Task-Based Estimation and Planning for Application Development Projects and Resources: Models, Methods and Applications

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Abstract

This dissertation takes a new approach to software development effort estimation from the perspective of design patterns at an organization. A new estimating tool is developed to provide bottom up estimates based on the design patterns of the organization. The research also offers guidelines for extracting the unique design patterns specific to an organization that are used to obtain baseline task level estimates in the Estimating Tool. In addition, the tool provides a suite of seven estimates using predictive analytics to estimate the labor hours required for a project using historical data, a bottom-up estimate that is rooted in the design patterns of the organization, a recommended estimate, plus four other estimates that are based on the function point count. The four estimates include a predictive model to estimate the project cost based on the function point count and three estimates are variants of the early design Construction Cost Model II (COCOMO II). Direct benefits of the tool include reduction of process variability thereby resulting in consistency of estimates across teams in an organization.

In Agile IT Project Management, there is an important need to better plan project timelines and to make better scheduling and resource allocation decisions to facilitate ontime and on-budget project deliveries. This research thus also addresses the prescriptive aspect of the application, by making better resource allocation decisions via a new mixedinteger linear programing (MILP) optimization model. The model provides data-driven decision-support for companies looking to make a transition from the waterfall to the agile paradigm with a structured approach to focus on skills development at the organization. A

real-world application of the use of the new Estimating Tool and the proposed models at a large firm is showcased as part of the research. A comprehensive sensitivity analysis was conducted as part of a set of computational experiments to obtain managerial insights.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background and Research Motivation

Almost all types of organizations, either large or small, perform Application Development to meet the growing needs of business. Application Development often involves estimating the size of the effort upfront so that the organization can make appropriate budgeting and scheduling decisions. According to Gartner (2014), Application Development accounts for 34% of Information Technology budgets. One of the biggest challenges companies face is their inability to size the associated effort properly. Chemuturi (2009) defines *Software Development Estimation* as "the estimation of software size, software development effort, software development cost, and software development schedule for a specified software project in a specified environment, using defined methods, tools and techniques." The effort is measured in person-days or person-hours, and the schedule is optimized based on the capacity of resources available. Every organization conducts software estimation differently, and there is very little consistency in the industry. While there are off-the-shelf tools that can be used for software development estimation, these tools do not account for the unique application environment and business rules under which companies operate, and cannot be customized for individual companies. Shepperd (2007) states that accurately predicting software development effort is a crucial concern of many organizations. Halkjelsvik and Jørgensen (2012) present evidence that the average cost and effort overrun for software projects is about thirty percent.

Application Development is often managed as a project, and the term *project estimation* can be used interchangeably with software development estimation. It is often the case where there are so many risk contingencies built into the estimate that one must peel off the layers to know the true cost of a project. I have personally been involved in Application Development for more than 22 years in various roles, including being a developer, subject matter expert (SME), and project leader. I have seen a wide range of methodologies and tools being used in this space to estimate projects. Most of these methods often rely on expert estimation or the subjective judgment of SMEs. Albrecht and Gaffney (1983) define function point as "a unit of measurement to express the amount of business functionality an Information system or application provides to a user." Many organizations use function points as a sizing measure. The estimating process can often go through multiple layers, including risk contingency through the approval hierarchy of the organization before obtaining the final estimate. The biggest disadvantage of this process is the lack of consistency in the process between different application teams that use the same technology stack to develop similar applications. There is significant variability in the estimates obtained by different teams for the same type of work.

This research was motivated by the initiative at a service organization to develop a tool for project estimation. It is a large international firm with a Program Management Office (PMO) that manages the execution of information system projects. The information

system projects are centrally managed, and most of the projects are web-based projects that are executed to bring efficiencies in the workflow for their customers. The functionality delivered by these projects are unique to the organization, but the process and methodology can be applied to other organizations that use a similar technology stack. It is a mature organization, already using function points to size projects. The organization was looking to make a transition from the traditional Waterfall way of executing projects to the Agile environment. There were a few pilot initiatives in the Agile space. Jones (2007) makes the case for why an organization needs to use function points:

- 1. Projects with function point analysis early in the process have lower "requirements creep" than uncounted projects.
- 2. Projects with function point analysis have about 15% lower cost overruns than uncounted projects.
- 3. Projects with function point analysis have about 25% less schedule slip than uncounted projects.
- 4. Preliminary analysis indicates that function point analysis saves \$15 to \$50 per function point. $ROI = 15$ to 1 roughly.

One of the most significant advantages is that the project team needs to go through a structured process to get the function points for a project counted. This often can get the team thinking about the first level design, and it lays the foundation for a quality design phase.

The organization had set up the foundation to use the COCOMO II model (COnstruction COst MOdel II), which is an approach to estimate the cost, effort, and schedule for a new software development project. It takes the number of function points as its input, and it is a constructive software estimation model based mainly on regression techniques. The model is defined in terms of scaling factors and effort multipliers, which are used for estimating overall effort and cost (Cocomo, 2000). The company relied primarily on expert estimation, with SMEs in each area performing the design and estimates. It then used executive judgment in addition to the estimate from the SME to estimate the cost and effort associated with the project, which was then used to make scheduling decisions. As mentioned earlier, the two major disadvantages were the lack of consistency in estimates and variability that existed in estimates for work that was very similar.

There is abundant research in software development estimation since the early 1980s. Sehra, Brar, Kaur, and Sehra (2017) find that there are several articles in this space beginning in the early 1990s, and it continues to be actively researched. Myrtveit, Stensrud, and Shepperd (2005) mention that software cost estimation has been a complex and difficult task evidenced by the amount of research in this space. There have been numerous studies over the years comparing the accuracy of estimates regarding overall cost, duration and effort using different estimating models, but many of these approaches fail to consider the specific environment and business rules that are unique to the organization which is often the driver of costs in a software development effort. The business rules (or operations) of the organization often dictate what design patterns are used by the organization. There has been very little research around developing a task based estimating model while considering the unique design patterns used by an organization. A *design pattern* is a generic solution to a commonly occurring issue in software design and development.

Design patterns are useful in that they can speed up the development process in that a solution is often implemented the same way, and design patterns frequently can be reused. Many companies find their niche in rapid application development by standardizing on reusable design patterns. Organizations often rely on expert estimates, and those estimates are often from subject matter experts who have worked in those systems for a long time. Big organizations standardize on technology design patterns, and application development teams use the same technology stack and design patterns for most application development. This lends itself to bottom up estimating that is rooted at the task level. The key to estimating then becomes uncovering the underlying unique design pattern of the organization and utilize it for better project effort estimation.

Another thrust of my dissertation is to propose augmenting the use of the estimating tool by building a resource allocation and project scheduling framework that will help make better scheduling project tasks in an Agile environment. My goal isto build an optimization model that will account for the varied skill sets and domain expertise in the resource pool. The research on the estimating models will set the foundation for the resource allocation model.

1.2 The Framework of the Dissertation

My research aims to fill the gap in the existing research literature and practices in the real world. One thrust of my proposal is to develop a process to find the underlying design pattern of the organization, then decompose the design pattern into scenarios and tasks based on interviews with a small group of subject matter experts or technical architects in the company. Baselines for the tasks and scenarios can be constructed from surveys of

SME estimates. These baselines can be the basis for creating a bottom-up estimating model. One main contribution of this research is the development of an estimating tool that helps a team complete a bottom up estimate right after completing a thorough design for the project. The tool will incorporate the capability to factor in the local environment of the organization and the tasks/scenarios that were decomposed from the design patterns at the company. It will also have other features to enhance the usability of the tool, that cater to the unique environment of the company. Some of these features will include the capability to breakdown the estimate into smaller chunks by functionality, requirements, etc., and to override the baseline at the task level. The tool will then show the estimate from the subject matter expert with the override and compare it with the recommended cost from the tool without the overrides.

This research has been conducted in the context of a service company that does 20- 25 application development projects every year. I was granted access to data from all application development projects going back seven years. The data from the past seven years was used in the development of a suite of predictive models to estimate the total labor hours needed to complete a project. Software development in the early 1990s used to have two major costs, system costs and labor costs. Over time, the cost of computing in terms of system costs has drastically decreased and is no longer a significant contributor to costs. Labor costs today are one of the main cost component in Software Application Development.

There has been little attempt made by organizations to approach software estimating by predicting the labor cost associated with the project and identifying the

underlying drivers of labor cost. This research fills this gap by creating an estimating model that estimates the total labor hours for a project, identifies the most important explanatory factors that contribute to the overall labor cost, and quantifies the economic impact of resources. Due to the endogenous nature of some explanatory variables in the models, we build two-stage regression predictive models to predict the number of labor hours that will be required for a project. We then translate the labor hours to a cost and add other costs associated with the project, including vendor costs, hardware costs, among others to come up with an overall estimate for the project. The fundamental assumption underlying these models is based on the analysis of the existing cost data, which indicates that labor costs are the single most important contributor to application development costs at the company.

The models provide a suite of cost estimates to the decision makers, who integrate expert executive judgment with data science. The organization was already using function points to measure the size of development efforts, and I was also granted access to this data. I derived a predictive model to predict the cost of a project based on the historical data using function points and actual labor costs of a project. I also used the COCOMO II early design model to come up with three estimates based on varying a couple of scaling factors. The bottom-up estimate based on the design pattern completed by the subject matter expert and recommended estimate from the tool complete the suite of estimates. Overall, I obtained a suite of seven estimates for decision makers to assess and use their executive judgment to challenge the experts on the estimate. The suite of estimates are explained below.

SME/TL Estimate: This is the estimate of the subject matter expert/Technical Lead, including the override time that they have chosen for all tasks in the newly created estimating tool.

Recommended Cost: This the estimate for all the tasks considering only the time that the tool recommends leaving out the override time chosen for the individual tasks.

Predictive Cost: This is the predicted cost for the project based on the historical data of projects from 2011 to 2017. This estimate considers factors such as # of associates, # of contractors, # of experienced contractors, duration of the project, # of development tasks, time spent in testing, time spent in planning, which area is doing the project, what type of project, etc. The most significant contributors to labor cost at the organization are considered to predict the cost. These contributors and associated weightages will be determined from the newly created two stage regression model.

Function point baseline: This is the predicted cost at the organization for the project based on the historical data in the function point's database. It is calculated based on calculated function points. We take the function point number and adjust it for a requirement creep of two percent per month and use the adjusted number to predict the cost of the project.

COCOMO II Best Case, Middle of the Road, and Costliest: These three numbers also consider the adjusted function point count. It gives one a range of estimates based on adjusting scale factors and cost drivers in the model. We only change two of the cost drivers in the model. One is able to obtain a range based on the function point count.

- The best case assumes one to have a high performing team and schedule pressure is relaxed.
- The middle of the road case assumes one to have a nominal team and schedule pressure is normal.
- The costliest case assumes one to have a nominal team and schedule pressure is high.

All three scenarios assume the following scale factors and cost drivers.

The scale factors were chosen in discussion with technology leaders at the firm. The process maturity is nominal, experience of similar projects is high, flexibility required in the system is nominal, team cohesiveness is high, project risk and architectural complexity is low.

The cost drivers again were chosen in discussion with the technology leaders at the firm. System reliability, complexity, and size indicator are nominal, reusability is nominal, platform difficulty is nominal, application language and tool experience are high, and using case tools for development is high.

The estimating models set the stage for the development of a resource allocation framework that will help make better scheduling decisions. This framework relies on an optimization model that considers skill and domain expertise while assigning resources to tasks in an Agile Project Methodology setting. Agile practitioners typically do not approach the planning and scheduling of resources from an allocation framework that considers the skill and domain expertise of individuals. My model will address that need for small projects in an Agile setting and will lay the foundation for project managers to make better scheduling decisions based on the best resource available to work on a task. Many organizations are considering or making a transition from a traditional Waterfall to an Agile methodology for execution projects. This research lays out a framework for making this transition focusing on skills development to best utilize the workload of resources available, and it employs a prescriptive optimization model at the core of this framework.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

There is abundant research on software development estimation since the early 1980s. Sehra et al. (2017) find that there are several articles in this area beginning in the early 1990s, and it continues to be actively studied. There are more than 80 papers that have been published over a period of ten years from 2007 through 2016. Albrecht and Gaffney (1983) make the case that one of the most important problems faced by software developers and users is the prediction of the size of a programming system and its development effort. The literature review in this chapter is organized into four main sections.

- 1. The first section reviews the papers that focus on bottom-up estimating and on various approaches to measure the size of software applications.
- 2. The second section reviews the papers that focus on executing projects using the Agile Project Methodology, especially those dealing with release planning. This

section also reviews papers on optimizing resource allocation and scheduling stories in the Agile context.

- 3. The third section reviews the papers that focus on estimating models in the context of estimating effort for open systems such as web development projects.
- 4. The fourth section reviews the papers that make the case that a suite of estimates is better than having one estimate.

2.1 Bottom-up estimating and measuring the size of software applications

Bottom-up estimating is a way in which a big project is broken down into smaller subcomponents, and each subcomponent is estimated in terms of time needed for the subcomponent or task. The aggregation of the individual estimates of the subcomponents then becomes the estimate for the overall software project. Bottom-up estimating facilitates the generation of a work breakdown structure, which is then used for project scheduling and resource allocation. Table 1 summarizes the literature regarding bottom-up estimating and measuring the size of software applications.

Table 1: Bottom-up estimating and measuring the size of software applications research

Hill et al. (2000) analyze the accuracy of expert estimates for tasks. They study the link between task time and the number of subtasks involved in the task and find a significant relationship between the two attributes. The authors make the case that the way we breakdown tasks in a work breakdown structure to identify subtasks is also one of the most useful things that experts can do to estimate the times of the tasks better. Forsyth and Burt (2008) conduct three experiments in a non-software context to compare time allocation for a single task with the total time allocation given to all the subtasks that make up the single task. The authors advance the concept of a segmentation effect where they find higher estimates when tasks are decomposed. One other interesting conclusion from the paper is that the decomposed estimates are more accurate when predicting larger subtasks as opposed to smaller subtasks. Cunha et al. (2012) present a case study implementing a bottom-up estimating approach in a software company. The authors find that the estimates greatly improved using the bottom-up estimating approach.

Albrecht and Gaffney (1983) present a method to measure size based on the concept of function points. They define a function point as "a unit of measurement to express the amount of business functionality an Information system or application provides to a user." Low and Jeffery (1990) show how function points can be used to compute a functional value of an application in terms of external inputs, external outputs, external inquiries, internal logical files, and external interface files. Function points have been in use since the early 1990s and are used by companies to size a software development effort. Verner and Tate (1992) take up the case of a bottom up estimation based on size because size was critical to explaining overall effort. They identify the factors affecting size and obtain equations to predict size based on the explanatory factors. The authors present a method to come up with an overall system size based on the individual size of the subcomponents. The results were accurate to the extent to which knowledge about the system was known.

Expert judgment plays an important role in the development of these models. Miyazaki et al. (1994) build on the model by Verner and Tate to propose improvements in measuring size by using the least squares of inverted balanced relative errors instead of the ordinary least squares method. Hakuta et al. (1997) introduce an estimation model that is independent of program type and is more generic in nature. They introduce the concept of a processing unit. The processing unit is defined as a module that completes a specific function, and the size of the processing unit is estimated based on reference modules. It has adjustments for language level, complexity, and environmental factors. The authors make the case for refinement of size estimates based on the availability of more information.

There is plenty of research that is being done in the field of software estimating, and new models are being developed. The existing research has a gap from a practitioner's perspective in that the models being developed in academic research do not meet the everyday needs of a practitioner. The models are not intuitive enough to be employed in practice. Pfleeger et al. (1997) talk about the gap between measurement research and practice. They talk about software measurement as a broad term, including everything in the software development process that deals with metrics including monitoring the schedule and how managers look for measurable milestones to indicate the project health in terms of effort and schedule deliverables. They refer to the academic researchers as the measurement community and advocate the idea that the measurement community should not remain separate from the mainstream software engineering field. The authors make the case that academic researchers should try to understand the practitioners' needs so that models that are more relevant for the real world can be produced.

Raz and Elnathan (1999) outline an Activity-Based Costing (ABC) approach for software projects. ABC is a two-stage method of allocating overhead costs to various cost drivers at different levels of activity. The authors propose using the ABC method to track overhead costs for software projects. The focus in ABC is on consumption of resources as represented by the activities in the projects, while the traditional work breakdown structure

(WBS) in Waterfall project management groups together work packages according to the resources responsible for execution of that activity.

Symons (1991) defines Mark II function points as a method that identifies and categorizes functional user requirements of the software into three types, inputs, exits, and objects. The functional size of the system is counted based on the count of the individual requirements. Dolado (2000) applies Genetic Programing to estimate the size of the software project. The author proposes various approaches to estimate the size of the project in terms of lines of code and demonstrates a relationship between lines of code and number of components (NOC). The model is a generic model, and the data for project effort was fitted using Mark II function points. MacDonell (2003) uses fuzzy logic modeling to predict effort size and evaluates if it could be used as an alternative to least squares regression. Regolin et al. (2003) uses machine learning (Genetic programming and Neural Networks) to predict the number of lines of code and number of components (NOC). The authors advocate for the use of machine learning techniques in size estimation.

Moløkken and Jørgensen (2003) complete a systematic literature review on software estimation. Two important findings point to the fact that 30-40% overruns are common for most software projects, and the mostly used estimation approach is the expertbased estimation method. Jørgensen (2004a) also completes a systematic review of papers on software development effort expert estimation. The author concludes that expert estimation is the preferred method when estimating for software development projects and that there is no hard evidence to prove the superiority of model estimates over that of the estimates from experts. Jørgensen (2004b) compares expert estimation from a top down

perspective and bottom up perspective. The author concludes that expert estimation might work better in a bottom up context when the estimators have less access to recall of similar projects. Jørgensen (2007) completes a systematic review of papers that used expert judgment, formal models, and a combination of both approaches to estimate software projects. The author finds that the models do not perform better than the experts when estimating the overall effort and makes the case for a combination approach in which both expert judgment and models are used. The author suggests that this might be the preferred approach.

Costagliola et al. (2005) present a function point like approach called class point to estimate the size of a project. They consider factors such as number of external methods, number of services requested, and a complexity measure for each class. The class point approach provides a system-level size measure by considering specific aspects of a single class. The authors propose two measures, namely CP1 and CP2. CP1 is used early in development to get a measure of size, and CP2 is used later in the development process when information about the attributes associated with a class is known. Pendharkar (2004) introduces the concept of estimating object-oriented component size using regression. He uses regression tree models to predict object-oriented component size based on factors such as the number of Graphical User Interface (GUI) elements, number of methods, number of subclasses, etc. Kanmani et al. (2007) build on the concept of class points to estimate size of the effort and use neural networks as the estimation method. The authors make the case that the results were comparable to the results obtained from regression models. Wijayasiriwardhane and Lai (2008) introduce the concept of component points, which are like function points to estimate size of a project. They apply it in the context of componentbased systems. Zhou et al. (2014) introduce the concept of objective class points to estimate the size of an effort.

Jørgensen (2014) summarizes the state of software estimating based on decades of research in this space. The author points out that there is no "best" effort estimation model or method despite years of research. There are many studies that compare the accuracy of estimation models and methods. The author states that "A major reason for this lack of result stability seems to be that several core relationships, such as the one between development effort and project size, differs from context to context." The author's findings imply that companies should focus on the local context and try to build their own estimation models. Jørgensen gives a set of recommendations, and one of the main recommendations was to develop and use a simple estimation model that is based on the local context in combination with expert estimation. He also recommends avoiding using early estimates based on highly incomplete information.

A majority of papers reviewed thus far deal with the development of models and measuring the accuracy of models. We found various methodologies and models that predict size as it relates to software estimating, starting with the function points methodology to various other models dealing with the estimation of size. We see variants of the function points methodology, including Mark II function points, class points, component points, objective class points, etc. We also see various methodologies including regression, machine learning, and other predictive methodologies used in the context of predicting size, and there is a lot of literature on comparing the accuracy of the models.

There exists a branch of literature that deals with comparing estimates from experts with those from models. Findings suggest to combine expert-based estimating with modelbased estimating. Research also shows a case being made for bottom up estimating as yielding better estimates. There is a need to develop and use simple estimation models that meet the needs of the local context and can be used in conjunction with expert estimation.

A design pattern is a generic solution to a commonly occurring issue in software design and development. Design patterns are useful in that they can speed up the development process in that a solution is often implemented the same way, and design patterns yield themselves to be reused. Design patterns often become a language in which experts in the software development field communicate. Many big organizations approach application development from the perspective of reusable standardized design patterns. There exists a gap in the literature where software estimating is not being viewed from the perspective of design patterns. Every mature organization is going to have its own niche in terms of reusable design patterns, and if we can find a way to identify the core design pattern and the tasks that form the basis for the design pattern, we will have the foundation for a new estimating model. Every design pattern can then be decomposed to a set of tasks or components and scenarios. We can then come up with a stepwise process to come up with a simple estimating model that meets the needs of a local context and one that combines expert estimation in the context of standardized design patterns.

2.2 Agile Release Planning Methodology

2.2.1 Definition of terms for an Agile project execution

CPrime (2013) defines Scrum as a subset of Agile. It is one of the most widely used process framework for Agile development. The Scrum team is self-organizing in that the team comes up with a solution to completing a task, and there is no hierarchy within the team. The projects move through a sequence of iterations or sprints in the Scrum model.

At the outset, an idea for a project is considered and is taken through **design sprints**. The product owner or the business sponsor champions the project and requirements for the application are put together as a collection of stories into software like JIRA. JIRA is one of the more popular software programs used by organizations to organize sprints.

The stories are prioritized in order of importance. Each story is assigned story points when they are put into the system. Usually, more story points indicate more effort is involved in implementing the story. Each team might have its own method of assigning story points to a story. We take a collection of stories that form the crux of an application or deliverable and plan a release or epic. The collection of stories is sometimes referred to as a backlog of items. Long-term planning takes places at the release level. Short term planning takes place at the Sprint or Iteration level.

An **iteration or sprint** is a time window during which development takes place. It usually varies between one to four weeks, and the duration is fixed for a given project. The team decides to execute 2-4-week sprints, and they usually stick to that for the duration of the project. The entire release will consist of a sequence of sprints. When the team plans for a sprint, they pick up the highest prioritized stories from the backlog. The backlog can be viewed as the list of pending stories that need to be completed to deliver the functionality. When stories are prioritized, they can be classified as must have, should have,

and nice to have. The must-have stories with the highest priority are usually taken up first for execution.

Stories can be interdependent and related. For example, one story might be dependent on another story, and it often is useful to take up all the dependent stories together.

The **velocity of the team** is the number of story points completed in a sprint. We can obtain a high-level estimate of the remaining work in a project based on the velocity and number of story points remaining to be completed.

There is a **working agreement** for the team. The entire team negotiates and agrees to the working agreement upfront before the project starts. Each time a team member leaves the team, or a new team member enters the team, the working agreement is renegotiated.

At the end of each sprint, we might have some rework based on feedback that then gets prioritized into the planning of the next sprint. At the sprint level, we could look at each story as a task. Each story is divided into sub-tasks and estimated in hours at the iteration planning level.

Pair programming is a methodology where two resources share a single workstation. One person is usually the driver, and the other person is considered the navigator. This methodology is often used when there is a need to bring in a new person on the team or when there is a need to develop a subject matter expert, etc.

Planning poker is one way of assigning story points to stories or hours to tasks. The business sponsor usually explains the intent of the story, and each person on the team picks a number. Usually, the people with the lowest and highest estimate are requested to give justification, and the scrum master then helps the team reach a consensus towards an acceptable number.

2.2.2 Agile release planning methodology literature review

Logue and McDaid (2008) find that release planning is a crucial activity in the software development process. The estimate to develop a particular functionality and the likely return are subject to many uncertainties. In the Agile methodology, a sprint is period of time in which a defined unit of work or specific functionality has to be completed and be made ready for review. The unit of work is usually comprised of a set of user stories. A set of sprints often comprise a Release or an Epic. Decisions need to be made on which stories to include in a sprint and within the planning horizon of a release. This will often require a delicate balance between competing benefits and risks. G. Ruhe and Saliu (2005) identify the characteristics of a good release plan, which includes increasing the overall business value, satisfying the needs of the stakeholders, meeting the resource constraints, and accounting for dependencies between features. Table 2 summarizes the literature on Agile release planning and the related methodologies.

Author	Agile Concept Addressed	Methodology
G. Ruhe and Saliu (2005)	Release Planning	Multi Objective Optimization problem.
(Cusumano, 2007)	Extreme Programming and Iterative development	Personal Experience, Interviews
(Logue & McDaid, 2008)	Release Planning	Case Study
(Moløkken-Østvold, Haugen, & Benestad, 2008)	Estimating using planning poker	Case Study
Szoke (2009)	Iteration Planning.	Resource-constrained project scheduling optimization problem (RCPSP).
Szoke (2010)	Feature Planning	Optimization Model
(Ktata & Lévesque, 2010)	Estimating user stories	Case Study, Interviews
(Abdel-Hamid & Abdel- Kader, 2011)	Velocity	Case Study
(Da Silva, Martin, Maurer, & Silveira, 2011)	User centered design and Agile methods	Literature Review
(Dong, Yang, Wang, Zhai, & Ruhe, 2011)	Extreme Programming and Iteration planning	Case Study. Knapsack based optimization solution.
(Van Valkenhoef, Tervonen, De Brock, & Postmus, 2011)	Release Planning and Extreme Programming	Knapsack based optimization solution.
Szke (2011)	Release Planning.	Multiple knapsack-based optimization model
(Mahnič & Hovelja, 2012)	Planning poker and user stories	Case Study
(Boschetti, Golfarelli, Rizzi, & Turricchia, 2014)	Sprint Planning	Optimization Model

Table 2: Agile release planning methodology research

Cusumano (2007) compares extreme programming with iterative development on multiple key concepts. One of the key concepts in the paper is the building of the product in small increments of functionality at regular intervals. The author introduces the concept of releases to deliver functionality in regular and small intervals. The key in this model is to get regular feedback from customers, and it results in an evolving product. Logue and McDaid (2008) complete a case study on a company using data from two projects and provide a method for decision makers to plan out a release in terms of which stories to include in the release. They lay out the release planning process based on requesting users to give minimum, most likely and maximum estimates for each task.

Planning poker is a way of assigning story points to stories or hours to tasks. The business sponsor usually explains the intent of the story, and each person on the team picks a number. The scrum master is a facilitator for an Agile development team. Usually, the people with the lowest and highest estimate are requested to give justification, and the scrum master then helps the team reach a consensus towards an acceptable number. Moløkken-Østvold, Haugen, and Benestad (2008) present a case study on a company to compare the estimate accuracy on a project. They compare the estimates using the planning poker methodology with that of estimates provided by experts or subject matter experts. They find very little difference between the two methods, but there were some tangible side benefits like possible improved code quality, etc. that was perceived from planning poker. The authors conclude that the use of planning poker moderates the effect of optimism and provides more accurate estimates as compared with expert estimation. Ktata and Lévesque (2010) complete a case study using data collected from structured interviews. The authors introduce the concept of technical debt, which is defined as any side of the current system that is considered sub-optimal from the technical perspective. The main contributor to technical debt is the desire of developers to cut corners to meet a deadline, and this results in more technical debt. The authors also research the causes for the errors in estimating user stories. Abdel-Hamid and Abdel-Kader (2011) complete a case study implementing Agile methodologies at five companies. Their study indicates implementing Agile practices results in improved velocity and better project morale. Grapenthin, Poggel, Book, and Gruhn (2015) complete a case study of two large scrum-based projects. They

find increasing communication as part of the process before and during the sprint help in better identification of tasks in a timely manner before the planning of a sprint.

G. Ruhe and Saliu (2005) show how different objectives related to implementation and requirements can be optimized using a multi-objective optimization model in the context of release planning. Szoke (2009) approaches the issue of iteration planning as a resource-constrained project scheduling optimization problem (RCPSP). The author identifies the developer as a unique resource and makes the case that the complexity in scheduling arises from various implicit and explicit dependencies around tasks like interdependence between tasks, priority for a task, etc. Szoke (2010) approaches the issue of feature planning and assigning features to teams as an optimization problem. Dong, Yang, Wang, Zhai, and Ruhe (2011) complete a case study at a Chinese software company and approach the problem of assigning user stories in an extreme programming environment as a knapsack problem. They provide an optimization model to help with iteration planning. Van Valkenhoef, Tervonen, De Brock, and Postmus (2011) approach the issue of release planning in an extreme programming environment in terms of a nested knapsack problem. Szke (2011) makes the case that Agile approaches tend to lean towards delivering software incrementally, where there is a sequence of small releases as opposed to delivering the whole system at once. He proposes "a conceptual model for Agile scheduling and a multiple knapsack-based optimization model with a branch-and-bound optimization algorithm for Agile release scheduling." Boschetti, Golfarelli, Rizzi, and Turricchia (2014) complete a case study using data from two projects in Italy and present an optimization model for sprint planning in an Agile environment to assign stories to a sprint. They assign a business value to each story in an approach rooted in the concept of increasing the overall business value. The authors extend the model to use Lagrangian heuristic methods to reduce the solving time for the model. Hannay, Benestad, and Strand (2017) propose a knapsack problem where they maximize business value within a fixed cost. The authors make the case to maximize business value within fixed cost and introduce a new concept called business points, which are assigned to stories and tasks like story points. The authors introduce a new concept called earned business value and propose using the new metric in lieu of functionality delivered by a story.

Table 2.1 compares this research with the other papers in this space that have used optimization models to address similar problems.

Numerous systematic reviews of Agile methodologies exist. Da Silva, Martin, Maurer, and Silveira (2011) complete a systematic review of literature dealing with papers that combine Agile methods with user centered design. The authors review 58 papers in this space and propose an integrated approach to incorporate design into the Agile process.

Bilgaiyan, Sagnika, Mishra, and Das (2017) complete a systematic literature review of all papers involving cost estimation in the Agile methodology space. They identify 26 relevant papers and find neural networks and expert judgment to be the most used techniques for estimating projects. Hoda, Salleh, Grundy, and Tee (2017) look at all systematic literature reviews in the Agile space and identify 28 relevant papers. These papers deal with various issues within the Agile Methodology like usability, human and social factors, etc. They conclude that there is no comprehensive study dealing with Agile practices around release planning. Usman, Mendes, Weidt, and Britto (2014) finish a systematic literature review of effort estimation techniques within Agile software development. They identify 20 relevant papers in this space and conclude that the most researched methods in the estimating context within the Agile space revolve around expert judgment, planning poker, and use case points. They also realize that this is an area that has still not been researched deeply. Usman, Mendes, and Börstler (2015) present and analyze a survey of 60 Agile practitioner's in 16 countries. The authors conclude the most popular estimation techniques are planning poker, analogy, and expert judgment. They also find that story points were the most frequently used size metric. The respondents to the survey felt the dominant trend was towards under estimation in Agile projects. Usman, Börstler, and Petersen (2017) extend the previous study to include Globally Distributed Agile practices and compare results in terms of Effort Estimation techniques. They identify that the main differences were related to the secondary effort estimation techniques. Analogy was the preferred method for distributed Agile practitioners and use case point was the preferred metric for distributed Agile practitioners while function points were the preferred metric for colocated Agile practitioners.

Dragicevic et al. (2017) develop a Bayesian model to help estimate tasks in an Agile setting. The authors propose a model that can be used in the early project phase to predict task effort. They make the case that the model is independent of Agile methods used. The authors validate the model against a database of 160 tasks from real Agile projects, and they found it to be accurate for estimating tasks.

A majority of papers deal with the qualitative aspects of Agile methodology. Most of these papers are case studies and use the survey methodology to assess and understand the qualitative aspects. There are a few papers that deal with extreme programming. Most of the papers mostly deal with issues like various aspects of Agile, like usability, human and social factors, etc. There is no comprehensive study as such that deals with Agile practices around release planning. I found seven papers that deal with planning resources in a release planning context. Most of these papers approach the planning from an optimization context as a packing problem. They approach it as a knapsack problem and address the problem of assigning resources to tasks or stories based on given constraints. There is a gap in the literature where the skills of resources and domain expertise of resources is not considered when assigning resources to stories in a sprint and in a wider context of a release or an epic. There is also a gap in the literature where the results of developing a task-based bottom-up estimating model that is rooted in design patterns used in the company creates the foundation and sets the stage for developing an optimization model that helps in release planning. Agile project management is a technique of delivering software projects and has not been researched deeply from the perspective of optimizing the use of planning resources and schedules while retaining some tenets of traditional Waterfall-based project management such as centralized control by a Project Management
Office (PMO). There is a definite gap in the literature for a model that addresses the need of planning resources in a hybrid model where resources are managed as a pool of resources in the PMO while accounting for economies of scale that would result from accounting for skills and domain expertise of an individual.

2.3 Predictive modeling in the context of estimating effort for open systems web development projects

MacDonell and Shepperd (2003a) argue that the software community faces a significant challenge when it comes to effective resource prediction, and they make the case for accurately and consistently predicting resource requirements for effectively managing software projects. They make the case in 2003, and this continues to be the truth to date. Dejaeger, Verbeke, Martens, and Baesens (2012) find personnel costs are a significant contributor to expenses in the budget of software development companies. Software development companies often do a poor job estimating the number of resources needed to complete a software project. Labor costs today are one of the biggest contributors to cost in Software Application Development. There is limited research in this area that approaches software development cost giving more weightage to the labor costs in comparison to the overall cost. Table 3 summarizes the literature in the context of estimating effort for open systems web development projects.

Table 3: Predictive modeling in the context of estimating effort for open systems web development projects

Author	Methodology	Modeling Technique
MacDonell and Shepperd (2003a)	Expert Judgment, Case based reasoning and Linear Regression	Case Based Reasoning, Linear Regression
Dejaeger et al. (2012)	Comparative Study	Various estimating methodologies
Reifer (2000)	Based on Web Objects. Similar to COCOMO II	WebMO model for estimating web projects
Mendes and Counsell (2000)	Case Study	Estimation by Analogy
Mendes, Watson, Triggs, Mosley, and Counsell (2002)	Experimental study	Multiple Regression and Case based Reasoning
Mendes, Mosley, and Counsell (2003)	Survey and Case Study using an industry database	Case based reasoning
Baresi, Morasca, and Paolini (2003)	Empirical Study	
M. Ruhe, Jeffery, and Wieczorek (2003a)	Case Study	Combination of Cost Estimation, Benchmarking and Risk Assessment models
M. Ruhe, Jeffery, and Wieczorek (2003b)	Case Study	Validation of the WEBMO methodology
Mendes, Mosley, and Counsell (2005)	Surveys and Case study	Regression
Costagliola et al. (2006)	Experimental study	COSMIC Full Function Point approach
F. Ferrucci, Gravino, and Di Martino (2008)	Case Study	Regression
Filomena Ferrucci, Gravino, Oliveto, Sarro, and Mendes (2010)	Case Study using Industry database	Tabu search and Support Vector regression
Mendes, Abutalib, and Counsell (2012)	Case Study	Expert Elicitation

Reifer (2000) presents a model for web effort estimation that is rooted in specific metrics that applies to web-based development. He introduces the concept of Web Objects (WO) and WebMO as the new estimation model. WO was an extension to the function points approach, and WebMO took its inspiration from the COCOMO II model. The WebMO model uses only nine cost drivers.

Mendes and Counsell (2000) perform a study to estimate efforts for web application development by using analogy. The authors use a tool (ANGEL) to obtain the most optimal combination of variables to predict efforts. They complete an analysis using data from 70 web projects and conclude that analogy-based estimation is a viable method for estimating web projects. Mendes et al. (2002) perform a study on 37 web hypermedia applications to compare the prediction accuracy of case-based reasoning (CBR) techniques and then perform comparative analysis between the better performing CBR technique and other techniques including Stepwise Regression, Multiple Linear Regression and Regression Tree (CART) models. They find the prediction accuracy of Multiple linear and Stepwise regressions was better when compared with the prediction accuracy of the CBR and CART models. Mendes et al. (2003) conduct a study to obtain early size measure for estimation of web application and investigate the prediction accuracy of company specific data with multi-organizational databases. The size measures were expressed using attributes of length, functionality, and complexity. They use 26 projects to research the accuracy of prediction models on company based and multi-company-based datasets. They conclude the prediction accuracy of company specific dataset outperformed multi-company datasets.

Baresi et al. (2003) perform a study to investigate the impact of design efforts on aggregate web development efforts. This study identifies various dependent and independent attributes that impacts design efforts. They use Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method to measure the impact and conclude that the design phase plays an important role in total effort estimation.

M. Ruhe et al. (2003a) perform effort estimation of web application by using COBRA method (Cost Estimation, Benchmarking, and Risk Assessment), and they find analogy-based estimation performs better in sixty percent of cases. They introduce a new method Web-COBRA to enhance the accuracy of the COBRA model for web projects. They validate their model using 12 web projects from a company in Australia and conclude that their new model outperformed the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method. M. Ruhe et al. (2003b) in their subsequent study compare traditional function points and Web Objects using OLS. They complete a case study using 12 web projects, and the results obtained in this study reveal that size expressed in WO were almost 55% more in comparison to FPs, and this difference increases as the complexity of the projects increases. The authors conclude that the results reveal effort estimation by Web Objects (WO) with OLS

regression tree produced significantly better estimates and WO outperforms estimates based on expert opinion as well.

Mendes et al. (2005) conduct a study to research web size measures and cost drivers used in early effort estimation of web application development. They validate their results using the Tukutuku database, a database containing information from multiple companies about web application projects. They analyze 67 web application projects and conclude the total number of web pages and number of features and functionality were the two most influential factors for effort prediction.

Di Martino, Ferrucci, Gravino, and Mendes (2007) explain the genesis of the second generation of function points that were defined by the Common Software Measurement International Consortium (COSMIC), and it was known as the COSMIC-FFP (COSMIC Full Function Point). COSMIC FFP was considered to be the second generation functional sizing method. Costagliola et al. (2006) research about the effectiveness of COSMIC function points to estimate for web application development. They use data from 44 web applications developed by students and conclude that the counting of data movements in an application is an important contributor for estimating the effort associated with the development of web applications.

F. Ferrucci et al. (2008) conduct a study to compare the performance of COSMIC FP and Web Objects to predict accuracy in web development efforts. They use data from 15 web applications and conclude that both COSMIC FP and web objects were good methodologies to predict effort size. Filomena Ferrucci et al. (2010) research the effectiveness of Tabu Search in combination with Support Vector Regression for estimating web applications. They use 195 projects from the Tukutuku database to measure the accuracy of the estimated efforts. They compare their results with another study by Mendes that used the same database and conclude that Tabu Search in combination with Support Vector Regression produces better estimates.

Mendes et al. (2012) developed an expert-based Bayesian Network model to estimate web application efforts. They did a case study using a single company dataset and used 22 web projects to build the model. They conclude that the results obtained show that expert-based Bayesian Network models can be used to estimate effort for web development projects.

Seo and Bae (2013) study the effect of outliers in software effort estimation. They research the effect of outliers on the overall estimation accuracy using publicly available repositories like ISBSG. They use estimation by analogy and ordinary least squares for the research and conclude that removing outliers has a positive effect on the accuracy of the estimate.

Čeke and Milašinović (2015) develop a hybrid model by combining COSMIC-FP and Unified Modeling Language (UML). They use data from 19 web-based projects and validate their results using simple linear regression. They infer that their results show the model they developed was appropriate to estimate efforts in the early stages of web development.

Turhan and Mendes (2014) use data from 125 web projects to compare the accuracy of estimates from industry datasets and single-company models. They find stepwise regression performs better in the field of software effort estimation when applied to crosscompany or industry datasets. They also suggest and make the case for companies to build their own estimating model using their own data when feasible.

Most of papers reviewed in the context of estimating effort for open systems web development projects again deal with the development of models and measuring the accuracy of models. We see various methodologies and models to predict size that builds on the function points methodology like Web Objects Methodology and COSMIC function points. We see various models that use methodologies like regression, machine learning, Bayesian networks, and there has been one predominant database, the Tukutuku database used by a lot of researchers in this space. There are a lot of papers that again compare estimates from experts with those from models and comparing models from an accuracy perspective. We see a branch of literature that deals with researching web size measures and cost drivers that can be used for early effort estimation of web development applications.

Software development in the early 1990s used to have two major costs, system costs, and labor costs. Over time, the cost of computing in terms of system costs has drastically come down and is no longer a significant contributor to costs. Labor costs today are one of the biggest contributors to cost in Software Application Development. There is a gap in the literature in that there very few attempts have been made to approach software estimating by predicting the labor cost associated with the project and identifying the underlying drivers of labor cost. For example, some of the drivers of cost include the use of temporary labor through hiring contractors to help fill the temporary need of completing

a software project, a common practice at many companies. This research creates an estimating model that estimates the total labor hours for a project, identifies the most important explanatory factors that contribute to the overall labor cost, and quantifies the economic impact of resources and other factors on overall labor cost.

2.4 Combining different methodologies and assessing the quality of the estimate

MacDonell and Shepperd (2003a) make the case for combining estimation techniques. They argue there is never one method that is superior to other methods. MacDonell and Shepperd (2003b) in a later study make the case for the use of more than one predictive modeling technique. Combining estimates from different models and methodologies usually sets the stage for combining expert judgment with data science, and this can lead to more robust discussion and overall better estimates. Table 4 summarizes the literature in the context of combining different methodologies and assessing the quality of the estimate.

Table 4: Combining different methodologies and assessing the quality of the estimate

MacDonell and Shepperd (2003a) compare three estimating techniques using data from the medical records information system. The three techniques chosen were expert judgment, least squares linear regression, and case-based reasoning. The authors make the case for using a combination of techniques based on their conclusion that there was not one superior method. MacDonell and Shepperd (2003b), in a later study, analyze effort distribution in major Waterfall phases across 16 projects. They conclude that expert estimates can be improved by using estimating models that are based on historical data. They also conclude that the use of more than one predictive modeling technique usually led to more accurate estimates. Mair and Shepperd (2005) identify 20 empirical studies through a systematic literature review to compare the relative accuracy levels yielded by regression and analogy methods for effort estimation. However the results were inconclusive in terms of which technique should be preferred. Jørgensen (2007) completes a systematic literature review of papers that compare estimating techniques using expert judgment, formal models and a combination of these two approaches. He concludes that a combined model usually produces a better estimate than an individual model.

Bibi and Stamelos (2006) investigate five machine learning methods, including association rule, bayesian belief network, regression and classification trees, neural networks, and clustering approaches. The authors propose using a decision tree to select the best estimation technique, and they make the argument that the performance of the five techniques can change depending on the dataset and weights assigned to the model features. Bibi et al. (2008) come up with a model combining a couple of machine learning techniques. They combine Association Rules (AR) and Classification and Regression Trees (CART) to create a new conceptual estimation framework. Hsu et al. (2010) makes a case to use linearly weighted combination methods. They make the case to combine methods and argue that this will improve the accuracy of software effort estimation.

Mittas and Angelis (2010) combine Regression and Estimation by Analogy to create a semi-parametric model for Software Cost Estimation. They find an improvement when the combination models were used as compared to individually using regression or estimation by analogy. Dejaeger et al. (2012) investigate 13 different data mining techniques, representing different kinds of models on nine data sets. These techniques include various regression techniques and machine learning techniques. They make the case that their results indicate that data mining techniques make a valuable contribution to software estimation techniques and should be a complement to expert judgment.

A standard machine learning approach is to try multiple methods on the available data and recommend the approach that performs the best. Ensemble learning, on the other hand, improves machine learning results by combining several models. Ensemble methods at a high level combine several machine learning techniques into one predictive model. Kocaguneli et al. (2012) make the case for ensemble methods to combine the estimates from multiple estimators. They make the case for combining various effort estimation methods and argue that this approach performs better in the scenario where there is no single best estimation method. Wen et al. (2012) complete a systematic literature review and identify eight types of machine learning techniques. The techniques identified include Case-Based Reasoning (CBR), Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), Decision Trees (DT), Bayesian Networks (BN), Support Vector Regression (SVR), Genetic Algorithms (GA), Genetic Programming (GP), and Association Rules (AR). They make the case that CBR, ANN, and DT are used most frequently and that both CBR and ANN are more accurate than DT. They also make the case that a machine learning model is more accurate than a non-machine learning model in general. The CBR method is the process of identifying similar projects from the pool of historical projects that most closely match the current project and then setting the stage for deriving cost estimates based on the similar projects. Wu et al. (2013) make the case for a hybrid model combining CBR with particle swarm optimization (PSO) method to estimate the software effort and conclude that the hybrid model outperforms the independent methods.

Idri et al. (2015) conduct a systematic literature review to examine the use of analogy-based software effort estimation (ASEE) techniques. They review 65 papers and conclude that the usage of ASEE techniques led to more acceptable estimates that outperform other prediction models. They also make the case that estimation accuracy is improved when analogy is used in combination with another technique like fuzzy logic, genetic algorithms, the model tree, and collaborative filtering to generate estimates. Idri et al. (2016a) analyze the possibility of improving the estimation accuracy through the usage of fuzzy and classical analogy ensemble techniques. They conclude that "Classical Analogy ensembles outperform solo Classical Analogy techniques, Fuzzy Analogy ensembles outperform solo Fuzzy Analogy techniques and that Fuzzy Analogy ensembles generally outperform the Classical Analogy ensembles." Idri et al. (2016b) complete a systematic literature review of studies on ensemble effort estimation techniques and conclude that in a majority of cases, the ensemble techniques are more accurate than any single model.

Many papers reviewed thus far in the context of combining estimating efforts from different methodologies approach it from the perspective of comparing estimates from an accuracy standpoint. Another stream of literature deals with creating an ensemble of estimates. They conclude that we can always come up with the best combination of effort estimation methods even when there is no best single estimation method and that this approach performs better. We saw earlier that there is stream of literature that deals with bottom up estimating.

There is yet another stream of literature that is rooted in the estimation of efforts based on size. This research is rooted in the use of function points to estimate the size of the project. Many the papers reviewed thus far seem to deal with development of an estimation method using existing datasets and employed cost models based on function points. There is a gap in the literature where there is an opportunity to bring together executive judgment with quantitative modeling. We can try to bring together an ensemble of estimates that brings together a set of models that is rooted in bottom-up estimating and combine it with an ensemble of estimates that is rooted in the estimation of size based on function points. This will give an opportunity for executives to assess the quality of the estimates setting the stage to combine executive judgment with quantitative modeling.

There is a case to be made to develop and use simple estimation models tailored to local or individual context of an organization in combination with expert estimation. There is a gap in the literature where no one has looked at estimating from the outside in perspective of design patterns. Design Patterns have been in been in vogue in the technical space of developing solutions for a long time, but it is not being extended to the concept of estimating software solutions. There is a gap in the literature where estimating is looked at more from the context of understanding the underlying labor cost associated with the project. Labor cost are usually the biggest contributor to costs these days, and there is an opportunity here to understand the effects of various types of resources, including contract labor and employees on the overall cost of a project using real-world data. There are a lot of papers that make the case for an ensemble of estimates to be used, but we found that very little research has been done where both top-down and bottom-up approaches in addition to predictive modeling are brought together in an ensemble of estimates giving an opportunity for executives to combine executive judgment with quantitative modeling. Many papers explain various facets of the Agile methodology, and a few papers dealt with implementing the Agile process using optimization methods. There is an opportunity to develop a resource allocation model in an Agile context that will consider the individual skills of resources. The above-mentioned gaps have formed the basis for my Research Purpose and Contribution as outlined in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Purpose and Contributions

The central theme of this dissertation is to advance the state of the art of estimating software development by approaching it from a new perspective. This research applies both predictive and prescriptive analytics to (1) develop a new estimating tool that produces a suite of estimates, and (2) develop a new optimization modeling framework for better planning and resource utilization in the Agile project environment. The main estimate will be based on the local environment of the company and on reusing the design patterns. This estimate will rely on a subject matter expert to break down the design into manageable slices of functionality or scenarios. The tool aims to provide estimates for these scenarios while at the same time giving the subject matter expert the capability to override an

estimate by providing a reason, when deemed appropriate. The optimization modeling framework will set the foundation for making better scheduling and resource assignment decisions, while considering the skill and domain expertise of resources. We now highlight these components of my research contributions in greater detail.

3.1 Advance the state of the art of estimating software development costs using design patterns.

One of the main purposes of this research is to develop a cost estimating model that is based upon reusing design patterns in a bottom-up estimating context that brings consistency across software development in a large service organization. My contribution will be a detailed exploratory case study of a large service company that involves bringing disparate internal and external data sources together to clean, analyze and aggregate data to develop new software cost estimating models for traditional (Waterfall), new (Agile), and hybrid techniques of managing projects and then investigate implementing them as part of the project lifecycle.

One outcome of this research is an estimating tool that explicitly accounts for local design patterns. This research outlines the development of the estimating model in generic terms so that the process can be repeated by other organizations to develop their own version of the estimating tool. This will be a tool that will set the stage to continuously improve estimates at the task level with the following functionalities:

- 1. Analyze tasks from historical projects at the task level to come up with a set of design patterns that apply in the local context.
- 2. Validate the design patterns with enterprise architects using thorough interviews.

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- 3. Develop scenarios at the task level that are based on design patterns.
- 4. Validate the scenarios with the enterprise architects and a selected subset of subject matter experts.
- 5. Design a survey based on the above-defined scenarios. The purpose of the survey is to get estimates from subject matter experts for tasks that make up the scenarios.
- 6. Use the survey to get input from subject matter experts who currently estimate software projects.
- 7. Use the input from the survey in conjunction with actual past estimates to produce baseline estimates at the task level.
- 8. Develop estimating models that are based on the scenarios developed above that use the baseline estimates for the tasks.
- 9. Bring together the estimating models into a new estimating tool.

3.2 Quantify the economic impact of resources and other factors on overall labor cost.

The second purpose of this research is to derive a predictive model to estimate the labor hours for a project that will be based on the underlying explanatory factors for the project. Typically, a project can draw on two different types of resources: employees and temporary labor in the form of contractors. Further, the relevant experience of resources can differentiate costs and productivity. This research considers the economic impact of resources and other factors on overall labor cost by developing a two-stage regression model where it predicts the labor cost. The research accounts for possible endogeneity in

the model and identifies the instrumental variables that help to predict the values of the endogenous variables in the model.

3.3 Implementing multiple estimating models by combining executive judgment with quantitative modeling

The third purpose of this research is to produce two ensembles of estimating models. The first ensemble will bring together two estimates that are rooted in the new estimating model based on design patterns and one estimate that is based on the two-stage regression predictive model. It is based on subject matter experts completing a design and giving estimates at the task level based on scenarios. This ensemble is based on the bottomup estimating context.

The first ensemble will consist of three estimates.

- **1.** SME/TL Estimate
- **2.** Recommended Cost
- **3.** Predictive Cost

The second ensemble will rely on the company continuing to use function points to size projects. This ensemble uses more of the top-down approach to size projects. Function points are usually completed early in the design phase. It will consist of the following four estimates.

- 1. Function Point Baseline Estimate
- 2. COCOMO II Best Case Estimate
- 3. COCOMO II Middle of the road Estimate

4. COCOMO II Costlier Estimate

The estimates in the two ensembles will provide an opportunity for the company to combine executive judgment with data science to reach consensus on the final estimate for a project. More importantly, it will set the stage for executives to have discussions with project managers and technical leaders, helping to derive a more balanced estimate.

3.4 Applying prescriptive analytics (optimization) to build a new decision-support framework for Agile project planning

The final purpose of this research is to augment the use of the estimating model to build a resource allocation framework based on an optimization model that takes into consideration the varied skills and domain expertise of resources. The goal is to factor in the concepts of differentiated skill sets and domain expertise to improve the overall efficiency of a team over time and include possible economies of scale in the management of the resource pool. In the Agile release planning models, most of the existing literature deals with how best to increase the business value by allocating user stories to sprints and releases. There is little existing work that incorporates the concepts of considering skill levels, domain expertise, and possible economies of scale. Our initial research sets us up well for this final objective as we know the individual scenario level estimates and task level estimates. We can build on this knowledge by using skill levels for resources for individual scenarios or stories and come up with a model for resource planning in an Agile context where there are many small projects in the pipeline.

Chapter 4: Methodologies

Business Analytics is comprised of three distinct types of methodologies: descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive (Mortenson, Doherty, and Robinson (2015). They define descriptive analytics as statistical methods designed to explore "what happened?", predictive analytics as methods designed to predict "what will happen next" and prescriptive analytics as Operational Research/Management Science (OR/MS) methods designed to answer, "what should the business do next." My research will approach the issue of software estimating from all three perspectives.

According to Evans and Lindner (2012), descriptive analytics are the most commonly used and most well-understood type of analytics. The techniques used in this phase help us better understand, visualize the data, and set the stage to extract useful information for understanding the underlying story behind the data. I will use descriptive analytics to summarize the historical project data to identify trends and patterns with better visualization of the data for executives. This research maps the individual tasks in 20 of the most recent projects at ABC Inc. into design patterns, and this forms the basis for the design of the survey. The survey will bes used to elicit expert opinions that is then used to build a bottom-up estimating tool based on design patterns.

Evans and Lindner (2012) explain that predictive analytics examines historical data to detect correlations or relationships in the data, then extrapolates these relationships forward in time to predict what will happen in the future. The authors also mention that we may find relationships in data that are not clear with traditional analyses. We will use

predictive analytics models to estimate project costs. The predictive analytics models will lay the foundation for the descriptive analytics work next.

Prescriptive analytics employs optimization to identify the best alternatives to minimize or maximize some objective (Evans and Lindner (2012). They explain the benefit of combining optimization with the mathematical and statistical techniques of predictive analytics to help make better decisions. This research develops a prescriptive analytics model built upon the detailed inputs provided by descriptive and predictive approaches. This results in better allocation of resources in an Agile project setting and helps create more efficient schedules and better manage resources.

This research will develop a mixed integer linear programming (MILP) model to optimally assign resources in an Agile software project development environment. The model considers the multi-skill requirement of each project and matches them with the best available resource with the corresponding skills. The MILP model can be solved by the exact branch and bound (B&B) and branch-and-cut (B&C) approach (Nemhauser and Wolsey (1988), which is readily available in many off-the-shelf solvers, such as IBM ILOG Cplex, Gurobi, Xpress, among others The IBM ILOG Cplex Studio is employed in this research.

4.1 Estimating Tool Development

Models based on function point data are developed for estimation purposes. We also combine executive judgment with the quantitative models.

4.1.1 Function points related predictive models

Simple Linear Regression

The first function points-based model attempts to identify a simple relationship between the function point count of a project and the actual cost of the project. The data consists of a historical database of projects with function point counts and the final labor cost associated with the project.

In this model, the dependent variable is the estimated labor hours for a project, and the explanatory variable is the adjusted function point count of the project. A simple linear regression model is given as follows:

$$
y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon,
$$

where β_0 and β_1 are parameters to be estimated in the model, and y is the dependent variable, and x is the explanatory variable. ϵ is the error terms associated with the model. Parlati (2011) mentions that the cost of a single function point can be estimated from past projects. We have a historical database of 80 projects available with actual design and development costs, plus the actual total labor costs associated with the projects.

Two simple models are implemented in this research to understand the cost of a single function point.

E(Design and Development Cost) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 *$ Function Points Count $E(Total$ Labor Cost) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 *$ Function Points Count

Multiple Regression

In a multiple regression model, the dependent variable is explained by multiple explanatory variables. The multiple regression model can be written as follows:

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \cdots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon,$

where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_n$ are parameters in the model, and ϵ is the error terms associated with the model.

One of the major activities in the planning phase of the project in the organization is the definition of business requirements for the project. The business users define these requirements in elaborate detail, which form the basis for the design phase of the project. There are typically over a hundred requirements associated with each project. One multiple regression model that is implemented to understand the impact of requirements and function point counts on the overall labor cost associated with the project can be written as:

E(Estimated Cost) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 *$ Function Points Count + $\beta_2 *$ # of Requirements

The function point count consists of five main components. One may view it as the partitioning of the overall count. Longstreet (2002) defines the five major components of function points as follows:

Internal Logical File (ILF) refers to user identifiable group of data than can be grouped together. This group of data resides entirely within the application boundary. External

Interface File (EIF) is a user identifiable group of logically related data that resides entirely outside the application boundary and is maintained in an ILF by another application. This data is used by the application for reference purposes only. The ILF and EIF are referred to as data functions within function points.

It is valuable to understand the impact of ILF and EIF separately on the overall labor cost via the following multiple regression model:

$E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of ILF + \beta_2 * # of EIF$

The other three components associated with function points are referred to as transaction function and are as defined by Longstreet (2002) as given below. External Input (EI) refers to a process in which data crosses the boundary from outside to inside. External Output (EO) refers to a process in which data crosses the boundary from inside to outside. The data typically creates reports or output files. External Inquiry (EQ) refers to a process in which data is retrieved from one or more internal logical files and external interface files. It involves both input and output components.

It will be valuable to understand the impact of the transaction functions on the overall labor cost. This research employs the following three such models to study the impact of the transaction functions on the overall cost.

 $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of EQ + \beta_2 * # of EI + \beta_3 * # of EO$ $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \# of EQ + \beta_2 * \# of EI + \beta_3 * \# of E O + \beta_4 *$ # of $EIF + \beta_5 * #$ of ILF $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of EQ + \beta_2 * # of EI + \beta_3 * # of E O + \beta_4 *$ # of $EIF + \beta_5 * #$ of $ILF + \beta_6 * #$ of requirements

4.1.2: Two Stage Least Squares (2SLS) model and Decision Tree Analysis

The two stage least squares model relates to the research contribution explained in Section 3.2 with the purpose of quantifying the economic impact of resources and other factors on the overall labor cost. The two stage least squares (2SLS) technique is an extension of the ordinary least squares (OLS) method. It is used when the dependent variable's error terms are correlated with the independent variables. We have to take into account the possible existence of endogenous variables in our model. Nagler (1999) defines endogenous variables as variables that are functions of other variables present in the system.

In a multiple regression model, the dependent variable is explained by multiple explanatory variables. The goal of this research is to predict the total labor hours that will be needed for a project. The dependent variable, in this case, will be total labor hours. The following could be additional explanatory variables that can be considered in the regression models.

- 1. Project Type
- 2. Number of tasks
- 3. Number of tasks by each phase, design, development, testing, implementation, and planning
- 4. Number of resources
- 5. Number of contracting resources considering experience of resources
- 6. Number of associates
- 7. Percentage time spent on design
- 8. Percentage time spent on development
- 9. Percentage time spent on planning
- 10. Percentage time spent on verification/testing by IS
- 11. Percentage time spent on meetings
- 12. Percentage time spent by employees/contractors on the project
- 13. Number of defects by category (sev1, sev2, sev3, and sev4)
- 14. Number of requirements
- 15. Number of test plans
- 16. Area doing the project
- 17. Function point information
- 18. Duration of the project
- 19. Project type

One example of the model can be written as:

 $E(Labor hours) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{\# of employees} + \beta_2 * \text{\# of contracts} + \beta_3 *$ # of development tasks + β_4 * Time spent in testing + β_5 *

Area doing the project

In our model above, it is quite possible that the variables *# of employees* and *# of contractors* are functions of other variables and hence could be endogenous variables.

We could have a sample model as outlined below that estimates the number of

contracting resources

$$
E(\text{# of contracts}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{# of experienced contracts} + \beta_2 *
$$

of Total tasks + $\beta_3 * \text{# of requirements}$

Nagler (1999) observes that when a variable is endogenous, it will be correlated with the disturbance term resulting in the violation of the general model assumptions and make the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimate biased.

This endogeneity calls for the need of an instrumental variable, which is another variable used in regression analysis to deal with endogeneity in the model.

The multiple regression model is given as follows

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \cdots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon,$

where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_3, \ldots, \beta_n$ are parameters in the model, ϵ is the error terms associated with the model.

Suppose x_1 is an endogenous variable (as a function of x_2 and x_3) and define IV_1 as an instrumental variable such that:

$$
\widehat{x_1} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 IV_1 + \gamma_2 x_2 + \gamma_3 x_3 + \nu
$$

We can then plug in the fitted values of $\widehat{x_1}$ into the original linear regression equation

$$
y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \widehat{x_1} + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \nu,
$$

where v is a composite error term that is uncorrelated with \widehat{x}_1 , x_2 and x_3 .

My work constructs the appropriate instrumental variables to explain the endogenous variables. We then use two stage least squares regression method as outlined by Kmenta (2011) to estimate the labor hours needed for a project. We also run the diagnostic tests as outlined by Kmenta (2011) to validate the model.

Decision Trees

The Decision Trees based model relates to the research contribution explained in Section 3.2 with the purpose of quantifying the economic impact of resources and other factors on overall labor cost.

Bernard (2015) shows how decision tree models may be used for classification of occurrences into prespecified groups, for prediction of values of a dependent variable based on values of independent variables, and for data exploration in model building. The author also shows why decision trees have several advantages over other models, which include the capability of handling nonlinear relationships between variables, insights into input / output relationships via data partitioning, estimated risk factor contained in each path of the tree, and the intuitive output. Various decision tree algorithms, including Classification and Regression Tree (CART) and Chi-square Automatic Interaction Dedication (CHAID), build and prune decision trees in differing ways.

Gray and MacDonell (1997) show how decision trees can be used to predict testing time for software development. The authors implement the decision trees that built upon variables such as program length, development time, number of screens, mean testing time, etc. This is an example of the Classification and Regression Tree (CART), where the algorithm creates binary trees by splitting records at each node. Bernard (2015) mentions that CHAID creates wider, non-binary trees often with many terminal nodes connected to a single branch, and automatically prunes the decision tree to avoid over fitting of the model.

This research applies decision trees, using the main contributing explanatory variables to predict labor hours needed for a project. The explanatory variables that will be used to fit the tree include variables such as the number of employees used in a project, the number of contractors used in a project, the number of experienced contractors used in a project, the time spent in each phase of the project including in planning, design, development, testing, implementation and post-implementation, the number of tasks in each phase of the project, meeting time, etc. This research will not use the results from the decision tree analysis to estimate labor hours but rather use the results to better understand the underlying data and the most important explanatory variables. Results from the decision tree approach are then used in conjunction with the results from the multiple regression model to understand and validate the most important explanatory variables to explain the total labor hours in the underlying data.

4.1.3 Function points related suite of estimates

The creation of the suite of estimates relates to the research contribution explained in Section 3.4 with the purpose of providing an opportunity for the company to combine executive judgment with data science to reach consensus on the final estimate for a project. The function point repository was split by function point ranges. The ranges that were used are 0-100, 100-200, 200-300, 300-400, 400-500, and above 500 function points.

This research created a new Excel based tool to calculate the suite of estimates based on the function point count for each individual project. These estimates were calculated for all projects in the repository, and the difference of each estimate from the actual cost of the project was also calculated. We then calculated the average for each of these differences across all function point ranges, as defined above. Based on the average difference in each range, a determination was made as to which method offered the better estimate in each range based on the average difference for each estimate.

4.1.4 Development of the task based estimating model

The development of the task based estimating model relates to the research contribution explained in Section 3.1 with the purpose of advancing the state of the art of estimating software development costs using design patterns and incorporating continuous improvement over time.

Expert Feedback and Surveys

Jørgensen (2007) finds that expert estimation is one of the primary strategies when estimating software development effort and concludes that there is little evidence to support the superiority of model-based estimates over the estimates of experts. He also develops a combined model with estimates from both models and experts. Jørgensen, Boehm, and Rifkin (2009) find that expert judgment-based effort estimation methods lead to more accurate effort estimates than using sophisticated formal models. They also mention that bringing more structure to the estimation process such as introducing experience-based estimation checklists and a structured group process will further improve the estimation quality. My goal in this research is to leverage feedback from experts in the organization and bring consistency to the estimation process. Moløkken and Jørgensen (2003) complete a systematic review. They observe that expert estimation is the most frequently used method and that there was no evidence to show that the use of estimation methods based on models led to better estimates. They also find that project overruns are frequent, but at the same time major overruns were a rarity. Jenkins, Naumann, and Wetherbe (1984), Lederer and Prasad (1995), Moløkken-Østvold et al. (2004) use surveys to address the topic of estimation accuracy. Lederer and Prasad (1992), Moløkken-Østvold et al. (2004) address the issue of which estimation approach is better. Jørgensen and Shepperd (2007) conduct a systematic literature review of software estimation studies and find that nine percent of the studies reviewed used surveys as the primary research methodology. This research employs a combination of expert feedback and surveys to come up with baselines for the estimation tool.

This research study builds and analyzes responses from a survey as outlined below.

- 1. Understand the data by taking up to 20 of the latest projects that were executed by the organization.
	- a. Look at the individual tasks used in each phase of the project while paying more attention to the design and development tasks.
- 2. Look for design patterns in the tasks and visualize the design patterns.
	- a. We anticipate identifying multiple design patterns for the organization based on the type and nature of work being done in the projects.
- 3. Validate the design patterns with experts (enterprise architects) in the organization.
- 4. Come up with scenarios to estimate based on the design patterns.
- 5. Validate the scenarios with experts (enterprise architects) in the organization.
- 6. Convert the scenarios to individual tasks based on feedback from the historical data.
- 7. Design a survey to get estimates at the task level based on the scenarios in the design patterns accounting for complexity at the task level.
- 8. Validate the surveys with the experts (enterprise architects) in the organization.
- 9. Send out the survey to all the technical leads or subject matter experts in the organization.
- 10. Collect the responses from the survey.
- 11. These responses will be validated again with the experts and will form the baseline for bottom-up estimates in the estimating tool.

All the project steps are outlined in a visual representation in Figure 1. The diagram below shows all the steps that were undertaken as part of the research in working with the organization.

Figure 1: Project Steps – Data Collection to Estimating Model to Resource Plannning

Project Steps - Data Collection to Estimating model to Resource Planning

4.1.5 Estimating tool requirements:

The requirements for the estimating tool were:

- 1. The design patterns had to be reflected in the tool.
- 2. The tool had to be user friendly and intuitive to use.
- 3. The tool had to provide the capability to create a bottom-up estimate that was rooted in the design patterns of the organization.
- 4. The tool had to be capable of creating a subject matter expert estimate and a recommended estimate. The subject matter expert estimate also had to form the basis for the predictive model estimate.
- 5. The above mentioned two estimates were part of a suite of estimates.
- 6. The tool had to accommodate the capability to enter function points. The function point count would then form the basis for four estimates.
- 7. All seven estimates would then be part of an estimates comparative tab in the tool. This would give the capability to combine executive judgment with data science.
- 8. The tool had to have the capability to partition the overall cost by high level features and requirements.
- 9. The tool had to have the capability to upload the final estimate to the time booking system for tracking purposes.
- 10. The tool had to have the capability of producing a running total each time a task was added.
- 11. The tool had to have the capability to keep track of time by each phase of the project and compare it to historical averages for the organization and each individual area.
- 12. The tool had to have the built-in capability for the subject matter expert to override the recommended cost.
- 13. The tool had to have the built-in capability to account for project management time and tech lead contingency time and meeting time. This time had to be allocated across phases based on the input of the project manager.

The above-mentioned requirements were implemented as part of the new estimating tool.

4.2 Assessing the quality of the estimate from the estimating tool

There was no existing framework to process the actual data from the execution of the project and compare it with the initial estimation data at the task level. This research created a framework to embed a hidden field containing all attributes of the individual task, including the original estimate with each task in the bottom-up estimate. That hidden field can be pulled out after the execution of the project to compare the actual time with the original estimate. The framework for processing this data was built in Tableau, and it is set to accommodate tasks from all projects as they complete.

The foundation of the estimating tool was based on survey responses from the subject matter experts. There were 14 responses from the open systems SMEs and 14 responses from the server-side SMEs. Each of the SMEs had given their estimates for the tasks that were based on the design pattern of the organization. The estimates for each task were given on a complexity scale of high, medium, and low.

An array of estimates for each of the projects was created using the survey responses from each SME as the basis. A Java program was written to go through each task in the estimate and match it up with the survey responses from the SME's. The Java program produced 14 open systems estimates and 14 server-side estimates for each project based on the assumption that each individual task was being estimated by a SME who completed a survey response. The Java program then matched up every open system's estimate with each of the server-side estimates to generate 196 estimates. Some projects did not have a server-side component, and so each project would have between 14 and 196 possible estimates.

4.3 Optimization model for allocating resources to tasks in an Agile setting

The development of the optimization model furthers the research contribution explained in section 3.4 by applying prescriptive analytics (optimization) to build a new decision-support framework for Agile project planning. The Agile project planning and resource allocation problem (APP-RAP) aims to optimally assign personnel with the appropriate skills to stories in every sprint to maximize the total discounted return of assigned stories. The mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) model can be formulated as follows...

Sets and Parameters

- : Set of potential projects to be completed during the planning horizon
- S^r : Set of stories belonging to project $r \in R$
- : Set of all stories across all projects
- : Set of all sprints in the planning horizon
- K^s : Set of skills required by story $s \in S$

: Set of all skills

: Set of individuals available to be assigned to work on stories

 M^r : Maximum number of sprints allowed from the start date to the complete date for project $r \in R$

 Π_{sr} : value (in \$) of story s \in S in project $r \in R$

 ROI^r : ROI (in \$) of a project

 $\Pi_{sr} = ROI^r *$ Nominal time of story s Total time f or all stories in project r

The nominal time refers to the estimated time for story s in this context.

The ROI is given at the project level. We calculate the value of a story in a project by calculating the contribution of a single story in terms of its estimate as a percentage contribution of the total estimate for all stories in a project

For example, if we have three stories s_1 , s_2 and s_3 in project 1.

 p_1 is the nominal processing time for story s_1 and is estimated to take 40 hours.

 p_2 is the nominal processing time for story s_2 and is estimated to take 80 hours.

 p_3 is the nominal processing time for story s_3 and is estimated to take 80 hours.

Assume the ROI of the Project 1 is \$47,469, and the total estimated time for all stories in project 1 is 540 hours

The value of Story 1: $$47469 * (40/540) = 3516

The value of Story 2: $$47469 * (80/540) = 7032

The value of Story 3: $$47469 * (80/540) = 7032

 W_{it} : Workload of individual $i \in I$ in sprint $t \in T$

 P_s :The nominal processing time of story $s \in S$

 P_{sk} : The nominal processing time for skill $k \in K$ in story $s \in S$ The nominal time above refers to the estimated time for a story and the estimated time for a skill in the story. For example, we have a story that has an estimate of 40 hours. This story is comprised of four skills S1, S2, S3, and S12. The individual estimate to complete those skills is S1(4 hours), S2(20 hours), S3(2 hours) and S12(14 hours).

 θ_{ik} : Efficiency score of individual $i \in I$ to work on skill $k \in K$

The efficiency score of an individual for a skill is computed based on the following factors:

- 1. Total experience of an individual in a skill.
- 2. The date when the skill was last employed by an individual.
- 3. The self-rating for the skill by the individual.
- 4. Rating of the individual on the skill by the SME or by all the other team members

This research applies a weighted score based on the above factors. A higher efficiency score means the individual is better suited for the skill, whereas a lower score close to zero means the individual is completely incapable for the corresponding skill. The lower bound for an efficiency score is 0.01, and the upper bound for an efficiency score is 1.

 P_{Sk} θ_{ik} : Time taken by individual i to perform skill k in story s in hours

 C_i : Pay Rate per hour of individual i ∈ I
: Discounting Factor. We use a discount factor of 0.01 in the execution of the model for all runs.

 S^{AND} : Set of pairs of stories that must be assigned to the same sprint. It accounts for all stories that have the constraint which must be implemented in the same sprint.

For example, if we have a requirement that stories 1, 2 and 3 must be completed in the same sprint, we would define it as shown below

 $SAND = [{1, 2}, {2, 3}]$;

 S^{OR} : Set of pairs of incompatible stories. It includes all the stories that cannot be implemented in the same sprint.

For example, the definition below shows a case where stories 1 and 10 have to be executed in different sprints. Similarly, stories 11 and 23 have to be executed in different sprints.

 $SOR = [{1, 10}, {11, 23}]$;

: Set of precedent relationships of pairs of stories . For example, when story s need to precede story s', the set $\{s, s'\}$ must be an element of S^{AND} or F.

Assumptions:

Each story has been decomposed into sub-tasks that each require a single skill. Our first assumption is that each sub-task requiring a single skill will be completed in a single sprint. The estimate associated with these sub-tasks is often at or below 40 hours, which is typically the case in real life operations. The second assumption is that all skills/sub-tasks

associated with an assigned story are completed in the same sprint. It could often be the case that these sub-tasks can be worked on in parallel, thus this assumption is in-line with what happens in the real world where a story is often decomposed in such a way that it can be completed in one sprint. The time for a single story is 80 hours or less, and this is an assumption that will help avoid carryover stories from sprint to sprint and is in-line with real life operations. It implies that one story including all its sub-tasks can be completed in a single sprint. The final assumption we make is all projects can start at the same time. We have a constraint to enforce the deadline by which a project must be completed. This constraint ensures that all the stories with its associated sub-tasks/skills are available to be allocated to resources.

Decision Variables:

 $X_{itsk} = 1$ if individual i is assigned to story s to perform skill k in sprint t

 $= 0$ otherwise

 $Y_{st} = 1$ if story s is assigned to sprint t

 $= 0$ otherwise

 Y_{st} is an auxiliary or derived decision variable that denotes whether or not story s is performed in sprint t .

Objective Function:

The total net return is calculated as the difference between the total discounted return and the total staffing cost. The cost was not discounted in the objective function with the assumption that the staffing cost can be treated as sunk cost for the internal employees. The objective function can be easily revised to discount cost if needed.

Maximize the total net return: Total discounted return - Total cost

Maximize

$$
\sum_{t \in T} \sum_{r \in R} \sum_{s \in S} \frac{(\Pi_{sr} * Y_{st})}{(1 + D)^t} - \sum_{i \in I} \sum_{t \in T} \sum_{s \in S} \sum_{k \in K} C_i * (X_{itsk} * \frac{P_{sk}}{\theta_{ik}})
$$
(1)

Constraints:

The constraint (2) below ensures that each story is assigned to at most one sprint. It is consistent with the possibility that all the stories may not be completed during the planning horizon.

$$
\sum_{t \in T} Y_{st} \le 1 \qquad \forall \ s \in S \tag{2}
$$

The constraint (3) below ensures that each skill is performed by exactly one individual for each story assigned to a sprint. Note that no individual is assigned to a story if the story is not executed in a particular sprint.

$$
\sum_{i \in I} X_{itsk} = Y_{st} \qquad \forall s \in S, k \in K^s, t \in T \qquad (3)
$$

We need to meet the requirements that the maximum workload of each individual cannot be exceeded. The maximum workload of individual *i* in sprint *t* is denoted by W_{it} . The constraint (4) below ensures that the total time spent by individual i to work on the story is less than or equal to the maximum workload of individual i in sprint t

$$
\sum_{s \in S} \sum_{k \in K^s} \left(X_{itsk} * \frac{P_{sk}}{\theta_{ik}} \right) \le W_{it} \qquad \forall \ t \in T, i \in I \tag{4}
$$

Side Constraints

While Constraints (2) through (4) are the main constraints of the optimization problem, some additional requirements of can be modeled by the incorporating the following side constraints. For example, there might be a requirement that a set of stories must be all be completed in the same sprint. Constraint (5) below ensures that all the stories in the set S^{AND} are assigned in the same sprint. Specifically, for each set γ of stories in S^{AND}, the number of assigned stories must equal the cardinality of γ , i.e., all the stories in γ are assigned.

$$
\sum_{s \in \gamma} \sum_{t \in T} Y_{st} = |\gamma| \qquad \forall \ \gamma \in S^{\text{AND}} \tag{5}
$$

Constraint (6) below ensures that all the stories in the collection S^{AND} are assigned to the same sprint.

$$
\sum_{t \in T} Y_{st} * t = \sum_{t \in T} Y_{s/t} * t \qquad \forall s, s' \in \gamma, s > s'
$$
 (6)

Recall that S^{OR} contains the stories that are incompatible with each other, thus only one story from S^{OR} can be assigned in a sprint. The constraint (7) guarantees that at most one story from the set S^{OR} will be assigned to a sprint.

$$
\sum_{s \in \gamma} Y_{st} \le 1 \qquad \forall \gamma \in S^{OR}, t \in T \tag{7}
$$

We often have time-dependency constraints, i.e., precedence relationships, where story s needs to be completed before story s'. These set of stories are contained in the set F. The constraint (8) below ensures story s is assigned before story s' .

$$
\sum_{t \in T} Y_{st} * t \leq \sum_{t \in T} Y_{s/t} * t \qquad \forall (s, s') \in F \qquad (8)
$$

We have a need to consider the constraint for the deadline on makespan of the project. We introduced a new input parameter M^r , i.e., the maximum number of sprints allowed per project from the start date to complete the project for each project $r \in R$. For example, if a project's end date is two months out, M^r would have a value of three assuming each sprint is three weeks long. Similarly, if the project's end date is one month out, M^r would have a value of two. The constraint (9) below ensures all stories s^r belonging to a particular project r will be completed before the end of M^r which is the maximum number of sprints allowed to complete the projects. This ensures the end date constraint for each project is met.

$$
\sum_{t \in T} Y_{st} * t \le M^r \qquad \forall s \in s^r \qquad (9)
$$

Chapter 5: Data

The first phase of the research creates a tool for project leaders to get a high-level estimate of effort for a project after the function points are calculated in the early design phase of the project. Data for the analysis were collected from the existing function point repository of projects completed since 2014.

"ISBSG (International Software Benchmarking Standards Group) is a not-for-profit organization. The ISBSG was founded in 1997 by a group of national software metrics associations. They aim to promote the use of IT industry data to improve software processes and products" ("About ISBSG,"). ISBSG has a repository of more than 8000 projects. I gained access to this repository as a doctoral student. A high-level analysis of projects in the relevant comparable industry sector which used the same technology stack as the service company were analyzed, and a project delivery rate of 18 hours per function point was used as the ISBSG benchmark for our analysis.

We had access to multiple data sources at the service company with over seven years of data from the Program Management Office (PMO) and data from the operational excellence area of the company for one part of the research. Real world data is being used in the research, and the models that have been developed have been made part of a customtailored estimating tool that is currently being used by the company.

5.1: Data for predictive models

We had access to multiple datasets. The first dataset we had access to was the function point data repository. The organization collects and preserves data on projects that have

been through the function points counting process. We were given access to the entire function point repository. It consisted of over 70 projects over the past four years, and estimated costs which were inputs for calculating the counts. We now have access to the actual labor costs associated with the project in a separate dataset. Two datasets are merged for the modeling purpose.

Figure 2: Function points dataset Actual Costs associated with the projects Merged function points Dataset for Modeling Function Point Repository

The key to merging the two datasets was the expense code/project ID associated with the project. We merged the two datasets using the query builder utility in SAS Enterprise Guide. See Table 5 below a few snapshots of the available data. The data has been masked to hide the proprietary information such as expense code, project name, director name, and team name.

Table 5: Function point repository

Function Points Base Data

Actual desn devi cost, Adjustment Factor, Cost per FP, External Inputs, External Interface Files, External Outputs, External Queries, Hours to Count, Internal Logical Files,
Total Labor Hours for the projec and Total UFPs

Actual Labor cost dataset: Please see Figure 3 below for a snapshot of the data that was provided. We had information on the total labor hours across all phases of the project and total labor hours for the design and development phases of the project.

Figure 3: Actual labor cost dataset sample

Description of Individual Variables in the merged dataset:

This dataset contains the following data fields.

- a. Project Name: This field has been masked.
- b. Expense Code / Project ID: Unique ID associated with the project. This field is been masked.
- c. Team Name: Denotes the application development team responsible for the project. This field is been masked.
- d. Area Name: Domain area within the Application Development division executing the project. This field is been masked as well. Each area consists of 4-9 individual teams.
- e. Total Labor Hours for the Project: The total labor hours across all phases of the project, including planning, design, development, testing, implementation, and post-implementation.
- f. Total Design and Development hours for the project: The total design and development time in hours spent on the project.
- g. Total Labor Cost: The total labor cost in dollars associated with all phases of the project.
- h. Total Design and Development Cost: Total labor cost in dollars associated with the design and development phase of the project.
- i. Hours to Count: The total number of hours spent on doing the actual function point count by the application development teams.
- j. Total UFPs: Total unadjusted function points.
- k. Function Point Count: The function point count is made up of five components, and they are also given in the dataset
	- i. Internal Logical Files (ILF)
	- ii. External Interface Files (EIF)
	- iii. External Inputs (EI)
	- iv. External Outputs (EO)
	- v. External Queries (EQ)
- l. Value adjustment Factor: The adjustment factor is calculated by the team for the project. The value adjustment factor is based on 14 system characteristics that rate the functionality in the application being counted, and these 14 characteristics are given values by the application development team.
- m. Adjusted Function Point Count: The unadjusted function points multiplied by the value adjustment factor.
- n. Cost per FP: Total labor cost divided by the adjusted function point.
- 2. Task level data for all projects that had executed in the past seven years. Task level data for each project was aggregated, resulting in nearly 60,000 rows containing information about each task for 400 projects. The task level data contained the following variables in the dataset. The project name and resource names have been masked in the dataset to protect proprietary information.
	- a. Project Name: This field is been masked.
	- b. Task Name: Every project is made up of hundreds of tasks split across all phases of the project. This field is the name given to the task in the time tracking system.
	- c. Task Start Date: The date the task was put into the time tracking system.
	- d. Task End Date: The date the task was closed in the time tracking system.
	- e. Assignment Resource Name: This field identifies the resource who worked on the project. This field is being masked.
	- f. Assignment Start Date: The date when the task was assigned.
	- g. Assignment End Date: The date when the assigned task was completed.
	- h. Assignment Total Actual Hours: The total time in hours taken by the resource to complete the task:
	- i. Charge Code associated with the task: Identifies the phase associated with the project. The options were planning, design, development, testing, implementation, and post-implementation.
	- j. Resource Type: Identifies if the resource was an employee or contractor.

At the high level, we aggregated the data to compute the following variables at the project level from the provided dataset. We used SAS Enterprise guide to aggregate individual variables from the above-given data and merged them to aggregate information at the project level. A few snapshots of the given data are given below in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Aggregated task level data sample

The aggregated dataset contains the following fields.

• Project ID

- Project Name
- Number of tasks associated with the project
	- o Number of tasks by each phase of the project namely design,

development, testing, implementation and planning

- Number of resources used in the project
	- o Number of contracting resources considering the experience of contractors
	- o Number of associates
- Total labor hours spent on the project across all phases of the project.
- Total time in hours spent on design
- Total time in hours spent on development
- Total time in hours spent on planning
- Total time in hours spent on verification/testing by IS
- Total time in hours spent on implementation
- Total time in hours spent on post implementation
- Percentage time spent on design
- Percentage time spent on development
- Percentage time spent on planning
- Percentage time spent on verification/testing by IS
- Percentage time spent on implementation
- Percentage time spent on post-implementation
- Percentage time spent on meetings
- Percentage work completed by employees on the project
- Percentage work completed by associates on the project

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- Number of core resources on a project: A core resource was defined as someone who stayed for the full length of the project or contributed
- Number of supporting resources on a project

We also had access to another dataset with summary project-level information. This dataset contained the following variables.

- Project ID
- Project Name
- Project Type: The project types could be Application Development, Vendor related or Infrastructure
- Regulatory Project: Indicates whether the project was executed to meet a regulatory requirement
- Area doing the project: The area within Information Systems that executed the project.
- Project Manager: The project manager who managed the project.
- Project Start Date
- Project End Date
- Duration of the project in days

We needed to build another dataset with aggregate quality information at the project level. We had this data for only 103 projects. This dataset contained the following information.

- Project ID
- Project Name
- Number of requirements in the project
- Number of test plans in the project
- Number of defects by defect severity: Defects could be classified as Sev1, Sev2, Sev3, and Sev4, and we had data for each category.

Figure 5: Flow to get the aggregated dataset for modeling

High-Level Data Analysis

We started with the analysis of the function points aggregated dataset. The scatter plot of the function point count and the total labor hours for the project is as shown below in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Scatter plot of function point count with total labour hours

At the outset, I divided the aggregated dataset by project size, as shown in Table 6, to better understand the data. This view helped us understand how the time was being spent on average across each phase of the project for different project sizes. This also helped us understand how we were using resources in different categories of projects based on different project sizes. The insight from this analysis was a better understanding of how resources were utilized across the various phases of the project. The resource utilization starts off slowly during the planning and design phases, and it ramps up during development and testing. The utilization drops off gradually during implementation, and only a few resources are kept for post implementation. We analyzed the data further from a descriptive analytics point of view, and those results are shown in Chapter 6.

Table 6: High level data analysis of project data

The overall project data from 2012-2017 by phases is summarized below in Table 7. It

shows the percentage of time spent each year across the six project phases.

Table 7: Project data by phases

Project Data by Phases - 2012-2017

% of Total Hours broken down by Period Begin Year vs. Project Phase. The data is filtered on Project Type, which keeps PROJ. The view is filtered on Project Phase, which keeps 9 members. Percents are based on each column of the table.

We looked at the application development projects executed by each area within the organization, and these are the high-level statistics. These are average numbers for each phase by application development area.

Table 8: Data analysis by project phases

We looked at the average duration of a project and how each application development area used the contingent workforce of contractors in their projects. All the numbers indicated below are based on averages.

Table 9: Data analysis by resource type

We looked at how the contingent workforce was used in 2016, 2015, and in all years prior to that. We found that contractors contributed on average around 34-36% of the overall labor. It was further found that contractors were used more during the development and testing phases. Their contribution peaked during those two phases and declined during the implementation phases. This finding was validated in our conversation with the management at the organization as it was employees who worked on the project during the planning and design phases of the project. They carried the workload during those phases, and the contingent workforce was brought in to help during the development phase of the project.

Table 10: Data analysis based on usage of temporary resources

We had data about requirements, test plans, and defects for 103 projects, and this is the high-level analysis of the data. The numbers provided are based on averages for each area.

	# of projects	Requirements	Test plans	Defects	Defect ratio	Sev1	Sev ₂	Sev ₃	Sev ₄
Application Development Area 1	35	817	597	326	0.54	53	123	92	40
Application Development Area 2	6	413	213	114	0.53	9	20	14	10
Application Development Area 3	10	609	299	256	0.85	25	129	69	27
Application Development Area 4	21	1480	1641	362	0.22	90	172	74	20
Application Development Area 5	18	1202	1022	413	0.40	65	202	89	36
Application Development Area 6	10	508	1102	213	0.19	31	82	48	18
Other projects	3	311	516	410	0.79	93	161	99	50

Table 11: Data analysis based on quality metrics

5.2: Use case for Agile Software Development epic and release planning

5.2.1: Introduction to optimization use case

Sliger and Broderick (2008) explain that a key feature of the Waterfall approach is the capturing and documentation of all requirements before the design and development of the software. The requirements are typically not subject to change once development starts. The risk in this approach is that testing takes place after development, and because of incomplete requirements, design flaws are uncovered only in the testing phase. The industry saw the need to address some of the inherent risks of the Waterfall methodology. They wanted to address how requirements were defined in advance of project execution and how the finished product is tested post development. The solution was an Agile development process that was rooted in an iterative approach. Variants of the Agile approach like Scrum, Extreme Programming, Pair Programming now exists. Beck et al. (2001) defined a new process for delivering software known as Agile programming, and it was called the Agile Manifesto. The manifesto includes four statements and 12 principles that describe the overall philosophy. Five key principles from among the 12 principles in the manifesto are

- 1. "Deliver working software frequently, from a couple of weeks to a couple of months, with a preference for a shorter timescale.
- 2. Working software is the primary measure of progress.
- 3. Agile processes promote sustainable development. The sponsors, developers, and users should be able to maintain a constant pace indefinitely.
- 4. Continuous attention to technical excellence and good design enhances agility.
- 5. At regular intervals, the team reflects on how to become more effective then tunes and adjusts its behavior accordingly."

Agile programming is like Waterfall development in that some of the steps in the workflow are the same. We still collect requirements, design, develop code, test code, and deploy. The main difference is that Agile executes these steps in an iterative approach that fosters continuous improvement of the product. Software requirements are still initially captured but at a less detailed level and documented in a product backlog. These requirements are often captured as user stories, which are requirements from the user perspective.

Hayata and Han (2011) explain that some organizations employ a hybrid model where the best of both models is incorporated. These organizations look to blend Scrum, an Agile method, into traditional plan-driven project development and management. Kuhrmann et al. (2017) make the case that a hybrid software development approach is a combination of Agile and traditional approaches that an organization adopts and customizes to its own context needs. They also argue that hybrid approaches are widely used in practice and found that hybrid approaches have become more prevalent and are used by all types of companies. West, Gilpin, Grant, and Anderson (2011) coined the term "Water-Scrum-Fall" and hypothesized that hybrid development methods would become the standard." Our use case is rooted in a hybrid setting, and it will be based on a hypothetical case where requirements are spelled out, and overall project scopes is defined upfront. The projects will be relatively small with less than 1500 labor hours. The execution of the project could adopt Agile principles such as delivering working software frequently, promoting sustainable development, reflecting on how to become more effective, etc. with some leeway for changing requirements from one iteration to the next.

This research contributes to the literature by presenting a model of a scenario where the estimates that are developed at the task and scenario level are used in an Agile setting to optimize the use of limited resources. Our scenario accounts for economies of scale that can result from managing the skills and domain expertise of resources that are part of multiple projects. This model is important because it can be used in an environment of multiple small size projects to manage a pool of resources given that we always have a backlog of tasks to complete. This scenario will be a case study providing a proof of concept to optimize executing multiple small projects at the same time. The small projects are rooted in the design patterns of the company and will cater to the local context.

5.2.3: Use Case

In addition to executing large enterprise wide projects, ABC Inc. works on a lot of small projects that typically take between 1000-2000 hours. These projects are typically enhancements to existing systems, and there is a perceived decent return of investment in the short term (one year) and long term (3-5 years). These projects are typically seen as efforts that can be completed in a short span of time, but these projects also go through the planning, design, development, testing and implementation phases in quick succession. Today, these projects are completed using the traditional software development model. The resources that work on these projects are typically skilled in 1-2 skills, and the teams are confined to a single domain area of expertise. A project typically will require a good subset of the following set of resources

- 1. Business Subject Matter Expert (SME)
- 2. Information Systems SME
- 3. Business Project Manager
- 4. Information System Project Manager
- 5. Design Thinking coordinator
- 6. User Experience (UX) specialist
- 7. Front End Developers
- 8. Back End Developers
- 9. Quality Assurance Tester
- 10. Database Administrator

Some of these resources might be needed only for a limited time, and they typically might not be dedicated on the effort. Currently the issue is these projects take substantially more time to complete execution from initiation to finish due to the lack of resources with the right skill set to work on a task at the time when the task is ready to be executed. The resources are often prioritized for higher priority work. The tasks are typically scheduled in a sequence, and the following Gantt chart (Figure 7) shows a hypothetical scenario for project execution.

Figure 7: Project execution with optimal resource allocation

Project Execution with Optimal Resource Allocation

Figure 8: Effect on project duration due to resource constraints

You can observe in the scenario above shown in Figure 8 that a project execution could be delayed by close to three months when it is not prioritized for the effort, and all the scarce resources are allocated across multiple projects. This typically happens in the case of subject matter experts both in the Information Systems space and in the Business areas.

ABC Inc. is also starting to execute some of its projects using the Agile methodology, and these projects would be ideal candidates to be executed using the new approach. ABC Inc. is also starting to cross train employees and is encouraging employees to have development plans that encourage employees to become proficient in multiple skills. The company also has the concept of centers of excellence and is starting to evaluate cross functional teams within the application development area of Information Systems. It will be useful to have a model to evaluate how to plan out a schedule for multiple projects that are very similar in terms of skills needed for the individual stories in the project. There is an opportunity to evaluate the effect of having resources with multiple skills, the effect of cross training employees, the effect of centers of excellence and finally the effect of cross functional teams.

The problem in this traditional method of project execution is that resources, for the most part, are not allocated based on matching of skills needed for a single task. A single task can be decomposed into multiple sub-tasks that each require a skill. A typical example could be the development of a webpage. This task is going to require SME skills, design thinking skills, front-end UX skills, back-end server-side skills, database administrator skills, testing skills and finally implementation skills. Schedules are built, and resources are assigned to tasks based on who becomes available first. It is often the case that a single task might require multiple skills and the entire task as it pertains to a single phase of the project is assigned to the same resource. There is perceived scarcity of certain resources with certain skill sets, and there is no set measure of proficiency in a certain skill for a resource. The gap in the current approach is there is no way to evaluate the effect of cross training resources on multiple skills and to measure the efficiencies it could bring to the overall process. Currently there is no way to evaluate how the schedule would look when you can try to match resources based on each of the skills needed for a task as opposed to allocating them on a first available basis. There is also no way today to incorporate a measure like an efficiency score for a skill, and finally there is no way to

evaluate how the schedule would change when the workload availability of resources changes.

To evaluate the model performance, this research addresses a hypothetical scenario where the same set of projects which were executed using the traditional methodology is instead executed in an Agile setting. Each of the tasks is perceived to be a story in an Agile setting, and we have taken the effort to identify all the skills needed to complete each story. I also have a listing of resources with the current set of skills that they have. This data has been transformed to include an efficiency score on the skills for each of the resources. This data is mocked up to show the effect of the efficiency score in such a model. I had access to very high-level work load availability data, and this data is also been mocked up to show the effect of workload availability in the model. I want to consider the effect of matching resources with the right set of skills needed for a story. We want to bring in the concept of efficiency score for a skill for each resource and further want to understand the effect of having resources who are proficient in multiple skills and in measuring the proficiency of resources in a particular skill.

The following high-level diagram explains the core principle that there is a resource pool that can be comprised or contractors and employees who each have a certain skill set. Each project is comprised of tasks that can decomposed into sub-tasks that each require one or more skills for them to be completed.

Figure 9: High-level diagram for use case

The use case is set in a scenario where you have a sequence of small projects in the pipeline that need to be completed. Each of these projects will be less than 1500 hours, preferably and at the maximum can go up to 2000 hours. Each project has a set of stories associated with it across each phase of the traditional development model. These stories have an associated estimated time to complete. Each story also has a set of skills that are required for it to be completed. Each resource also has a set of skills that they are familiar with. Our goal will be to match up the stories with the right resources and pack the maximum possible stories into a sprint based on the right allocation of resources while at the same time ensuring the timely completion of projects.

Project and Resource Information

- 1. There are multiple projects that need to be started and completed in the next few months. We have data for five projects. Each project consists of multiple phases, as indicated below.
	- a. There are stories within each phase.
- b. We have an estimate for each story.
- c. Each story needs a set of skills, and they are indicated. The estimate for the overall story is further decomposed into the estimate needed for each skill component associated with the story.
- d. We are given the ROI information for each project.

Table 12: Project data for optimization use case

2. You have a set of skills. We are going to need resources with certain skills for a project based on the needs of a project. We are going to keep the skills generic to cater to the design patterns of the company. The table below gives us information on the skills and indicates which resources possess those skills. We are also given the hourly pay rate for each type of resource.

Table 13: Skills data for use case

3. You have a resource pool comprising of associates and contractors. A typical project will need one Architect or Subject Matter Expert (SME) for the estimating, one SME to run the project/answer questions, and a bunch of other resources based on skill sets. The set of resources as indicated in the table above are shown below in Table 14.

Table 14: Resource types for use case

Our goal is to pack as many stories as possible into the next sprint while ensuring that all projects with end dates in that sprint are completed, while at the same time ensuring the most efficient allocation of resources to each of the stories.

The tentative project plan for the five projects is as given below in Figure 10

Figure 10: Tentative project plan

Chapter 6: Model Testing Results and Experiments

6.1 Estimating tool development – related models and development of the tool

6.1.1 Function points related predictive models:

This research uses simple linear regression and multiple regression to evaluate the effect of the Adjusted Function Points Count on the total design and development cost and on the total labor cost, resulting in the following models.

E(Design and Development Cost) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 *$ Adjusted Function Points Count $E(Total$ Labor Cost) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 *$ Adjusted Function Points Count

We analyzed the data and obtained the summary statistics. The data for all projects in the repository can be summarized by the following visualization shown below in Figure 11.

Function Points Size Visualization for all Projects in the FP Repository

Figure 11: Function point repository visulization

The scatter plot of the Adjusted Function Point count with the total labor hours is shown below in Figure 12. The scatter plot shows that a bulk of the projects are below 500 function points, and it also shows that there are a few outliers in the data.

Figure 12: Scatter plot of adjusted function point and total labor hours

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sum of Adjusted Funtion Point Count The marks are labeled by Project Name and sum of Adjusted

When we examine the cost per function point for the total cost, we obtain Figure 13. The outliers have been removed in this visualization, and the bar graph shows the cost per function point for total project cost sorted in ascending order across all projects. The cost per function point for total project cost ranges from \$567 to \$4,154.

Figure 13: Bar graph of cost per FP for total cost across all projects sorted in ascending order

When we examine the cost per function point for the design and development cost, we obtain Figure 14. The bar graph shows the cost per function point for total design and development cost sorted in ascending order across all projects. The cost per function point for total design and development cost ranges from \$206 to \$3,684.

Figure 14: Bar graph of cost per FP for design and development across all projects sorted in ascending order

The summary statistics are shown below for the cost per function point for the design and development cost and total labor cost in Table 15. Table 15 also provides the summary statistics for the function point count and the five components that make up the function point count.

Table 15: Summary statistics for Function points related metrics
I removed the projects that were below the $10th$ percentile and above the $90th$ percentile as outliers and used the resulting dataset for my modeling. I modeled the design and development costs separately, resulting in the following models.

 $E(Design and Devl Cost) = -23,001 + 930.66 * Adjusted Function Points Count$ The above-mentioned model has an R-Square of 0.7068, and the results associated with the model are shown in Appendix 1.

 $E(Total$ Labor Cost) = 50,369 + 1464.22 $*$ Adjusted Function Points Count The above-mentioned model has an R-Square of 0.7016, and the results associated with the model are shown in Appendix 2. This is one of the estimates used among the suite of estimates in the estimating tool.

We also considered the following models.

 $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of ILF + \beta_2 * # of EIF$ $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of EQ + \beta_2 * # of EI + \beta_3 * # of EO$ $E(Estimated Cost) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * # of EQ + \beta_2 * # of EI + \beta_3 * # of E O + \beta_4 *$ # of $ILF + \beta_5 *$ # of EIF

I used Forward Selection as the model selection method in SAS, and it resulted in the following models. The significance level chosen to enter the model was 0.2, and to stay in the model was 0.1.

The resulting models are listed below.

 $E(Estimated Cost) = 99147 + 2581.11 * # of ILF + 4757.32 * # of EIF$

The R-square for the above model is 0.47, and it explains 47% of the variability in the model. Both the variables are statistically significant in the model.

 $E(Estimated Cost) = 67302 + 2924.39 * # of EQ + 4582.43 * # of EI$

The EO variable did not make it into the model, and the R-Square for this model is 0.71. This model explains 71% of the variability in the model.

 $E(Estimated Cost)$ = 30359 + 2466.42 * # of $EQ + 3991.05$ * # of $EI +$ 2177.66 * # of EIF

The above mentioned three variables meet the requirements of the model, and other two variables do not enter the model. The R-Square on the model is 0.74.

When we look at all the models, the number of external queries, external inputs, and external interface files contribute to a useful model, and it conveys an important message for the organization. It points to an organization where systems are tightly integrated, and this is reflected in the data.

The difference between the actual labor cost and the predicted cost from the model is shown below in Figure 15 as a box whisker plot.

6.1.2 Two Stage Least Squares (2SLS) model results and Decision Tree analysis

The histogram of the total labor hours for all projects in the repository is shown below in Figure 16. There are some clear outliers, as can be observed from the scatter plot. ABC Inc. as an organization was moving towards breaking down bigger projects into smaller projects to have a better handle on the execution of the projects. We had a good base of 116 projects that were under 10,000 total labor hours of which 103 projects were under 7,500 total labor hours. We separate the data by the total labor hours into two sets, one with projects under 7,500 total labor hours and the second with projects under 10,000 total labor hours based on the direction ABC Inc. was moving towards of breaking down bigger projects into multiple smaller projects. We fit separate coefficients for each dataset.

Figure 16: Histogram of total project labor hours

The goal was to predict the total labor hours, and the following explanatory variables were

used in the model. A dataset with projects that had total labor hours that were less than

7500 hours was first created.

- 1. Project type
- 2. Number of tasks by each phase, design, development, testing, implementation, and planning
- 3. Number of contracting resources
- 4. Number of contracting resources considering overall work experience of more than three years
- 5. Number of employees
- 6. Percentage time spent on design
- 7. Percentage time spent on development
- 8. Percentage time spent on planning
- 9. Percentage time spent on verification/testing by IS
- 10. Percentage time spent on meetings
- 11. Number of defects by category (sev1, sev2, sev3, and sev4)
- 12. Number of requirements
- 13. Number of test plans
- 14. Area doing the project
- 15. Duration of the project
- 16. Project type

This research used Forward Selection as the model selection method in SAS, and it generates the following results. The significance level chosen to enter the model was 0.2, and to stay in the model was 0.1.

 $E(Total Labor Hours) = 785.39 + 404.58 * # of contracts + 220.98 *$ # of experienced contractors $+$ 130.62 $*$ # of employees $+$ 2665.81 $*$ percent impl + 21.40 $*$ # of development tasks + 0.63 $*$ # of days - 1452.73 $*$ total planning percent – 566.87 * proj type $1 - 697.57$ * area $1 - 1154$ * area 2

The collinearity diagnostics and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF's) were generated as part of the output while running the OLS model above. The observation of the results did not indicate the presence of multicollinearity. The explanatory variables were not significantly correlated. I then ran the White test on the OLS estimates to test for Heteroscedasticity. The White Test came out to be insignificant. The insignificance of the test indicated homoscedastic errors and showed that these errors were not related to the explanatory variables.

This was followed by running separate OLS models to explore for possible endogeneity of some of the explanatory variables in the model. One such model is shown below that examines # of contractors.

 $E(\text{# of contracts})$ = 1.15 + 0.32 $*$ # of core members count - 3.17 $*$ employee percent work -0.34 $*$ exp contractor count $+4.18$ $*$ percent impl $+$ $0.02 * # of design tasks$

The model above had an R-Square of 0.62. We then followed this by running a two stage least squares model. The model description is shown below in Figure 17.

Figure 17: Model description and summary for Two Stage Least Squares model with hours less than 7500 hours.

Model Description

The model summary is shown below

Model Summary

ANOVA

 $E(Total Labor Hours) = 767.39 + 433.92 * # of contracts + 216.31 *$ # of experienced contractors + 129.86 $*$ # of employees + 2623.1 $*$ percent impl + 21.27 $*$ # of development tasks + 0.621 $*$ # of days - 1435.14 $*$ total planning percent – 567.47 * proj type $1 - 695.62$ * area $1 - 1158.65$ * area 2

SPSS generated two new variables as output from the run of the two stage least squares model, ERR_1 and FIT_1 for each of the 103 data points. The ERR_1 represents the residuals, and the FIT_1 represents the predicted value of the dependent variable. The first test that we did was to ensure that the residuals from the model (ERR_1) was unrelated to the predicted values of the dependent variable (FIT_1). This was visualized in Excel by creating a scatter plot of ERR_1 with FIT_1 and then fitting a trendline to the data to see if there is a significant linear trend between the residuals and the fit values.

Figure 18: Scatter plot of residuals with predicted values for 2SLS (less than 7550 hours)

The second test was done to ensure the residuals (ERR_1) was normally distributed. This was done in SPSS Statistics, and the results are shown below in Figure 19.

Figure 19: Test on residuals for 2SLS model with hours less than 7500 hours

We observe that the residuals (ERR₁) are normally distributed. Both of the diagnostic tests help validate the assumptions of the two stage least squares model as outlined by Kmenta, and it helps to explain the validity of the model.

A dataset with projects that had total labor hours less than 10,000 hours was then created. We went through the same process as above and eventually ended up with the model below from the two stage least squares model. The initial model that was the result of this run is as shown below.

 $E(Total Labor Hours) = -360.29 + 467.36 * # of contracts + 318.46 *$ # of experienced contractors $+$ 140.62 $*$ # of employees $+$ 3856.74 $*$ percent impl + 22.69 $*$ # of development tasks + 779.41 $*$ proj type 2 - $660.17 * area 1 - 1654.42 * area 2.$

The model summary and description for the two stage least squares model with hours less than 10,000 hours is shown below in Figure 20.

Figure 20: Model description and summary for Two Stage Least Squares model with hours less than 10000 hours.

 1.1111

The ERR_1 and FIT_1 for each of the 116 data points were generated. The first test that we did was to ensure that the residuals from the model (ERR_1) was unrelated to the predicted values of the dependent variable (FIT_1). This was visualized in Excel by creating a scatter plot of ERR_1 with FIT_1 and then fitting a trendline to the data to see if there is a significant linear trend between the residuals and the fit values.

Figure 21: Scatter plot of residuals with predicted values for 2SLS (less than 10000 hours)

The second test was done to ensure the residuals (ERR_1) was normally distributed. This was done in SPSS Statistics, and the results are shown below in Figure 22.

Figure 22: Test on residuals for 2SLS model with hours less than 10000 hours.

Error for total_project_hours, MOD_5 Equation 1

Normal Q-Q Plot of Error for total_project_hours, MOD_5 Equation 1

We removed one of the outliers with a residual value of -3901.36 from the dataset and reran the two stage least squares model. The model summary is shown below in Figure 23. This run had an R-Square of .744, and it was a better model as it has a better R-Square, as it explained more of the variability, and it shows that there are smaller differences between the observed and fitted values.

Figure 23: Model description and summary for Two Stage Least Squares model with hours less than 10000 hours less one outlier

The resulting model was as follows

 $E(Total$ Labor Hours) = -358.59 + 402.82 * # of contractors + 350.50 * # of experienced contractors $+$ 163.12 $*$ # of employees $+$ 3240.79 $*$ percent impl + 20.97 $*$ # of development tasks + 724.007 $*$ proj type 2 – $332.22 * area 1 - 1608.22 * area 2.$

I then ran the decision tree analysis in SPSS modeler using the same dataset to validate our results. The results from the decision tree analysis are shown below in Figure 24. I first fit the data using the Regression Tree (CART) analysis in SPSS Modeler, and the results are summarized below.

Figure 24: Decision Tree Analysis, Regression Tree (CART)

We then fit the data using the CHAID decision tree analysis, and those results are summarized below in Figure 25. The decision tree analysis in conjunction with the analysis from the predictive modeling helped us better understand the most important contributing explanatory variables.

Figure 25: Decision Tree Analysis, Regression Tree (CHAID)

6.1.3 Function points related suite of estimates:

6.1.3.1 Incorporating the COCOMO II early design model into the suite of estimates:

I developed an Excel tool to input the function points that gives a suite of estimates, including three estimates from the COCOMO II early design model and the predictive model estimate based on function points. Figure 26 provides an illustration of the tool.

Figure 26: Snapshots of implemented COCOMO II tool

Scaling Factors

Effort Multiplier EM

6.1.3.1 Comparison of the Function points related suite of estimates

We then calculated the four estimates for each project in the function point repository. We also calculated the ISBSG benchwork estimate for each project. The absolute value of the differences in estimates from the actual labor cost was calculated, and this gives us feedback on which estimate is closest to the actual labor cost in each individual range. The repository was split by function point ranges as shown below in Table 16. The ranges we used were 0-100, 100-200, 200-300, 300-400, 400-500 and above 500 function points.

Table 16: Tableau Dashboard of Function Point Suite of Estimates and differences of the estimates from the actual labor cost

Function Points in the range of 0-100 Function Points

Function Points in the range of 100-200 Function Points

Function Points in the range of 200-300 Function Points

Function Points in the range of 300-400 Function Points

Function Points in the range of 400-500 Function Points

The results of the analysis is summarized below. On average, the COCOMO II best case estimate is the better estimate in the range of 0-100 function points, and the COCOMO II costlier estimate is the better estimate in the range of 100-200 function points. The predictive model offers the better estimate in all other ranges (200-300, 300-400, 400-500 and above 500 function points).

6.1.4 Implementation of the Estimating Tool:

We examine the performance of the estimating tool by examining its implementation in 20 projects. We selected 20 of the most recent projects executed at the organization and fitted them into multiple design patterns. We were dealing mostly with web development projects and created design patterns for

- 1. Backend Processing
- 2. Front end processing
- 3. Document processing
- 4. Batch processing

The process we followed is as follows:

- 1. I extracted out the design and development tasks for each project.
- 2. Read the description of each task and fit it into a scenario that was part of a bigger design pattern.
- 3. Documented tasks that were repeated in the same project as part of different scenarios. We could be retrieving data from multiple data sources, interfacing with multiple systems, etc.
- 4. We could have scenarios like retrieval of data, saving of data, etc. For example, I found the retrieval of data was done in different ways in multiple projects. I documented each of the methods to retrieve the data part of the design pattern. The same approach was used for other scenarios.
- 5. Each project had between 50-500 tasks. I looked at each individual task and fitted it into the design pattern.
- 6. Once we had the design patterns, I validated the design patterns with the two enterprise architects at the company and got their feedback.

The design patterns that we came up with are listed below. Most of the scenarios have been masked to protect the actual design patterns practiced at the organization.

Figure 27: Masked high level design patterns at ABC Inc.

Below is a diagram of common high-level Open Systems tasks at the Controller Layerrelated to Application Development. High Level Tasks related to the Open Systems Layer (Controller and other tasks)

High Level Tasks related to all the things that we could create:

High Level Tasks related to all the things that we could Update:

There were two other design patterns like the above design patterns, and they have been submitted to the doctoral committee along with the other documents related to the dissertation.

These design patterns then formed the basis for a survey. The survey was sent out to all subject matter experts in the company.

Please see below a few questions from the survey. The questions have been masked in this snapshot. The actual full survey is being submitted to the doctoral committee, along with the other documents related to the dissertation. Each scenario in the survey was a direct result of the scenario being in the design pattern. We requested each subject matter expert to give estimates for design and development. They were also requested to give estimates considering the complexity of the scenario. We considered three

levels for complexity: easy, medium and hard.

Sample Survey:

Time Estimates for Tasks related to Application Development

Please give your estimates on how much time employees would spend on design and development/unit testing when creating these new artifacts. Please include the time for writing junits into your estimate. Please estimate it for an employee doing the work.

Table 17: Sample survey

We had 95 scenarios each for design and development. We sent the survey to 30 subject matter experts and got responses back from 28 of them. The survey responses were collected and aggregated in the format shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Snippet of aggregated survey responses

We aggregated the survey responses and processed them in SAS to generate summary statistics for each scenario at the complexity level. Table 19 illustrates these summary statistics for some of the scenarios.

Table 19: Processing of survey results in SAS

Open Systems Controller - Create Tasks - Design Summary

We then went back to the two enterprise architects at the organization to review the results. All of us finally agreed to baseline estimates for each design and development tasks that comprised the scenarios in the design patterns.

Once the results from the survey were processed, we were ready to develop the estimating tool.

6.1.5 Creation of the Estimating Tool

The estimating tool was created in Excel and. incorporated all the requirements mentioned in chapter 4.1.5. I worked with the program management office at the organization and worked with a couple of project leaders to develop and finalize the estimating tool. Figures 28 through 31 illustrate the estimating tool interface and outputs.

Figure 28 - Estimate Comparative tab in Estimating Tool

Figure 29: Design and development tasks entered by the SME

Figure 30: Pie charts in the overhead and summaries tab of Estimating Tool

Figure 31: Cost breakdown summary in Estimating Tool

A copy of the masked estimating tool is attached in the Appendix.

We analyzed the project data for the past 12 months and the breakdown of the overall hours by phases in shown below in Figure 32.

Figure 32: Project data by phases for the past 12 months

The estimating tool was setup to allocate time for verification, implementation, and post implementation based on how much time was estimated for the design and development phases. The numbers we agreed on were

- 1. Verification is allocated as 25% of development time.
- 2. Implementation is allocated as 10% of development time.
- 3. Post Implementation is allocated as 5% of development time.

6.1.6 Summary of the new estimating Process:

The organization came up with a revised process to incorporate the use of the estimating tool in the project life cycle. Every project starts off with a planning phase, followed by the definition of requirements by the business area for the project. This is followed by a system design by the technical team. The function point analysis is completed around this time. At this point, there is sufficient information to create a bottom-up estimate using the new estimating tool. The subject matter experts come up with a system design and translate the design into high level tasks that are then input into the estimating tool. It is often the case where there are multiple subject matter experts involved in a project, and each of them estimate a separate feature of the project.

- 1. The SME's start on the "Cost Projection Form" tab and set up basic demographic information about the project.
- 2. They then move onto the "Design and Development Estimates" tab to enter the task level estimate. The following fields are required for each task
	- a. Activity Type: Indicates if the task is a design or a development task.
	- b. Task Category: This indicates the high-level design pattern to which the task belongs. Some of the options include Open System Controller, Open Systems Model, and View, Document Processing, Mobile, etc.
	- c. Create/Modify: This indicates whether the task involves creating a new artifact or modifying an existing artifact.
- d. Task Type: The values in this drop-down are derived directly from the design patterns that we came up with. The values in the dropdown are populated based on the entries for the previous three fields.
- e. Task Complexity: The options for this field are high, medium, and low.
- f. Task Description: This is the description for the task that is used in the time tracking system.

Once you enter the data for the above mentioned six fields, you get a recommended estimate. This estimate initially is based on the baseline for each task that originates from the survey results and discussion with the enterprise architects at the organization.

- g. Recommended Estimate: This field is automatically populated when the above mentioned six fields are entered or chosen.
- h. Override Estimate: The SME can choose to override the estimate at the task level, and when they do so, the override value takes effect for the task.
- i. Override Comments: The SME is required to enter comments when a task is overridden.
- j. Estimate Component: This field is used to break down the cost by features.
- k. Requirement: Some project managers like to track the project by requirements. This field gives the capability to enter the requirement number related to the task.
- l. Owner: This field indicates the name of the SME doing the estimate and is considered the owner of the task.

As each task is entered, a running total of the overall cost for the project is shown at the top of the design and development estimates tab, as shown below in Figure 33.

Figure 33: Cost projection table in Estimating Tool

At any given point of time, we can see a comparison of the SME estimate (this includes the overridden cost for each task) and the recommended cost (this does not include the overrides).

- m. There are times when a task does not fit into one of the design patterns. In this case, there is always the option to "enter a new task" and manually put in the estimate for that task. When we see multiple application development teams requesting for a new task that is similar, we add it to the design pattern of the organization and incorporate it into the estimating tool.
- n. The tool also gives the capability to override the verification, implementation, and post-implementation time in the "Overhead and Summaries" tab. You also have the capability to enter the project management time, tech lead time and meeting time in the "Overhead and Summaries" tab as shown below in Figure 34.

$\mathbf{1}$	Overall	Overhead Tasks							
$\overline{2}$	Overall	Verification, Implementation, and Post-Implementation							
		Perform Verification							
$\overline{3}$	Overall		Verification			Fixed Duration		$\n m/A\n$	
Δ	Overall	Perform Implementation	Implementation			Fixed Duration		#N/A	
$\overline{}$	Overall	Perform Post-Implementation	Post Implmentn			Fixed Duration		$\n m/A\n$	
-6	Overall	Project / Tech Lead Management						# weeks	Alloca tion
	Overall	PM - Design	Design/Selectn	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
8	Overall	PM - Develop/Config	Develop/Config	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
9	Overall	PM - Verification	Verification	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
10	Overall	PM - Implementation	Implementation	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
$11\,$	Overall	PM - Post-Implementation	Post Implmentn	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
12	Overall	Tech Lead & Chargable TAs - Design	Design/Selectn	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
13	Overall	Tech Lead & Chargable TAs - Develop/Config	Develop/Config	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
14	Overall	Tech Lead & Chargable TAs - Verification	Verification	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
15	Overall	Tech Lead and Chargable TAs - Implementation	Implementation	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
16	Overall	Tech Lead & Chargable TAs - Post-Implementation	Post Implmentn	Project Management		Fixed Duration			
17	Overall	Meetings					# People	# Weeks	Meeting Time per Week
18	Overall	Team Meetings	Planning	Project Management		Fixed Duration			

Figure 34: Overhead and Summaries tab in Estimating Tool

- o. At this point, the subject matter expert works with the project manager and other managers in the organization to explain the estimate.
- p. The project manager now moves on to the "Estimate Comparative" tab and enters the adjusted function point number. You now have access to six of the seven estimates in the suite of estimates. The first two estimates are directly from the data that is entered in the "Design and Development Estimates" tab. The last four estimates are based off the function point's count. The suite of seven estimates is shown below in Figure 35

Figure 35: Suite of seven estimates

q. There are other fields that are required to be entered on the estimates comparative tab, and this populates the predictive cost for the organization. This is based on the historical data at the organization.

A representation of the new estimating lifecycle is outlined below in Figure 36.

Figure 36: New software development estimating lifecycle

6.2 Assessing the Quality of the Estimate from the Estimating Tool

The estimating tool has been used to estimate close to 25 projects thus far. Five of those projects have completed execution. The projects ranged in size from 451 hours to 3818 hours to complete the design and development phase of the project. This section of the chapter details the processing of the data to evaluate the estimating tool.

Processing of the actual data

Previously there was no framework to process the actual data from the execution of the project and compare it with the initial estimation data. A framework has now been created where this data can be processed seamlessly, and the data can be fed into a Tableau dashboard. All we need to do is update an Excel worksheet into a shared location on the network when a new project has data to be harvested, and Tableau will extract the information nightly. A hidden field was created in the estimating tool to capture the characteristics of the task, and that information was uploaded into the time tracking tool. When we extract the actual data, we now have the capability to pull down the hidden field as well. We then parse out this hidden field to create the framework for reporting in Tableau, as shown in Figure 37 below.

Design/Developm	Create/Modify	Complexity	Task Type	Open Systems/Ba	Predicted	Actual	Difference
Design	Create	Medium	Development of a Fro	Open Systems	8	8.000	0.0000
Design	Create	High	Charting feature in yo	Open Systems	10	10.000	0.0000
Design	Create	High	Charting feature in yo	Open Systems	10	16,000	6.0000
Design	Create	Medium	Development of a Fro	Open Systems	8	40.000	32,0000
Design	Create	Medium	Development of a Fro	Open Systems	8	8.000	0.0000
Design	Create	Medium	Development of a Fro	Open Systems	8	16,000	8,0000
Design	Create	Medium	Development of a Fro	Open Systems	8	8.000	0.0000

Figure 37: Tableau reporting for processing data from finished projects

This framework also helps us append data from multiple projects, and it creates the basis for refining the estimate at the task level on an ongoing basis. We have created a Tableau dashboard for the same, as shown below in Figure 38.

Figure 38: Tableau Analysis for analyzing task level data

A comparative analysis of the five projects is as shown below in Figure 39. All five projects

came in a little under the estimated cost for the design and development phase.

Figure 39: Comparison of actual hours and estimate from Estimating Tool

The project comparison by new development versus modification of existing artifacts is listed below. Each application development project will often involve the creation of new artifacts or modification to existing artifacts. One project was all new development. All other projects were a mix of new development and modifications to existing artifacts. A comparison based on this metric is shown below in Figure 40.

Figure 40: Project comparison by type (Create vs. Modify)

Each task in the estimating tool is categorized as easy, medium, or hard to help the project manager assign the right type of resource to the task. This categorization also helps the project managers and upper management in making better decisions managing for risk in the execution phase of the project. The comparison of the projects based on complexity levels for tasks is shown below in Figure 41.

Figure 41: Project comparison by complexity

There are two main categories under which the tasks in the estimating tool are categorized. These are open systems and back-end systems. The comparison of the projects based on this categorization is shown below in Figure 42.

Figure 42: Project comparison by category (Open Systems vs. Back-end Systems)

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Analysis of the quality of the estimate:

The array of estimates for each project was generated using the Java program, as outlined in section 4.2. Each project had between 14 to 196 estimates. A histogram of estimates for each project was generated using Tableau. The original estimate and actual cost from the project execution were then mapped back on the histogram to get a measure of the quality of the estimate. It is observed that the approved estimate of the project is close to the median and the actual cost is a little less than the approved estimate. The variability that existed in the estimating process prior to the rollout of the estimating tool is apparent when we look at the spread of the estimates. The biggest advantage from the usage of the estimating tool is that it has brought consistency to the process across all the application development teams within the organization.

The histograms and the actual labor hours in comparison to the initial estimate for each of the five projects are shown below in Figure 43.

Figure 43: Histograms assessing the quality of the estimate for five projects

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I also analyzed the data from the perspective of how resources were used in the project, what type of resources were used, and how many systems did the project touch. A Tableau dashboard was created for this view as well. An interesting observation that lined up with my initial findings is that there was one project in this set of five projects that touched multiple systems, and it had a pool of contractors that were predominantly less experienced in the systems of ABC Inc. This project cost more and went over the overall estimated cost when the verification and implementation phases were completed. We had actual data processed for only five projects, and ongoing data collection is needed to continue to evaluate the approach. One possible hypothesis that can be tested going forward as we collect more data is outlined below.

Hypothesis $H1$: Projects tend to go over the estimated cost when less experienced contractors are used in the execution of the project and when they touch multiple systems due to poor quality in the design and development phase of the project.

The hypothesis can be tested against the number of defects found in the verification phase, and this is something that can be pursued for future research. Individual dashboards were also setup for each of the projects. A framework has been established for extracting the data and setting up a dashboard for a new project should only take a few clicks going forward. The view below in Figure 44 shows at a high level how many types of tasks constituted the project and the aggregated stats around the processing times associated with those tasks.

Figure 44: Statistics on processing times at the task level

The task data across all projects is also summarized in Tableau, as shown in Table 20. The sample below is shown for ten task types, and the task names have been masked.

Table 20: Summary of task level data

6.3 Optimization Model Results and Experiments

This section presents a case study that shows how estimates that are developed at the task and scenario level are used in an Agile setting to optimize the use of limited resources. Our scenario accounts for economies of scale that can result from managing the skills and domain expertise of resources that are part of multiple projects. This model can be used in an environment of multiple small size projects to manage a pool of resources given that we always have a backlog of tasks to complete. This scenario will be a case study providing a proof of concept to optimize executing multiple small projects at the same time. The small projects are rooted in the design patterns of ABC Inc. and will cater to the local context.

In the Agile methodology, a few concepts are becoming more popular. One of them is the concept of using Full Stack Developers as part of the team. Traditionally, most

application development teams were comprised of specialists in a domain or technology. We had UX (User Experience) specialists, developers who specialized in back-end serverside coding, testers who specialized in writing automated tests, and in the testing of the application, database specialists, etc. A full stack developer is someone who conceptually specializes in all the above-mentioned technologies. The expectation is that they can handle front end, server side, databases, and testing while at the same team fulfilling the role of a subject matter expert (SME). A team comprised of several full stack developers is called a self-driven team. A company that is rooted in the traditional application development is going to start off with resources having 1-2 specialized skills. It will be important for a company to build a resource pool that specializes in multiple skill sets to make the transition to be a self-driven team.

It is in this context that the concept of an efficiency score is introduced. It is quite impractical in the real world, particularly in a company that has always done traditional application development to assume everyone is going to excel at all the skills. The efficiency score will be based on a few factors, such as:

- 1. Total experience of an individual in a skill.
- 2. The date when the skill was last used by an individual.
- 3. The self-rating for the skill by the individual.
- 4. Rating of the individual on the skill by the SME or by all the other team members

It will be a weighted score based on the above factors. The core basis of the efficiency score is that an individual with the higher efficiency score for a skill will complete that story faster with a better quality. On the other hand, an individual with a lower efficiency

score for a skill will take more time to complete the task, and it might not have the best quality. The work might result in more defects that will need to be resolved during the validation phase.

A sample prototype for calculating the efficiency score is shown below in Table 21.

Table 21: Sample efficiency score prototype

The whole concept of becoming self-driven teams with full stack developers is directly related to the concept of an efficiency score. The model considers the efficiency score for a skill and pay rate of an individual while assigning the appropriate resource to a skill that is needed for a story. The core premise of a self-driven team is that the efficiency scores of individuals for each skill will keep going up with experience. The model facilitates the analysis of strategic personnel assignment and shows how it can increase efficiency scores in the long term. Eventually, the increase in efficiency scores will result in increased profitability. This research shows how the work that originally required 14 individuals can in fact be completed by seven individuals when each of the individuals possesses multiple skills. This gets the organization to start thinking in terms of development plans that can be tailored around encouraging individuals to learn new skills. We assume that the efficiency score of an individual will go up over time and with experience. An individual who is an expert in particular skills over an extended period will always be a specialist in that skill and can learn new skills as part of the self-driven team. It will take some time for

that individual to be a specialist in the newer skills, and we need to account for that as we assign resources to stories.

The concept of cross functional teams is also becoming more popular in the context of self-driven teams. Again traditionally, companies encouraged people to develop domain expertise in an area. This could be Finance, Marketing, Human Resources, Legal, etc. These individuals typically would be subject matter experts who specialize in an area of expertise. In a cross functional team, individuals from different functional areas come together as a self-driven team, and this typically results in everyone become more familiar about other areas outside of their core functional area of expertise. The domain expertise of individuals in a cross functional team can also be looked at from the perspective of skills, and our model looks at subject matter expertise in a particular domain as a skill that can be viewed from the perspective of an efficiency score. We assume that subject matter expertise in a domain can be acquired over time and that developers can transition to acquire this skill over time. This happens in the real world in application development. The Agile methodology can aid in fast tracking the development of subject matter experts within an organization.

Workload availability is to be seen in conjunction with upskilling of the resources in the context of the optimization model. My approach in the initial sprints is to allocate a percentage of time for cross training amongst the resources. The workload availability of resources will be adjusted accordingly in the initial sprints. The resources with a high efficiency scores in a skill will be transitioning knowledge to resources with low efficiency scores in that particular skill. The vision is that every individual has goals in terms of where

they need to be on the skills matrix, and the team has a goal of a desirable skills matrix state that they need to achieve in a set number of sprints. There are techniques like pair programming or mobbing that can be used in this context. Two programmers share the same computer and work on a single task in pair programming while one person who is proficient in a skill is sharing the knowledge with a group of programming in mobbing.

A hypothesized implication of using an efficiency score in the model is as follows.

 H_1 : A team comprised of resources with higher efficiency scores in multiple skills will result in more stories being allocated, thereby resulting in overall better objective value.

It is often the case in traditional software development that key resources are stretched thin between projects. They are often allocated only for a percentage of time to work on a certain project, and it is reality that they have to spend time working on different projects at the same time. Resources often work on other support related initiatives in addition to working on a project. One need to account for time spent in administrative tasks, training time, etc. The amount of time a resource is available for the project varies, and it is in this context that a workload availability of an individual resource becomes a critical factor in planning a project schedule. In addition, we must consider the time a team consciously spends in cross training and upskilling. The time spent in cross training is accounted for by adjusting the workload availability of resources. My model considers the workload availability of each individual resource for an individual sprint and ensures that the workload capacity of an individual for a sprint is not exceeded.

The following two hypotheses pertain to the effect of workload availability at the resource level for a sprint in the model and the effect of workload availability in conjunction with efficiency score in the model.

 H_2 : A team with higher workload resource availability will have a more efficient schedule with more stories being taken up for allocation, and it will result in overall better objective value.

 H_{2a} : Workload resource availability in conjunction with higher efficiency score will result in better outcomes in terms of schedule efficiency and overall better objective value.

In software development, it is often the case where there is a difference in the payrate for employees and contractors. It is also the case that more experienced resources and resources who are proficient in multiple skills are paid differently. A subject matter expert is paid differently as compared to a starting developer. The model considers this factor and will try to allocate the person with the best payrate while considering other factors like workload availability to do the task and the efficiency score of the individual on the task.

The hypothesized relationship between the overall utility of the project and the available resources can be stated as follows.

 H_3 : The overall objective value associated with the project is maximized when we can find the optimal pool of resources for the project with higher efficiency scores, higher workload availability at the most competitive hourly rate.

6.3.1 Current process of executing projects

This following is a list of steps that are followed in the current process:

- 1. The first step is to break down the project into high level tasks.
- 2. The next step is to create a work breakdown structure (WBS), where each highlevel task is broken down into manageable chunks. The estimating tool that this research developed in essence creates a WBS for the design and development phases of your project. The WBS contains tasks at a level of detail which anyone working on it can understand and execute.
- 3. The project manager then looks at the resource availability for each resource who is assigned to the project and builds a schedule based on the available information.
	- a. At ABC Inc., resources on these small efforts are typically shared between multiple efforts. The resource availability in some cases was 20%. This means a resource will take five days to complete a task that typically takes a full-time resource one day to complete.
	- b. The SMEs are typically assigned to multiple projects, and they are available for 10-20 percent of the time. Developers who are looking for feedback from SMEs typically have to wait, and this process is repeated over and over again.
	- c. One such cycle can be summarized as follows
		- i. Task from WBS ready to be assigned to chosen developer.
		- ii. Developer starts work
		- iii. Developer need feedback from SME.
		- iv. Typically, there is a wait each time input is needed from the SME.
- v. Developer completes the task.
- vi. SME needs to review the work, and this again results in more wait time.
- d. There are other resources like the UX specialist, Design thinking specialist, Legal analysts who are critical resources and not assigned full time to the project. There are tasks that can be executed only by these resources and are often on the critical path. This often results in additional wait time in the execution schedule.
- 4. Once the schedule is built, the project execution starts.

6.3.2 Base Case

The base case analysis refers to the use case data that was described above. I had data for five projects that were executed using a hybrid approach where tenets of both Waterfall and Agile were used. These five projects had a total of 57 stories that needed to be completed in five sprints. A total of 20 skills were needed to complete all stories. Each story typically required 1-4 skills. We had a total of 13 resources that were available for the projects, and many of them were typically shared resources for the execution of these projects.

Figure 45: High level representation of use case data

The estimated total number of hours across the 57 stories was 3522 hours. The resources that were initially needed to execute the projects were

- a. Multiple Information System SME's
- b. Multiple Business side SME's
- c. Design Thinking Specialist
- d. Information Systems Project Manager
- e. Business Side Project Manager
- f. Developers with Front End skills
- g. Developers with Back End server-side skills
- h. Legal Analyst
- i. QA Testers

The data was setup for the base case with 13 resources. The assumption was made that an individual had skills that pertained to their core competency. A business area SME had

only skills that pertained to their area of expertise like making the business case, validating business requirements, etc., a front-end developer had only skills that pertained to the presentation layer and so on. The efficiency score for these individuals for the skills they had was assumed to be perfect and were given a 1.0 for all the relevant skills, and they were assigned a score of 0.01 on all other skills. The workload was adjusted as per the availability. None of the resources were available full-time for the effort. This was reflected in the data.

The planning horizon was five sprints. The model for the base case was executed on an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-8250U CPU @1.60GHz, 1801 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 8 Logical Processors machine with 12 GB RAM. The total computational time (root+branch+cut) was 8.63 seconds, and the solution was optional with an optimality gap of 0.33% for the run. We observed that only 36 stories could be allocated given the resource constraints. It was the workload constraint that mostly prevented the other stories from being taken into consideration. The resource load across the five sprints is shown below. We observed that the resource whose workload availability was higher were utilized more. The resource utilization is as shown below in Figure 46.

Figure 46: Resource utilization for the base case execution

The sprint load across the five sprints is as shown below in Figure 47. More stories are allocated to the initial sprints as compared to the later sprints.

Figure 47: Sprint load across the five sprints

The allocation of stories to the five sprints is as shown below.

Figure 47a: Allocation of stories to the five sprints in base case

The optimal objective value of maximum discounted total return was \$135,653.13. The main takeaway here is that 21 stories could not be assigned due to the constraint that we assume all stories, including all the skills have to be completed in one sprint. Many of the resources were available only for part of the sprint, and the workload capacity constraint played a big part in these stories not being assigned. The optimization model is able to precisely prescribe the number of unassigned stories and which stories should not be assigned.

6.3.3 Scenario 1: Bringing more efficiencies by cross training resources on multiple skills

The whole concept of becoming self-driven teams with full stack developers can be viewed from the context of efficiency score and cross functional teams. In this scenario, we only have one skill called subject matter expertise, and everyone on the team could

have the skills with varying levels of efficiency scores. It is shown that the work that originally required 14 individuals can in-fact be completed by seven individuals when each of the individuals possessing multiple skills. This is particularly relevant in an organization that is starting to move from the traditional Waterfall method to the Agile methodology. In this scenario, we need the following type of resources.

- 1. Subject Matter Expert
- 2. Developer
- 3. Project Manager

The assumption here is one resource can acquire multiple skills and become proficient in them over time. For example, a developer can become a subject matter expert over time and can acquire testing skills over time as well. The sprint load across five sprints is shown below in figure 48. We see that the load is split pretty evenly across the five sprints.

Figure 48: Sprint load across five sprints for the first scenario

The resource load of seven resources across five sprints is shown below in Figure 49. We also see that all the seven resources are used evenly across the five sprints.

Figure 49: Resource load utilization for the first scenario

The maximum discounted return is shown below. The objective value in this scenario is \$199,494. All the stories are assigned and executed in this scenario. The model for scenario 1 was executed on an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-8250U CPU @1.60GHz, 1801 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 8 Logical Processors machine with 12 GB RAM. The total computational time (root+branch+cut) was 60.33 seconds, and the solution was optional with an optimality gap of 0.01% for the run.

6.3.4 Scenario 2: Combining all development tasks separately.

An additional observation is that every task is typically comprised of storyboarding, design, development, testing and validation, implementation, and finally feedback. Storyboarding can be thought as analogous to the requirements phase in a Waterfall project, but on a much smaller scale and the scope of it pertains to that of a single sprint. We typically have a sprint planning meeting where you discuss the requirements and needs for all stories in that sprint and follow it up with a high-level design approach. It is then followed up by assigning estimates for each story, and then we are ready to start working on the stories in the sprint. There is development, testing and implementation tasks within each sprint. In the context of our model and its usage, it is imperative that the product owner or scrum master consider the skill levels of everyone for all skills that are going to be required for the next few sprints as they plan out an epic. The goal of a self-driven team is often that individuals are improving on the efficiency score associated with all skills that are needed to execute a project.

One alternative way to look at this is to finish the storyboarding for all stories upfront and then have a group of development stories across all five projects. I extracted out all the stories that were related to development or coding. We had a total of 26 such stories for an estimated 1960 hours. The planning for this scenario had four resources who possessed all the skills pertaining to coding and subject matter expertise. The value of this scenario is that it matches the right resource for each skill within each story based on the efficiency score, workload constraints, and pay rate of the individual. It also shows the value of having a team of resources who are proficient in multiple skills. The resource load across the four sprints is shown below in Figure 50. One can observe that the load is spread more evenly across the four resources.

The sprint load across the five sprints is shown below in Figure 51.

The objective value for this run was \$115,370. The takeaway from this scenario is that it provides an alternative way to think about how to group together stories and execute them. All planning for the epic (deliverable that encompasses multiple sprints) can be done separately, followed by the execution of all development related stories. Eventually all testing related stories across all five projects can be executed. This scenario can be considered when one does not have set dates for each project and all five projects can be delivered together. The model for scenario 2 was again executed on an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-8250U CPU @1.60GHz, 1801 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 8 Logical Processors machine with 12 GB RAM. The total computational time (root+branch+cut) was 5.58 seconds, and the solution was optional with an optimality gap of 0.06% for the run.

6.3.5 Medium size case with 10 projects and 114 stories

There was a total of five projects and 57 stories in the original data that was available. I used that as the base case. In this experiment, five new projects that were very similar to the original five projects were added for consideration. The total number of stories that were part of the planning process was 114 stories. This is a hypothetical scenario, and it gives us an idea on how to use the model for a larger planning horizon and plan accordingly. The total estimate for all 114 stories was 7182 hours. I considered using eight resources and tried to fit in all of the 114 stories into eight sprints for this scenario. The resource load across the eight sprints is as shown below in Figure 52.

All 114 stories are assigned, and the workload is distributed across the seven sprints, as shown below in Figure 53.

Figure 53: Sprint load for medium size case

The Cplex time limit for this run was set at 10 minutes, and the optimality gap was 0.24%. The objective value was \$ 423045.01 for all of 114 stories that were assigned. The model for the medium size case again was executed on an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-8250U CPU @1.60GHz, 1801 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 8 Logical Processors machine with 12 GB RAM.

6.3.6 Large size case with 20 projects and 228 stories

In this experiment, fifteen new projects that were very similar to the original five projects were added for consideration. The total number of stories that were part of the planning process was 228 stories. This again is a hypothetical scenario, and it gives us an idea on how to use the model for a very long planning horizon. It is very unlikely that a project manager in the real world will need to plan for 228 stories at the same time. In the real world, most companies work on the sprint plus one model where you have detailed stories breakdown for two sprints, the current sprint, and the next sprint in line. I considered using eight resources and tried to fit in as many stories as possible into 16 sprints for this scenario. The Cplex time limit for this run was set at 10 minutes, and the optimality gap was 0.94%. I adjusted the data, the efficiency score and pay rate to ensure all the 228 stories

were assigned and executed. The workload was kept constant at 130 hours per sprint per resource. The objective value is \$ 795984.13 for all 228 stories that were assigned across 20 projects. The model for the large size case again was executed on an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-8250U CPU @1.60GHz, 1801 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 8 Logical Processors machine with 12 GB RAM.

The resource allocation across the 16 sprints is shown below in Figure 54.

Figure 54: Resource load for large size case (20 Projects)

The workload is split across the 16 sprints, as shown below. The workload is pretty evenly split across the 16 sprints as shown below in Figure 55.

Figure 55: Sprint Load for large size case (20 projects)

6.3.7 How to use the model at an organization

The utility of the model is increased when there is an equivalent dashboard to look at historical data from a resource skill perspective. As part of the historical data that was given for developing the estimating tool, I had access to eight years of project data. I developed a query tool that could potentially be used to query on task names, program names, artifact names, etc., and this gives us a starting point to try to match resources based on skills that are needed for stories. As mentioned before, this model has the maximum utility for an organization that is making a transition from the traditional Waterfall method of project management to the Agile methodology for delivering projects.

The proposed flow below in Figure 56 shows when skills are evaluated, when the skills matrix is built, and when the optimization model would be used in the project life cycle.

Figure 56: Proposed new flow incorporating Optimization Model

The steps that need to be taken by a project team are outlined below.

- 1. The project team, under the leadership of the scrum master and product owner, decomposes the overall deliverable into a set of sprints that are each composed of a set of stories. The project team find if there are any set end dates that have to be met.
- 2. Each story is then decomposed into a set of skills that are needed for the story to be completed. We identify the stories that need to be completed together, the stories that are incompatible and have to be done independently and the finally the stories with precedence relationships.
- 3. At this point, we have a high-level idea about the set of skills that are needed for the overall deliverable, and an attempt can be made to identify the best possible set of resources with the matching skill set. A team with a good blend of experience and resources all across the hierarchy would be ideal to minimize overall costs.
- 4. The efficiency score of each resource as it pertains to each skill needed for the project is identified at the outset. At this point, development goals (both short-term and long-term) could be set for each resource to acquire new skills in the next few sprints and epics.
- 5. The workload availability of each resource can be identified at this point. This is particularly important if certain resources are shared across projects and efforts.
- 6. The data file can be created based on the above factors, and it should give the project manager a proposed schedule based on model constraints. The project manager can tweak the data file iteratively to understand various what-if scenarios based on which resource is available and what skill sets they bring to the table.
- 7. The above process can be repeated each time we are ready to start a new epic, and this should help lay out a tentative schedule.

The goal at the end of 3-4 epics should be to have a cross-functional team of full-stack developers that are proficient in multiple skills and can execute projects in the most optimal way. The model will have utility until the team reaches a point where everyone has the highest possible efficiency score for all skills. That very rarely happens in the real world and so we will always have the need for such a model.

6.3.8 Computational Experiments

The goal of the computational experiments was to conduct sensitivity analyses to examine how varying levels of the efficiency score, workload, and payrate affect the overall objective value and the number of stories allocated. We wrote a Java program to vary the efficiency score, workload availability, and payrate as listed below to generate 27 combinations of the variables for the computational experiments. We then ran the model in batch mode three times, once for each sized set of projects, with each batch including these 27 combinations. The experiments were run on a machine with an Intel Quad Core 3.0 GHz CPU with 8 GB RAM.

- Vary Size
	- o Low : Five Projects
	- o Medium: Ten Projects
	- o Large: Twenty Projects
- Vary Efficiency Score for each size above
	- o Low : Reduce Efficiency Score by 30%
	- o Medium: Reduce Efficiency Score by 15%
	- o High: At an optimal level, all stories are allocated
- Vary Workload Availability for each size above
	- o Low : Reduce Workload availability by 30%
	- o Medium: Reduce Workload availability by 15%
	- o High: At an optimal level, all stories are allocated
- Vary Payrate for each size above
	- o Low : Reduce Pay Rate by 30%
	- o Medium: Reduce Pay Rate by 15%
	- o High : At an optimal level, all stories are allocated

Each of the batch runs generated a text file. The output from the text file for the batch run of 27 files for the small size (five projects) is shown in Table 15. We generated similar files for the medium (10 projects) and large (20 projects) batch runs. A snippet of the data from the batch run for the small size grouping is shown below in Table 22.

Size	WL	EF	PR	# of projects # of Stories # of spirints # of skills # of resou #together #incompa Cplex Stat Cplex Time							Actual Time
		3			57	20	8			102 2495365.953	
		3			57	20	8		102	2495372.484	6.531
		$\overline{3}$			57	20	8		102	2495377.375	4.891
	3				57	20	8		102	2495394.515	17.14
					57	20	8		11	2498996.859	3602.344
	3				57	20	8		102	2499067.343	70.484
					57	20	8		102	2499084.5	17.157
	3	$\overline{\mathbf{z}}$			57	20	8		102	2500731.5	1647
					57	20	8		102	2500936.046	204.546
		$\overline{3}$			57	20	8		11	2504537.218	3601.172
		$\overline{3}$			57	20	8		11	2508161	3623.782
		3			57	20	8		11	2512091.265	3930.265
					57	20	8		102	2512093.39	2.125
					57	20	8		102	2512095.312	1.922
					57	20	8		102	2512097.343	2.031
					57	20	8		102	2512099	1.657
		$\overline{\mathbf{z}}$			57	20	8		102	2512100.5	1.5
					57	20	8		102	2512102.734	2.234
		3			57	20	8		102	2512379.5	276.766
		3			57	20	8		102	2513528.89	1149.39

Table 22: Computational experiment results from the batch run

The results from the batch runs are summarized below. Figure 57 visualizes the results of the sensitivity analysis for the overall objective value. Each line represents the objective value for each unique combination of size, efficiency score, workload, and payrate. We observe higher objective values when the efficiency score is high, and the work load availability is high. The highest objective value is observed when the efficiency score is high, workload availability is high, and payrate is low. The lowest objective value is observed when the efficiency score is low, workload availability is low, and payrate is high. Figure 58 visualizes the results of the sensitivity analysis for the number of stories allocated. Each line represents the number of stories allocated for each unique combination of size, efficiency score, workload, and payrate. We observe that a greater number of stories is allocated when the efficiency score is high, and the work load availability is high. The greatest number of stories is allocated when the efficiency score is high, workload availability is high, and payrate is low. The lowest number of stories is allocated when the efficiency score is low, workload availability is low, and payrate is high.

Figure 57: Result of computational experiments – Objective value analysis

of Objective Value for each Work Load broken down by (# of Projects), Efficiency Score and Payrate

Figure 58: Result of computational experiments – Number of stories allocated

Sum of # Of Stories for each Work Load broken down by (# of Projects), Efficiency Score and Payrate
All three batch files were then combined to generate one combined file with the following fields, as shown in Table 23 to do a sensitivity analysis on the overall objective value and the number of stories allocated to varying levels of efficiency score, workload, and payrate. We look at each of these attributes individually to garner insights.

Table 23: Sensitivity Analysis dataset

The results of the sensitivity analysis of the overall objective value to varying levels of efficiency scores for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in shown in Figure 59. The small size represents the run with five projects while the medium size represents the run with ten projects, and finally the large run represents the run with twenty projects. We observe that the higher efficiency scores result in higher overall objective values across all three project size groupings. Similarly, lower efficiency scores result in lower overall objective values across all three project size groupings. We also observe that the sensitivity of optimal objective value with respective to efficiency score increases when project group size increases.

Figure 59: Sensitivity analysis of objective value to varying efficiency scores and sizes

The results of the sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying levels of efficiency scores for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in Figure 60. We observe that the higher efficiency scores result in higher number of stories being allocated across all three project size groupings. Similarly, lower efficiency scores results in lower number of stories being allocated across all three project size groupings. We also observe that the sensitivity of the number of stories allocated with respective to efficiency score increases when project group size increases.

Figure 60: Sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying efficiency scores and sizes

These findings support our first hypothesis that a team comprised of resources with higher efficiency scores in multiple skills will result in more stories being assigned, thereby resulting in overall better objective values.

The results of the sensitivity analysis of overall objective value to varying levels of workload availability for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in shown in Figure 61. We observe that the higher workload availability results in higher overall objective values across all three project size groupings. Similarly, lower workload availability results in lower overall objective values across all three project size groupings.

Figure 61: Sensitivity analysis of objective value to varying workload availability and sizes

The results of the sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying levels of workload availability for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in in Figure 62. We observe that the higher workload availability results in higher number of stories being allocated across all three project size groupings. Similarly, lower workload availability results in lower number of stories being allocated across all three project size groupings.

Figure 62: Sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying workload availability and sizes

This observation supports our second hypothesis that a team with higher workload resource availability will have a more efficient schedule with more stories being taken up for allocation, and it will result in overall better objective value.

The results of the sensitivity analysis of objective value and number of stories allocated to varying levels of efficiency scores and workload availability as illustrated above support our hypothesis 2a that workload resource availability in conjunction with higher efficiency score will result in better outcomes in terms of overall better objective value and schedule efficiency in terms of number of stories allocated.

The results of the sensitivity analysis of overall objective value to varying levels of payrates for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in shown in Figure 63. We observe that decreasing the payrate results in results in higher objective value across all three project size groupings.

Figure 63: Sensitivity analysis of objective value to varying payrates and sizes

The results of the sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying levels of payrates for different combinations of projects in terms of size (small: five projects, medium: ten projects, large: twenty projects) is shown in Figure 64. We observe that the increasing or decreasing the payrate does not directly result in more or less number of stories being allocated across all three project size groupings.

Figure 64: Sensitivity analysis of number of stories allocated to varying payrates and sizes

The results of the sensitivity analysis of objective value and number of stories allocated to varying levels of payrates, as illustrated above are mixed and not obvious. This results in our third hypothesis not being supported.

The results can be summarized, as shown in Figure 65.

Figure 65: Computational Experiments results summary

Efficiency Score

The effect of the first three hypotheses being supported by the results of the computational experiments can be summarized as follows. A team should strive to have a dedicated team of resources who are part of a cross functional team and are proficient in multiple skills to have the most efficient schedules. This will result in a greater number of stories being allocated and overall better return on investment (ROI) in terms of objective value. The resources should have the highest workload availability and highest efficiency scores for each of the skills that are required as part of delivering projects.

Finally, the duration for each of the runs is summarized below. We had a time limit of 10 minutes computing time to stop the run.

Figure 66: Duration for all runs in the batch process

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Chapter 7: Conclusion and Future Work

7.1 Summary

This research develops a new integrated predictive-prescriptive analytical approach to improve Software Estimating and Agile project management, based on Design Patterns that are unique to an organization. There was a quote given by an Enterprise Architect at ABC Inc., who was one of my mentors at the organization that helped me with the development of the baselines for the estimating tool. "*To me patterns are just an approach to solving a problem that can be applied to multiple domains. I don't need a fancy name to describe it, as long as I can describe the principles behind it*". He also said, "*In a nutshell, patterns are everywhere.*" This research developed a systematic and structured approach to analyze the data and identify those design patterns that were unique to ABC Inc. It was an eye-opening experience as we could fit in literally thousands of individual tasks from multiple projects into a finite set of less than 10 unique design patterns. It is a painstaking process to analyze thousands of lines of task level data and fit them into patterns, but the result of the effort was a clear understanding of how the organization executed application development projects. This research resulted in the development of a new estimating tool for ABC Inc. and has been implemented for the 28 projects over the past 15 months. We had five projects that completed execution, and the results from those projects were analyzed to assess the quality of estimation of the tool. The new tool has reduced the variability in the estimating process and has been adopted well by the technical subject

matter experts and the leadership at the organization. The estimating process has been incorporated into the formal project life cycle at the organization, and that resulted in the new software development estimating lifecycle as shown in Figure 36 above and shown again below.

This research builds out the development of the estimating model in generic terms so that the process can be repeated by other organizations to develop their own version of the estimating tool. This tool will bring consistency to the estimating process and will reduce the variability in the process. It will significantly help reduce the likelihood for projects to exceed the budget.

The second part of this research dealt with better understanding labor costs associated with the project using a two-stage least squares model. The results of the predictive model enabled us to take a deeper look into how resources were allocated to projects. The model results pointed to the fact that new contractors were assigned to the project team, and this resulted in overall increased labor costs to the project as compared to assigning experienced contractors or employees to the project. A deeper look into the onboarding of contractors pointed to the workflow outlined below in Figure 67.

Figure 67: Assignment of resources to a project

There was a task force at ABC Inc. that was already looking into how to improve the process of onboarding contractors at the organization. Our research findings were shared with the members of the task force. This has resulted in a revised process whereby contractors are familiarized with the development environment at the organization, and they work on small support tasks before being assigned to a project. We expect a better process flow and reduced labor costs over the long term, but we did not have the opportunity to analyze the impact of this revised flow. The aggregation of the various disparate data sources and descriptive analysis of the data pointed a lot of interesting trends at the organization. This research has given ABC Inc. a deeper understanding of how resources are used across the organization on different types of efforts including projects,

support, enhancements, etc. More importantly, it has given the organization a deeper understanding of how temporary resources are used to augment employees across the organization in all types of efforts.

The third part of this research produced two ensembles of estimating models. The first ensemble brought together two estimates that were rooted in the new estimating model based on design patterns and one estimate that was based on the two-stage least squares predictive model. The second ensemble relied on the company continuing to use function points to size projects, and it produced four estimates. The first ensemble was based on the bottom-up estimating approach, and the second ensemble used the top-down approach to size projects. The biggest takeaway for ABC Inc. was the opportunity for the organization to combine executive judgment with data science to reach consensus on the final estimate for a project. This process has set the stage for executive management to have discussions with project managers and technical leaders, and it has helped reach consensus on a more balanced estimate. This research also set the foundation by assessing the quality of the estimate for each project.

This research also took a deeper look into the function point repository from a historical perspective. We created a couple of predictive models using the function points data, and this has helped ABC Inc. get a deeper understanding of the underlying data. This research has provided ABC Inc. with a predictive model to estimate a project based on function points. It also points to the fact that systems are tightly integrated at the organization as borne out by the results of the second predictive model based on the individual components that make up the overall function points.

The final part of this research was to augment the use of the estimating model to build a data-driven resource allocation framework that was rooted in a prescriptive analytics (optimization) model that consider multiple skills and domain expertise of resources. This research provides thought leadership for companies considering a move from Waterfall to an Agile process. It provides a metric to measure skills development across multiple sprints, and also sets the foundation for cross training of skills among resources, and it helps the organization move towards self-driven teams. The perceived shortage of SMEs in organizations like ABC Inc. is addressed when this model is used, and it should not be an issue going forward.

The prescriptive analytics model based Agile planning approach has the following benefits.

- 1. Balance the effects of workload availability with skills development of resources within the project execution
- 2. Lays the foundation for a self-driven and cross functional team that is rooted in a foundation of skills development/sharing of skills
- 3. Efficiency score and workload availability are key metrics to be considered by organizations.

Predictive Analytics in the estimating process generates credible and quality estimates, which serve as inputs to the Prescriptive Analytics model that optimize the data-driven planning and resource allocation decisions in the Agile environment.

7.2 Limitations

This research built the new estimating tool but did not take up the continuous refinement of the task level estimates to adjust the baseline estimates in the estimating tool. We set up a Tableau dashboard to process the data at the task level and have set a solid foundation for the continuous refinement of the task level estimates. The continuous refinement of estimates at the task level will add more value to the estimating tool.

The estimating tool was used for more than 25 projects, but only five projects have completed execution. The remaining projects are in progress. It would have been helpful if we had a bigger base of projects that completed execution to better assess its financial benefit. We had access to data from the quality perspective or the testing area, but we could not relate that data back to the base project data due to variety of internal factors at ABC Inc. It will be good to spend some time after this research to fix the issues with this data and take a deeper dive into this data. This research has set up the foundation to collect good quality data in this space.

The organization is starting to execute a few projects in Agile. We took data from five small projects that were executed in a Waterfall methodology and mocked it up in an Agile context in consultation with the business users to form the basis for the optimization model. The optimization model and the usage of an efficiency score to track skills development is currently being considered on a pilot basis in a few Agile projects, and it will take some time to observe and analyze the outcomes.

7.3 Future Work

There is an opportunity to use the actual data from projects that use the new estimating tool to create a Bayesian updating based approach to enhance the quality of estimates. This research created the foundation to aggregate the data in a Tableau dashboard for each individual task category, which facilitate the development of the Bayesian models in the future.

There will be a larger set of projects that are going to complete execution in the next 6-12 months, and there is an opportunity to assess the economic impact of the estimating tool. This research laid the foundation of assessing the quality of the estimate for each project. The next step would be to process the data after the development of the estimating tool and compare it to the era prior to the development of the estimating tool. This will provide a more accurate assessment of the economic benefit of the estimating tool.

There is an opportunity to extend the estimating tool to introduce risk at the task level and develop more sophisticated models and methods that explicitly cope with uncertainty. For example, one may start with a Monte Carlo Simulation to predict the likelihood of the project meeting its delivery date. This will provide useful information for project managers, and it can be the next logical step to extend the estimating tool.

There is additional opportunity to address other objective functions building on the established framework. We can maximize the number of stories allocated within the planning horizon. It is also possible to consider the minimum completion time for all stories

in the planning horizon, that is, the minimize the makespan of some selected stories. There is also good opportunity to implement the prescriptive analytics model on a pilot Agile project, and it will be helpful to get feedback and refine the model based on the feedback. This research proposed a framework to use the efficiency score as the basis to lay the foundation for skills development in an organization. An Agile Dojo is a physical space dedicated to accelerated learning for teams, and ABC Inc. is starting to encourage teams to learn in this new environment. It will be great to see this framework being implemented in an such an environment which encourages cross sharing among team members. ABC Inc. is investing and moving in this direction. We should soon have data available in this space. The optimization model needs to be made production-ready by getting it to accept input from an Excel sheet and write output to an Excel sheet. The interface for that can be written in Python or Java, and that will be needed for organizations to use the model on a regular basis.

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