time < 1 min	Large	-	deviation (0.6 to 0.9)
A1DE	UCI Datasets [8]	Time < 1 min	Medium to Large	Numeric, Nominal	CCI (56% to 69%)
NB	UCI Datasets [8]	Time < 1 min	Medium to Large	Numeric, Nominal	CCI (55%)
CHIRP	UCI datasets [9]	-	Medium to Large	Numeric, Nominal	Mean standard test error (-1 to 0)
	Online Shopping				
DT	Dataset [10]	Time < 1 min	Medium	Numeric, Nominal	CCI (76.28 %)
DTNB	UCI datasets [11]	-	Low to medium	Numeric, Nominal	Mean AUC and standard deviation (0.6 to 1.0)
CDT	UCI Datasets [8]	Time < 1 min	Medium to Large	Numeric, Nominal	CCI (63 %)
CS-Forest	Brazilian Bank Dataset [12]	-	Medium	Numeric, Nominal	Accuracy (95%)
J48	Liver Disorder Dataset (UCI) [13]	Time < 1 min	low	Numeric, Nominal	Accuracy (97.75%)
	Medical University				
RF	Hospital [14]	-	Low	Numeric, Nominal	Accuracy (95%)
	Medial Diagnosis				Accuracy (No of correct
MPL (NN)	Classification Datasets [15]	-	Low to Medium	Numeric, Nominal	predictions/total predictions) 0.9

Table 1. Selection of for ML Classifiers.

Moreover, these classifiers are tested and observed on the basis of their CCI on Risk dataset [1], using 10 cross fold validation test for the selection of further studies. It is

necessary to mention that the Neural Network-based classifiers were not considered in this paper. NN-based techniques have some disadvantages, e.g., they usually require a large size of input, produce unexpected behavior due to the black boxes, learning process may take long time with no guarantee of success, it is difficult to determine the proper network structure and it initially depends on format mechanism of the input [16,17]. The NN typically need thousands or millions of labeled samples [17,18], whereas the risk dataset contains only 299 instances to train a NN. In fact, in our preliminary selection process the CCI obtained were not good enough to keep it further in this study, therefore we kept NN out of this study. The Pre-selection comparison is presented in Table 2.

Classifier	CCI%
KNN	58.2
A1DE	91.0
NB	91.0
CHIRP	44.0
DT	98.0
DTNB	98.0
CDT	98.0
CS-Forest	73.2
J48	96.3
RF	83.2

Table 2. Pre-selection comparison of classifiers.

The detail experiments are conducted in this study to show which ML technique outperforms for risk prediction in the earliest phase of SDLC.

39.1

The foremost contributions of this research are as follow:

NN (Multi-Layer perceptron)

- We selected ten different ML techniques (KNN, A1DE, NB, CHIRP, DT, DTNB, CDT, CS-Forest, J48, and RF) for Model Evaluation and Comparison.
- We demeanour a series of try-outs on our published dataset [6].
- To reveal insight to the experimental outcomes, evaluation is accomplished using CCI, MAE, RMSE, RAE, RRSE, precision, recall, F-measure, MCC, ROC Area, PRC Area and Accuracy.

2. Overview of Risk Prediction

This research aims to resolve the predicament of late identification of risk and their effect on quality, schedule, and budget of the ongoing software project. Because most recent risk prediction methodologies have potential to measure software risks in the upcoming stages, naturally from software design phase or code of the software life cycle, these methodologies have potential to identify risks but have limited ability in avoiding these risks from occurring [1]. The risks are caused by several factors during the SDLC, and can lead to failure of the software project [2–4]. These factors are considered to be one of the main reasons of software failure causes, they result from the less software engineering theory principles and techniques. These factors should be resolved as soon as possible to lessen the unexpected failure of the software project.

As per our previous paper, we concluded that no dataset found that contain essential attributes for software requirement risks. Therefore, in that paper we introduced a dataset containing attributes and their relations between software requirements and risks [1]. Moreover, a model is needed to predict risk using the risk dataset using classification techniques of machine learning.

The core aspects of the software project which need to be improved are quality of overall project, budget, and schedule by predicting the risk earlier. The risk prediction model helps to identify risk level of an instance (software requirement) of new project

Electronics **2021**, 10, 168 4 of 19

using risk dataset. However, the project/risk manager will be able to customize and manage the overall process of risk prediction. The basic model of the risk prediction using ML techniques has been introduced. This model contains four main components as demonstrated in Figure 1 and briefly discussed below.

- Risk Identification: The very first stage of Software Risk Prediction Model is Risk Identification, where the Risk Manager/Project manager will identify the hazards that may distract the time, resources, or costs of the project. A hazard is an unfortunate event if it occurs, and is detrimental to the successful completion of the project. It is performed using "checklist". The requirements from SRS with risk threats are marked checked for further analysis. The checklist is then headed to the next stage [5].
- Risk Analysis: The identified risks then convert into decision-making information. The probability and the significance of each risk is assessed through risk analysis, the risks are transform into decision-making information that were identified [5]. Each risk is then measured and a decision made about the possibility and the seriousness of the risk. The attribute "Risk Level" in the risk dataset helps to classify the requirements among five risk levels [1].
- Risk Prioritization: This is the output stage of the Model, where the analyzed Risks are Prioritized. The requirements having high "risks level" are transferred above in the list and the requirements having low "risks level" drop to the bottom.
- Requirement risk Dataset: The Dataset contains Risk measures for software requirements are available on Zenodo datasets [6]. The risk dataset comprises of the attributes that are related to risks and requirements of software project [1].

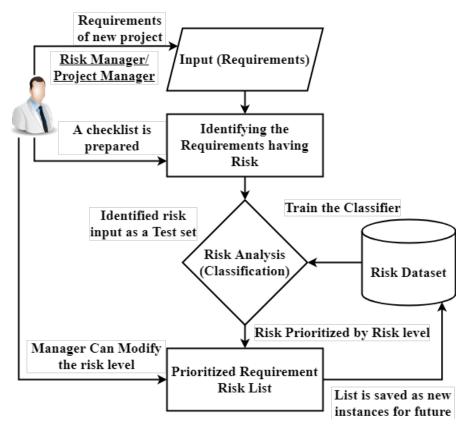


Figure 1. Requirement risk prediction model.

In the proposed model, the requirement set is input to the model to produce the risk level of the requirements, by which the project manager/domain expert can easily plan and mitigate the risks at earlier stages.

Electronics **2021**, *10*, 168 5 of 19

3. The Research Framework

The risk dataset is comprised of the attributes that are related to risks and requirements of software project [1]. These risks have a negative impact on the success of the software development. In the proposed model, the requirement set is input to the model to produce the risk level of the requirements, by which the project manager/domain expert can easily plan and mitigate the risks at earlier stages.

The research has two main phases, i.e., risk prediction model for software requirements and Model Evaluation and Comparison. The risk-oriented dataset and its filtration was necessary for our proposed model since that is done in our preliminary work [1], The dataset is openly available for further exploration and improvement. The proposed research framework is demonstrated in Figure 2.

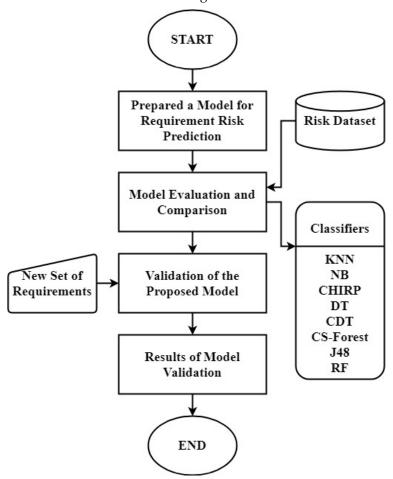


Figure 2. Proposed research framework.

The first step of the research is Preparation of the Model for requirement risk prediction; here we have chosen the classifiers on the basis of Table 1. The second step is Model Evaluation and Comparison, here in this step we evaluated model on chosen classifiers using Risk dataset for comparison to choose best suitable classifier. In the third step the Proposed model is validated using new set of requirements. The last step contains the results of Model Validation.

4. Model Evaluation and Comparison

In this phase, KNN, A1DE, NB, CHIRP, DT, DTNB, CDT, CS-Forest, J48, and RF are employed on the risk dataset. We trained these models on WEKA (Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis) Tool and the parameters of every algorithm were tuned to take best output into consideration and validated these using 10-cross fold with the discrete dataset [1], and supplied a sample set of 299 instances to the model. The 10-fold cross-

Electronics **2021**, *10*, 168 6 of 19

validation test is applied to every classifier to assess its performance. The provided learning set is break up into 10 distinct subsets of a similar size. The "fold" here is referred to as the number of subsets created. These subsets then are used as one for training and others for testing and this loop is performed until every subset is being trained and tested by the model [19]. We applied minimum and maximum number of k folds to the dataset, but they mostly decrease the efficiency due to change in the percentage of training and testing. Whereas the 10-fold cross validation performed better as compared to any other selection of k folds. Therefore, the 10-fold cross validation method is selected to validate the models and to avoid over fitting and under fitting during the training process [19]. The evaluation is done on the basis of CCI, MAE [20,21], RMSE [20–22], RAE [23], Precision [21,24], recall [21], F-measure [21], MCC [25,26], ROC Area [27], PRC Area [28] and Accuracy [27,29,30]. The results are presented in Section 5.

4.1. Requirement Risk Dataset

The dataset is taken from [1] which is collected through different SRS of different open source projects that include,

- Transaction processing system: This SRS has 118 requirements collectively.
- Management information system: That contains the E-Store product features. This SRS collectively contains 87 Requirements.
- Enterprise system: This SRS identifies requirements focused on medical records and the associated diagnostics. This SRS has 59 requirements.
- Safety critical system: The intelligent Traffic Expert Solution for road traffic control System offers the ability to acquire real-time traffic information. It has 35 requirements.

The dataset contains 299 instances (Requirements) collectively as mentioned in Table 3.

Table 3. Projects an	d number of i	instances.
-----------------------------	---------------	------------

Project	Instances		
Transaction Processing System	118		
Management Information System	87		
Enterprise System	59		
Safety Critical System	35		
Total	299		

The data types of the attributes were assigned according to nature and value set of the data which were achieved from Boehm's risks management [1,31,32] as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Risk dataset template.

Attributes	Data Types
Requirements	String
Project Category	Nominal
Requirement Category	Nominal
Risk Target Category	Nominal
Probability	Numeric
Magnitude of Risk	Nominal
Impact	Nominal
Dimension of Risk	Numeric
Affecting No Modules	Numeric
Fixing Duration	Numeric
Fix Cost	Numeric
Priority	Numeric
Risk Level	Nominal

4.2. K-Nearest Neighbour

KNN classifiers are instance-based learning techniques where the training feature vectors forecast the class of an unidentified trial data. Classification of trial data is grounded on main stream division of its neighbours (training models). Therefore, trial data is allocated to the class label of training models that ambiances it in majority [3,7,33]. Tables 5 and 6, respectively, present the error rate and accuracy outcomes achieved by KNN using several numbers of k and presented best outcome of results among them. In Table 6, the first rows present the accuracy measures while rows 2–5 present the individual outcomes of each assessment measure. The percentage of CCI is considered to be the outcome of accuracy.

Table 5. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via KNN.

	KNN
CCI	174 (58.194%)
MAE	0.170
RMSE	0.405
RAE%	60.638
RRSE%	108.363

We have applied 10-fold cross validation on the Risk Dataset using KNN, and CCI achieved 174 (58.194%), The MAE is 0.170, RMSE is 0.405, RAE is 60.638 and RRSE is 108.363.

Table 6. KNN accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	0.480	0.429	0.453	0.401	0.718	0.293
2	0.701	0.711	0.706	0.461	0.743	0.651
3	0.494	0.547	0.519	0.348	0.688	0.392
4	0.537	0.489	0.512	0.430	0.709	0.341
5	0.231	0.188	0.207	0.168	0.586	0.088
Weighted Average	0.578	0.582	0.579	0.406	0.713	0.476

4.3. Average One Dependency Estimator

A1DE is a probabilistic technique, recycled for habitual classification complications. It shows enormously accurate classification by being an average of all-encompassing of a slight space of different Naive Bayes (NB)-like models that have punier independence possibilities than NB. A1DE was essentially planned to address the attribute-independence problems of a standard NB technique. It was intended to address the attribute-independence issues of the predominant NB classifier [34]. Table 7 presents the error rate details with CCI, while Table 8 presents the overall accuracy outcomes achieved via A1DE.

Table 7. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via AIDE.

	AIDE
CCI	271 (90.635%)
MAE	0.048
RMSE	0.169
RAE%	17.045
RRSE%	45.181

We have applied 10-fold cross validation on the dataset usin AIDE, the CCI achieved 271 (90.635%) and The MAE is 0.048, RMSE is 0.169, RAE is 17.045 and RRSE is 45.181.

Table 8. AIDE accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	0.929	0.929	0.929	0.921	0.998	0.985
2	0.954	0.926	0.940	0.892	0.989	0.989
3	0.880	0.880	0.880	0.840	0.978	0.946
4	0.886	0.867	0.876	0.855	0.959	0.875
5	0.714	0.938	0.811	0.807	0.994	0.822
Weighted Average	0.910	0.906	0.907	0.872	0.983	0.952

4.4. Naïve Bayes

The NB classifier is a probabilistic statistical classifier. The term "naive" indicates a restrictive independence among attributes or features. The naive supposition decreases computation convolution to a simple multiplication of likelihoods. One main advantage of the NB classifier is its speed of use. That is because it is the greenest technique amid classification techniques. As an effect of this openness, it can punctually contract with an informational index with abundant abilities [35,36]. The CCI and error rate achieved by NB are presented in Table 9 as well, while all the accuracy outcomes are listed in Table 10.

Table 9. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via NB.

	NB
CCI	272 (90.970%)
MAE	0.042
RMSE	0.160
RAE%	14.993
RRSE%	42.876

We applied 10-fold cross validation on the dataset using Naive Bayes, and CCI achieved 272 (90.970%). The MAE is 0.042, RMSE is 0.160, RAE is 14.993 and RRSE is 42.876.

Table 10. NB accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	0.813	0.929	0.867	0.854	0.995	0.948
2	0.976	0.896	0.934	0.887	0.984	0.987
3	0.877	0.947	0.910	0.880	0.985	0.906
4	0.889	0.889	0.889	0.869	0.973	0.952
5	0.824	0.875	0.848	0.840	0.944	0.783
Weighted Average	0.914	0.910	0.911	0.877	0.982	0.947

4.5. Composite Hypercube on Iterated Random Projection

CHIRP pulsation solidity procedure transforms a long period frequency-coded pulse into a narrow pulse of significantly improved generosity. It is a technique used in radar and sonar systems for the reason that it is a method whereby a narrow pulse with high peak power can be derived from a long duration pulse with low peak power. It can also reduce the hardware demands [9]. Tables 11 and 12, respectively, show the error rate and accuracy details accomplished via CHIRP.

Electronics **2021**, 10, 168 9 of 19

Table 11.	CCI and	Error	Rates	details	achieved	via	CHIRP

	CHIRP
CCI	131 (43.960%)
MAE	0.224
RMSE	0.474
RAE%	80.046
RRSE%	126.751

We have applied 10-fold cross validation on the dataset using CHIRP, and CCI achieved 131 (43.960%). The MAE is 0.224, RMSE is 0.4735, RAE is 80.046 and RRSE is 126.751.

Table 12. CHIRP accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	0.250	0.036	0.063	0.062	0.512	0.100
2	0.676	0.526	0.592	0.331	0.659	0.570
3	0.400	0.480	0.436	0.225	0.619	0.323
4	0.200	0.289	0.236	0.072	0.542	0.165
5	0.294	0.667	0.408	0.400	0.791	0.213
Weighted Average	0.475	0.440	0.440	0.243	0.624	0.385

4.6. Decision Table

Decision tables are used to model complicated logic. They can make it easy to see that all possible combinations of conditions were considered and when conditions are missed, it is easy to see those. In a DT model, a categorized structure, which contains two features at each level, is constructed. Moreover, it contains three components: condition rows, action rows, and rules [11,37]. Here, the best performance of DT in terms of reducing error rate is listed in Table 13 while accuracy details are presented in Table 14.

Table 13. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via DT.

Decision Table						
CCI	293 (97.993%)					
MAE	0.037					
RMSE	0.096					
RAE%	13.122					
RRSE%	25.552					

We applied 10 Cross to Decision Table on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 293 (97.993%). The MAE is 0.037, RMSE is 0.096, RAE is 13.122 and RRSE is 25.552.

Table 14. DT accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
2	1.000	0.993	0.996	0.993	0.993	0.996
3	0.961	0.987	0.974	0.965	0.990	0.960
4	0.955	0.933	0.944	0.934	0.984	0.898
5	0.938	0.938	0.938	0.934	0.983	0.853
Weighted Average	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.975	0.991	0.965

4.7. Decision Table/NaïVe Bayes Hybrid Classifier

DTNB is a class for building and using a Decision Table/Naïve Bayes hybrid classifier. At every plug in the search, the algorithm assesses the quality of apportioning the attributes into two separate subsets: one for the DT, and the other for NB. A frontward selection search is used, where at each step, selected attributes are demonstrated by NB and the residue by the DT, and all attributes are demonstrated by the DT initially. At each step, the algorithm likewise reflects releasing an attribute exclusively from the model [11]. In this research the outcome in terms of reducing error rate along with CCI are presented in Table 15 while the accuracy details are presented in Table 16.

Table 15. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via DTNB.

	DTNB
CCI	293 (97.993%)
MAE	0.037
RMSE	0.096
RAE%	13.021
RRSE%	25.683

We have applied 10 Cross to DTNB on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 293 (97.993%). The MAE is 0.037, RMSE is 0.096, RAE is 13.021 and RRSE is 25.683.

Table 16. DTNB Accuracy Details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
2	1.000	0.993	0.996	0.993	0.993	0.996
3	0.961	0.987	0.974	0.965	0.990	0.953
4	0.955	0.933	0.944	0.934	0.983	0.885
5	0.938	0.938	0.938	0.934	0.987	0.813
Weighted Average	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.975	0.991	0.959

4.8. Credal Decision Trees

CDT is a technique used to enterprise classifier beached on inaccurate opportunities and implausibility measures. All the way through the formation process of a CDT, to bypass producing a too-problematical decision tree, a new standard was presented: stop once the total improbableness increases due to splitting of the decision tree. The function used in total improbability dimension can be fleetingly articulated [38,39]. Here, Table 17 shows the error rates details along with CCI results while Table 18 presents the accuracy details achieved via CDT.

Table 17. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via CDT.

CDT						
293 (97.993%)						
0.013						
0.089						
4.498						
23.741						

We applied 10 Cross to CDT on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 293 (97.993%). The MAE is 0.013, RMSE is 0.089, RAE is 4.498 and RRSE is 23.741.

Table 18.	CDT	accuracy	details.
-----------	-----	----------	----------

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
2	1.000	0.993	0.996	0.993	0.995	0.996
3	0.974	0.987	0.980	0.973	0.991	0.984
4	0.935	0.956	0.945	0.935	0.979	0.890
5	0.933	0.875	0.903	0.898	0.964	0.825
Weighted Average	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.975	0.990	0.968

4.9. Cost-Sensitive Decision Forest

CS-Forest performs a cost-sensitive clipping as a supernumerary of the clipping used by C4.5. C4.5 clips a tree if the credible number of mis-classifications for upcoming minutes does not increase dramatically due to the clipping. However, CS-Forest clips a tree if the credible classification cost for upcoming minutes does not increase dramatically due to the clipping. Moreover, unlike Cost-Sensitive Decision Tree (CS-Tree) CS-Forest endures a tree to first absolutely develop and then get clipped [40]. Tables 19 and 20 correspondingly present the error rates detail along with CCI outcomes and accuracy details succeeded by CS-Forest.

Table 19. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via CS-Forest.

C	S-Forest
CCI	219 (73.244%)
MAE	0.254
RMSE	0.326
RAE%	90.526
RRSE%	87.220

We applied 10 Cross to CS-Forest on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 219 (73.244%). The MAE is 0.254, RMSE is 0.326, RAE is 90.526, and RRSE is 87.220.

Table 20. CS-Forest Accuracy Details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	1.107	0.194	0.313	0.917	0.842
2	0.691	0.993	0.815	0.653	0.982	0.976
3	0.793	0.613	0.692	0.614	0.964	0.872
4	0.794	0.600	0.684	0.645	0.959	0.838
5	0.900	0.563	0.692	0.700	0.998	0.949
Weighted Average	0.772	0.732	0.699	0.613	0.969	0.915

4.10. J48 Decision Tree

J48 is an improved version of C4.5. The method of this algorithm is to use the divideand-conquer technique. It practices the clipping method to construct a tree. It is a corporate method which is used in information gain or entropy measures. Thus, it is similar to a tree structure with root node, intermediate, and leaf nodes. Node holds the decision and helps to obtain the outcome [40,41]. The results of error rate details and accuracy details achieved via J48 are presented in Tables 21 and 22 respectively.

Table 21. (CCI and	Error Rate	s details	achieved	l via	J48.
--------------------	---------	------------	-----------	----------	-------	------

	J48
CCI	288 (96.321%)
MAE	0.018
RMSE	0.120
RAE%	6.516
RRSE%	32.091

We applied 10-fold cross validation to J48 Decision Tree on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 288 (96.321%). The MAE is 0.018, RMSE is 0.120, RAE is 6.516, and RRSE is 32.091.

Table 22. J48 accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	0.929	0.963	0.960	0.964	0.935
2	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.973	0.986	0.979
3	0.948	0.973	0.961	0.947	0.986	0.952
4	0.932	0.911	0.921	0.908	0.977	0.890
5	0.882	0.938	0.909	0.904	0.964	0.794
Weighted Average	0.964	0.963	0.963	0.952	0.981	0.945

4.11. Random Forest

RF categorizes all trees in the forest in the classification procedure by arrangement of the expectation of the tree structure, each appraised according to the same dissemination and the random vector values. random forest algorithm creates decision trees on data samples and then gets the prediction from each of them and finally selects the best solution by means of voting. It is an ensemble method which is better than a single decision tree because it reduces the over-fitting by averaging the result [42–44]. Table 23 presents the CCI outcomes of RF along with error rates details while the accuracy details are presented in Table 24. In each of table presenting CCI details, the percentage of each individual CCI achieved via individual technique is considered to be the accuracy of that technique.

Table 23. CCI and Error Rates details achieved via RF.

	RF
CCI	249 (83.278%)
MAE	0.191
RMSE	0.265
RAE%	68.211
RRSE%	70.995

We applied 10-fold cross validation to RF on the Risk Dataset, and CCI achieved 249 (83.278%). The MAE is 0.191, RMSE is 0.265, RAE is 68.211, and RRSE is 70.995.

Table 24. RF accuracy details.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	1.000	0.286	0.444	0.516	0.998	0.983
2	0.851	0.993	0.908	0.832	0.995	0.995
3	0.843	0.933	0.886	0.847	0.994	0.985
4	0.756	0.756	0.756	0.712	0.987	0.919
5	1.000	0.188	0.316	0.423	0.993	0.902
Weighted Average	0.851	0.833	0.805	0.766	0.994	0.975

5. Analysis of Experimental Results

In this study, ten different classification techniques are employed to find the best classifier in terms of reducing the error rate and increasing the accuracy for RPM. Each technique is evaluated on different evaluation measures in which MAE, RMSE, RAE%, and RRSE% are used to evaluate the error rate while precision, recall, F-measure, MCC, ROC area, PRC area, and CCI are used to evaluate the accuracy of each individual technique. This section is divided into two subsections that are analysis phase 1 and analysis phase 2. In the first section, all error rate measures are analysed while the second section presents the analysis of all accuracy measures.

5.1. Analysis Phase 1

In this phase, each technique evaluated using error rate measures is analysed. Table 25 shows the MAE, RMSE, RAE, and RRSE results accomplished via each individual technique. In the table, the second column represents the list of techniques while rest of the columns represent the error measures. The outcomes of this table show that CDT outperforms the other techniques by reducing the error rate. For better understanding, these analyses are also presented in Figures 3 and 4, respectively, with standard deviation bar. Standard Deviation (SD) is a quantity of distribution of the data commencing the mean. It is a possession of the variable that bounces an impression of the assortment in which the values scatter (dispersal of the data). Error bars of ten symbolize one SD of indecision. The magnitudes are not the same and so the extent carefully chosen should be specified explicitly in the graph or supporting text. Archetypally, error bars are used to display the SD. The artless thing that we can do to enumerate variability is to calculate the SD. Essentially, this articulates us how much the values in each cluster incline to deviate from their mean.

Table 25.	Error	Rates	anal	ysis	of	each	empl	loyed	l techr	iique.
-----------	-------	-------	------	------	----	------	------	-------	---------	--------

S. No.	Technique	MAE	RMSE	RAE%	RRSE%
1	KNN	0.170	0.405	60.638	108.363
2	0ADE	0.048	0.169	17.045	45.181
3	NB	0.042	0.160	14.993	42.876
4	CHIRP	0.224	0.473	80.046	126.751
5	DT	0.037	0.096	13.122	25.552
6	DTNB	0.036	0.096	13.021	25.683
7	CDT	0.013	0.089	4.498	23.741
8	CS-Forest	0.254	0.326	90.526	87.220
9	J48	0.018	0.120	6.516	32.091
10	RF	0.191	0.265	68.211	70.995

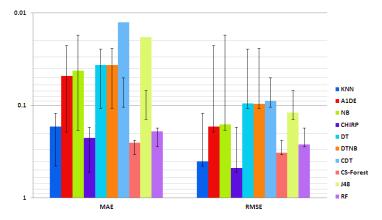


Figure 3. MAE and RMSE analysis of individual techniques along with SD Bar.

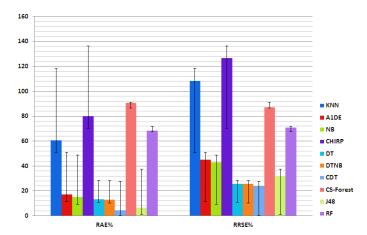


Figure 4. RAE% and RRSE% analysis of individual techniques along with SD Bar.

5.2. Analysis Phase 2

In this phase, all accuracy measures are analyzed. Table 26 presents the performance of each technique evaluated via precision, recall, and F-measure. In this table, the first column represents the evaluation measures while the second column represents the employed techniques. The rest of the columns in the table present the outcome of each individual technique evaluated through each measure. The outcomes show that DT, DTNB, and CDT beat the rest of the employed techniques and produce the same results with each evaluation measure, i.e., 0.980. For better understanding, these results are also presented in Figure 5 through columns and SD bars.

S. No.	Technique	Precision	Recall	F-Measure
1	KNN	0.578	0.582	0.579
2	AIDE	0.910	0.906	0.907
3	NB	0.914	0.910	0.911
4	CHIRP	0.475	0.440	0.440
5	DT	0.980	0.980	0.980
6	DTNB	0.980	0.980	0.980
7	CDT	0.980	0.980	0.980
8	CS-Forest	0.772	0.732	0.699
9	J48	0.964	0.963	0.963
10	RF	0.851	0.833	0.805

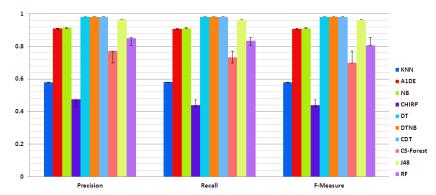


Figure 5. Precision, Recall and F-Measure analysis of individual technique along with SD Bar.

The evaluation through MCC, ROC area, and PRC area are presented in Table 27. These outcomes show that evaluating each technique through MCC, DT, DTNB and CDT

outperforms the other techniques and generates the same results that is 0.975. However, On ROC area and PRC area RF outperforms other employed techniques and generates 0.994 and 0.975 results respectively for ROC area and PRC area. The columns in Figure 6 elaborates the analysis of this phase.

S. No.	Technique	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area
1	KNN	0.406	0.713	0.476
2	AIDE	0.872	0.983	0.952
3	NB	0.877	0.982	0.947
4	CHIRP	0.243	0.624	0.385
5	DT	0.975	0.991	0.965
6	DTNB	0.975	0.991	0.959
7	CDT	0.975	0.990	0.968
8	CS-Forest	0.613	0.969	0.915
9	J48	0.952	0.981	0.945
10	RF	0.766	0.994	0.975

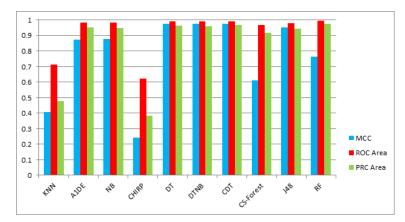


Figure 6. MCC, ROC Area and PRC Area analysis of individual technique.

CCI is considered to be the accuracy of the individual employed technique. The dataset used in this research consists of a total of 299 instances. Table 28 presents the list of all CCI achieved via each individual technique. In the table, the second column shows the list of all used techniques, third column represents the CCI details while fourth column shows the accuracy in percentage. The inclusive analysis of the table shows that DT, DTNB, and CDT beat all the other employed techniques in terms of achieving higher accuracy, which is 97.993% for DT, DTNB, and CDT. The CCI analysis are further shown in Figure 7 with the help of a bar chart for better understanding.

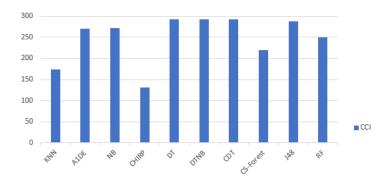


Figure 7. CCI analysis of individual technique.

S. No.	Technique	CCI	Accuracy%
1	KNN	174	58.194
2	AIDE	271	90.635
3	NB	272	90.970
4	CHIRP	131	43.960
5	DT	293	97.993
6	DTNB	293	97.993
7	CDT	293	97.993
8	CS-Forest	219	73.244
9	J48	288	96.321
10	RF	249	83 278

Table 28. CCI Details out of 299 Instances.

6. Conclusions and Future Research Directions

Requirement risk prediction is an active research area with increasing contributions from the research community. This research aims to explore ML techniques for the first time for the requirement risk predictions using new dataset. This research contributed as follows. Ten ML techniques were explored for requirements risk prediction. A detailed comparison of these techniques for the proposed model is performed.

Requirement risk prediction had found great impact on the success or failure of the software project. To overcome this issue, a new model was needed to predict the risk in the project early, therefore, a model and optimal classifier is proposed.

Ten different ML techniques are employed and compared in this research and evaluated for reducing error rates and increasing accuracy of the proposed model. Among all these techniques CDT performed well in terms of overall accuracy, higher CCI, Lower MAE, and RMSE. The experiment shows the results as 0.0126 for MAE, 0.089 for RMSE, 4.498% for RAE, and 23.741% for RRSE. The results achieved are 0.980 for precision, recall and F-measure, 0.975 for MCC, and 97.993% for accuracy. DT, DTNB, and CDT perform better using precision, recall, F-measure, MCC, and accuracy

From the experiments conducted in this research, it was observed that CDT was found to have the lowest error rates that are MAE of 0.013, RMSE of 0.089, RAE of 4.498, and RRSE of 23.741. We also observed that CDT was found to be the best in terms of CCI, i.e., 293 and accuracy of 97.993%. These results show that CDT can claim to be the best suitable and optimal classifier for the prediction of software risks.

The comprehensive outcomes of this study can be used as a reference point for other researchers. Any assertion concerning the enhancement in prediction through any new model, technique or framework can be benchmarked and verified. Some future directions are also listed as the accuracy may further be improved by employing other classification and pre-processing techniques in the proposed model. Class imbalance matter ought to be committed on these datasets. Furthermore, to increase the enactment, feature selection and ensemble learning techniques should also be explored. This research can be further validated using different assessment measures such as Mean Magnitude of Relative Error (MMRE), PRED etc. The dataset contains 299 instances from four different sources which can be enhanced by new requirements from other software project sources. It may also bring new challenges in the prediction of risks at requirement gathering phase.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, R.N., Z.S., M.I., M.A.S., and A.A.; methodology, R.N., Z.S., M.A.S., A.A., and A.G.; implementation, Z.S., M.A.S., and L.D.; validation, M.A.S., A.G., L.D., and J.A.-D.; formal analysis, R.N.; resources, M.I., and F.M.; data curation, A.G., L.D., and J.A.-D.; writing—original draft preparation, R.N., Z.S., and M.I.; writing—review and editing, A.A., L.D., J.A.-D., and A.S.; visualization, Z.S.; supervision, R.N., M.A.S., A.A., and F.M.; funding acquisition, M.I., L.D., A.S., and J.A.-D. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This work was supported by Generalitat Valenciana, Conselleria de Innovacion, Universidades, Ciencia y Sociedad Digital, (project AICO/019/224).

Acknowledgments: The authors acknowledge the Ministry of Education and the Deanship of Scientific Research, Najran University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, under code number NU/ESCI/19/001.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

SDLC Software Development Life Cycle

SDBAR Standard Deviation Bar RPM Risk Prediction Model AHP Analytic Hierarchy Process

NN Neural Network
ML Machine Learning

CCI Correctly Classified Instances

SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences WEKA Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis

KNN K-nearest Neighbours

A1DE Average One Dependency Estimator

NB Naïve Bayes

CHIRP Composite Hypercube on Iterated Random Projection

DT Decision Tree

DTNB Decision Table/Naïve Bayes Hybrid Classifier

CDT Credal Decision Tree RF Random Forest

CS-Forest Cost-Sensitive Decision Forest

J48J48 Decision TreeMAEMean Absolute ErrorRMSERoot Mean Square ErrorRAERelative Absolute ErrorRRSERoot Relative Squared ErrorMCCMatthew's Correlation CoefficientROCReceiver Operating Characteristic Area

PRC Precision-Recall Curves area

References

- 1. Shaukat, Z.S.; Naseem, R.; Zubair, M. A dataset for software requirements risk prediction. In Proceedings of the 2018 IEEE International Conference on Computational Science and Engineering (CSE), Bucharest, Romania, 29–31 October 2018; pp. 112–118. [CrossRef]
- Dhlamini, J.; Nhamu, I.; Kaihepa, A. Intelligent risk management tools for software development. In Proceedings of the 2009
 Annual Conference of the Southern African Computer Lecturers' Association, Eastern Cape, South Africa, 29 June–1 July 2009;
 pp. 33–40. [CrossRef]
- 3. Salih, H.A.; Ammar, H.H. Model-based resource utilization and performance risk prediction using machine learning Techniques. *Int. J. Inform. Vis.* **2017**, *1*, 101–109.
- 4. The Standish Group. The Standish group: The chaos report. Am. J. Hypertens. 2014. [CrossRef]
- 5. Williams, L. Project risks product-specific risks. *J. Secur. NCSU* **2004**, *1*, 1–22.
- 6. Shaukat, Z.; Naseem, R.; Zubair, M. Software requirement risk prediction dataset. In Proceedings of the 2018 IEEE International Conference on Computational Science and Engineering (CSE), Bucharest, Romania, 29–31 October 2018. [CrossRef]
- 7. Deng, Z.; Zhu, X.; Cheng, D.; Zong, M.; Zhang, S. Efficient kNN classification algorithm for big data. *Neurocomputing* **2016**, *195*, 143–148. [CrossRef]
- 8. Abdar, M.; Zomorodi-Moghadam, M.; Das, R.; Ting, I.H. Performance analysis of classification algorithms on early detection of liver disease. *Expert Syst. Appl.* **2017**, *67*, 239–251. [CrossRef]
- 9. Wilkinson, L.; Anand, A.; Tuan, D.N. CHIRP: A new classifier based on composite hypercubes on iterated random projections. In Proceedings of the 17th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, San Diego, CA, USA, 21–24 August 2011; pp. 6–14. [CrossRef]
- 10. Kaur, J.; Sabo, T.; Baghla, S.; Sabo, T. Modified Decision Table Classifier By Using Decision Support and Confidence In Online Shopping Dataset. *Int. J. Comput. Eng. Technol.* **2017**, *8*, 83–88.
- 11. Hall, M.; Frank, E. Combining Naive Bayes and Decision Tables. In Proceedings of the Twenty-First International Florida Artificial Intelligence Research Society Conference, Coconut Grove, FL, USA, 15–17 May 2008; pp. 318–319.

12. Singh, A.; Jain, A. Cost-sensitive metaheuristic technique for credit card fraud detection. *J. Inf. Optim. Sci.* **2020**, *41*, 1319–1331. [CrossRef]

- 13. Khan, B.; Naseem, R.; Muhammad, F.; Abbas, G.; Kim, S. An empirical evaluation of machine learning techniques for chronic kidney disease prophecy. *IEEE Access* **2020**, *8*, 55012–55022. [CrossRef]
- 14. Geetha, R.; Sivasubramanian, S.; Kaliappan, M.; Vimal, S.; Annamalai, S. Cervical Cancer Identification with Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique and PCA Analysis using Random Forest Classifier. *J. Med. Syst.* **2019**, 43. [CrossRef]
- 15. Heidari, A.A.; Faris, H.; Aljarah, I.; Mirjalili, S. An efficient hybrid multilayer perceptron neural network with grasshopper optimization. *Soft Comput.* **2019**, 23, 7941–7958. [CrossRef]
- 16. Cao, W.; Wang, X.; Ming, Z.; Gao, J. A review on neural networks with random weights. *Neurocomputing* **2018**, 275, 278–287. [CrossRef]
- 17. Papernot, N.; Mcdaniel, P.; Jha, S.; Fredrikson, M.; Celik, Z.B.; Swami, A. The limitations of deep learning in adversarial settings. In Proceedings of the 2016 IEEE European Symposium on Security and Privacy (EuroS&P), Saarbrucken, Germany, 21–24 March 2016; pp. 372–387. [CrossRef]
- 18. Abiodun, O.I.; Jantan, A.; Omolara, A.E.; Dada, K.V.; Mohamed, N.A.E.; Arshad, H. State-of-the-art in artificial neural network applications: A survey. *Heliyon* **2018**, *4*, e00938. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 19. Berrar, D. Cross-validation. Encycl. Bioinformat. Comput. Biol. ABC Bioinformat. 2018, 1–3, 542–545. [CrossRef]
- 20. Wang, W.; Lu, Y. Analysis of the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) in Assessing Rounding Model. *IOP Conf. Ser. Mater. Sci. Eng.* **2018**, 324. [CrossRef]
- 21. Shalev-Shwartz, S.; Ben-David, S. *Understanding Machine Learning: From Theory to Algorithms*; IOP Publishing Ltd.: Kuala Lampur, Malaysia, 2014; ISBN 9781107057135.
- 22. Nassif, A.B.; Capretz, L.F.; Hill, R. Analyzing the non-functional requirements in the desharnais dataset for software effort estimation. *arXiv* **2014**, arXiv:1405.1131.
- 23. Raji, C.G.; Chandra, S.S.V. Graft survival prediction in liver transplantation using artificial neural network models. *J. Comput. Sci.* **2016**, *16*, 72–78. [CrossRef]
- 24. Menzies, T.; Dekhtyar, A.; Distefano, J.; Greenwald, J. Problems with precision: A response to 'Comments on "data mining static code attributes to learn defect predictors'". *IEEE Trans. Softw. Eng.* **2007**, *33*, 637–640. [CrossRef]
- 25. Tong, H.; Liu, B.; Wang, S. Software defect prediction using stacked denoising autoencoders and two-stage ensemble learning. *Inf. Softw. Technol.* **2018**, *96*, 94–111. [CrossRef]
- 26. Jacob, S.; Raju, G. Software defect prediction in large space systems through hybrid feature selection and classification. *Int. Arab J. Inf. Technol.* **2017**, *14*, 208–214.
- 27. Witten, I.H.; Frank, E.; Hall, M.A. Data Mining: Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques (Google eBook); Elsevier: Burlington, NJ, USA, 2011.
- 28. Balogun, A.O.; Bajeh, A.O.; Orie, V.A.; Yusuf-asaju, A.W. Software defect rediction using ensemble learning: An ANP based evaluation method. *J. Eng. Technol.* **2018**, *3*, 50–55.
- 29. Anand, A.; Wilkinson, L.; Tuan, D.N. An L-infinity norm visual classifier. In Proceedings of the Ninth IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM), Miami, FL, USA, 6–9 December 2009; pp. 687–692.
- 30. Manjula, C.; Florence, L. Deep neural network based hybrid approach for software defect prediction using software metrics. *Cluster Comput.* **2019**, 22, 9847–9863. [CrossRef]
- 31. Boehm, B. Software risk management: principles and practices. IEEE Softw. 1991, 8, 32-41. [CrossRef]
- 32. Moores, T.T.; Champion, R.E.M.; Tong, K. A methodology for measuring the risk associated with a software. *Australas. J. Inf. Syst.* **1996**, *4*, 55–63.
- 33. Nikam, S.S. A Comparative Study of Classification Techniques in Data Mining Algorithms. *Int. J. Mod. Trends Eng. Res.* **2017**, *4*, 58–63. [CrossRef]
- 34. Picek, S.; Heuser, A.; Guilley, S. Template attack versus bayes classifier. J. Cryptogr. Eng. 2017, 7, 343–351. [CrossRef]
- 35. Pham, B.T. A novel classifier based on composite hyper-cubes on Iterated random projections for assessment of landslide susceptibility. *J. Geol. Soc. India* **2018**, *91*, 355–362. [CrossRef]
- 36. Bijalwan, V.; Kumar, V.; Kumari, P.; Pascual, J. KNN based machine learning approach for text and document mining. *Int. J. Database Theory Appl.* **2014**, *7*, 61–70. [CrossRef]
- 37. Alasker, H.; Alharkan, S.; Alharkan, W.; Zaki, A.; Riza, L.S. Detection of kidney disease using various intelligent classifiers. In Proceedings of the 2017 3rd International Conference on Science in Information Technology (ICSITech), Bandung, Indonesia, 25–26 October 2017; pp. 681–684.
- 38. Mantas, C.J.; Abellán, J. Credal decision trees in noisy domains. In Proceedings of the 22nd European Symposium on Artificial Neural Networks, Computational Intelligence and Machine Learning (ESANN 2014), Bruges, Belgium, 23–25 April 2014; pp. 683–688.
- 39. He, Q.; Xu, Z.; Li, S.; Li, R.; Zhang, S.; Wang, N.; Pham, B.T.; Chen, W. Novel entropy and rotation forest-based credal decision tree classifier for landslide susceptibility modeling. *Entropy* **2019**, *21*, 106. [CrossRef]
- 40. Siers, M.J.; Islam, M.Z. Cost sensitive decision forest and voting for software defect prediction. In *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*; Including Subseries Lecture Notes Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes Bioinformatics; Springer: Cham, Switzerland, 2014; Volume 8862, pp. 929–936.

- 41. Dar, K.S.; Azmeen, S.M.U. Dengue fever prediction: A data mining problem. J. Data Min. Genom. Proteom. 2015, 6. [CrossRef]
- 42. Nahar, N.; Ara, F. Liver disease prediction by using different decision tree techniques. *Int. J. Data Min. Knowl. Manag. Process* **2018**, *8*, 1–9. [CrossRef]
- 43. Jin, H.; Kim, S.; Kim, J. Decision factors on effective liver patient data prediction. *Int. J. Bio-Sci. Bio-Technol.* **2014**, *6*, 167–178. [CrossRef]
- 44. Carvajal, T.M.; Viacrusis, K.M.; Hernandez, L.F.T.; Ho, H.T.; Amalin, D.M.; Watanabe, K. Machine learning methods reveal the temporal pattern of dengue incidence using meteorological factors in metropolitan Manila, Philippines. *BMC Infect. Dis.* **2018**, *18*, 1–15. [CrossRef] [PubMed]