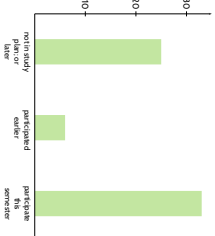
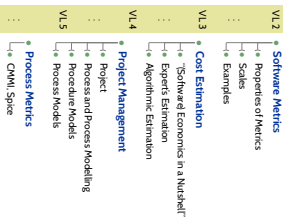


Survey: Softwarepraktikum



Topic Area Project Management: Content



Kinds of Metrics: by Measurement Procedure

Procedure	objective metric	pseudo-metric	subjective metric
Procedure	measurement is done by using the instrument	computation is based on formal rules (e.g. assessment)	review or inspection of the code
Example	body height at pressure	body mass index (BMI) index	health condition (health metrics)
Example in Engineering	size in LOC or NCS	productivity	usability
Usually used for	collection of single data points	prediction of cost	quality assessment: quality of an item
Advantages	exact, reproducible, automatically	yields measure, clearly identifiable on the pseudo-objective	not adequate, applicable to complex observations
Drawbacks	no insight into the underlying mechanism	no insight into the underlying mechanism	quality of results depends on procedure (Cochran et al. 1976, p. 207)

Pseudo-Metrics

Some of the most interesting aspects of software development projects are (today) **hard or impossible** to measure directly, e.g.:

- how much effort is the software?
- how much effort is needed until completion?
- how is the productivity of my software people?

Due to high relevance, people want to measure despite the difficulty in measuring. Two main approaches:

Expertise	productivity	productivity	productivity	productivity	productivity
Expertise	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Productivity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Productivity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Productivity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Productivity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: not every derived measure is a pseudo-metric.

- average LOC per module derived for projects - the well measure average LOC per module
- average LOC per module derived for projects - the well measure average LOC per module
- we don't really measure productivity average LOC is only **improved** sustainability
- Not robust if easily shiftable (see exercises)

	objective metric	pseudo-metric	subjective metric
Procedure	measurement counting, possibly standardized	computation based on measurement or assessment	review by inspector, verbal or by graphical
Advantages	easy, specific, automatic	valid, repeat, directly verifiable characteristics	not applicable to complex characteristics
Disadvantages	often only indirect, no integration	and to appropriate, no integration	quality of result depends on inspector
Example:	body height, air pressure	body-mass index (BMI), heart rate	health condition, "bad weather"
Example in Software Engineering	size in LOC or NCS, number of known bugs	productivity, cost estimation by COCOMO	usability, correctness of implementation
Usually used for	subject of simple base measures	product cost overall assessments	highly dependent overall grading

(Ludwig and Lichte, 2013)

	example	problems	countermeasures
Statement	The specification is available	Terms may be hard to understand	Allow only certain conditions are hardly possible
Assessment	The module is implemented in a clear way	Not necessarily comparable	Only offer particular outcomes, put them on an at least ordinal scale
Grading	Reliability is graded 4.0	Subjective grading not reproducible	Define criteria for grade, give examples how to grade, practice on testing artifacts

(Ludwig and Lichte, 2013)

The Goal-Question-Metric Approach

Information Overload?

Now we have mentioned nearly 10 attributes one could measure...
 Which ones should we measure?
 It depends...



One approach: Goal-Question-Metric (GQM).

Goal-Question-Metric (Basili and Weiss, 1984)

- The three steps of GQM:
- Define the goals relevant for a project or an organisation.
 - From each goal, derive questions which need to be answered to check whether the goal is reached
 - For each question, choose (or develop) metrics which contribute to finding answers.

Being good wrt. to a certain metric is (in general) not an asset on its own. We usually want to optimise wrt. goals, not wrt. metrics. In particular critical pseudo-metrics for quality.

Software and process measurements may yield personal data (Personenbezogene Daten)! Their collection may be regulated by laws.



Example: A Metric for Maintainability

- Goal: assess maintainability
- One approach: grade the following aspects, e.g. with scale $S = \{0, \dots, 10\}$. Some aspects may be objective, some subjective (conduct review!)

- Norm Conformance**
 - n_1 : speed and/or procedure etc.
 - n_2 : labeling
 - n_3 : naming of identifiers
 - n_4 : design layout
 - n_5 : separation of treats
 - n_6 : style of comments
- Locality**
 - l_1 : used parameters
 - l_2 : information hiding
 - l_3 : local flow of control
 - l_4 : design of interfaces
- Testability**
 - t_1 : test data
 - t_2 : preparation for test evaluation
 - t_3 : dynamic consistency checks
- Readability**
 - r_1 : data types
 - r_2 : const/flow
- Typing**
 - ty_1 : type differentiation
 - ty_2 : type restriction

Define $m = \frac{1}{\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i$ (with weights $w_i = \frac{1}{\sigma} \sum_{j=1}^n w_j$, $C = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i$)

Procedure

- Train reviews on existing examples.
- Do judge and register results of first applications.
- Evaluate and adjust before putting to use, adjust regularly.

(Ludwig and Lichte, 2013)

Example: A Metric for Maintainability

- Goal: assess maintainability.
- One approach **grade** the following:
 - (a) Identify aspect to be represented
 - (b) Devise model of the aspect
- Some aspects may be objective, some:
 - **Memorability**
 - m_1 : size of units (modules etc.)
 - m_2 : use of abbreviations
 - m_3 : use of acronyms
 - m_4 : use of designations
 - m_5 : designational
 - m_6 : separation of literals
 - m_7 : style of comments
 - **Locality**
 - (a) Develop a definition of the pseudo-metric
 - (b) Fix a scale for the metric
 - **Effort**
 - (a) Develop a definition of the pseudo-metric
 - (b) Fix a scale for the metric
 - (c) Develop base measures for all parameters of the definition
 - (d) Apply and improve the metric
 - **Errors**
 - e_1 : data types
 - e_2 : structure of control flow
 - e_3 : semantics
 - e_4 : typing
 - e_5 : type differentiation
 - e_6 : type division
- Define $m = \frac{m_1 + \dots + m_6}{6}$ (with weights: $m_7 = \frac{m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_6}{6}$, $G = \sum_{i=1}^{20} g_i$)
- Procedure
 - Train reviewers on coding examples
 - Do a pilot experiment with a set of test applications
 - Evaluate and adjust before putting to use: adjust regularly.

(Ludwing and Urban, 2013) 12/10

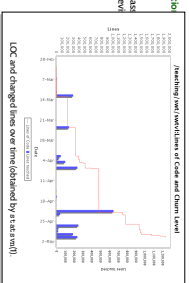
And Which Metrics Should One Use?

- Often useful: collect some basic measures in advance (in particular if collection is cheap / automatic, e.g.):
 - size...
 - of newly created and changed code, etc.
 - automatically provided by revision control software.
- effort...
 - for coding, review, testing, verification, fixing, maintenance, etc.
- errors...
 - at least errors found during quality assurance and errors reported by customer (can be recorded via standardised revision control messages)

13/10

And Which Metrics Should One Use?

- Often useful: collect some basic measures in advance (in particular if collection is cheap / automatic, e.g.):
 - size...
 - of newly created and changed code, etc.
 - automatically provided by revision control software.
- effort...
 - for coding, review, testing, verification, fixing, maintenance, etc.
- errors...
 - at least errors found during quality assurance and errors reported by customer (can be recorded via standardised rev)



13/10

And Which Metrics Should One Use?

- Often useful: collect some basic measures in advance (in particular if collection is cheap / automatic, e.g.):
 - size...
 - of newly created and changed code, etc.
 - automatically provided by revision control software.
 - effort...
 - for coding, review, testing, verification, fixing, maintenance, etc.
 - errors...
 - at least errors found during quality assurance and errors reported by customer (can be recorded via standardised revision control messages)
- Measures derived from such basic measures may **indicate problems almost** early enough and buy time to take appropriate counter-measures. E.g.: track
 - error rate per release, error density (errors per LOC)
 - average effort for error detection and correction.
 - etc.
- over time. In case of **unusual values**: investigate further (maybe using additional metrics).

13/10

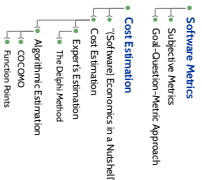
And Which Metrics Should One Use?

- Often useful: collect some basic measures in advance (in particular if collection is cheap / automatic, e.g.):
 - size...
 - of newly created and changed code, etc.
 - automatically provided by revision control software.
 - effort...
 - for coding, review, testing, verification
 - errors...
 - at least errors found during quality assurance and errors reported by customer (can be recorded via standardised rev)
- Measures derived from such basic measures may **indicate problems almost** early enough and buy time to take appropriate counter-measures. E.g.: track
 - error rate per release, error density (errors per LOC)
 - average effort for error detection and correction.
 - etc.
- over time. In case of **unusual values**: investigate further (maybe using additional metrics).

13/10



Content



14/10

- VL 2
 - Software Metrics
 - ↳ Properties of Metrics
 - ↳ Scales
 - ↳ Examples
- VL 3
 - Cost Estimation
 - ↳ "Software Economics in a Nutshell"
 - ↳ Experts Estimation
 - ↳ Algorithmic Estimation
- VL 4
 - Project Management
 - ↳ Project
 - ↳ Process and Process Modelling
 - ↳ Procedure Models
 - ↳ Process Models
- VL 5
 - Process Metrics
 - ↳ CMMI, Spize

- Software Metrics
 - ↳ Subjective Metrics
 - ↳ Goal-Question-Metric Approach
- Cost Estimation
 - ↳ "Software Economics in a Nutshell"
 - ↳ Cost Estimation
 - ↳ Experts Estimation
 - ↳ The Delphi Method
 - ↳ Algorithmic Estimation
 - ↳ COCOMO
 - ↳ Function Points

"(Software) Economics in a Nutshell"

"Next to Software, Costs' is one of the terms occurring most often in the book"

Ullrich and Eppinger (2013)

A first approximation:

cost (Kosten)	all disadvantages of a solution
benefit (Nutzen) (or negative cost)	all benefits of a solution

Note: costs / benefits can be subjective – and not necessarily quantifiable in terms of money –

Super-ordinate goal of many projects:

- Minimize overall costs, i.e. maximise difference between benefits and costs.
- (Equivalent: minimize sum of positive and negative costs.)

The benefit of a software is determined by the advantages achievable using the software:

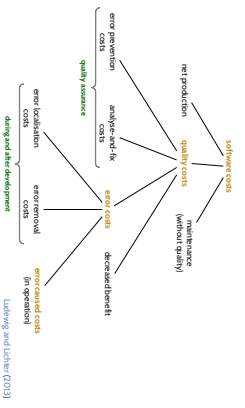
- its influenced by:
 - the degree of concordance between product and requirements,
 - additional services, comfort, flexibility etc.

Some other examples of cost/benefit pairs: (inspired by Jones (1990))

Costs	Possible Benefits
Labor during development (e.g. develop new test)	Use of result (e.g. faster testing)
New equipment (purchase, maintenance, depreciation)	Better equipment (maintenance, upgrade)
New software purchases	Higher revenue from selling code
Convention form old software	Improvement of system, higher system reliability
Advanced data gathering	Increased control
Training for employees	Increased productivity

- Distinguish current cost (laufende Kosten), e.g.
 - wages
 - (business) management, marketing
 - rooms
 - computers, networks, software as part of infrastructure
 - ...
 - and project-related cost (projektbezogene Kosten), e.g.
 - additional temporary personnel
 - contract costs,
 - expenses
 - hardware and software as part of product or system
 - ...
- Handwritten notes:*
 } business activities
 } project costs involved

Software Costs in a Narrower Sense

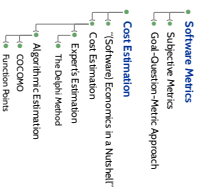


Software Engineering - development and/or sound engineering principles **cannot** economically guarantee that software will identify or rectify errors.

F. L. Bauer (1977)

21/10

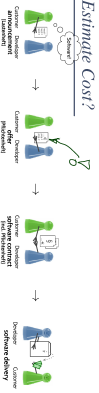
Cost Estimation



22/10

23/10

Why Estimate Cost?



Leistung: Requirements Specification (vom Auftraggeber festgelegt) Gesamtheit der Funktionen an die Leistungen und Leistungen eines Auftragnehmers (erhält die Anforderungen des Auftraggebers und entwickelt Software basierend auf den Anforderungen)

Produkt: Feature Specification (vom Auftragnehmer erarbeitete, Realisierbare Funktionen des Auftragnehmers)

Spezifikation: Spezifikation von Anforderungen (erhalten vom Auftraggeber)

Produkt: Feature Specification (vom Auftragnehmer erarbeitete, Realisierbare Funktionen des Auftragnehmers)

Spezifikation von Anforderungen (erhalten vom Auftraggeber)

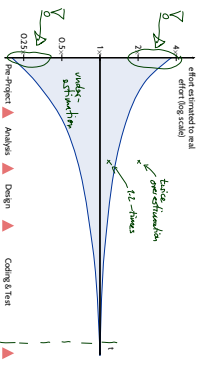
Spezifikation von Anforderungen (erhalten vom Auftraggeber)

Spezifikation von Anforderungen (erhalten vom Auftraggeber)

One way of getting the feature specification a **pre-project** may be subject of a designated contract. **Two** and the same content can serve both purposes, then only the title defines the purpose.

24/10

The "Estimation Funnel"



Uncertainty with estimations following (Wassilainen et al., 2010, p. 10)

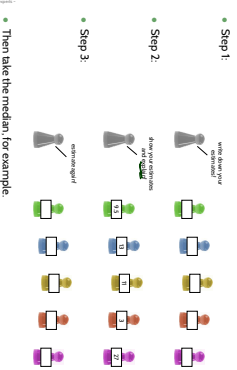
Wassilainen, Ludwig and Lichte (2013)

25/10

Expert's Estimation

26/10

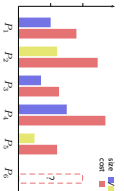
One approach: the Delphi method.



27/10

Algorithmic Estimation

28/10



Assume

- Projects P_1, \dots, P_6 took place in the past.
- Sizes S_i , costs C_i , and kinds k_i ($0 = \text{blue}$ -ish, $1 = \text{yellow}$ -ish) have been measured and recorded.

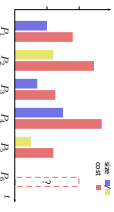
Question: What is the cost of the new project P_7 ?

Approach:

- Try to find a function f such that $f(S_i, k_i) = C_i$, for $1 \leq i \leq 6$.
- Estimate size S_7 and kind k_7 .
- Estimate cost C_7 as $C_7 = f(S_7, k_7)$.

(In the artificial example above, $f(S, k) = S \cdot 1.8 \pm k \cdot 0.2$ would work, i.e. if k is of kind **yellow** (thus $k_6 = 1$) and size estimate is $S_7 = 2.7$ then estimate C_7 as $f(S_7, k_7) = 5.16$.)

29/10



Approach, more general:

- Identify (measurable) factors F_1, \dots, F_n , which influence overall cost. (like size in LOC)
- Use a big sample of data from previous projects.
- Try to come up with formula f such that $f(F_1, \dots, F_n)$ matches previous costs.
- Estimate values for F_1, \dots, F_n for a new project.
- Take $f(F_1, \dots, F_n)$ as cost estimate C for the new project.
- Conduct new projects **renew** F_1, \dots, F_n and cost C .
- Adjust f if C is too different from C .

Note:

- The need for **repeated and randomized** go away: one needs to estimate F_1, \dots, F_n .
- Rationale: it is often easier to estimate **technical aspects** than to estimate cost directly.

29/10

Algorithmic Estimation: COCOMO

30/10

- Constructive Cost Model:** Formulate which fit a huge set of archived project data (from the late 70s).
 - Flavours:
 - COCOMO II (Boehm, 1981) [variants: basic, intermediate, detailed](#)
 - COCOMO II (Fishman et al., 2000)
 - All flavours are based on estimated program size S (measured in DSI (Delivered Source Instructions) or DSI (1000 DSI)).
 - Factors like security requirements or experience of the project team are mapped to values for parameters of the formulae.
- COCOMO examples:**
- textbooks like [Lubling and Uicker \(2013\)](#) (most probably made up)
 - an [excellent VJBR example](#)
 - COCOMO II for the [Linux kernel \(Winkel, 2006\)](#) ([jan/deliver-wg](#))

31/10

Characteristics of the type		Dev.	1	2	Software Project Type	
Size	Innovation	Complexity	Environment	3.2	105	Organic
LOD (LOC)	Low	Not high	Stable	3.0	112	Semi-detached
(5000 LOC)	Medium	Medium	Complex/HW	2.8	130	Embedded
Logic	Center	Tight	Previews			

- Basic COCOMO:**
- effort required: $E = a \cdot (S^b / (DS)^c) \cdot [PM]$ (person-months)
 - time to develop: $T = e \cdot E^d$ (months)
 - manpower: $H = E/T$ (FTE (full time employee))
 - productivity: $P = S/E$ (DSI per PM) (← use to check for plausibility)
- Intermediate COCOMO:**
- $E = M \cdot a \cdot (S^b / (DS)^c) \cdot [person-months]$
- $M = RELY \cdot CPLX \cdot TIME \cdot ACAP \cdot PCAP \cdot LEXP \cdot TOOL \cdot SCEP$

COCOMO II: Post-Architecture

- Program size: $S = (1 + REVL) \cdot (S_{new} + S_{exist})$
 - requirements volatility: REVL, e.g. if new requirements make 10% of code unusable then REVL = 0.1
 - S_{new} = estimated size minus size w of re-used code.
 - S_{exist} = w/R , if writing new code takes r -times the effort of re-use.
- Scaling factors:**
- $X = \beta + w$, $w = 0.01$, $\beta = \frac{1}{100}$ (PRECC + RELEX + RESL + TEAM + PMAT)
- | factor | very low | low | normal | high | very high | extra high |
|--|----------|------|--------|------|-----------|------------|
| PRECC (predefined code with reuse) | 4.20 | 4.96 | 3.72 | 2.48 | 1.24 | 0.00 |
| RELEX (reuse of existing code) | 1.07 | 4.03 | 3.04 | 2.03 | 1.01 | 0.00 |
| RESL (development process flexibility) | 1.07 | 1.55 | 4.24 | 2.83 | 1.41 | 0.00 |
| TEAM (team effort in man) | 1.48 | 4.38 | 3.29 | 2.19 | 1.10 | 0.00 |
| PMAT (programmer/line/own) | 2.89 | 3.24 | 4.61 | 3.11 | 1.54 | 0.00 |

COCOMO 81: Some Cost Drivers

$M = RELY \cdot CPLX \cdot TIME \cdot ACAP \cdot PCAP \cdot LEXP \cdot TOOL \cdot SCEP$

factor	very low	low	normal	high	very high	extra high
RELY (required software reliability)	0.75	0.88	1	1.15	1.40	1.65
CPLX (product complexity)	0.70	0.85	1	1.10	1.30	1.65
TIME (evolution time constant)	1.46	1.19	1	0.86	0.71	1.66
ACAP (analytical capability)	1.45	1.17	1	0.86	0.72	
PCAP (programming language proficiency)	1.14	1.07	1	0.95		
LEXP (use of software tools)	1.24	1.10	1	0.91	0.83	
TOOL (required development schedule)	1.21	1.08	1	1.04	1.10	

- Note what e.g. 'extra high' TIME means, may depend on project context. (Consider data from previous projects)

COCOMO II: Post-Architecture Cont'd

$M = RELY \cdot DATA \dots SCEP$

group	factor	description
Product factors	RELY	required software reliability
	DATA	size of database
	CPLX	complexity of system
	TIME	evolution time constant
System factors	ACAP	analytical capability
	PCAP	programming language proficiency
	LEXP	use of software tools
	TOOL	required development schedule
Team factors	PMAT	programmer/line/own
	RELEX	reuse of existing code
	RESL	development process flexibility
	TEAM	team effort in man

COCOMO II (Boehm et al., 2000)

- Consists of
- Application Composition Model - project work is configuring components, rather than programming
 - Early Design Model - addition of Function Point approach for a minute, does not need completed architecture design
 - Post-Architecture Model - improvement of COCOMO 81 needs completed architecture design, and size of components estimatable

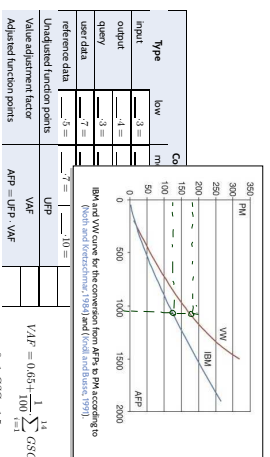
Algorithmic Estimation: Function Points

Type	Complexity			Sum
	low	medium	high	
input	3	4	6	
output	4	5	7	
query	3	4	6	
user data	7	10	15	
reference data	6	7	10	
Unadjusted function points	UPF			
Value adjustment factor	VAF			
Adjusted function points	AFP = UPF * VAF			

$$VAF = 0.65 + \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{14} GSC_i$$

$$0 \leq GSC_i \leq 5$$

38.0



$$VAF = 0.65 + \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{14} GSC_i$$

$$0 \leq GSC_i \leq 5$$

38.0

COCOMO vs. Function Points

Discussion

- Ludewig and Lethier (2013) says:
 - Function Point approach used in practice, in particular for commercial software (business software)
 - COCOMO tends to overestimate in this domain: needs to be adjusted by corresponding factors

In the end, it's **experience, experience, experience**

Estimate, document, estimate better (Ludewig and Lethier, 2013)

- Suggestion: start to explicate your experience **now**:
 - Take notes on your projects (e.g. Softwareparktikum, bachelor Projekt, Master Bachelor Thesis, Master Projekt, Master's Thesis, ...)
 - timestamps, size of program created, number of errors found, number of pages written, ...
 - Try to identify factors: what hindered productivity, what boosted productivity, ...
 - Which decisions and mistakes were avoidable in hindsight? How?

40.0

Tell Them What You've Told Them...

- Goal-Question-Metric** approach:
 - Define goals, derive questions, choose metrics
 - Evaluate and adjust
 - Recall: it's about the **goal**, not the metrics
 - For software costs, we can distinguish
 - net production quality costs, maintenance
 - software engineering's about being economic in all three aspects
 - Why estimate?
 - Requirements specification (Larsenheft)
 - Feature specification (Pfleiderheft)
 - The latter (plus budget) is usually part of software contracts
 - Approaches:
 - Expert's Estimation
 - Algorithmic Estimation (COCOMO, Function Points)
 - estimate cost indirectly, by estimating more technical aspects
- In the end, it's **experience** (and **experience** and **experience**)

41.0

References

42.0

39.0

References

- Baski, V. R. and Ullrich, D. M. (1984). A methodology for collecting valid software engineering data. *IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering*, 10(6), 287-294.
- Bauer, F. L. (1971). Software engineering. In *IFIP Congress II*, pages 530-538.
- Boehm, B. W. (1981). *Software Engineering Economics*. Prentice-Hall.
- Boehm, B. W., Horowitz, E., Madachy, R., Reiter, D., Clark, B. K., Steece, B., Brown, A. V., Chulani, S. and Ashby, C. (2000). *Software Cost Estimation with COCOMO II*. Prentice-Hall.
- DN (2009). *Projektmanagement: Projektmanagementsysteme*. DIN 69901-5.
- Jones, G. W. (1990). *Software Engineering*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Kroll, H.-D. and Basse, J. (1991). *Aufwerkskatalog von Software-Projekten in der Praxis: Methoden, Vorgehensschatz, Fallstudie*. Nummer 8 in Reihe Angewandte Informatik. BI Wissenschaftsverlag.
- Ludewig, J. and Lichte, H. (2013). *Software Engineering*. dtgk-Verlag, 3. edition.
- Nach, T. and Kieratzschmer, M. (1984). *Aufwandskatalog von DV-Projekten, Darstellung und Praxisvergleich der wichtigsten Verfahren*. Springer-Verlag.
- Whitaker, D. A. (2006). *Linux kernel 2.6: its worth more!*