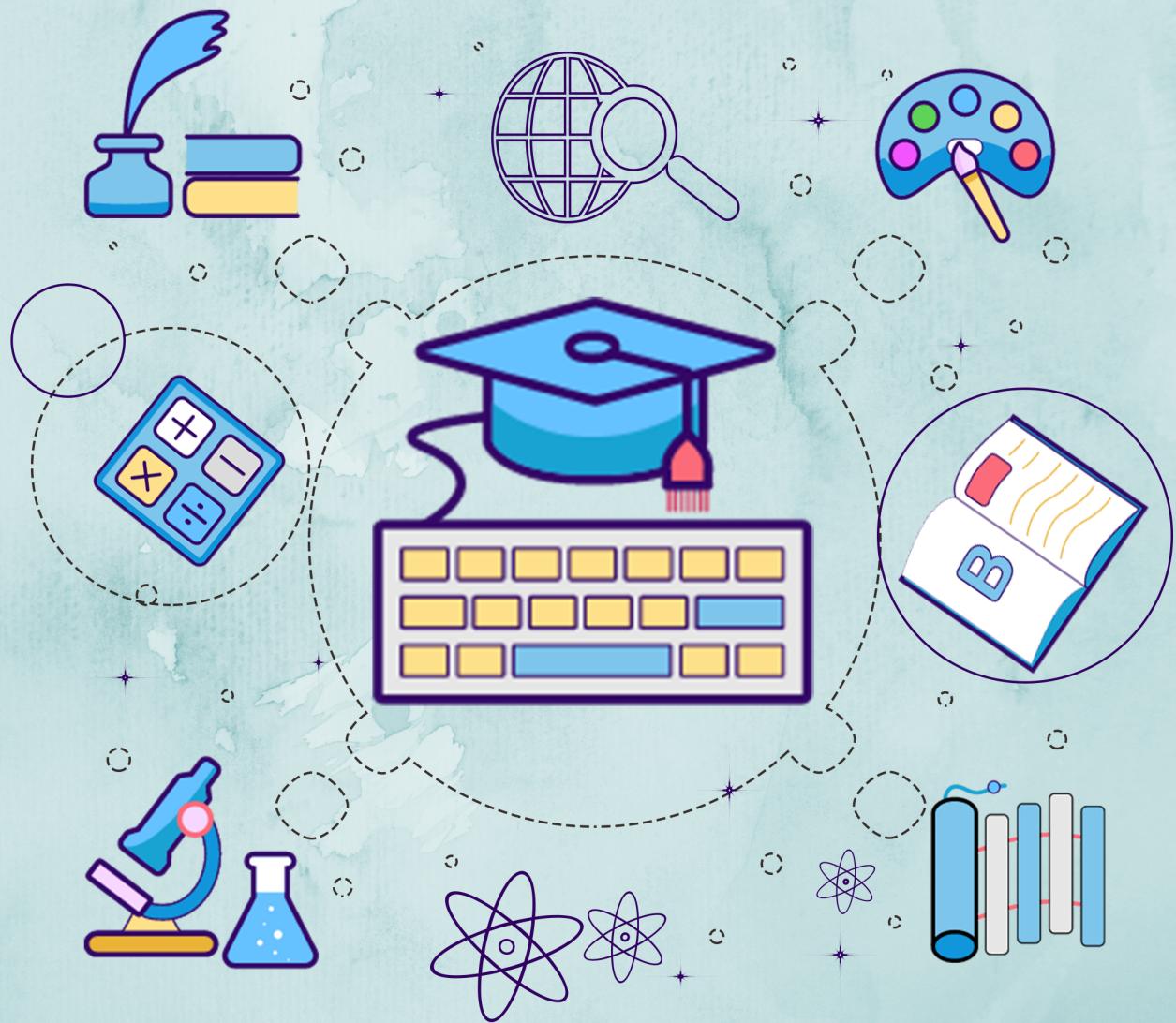


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KTU STUDY MATERIALS

MANAGEMENT OF SOFTWARE SYSTEMS

CST 309

Module 4

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- Software project management is an essential part of software engineering.
- The success criteria for project management obviously vary from project to project, but, for most projects, **important goals are:**
 1. to deliver the software to the customer at the agreed time;
 2. to keep overall costs within budget
 3. to deliver software that meets the customer's expectations;
 4. to maintain a coherent and well-functioning development team.

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- Some of the most **important factors that affect how software projects are managed** are:
 1. Company size
 2. Software customers
 3. Software size
 4. Software type
 5. Organizational culture
 6. Software development processes

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- The **fundamental project management activities** that are common organizations:
 1. **Project planning** → Project managers are responsible for planning, estimating, scheduling project development and assigning people to tasks.
 2. **Risk management** → Project managers have to assess the risks that may affect a project, monitor these risks, and take action when problems arise.
 3. **People management** → Project managers are responsible for managing a team of people. They have to choose people for their team and establish ways of working that lead to effective team performance.
 4. **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.
 5. **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. It usually includes schedule estimates and justifies why the project contract should be awarded to a particular organization or team.

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RISK MANAGEMENT

- Risk management is one of the most important jobs for a project manager.
- Risk management involves anticipating risks that might affect the project schedule or the quality of the software being developed, then taking action to avoid these risks.
- Risks can be categorized according to type of risk (technical, organizational, etc.)

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- **Classification of risks according to what these risks affect:**

- Project risks** → affect the project schedule or resources. An example of a project risk is the loss of an experienced system architect.
 - Product risks** → affect the quality or performance of the software or product developed. An example of a product risk is the failure of a purchased component to perform as expected.
 - Business risks** → affect the organization developing or procuring the software. For example, a competitor introducing a new product is a business risk.
- For large projects, you should record the results of the risk analysis in a risk register along with a consequence analysis. This sets out the consequences of the risk for the project, product, and business.

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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 company 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.
Software tool underperformance	Product	Software tools that 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.

Fig: Examples of common project, product, and business risks

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- Effective risk management makes it easier to cope with problems to ensure that these do not lead to unacceptable budget or schedule slippage.
- For small projects, formal risk recording may not be required, but the project manager should be aware of them.
- The specific risks that may affect a project depend on the project and the organizational environment in which the software is being developed.
- Software risk management is important because of the inherent uncertainties in software development.

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- An outline of the process of risk management is presented in the following Figure. It involves several **stages**:
 1. **Risk identification** → You should identify possible project, program and business risks.
 2. **Risk analysis** → You should assess the likelihood and consequences of these risks.
 3. **Risk planning** → You should make plans to address the risk, either by avoiding it or by minimizing its effects on the project.
 4. **Risk monitoring** → You should regularly assess the risk and update your plans for risk mitigation and revise these plans when you learn more about the risk.
- The risk management process is an iterative process that continues throughout a project.

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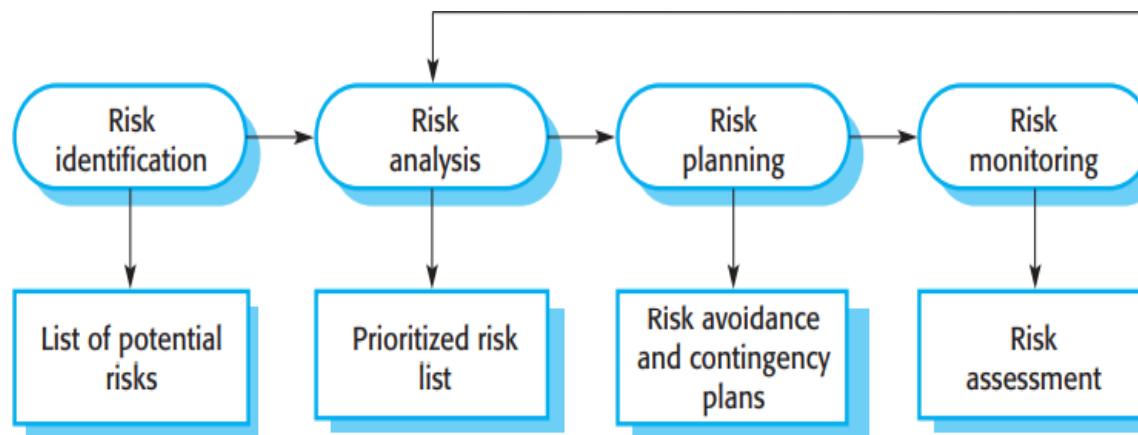


Fig: The Risk Management Process

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Risk Identification:

- Risk identification is the first stage of the risk management process.
- It is concerned with identifying the risks that could pose a major threat to the software engineering process, the software being developed, or the development organization.
- Risk identification may be a team process in which a team gets together to brainstorm possible risks.
- As a starting point for risk identification, a checklist of different risk may be used.

- **6 types of risk may be included in a risk checklist:**

- 1. Estimation risks** → arise from the management estimates of the resources required to build the system.
- 2. Organizational risks** → arise from the organizational environment in which the software is being developed.
- 3. People risks** → are associated with the people in the development team.
- 4. Requirements risks** → come from changes to the customer requirements and the process of managing the requirements change.
- 5. Technology risks** → come from the software or hardware technologies used to develop the system.
- 6. Tools risks** → come from the software tools and other support software used to develop the system.

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

Figure 22.3 Examples of different types of risk

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Risk Analysis:

- During the risk analysis process, you have to consider each identified risk and make judgment about the probability and seriousness of that risk.
- It is not possible to make precise, numeric assessment of the probability and seriousness of each risk.
- You should assign the risk to one of a number of bands:
 - The probability of the risk might be assessed as insignificant, low, moderate, high, or very high.
 - The effects of the risk might be assessed as catastrophic (threaten the survival of the project), serious (would cause major delays), tolerable (delays are within allowed contingency), or insignificant.
- You may then tabulate the results of this analysis process using a table ordered according to the seriousness of the risk.

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Risk	Probability	Effects
Organizational financial problems force reductions in the project budget (5).	Low	Catastrophic
It is impossible to recruit staff with the skills required (6).	High	Catastrophic
Key staff are ill at critical times in the project (7).	Moderate	Serious
Faults in reusable software components have to be repaired before these components are reused (12).	Moderate	Serious
Changes to requirements that require major design rework are proposed (9).	Moderate	Serious
The organization is restructured so that different managements are responsible for the project (4).	High	Serious
The database used in the system cannot process as many transactions per second as expected (11).	Moderate	Serious
The time required to develop the software is underestimated (1).	High	Serious
Software tools cannot be integrated (14).	High	Tolerable
Customers fail to understand the impact of requirements changes (10).	Moderate	Tolerable
Required training for staff is not available (8).	Moderate	Tolerable
The rate of defect repair is underestimated (2).	Moderate	Tolerable
The size of the software is underestimated (3).	High	Tolerable
Code generated by code generation tools is inefficient (13).	Moderate	Insignificant

Figure 22.4 Risk types and examples

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- Both the probability and the assessment of the effects of a risk change as more information about the risk becomes available as risk management plans are implemented. You should therefore update this table during each iteration of the risk management process.
- Once the risks have been analyzed and ranked, you should assess which of these risks are most significant.
- In general, catastrophic risks should always be considered, as should all serious risks that have more than a moderate probability of occurrence.

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Risk Planning:

- The risk planning process develops strategies to manage the key risks that threaten the project.
- For each risk, you have to think of actions that you might take to minimize the disruption to the project if the problem identified risk occurs.
- You should also think about the information that you need to collect while monitoring the project so that emerging problems can be detected before they become serious.

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- In risk planning, you have to ask “what-if” questions that consider both individual risks, combinations of risks, and external factors that affect these risks. For example, questions that you might ask are:
 1. What if several engineers are ill at the same time?
 2. What if an economic downturn leads to budget cuts of 20% for the project?
 3. What if the performance of open-source software is inadequate and the only expert on that open-source software leaves?
 4. What if the company that supplies and maintains software components goes out of business?
 5. What if the customer fails to deliver the revised requirements as promised?
- Based on the answers to these “what-if” questions, you may develop strategies for managing the risks.

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- The **possible risk management strategies** fall into 3 categories:
 1. **Avoidance strategies** → Following these strategies means that the probability that the risk will arise is reduced. An example of a risk avoidance strategy is the strategy for dealing with defective components.
 2. **Minimization strategies** → Following these strategies means that the impact of the risk is reduced. An example of a risk minimization strategy is the strategy for staff illness.
 3. **Contingency plans** → Following these strategies means that you are prepared for the worst and have a strategy in place to deal with it. An example of a contingency strategy is the strategy for organizational problems.
- The strategies used in critical systems ensure reliability, security, and safety, where you must avoid, tolerate, or recover from failures.

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- It is best to use a strategy that avoids the risk.
- If this is not possible, you should use a strategy that reduces the chances that the risk will have serious effects.
- Finally, you should have strategies in place to cope with the risk arises. These should reduce the overall impact of a risk on the project or product.

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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.
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 automated code generation.

Figure 22.5 Strategies to help manage risk

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Risk Monitoring:

- Risk monitoring is the process of checking that your assumptions about the product, process, and business risks have not changed.
- You should regularly assess each of the identified risks to decide whether or not that risk is becoming more or less probable.
- You should also think about whether or not the effects of the risks have changed.
- To do this, you have to look at other factors, such as the number of requirements change requests, which give you clues about the probability and its effects. These factors are dependent on the type of risk.

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Risk type	Potential indicators
Estimation	Failure to meet agreed schedule; failure to clear reported defects.
Organizational	Organizational gossip; lack of action by senior management.
People	Poor staff morale; poor relationships among team members; high staff turnover.
Requirements	Many requirements change requests; customer complaints.
Technology	Late delivery of hardware or support software; many reported technology problems.
Tools	Reluctance by team members to use tools; complaints about software tools; requests for faster computers/more memory and so on.

Figure 22.6 Risk indicators

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- You should monitor risks regularly at all stages in a project.
- At every management review, you should consider and discuss of the key risks separately.
- You should decide if the risk is more or less likely to arise and if seriousness and consequences of the risk have changed.

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MANAGING PEOPLE

- The people working in a software organization are its greatest assets.
- It is expensive to recruit and retain good people.
- Software managers have to ensure that the engineers working on a project are as productive as possible.
- It is important that software project managers understand the technical issues that influence the work of software development.
- Software engineers often have strong technical skills but may lack the soft skills that enable them to motivate and lead a project development team.
- As a project manager, you should be aware of the potential problems of people management and should try to develop people management skills.

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- **4 critical factors that influence the relationship between a manager and the people that he or she manages:**
 1. **Consistency** → All the people in a project team should be treated in a comparable way. No one expects all rewards to be identical, but people should not feel that their contribution to the organization is undervalued.
 2. **Respect** → Different people have different skills, and managers should respect these differences.
 3. **Inclusion** → People contribute effectively when they feel that others listen to them and take account of their proposals. It is important to develop a positive environment where all views, even those of the least experienced staff, are considered.
 4. **Honesty** → As a manager, you should always be honest about what is going well and what is going badly in the team. You should also be honest about your level of technical knowledge and be willing to defer to staff with more knowledge when necessary.

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Motivating People:

- As a project manager, you need to motivate the people who work with you so that they will contribute to the best of their abilities.
- In practice, **motivation** means organizing work and its environment to encourage people to work as effectively as possible.
- To provide this encouragement, you should understand a little about what motivates people.
- People are motivated by satisfying their needs. These needs are arranged in a series of levels, as shown in Figure.



Figure 22.7 Human needs hierarchy

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- The lower levels of this hierarchy represent fundamental needs for food, sleep, and so on, and the need to feel secure in an environment.
- **Social need** is concerned with the need to feel part of a social group.
- **Esteem need** represents the need to feel respected by others, and **Self-realization need** is concerned with personal development.
- People need to satisfy lower-level needs such as hunger before the more abstract, higher-level needs.
- People working in software development organizations are not usually hungry, thirsty, or physically threatened by their environment. Therefore, making sure that peoples' social, esteem, and self-realization needs are satisfied is most important from a management point of view.

1. **To satisfy social needs**, you need to give people time to meet the workers and provide places for them to meet. This is relatively easy if all of the members of a development team work in the same place. Social networking systems and teleconferencing can be used for remote communications.
2. **To satisfy esteem needs**, you need to show people that they are important to the organization. Public recognition of achievements is a simple and effective way of doing this.
3. Finally, **to satisfy self-realization needs**, you need to give people responsibility for their work, assign them demanding (but not impossible) tasks, and provide opportunities for training and development where people can enhance their skills. Training is an important motivating influence as people like to gain new knowledge and learn new skills.

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- Maslow's model of motivation takes an exclusively personal view on motivation.
- It does not take adequate account of the fact that people feel themselves to be part of an organization, a professional group, one or more cultures.
- Being a member of a cohesive group is highly motivating for most people.
- Therefore, as a manager, you also have to think about how a group as a whole can be motivated.

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Case study: Motivation

Alice is a software project manager working in a company that develops alarm systems. This company wishes to enter the growing market of assistive technology to help elderly and disabled people live independently. Alice has been asked to lead a team of six developers that can develop new products based on the company's alarm technology.

Alice's assistive technology project starts well. Good working relationships develop within the team, and creative new ideas are developed. The team decides to develop a system that a user can initiate and control the alarm system from a cell phone or tablet computer. However, some months into the project, Alice notices that Dorothy, a hardware expert, starts coming into work late, that the quality of her work is deteriorating, and, increasingly, that she does not appear to be communicating with other members of the team.

Alice talks about the problem informally with other team members to try to find out if Dorothy's personal circumstances have changed and if this might be affecting her work. They don't know of anything, so Alice decides to talk with Dorothy to try to understand the problem.

After some initial denials of any problem, Dorothy admits that she has lost interest in the job. She expected that she would be able to develop and use her hardware interfacing skills. However, because of the product direction that has been chosen, she has little opportunity to use these skills. Basically, she is working as a C programmer on the alarm system software.

While she admits that the work is challenging, she is concerned that she is not developing her interfacing skills. She is worried that finding a job that involves hardware interfacing will be difficult after this project. Because she does not want to upset the team by revealing that she is thinking about the next project, she has decided that it is best to minimize conversation with them.

Figure 22.8 Individual motivation

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- Psychological personality type also influences motivation.
- Bass and Duntzman (Bass and Duntzman 1963) identified **classifications for professional workers:**
 1. **Task-oriented people** → who are motivated by the work they software engineering, these are people who are motivated by intellectual challenge of software development.
 2. **Self-oriented people** → who are principally motivated by per success and recognition. They are interested in software deve as a means of achieving their own goals. They often have long goals and they wish to be successful in their work to help rea these goals.
 3. **Interaction-oriented people** → who are motivated by the pre and actions of co-workers.

- Research has shown that interaction-oriented personalities usually like to work as part of a group, whereas task-oriented and self-oriented people usually prefer to act as individuals.
- **People Capability Maturity Model (P-CMM)** → is a framework for assessing how well organizations manage the development of staff. It highlights best practice in people management and provides a basis for organizations to improve their people management processes. It is best suited to large rather than small, informal companies.

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TEAMWORK

- As it is impossible for everyone in a large group to work together on a single problem, large teams are usually split into a number of groups.
- Each group is responsible for developing part of the overall system.
- The best size for a software engineering group is 4 to 6 members. They should never have more than 12 members.
- When groups are small, communication problems are reduced.

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- Putting together a group that has the right balance of technical experience, and personalities is a critical management task.
- A good group is cohesive and thinks of itself as a strong, single unit.
- The people involved are motivated by the success of the group as well as by their own personal goals.
- In a **cohesive group**, members think of the group as more important than the individuals who are group members.
 - They are loyal to the group.
 - They identify with group goals and other group members.
 - They attempt to protect the group, as an entity, from outside interference. This makes the group robust and able to cope with problems and unexpected situations.

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- The **benefits of creating a cohesive group** are:
 1. The group can establish its own quality standards.
 2. Individuals learn from and support each other.
 3. Knowledge is shared.
 4. Refactoring and continual improvement is encouraged.
- Good project managers should always try to encourage group cohesiveness.
- They may try to establish a sense of group identity by naming the group and establishing a group identity and territory.
- One of the most effective ways of promoting cohesion is **to be inclusive**, i.e., you should treat group members as responsible and trustworthy, and make information freely available.

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- An effective way of making people feel valued and part of a group to make sure that they know what is going on.

Case study: Team spirit

Alice, an experienced project manager, understands the importance of creating a cohesive group. As her company is developing a new product, she takes the opportunity to involve all group members in the product specification and design by getting them to discuss possible technology with elderly members of their families. She encourages them to bring these family members to meet other members of the development team.

Alice also arranges monthly lunches for everyone in the group. These lunches provide an opportunity for all team members to meet informally, talk around issues of concern, and get to know each other. At the lunch, Alice tells the group what she knows about organizational news, policies, strategies, and so forth. Each team member then briefly summarizes what they have been doing, and the group discusses a general topic such as new product ideas from elderly relatives.

Every few months, Alice organizes an "away day" for the group where the team spends two days on "technology updating." Each team member prepares an update on a relevant technology and presents it to the group. This is an offsite meeting, and plenty of time is scheduled for discussion and social interaction.

Figure 22.9 Group cohesion

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- Given a stable organizational and project environment, the **3 factors that have the biggest effect on team working are:**
 1. The people in the group (**Selecting group members**)
 2. The way the group is organized (**Group organizations**)
 3. Technical and managerial communications (**Group communication**)

Selecting Group Members:

- A manager or team leader's job is to create a cohesive group and organize that group so that they work together effectively.
- This task involves selecting a group with the right balance of technical skills and personalities.
- Technical knowledge and ability should not be the only factor used to select group members.
- People who are motivated by the work are likely to be the strongest technically.
- People who are self-oriented will probably be best at pushing the work forward to finish the job.
- People who are interaction-oriented help facilitate communications within the group.

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- The project manager has to control the group so that individual members do not take precedence over organizational and group objectives.
- This control is easier to achieve if all group members participate in each stage of the project.
- Individual initiative is most likely to develop when group members are given instructions without being aware of the part that their task plays in the overall project.
- If all the members of the group are involved in the design from the start, they are more likely to understand why design decisions have been made. They may then identify with these decisions rather than oppose them.

Case study: Group composition

In creating a group for assistive technology development, Alice is aware of the importance of selecting members with complementary personalities. When interviewing potential group members, she tried to assess whether they were task-oriented, or interaction-oriented. She felt that she was primarily a self-oriented person because she considered the project to be a way of getting noticed by senior management and possibly being promoted. She therefore looked for one or perhaps two action-oriented personalities, with task-oriented individuals to complete the final assessment that she arrived at was:

Alice—self-oriented
Brian—task-oriented
Chun—interaction-oriented
Dorothy—self-oriented
Ed—interaction-oriented
Fiona—task-oriented
Fred—task-oriented
Hassan—interaction-oriented

Figure 22.10 Group composition

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Group Organization:

- The way a group is organized affects the group's decisions, the way information is exchanged, and the interactions between the development group and external project stakeholders.
- Project managers are often responsible for selecting the people who will organize who will join their software engineering team.
- Getting the best possible people in this process is very important; poor selection decisions may be a serious risk to the project.
- Key factors that should influence the selection of staff are education and training, application domain and technology experience, communication ability, adaptability, and problem solving ability.

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- **Important organizational questions for project managers include the following:**

1. Should the project manager be the technical leader of the group?
2. Who will be involved in making critical technical decisions, and how will these decisions be made? Will decisions be made by the system architect or the project manager or by reaching consensus among a wider range of team members?
3. How will interactions with external stakeholders and senior company management be handled?
4. How can groups integrate people who are not co-located?
5. How can knowledge be shared across the group?

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Informal Groups	Hierarchical Groups
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Small programming groups are usually organized. 2. Group leader gets involved in the software development with the other group members. 3. The group as a whole discusses the work to be carried out, and tasks are allocated according to ability and experience. 4. More senior group members may be responsible for the architectural design. 5. Detailed design and implementation is the responsibility of the team member who is allocated to a particular task. 6. Groups are very successful, particularly when most group members are experienced and competent. Such a group makes decisions which improves cohesiveness and performance. 7. With no experienced engineers to direct the work, the result can be a lack of coordination between group members and, possibly, eventual project failure. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Group leader is at the top of the hierarchy. 2. Group leader has more formal authority over group members and so can direct their work. 3. There is a clear organizational structure. 4. Decisions are made toward the top of the hierarchy and implemented by people lower down. 5. Communications are primarily instructional from senior staff; the people at lower levels in the hierarchy have relatively little communication with the managers at the upper levels. 6. These groups can work well when a well-understood problem can be easily broken down into software components that can be distributed to different parts of the hierarchy. 7. This grouping allows for rapid decision making.

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- In software development, effective team communications at all levels are essential:
 1. Changes to the software often require changes to several parts of the system. This requires discussion and negotiation at all levels in the hierarchy.
 2. Software technologies change so fast that more junior staff may know more about new technologies than experienced staff. Top-down communications may mean that the project manager does not find out about the opportunities of using new technologies. More junior staff may become frustrated because of what they see as old-fashioned technologies being used for development.
- A major challenge facing project managers is the difference in technical ability between group members.
- i.e., adopting a group model that is based on individual experts can pose significant risks.

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Group Communications:

- It is absolutely essential that group members communicate effectively and efficiently with each other and with other project stakeholders.
- Good communication also helps strengthen group cohesiveness.
- Group members:
 1. Exchange information on the status of their work, the design decisions that have been made, and changes to previous design decisions.
 2. Resolve problems that arise with other stakeholders and inform the stakeholders of changes to the system, the group, and delivery plan.
 3. Come to understand the motivations, strengths, and weaknesses of people in the group.

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- The effectiveness and efficiency of communications are influenced by:
 1. **Group size** → As a group gets bigger, it gets harder for members to communicate effectively. The number of one-way communication links is $n * (n - 1)$, where n is the group size.
 2. **Group structure** → People in informally structured groups communicate more effectively than people in groups with a formal, hierarchical structure.
 3. **Group composition** → People with the same personality may clash; as a result, communications can be inhibited.
 4. **The physical work environment** → The organization of the workplace is a major factor in facilitating or inhibiting communications.
 5. **The available communication channels** → There are many different types of communication—face to face, email messages, formal documents, telephone, and technologies such as social networking and wikis.

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- Effective communication is achieved when communications are two-way—the people involved can discuss issues and information and establish a common understanding of proposals and problems.
- All this can be done through meetings, although these meetings are often dominated by powerful personalities.
- Informal discussions when a manager meets with the team for coffee are sometimes more effective.
- Wikis and blogs allow project members and external stakeholders to exchange information, irrespective of their location. They help manage large amounts of information and keep track of discussion threads, which often become confusing when conducted by email.
- You can also use instant messaging and teleconferences, which can be arranged, to resolve issues that need discussion.

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Software Project Planning

- The **first step** of software **projects management process** is the **project planning** step.
- Project planning, in turn, start with **Estimation**.
- **Estimation** is both an '**art**' and '**science**' (*There are techniques for time and human estimation*)

We have got to estimate:

- **resources**, **cost** and **schedule required** for a Project.
- Estimation requires **experience** access to info on **previous projects**.
- Estimation carries **a risk**.
- **If we are familiar** with the type of projects, we are going to handle, **estimation becomes easier**.

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Estimation techniques

- Concentrate **two types of technique** that can be used to do this:
 - **Experience-based techniques**: is based on the manager's experience of past projects and the application domain.
 - **Algorithmic cost modeling**: a formulaic approach is used to compute the project effort.
- The **PROJECT EFFORT** based on estimates of **product size**, and **process characteristics** such as experience of staff involved.

Experience-based approaches

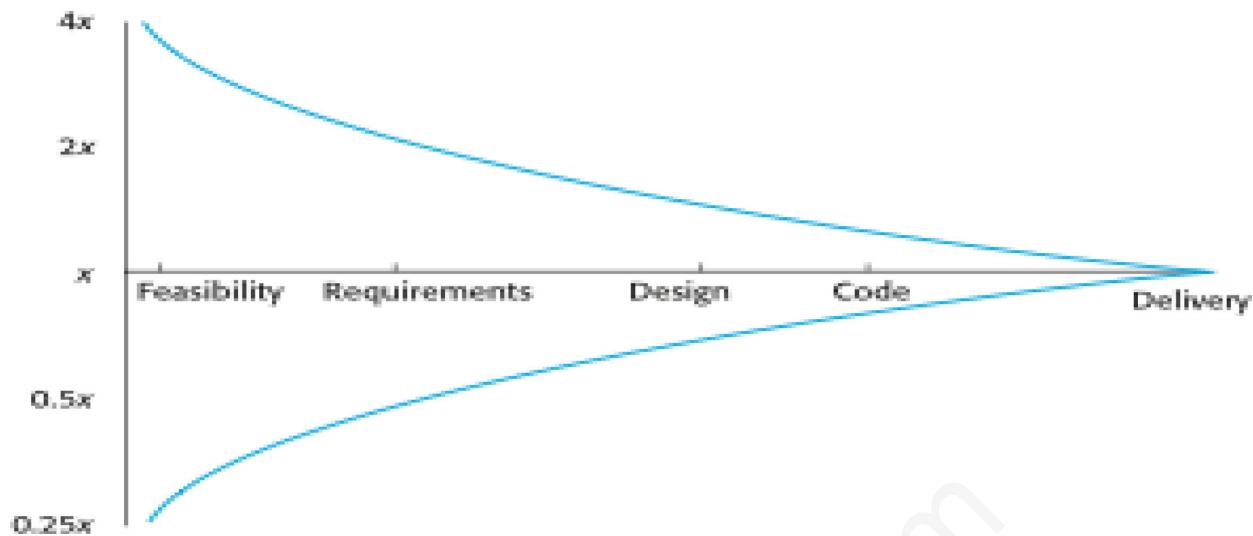
- Experience-based techniques rely on:
 - judgments based on experience of past projects
 - the effort used in these projects on software development activities.
- Typically, you **identify the deliverables** to be produced in project and the **different software components systems that are to be developed**.
- 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 **effort estimation** and **to ask each member of the group to explain their estimate**.

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Algorithmic cost modelling

- Cost is estimated as a mathematical **function of product, project and process** attributes where **values are estimated by project managers**:
 - **Effort = A × Size^B × M**
 - A is an organisation-dependent constant,
 - B reflects the disproportionate(unbalanced) effort for large projects
 - 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 and M.

Estimate uncertainty



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COCOMO MODEL

- **COCOMO (Constructive Cost Model)** (Boehm, 1981)
- COCOMO is a model based on inputs relating to the size of the system and a number of cost drivers that affect productivity.
- Updated version, called **COCOMO II**, accounts for recent changes in software engineering technology, including object-oriented software, software created via spiral or evolutionary development models, software reuse and building new systems using off-the-shelf software components.

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COCOMO II

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The COCOMO 2 model

- Extendend version of (COCOMO-81) →COCOMO 2.
- COCOMO 2 recognizes different approaches to software deve such as prototyping, development by component composit use of database programming.
- COCOMO II supports a spiral model of development and several sub-models that produce increasingly detailed estimate
- These can be used in successive rounds of the development sp

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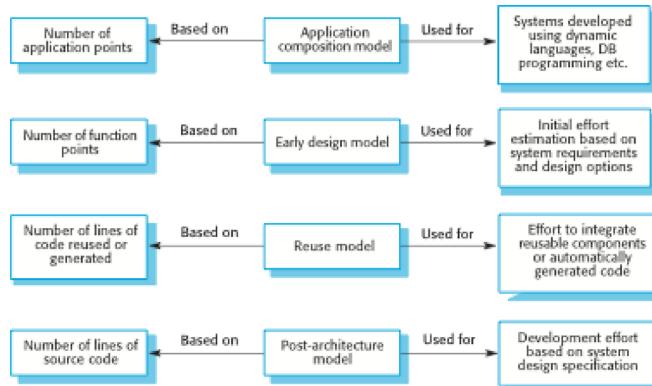
COCOMO 2 models

- COCOMO 2 includes a range of sub-models. These sub-models produce increasingly detailed estimates. The sub-models in COCOMO 2 are:

- Application composition model.** This assumes that systems are created from reusable components such as databases, programming languages, and application points. It is designed to make estimates of prototype development. Software based on **application points, and a simple size/productivity formula** is used to estimate the effort.
- Early design model.** This model is used during early stages of the system design after the requirements have been defined. Estimates are **based on function points**, which **are then converted to number of lines of source code**. The **set of seven multipliers** is used to estimate the effort.
- Reuse model.** This model is used to compute the effort required to integrate reusable components into a system. The code that is automatically generated by design or program translation tools. It is **usually** used in the **post-architecture model**.
- Post-architecture model.** Once the system architecture has been designed, a more accurate estimate of the software size can be made. However, it **includes a more extensive set of 17 multipliers** to account for **capability and product and project characteristics**.

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COCOMO estimation models



1. Application composition model

- Suitable for software built around graphical user interface (GUI) and modern GUI-based systems.
- Supports prototyping projects and for projects where the software is developed using existing components.
- Uses object points as a size metric extension of function points
- Count of the screens, reports, and 3GL Components (modules), weighted by factor (simple, medium, difficult).
- Programmer productivity also depends on the developer's experience and capabilities, the capabilities of the CASE tools used to support development.
- Formula is

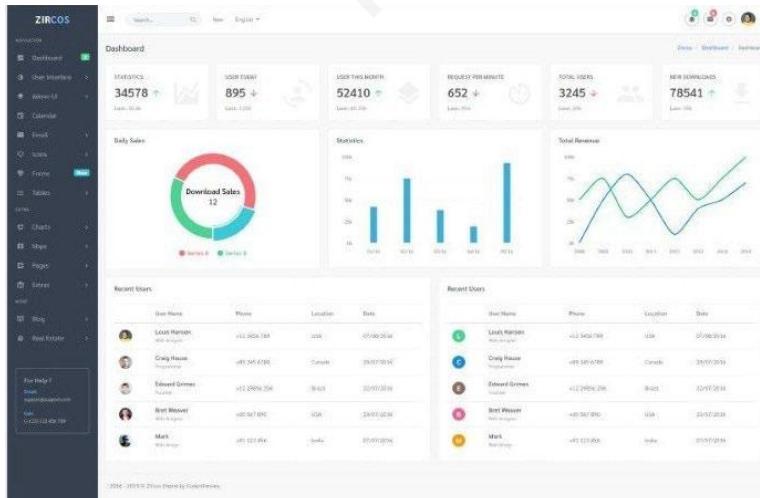
$$PM = (NAP * (1 - \%reuse/100)) / PROD$$

- PM is the effort in person-months,
- NAP is the number of application points and
- PROD is the productivity.

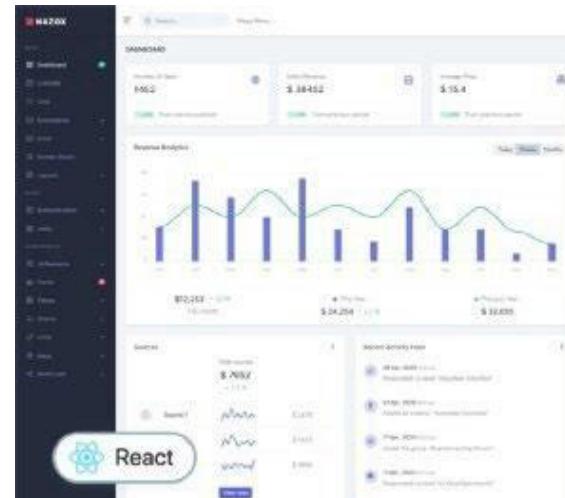
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Screens and Views

Manager



Customer



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Example Problem

- Consider a database application project with
 - 1. The application has four screens with four views each and seven data tables for three servers and four clients.
 - 2. Application may generate two reports of six section each from seven data tables for two servers and three clients.
- 10% reuse of object points.
Developer's experience and capability in similar environment is low. Calculate the object point count, New object point and effort to develop such project.

• Given Data

- Screen = 4
- Views = 4
- Data tables = 7
- Reports = 2
- Sections = 6
- Reuse object Points = 10%
- Developer's experience =

• Calculate

- object point count
- New object point (NOP)
- Effort

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Step 1

Solution:

- Step-1: Access Object counts
- Number of screens = 4
Number of records = 2

Reference

- Step-1: Access Object counts
 - Estimate the number of screens and data tables which will comprise this application.

Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For screens,

Number of views = 4
 Number of data tables = 7
 Number of servers = 3
 Number of clients = 4
- Complexity level for each screen = medium

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of views contain	Sources of data table	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
< 3	Simple	Simple
3 - 7	Simple	Medium
> 8	Medium	Difficult

For Screens

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Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For reports,

Number of sections = 6
 Number of data tables = 7
 Number of servers = 2
 Number of clients = 3
- Complexity level for each report = difficult

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of section contain	Sources of data tabl	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
0 - 1	Simple	Simple
2 - 3	Simple	Medium
4 +	Medium	Difficult

For Reports

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Step-3: Assign complexity weights to each object

Solution

- By using complexity weight table we can assign complexity weight to each object instance depending upon their complexity level.
Complexity weight for each screen = 2
Complexity weight for each report = 8

Reference

Object Type	Complexity Weight	
	Simple	Medium
Screen	1	2
Report	2	5
3GL Components	-	-

Complexity Weight

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Step-4: Determine Object Points

Solution:

- Object point count
- = Σ (Number of object instances) * (its Complexity weight)
- = $4 * 2 + 2 * 8 = 24$

Reference

- Add all the weighted object instances to get one number. This is known as *object point count*.
- Object Point = Σ (number of object instances) * (Complexity weight of each object instance)

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Step-5: Compute New Object Points (NOP)

Solution

- %reuse of object points = 10% (given)
- $NOP = [\text{object points} * (100 - \% \text{reuse})]/100$
- $NOP = [24 * (100 - 10)]/100 = 21.6$

Reference

- We have to estimate the % reuse of object points to be achieved in a project. Depending on %reuse
- $NOP = [(\text{object points}) * (100 - \% \text{reuse})]/100$
- NOP are the object point that need to be developed and calculated from the object point count given because there may be reuse of some object instance in project.

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Step-6: Calculate Productivity rate (PROD)

Solution

- Developer's experience and capability is low (given)
- Using information given about developer and productivity rate table
- Productivity rate (PROD) of given project = 7

Reference

- *Productivity rate* is calculated on the basis of information given about developer's experience and capability.

Developers experience & capability	Productivity Rate
Very Low	
Low	
Nominal	
High	
High	

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Productivity Rate

Step-7: Compute the estimated Effort

Solution:

- Effort = NOP/PROD
- Effort= 21.6/7
- Effort= 3.086 person-month

Reference

- *Effort* to develop a project be calculated as
- Effort = NOP/PROD Effort measured in *person-month*

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Exercise

- Consider a database application project with
 1. The application has 8 screens with 8 views each and 10 data tables for 6 servers and 8 clients.
 2. Application may generate 4 reports of 6 section each from 10 data tables for 4 servers and 6 clients.
- 20% reuse of object points.
Developer's experience and capability in similar environment is low. Calculate the object point count, New object point and effort to develop such project.

• Given Data

- Screen = 8 (6 servers and 8 clients)
- Views = 8
- Data tables = 10
- Reports = 4 (4 servers and 6 clients)
- Sections = 6
- Reuse object Points = 20
- Developer's experience = 20%

• Calculate

- object point count
- New object point (NOP)
- Effort

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Step 1

Solution:

- Step-1: Access Object counts
- Number of screens = 8
Number of records = 4

Reference

- Step-1: Access Object counts
 - Estimate the number of screens, reports and 3GL components that will comprise this application.

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Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For screens (Given data),
 - Number of views = 8
 - Number of data tables = 10
 - Number of servers = 6
 - Number of clients = 8
- Complexity level for each screen
 - =

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of views contain	Sources of data table	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
< 3	Simple	Simple
3 - 7	Simple	Medium
> 8	Medium	Difficult

For Screens

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Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For screens,

Number of views = 8
 Number of data tables = 10
 Number of servers = 6
 Number of clients = 8
- Complexity level for each screen = Difficult

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of views contain	Sources of data table	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
< 3	Simple	Simple
3 - 7	Simple	Medium
> 8	Medium	Difficult

For Screens

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Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For reports,

Number of sections = 6
 Number of data tables = 10
 Number of servers = 4
 Number of clients = 6
- Complexity level for each report =

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of section contain	Sources of data tabl	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
0 - 1	Simple	Simple
2 - 3	Simple	Medium
4 +	Medium	Difficult

For Reports

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Step-2: Classify complexity levels of each object

Solution

- For reports,

Number of sections = 6
 Number of data tables = 10
 Number of servers = 4
 Number of clients = 6
- Complexity level for each report = difficult

Reference (Complexity Levels)

No. of section contain	Sources of data table	
	Total < 4 (< 2 servers < 3 clients)	Total < 8 (2 - 3 servers 3-5 clients)
0 - 1	Simple	Simple
2 - 3	Simple	Medium
4 +	Medium	Difficult

For Reports

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Step-3: Assign complexity weights to each object

Solution

- By using complexity weight table we can assign complexity weight to each object instance depending upon their complexity level.
 Complexity weight for each screen =
 Complexity weight for each report =

Reference

Object Type	Complexity Weight	
	Simple	Medium
Screen	1	2
Report	2	5
3GL Components	-	-

Complexity Weight

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Step-3: Assign complexity weights to each object

Solution

- By using complexity weight table we can assign complexity weight to each object instance depending upon their complexity level.
Complexity weight for each screen = 3
Complexity weight for each report = 8

Reference

Object Type	Complexity Weight	
	Simple	Medium
Screen	1	2
Report	2	5
3GL Components	-	-

Complexity Weight

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Step-4: Determine Object Points

Solution:

- Object point count
- = Σ (Number of object instances) * (its Complexity weight)
- = ???

Reference

- Add all the weighted object instances to get one number. This is known as *object point count*.
- Object Point = Σ (number of object instances) * (Complexity weight of each object instance)

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Step-4: Determine Object Points

Solution:

- Object point count
- $= \Sigma$ (Number of object instances) * (its Complexity weight)
- $= 8 * 3 + 4 * 8 = 56$

Reference

- Add all the weighted object instances to get one number. This is known as *object point count*.
- Object Point = Σ (number of object instances) * (Complexity weight of each object instance)

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Step-5: Compute New Object Points (NOP)

Solution

- %reuse of object points = 10% (given)
- NOP = [object points * (100 - %reuse)]/100
- NOP= ???

Reference

- We have to estimate the % reuse to be achieved in a project. Depending on %reuse
- $NOP = [(object points) * (100 - %reuse)]/100$
- NOP are the object points that need to be developed and calculated from the object point count because there may be reuse of some object instance in project.

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Step-5: Compute New Object Points (NOP)

Solution

- %reuse of object points = 10% (given)
- $NOP = [\text{object points} * (100 - \% \text{reuse})]/100$
- $NOP = [56 * (100 - 20)]/100 = 44.8$

Reference

- We have to estimate the % reuse of object points to be achieved in a project. Depending on %reuse
- $NOP = [(\text{object points}) * (100 - \% \text{reuse})]/100$
- NOP are the object point that need to be developed and calculated from the object point count given because there may be reuse of some object instance in project.

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Step-6: Calculate Productivity rate (PROD)

Solution

- Developer's experience and capability is low (given)
- Using information given about developer and productivity rate table
- Productivity rate (PROD) of given project =

Reference

- *Productivity rate* is calculated on the basis of information given about developer's experience and capability.

Developers experience & capability	Productivity Rate
Very Low	
Low	
Nominal	
High	
High	

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Productivity Rate

Step-6: Calculate Productivity rate (PROD)

Solution

- Developer's experience and capability is low (given)
- Using information given about developer and productivity rate table
- Productivity rate (PROD) of given project = 7

Reference

- *Productivity rate* is calculated basis of information given about developer's experience and capability

Developers experience & capability	Productivity Rate
Very Low	Very Low
Low	Low
Nominal	Nominal
High	High
High	High

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Step-7: Compute the estimated Effort

Solution:

- Effort = NOP/PROD
- Effort=
- Effort=

Reference

- *Effort* to develop a project can be calculated as
- Effort = NOP/PROD Effort measured in *person-mon*

Step-7: Compute the estimated Effort

Solution:

- Effort = NOP/PROD
- Effort= 44.8/7
- Effort= 6.4 person-month

Reference

- *Effort* to develop a project be calculated as
- Effort = NOP/PROD Effort measured in *person-month*

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Early Design Model

Early Design Model

- Estimates can be made after the requirements have been agreed.
- Based on a standard formula for algorithmic models
 - $PM = A \times \text{Size}^B \times M$ where
 - $M = PERS \times RCPX \times RUSE \times PDIF \times PREX \times FCIL \times SCED$;
 - $A = 2.94$ 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.

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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.
- | | |
|--------------|--------|
| Early Design | Very I |
| RCPX | |
| RUSE | |
| PDIF | |
| PERS | |
| PREX | |
| FCIL | |
| SCED | |

- 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 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 estimate for new code.

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Reuse model estimates 1 (Black box)

- 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.

- 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.

ESLOC means equivalent number of lines of new source code.

ASLOC means the source lines of code in the component that has to be adapted.

AAM is adaptation Adjustment multiplier. This factor is used to take into account the efforts required to reuse the code. <https://www.keralanotes.com/>



Reuse model estimation 2 (White box) – Cont....

- Simplistically, AAM is the sum of three components:
 - 1. An **assessment factor** (referred to as AA) that represents the effort involved deciding whether or not to reuse components. AA varies from 0 to 8 depending on the amount of time you need to spend looking for and assessing potential candidates for reuse.
 - 2. An **understanding component** (referred to as SU) that represents the costs of understanding the code to be reused and the familiarity of the engineer with that is being reused. SU ranges from 50 for complex, unstructured code to 10 for well-written, object-oriented code.
 - 3. An **adaptation component** (referred to as AAF) that represents the costs of changes to the reused code. These include design, code, and integration changes.
- Use Early estimation model to compute the Effort
 - $PM = A \times Size^B \times M$

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 to be modified according to requirements changes.

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4. Post architecture model

- This model is a detailed model used to compute the efforts. The formula used in this model is
$$\text{Effort} = A \times \text{Size}^B \times M$$
- In this model efforts should be estimated more accurately. In this formula **A** is the amount of code. This code size estimate is made with the help of three components –
 1. The estimate about **new** lines of code that is added in the program.
 2. Equivalent number of source lines of code (ESLOC) used in reuse.
 3. Due to changes in requirements the lines of code get modified. This estimate of amount of code being modified.
- The exponent term **B** has three possible values that are related to the complexity of project. The values of B are continuous rather than discrete. The value of B depends upon the five scale factors. These scale factors vary from low to extra high (i.e. from 5 to 0).

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