

# GEARING FACTORS

A FLEXIBLE SIZING APPROACH



QSM<sup>®</sup>

## DERIVING GEARING FACTORS

Determining the scope of a proposed system is one of the most challenging aspects of any software estimate. Size estimation is often perceived to be a difficult and thankless job, so it's hardly surprising that so many project managers forgo size estimates and rely instead on level of effort or task based estimation. This is unfortunate because decades of empirical data show a strong correlation between the delivered size of a software project and its final schedule, effort, and quality.

Size isn't of interest only to estimators. Software estimation, productivity measurement, and benchmarking all rely on the same well established set of software metrics. For decades these core measures - size, time, effort, and defects - have been used to support a broad range of management decisions. Organizations measure their projects to better predict and control the costs (in time, effort, and money) associated with various management tradeoffs but there are also **dramatic quality consequences** associated with compressing schedules and piling on staff to meet market deadlines.

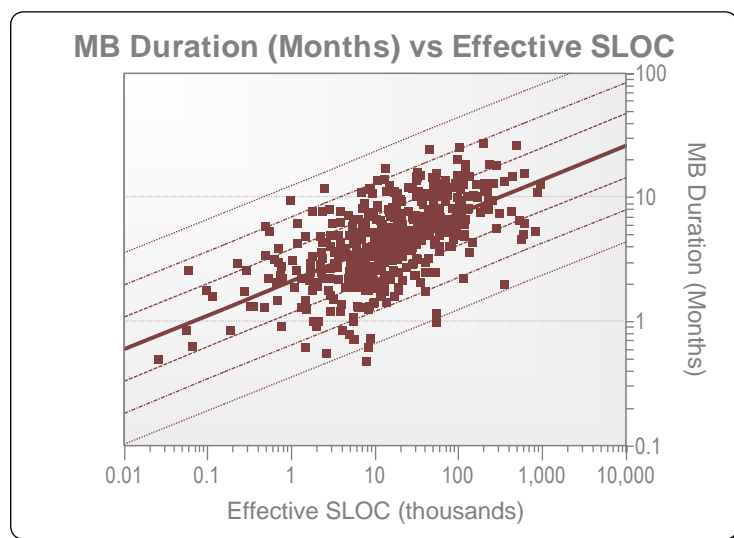
In a very real sense a project's effort outlay, schedule, and reliability depend upon assigning the right resources to the project before it begins missing deadlines. But how can managers plan efficiently if they don't know how much work is needed to translate a given set of requirements into executable code? It is tempting to think of software development work in terms of the effort or resources applied to the project but this formula puts the cart before the horse. From an estimation perspective, effort (or staff over time) is an output. It can help predict how much the project will cost, but not the amount of work needed to implement the requirements or the speed with which those requirements can be converted to software.

This is why measuring project size is so important.

Without a notion of functional size, it is difficult to negotiate realistic schedules based on an organization's proven ability to deliver software. Over three decades of collecting and analyzing completed software projects have shown us that most software metrics increase exponentially as the volume of delivered

functionality grows. With a little history (and the ability to place an estimate in the correct size regime) managers can empirically show how unlikely it is that the team that delivered a 150,000 ESLOC project over six months will deliver half the functionality in half the time. *The data makes their argument for them.*

Unlike manufacturing shoes, software development is full of non-linear relationships. Data driven estimation allows managers to sanity check current plans against past performance and negotiate achievable outcomes



based on a *realistic* assessment of how much functionality can be built with a given time frame and resource profile.

## ESTIMATING SIZE

It's all very well to say that project managers should measure size but unless they have a method that is simple to use, repeatable, and above all *practical*, size estimation is unlikely to gain widespread acceptance within an organization. With the text based programming languages of the past, measuring system size was a fairly straightforward process. Source Lines of Code (or SLOC) were easily measured at the end of a project via text export and automated code counters. The downside of using SLOC as an estimation measure is that code counts have little meaning to nontechnical personnel and customers. Without an empirical baseline, it can be difficult to draw connections between the business requirements that are often the only convenient size measure at the time of estimation and final code counts.

This translation problem has only been exacerbated by the move from text- and procedure-based programming languages to today's object oriented and GUI design environments. Nth-generation development tools don't always lend themselves readily to SLOC-based sizing methods. These days, developers may never write a single line of code. They create software by configuring objects and fields or diagramming relationships with sophisticated graphical tools. Bridging the gap from more abstract software components to finished application size is best accomplished by breaking the work to be accomplished into a series of steps and then relating each set of steps back to a known quantity.

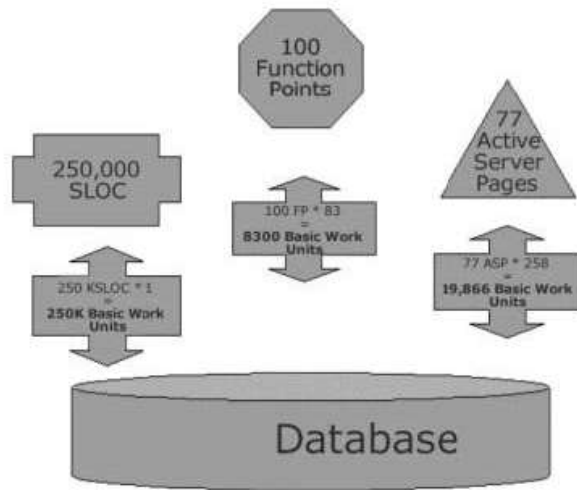
Depending on the technology chosen (or how the project team solves technical issues associated with the project) the "steps" needed to implement a given set of business or technical requirements can be represented by a variety of size measures: objects, function points, web pages, dialogs, reports, configurable database fields, scripts, diagrams, or SQL queries. Some steps involve writing actual code while others require development staff to drag and drop elements or set properties via a graphical interface.

A single project might be sized by decomposing it into a set of scripts that migrates data from an existing application to the new platform and performs needed transformations; a GUI front end designed by dragging, dropping, and configuring screen elements (screens); and a set of business rules, reports, and queries. Another estimator might size the same system with a single abstract size measure which maps to the entire system. Function points or objects are often used for this purpose. The estimator is free to choose the method that best suits the information he or she has on hand at the time the estimate is compiled.

Regardless of the method chosen, comparing or combining different sizing units would be meaningless without first identifying some sort of common denominator (or gearing factor) that tells the estimator how big they are, relative to each other. Decomposing system size into smaller, abstract size chunks and using a single conversion unit to "gear" these differing size units to a common point of reference allows estimators and project teams the flexibility to *describe the project in terms of the work they will perform* rather than dictating a rigid, one-size-fits-all approach. Once the project is completed, the conversion (or "gearing") factor facilitates meaningful comparisons between projects measured in different functional size units.

## THE BASIC WORK UNIT

QSM calls this common denominator the Basic Work Unit. In the past, SLOC was a nearly universal measure of work for software projects spanning different technologies, languages, and development paradigms. But the advent of modern diagramming tools, GUI languages, and programming environments make lines of code less useful as a measure of work performed. Developers who use diagramming tools may find that a combination of GUI actions better represents the work needed to translate a given set of requirements into software. Those who spend their time configuring database tables may wish to identify the smallest unit of work applicable to database construction and build from there.



It doesn't matter what the Basic Work Unit is called. What matters is that the estimator identify the high level programming tasks (or steps) to be performed, then decompose each step until it carries *approximately* the same amount of time and effort as writing an executable line of code. This is an idea nearly all developers understand intuitively, since even in GUI environments some code must still be written by hand. The goal is to preserve a common frame of reference while allowing

users the flexibility to choose the sizing method that most accurately reflects the actual work being performed: translating *abstract* requirements into a *concrete*, functioning software system.

## DERIVING GEARING FACTORS FROM COMPLETED PROJECTS

One of the best ways to derive gearing factors is from completed software project data. Gearing factors can be calculated at the end of a project and the resulting factors used to estimate new projects. Gearing factors can also be estimated or sampled during the sizing process.

For completed projects, the gearing factor is best determined by running an automated code counter on the software product and dividing the LOC count by the number of function units in the final product. For **Objects**, if your basic work unit is SLOC, the gearing factor is the average number of lines of code per Object. This figure is obtained by dividing the effective (new\_LOC + modified\_ LOC) count from a few comparable completed projects by the object count from each project.

For a single language project sized in **function points**, the calculation would be similarly straightforward. The calculation for a 100,000 line of code project with a final function point count of 2500 would look like this:

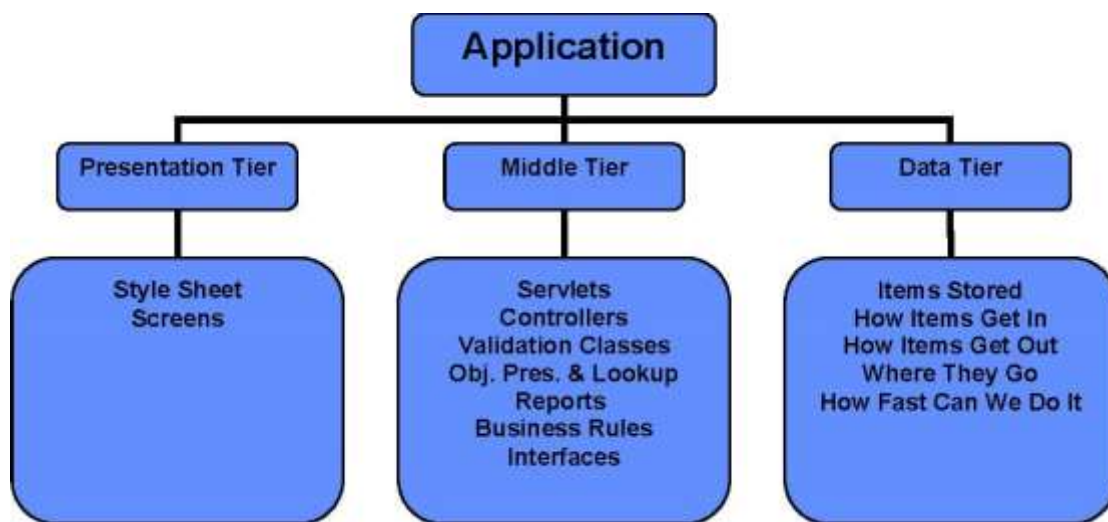
$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Final effective SLOC count/ Final effective function point count} \\ &= 100,000/2500 \\ &= 40 \text{ SLOC/FP} \end{aligned}$$

For mixed language projects this process is a bit more complex. When calculating gearing factors to be used for future estimates, care should be taken to use only projects written solely or primarily (85% or more) in the language of interest. For obvious reasons, calculating a function point language gearing factor for Java from a project that is only 5% Java will not result in an accurate gearing factor for that language. For mixed language

projects in which the mix of languages is well known, relative percentages can be applied to the overall gearing factor to yield estimated language gearing factors for each constituent language. It is obviously preferable, however, to use single language projects to calculate language-specific gearing factors.

### ESTIMATED GEARING FACTORS

If gearing factors are not available from your completed projects, they can be derived during the estimation process by breaking the work to be accomplished into discrete steps or components and dividing each step or component into complexity bins (each with an associated gearing factor that ties it back to the basic unit of work). For a COTS package implementation, this process might begin with a high level architecture view that flows into a more detailed breakdown of how requirements are implemented in each tier of the finished application.



In the presentation tier of the example pictured above, the presentation layer items are identified (a **style sheet** that standardizes the look and feel and **update screens** that allow users to log in, display and update their user profile, and manipulate complex data arrays). These “steps” or size components are then logically decomposed into **complexity bins** and mapped to their **associated technologies**. In the first example (a simple login screen implemented in JSP) the basic work units represent the work required to configure fields on a login screen.

#### Example 1: Simple Login screen implemented in JSP

# Fields (2) \*

- # User Actions (1 per field)+
- # Checks (Low 2, Average 3, High 5)

The second example (a style sheet design element), looks more like what we might expect for traditional lines of code, though it may in fact have been produced in a GUI environment:

## Example 2: Average 'look and feel' style sheet design element (HTML):

Average or Expected Sizes  
(to get Low/High, add +/- 20%)

- Header = 30 HTML
- Footer = 8 HTML
- Navigation = 12 HTML

When sizing the middle tier, a variety of different components requires a flexible approach. A **complex report** that allows users to drill down to derive information is sized as follows:

Tables:

- 6-10 Tables \* 6 Definition Steps + Calculations & Control Breaks:
  - 12-20 Fields \* 6 Definition Steps

Sizing a **complex controller** yields the following calculation:

# of Fields (Low 5 Fields, Average 7 Fields, High 10 Fields), \*

- 4 Methods per Field
- up to 2 Java Beans

The work involved in **data persistence and lookup** is estimated by breaking this task into its simplest form:

- 1 Lookup Statement +
- # of Fields to Map in Single Table
  - – Low 15, Average 100, High 200

More complex lookups are accommodated by adjusting the number of lookups and multiplying the average number of fields in a table by the number of tables to be queried. The beauty of tying the basic work unit to a rough line of code equivalent is that it allows development teams the freedom to ignore code, use code exclusively, or combine GUI and SLOC estimates, as in this **interface** example:

- 13-50 Data Elements +
- (6-20 Data Translations \* 10 ESLOC per Translation) +
- 150-300 ESLOC (Code to filter the data)

Regardless of the task, the process of deriving the gearing factor is the same. The estimator begins at the highest level and logically walks through the process of creating each component or "step", asking questions such as, "How do you create a simple login screen?" "How many fields does a simple login screen contain? Do you have to configure each field? If so, how many configurations/properties (on average) must be performed per field?"

Often the answer to these questions will be a range (high, medium, and low) rather than a single number. This is fine, because it allows estimators to determine an expected value and uncertainty range for each size estimate. Once the individual low, most likely, and high estimated gearing factors for each sizing component have been rolled up, they can be loaded into a sizing spreadsheet to speed up future size estimates and encourage standardization across projects. The example below shows the roll up for the data tier of the example shown earlier:

5	Enter data in columns B-E and G-I. You may enter Low, Most Likely, and High OR you may enter just the range (Low and High) OR you may enter just the Most Likely value.						99% Range:	7835 to	13680		
6											
7											
8	Function Unit:	IU			Note: The function unit here must be consistent with the function unit being used in the SLIM. Estimate workbook which imports this estimate.			Post Results			
9	IU=Implementation Units										
10											
11		Gearing Factor (IU/Component)			Number of						
12	#	Component Name	Low	Most Likely	High	Low	Most Likely	High	Expected	Sigma	Sigma Squared
25	7	Complex Load	800	1000	1200				0	0	0.00
26	8	Shell Script	80	100	120	19		57	3800	683	46787160
27	9	Simple Extraction Scripts	128	160	192	10		30	3200	576	3321975
28	10	Average Extraction Scripts	320	400	480				0	0	0.00
29	11	Complex Extraction Scripts	640	800	960				0	0	0.00
30	12	Simple Table Space	16	20	24	1		3	40	7	5175
31	13	Average Table Space	48	60	72	1		3	120	20	40000
32	14	Complex Table Space	80	100	120	1		3	200	33	1089
33	15								0	0	0.00
34	16								0	0	0.00
35	17								0	0	0.00
36	18								0	0	0.00
37	19								0	0	0.00

If your programming environment allows text export of code, you can verify and refine the initial estimates by sampling code for a few completed size elements and comparing these code counts to your estimates.

Remember: *the goal is not perfection, but the creation of a practical, consistent, and repeatable process* that simplifies future calibration and estimation of similar projects. A line of SQL query code might be more complex than a line written in Visual Basic but when development work is reduced to *the smallest identifiable and practical unit of work*, these differences will be minimized. The important thing to realize is so long as you are consistent in your measurement approach, differences in complexity will be reflected in the Productivity Index. Complex projects of the same size will take longer to build and will exhibit lower average PIs, but when these projects are used to estimate future projects of a similar nature, their calibrated PIs will automatically “build in” the right amount of time and effort going forward since their increased complexity is reflected in the final project PI.

Measurement is never a perfect endeavor but we learn more about the interplay between various project metrics when we measure *all* dimensions of a software project than when we count on incomplete measurement, intuition, expert judgment, or rules of thumb for guidance. Armed with a few simple questions and the power of completed project data, project managers will be in a much stronger position when it comes time to negotiate a few extra weeks of schedule flexibility or a reduction in delivered functionality.

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