SOFTWARE ENGINEERING

Chapter 3 - Project Management

Topics covered

- Risk management
- Managing people
- Project cost
- Project plan & schedule

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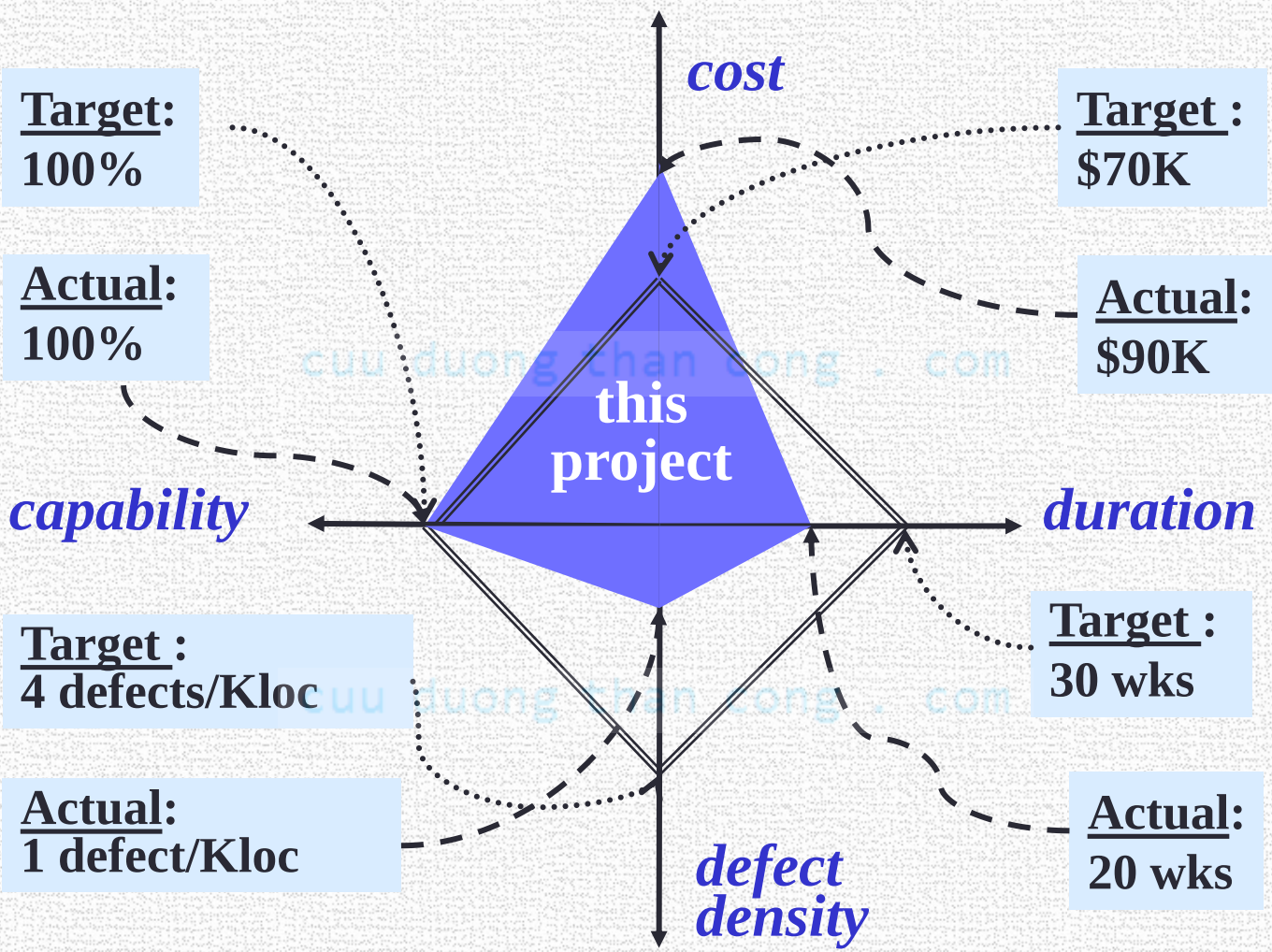
Software project management

- Concerned with activities involved in ensuring that software is delivered on time and on schedule and in accordance with the requirements of the organisations developing and procuring the software.
- Project management is needed because software development is always subject to budget and schedule constraints that are set by the organisation developing the software.

Success criteria

- Deliver the software to the customer at the agreed time.
- Keep overall costs within budget.
- Deliver software that meets the customer's expectations.
- Maintain a happy and well-functioning development team.

Bulls-eye Diagram for Project Variables



Software management distinctions

- The product is intangible.
  - Software cannot be seen or touched. Software project managers cannot see progress by simply looking at the artifact that is being constructed.
- Many software projects are 'one-off' projects.
  - Large software projects are usually different in some ways from previous projects. Even managers who have lots of previous experience may find it difficult to anticipate problems.
- Software processes are variable and organization specific.
  - We still cannot reliably predict when a particular software process is likely to lead to development problems.

Management activities

- Project planning
  - Project managers are responsible for planning. estimating and scheduling project development and assigning people to tasks.
- Reporting
  - Project managers are usually responsible for reporting on the progress of a project to customers and to the managers of the company developing the software.
- Risk management
  - Project managers assess the risks that may affect a project, monitor these risks and take action when problems arise.

Management activities

- People management
  - Project managers have to choose people for their team and establish ways of working that leads to effective team performance
- Proposal writing
  - The first stage in a software project may involve writing a proposal to win a contract to carry out an item of work. The proposal describes the objectives of the project and how it will be carried out.

Risk management

- Risk management is concerned with identifying risks and drawing up plans to minimise their effect on a project.
- A risk is a probability that some adverse circumstance will occur
  - Project risks affect schedule or resources;
  - Product risks affect the quality or performance of the software being developed;
  - Business risks affect the organisation developing or procuring the software.

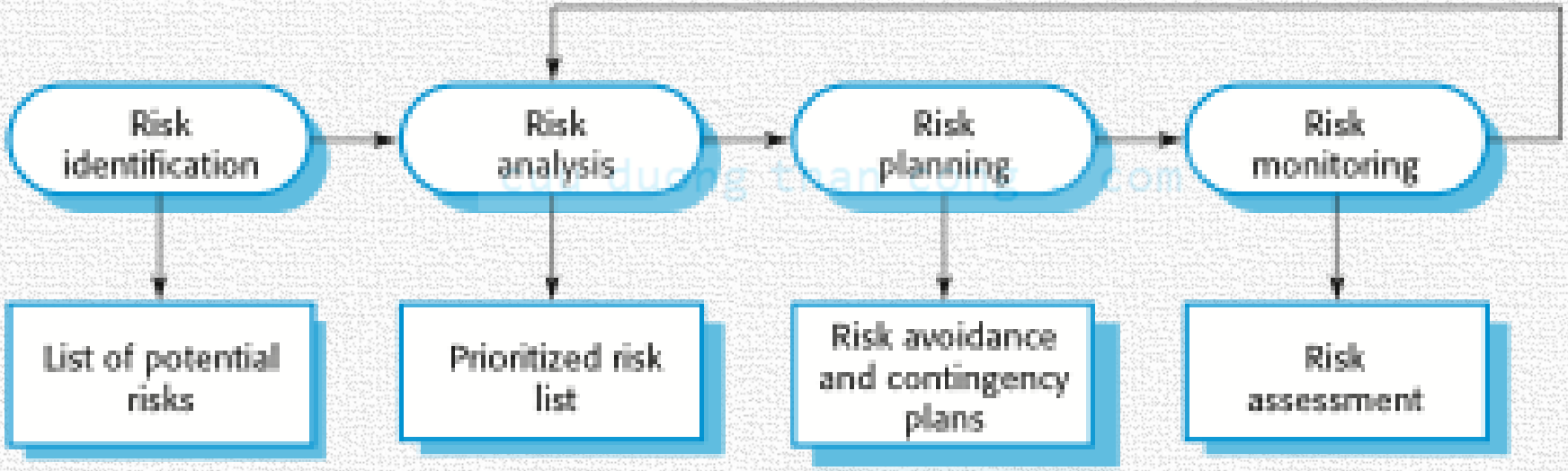
Examples of common project, product, and business risks

Risk	Affects	Description
Staff turnover	Project	Experienced staff will leave the project before it is finished.
Management change	Project	There will be a change of organizational management with different priorities.
Hardware unavailability	Project	Hardware that is essential for the project will not be delivered on schedule.
Requirements change	Project and product	There will be a larger number of changes to the requirements than anticipated.
Specification delays	Project and product	Specifications of essential interfaces are not available on schedule.
Size underestimate	Project and product	The size of the system has been underestimated.
CASE tool underperformance	Product	CASE tools, which support the project, do not perform as anticipated.
Technology change	Business	The underlying technology on which the system is built is superseded by new technology.
Product competition	Business	A competitive product is marketed before the system is completed.

The risk management process

- Risk identification
  - Identify project, product and business risks;
- Risk analysis
  - Assess the likelihood and consequences of these risks;
- Risk planning
  - Draw up plans to avoid or minimise the effects of the risk;
- Risk monitoring
  - Monitor the risks throughout the project;

The risk management process



Risk identification

- May be a team activities or based on the individual project manager's experience.
- A checklist of common risks may be used to identify risks in a project
  - Technology risks.
  - People risks.
  - Organisational risks.
  - Requirements risks.
  - Estimation risks.

Examples of different risk types

Risk type	Possible risks
Technology	The database used in the system cannot process as many transactions per second as expected. (1) Reusable software components contain defects that mean they cannot be reused as planned. (2)
People	It is impossible to recruit staff with the skills required. (3) Key staff are ill and unavailable at critical times. (4) Required training for staff is not available. (5)
Organizational	The organization is restructured so that different management are responsible for the project. (6) Organizational financial problems force reductions in the project budget. (7)
Tools	The code generated by software code generation tools is inefficient. (8) Software tools cannot work together in an integrated way. (9)
Requirements	Changes to requirements that require major design rework are proposed. (10) Customers fail to understand the impact of requirements changes. (11)
Estimation	The time required to develop the software is underestimated. (12) The rate of defect repair is underestimated. (13) The size of the software is underestimated. (14)

Risk analysis

- Assess probability and seriousness of each risk.
- Probability may be very low, low, moderate, high or very high.
- Risk consequences might be catastrophic, serious, tolerable or insignificant.

Risk types and examples

Risk	Probability	Effects
Organizational financial problems force reductions in the project budget (7).	Low	Catastrophic
It is impossible to recruit staff with the skills required for the project (3).	High	Catastrophic
Key staff are ill at critical times in the project (4).	Moderate	Serious
Faults in reusable software components have to be repaired before these components are reused. (2).	Moderate	Serious
Changes to requirements that require major design rework are proposed (10).	Moderate	Serious
The organization is restructured so that different management are responsible for the project (6).	High	Serious
The database used in the system cannot process as many transactions per second as expected (1).	Moderate	Serious

Risk types and examples

Risk	Probability	Effects
The time required to develop the software is underestimated (12).	High	Serious
Software tools cannot be integrated (9).	High	Tolerable
Customers fail to understand the impact of requirements changes (11).	Moderate	Tolerable
Required training for staff is not available (5).	Moderate	Tolerable
The rate of defect repair is underestimated (13).	Moderate	Tolerable
The size of the software is underestimated (14).	High	Tolerable
Code generated by code generation tools is inefficient (8).	Moderate	Insignificant

Risk planning

- Consider each risk and develop a strategy to manage that risk.
- Avoidance strategies
  - The probability that the risk will arise is reduced;
- Minimisation strategies
  - The impact of the risk on the project or product will be reduced;
- Contingency plans
  - If the risk arises, contingency plans are plans to deal with that risk;

Strategies to help manage risk

Risk	Strategy
Organizational financial problems	Prepare a briefing document for senior management showing how the project is making a very important contribution to the goals of the business and presenting reasons why cuts to the project budget would not be cost-effective.
Recruitment problems	Alert customer to potential difficulties and the possibility of delays; investigate buying-in components.
Staff illness	Reorganize team so that there is more overlap of work and people therefore understand each other's jobs.
Defective components	Replace potentially defective components with bought-in components of known reliability.
Requirements changes	Derive traceability information to assess requirements change impact; maximize information hiding in the design.

Strategies to help manage risk

Risk	Strategy
Organizational restructuring	Prepare a briefing document for senior management showing how the project is making a very important contribution to the goals of the business.
Database performance	Investigate the possibility of buying a higher-performance database.
Underestimated development time	Investigate buying-in components; investigate use of a program generator.

Risk monitoring

- Assess each identified risks regularly to decide whether or not it is becoming less or more probable.
- Also assess whether the effects of the risk have changed.
- Each key risk should be discussed at management progress meetings.

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Risk indicators

Risk type	Potential indicators
Technology	Late delivery of hardware or support software; many reported technology problems.
People	Poor staff morale; poor relationships amongst team members; high staff turnover.
Organizational	Organizational gossip; lack of action by senior management.
Tools	Reluctance by team members to use tools; complaints about CASE tools; demands for higher-powered workstations.
Requirements	Many requirements change requests; customer complaints.
Estimation	Failure to meet agreed schedule; failure to clear reported defects.

Managing people

- People are an organisation's most important assets.
- The tasks of a manager are essentially people-oriented. Unless there is some understanding of people, management will be unsuccessful.
- Poor people management is an important contributor to project failure.

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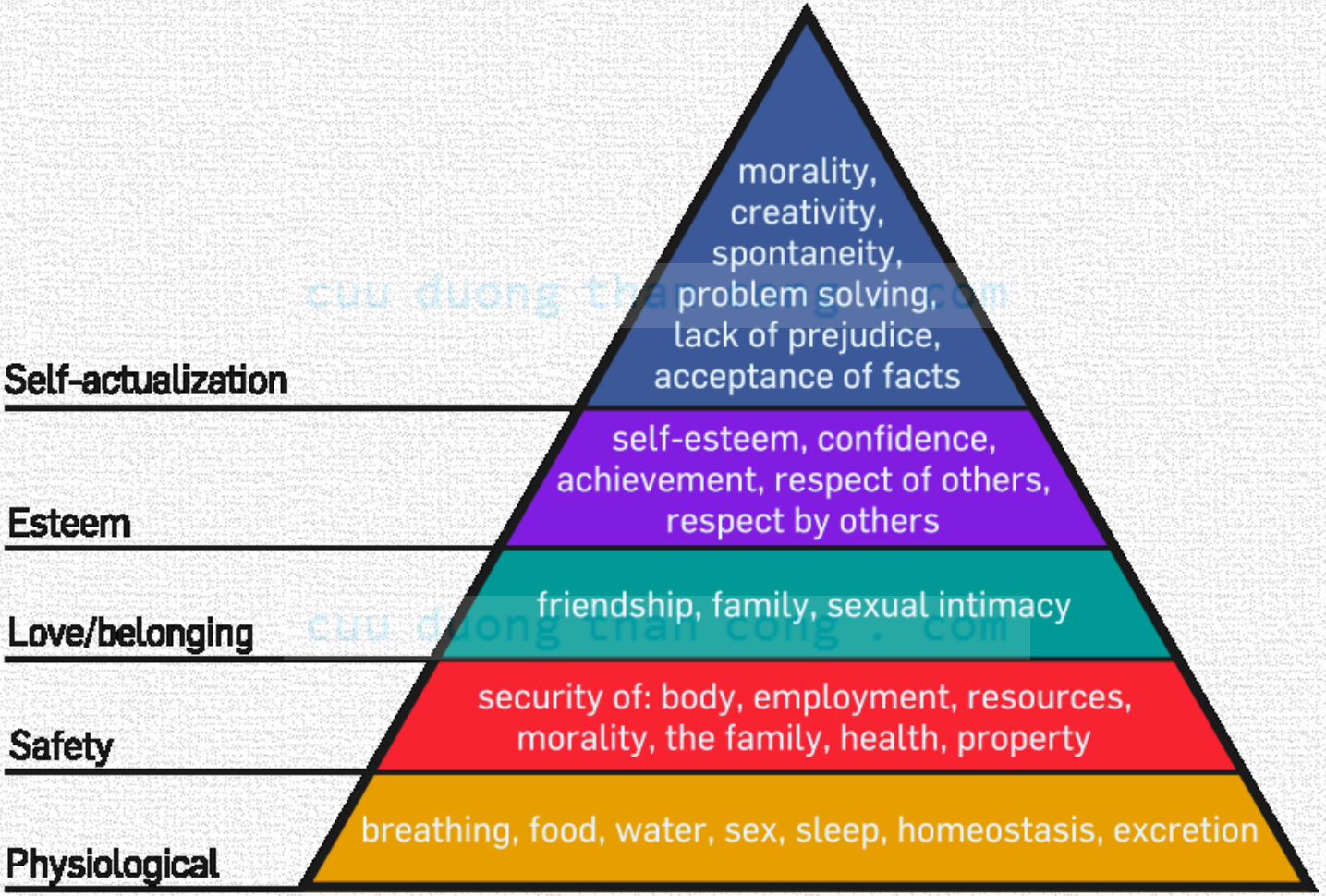
People management factors

- Consistency
  - Team members should all be treated in a comparable way without favourites or discrimination.
- Respect
  - Different team members have different skills and these differences should be respected.
- Inclusion
  - Involve all team members and make sure that people's views are considered.
- Honesty
  - You should always be honest about what is going well and what is going badly in a project.

Motivating people

- An important role of a manager is to motivate the people working on a project.
- Motivation means organizing the work and the working environment to encourage people to work effectively.
  - If people are not motivated, they will not be interested in the work they are doing. They will work slowly, be more likely to make mistakes and will not contribute to the broader goals of the team or the organization.
- Motivation is a complex issue but it appears that their are different types of motivation based on:
  - Basic needs (e.g. food, sleep, etc.);
  - Personal needs (e.g. respect, self-esteem);
  - Social needs (e.g. to be accepted as part of a group).

Human needs hierarchy



Need satisfaction

- In software development groups, basic physiological and safety needs are not an issue.
- Social
  - Provide communal facilities;
  - Allow informal communications e.g. via social networking
- Esteem
  - Recognition of achievements;
  - Appropriate rewards.
- Self-realization
  - Training - people want to learn more;
  - Responsibility.

Personality types

- The needs hierarchy is almost certainly an over-simplification of motivation in practice.
- Motivation should also take into account different personality types:
  - Task-oriented;
  - Self-oriented;
  - Interaction-oriented.

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Personality types

- Task-oriented.
  - The motivation for doing the work is the work itself;
- Self-oriented.
  - The work is a means to an end which is the achievement of individual goals - e.g. to get rich, to play tennis, to travel etc.;
- Interaction-oriented
  - The principal motivation is the presence and actions of co-workers. People go to work because they like to go to work.

Motivation balance

- Individual motivations are made up of elements of each class.
- The balance can change depending on personal circumstances and external events.
- However, people are not just motivated by personal factors but also by being part of a group and culture.
- People go to work because they are motivated by the people that they work with.

Teamwork

- Most software engineering is a group activity
  - The development schedule for most non-trivial software projects is such that they cannot be completed by one person working alone.
- A good group is cohesive and has a team spirit. The people involved are motivated by the success of the group as well as by their own personal goals.
- Group interaction is a key determinant of group performance.
- Flexibility in group composition is limited
  - Managers must do the best they can with available people.

Group cohesiveness

- In a cohesive group, members consider the group to be more important than any individual in it.
- The advantages of a cohesive group are:
  - Group quality standards can be developed by the group members.
  - Team members learn from each other and get to know each other's work; Inhibitions caused by ignorance are reduced.
  - Knowledge is shared. Continuity can be maintained if a group member leaves.
  - Refactoring and continual improvement is encouraged. Group members work collectively to deliver high quality results and fix problems, irrespective of the individuals who originally created the design or program.

The effectiveness of a team

- The people in the group
  - You need a mix of people in a project group as software development involves diverse activities such as negotiating with clients, programming, testing and documentation.
- The group organization
  - A group should be organized so that individuals can contribute to the best of their abilities and tasks can be completed as expected.
- Technical and managerial communications
  - Good communications between group members, and between the software engineering team and other project stakeholders, is essential.

Group organization

- The way that a group is organized affects the decisions that are made by that group, the ways that information is exchanged and the interactions between the development group and external project stakeholders.
  - Key questions include:
    - Should the project manager be the technical leader of the group?
    - Who will be involved in making critical technical decisions, and how will these be made?
    - How will interactions with external stakeholders and senior company management be handled?
    - How can groups integrate people who are not co-located?
    - How can knowledge be shared across the group?

Group organization

- Small software engineering groups are usually organised informally without a rigid structure.
- For large projects, there may be a hierarchical structure where different groups are responsible for different sub-projects.
- Agile development is always based around an informal group on the principle that formal structure inhibits information exchange

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Informal groups

- The group acts as a whole and comes to a consensus on decisions affecting the system.
- The group leader serves as the external interface of the group but does not allocate specific work items.
- Rather, work is discussed by the group as a whole and tasks are allocated according to ability and experience.
- This approach is successful for groups where all members are experienced and competent.

Group communications

- Good communications are essential for effective group working.
- Information must be exchanged on the status of work, design decisions and changes to previous decisions.
- Good communications also strengthens group cohesion as it promotes understanding.

Group communications

- Group size
  - The larger the group, the harder it is for people to communicate with other group members.
- Group structure
  - Communication is better in informally structured groups than in hierarchically structured groups.
- Group composition
  - Communication is better when there are different personality types in a group and when groups are mixed rather than single sex.
- The physical work environment
  - Good workplace organisation can help encourage communications.

Project planning

- Project planning involves breaking down the work into parts and assign these to project team members, anticipate problems that might arise and prepare tentative solutions to those problems.
- The project plan, which is created at the start of a project, is used to communicate how the work will be done to the project team and customers, and to help assess progress on the project.

Planning stages

- At the proposal stage, when you are bidding for a contract to develop or provide a software system.
- During the project startup phase, when you have to plan who will work on the project, how the project will be broken down into increments, how resources will be allocated across your company, etc.
- Periodically throughout the project, when you modify your plan in the light of experience gained and information from monitoring the progress of the work.

Proposal planning

- Planning may be necessary with only outline software requirements.
- The aim of planning at this stage is to provide information that will be used in setting a price for the system to customers.

Software pricing

- Estimates are made to discover the cost, to the developer, of producing a software system.
  - You take into account, hardware, software, travel, training and effort costs.
- There is not a simple relationship between the development cost and the price charged to the customer.
- Broader organisational, economic, political and business considerations influence the price charged.

Factors affecting software pricing

Factor	Description
Market opportunity	A development organization may quote a low price because it wishes to move into a new segment of the software market. Accepting a low profit on one project may give the organization the opportunity to make a greater profit later. The experience gained may also help it develop new products.
Cost estimate uncertainty	If an organization is unsure of its cost estimate, it may increase its price by a contingency over and above its normal profit.
Contractual terms	A customer may be willing to allow the developer to retain ownership of the source code and reuse it in other projects. The price charged may then be less than if the software source code is handed over to the customer.

Factors affecting software pricing

Factor	Description
Requirements volatility	If the requirements are likely to change, an organization may lower its price to win a contract. After the contract is awarded, high prices can be charged for changes to the requirements.
Financial health	Developers in financial difficulty may lower their price to gain a contract. It is better to make a smaller than normal profit or break even than to go out of business. Cash flow is more important than profit in difficult economic times.

Plan-driven development

- Plan-driven or plan-based development is an approach to software engineering where the development process is planned in detail.
  - Plan-driven development is based on engineering project management techniques and is the 'traditional' way of managing large software development projects.
- A project plan is created that records the work to be done, who will do it, the development schedule and the work products.
- Managers use the plan to support project decision making and as a way of measuring progress.

Plan-driven development – pros and cons

- The arguments in favor of a plan-driven approach are that early planning allows organizational issues (availability of staff, other projects, etc.) to be closely taken into account, and that potential problems and dependencies are discovered before the project starts, rather than once the project is underway.
- The principal argument against plan-driven development is that many early decisions have to be revised because of changes to the environment in which the software is to be developed and used.

Project plans

- In a plan-driven development project, a project plan sets out the resources available to the project, the work breakdown and a schedule for carrying out the work.
- Plan sections
  - Introduction
  - Project organization
  - Risk analysis
  - Hardware and software resource requirements
  - Work breakdown
  - Project schedule
  - Monitoring and reporting mechanisms

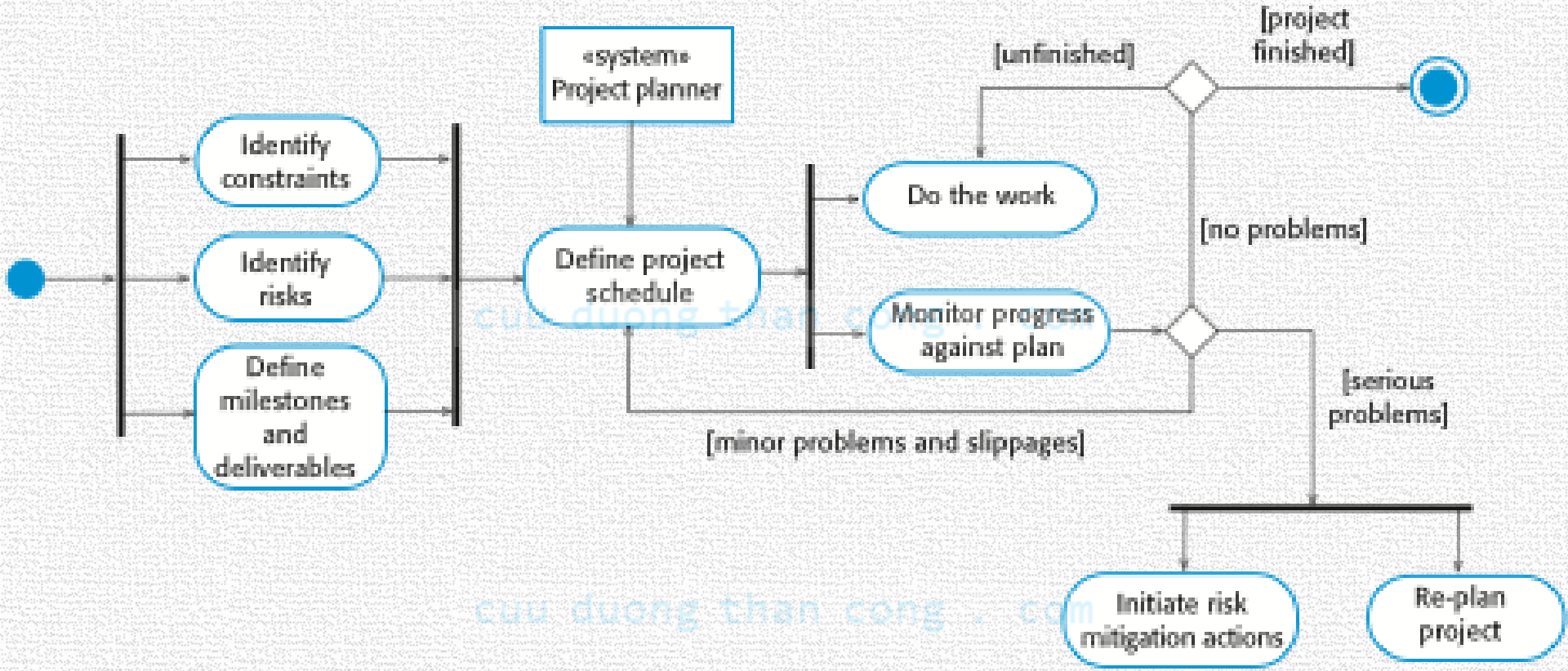
Project plan supplements

Plan	Description
Quality plan	Describes the quality procedures and standards that will be used in a project.
Validation plan	Describes the approach, resources, and schedule used for system validation.
Configuration management plan	Describes the configuration management procedures and structures to be used.
Maintenance plan	Predicts the maintenance requirements, costs, and effort.
Staff development plan	Describes how the skills and experience of the project team members will be developed.

The planning process

- Project planning is an iterative process that starts when you create an initial project plan during the project startup phase.
- Plan changes are inevitable.
  - As more information about the system and the project team becomes available during the project, you should regularly revise the plan to reflect requirements, schedule and risk changes.
  - Changing business goals also leads to changes in project plans. As business goals change, this could affect all projects, which may then have to be re-planned.

The project planning process



Project scheduling

- Project scheduling is the process of deciding how the work in a project will be organized as separate tasks, and when and how these tasks will be executed.
- You estimate the calendar time needed to complete each task, the effort required and who will work on the tasks that have been identified.
- You also have to estimate the resources needed to complete each task, such as the disk space required on a server, the time required on specialized hardware, such as a simulator, and what the travel budget will be.

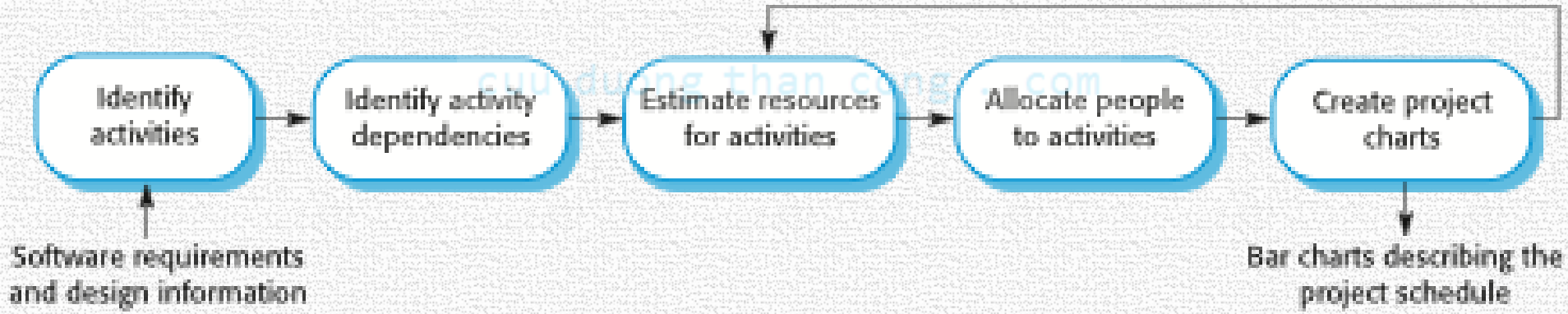
Project scheduling activities

- Split project into tasks and estimate time and resources required to complete each task.
- Organize tasks concurrently to make optimal use of workforce.
- Minimize task dependencies to avoid delays caused by one task waiting for another to complete.
- Dependent on project managers intuition and experience.

Milestones and deliverables

- Milestones are points in the schedule against which you can assess progress, for example, the handover of the system for testing.
- Deliverables are work products that are delivered to the customer, e.g. a requirements document for the system.

The project scheduling process



Scheduling problems

- Estimating the difficulty of problems and hence the cost of developing a solution is hard.
- Productivity is not proportional to the number of people working on a task.
- Adding people to a late project makes it later because of communication overheads.
- The unexpected always happens. Always allow contingency in planning.

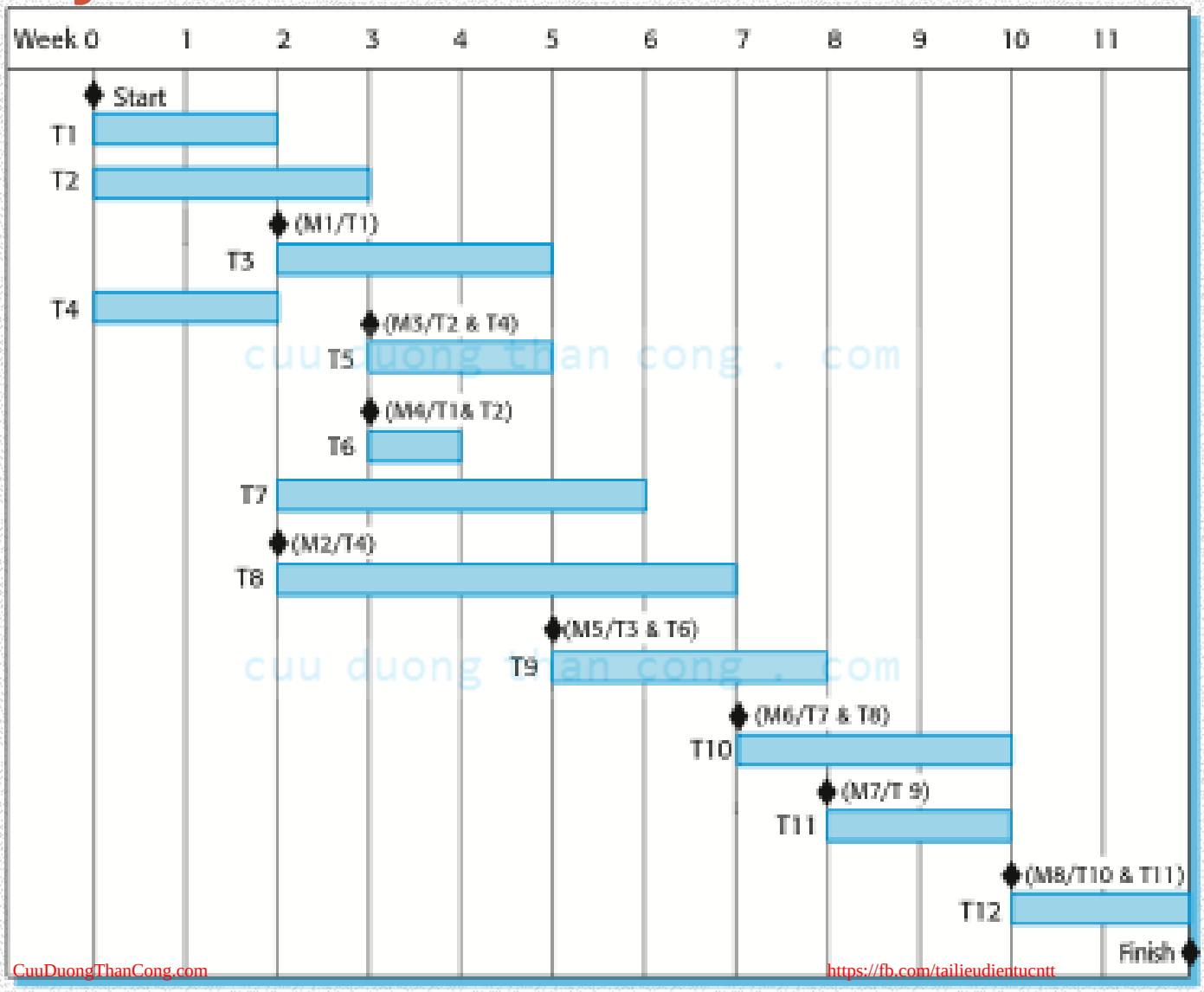
Schedule representation

- Graphical notations are normally used to illustrate the project schedule.
- These show the project breakdown into tasks. Tasks should not be too small. They should take about a week or two.
- Bar charts are the most commonly used representation for project schedules. They show the schedule as activities or resources against time.

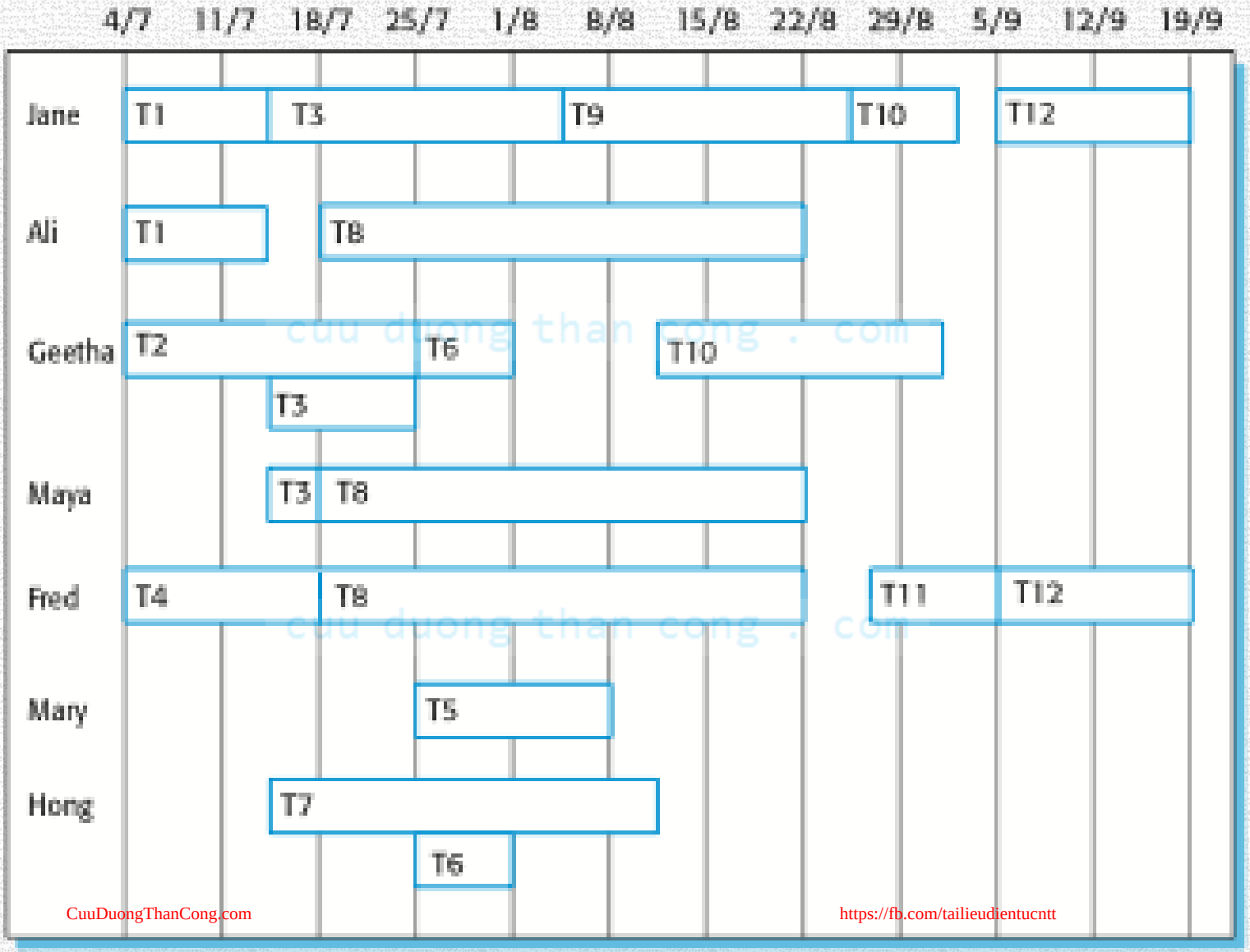
Tasks, durations, and dependencies

Task	Effort (person-days)	Duration (days)	Dependencies
T1	15	10	
T2	8	15	
T3	20	15	T1 (M1)
T4	5	10	
T5	5	10	T2, T4 (M3)
T6	10	5	T1, T2 (M4)
T7	25	20	T1 (M1)
T8	75	25	T4 (M2)
T9	10	15	T3, T6 (M5)
T10	20	15	T7, T8 (M6)
T11	10	10	T9 (M7)
T12	20	10	T10, T11 (M8)

Activity bar chart



Staff allocation chart



Estimation techniques

- Organizations need to make software effort and cost estimates. There are two types of technique that can be used to do this:
  - *Experience-based techniques* The estimate of future effort requirements is based on the manager's experience of past projects and the application domain. Essentially, the manager makes an informed judgment of what the effort requirements are likely to be.
  - *Algorithmic cost modeling* In this approach, a formulaic approach is used to compute the project effort based on estimates of product attributes, such as size, and process characteristics, such as experience of staff involved.

Experience-based approaches

- Experience-based techniques rely on judgments based on experience of past projects and the effort expended in these projects on software development activities.
- Typically, you identify the deliverables to be produced in a project and the different software components or systems that are to be developed.
- You document these in a spreadsheet, estimate them individually and compute the total effort required.
- It usually helps to get a group of people involved in the effort estimation and to ask each member of the group to explain their estimate.

Estimating Lines of Code Arbitrarily

- Method 1
  - A simply queue simulation 120-400 LoC
  - The (first release) Encounter game
    - 4-15 queues
    - 30-90 additional components of comparable size
    - => (30+4) x 120 to (90+15) x 400 = 5-42 KLoC
  - Use graphics costs 1.5 to 4 times more
  - => 7.5 – 170 KLoC
- Method 2
  - A good video game required 5-20 expert programmers for 1-2 years
  - We invert 1/10
  - Assume 5-25 LoC/h (fully tested code)
  - => 1/10 x (5-25 lines/h) x (5-20 programmers) x (1-2 years) x (48-50 weeks/year) x (35-60 hours/week) = 4.2-300 KLoC

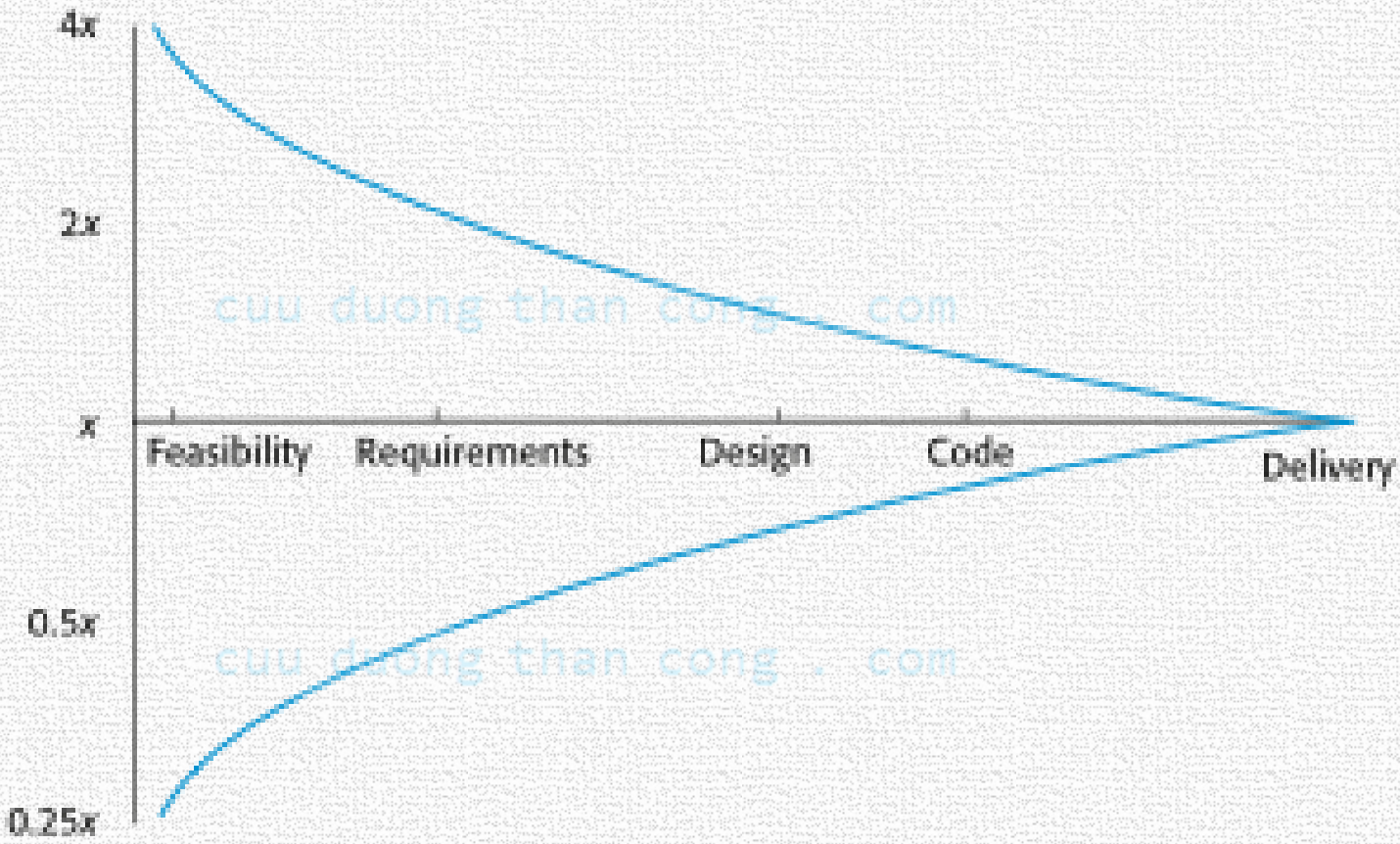
Algorithmic cost modelling

- Cost is estimated as a mathematical function of product, project and process attributes whose values are estimated by project managers:
  - Effort = A $\times$ Size^{B} $\times$ M
  - A is an organisation-dependent constant, B reflects the disproportionate effort for large projects and M is a multiplier reflecting product, process and people attributes.
- The most commonly used product attribute for cost estimation is code size.
- Most models are similar but they use different values for A, B and M.

Estimation accuracy

- The size of a software system can only be known accurately when it is finished.
- Several factors influence the final size
  - Use of COTS and components;
  - Programming language;
  - Distribution of system.
- As the development process progresses then the size estimate becomes more accurate.
- The estimates of the factors contributing to B and M are subjective and vary according to the judgment of the estimator.

Estimate uncertainty



The COCOMO model

- An empirical model based on project experience.
- Well-documented, 'independent' model which is not tied to a specific software vendor.
- Long history from initial version published in 1981 (COCOMO-81) through various instantiations to COCOMO 2.
- COCOMO 2 takes into account different approaches to software development, reuse, etc.

Typical Cost Estimation Roadmap

1A. Use comparisons with past jobs to estimate cost & duration directly or to estimate lines of code.

and / or

1B. Use function point method to estimate lines of code

1B.1 Compute un-adjusted function points.

1B.2 Apply adjustment process.

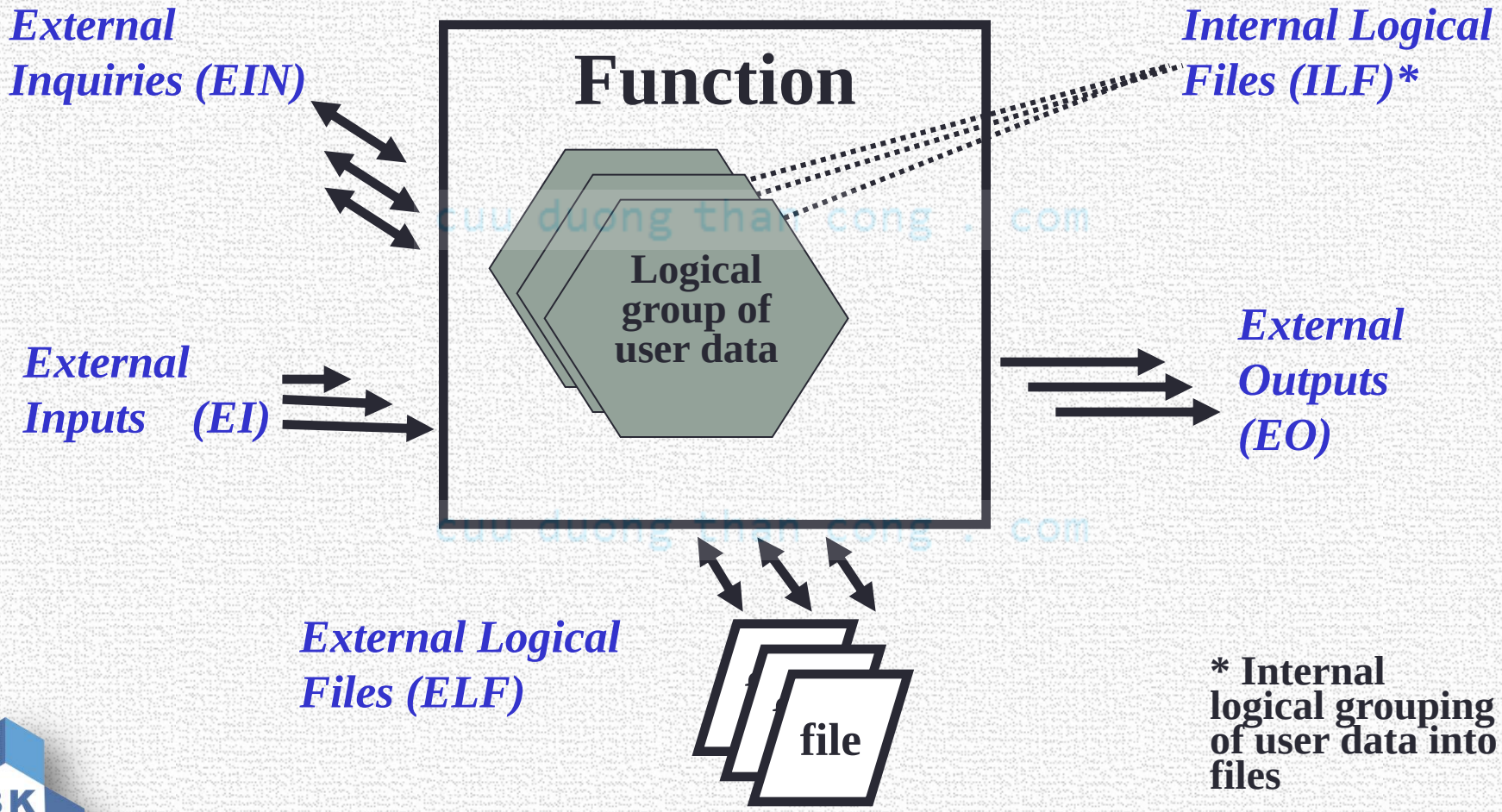
2. Use lines of code estimates to compute labor and duration using COCOMO formulas.

Function Points and Lines of Code

- Step 1: Identify the functions
- Step 2: For each function, compute its function points
- Step 3: Add factors to function points
- Step 4: Compute weights for some characteristics of the project
- Step 5: Calculate the adjust function points

- Finally: Convert function points to lines of code

Function Point Computation for a Single Function



Function Point Computations

PARAMETER		simple				complex	
Ext. inputs *EI*	×	*3*	or	*4*	or	*6*	= ___
Ext. outputs *EO*	×	*4*	or	*5*	or	*7*	= ___
Ext. inquiries *EIN*	×	*3*	or	*4*	or	*6*	= ___
Int. logical files *ILF*	×	*7*	or	*10*	or	*15*	= ___
Ext. logical files *ELF*	×	*5*	or	*7*	or	*10*	= ___

countTotal [ ]

Example

- Encounter game
  - F1: Functions “Set up Player Character”
  - F2: Functions “Encounter Foreign Character”

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Unadjusted Function Point Computation for F1 & F2

	Simple		Medium		Complex		Sub-totals	Total
	count	***factor***	count	***factor***	*count*	***factor***		
Ext. inputs	*1*	**3**	1	**4**	*1*	**6**	*13*	
comments:	*Name*		*Ready/move*		*Qualities*			
Ext. outputs	*0*	**4**	*0*	**5**	*0*	**7**	*0*	
Ext. inquiries	*0*	**3**	*0*	**4**	*0*	**6**	*0*	*25*
Int. logical files	*1*	**7**	*0*	**10**	*0*	**15**	*7*	
comments:	*Data about the user's character*							
Ext. interface files	*1*	**5**	*0*	**7**	*0*	**10**	*5*	
comments:	*Data about the user's character*							

	Simple		Medium		Complex		Sub-totals	Total
	count	***factor***	count	***factor***	*count*	***factor***		
Ext. inputs	*0*	**3**	0	**4**	*0*	**6**	*0*	
Ext. outputs	*1*	**4**	*0*	**5**	*0*	**7**	*4*	
comments:	*Report on results*							
Ext. inquiries	*0*	**3**	*0*	**4**	*0*	**6**	*0*	*16*
Int. logical files	*1*	**7**	*0*	**10**	*0*	**15**	*7*	
comments:	*Data about the user's character*							
Ext. interface files	*1*	**5**	*0*	**7**	*0*	**10**	*5*	
comments:	*Data about the user's character*							

Total = 25 + 16 = 41

General Characteristics for FP Adjustment

incidental *average* *essential*

0 — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5

none *moderate* *significant*

Case study

1. Requires backup/recovery?	0-2
2. Data communications required?	0-1
3. Distributed processing functions?	0
4. Performance critical?	3-4
5. Run on existing heavily utilized environment?	0-1
6. Requires on-line data entry?	5
7. Multiple screens for input?	4-5
8. Master fields updated on-line?	3-4
9. Inputs, outputs, inquiries of files complex?	1-2
10. Internal processing complex?	1-3
11. Code designed for re-use?	2-4
12. Conversion and installation included?	0-2
13. Multiple installation in different orgs.?	1-3
14. Must facilitate change & ease-of-use by user?	4-5

	24-41

Computation of Adjusted Function Points

(Adjusted) Function points =

[Unadjusted function points] × □

[0.65 + 0.01 × (total general characteristics)]

(Adjusted) Function points = 41 × [0.65 + 0.01 × (24 to 41)] = 36 to 43

Convert FP to LoC

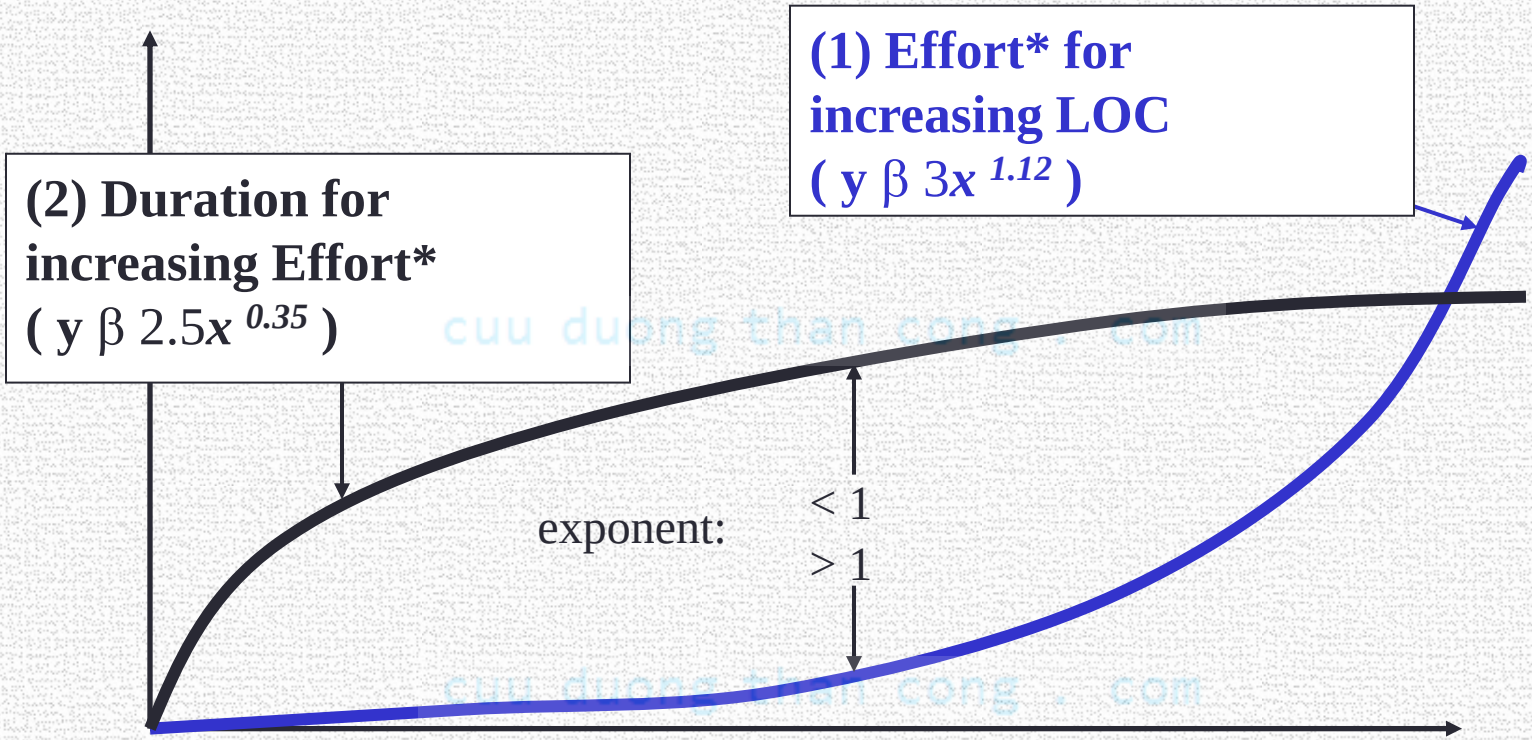
- One estimates 53 lines of Java code per FP

For F1 & F2

(36 to 43) × 53 = 1.9 – 2.3 KLoC

Arbitrarily Estimation
- Method 1: 7.5-170 KLoC
- Method 2: 4.2-300 KLoC

Meaning of the COCOMO Formulas



Applies to *design* through *integration* & *test*.

***"Effort" = total person-months required.**

Basic COCOMO Formulae

Effort in Person-months

$$= a \times KLOC^{b}$$

Duration

$$= c \times Effort^{d}$$

$$= c \times a^{d} \times KLOC^{bd}$$

Software Project	a	b	c	d
Organic (stand-alone app.)	2.4	1.05	2.5	0.38
Semidetached	3.0	1.12	2.5	0.35
Embedded (integral HW-SW sys.)	3.6	1.20	2.5	0.32

Computing COCOMO Case Study Models

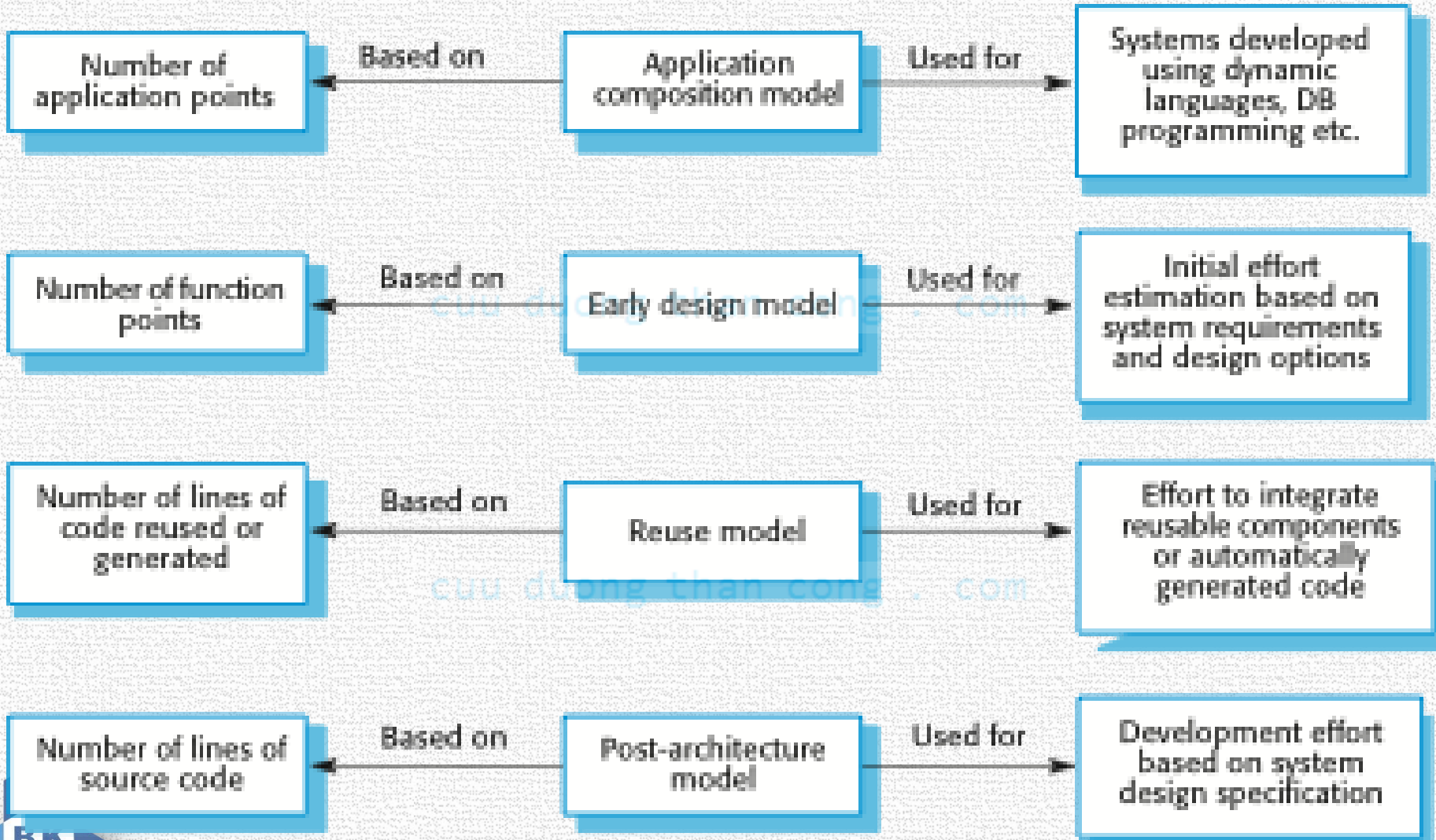
		a	K	b		approx.
Effort (person-month)						aK^b
	LO	2.4	4.2	1.05		**10**
	HI	2.4	300	1.05		**1000**

		c	P	d		approx.
Duration (months)						cP^d
	LO	2.5	10	0.38		**6**
	HI	2.5	1000	0.38		**35**

COCOMO 2 models

- COCOMO 2 incorporates a range of sub-models that produce increasingly detailed software estimates.
- The sub-models in COCOMO 2 are:
  - Application composition model. Used when software is composed from existing parts.
  - Early design model. Used when requirements are available but design has not yet started.
  - Reuse model. Used to compute the effort of integrating reusable components.
  - Post-architecture model. Used once the system architecture has been designed and more information about the system is available.

COCOMO estimation models



Application composition model

- Supports prototyping projects and projects where there is extensive reuse.
- Based on standard estimates of developer productivity in application (object) points/month.
- Takes CASE tool use into account.
- Formula is
  - PM = (NAP × (1 - %reuse/100)) / PROD
  - PM is the effort in person-months, NAP is the number of application points and PROD is the productivity.

Application-point productivity

Developer's experience and capability	Very low	Low	Nominal	High	Very high
ICASE maturity and capability	Very low	Low	Nominal	High	Very high
PROD (NAP/month)	4	7	13	25	50

Early design model

- Estimates can be made after the requirements have been agreed.
- Based on a standard formula for algorithmic models
  - PM = A × $Size^B$ × M where
  - M = PERS × RCPX × RUSE × PDIF × PREX × FCIL × SCED;
  - A = 2.94 in initial calibration, Size in KLOC, B varies from 1.1 to 1.24 depending on novelty of the project, development flexibility, risk management approaches and the process maturity.

Multipliers

- Multipliers reflect the capability of the developers, the non-functional requirements, the familiarity with the development platform, etc.
  - RCPX - product reliability and complexity;
  - RUSE - the reuse required;
  - PDIF - platform difficulty;
  - PREX - personnel experience;
  - PERS - personnel capability;
  - SCED - required schedule;
  - FCIL - the team support facilities.

The reuse model

- Takes into account black-box code that is reused without change and code that has to be adapted to integrate it with new code.
- There are two versions:
  - Black-box reuse where code is not modified. An effort estimate (PM) is computed.
  - White-box reuse where code is modified. A size estimate equivalent to the number of lines of new source code is computed. This then adjusts the size estimate for new code.

Reuse model estimates 1

- For generated code:
  - PM = (ASLOC * AT/100)/ATPROD
  - ASLOC is the number of lines of generated code
  - AT is the percentage of code automatically generated.
  - ATPROD is the productivity of engineers in integrating this code.

Reuse model estimates 2

- When code has to be understood and integrated:
  - ESLOC = ASLOC * (1-AT/100) * AAM.
  - ASLOC and AT as before.
  - AAM is the adaptation adjustment multiplier computed from the costs of changing the reused code, the costs of understanding how to integrate the code and the costs of reuse decision making.

Post-architecture level

- Uses the same formula as the early design model but with 17 rather than 7 associated multipliers.
- The code size is estimated as:
  - Number of lines of new code to be developed;
  - Estimate of equivalent number of lines of new code computed using the reuse model;
  - An estimate of the number of lines of code that have to be modified according to requirements changes.

The exponent term

- This depends on 5 scale factors (see next slide). Their sum/100 is added to 1.01
- A company takes on a project in a new domain. The client has not defined the process to be used and has not allowed time for risk analysis. The company has a CMM level 2 rating.
  - Precedenteness - new project (4)
  - Development flexibility - no client involvement - Very high (1)
  - Architecture/risk resolution - No risk analysis - V. Low .(5)
  - Team cohesion - new team - nominal (3)
  - Process maturity - some control - nominal (3)
- Scale factor is therefore 1.17.

Scale factors used in the exponent computation in the post-architecture model

Scale factor	Explanation
Precedentedness	Reflects the previous experience of the organization with this type of project. Very low means no previous experience; extra-high means that the organization is completely familiar with this application domain.
Development flexibility	Reflects the degree of flexibility in the development process. Very low means a prescribed process is used; extra-high means that the client sets only general goals.
Architecture/risk resolution	Reflects the extent of risk analysis carried out. Very low means little analysis; extra-high means a complete and thorough risk analysis.
Team cohesion	Reflects how well the development team knows each other and work together. Very low means very difficult interactions; extra-high means an integrated and effective team with no communication problems.
Process maturity	Reflects the process maturity of the organization. The computation of this value depends on the CMM Maturity Questionnaire, but an estimate can be achieved by subtracting the CMM process maturity level from 5.

Multipliers

- Product attributes
  - Concerned with required characteristics of the software product being developed.
- Computer attributes
  - Constraints imposed on the software by the hardware platform.
- Personnel attributes
  - Multipliers that take the experience and capabilities of the people working on the project into account.
- Project attributes
  - Concerned with the particular characteristics of the software development project.

The effect of cost drivers on effort estimates

Exponent value	**1.17**
System size (including factors for reuse and requirements volatility)	128,000 DSI
Initial COCOMO estimate without cost drivers	**730 person-months**
Reliability	Very high, multiplier = 1.39
Complexity	Very high, multiplier = 1.3
Memory constraint	High, multiplier = 1.21
Tool use	Low, multiplier = 1.12
Schedule	Accelerated, multiplier = 1.29
Adjusted COCOMO estimate	**2,306 person-months**

The effect of cost drivers on effort estimates

Exponent value	**1.17**
Reliability	Very low, multiplier = 0.75
Complexity	Very low, multiplier = 0.75
Memory constraint	None, multiplier = 1
Tool use	Very high, multiplier = 0.72
Schedule	Normal, multiplier = 1
Adjusted COCOMO estimate	**295 person-months**

Project duration and staffing

- As well as effort estimation, managers must estimate the calendar time required to complete a project and when staff will be required.
- Calendar time can be estimated using a COCOMO 2 formula
  - $TDEV = 3 \times (PM)^{(0.33+0.2*(B-1.01))}$
  - PM is the effort computation and B is the exponent computed as discussed above (B is 1 for the early prototyping model). This computation predicts the nominal schedule for the project.
- The time required is independent of the number of people working on the project.

SUMMARY

- Good project management is essential if software engineering projects are to be developed on schedule and within budget.
- Software management is distinct from other engineering management. Software is intangible. Projects may be novel or innovative with no body of experience to guide their management. Software processes are not as mature as traditional engineering processes.
- Risk management is now recognized as one of the most important project management tasks.
- Risk management involves identifying and assessing project risks to establish the probability that they will occur and the consequences for the project if that risk does arise. You should make plans to avoid, manage or deal with likely risks if or when they arise.

SUMMARY

- People are motivated by interaction with other people, the recognition of management and their peers, and by being given opportunities for personal development.
- Software development groups should be fairly small and cohesive. The key factors that influence the effectiveness of a group are the people in that group, the way that it is organized and the communication between group members.
- Communications within a group are influenced by factors such as the status of group members, the size of the group, the gender composition of the group, personalities and available communication channels.

SUMMARY

- The price charged for a system does not just depend on its estimated development costs; it may be adjusted depending on the market and organizational priorities.
- Plan-driven development is organized around a complete project plan that defines the project activities, the planned effort, the activity schedule and who is responsible for each activity.
- Project scheduling involves the creation of graphical representations the project plan. Bar charts show the activity duration and staffing timelines, are the most commonly used schedule representations.
- The XP planning game involves the whole team in project planning. The plan is developed incrementally and, if problems arise, is adjusted. Software functionality is reduced instead of delaying delivery of an increment.

SUMMARY

- Estimation techniques for software may be experience-based, where managers judge the effort required, or algorithmic, where the effort required is computed from other estimated project parameters.
- COCOMO
- The COCOMO II costing model is an algorithmic cost model that uses project, product, hardware and personnel attributes as well as product size and complexity attributes to derive a cost estimate.