

# Traditional vs Agile Development

## *A Comparison Using Chaos Theory*

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**Abstract:** Agile software development describes those methods with iterative and incremental development. This development method came into view to overcome the drawbacks of traditional development methods. Although agile development methods have become very popular since the introduction of the Agile Manifesto in 2001, however, there is an ongoing debate about the strengths and weakness of these methods in comparison with traditional ones. In this paper, a new dimension for the comparison between the two methods is presented. We postulate that, since both methods are based mainly on human activity, the two methods can be modeled using Chaos Theory. Source codes that are produced by the two methods in subsequent versions are characterized by a set of software metrics. Modeling and analysis of these metrics are performed using the Chaos Theory. Initial results show that the metrics sequences of both methods are chaotic sequences. Furthermore, agile methods produce more chaotic metrics sequences. However, is being chaotic a good or a bad feature? We argue that sometimes being chaotic is not a weakness, on the contrary, it is a strength.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Since the invention of the traditional waterfall method by Royce in 1970 (Sommerville, 1996), it has been used as a de facto standard for software development processes. It is often described as the stereotypical traditional method. Using this method, the software development lifecycle is divided into seven sequential stages: Conception, Initiation, Analysis, Design, Construction, Testing, and Maintenance. Traditional waterfall software development approaches are usually considered incapable of handling the development complexity (Highsmith, 2013). Since the software industry, software technology, and customers' expectations were moving very quickly and the customers were becoming increasingly less able to fully state their needs up front. As a result, agile methodologies and practices emerged as an explicit attempt to more formally embrace higher rates of requirements change. Thus, in the past few years, agile software development has emerged as a promising methodology to complexity. Various agile approaches have been proposed. Among the methods which have gained a lot of popularity, the

eXtreme Programming (XP) (Beck and Andres, 2004) and Scrum (Schwaber and Beedle, 2002).

There is an ongoing debate about agile and traditional methods and usually they are considered opposition to each other. The waterfall model is especially used for large and complex engineering projects. However, it has some drawbacks, like inflexibility in the face of changing requirements (Sommerville and Kotonya, 1998), where the requirements design absorbs a large amount of project resources. In addition, well documentation is necessary in all phases of the project life cycle. On the other hand, agile methods deal well with unstable and volatile requirements by employing short iterations, early testing, and customer collaboration (Martin, 2003). These characteristics enable agile methods to deliver business value early and improve it continuously throughout the life of the project (Larman, 2003). In (Huo et al., 2004), the authors conducted a study to compare between agile and waterfall methods using software quality assurance (QA) practices. They mentioned that in agile methods, static and dynamic quality assurance practices are combined in the short iterative phases of the life cycle. Meanwhile in waterfall methods, only static QA practices are possible in the analysis

phase. On the other hand, dynamic QA are used in the Test phase, and they are combined in the Design and Implementation phases. However, they concluded that it is very difficult to compare the software quality resulting from the two approaches as they have different initial development conditions.

Chaos refers to systems which are at an intermediate point between the completely predictable and the totally random ones. Examples of chaotic systems in nature include tornadoes, stock markets, turbulences, and weather (Casdagli, 1989). Chaos theory is the one that deals with such systems. At the heart of chaos theory is the notion that complex systems can often be characterized by fairly simple mathematical equations (Mandel, 1995).

The Chaos model and Chaos life cycle can be used to define a concise framework for exploring, interpreting, and assessing software development. In this context, only few studies were found. For instance, Wang et al. (Wang and Vidgen, 2007) have analyzed the roles of structuring and planning in the software development process using edge of chaos concept from complex adaptive systems theory. They have performed empirical studies of two software development teams in the same IT company where one of them is developed using an agile methodology, XP, and the other using the waterfall approach. Both software development processes are analyzed using the “edge of chaos” from the complex adaptive system theory. The authors found that structuring and planning are essential to agile processes and take different forms from the waterfall model. In addition, they concluded that the prescribed structures of the waterfall method makes it chaotic. Also in (Wang and Vidgen, 2007), the authors have proposed a framework for the study of agile approaches using complex adaptive system theory (CAS). Several agile practices have been identified and linked to the relevant CAS principles. The CAS framework was applied to a case study that used XP. A strong correspondence between CAS theory and the practice of agile approaches was found. Moreover, Raccoon (Raccoon, 1995) has used the principles of chaos to study the relationships between a line of code and the entire project. The author described the development process from a developer’s point of view. He used the Chaos model that combines a linear problem solving loop with fractals to describe the complexity of software development. Using chaos theory, a linear problem-solving loop is combined with fractals to suggest that a project consists of many interrelated levels of problem

solving. In addition, the chaos model shows how users, developers, and technologies interact during a project. Although these works have provided a framework that maps some agile principles to Chaos theory, none of these works show how to apply the power of Chaos theory in analysing the final product of this chaotic process which is the source code itself.

A software metric is a measure that generates a numerical value for a piece or a specification of the software (Cem Kaner, 2013). Some common metrics include source lines of code (SLOC), cyclomatic complexity, Function Point Analysis (FPA), etc. Previously, we have used software metrics in re-engineering and maintenance activities (Shawky, 2008a, Shawky, 2008b), clone detection (Shawky and Ali, 2010b, Shawky and Ali, 2010c) and in defining a measure for software agility (Shawky and Ali, 2010a). In this paper, the final product of a software development process which is the source code, is characterized by a set of software metrics. The subsequent versions of analyzed systems are characterized by a set of software metrics. These sequences of values are then analyzed and modelled by the Chaos Theory. This analysis allows for prediction or forecasting of the system’s behaviour in the near future (Tsoukas, 1998).

In the first step of the proposed approach, we statically scan implementation files using the static analysis and metrics generation tool Understand ([www.scitools.com](http://www.scitools.com)). Although we used only the two metrics SLOC and Cyclomatic Complexity which both can be used to represent the complexity characteristics of the analyzed system, however, the analysis can be extended to include other metrics. In the second step, we analyzed the two sequences that were generated for the two metrics in the subsequent versions of the studied systems. Chaos theory is used in modelling and analysing these sequences. Obtained results show that both sequences are chaotic and that the sequence of metrics values for the system that was developed using agile methods is more “chaotic” than the other sequence.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a background on Chaos Theory. In Section 3, the proposed approach is presented in detail. Section 4 summarizes the results. Finally Section 5 introduces conclusions and future work.

## 2 CHAOS THEORY

Chaos is a property of some deterministic systems. A deterministic system is one in which future states depend on the current conditions. They can be

modelled by dynamical systems. Historically the idea has been that all processes occurring in the universe are deterministic, and that if we knew enough of the rules governing the behaviour of the universe and had measurements about its current state we could predict what would happen in the future.

Chaotic systems must have some characteristics (Mandel, 1995, Wang et al., 2008). These include the following. Most complex systems exhibit what is called attractors which are the states or patterns the system eventually settles into. Some systems tend toward traditional fixed points or limit cycles. On the other hand, chaotic systems have strange attractors which are unrepeated patterns. Also, long-term prediction is mostly impossible due to sensitivity to initial conditions. The lack of long-term predictability in chaotic systems does not imply that short-term prediction is impossible. In counterpoint to purely random systems, chaotic systems can be predicted for a short interval into the future.

The first step in the analysis of a chaotic time series data was introduced in (Packard et al., 1980) in which state-space reconstruction of time series data was proposed for the first time. The mathematical justification of this approach was presented in (Takens, 1981) where the reconstructed state space is proved to be one-to-one equivalent to the original state space of the real-life system. The reconstruction of state space can be summarized as follows: Given  $s(t)$ ; a scalar function describing the system, sampled at time interval  $\tau_s$ , and starting at some time  $t_0$ , the  $n$ th sample can be represented as:

$$s_n = s(t_0 + (n - 1) \tau_s), n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (1)$$

A delay-coordinate reconstruction can be formed by plotting the time series versus one or more time-delayed version(s) of it. For a 2-dimensional reconstruction, we plot the delay vector  $y(n) = [s_n, s_{n-L}]$ ,  $n = L + 1, L + 2, \dots$ , where  $L$  is the lag or sampling delay, i.e., the difference between the adjacent components of the delay vector in number of samples. For a  $d$ -dimensional reconstruction, the delay vector,  $y(n)$  can be written as given by (2):

$$y(n) = [s_n, s_{n-L}, \dots, s_{n-(d-2)L}, s_{n-(d-1)L}] \quad (2)$$

It was proved by Taken's theory (Takens, 1981) that if  $d$  is large enough, the vector series  $y(n)$  reproduces many of the important dynamical characteristics of the original series. Thus, one does not need the original vector series in order to analyze many of the system properties of the data series. Specifically, if the dimension of the reconstructed space,  $d$ , is larger than twice  $m$  which is the number of active degrees of freedom, the equivalence of the

spaces is guaranteed. From a mathematical point of view, the selection of  $L$  has no effect on the embedding of a noise-free time series. However, in practical applications and for data contaminated with noise, a good choice of  $L$  has an important impact on the analysis (Casdagli et al., 1991). If  $L$  is too small in comparison with the dynamic variation of the system, successive elements of the delay vectors are strongly correlated. If  $L$  is too large, successive elements are almost independent. In delay-coordinate reconstruction, the selection of time delay and dimension are the most important issues (Fraser and Swinney, 1986). For the calculation of time lag, different approaches are proposed in the literature (Fraser and Swinney, 1986, Shinbrot et al., 1993). Among them, the autocorrelation function and mutual information approach are the most general and common. In our approach, we will use the mutual information method which can account for any nonlinear dynamical correlation in contrast to the use of the autocorrelation function (Shinbrot et al., 1993).

The mutual information for sampling delay  $L$  can be defined as:

$$I(L) = \sum_i P(s_i, s_{i+L}) \log \left( \frac{P(s_i, s_{i+L})}{P(s_i)P(s_{i+L})} \right) \quad (3)$$

where  $P(s_i, s_{i+L})$  is the probability that the signal has a value in the histogram representing the mutual information function. Informally, this function quantifies the information that we have about  $s_{n+L}$  given that we know  $s_n$ . Usually, the sampling lag related to the first minimum of the mutual information function specifies the point where the information about  $s_{n+L}$  given knowledge of  $s_n$  or the redundancy has a local minimum.

Another important concept in chaos theory is the fractal dimension. Fractal dimensions quantify the self-similarity of a geometrical object (Liebert and Schuster, 1989). One of the most used dimensions is the correlation dimension which is non integer for chaotic data indicating the presence of strange attractors. It can be calculated using correlation integral, which is an estimate of the probability that two points on the attractor lay less than a distance  $R$  from each other. Given the  $N$  values of the series and for fixed embedding dimension  $d$  and time lag  $L$ , we calculate the percentage of points within a certain distance  $R$  from one another, for increasing values of  $R$ , through the correlation integral ( $C(R)$ ). As proposed in (Hilborn, 2000),  $C(R)$  can be calculated as given by (4) for a fixed time lag  $L$ :

$$C(R) = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=0}^{N-dL-1} \sum_{j=0, j \neq i}^{N-dL-1} H(R - \|y(i) - y(j)\|) \quad (4)$$

Where  $H(x)$  is the Heaviside step function with  $H(x) = 1$  for  $x > 0$ , and  $H(x) = 0$  for  $x \leq 0$ . A  $\log/\log$

plot of the output and an estimate of the slope of the linear region of this graph gives the correlation dimension  $d_c$  due to the fact that, by increasing the value of  $R$ ,  $C(R)$  should increase as  $R^{d_c}$ , or, after taking the logarithm of both sides,  $\text{Log}(C(R)) = d_c \text{Log}(R) + \text{constant}$ . We repeat these calculations for increasing values of embedding dimensions  $d$  while keeping the value of the time lag  $L$  fixed. The value of  $d_c$  should eventually converge, by increasing  $d$ , to the true value of the fractal dimension of the attractor. Usually, the proper embedding dimension must be an integer greater than or equal to twice  $d$  plus one (Hilborn, 2000).

A common method for the identification of chaos in state-space systems is to calculate the largest Lyapunov exponent (LLE) (Shinbrot et al., 1993, Mandel, 1995). The calculation of this exponent from time series data has been extensively considered in the literature (Ramasubramanian and Sriram, 2000). Lyapunov exponents represent the average exponential rates of divergence or convergence of nearby orbits in phase space (Shinbrot et al., 1993). Any system containing at least one positive Lyapunov exponent is defined to be chaotic, with the magnitude of the exponent reflecting the time scale on which system dynamics become unpredictable (Wolf et al., 1985). To calculate Lyapunov exponent, a step by step evolution of a pair of points, a reference one and a candidate one is done. Each time the distance between these two points becomes too long, a replacement procedure of the candidate is applied in such a way that the orientation between the new pair of points is as close as possible to that of the original pair. The details of the used algorithm for calculating Lyapunov exponent can be found in (Wolf et al., 1985). Another method for detecting the presence of chaos is the calculation of correlation dimension as given in (4). The non-integer value indicates the existence of chaos (Packard et al., 1980).

### 3 AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

#### 3.1 Subject Systems

To evaluate our approach we used as case studies two open source systems. The first one is FileZilla (<http://filezilla-project.org/>) which is an open source, cross-platform, and FTP client. This system was developed using traditional methods. The second system is Suneido (<http://sourceforge.net/projects/suneido/>) which is an open source system for developing and deploying applications across

networks using an object-oriented programming language IDE. Both systems are written in C++. We used 20 subsequent versions of each system. The used versions of FileZilla have the time span from 3-11-2004 to 30-11-2007. Meanwhile, the used versions of Suneido cover the time span from 29-9-2001 to 28-10-2007.

#### 3.2 Experimental Analysis

Figures 1 and 2 show the SLOC and Complexity values in the two sequences for FileZilla and Suneido respectively. Before starting the modelling process, we interpolated the sequences of metrics values for the two systems. This step is necessary for sampling more data points to make the next analysis steps feasible. For instance, Figure 3 shows the interpolated time series for FileZilla. The time step is calculated as the difference between the release date of the last and the first version studied divided by the number of points. Thus it was set to 1.4 day ( $(4 \times 12 \times 30 / 1000)$ ) approximately

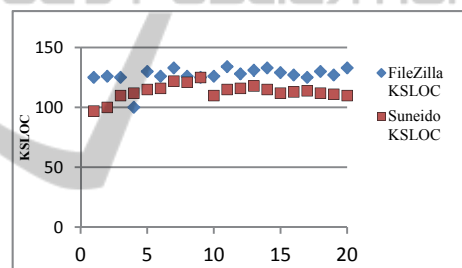


Figure 1: SLOC Sequences for the two systems.

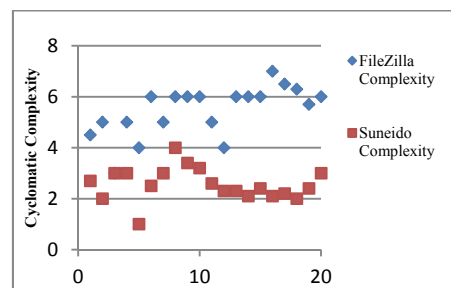


Figure 2: Complexity Sequences for the two systems.

Mutual information is calculated for each set of data points using (3). The first minimum of mutual information is used to determine the optimal time delays. Table 1 indicates the calculated optimum time delays for each data set.

We then calculate the correlation dimension for each of the used datasets. Then using (4), we calculated  $\log C(R)$  and  $\log(R)$  for different

embedding dimensions  $d$  ranging from 1 to 10 for the four sequences. The slope of the linear part approximates  $d_c$ . Figure 4 and Figure 5 show the correlation dimension ( $d_c$ ) vs. the embedding dimension ( $d$ ) for the used sequences. It should be mentioned that as  $d$  increases  $d_c$  saturates at a non-integer value ( $d_s$ ) which indicates chaos. Correlation dimensions for the used sequences are presented in Table 2. As shown in the table, correlation dimensions are non-integers which also indicates chaos.

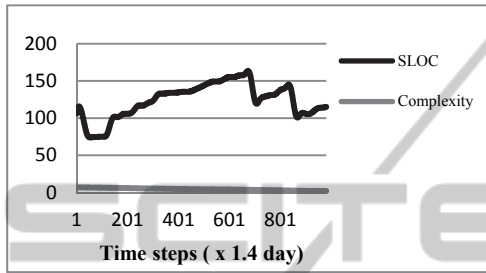


Figure 3: Interpolated time series for FileZilla.

Table 1: Time delays for the used systems.

System	SLOC	Complexity
FileZilla	29	21
Suneido	33	28

Another indication of chaos is the positive LLE. Figure 6 and Figure 7 show that LLE's for SLOC and Complexity sequences of the two systems are positive. Meanwhile, Table 3 represents the final value of LLE's for the four sequences which are the saturated LLE's in Figure 6 and 7. As shown in the table, Suneido's sequences have larger LLE's values. This indicates that the source code and complexity of Suneido are less predictable than FileZilla and that it has a larger rate of information change than that of FileZilla.

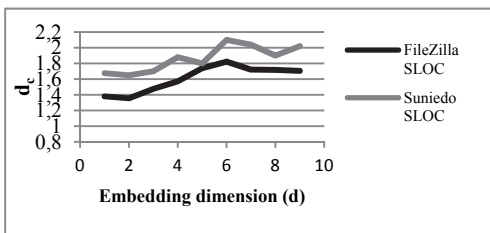


Figure 4: Correlation dimension ( $d_c$ ) vs. embedding dimension ( $d$ ) for SLOC sequences.

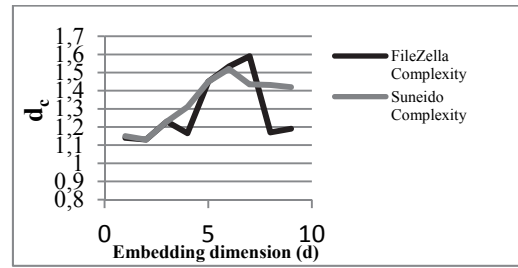


Figure 5: Correlation dimension ( $d_c$ ) vs. embedding dimension ( $d$ ) for Complexity sequences.

Table 2: Correlation dimensions for the used systems.

System	SLOC	Complexity
FileZilla	1.62	1.19
Suneido	1.86	1.41

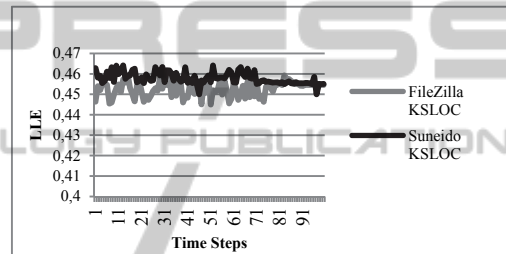


Figure 6: Largest Lyapunov exponent (LLE) for SLOC sequences.

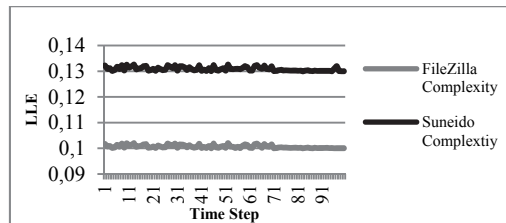


Figure 7: Largest Lyapunov exponent (LLE) for Complexity sequences.

Table 3: Largest Lyapunov Exponents for the used systems.

System	SLOC	Complexity
FileZilla	0.455	0.10
Suneido	0.457	0.13

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents a comparison between agile and waterfall development methods using the Chaos Theory. Two open source systems that were developed using the two development methods are

used as case studies. The analyses of subsequent versions of the two systems show that both systems have chaos. Furthermore, the system developed using agile methods is more chaotic than the one that was developed using traditional methods. Although being chaotic has several drawbacks, for instance, complex undetermined behaviour and high sensitivity to changes in initial conditions, however, a chaotic system has many advantages e.g., flexibility, creativity and stability. In addition, for chaotic systems with large LLE, a quick settlement to the steady state is expected. Thus, agile development results in a more chaotic system with varying and constantly changing elements that settle down more quickly than those developed using waterfall methods.

As a future work, more systems need to be analyzed to be able to generalize the findings. Another set of interesting questions include the following. What quality attributes of the software are more chaotic when agile methods are used? What agile approaches produce more chaotic systems, and why?

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