A PRODUCT LINE OF SOFTWARE REUSE COST MODELS

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Abstract: In past work, we had proposed a software reuse cost model that combines relevant stakes and stakeholders in an integrated ROI-based model. In this paper we extend our earlier work in two directions: conceptually, by capturing aspects of the model that were heretofore unaccounted for; practically, by proposing a product line that supports a wide range of cost modeling applications.

1 INTRODUCTION: AN INTEGRATED COST MODEL

In (Mili et al, 2000), (Mili et al, 2001); Mili et al had proposed a software reuse cost model that has the following characteristics:

- It recognizes four stakeholders in the software reuse lifecycle, who are: component engineers, domain engineers, application engineers, and corporate manager.
- It recognizes decisions that each stakeholder must make in order to support a sustainable reuse activity: the component engineer’s decision to develop for reuse; the domain engineer’s decision to initiate a domain analysis activity; the application engineer’s decision to avail herself of reusable assets; the corporate manager’s decision to sustain a reuse based development process.
- It models each stakeholder’s decision as an investment decision, which is quantified by means of ROI functions.
- It accounts for the way in which cost information flows between the four investment cycles. Figure 1 shows summarily how cost factors are propagated from one investment cycle to another.

In (Mili et al, 2000), (Mili et al, 2001); Mili et al had discussed in what sense and to what extent the proposed model encompasses (or does not encompass) existing software reuse cost models. Also, in (Chmiel et al, 2000), Chmiel et al discuss how this cost models affords us the ability to regulate the practice of reuse, not through preaching/ lecturing/ arms-twisting, but rather through a carefully tuned incentive and reward structure, that consists in the following steps:

- Elucidate the equations that quantify the return on investment of each of the four relevant investment cycles.
- Identify controllable factors in the cost models of each cycle.
- Fine tune the controllable factors so that all four ROI functions take positive values (or values that exceed some threshold).
- Link stakeholder rewards to their respective return on investments.

In this short paper, we briefly discuss extensions of this model, by considering in turn conceptual extensions and practical extensions:

- Conceptual Extensions: We augment the existing model in two ways: first, while the current model captures quality gains and productivity gains of reuse, it fails to quantify time-to-market gains. Second, while the current model aims to fine tune controllable factors so as to make all ROI positive, we propose to maximize the corporate ROI under the constraint that all four ROI’s are positive (or greater than some threshold). Depending on what factors we want to control, this produces a linear or non-linear optimization problem.

- Practical Extensions: We have developed a product line of software reuse cost estimation tools, using core ideas of the proposed cost model and exploring how these can be adapted to specific organizational requirements.

We discuss these extensions in the sequel.
2 CONCEPTUAL EXTENSIONS

2.1 Optimizing Corporate ROI

We consider the cost structure shown in Figure 1. Each ROI cycle is defined by five cost factors, which are:

- **IC**: the initial investment cycle,
- **Y**: the length of the investment cycle (e.g. 3 years, or 5 years, etc.),
- **d**: the discount rate (e.g. 0.15),
- **B(y)**, the benefits gained at year y, for \(1 \leq y \leq Y\).
- **C(y)**, the costs expended at year y, for \(1 \leq y \leq Y\).

As a simplifying assumption, it is fair to assume that parameters d and Y are defined organization wide as part of the organization’s strategy, and are the same for all stakeholders. We briefly define the remaining factors for all stakeholders. For component engineering, the investment cost is the cost of development for reuse; the subsequent yearly benefit is the benefit gained from component sales, and the costs are the costs of maintenance of the component. For domain engineering, the investment cost is the cost of domain analysis, and the costs and benefits of subsequent years are the cumulative benefits of application engineering, and the costs of subsequent years are the cumulative costs of domain engineering. Domain engineering benefits and application engineering costs cancel each other at the corporate level, if we assume that component trade happens internally (i.e. domain engineering provides reusable assets only to application. Engineering, and application engineering acquires assets only from domain engineering).

Using these factors, we can quantify the return on investment of the various cycles using any number of formulas, including (Favaro, 1996): Net Present Value (NPV), Return on Investment (ROI), Profitability Index (PI), Average Rate of Return (ARR), Average Return on Book Value (ARBV), Internal Rate of Return (IRR), and Payback Value (PB). We denote the return on investment function (computed by whichever formula) by\( ROI_c, ROI_d, ROI_A, ROI_R \), for (respectively) the component, domain, application, or corporate investment cycle. We formulate the require- ment of optimizing corporate ROI in the following terms:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Max} (ROI_R), \\
ROI_c &> \epsilon, \\
ROI_d &> \epsilon, \\
ROI_A &> \epsilon.
\end{align*}
\]

Depending on the formula selected for ROI, and on the controllable factors that we are prepared to alter, this produces a linear optimization problem or a non-linear optimization problem. One possible controllable factor that we have considered in this study is the price of reusable assets. Normally, the acquisition of reusable assets by the application engineering team from the domain engineering team, gives raise to a credit on the DE account and a charge on the AE account. We have found that, to be perfectly fair in distributing the benefits of reuse between DE and AE, we ought to set the price of reusable assets at about half their custom development cost. In case where one of the ROI values turns out to be negative, shifting this price in the appropriate direction may ensure that all ROI’s are positive. Other controllable factors are possible as well.

2.2 Quantifying Time to Market

Composing an application from reusable assets affords is productivity gains (in terms of saved development effort), quality gains (in terms of higher reliability/availability and lower...
maintenance costs) and time to market gains (in terms of shorter production time). Hence for the sake of completeness, the ROI of application engineering ought to include time to market gains, in addition to productivity gains and quality gains.

A survey of economics research has yielded little in terms of quantitative models for the gains achieved by going to market ahead of time. Broadly speaking, there are two factors that must be quantified: 1) the amount of sales achieved during the period separating the early time to market (with reuse) and the later time to market (without reuse); 2) the market share gained by getting to the marketplace earlier than competing applications. Where the first factor could perhaps be quantified, the second factor is much harder to quantify, and its impact is much longer lasting. We have tentatively modeled it by the curve shown in Figure 2.

To analyze the impact of time to market on market share, we consider two scenarios: a scenario where a product is brought to market at time $t_0$, and a scenario where a product is brought to market at time $t_2$. Also, we imagine that a competitor arrives on the market at a time $t_1$ between $t_0$ and $t_2$. The surface between the two curves represents the lost sales that can be blamed on delayed time to market. On the time (horizontal) axis, we can let $t_0$ be 0, we can estimate $t_2$ using COCOMO-like schedule equations and let $Y$ be the investment cycle length; the only unknown is $t_1$, for which we can choose an average value. On the vertical axis, none of the three factors ($m, n, k$) is known or has a default value. We can estimate $m$ by expert judgment (how many copies of this application do we estimate to sell per unit of time?); we can assign heuristic values to $n$ and $k$ (e.g. $2/3, 1/3$). Validation of this model and associated heuristics is under way.

3 PRACTICAL EXTENSIONS

We envision an automated tool that helps the various stakeholders to estimate/ compute return on investments, as well as to record, archive and track costs and benefits of relevant activities. However, due to the wide variability of possible user needs, we resolve to develop this tool not as a single product, but rather as a product line. Also, we have resolved to use Weiss and Lai’s domain engineering methodology, called FAST (Weiss et al, 1999).

3.1 Domain Scope

Broadly speaking, the purpose of our proposed product line is to provide cost tracking and estimating tools for a variety of clients, who may have distinct specific needs. The purpose of an application within our proposed product line is multi-fold:

- **Cost Tracking/ Archiving.** Because return on investment cycles are long term cycles, that range over several years, it is impossible to estimate costs without maintaining long term cost information. The first function that we envision for applications in our product line is to maintain a database of cost factors, pertaining to all four investment cycles, and entered by appropriate parties among the four stakeholders.

- **Cost Estimation/ Prediction.** The purpose of this function is to estimate the return on investment of the four stakeholders, on the basis of archived cost information. This function also supports what-if analyses, whereby stakeholders can vary some controllable factors (pertaining, for example, to corporate strategy, incentive/ reward policies, etc) to assess their impact on ROI estimates. We also envision, although we have not implemented it yet, a capability whereby we derive controllable factors that optimize the corporate ROI while keeping all ROI’s positive.

- **Post Mortem Analysis.** Whereas cost estimation/ prediction assesses costs and benefits using estimated cost factors, this function can revisit calculations using actual cost factors. For example, cost estimation uses COCOMO (Boehm, 1981), (Boehm et al, 1995) equations to estimate development costs (which are then adjusted using reuse specific constants to reflect development for reuse and development with reuse (Poulain, 1997)), and uses estimated reuse frequency figures to
estimate benefits. In the post-mortem analysis, estimated are replaced by actuals, and the economic merits of individual investment cycles can be assessed accurately.

3.2 Commonalities and Variabilities

Commonalities among applications of our proposed domain are well defined. The features discussed in section 3.1 represent functional commonalities, and the features discussed in section 1 (how the cost model is structured as a set of nested investment cycles, how costs are propagated from one model to another, etc) represent structural commonalities. Hence we focus our attention in this section on dimensions of variability, which are listed below:

- **The set of available ROI Functions.** The client organization may choose any subset of the ROI functions that we have listed in section 1. The choice of these functions may be dependent on how the organization makes its investment decisions. This decision had to be made at application engineering time, rather than run-time, because it affects the format of output screens.

- **Database Support.** The client organization may choose any of two candidate database systems, namely SQL or Oracle. This decision has to be made at application engineering time rather than run-time, because it involves different access routines and data formats, hence different software packages.

- **Reuse Organization.** We have identified several candidate reuse organizations, that may affect the cost equations and the mechanisms of how costs are charged or credited in an organization. These include (Fichman, 2001): the library model, the curator model, the product centered model, the expert services model, and the reuse factory model. The client organization may select an organizational model among these, and we adjust the equations accordingly.

- **COCOMO Model.** The client organization may choose one of three versions of the COCOMO model: Basic COCOMO (Boehm, 1981); Intermediate COCOMO (Boehm, 1981) or COCOMO II (Boehm et al, 1995). This decision has to be made at application engineering time rather than run-time because it affects data entry routines, as well as calculations.

- **Parameter Adjustment.** The client organization may decide whether cost estimation constants are adjusted automatically, in light of archived cost data, or only manually, from authorized stakeholders. This decision has to be taken at application engineering time rather than run-time because it involves different control processes within the application.

- **Procurement Channels.** The client organization may choose a procurement channel whereby the application engineering team gets components only from the domain engineering team, and the DE team provides components only to the AE team; alternatively, it may allow external procurement and external sales. This choice involves different cost equations, and must be implemented at application engineering time.

- **Access Rights.** The client organization may choose different policies regarding the management of the parameters of the cost estimations (such as default values, investment parameters, incentive structures, etc). One policy could be that all these are under the exclusive purview of corporate management; a more flexible policy could delegate each set of parameters to the stakeholder that knows best, or has the greatest stake in each. This involves complex variability in access rights.

- **Optimization Parameters.** If the user organization chooses to implement the optimization option, whereby the system can compute values for the controllable factors that maximize corporate ROI under constraints, then a number of non trivial parameters must be fixed, which pertain to the ROI formulas that have been selected in the first variability (above) as well as the controllable factors that have been selected for the organization. Some of these dimensions of variability are fairly straightforward and can easily be supported at application engineering time; others are fairly complex.

3.3 Reference Architecture

The choice of a reference architecture is perhaps the most critical decision in the lifecycle of a product line, as it determines the ease, and the costs of the application engineering phase, as well as the quality of produced applications. Decisions taken about software architectures are usually driven by non functional attributes, such as required reliability, security, performance, safety, throughput, response time, availability, etc.

Because this is reference architecture, another requirement comes into play that must be added to these considerations: The architecture must support
the application engineering activity by mapping each dimension of variability into a pre-planned, pre-verified, set of steps that must be taken to implement the user’s selection along that dimension of variability. In this work, we have adopted a simple way to support variabilities, which is to map each dimension of variability to a component of the architecture. The proposed architecture is given in Figure 3.

3.4 Variability Mappings

We have adopted a policy whereby each dimension of variability that we offer is mapped to a specific component of the reference architecture. Specifically,

- **ROI Functions.** Once a client organization has chosen a set of ROI functions, we modify the ROI Calculator (Figure 2.3) and, perhaps secondarily, the Report Forms component.

- **Database Support.** Once a client organization has chosen a DBMS, we modify the Data Manager to adapt to the selected system.

- **Reuse Organization.** As we envision it now, the selection of the reuse organization affects the Cost Factor Calculator; this component derives the cost factors IC, d, y, B(y), C(y), for the appropriate cycle, and feeds them to the ROI Calculator.

- **COCOMO Model.** The COCOMO Manager component is modified according to the selection of the client organization.

- **Parameter Adjustment.** The equations that are used by the Cost Factor Calculator depend on a host of constants that are derived from industry experience (Poulin, 1997). If the client organization wishes, we can have these constants adjusted in light of calculations made by the tool; this is handled by the Configuration File Manager.

- **Procurement Channels.** The choice of procurement channels affects the calculation of cost factors C(y) and B(y) for application engineering and domain engineering. This choice affects the Cost Factor Calculator.

- **Access Rights.** The selection of a policy of parameter management affects the management of access rights implemented by component Login Manager.

- **Optimization Parameters.** This dimension of variability is something of an exception, as we could not encapsulate it into a single architectural component, and changing the architecture to map it into a single component would be costly in terms of its impact on other variabilities. As it stands now, this variability affects the Cost Factor Calculator, the Corporation Data Handler, and the Configuration File Manager.

4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have extended our past work on modeling software reuse costs in two directions. Conceptually, by integrating a quantification of time to market gains into the ROI of application engineering; and by adding a capability that allows the model to fine tune controllable factors so as maximize the corporate ROI while keeping all stakeholder ROI’s positive (or greater than a predefined threshold). We have also considered a practical extension, which consists of developing a product line of software reuse cost estimation tools, which support a wide range of variability in user requirements. Most of the functionality discussed in this paper is currently operational, and can be demonstrated, including the ability to produce applications to specific requirements. To this effect, we have developed an Application Generation Environment, similar to the environment that Weiss and Lai produce in (Weiss et al, 1999) for the floating weather station. This environment takes prespecified variability parameters and automatically generates code according to the parameter values.

REFERENCES


Figure 3: Reference Architecture.