

Agile-similar Approach in Traditional Project Management

A Generalisation of the Crashing Model

Dorota Kuchta¹, Pierrick L'Ebraly² and Ewa Ptaszyńska¹

¹University of Technology, Wrocław, Poland

²Ecole Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées, Paris, France

Keywords: Time-cost Trade-off, Project Crashing, Linear Programming, Agile Development, Decision-making Tools.

Abstract: In numerous industries such as software development there has been increasing pressure on the supplier to provide early results. In this study we propose a method to adapt traditional project scheduling in order to meet early expectations of the client while limiting costs. First we present the philosophy of the agile methodologies in which meetings with stakeholders play an important role. Therefore it is valuable to take them into account in order to develop new models. Based on it we present a proposal of Linear Programming (LP) model which goal is to minimize the crashing cost and maximize customer satisfaction. In our model we distinguish activities that are rewarded (can increase customer satisfaction) if they are completed before certain meetings. What is more, we assume that project's budget can be modified during meetings. At the end we present an example of using the proposed model.

1 INTRODUCTION

Recently we have been dealing with two types of project management approaches (Wysocki, 2014) - traditional approaches and agile approaches. Simplifying, it can be said that the main difference between them is that in the traditional approach the project scope, deadline and budget are essentially known at the beginning and the project management methods aim at realizing this scope while in the agile approach, the scope, and even the goal tend to change during the project realisation and the project management methods are aimed at helping the project team to adapt the project and its realisation to the changing objective. However, the two approaches cannot be isolated from each other. Recently, researchers have noticed the need to compare and combine the two approaches.

(Kosztyn, 2015) proposes a matrix-based approach to project planning and describes a generic algorithm that builds schedules for both agile and traditional project management approaches. (Spundak, 2014) compares both approaches and suggests that a mixed approach may be needed in the future as we have been facing a more and more varied spectrum of project types and, to use his words, methodology should be adapted to the project and not vice versa. This paper continues this line of research,

as it allows introduction of agile elements into traditional project management. In Figure 1 and Figure 2 both approaches (traditional and agile) are described; the upper part of triangle represents objectives while the lower parts represent the chosen set of constraints. These are widely inspired by a similar representation found in (Kosztyn, 2015).

Figure 1 presents agile approach. A simple way to understand agile approach is to see it in terms of maximizing goals in a fixed time and cost environment.

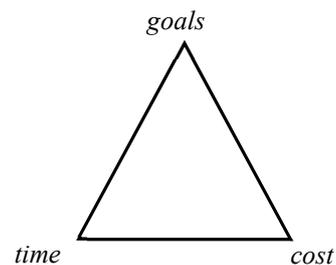


Figure 1: Short term approach, agile approach.

Figure 2 presents traditional approach. Traditional planning focuses on reaching fixed goals while trying to minimise time and cost; which implies solving a time-cost trade-off problem.

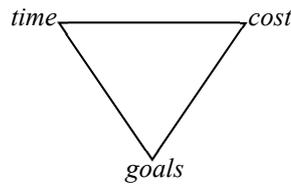


Figure 2: Long term approach, traditional approach.

In this paper we will present an approach to introduce an agile element into traditional approach.

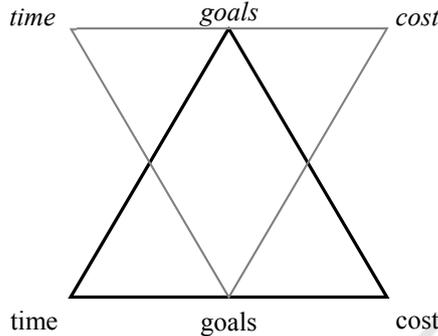


Figure 3: Mixing both approach.

The approach we propose here allows modification in the project short-term objectives in order to deal with another major aspect of project planning - client satisfaction.

Our proposal is motivated by the fact that the customer plays a growing role in project management. In a competitive environment it is important to keep in mind that a major criterion for project success is customer satisfaction (Al-Tmeemy et al., 2010). This aspect is made clear in the agile approach to project management, where the customer is allowed to change his expectancies between every sprint as to the project expected outcome. Thus, the aim of our proposal is to allow the customer to influence the project realisation in the traditional approach to a greater degree than it is usually done. We blend in the traditional approach to project management the idea taken from agile management of regular meetings, where customers should be "made as happy as possible" (Al-Taani et al., 2013).

In traditional project management minimizing cost or time, or more often achieving an optimal cost-time trade-off (Alba, 2007) is a common goal and has been tackled by different methods, including neural networks (Dohi et al., 1999) Linear programming models have been used for a long time to model the dependencies in the project network and their consequences for the project schedule. The crashing model is a well-known model in formal traditional

project management, i.e. (Abbasi et al., 2011). Traditional project crashing is a method for shortening project duration by reducing the duration of project activities situated on the critical path. It allows, in the scheduling phase, to decide which project activities should be crashed shortened at a cost in order to achieve a desired project completion time while keeping the cost minimal (or to find the earliest possible completion time given a global budget for activities shortening, a problem that is outside of the scope of this article). The desired project completion is dictated by the customer.

We thus propose to complete the crashing model with a measure of customer satisfaction, implemented through regular meetings with the customer.

This paper proposes a LP model which should help deciding which activities should be crashed to ensure the client is satisfied throughout the project realisation, and not only after project completion, to the highest possible degree at the minimal cost in a budget and time limited environment.

The proposed set of constraints provide time and money limits trough-out the project evolution, as well as a reward system to encourage early satisfaction of client's needs.

2 CLIENT INTERACTIONS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

We made frequent use of meetings with client to define time-cost trade-off. The notion of clients and meetings can be given a more general definition.

Definition 1. *A client is the person or the organization who/which is the addressee of the project product, interested in the development of the project for future work.*

Note that there could be many stakeholders of the project. Here we concentrate on the principle stakeholder, as different stakeholders may have conflicting interests (Freeman, 1984). Focusing on handling the expectancies of different stakeholders could be an object of future research.

Definition 2. *A meeting is a point in time at which the client has access to the state of the project, and thus is able to measure the state of advancement of the project according to its own criteria. Having taken knowledge about the current project state, it is possible that after the meeting the client changes its priorities, induce more resources for the future of the project or even redefines the project.*

Meetings are important in that they are the tools that allow clients to have insight and impact on the

project. In the planning stage we try to model the customer ongoing satisfaction after each meeting according to the information possessed in this moment, but after each meeting the customer has the right to change its mind, which implies the model must be reapplied to the unaccomplished part of the project with changed parameters each time the client express a change in priorities.

Definition 3. *The project end date is the furthest possible date at which the project stops. Three reasons may cause a project to stop: project completion, when no further activities are to be completed, the end of the current planning horizon for the project, that is, a new planning phase needs to be planned later before this point so the project can carry on, or the decision to give up on the project because it has taken too long to give expected results.*

For some projects, end date considered as a hard deadline is quite unsatisfactory, as the project outcome is not clearly perceived at the beginning of the project. In this case, the project end date should be referred to as the planning horizon and the role of the finish activity is modified as project success does not require any given activity to be completed.

We will now discuss three project examples, showing how different the role of the client and form take by the meetings can be:

1. *A Road-construction Project.* In this type of project, the client is the sponsor for the road-work, has little interest for the project inner development, and has strong expectations for the project completion date. For this reasons, all meetings are set after the would-be finishing date of the project, at which point strong penalties will be handed for not completing the project in time. In this case, the project end date would represent the latest possibly conceivable time for finishing the project.
2. *A Not-for-profit Open-source Software Project.* In this radically different project, the aims of the team developing the software is to deliver a software that meets their own expectations, while trying to get other developers to join their development team. For this reason, the client is any hypothetical developer potentially interested in giving time to the project, including but not limited to those actually handing in code for the project. Costs should be expressed in terms of man-hours rather than any other unit, and bounties represent further involvement from developers in the next development run, either through current project developers deciding to give in more time for the project, or other developers joining the project. Meetings here are public releases for the

software, which correspond to the time at which each developer can benefit from the work done on other parts of the project, while T_{end} is the date at which the geometry of the development team is anticipated to change.

3. *A Commercial Software Project for an External Customer.* Here, the customer pays for the development of the product, but he may stay very imprecise during project planning and even during the early stages of project realisation. Though he is often unaware of this, the customer is not sure about what he wants the product to address. However, there are usually certain functionalities and concerns that the customer wants with certainty, and that would keep him satisfied during early project development. If the team can make his early satisfaction high enough, then the customer will be more inclined to accept future failures or constraints while carrying on with the project. Thus, it is vital in this type of project to ensure early satisfaction is reached by presenting achievements straight away even though some important aspects of the final product are yet to be decided or even identified.

3 PROPOSED MODEL

3.1 Basic Definitions

A project P can be broken down in a number of activities that can be either tasks or events, an event being an activity of zero duration by opposition to a task which has to be performed (Elkadi, 2013). In the rest of this paper we will use the word activity. For the purpose of this model, we suppose that each task and event is performed at most once in the course of the project. Two additional dummy events are added to provide the beginning and the completion of the project. Let $V = \llbracket 0, N + 1 \rrbracket$ be the set of activities (Freeman, 1984).

For each of these activities we define a base duration and cost, using notations that are consistent with those proposed. This is done by introducing vectors $D \in \mathbb{N}^V$ and $C \in \mathbb{R}^V$, where D_i and C_i are respectively the duration and the cost of performing activity i . Additionally each activity can be crashed by devoting more resources to it. This increases the total cost to perform the activity. We introduce vectors $D^c \in \mathbb{N}^V$ and $C^c \in \mathbb{R}^V$ as, respectively, the maximal crashing duration (i.e. by how many days we can maximally shorten the activity) and the daily cost of crashing activities (the cost of shortening a given activity by one day).

Crashing cost is always positive, and we have $0 \leq D_i^C \leq D_i$ for each activity. If $D_i^C = D_i$ then we say the activity can be externalized.

Another concern that has to be addressed is the relationship between activities. For this purpose, we introduce a graph A in which each arc indicates that the predecessor activity must be completed before starting the successor activity. Unlike (Brucker, 1999) we will not introduce waiting times between two activities, as those can be modelled by adding additional dummy activities with a fixed duration between activities that need to be separated, which means that the graph can be seen as a subset of $V \times V$, at the cost of over-dimensioning the set V .

Actual starting times are kept in a variable vector $t \in \mathbb{N}^V$ and actual crashing times are kept in a variable vector $c \in \mathbb{N}^V$.

3.2 The Linear Programming Model proposed – A General Description

Three different objectives have to be taken in account in order to plan a project: reaching goals, as perceived by the client, the time needed to do so and the money used to do so. However, these are all dependent on each other and for this reason, as described above, past approaches made some of them constraints and other objectives. It is also important to take into account, as mentioned above, the objective of customer satisfaction which is absent in classical crashing models.

On the one hand, our model focuses on two resources: time (the project completion time), and money (budget available for crashing activities and carrying tasks), to reach a fixed goal. What is more, we keep track of project's achievement throughout the duration of the project by introducing meetings with the client to take into account client satisfaction at different points during the project, because we assume that the customer, though interested in the development of the project, does not need to be aware of every activity but rather has knowledge about the state of a project at a number of given times (meetings) during the project.

In order to address the three objectives: early completion time, minimal cost and maximal ongoing customer satisfaction, we decided:

- to make the time objective a constraint - a project deadline will be imposed;
- to make the cost objective both a model objective (the total cost of activities crashing should be minimal) and a constraint: in each consecutive period between two meetings with the customer there is a budget available for carrying out

activities, including crashing;

- to make the customer satisfaction a model objective. For this reason, the objective function will focus on money.

Thus, our model will have two objectives: the total cost of crashing the activities (minimised) and the satisfaction of the customer throughout project realisation (maximised). The latter objective is difficult to express in a formal way and to measure, as it is immaterial. We have decided to measure it in monetary units - project planners will be asked to express the customer satisfaction in terms of value. This translation is crucial, as it will play an important role when we combine the objectives, which will be discussed later on. The problem of expressing consumer satisfaction in monetary units will be discussed further in the next subsection.

To account for time-wise gain in this objective function, bounties are awarded for early activity completion. These bounties are awarded for each activity if the given activity is started before the j -th meeting with the client. For this we introduce $W \subset \mathbb{N}$ the set of meetings and $E \in \mathbb{N}^W$ the vector of meeting dates. B_i^j is the bounty awarded for activity i if it has completed before meeting j . For the purpose of calculation, we use a matrix $B' \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times W}$ where $B'^j = B^j - B^{j+1}$. This comes in handy as we can now attribute a bounty for meeting j without checking whether or not we already gave a bounty for week $j - 1$. However, it can be noted that activities that are not valued by the client, or activities that need to be completed in order to have a value for the client, must be treated with caution. In the first case no bounty should be awarded for the activity, and, in the second case, bounties should be awarded for an event that depends on and only on the completion of the activity. Things such as finishing a user interface, or giving a functional preview to the client, should be modelled through events and awarded with big bounties, as even if they have shallow meaning in terms of work-involvement, they play a great role in client satisfaction. It needs to be remembered that bounties are not used to congratulate a team on its fast work, but to represent the value-added of having the client implied in the development. For this reason, bounties should be calculated based on their capacity to get the client further involved in the project.

We obtain a bi-criteria linear programming problem, which can be solved in many ways. Here we assume the weighting approach with equal weights given to both objectives, but of course the approach to solving the bi-criteria problem could be changed, either by modifying the weights or by using a different method to combine the criteria.

Table 1: Notations previously introduced.

Name	Type	Notes
N	natural number	The number of activities to be performed throughout the project, including dummy activities
V	subset of \mathbb{N}	Project activities, including start and finish activities
A	subset of $V \times V$	Activity dependency graph. If (a,b) is present in the graph then b depends on a to start
W	subset of \mathbb{N}	Meetings
D	element in \mathbb{N}^V	Vector of the base durations in time unit for each activity
D^c	element in \mathbb{N}^V	Vector of the maximum crashing durations
C	element in \mathbb{R}^V	Vector of the base costs for each activity
C^c	element in \mathbb{R}^V	Vector of the crashing cost per time unit for each activity
MT	element in \mathbb{N}^W	Vector indicating the times on which meetings take place
T_{end}	natural number	Hard limit for project completion (note this can also denote the project planning horizon)
$B (B')$	element in $\mathbb{R}^{V \times W}$	Matrix of the bounties handed out for completing a given activity before a given meeting.
$M (M')$	element in \mathbb{R}^W	Vector used to represent budget limits in the span between two meetings
y	variable in \mathbb{N}^V	Calculated starting time
x	variable in \mathbb{N}^V	Calculated crash duration
o	variable in $\{0,1\}^{V \times W}$	Binary indicating whether an activity is started before a given meeting

As mentioned above, resources availability for activities crashing is limited in time which is modelled using a fixed budget limit for each interval between two meetings, M_j . We use a construction similar to the one used for B' to deduct a matrix M' which can then be used to account for staying in the budget during intervals $[0..j]$.

A variable has to be introduced to denote whether activity i has started before meeting j . This variable matrix is noted (o_j^i) and calculated dynamically.

3.3 The Linear Programming Model proposed – Mathematical Formulation

In this subsection we will present the mathematical formulation of the model described in the previous section. Below we present a table summing up all notations used to this point.

This leads us to introduce the following LP model:

$$\text{Min cost} : \sum_{i \in V} (C_i^c \cdot x_i - \sum_{j \in W} o_j^i \cdot B_i^j) \quad (1)$$

$$\forall j \in W, \sum_{i \in V} o_j^i \cdot C_i \leq M_j \quad (2)$$

$$\forall i \in V, x_i \leq D_i^c \quad (3)$$

$$y_0 = 0 \text{ and } y_{n+1} \leq T_{end} \quad (4)$$

$$\forall (i,j) \in A, y_j - y_i + x_i \geq D_i \quad (5)$$

$$\forall_{i \in V, j \in W} 10000 \cdot o_j^i \geq MT_j - y_i \quad (6)$$

$$\forall_{i \in V, j \in W} 10000 \cdot (1 - o_j^i) \geq -(MT_j - y_i) \quad (7)$$

Equation (1) is the objective function and equations (2) - (7) represent constraints. Constraint (2) refers to budget limits in the timespan between two meetings. Equation (2) is there to make sure the project does not fail because of solvability limits. It is important only for project that have a big monetary impact on the firm. For those projects it is important to keep in mind that a project could be profitable but run through a phase in which is not solvable. Constraint (3) refers to maximum crashing durations of specific activities. Constraint (4) refers to starting and finishing time of the project. Constraint (5) refers to the order of activities. Constraints (6) and (7) are used for indicating whether an activity is started before a given meeting. The '10000' is a more or less arbitrary constant in order to be able to linearize 'if' tests. Note that in equation (1) two different objectives were accounted for in an equation. The sum here is used because matrix B can always be normalized to be of the same order of magnitude as the costs in the project, as it is used there and only there. However, the decision of whether or not to normalize the bounty matrix has to be taken when this matrix is filled: in some situations the benefits of showing early results to the client are not commensurable to the crashing costs involved, and, in these cases, no crashing should occur. On the other hand, sometimes costs are not an issue if the client can have early results, for example while handling a project designed at resuming production for a much

larger manufacturing scheme, only early delivery should be valued.

4 EXAMPLE

In this section we go through a few cases in which the introduced model results in a different schedule chosen for the project development than in a classical approach. Due to the limited space in this article we present only a brief example of a project. The proposed linear programming model has been implemented in a free editor GUSEK (GLPK Under SciTE Extended Kit) and tested on a selected research project performed by Wrocław University of Technology. The main goal of the analysed project is to identify success and failure factors of research projects with particular emphasis on projects performed at universities, based on the example of Poland and France.

Identifying success and failure factors of projects is a popular problem in the scientific literature of project management, i.a. (Blumer et al., 2013), (Elkadi, 2013), (Kosztyn, 2015), (Zou et al., 2014). Research projects at universities represent very specific type of project, i.a. (Luglio et al., 2010), (Powers et al., 2009) therefore they require dedicated research.

In the analysed project the following activities were identified:

1. Preparing IT tools to support project realization.
2. Collecting contacts among stakeholders of research projects in Poland.
3. Collecting contacts among stakeholders of research projects in France.
4. Studying literature.
5. Conducting a survey among stakeholders of research projects in Poland.
6. Performing interviews with specific stakeholders of research projects in Poland.
7. Conducting a survey among stakeholders of research projects in France.
8. Performing interviews with specific stakeholders of research projects in France.
9. Organizing workshops with specific stakeholders of research projects in Poland.
10. Organizing workshops with specific stakeholders of research projects in France.
11. Preparing research results.

Network diagram (presented in Figure 4) explains the sequencing of activities that needs to be applied for the analysed project. In the diagram the red colour represents the project critical path.

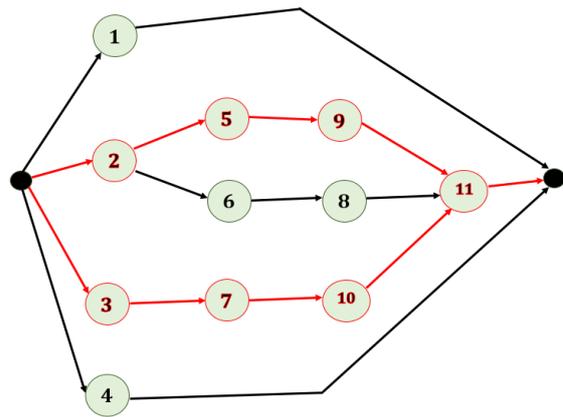


Figure 4: Project Network Diagram.

Gantt Chart for the analysed research project is shown in Figure 5. Meetings (M1-M4) with different stakeholders are also marked in this figure.

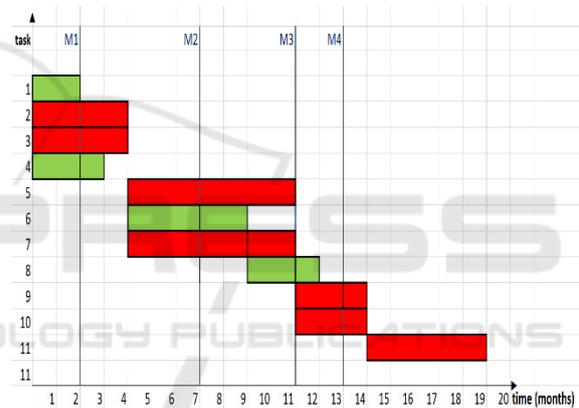


Figure 5: Initial Gantt Chart.

The first important meeting (M1) in our project takes place in the second month. This is a scientific seminar not only for the project team but also for other scientists from the university. At the seminar the concept of the project is presented. From the point of view of scientists participating in the seminar the important outcome of this meeting is building the common understanding of its idea that definitely must be supported by the analysis of the literature. That is why we can state that we should crash activity 4. In traditional project management approach activity 4 will never be crashed if its length is smaller than activity 2 or 3. But in this case we get a greater reward if we shorten activity 4. $B_4^1 = 500$ zl (all bounties are presented in Table 2) is the bounty rewarded for completing activity 4 before starting the meeting M1, specified by Project Manager. For scientists activity 4 is much more important than having a tool to manage our project (activity 1) or how many contacts

Table 2: Input data.

V	Pred.	D	C	D^C	C^C	B_i^1	B_i^2	B_i^3	B_i^4
0	\emptyset	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	{0}	2	2000	1	1000	0	0	0	0
2	{0}	4	500	1	200	0	0	0	0
3	{0}	4	500	1	200	0	0	0	0
4	{0}	3	500	1	200	500	0	0	0
5	{2}	7	5000	1	1500	0	0	0	0
6	{2}	5	2000	2	1000	0	2000	0	0
7	{3}	7	5000	1	1500	0	0	0	0
8	{6}	3	3000	1	1000	0	0	2000	0
9	{5}	3	6000	1	0	0	0	0	7000
10	{7}	3	10000	1	0	0	0	0	0
11	{9, 10}	5	7000	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	{11}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
W	MT								
1	2								
2	7								
3	11								
4	13								

among stakeholders of research projects we have (activities 2, 3). Moreover if scientists are properly understanding the subject of our project, they will better support our research by answering questions in interviews (activities 6, 8) or filling in survey questionnaires (activities 5, 7). Based on this example we can observe that in some cases it is worth crashing a shorter activity before the meeting, while leaving longer activity uncompleted after the meeting. Such decisions are specific for agile approach. In the example above, a completed activity 4 is shown to the stakeholders (scientists) while other activities, which are not important to the scientists, are not crashed even though they are cheaper to crash than activity 4.

The second meeting (M2) in our project takes place in the seventh month. After three months of performing activities 5, 7 the survey team expects the results from the interviews (activity 6) because they can help to determine the final version of the questionnaire for stakeholders in Poland and France.

Therefore the activity 6 should be shortened to 3 months. Project Manager defined that for completing activity 6 before starting M2 the rewarded bounty is $B_6^2 = 2000$ *zł*. Thanks to this operation of shortening activity 6, we not only get a reward in the form of better questionnaires but also the interview team is able to start immediately the next interview with French scientists (activity 8). As a consequence we are then allowed to finish activity 8 before the third

meeting (M3) in 11th month. This is a meeting with Rector of the Wroclaw University of Technology to report progress in our project and may give us another reward. Project Manager defined that for completing activity 8 before starting M3 the rewarded bounty is $B_8^3 = 2000$ *zł*. The fourth meeting (M4) in our project takes place in the thirteenth month when we have to report progress in our project to NCN (Narodowe Centrum Nauki – National Science Centre).

This is the example of crashing activities in series. Activity 9 cannot be performed until activity 5 is completed. In traditional approach crashing the project is done by crashing the cheapest-to-crash activity situated on the critical path. However, when 5 and 9 have comparable crashing costs, crashing 5 to meet the deadline is preferable, even when the crashing cost for 5 is slightly higher than the crashing cost for 9. Crashing early is important in time-constrained projects as it gives room for the possible last-minute crashing of final activities. That could not be done in the case when these activities are already crashed to their minimum length. In our case we crash activity 9 before the fourth meeting with National Science Centre because of the two reasons:

- activity 5 cannot be shortened any more,
- Project Manager defined that for completing activity 9 before starting meeting M4 the rewarded bounty is $B_9^4 = 7000$ *zł*. It is because of the fact that National Science Centre is more interested in the results of

Polish workshops than in results of surveys.

Table 2 presents input data to the model in the analysed case of research project. Based on the project documentation the dependencies between the activities, durations of activities (D) and their costs (C) were determined. Furthermore Project Manager defined: dates of meetings with specific stakeholder of the project (MT), maximum crashing durations for each activity (D^C), crashing cost per time unit for each activity (C^C) and bounties for completing specific activities before meetings planned with different stakeholders ($B_i^1, B_i^2, B_i^3, B_i^4$). In this case there were no budget limits in the span between meetings (M).

According to the data of the project described above, the following model can be built based on Eqs. (1), (3)-(7) in Section 3:

$$\text{Min cost} : \sum_{i=0}^{12} (C_i^c \cdot x_i - \sum_{j=1}^4 o_i^j \cdot B_i^j) \quad \text{s.t.}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{12} o_i^j \cdot C_i \leq M_j, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

$$x_i \leq D_i^c, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, 12$$

$$y_0 = 0 \text{ and } y_{12} \leq 20$$

$$y_j - y_i + x_i \geq D_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, 12, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

$$10000 \cdot o_i^j \geq MT_j - y_i, \quad i=0, 1, \dots, 12, j=1, 2, 3, 4$$

$$10000 \cdot (1 - o_i^j) \geq - (MT_j - y_i), \\ i=0, 1, \dots, 12, j=1, 2, 3, 4$$

Table 3 presents results obtained by solving the given model and Figure 6 shows the updated schedule, including the changes described above. In Figure 6 dashed stroke and light colour mean old tasks and continuous stroke and saturated colour mean updated tasks.

Table 3: Results.

V	x_i	y_i	o_i^1	o_i^2	o_i^3	o_i^4
0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	1	1
2	0	0	0	1	1	1
3	0	0	0	1	1	1
4	1	0	1	1	1	1
5	0	4	0	0	1	1
6	2	4	0	1	1	1
7	0	4	0	0	1	1
8	0	7	0	0	1	1
9	1	11	0	0	0	1
10	0	11	0	0	0	0
11	0	14	0	0	0	0
12	0	19	0	0	0	0

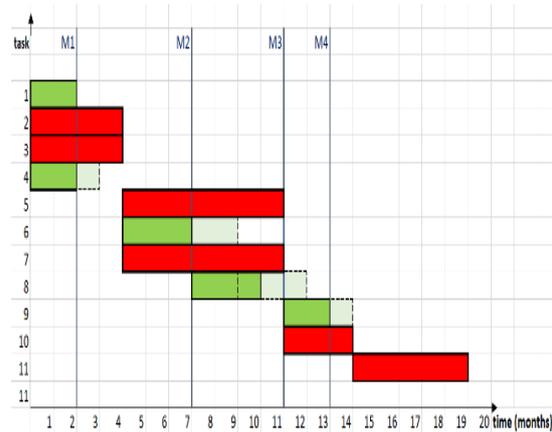


Figure 6: Uploaded Project Network Diagram.

We have seen in the analysed case that the model can render in a systematic manner decisions that make sense from the point of view of satisfying selected project stakeholders during the project realisation but are not the choice that would have been retained by a traditional crashing. This allows for better project planning in an environment where stakeholders stay present throughout project execution and may influence it and its perception. In the analysed case the proposed approach would positively influence the satisfaction of the following stakeholders:

1. Scientists – because of completing activity 4 before starting meeting M1.
2. The survey team – because of completing activity 6 before starting meeting M2.
3. Rector of the Wroclaw University of Technology – because of completing activity 8 before starting meeting M3.
4. National Science Centre – because of completing activity 9 before starting meeting M4.

The proposed model has also its weaknesses. The more input data we have, the more accurate model we get. This can cause problems for the projects where no input would be available. Our future work will focus on the dependencies between the input dataset size and the accuracy of the estimations. Another future work is to examine more complicated relationships between the parameters of our model (e.g. non linear relationships between crashing cost and crashing duration) as well as to investigate the accuracy of our model on projects of different sizes and number of available resources.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Recent years have shown a paradigm shift in project

management approaches. The most important change can be observed in the increasing role of client and other stakeholders in managing projects. Traditionally the client input was important only during planning phase and the acceptance. Nowadays client feedback is important all along the project execution. The changes can be particularly observed in the industries where this feedback can lead to better and more accurate products, such as software development. It is always worth combining both agile and traditional methods of project management. This article presents such an approach. The example from this article shows the project type where this combined approach leads to better results. The method presented in this article helps in managing projects in fast changing environments where the input of the client and stakeholders can shape the initial scope of the project, but where the customer satisfaction is maximized at each stage of project execution.

REFERENCES

- Abbasi, G. Y., Mukkatash, A. M., 2011. Crashing PERT networks using mathematical programming, *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 9.
- Al-Taani R. H., Razali R., 2013. Prioritizing Requirements in Agile Development: A Conceptual Framework, *Procedia Technology Vol. 11*.
- Al-Tmeemy S.H., Abdul-Rahman H., Harun Z., 2010. Future criteria of success of building projects in Malaysia, *International Journal of Project*.
- Alba E., Software project management with gas, 2007. *Information Sciences 177* (11).
- Blumer Y. B., Stauffacher M., Lang D. J., Hayashi K., Uchida S., 2013. Non-technical success factors for bioenergy projects-Learning from a multiple case study in Japan. *Energy Policy*.
- Brucker M. N. P., 1999. Resource-constrained project scheduling: Notation, classification, models, and methods, *European Journal of Operational Research 112* (1).
- Dohi S. O. T., Nishio Y., 1999. Optimal software release scheduling based on artificial neural networks, *Annals of Software Engineering*.
- Elkadi H., 2013. Success and failure factors for e-government projects: A case from Egypt. *Egyptian Informatics Journal*, 14(2).
- Freeman R. E, 1984. Strategic Management: a stakeholder approach, Pitman Series in *Business and Public Policy*, Harpercollins, College Div.
- Kosztyn Z. T., 2015. Exact algorithm for matrix-based project planning problems, *Expert Systems with Applications 42* (9).
- Luglio F., Bertazzoni N., 2010. Research management in higher education institutions: A process management experience in Italian Universities, CRIS 2010: Connecting Science with Society - The Role of Research Information in a Knowledge-Based Society - *10th International Conference on Current Research Information Systems*.
- Powers L.C., Kerr G., 2009. Project Management and Success in Academic Research. Realworld Systems.
- Spundak M., 2014. Mixed agile/traditional project management methodology reality or illusion?, *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, Vol. 119*.
- Wysocki R. K., 2014. Effective Project Management: Traditional, Agile, Extreme. Wiley.
- Zou W., Kumaraswamy M., Chung J., Wong J., 2014. Identifying the critical success factors for relationship management in PPP projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, 32(2).