

# SIZE AND EFFORT-BASED COMPUTATIONAL MODELS FOR SOFTWARE COST PREDICTION

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**Abstract:** Reliable and accurate software cost estimations have always been a challenge especially for people involved in project resource management. The challenge is amplified due to the high level of complexity and uniqueness of the software process. The majority of estimation methods proposed fail to produce successful cost forecasting and neither resolve to explicit, measurable and concise set of factors affecting productivity. Throughout the software cost estimation literature software size is usually proposed as one of the most important attributes affecting effort and is used to build cost models. This paper aspires to provide size and effort-based estimations for the required software effort of new projects based on data obtained from past completed projects. The modelling approach utilises Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) with a random sliding window input and output method using holdout samples and moreover, a Genetic Algorithm (GA) undertakes to evolve the inputs and internal hidden architectures and to reduce the Mean Relative Error (MRE). The obtained optimal ANN topologies and input and output methods for each dataset are presented, discussed and compared with a classic MLR model.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Accurate software development cost estimation has always been a major concern especially for people involved in project management, resource control and schedule planning. A good and reliable estimate could provide more efficient management over the whole software process and guide a project to success. The track record of IT projects shows that often a large number fails. Most IT experts agree that such failures occur more regularly than they should (Charette, 2005). According to the 10<sup>th</sup> edition of the annual CHAOS report from the Standish Group that studied over 40,000 projects in 10 years, success rates increased to 34% and failures declined to 15% of the projects. However, 51% of the projects overrun time, budget and/or lack critical features and requirements, while the average cost apparently overruns by 43% (Software Magazine, 2004). One of the main reasons for these figures is failure to estimate the actual effort required to develop a software project.

The problem is further amplified due to the high level of complexity and uniqueness of the software process. Estimating software costs, as well as choosing and assessing the associated cost drivers,

both remain difficult issues that are constantly at the forefront right from the initiation of a project and until the system is delivered. Cost estimates even for well-planned projects are hard to make and will probably concern project managers long before the problem is adequately solved.

Over the years software cost estimation has attracted considerable research attention and many techniques have been developed to effectively predict software costs. Nonetheless no single solution has yet been proposed to address the problem. Typically, the amount and complexity of the development effort proportionally drives software costs. However, as other factors, such as technology shifting, team and manager skills, quality, size etc., affect the development process it is even more difficult to assess the actual costs.

A commonly investigated approach is to accurately estimate some of the fundamental characteristics related to cost, such as effort, usually measured in person-months. However, it is preferred to measure a condensed set of attributes and then use them to estimate the actual effort. Software size is commonly recognised as one of the most important factors affecting the amount of effort required to complete a project according to Fenton and Pfleeger

(1997). It is considered a fairly unpromising metric to provide early estimates mainly because it is unknown until the project terminates. Nonetheless, many researchers investigate cost models using size to estimate effort (e.g., Wittig and Finnie; Dolado 2001) whereas others direct their efforts towards defining concise methods and measures to estimate software size from the early project phases (e.g., Park 2005; Albrecht 1979). The present work is related to the former, aspiring to provide size and effort-based estimations for the software effort required for a new project using data from past completed projects, even though they originate back from the 90's. The hypothesis is that once a robust relationship between size and effort is affirmed by means of a model, then this model may be used along with size estimations to predict effort of new projects more accurately. Thus, in this work we attempt to study the potentials of developing a software cost model using computational intelligence techniques relying only on size and effort data. The core of the model proposed consists of Artificial Neural Networks (ANN). The ANN's architecture is further optimised with the use of a Genetic Algorithm (GA), focused on evolving the number and type of inputs, as well as the internal hidden architecture to predict effort as precisely as possible. The inputs used to train and test the ANN are project size measurements (either Lines of Code (LOC) or Function Points (FP)), and the associated effort to predict the subsequent in series, unknown project effort. In addition, a Multi-Linear Regression (MLR) prediction model is presented as a benchmark to assess the performance of the model materialising estimations of the dependent variable (effort) with a classic method.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 presents a brief overview of relative research on size-based software cost estimation and especially focuses on machine learning techniques. Section 3 provides a description of the datasets and performance metrics used in the experiments following in Section 4. Section 4 includes the application of an ANN cost estimation model and describes an investigation of further improvements of the model proposing a hybrid algorithm to construct the optimal input and output method and architecture for the datasets. In addition, this section presents a comparison of the results to a classic MLR model. Section 5, concludes with the findings of this work, discusses a few limitations and suggests future research steps.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Several techniques have been investigated for software cost estimation, especially data-driven artificial intelligence techniques, such as neural networks, evolutionary computing, regression trees, rule-based induction etc. as they present several advantages over other, classic approaches like regression. Most of the studies performed investigate, among other issues, the identification and realisation of the most important factors that influence software costs. This section focuses on related work mainly of size-based cost estimation models.

To begin with, most size-based models consider either the number of lines written for a project (called lines of code (LOC) or thousands of lines of code (KLOC)) used in models such as COCOMO (Boehm et al., 1997), or the number of function points (FP) used in models such as Albrecht's Function Point Analysis (FPA) (Albrecht and Gaffney, 1983). Many research studies investigate the potential of developing software cost prediction systems using different approaches, datasets, factors, etc. Review articles like the ones of Briand and Wieczorek (2001), Jorgensen and Shepperd (2007), include a detailed description of such studies. We will attempt to highlight some of the most important relevant studies: in Wittig and Finnie (1997) effort estimation was assessed using backpropagation ANN on the Desharnais and ASMA datasets, mainly using system size to determine the latter's relationship with effort. The approach yielded promising prediction results indicating that the model required a more systematic development approach to establish the topology and parameter settings and obtain better results. In Dolado (2001) the cost estimation equation of the relationship between size and effort was investigated using Genetic Programming evolving tree structures, representing several classical equations, like the linear, power, quadratic, etc. The approach reached to moderately good levels of prediction accuracy results by using solely the size attribute and indicated that further improvements can be achieved.

In summary, the literature thus far, has showed many research attempts focusing on measuring effort and size as the key variables. In addition, many studies indicate ANN models as promising estimators, or that they perform at least as well as other approaches. Subsequently, we firstly aim to examine the potentials of ANNs in software cost modeling and secondly to investigate the possibility of providing further improvements for such a model. Our goal is to inspect: (i) whether a suitable ANN

model, in terms of input parameters, may be built; (ii) whether we can achieve sufficient estimates of software development effort using only size or function based metrics on different datasets of empirical cost samples; (iii) whether a hybrid computational model, which consists of a combination of ANN and GA, may contribute to devising the ideal ANN architecture and set of inputs that meet some evaluation criteria. Our strategy is to exploit the benefits of computational intelligence and provide a near to optimal effort predictor for impending new projects.

### 3 DATASETS AND PERFORMANCE METRICS

A variety of historical software cost data samples from various datasets containing empirical cost samples were employed to provide a strong comparative basis with results reported in other studies. Also, in this section, the performance metrics used to assess the ANN's precision accuracy are described.

#### 3.1 Datasets Description

The following datasets were chosen to test the approach describing historical project data: COCOMO'81 (COC'81), Kemerer'87 (KEM'87), a combination of COCOMO'81 and Kemerer'87 (COKEM'87), Albrecht and Gaffney'83 (ALGAF'83) and finally Desharnais'89 (DESH'89).

The COC'81 (Boehm, 1981) dataset contains information about 63 software projects from different applications. Each project is described by the following 17 cost attributes: reliability, database size, complexity, required reusability, documentation, execution time constraint, main storage constraint, platform volatility, analyst capability, programmer capability, applications experience, platform experience, language & tool experience, personnel continuity, use of software tools, multi-site development and required schedule.

The second dataset, named KEM'87 (Kemerer, 1987) contains 15 software project records gathered by a single organisation in the USA which constitute business applications written mainly in COBOL. The attributes of the dataset are: the actual project's effort measured in man-months, the duration, the KLOC, the unadjusted and the adjusted FP's count. Also, a combination of the two previous datasets was created, namely COKEM'87, to experiment with a larger but more heterogeneous dataset.

The third dataset ALGAF'83 (Albrecht and Gaffney, 1983) contains information about 24 projects developed by the IBM DP service organisation. The datasets' characteristics correspond to the actual project effort, the KLOC, the number of inputs, the number of outputs, the number of master files, the number of inquiries and the FP's count.

The fourth dataset, DESH'89 (Desharnais, 1989), includes observations for more than 80 systems developed by a Canadian Software Development House at the end of 1980. The basic characteristics of the dataset account for the following: the project name, the development effort measured in hours, the team's experience and the project manager's experience measured in years, the number of transactions processed, the number of entities, the unadjusted and adjusted FP, the development environment and the year of completion.

From the datasets the project size and effort were chosen because they were the common attributes existing in all datasets and furthermore, they are the main factors reported in literature to affect the most productivity and cost (Sommerville, 2007).

#### 3.2 Performance Metrics

The performance of the predictions was evaluated using a combination of three common error metrics, namely the *Mean Relative Error (MRE)*, the *Correlation Coefficient (CC)* and the *Normalized Root Mean Squared Error (NRMSE)* together with a devised Sign prediction (*Sign*) metric. These error metrics were employed to validate the model's forecasting ability considering the difference between the actual and the predicted cost samples and their ascendant or descendant progression in relation to the actual values.

The *MRE*, given in equation (1), shows the prediction error focusing on the sample being predicted.  $x_{act}(i)$  is the actual effort and  $x_{pred}(i)$  the predicted effort of the  $i^{th}$  project.

$$MRE(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{x_{act}(i) - x_{pred}(i)}{x_{act}(i)} \right| \quad (1)$$

The *CC* between the actual and predicted series, described by equation (2), measures the ability of the predicted samples to follow the upwards or downwards of the original series as it evolves in the sample prediction sequence. An absolute *CC* value equal or near 1 is interpreted as a perfect follow up of the original series by the forecasted one. A negative *CC* sign indicates that the forecasting series

follows the same direction of the original with negative mirroring, that is, with a rotation about the time-axis.

$$CC(n) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [(x_{act}(i) - \bar{x}_{act,n}) - (x_{pred}(i) - \bar{x}_{pred,n})]}{\sqrt{\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{act}(i) - \bar{x}_{act,n})^2 \right] \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{pred}(i) - \bar{x}_{pred,n})^2 \right]}} \quad (2)$$

The *NRMSE* assesses the quality of predictions and is calculated using the *Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)* as follows:

$$RMSE(n) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [x_{pred}(i) - x_{act}(i)]^2} \quad (3)$$

$$NRMSE(n) = \frac{RMSE(n)}{\sigma_{\Delta}} = \frac{RMSE(n)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [x_{act}(i) - \bar{x}_n]^2}} \quad (4)$$

If  $NRMSE=0$  then predictions are perfect; if  $NRMSE=1$  the prediction is no better than taking  $x_{pred}$  equal to the mean value of  $n$  samples.

The *Sign Predictor (Sign(p))* metric assesses if there is a positive or a negative transition of the actual and predicted effort trace in the projects used only during the evaluation of the models on unknown test data. With this measure we are not interested in the exact values, but only if the tendency of the previous to the next value is similar; meaning if the actual effort value rises and if the predicted value rises too in relation to their previous value, then the tendency is identical. This is expressed in equations (5) and (6).

$$Sign(p) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i}{n} \quad (5)$$

$$where \ z_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } ((x_{t+1}^{pred} - x_t^{pred}) * (x_{t+1}^{act} - x_t^{act})) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

## 4 EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH

In this section we provide the detailed experimental approach and the results yielded by the models developed: (i) An ANN approach, with varying input and output method (a random timestamp was given to the data samples which were inputted using a sliding-window technique); (ii) A Hybrid model, coupling ANN with a GA to reach to a near to optimal input output method and internal architecture; (iii) A classic MLR model, which will then be used for later comparisons.

### 4.1 An ANN-Model Approach

The following section presents the ANN model which investigates the relationship between software size (expressed in LOC or FP) and effort, by conducting a series of experiments. We are concerned with inspecting the predictive ability of the ANN according to the architecture utilised and the input output method (volume and chronological order of the data fed to the model) per dataset used.

#### 4.1.1 Model Description

The core architecture of the ANN was a feedforward MLP (Figure 1) linking each input neuron with three hidden layers, consisting of parallel slabs activated by a different function (i.e.,  $i-h_1-h_2-h_3-o$ , where  $i$  is the input vector  $h_1, h_2, h_3$  are the internal hidden layers and  $o$  is the output). Variations of this architecture were employed regarding the number of inputs and the number of neurons in the internal hidden layers, whereas the difference between the actual and the predicted effort is manifested at the output layer (forecasting deviation).

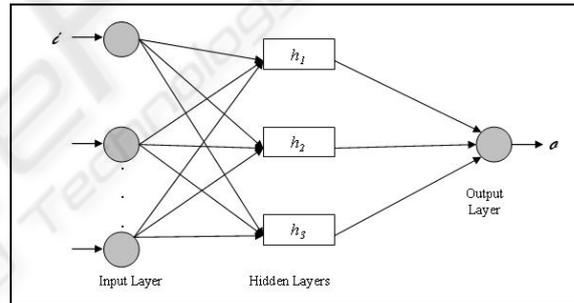


Figure 1: A Feed-forward MLP Neural Network.

Firstly, the ANN were trained in a supervised manner, using the backpropagation algorithm. Also, we utilised a technique to filter the data and reserve holdout samples, namely training, validation and testing subsets. The extraction was made randomly using 70% of the data samples for training, 20% for validation and 10% for testing. With backpropagation the inputs propagate through the ANN resulting in an output according to the initial weights. The predicting behaviour of the ANN is characterised by the difference among the predicted and the desired output. Then, the difference is propagated in a backward manner adjusting the necessary weights of the internal neurons, so that the predicted value is moved closer to the actual one in the subsequent iteration. The training set is utilised during the learning process, the validation set is used to ensure that no overfitting occurs in the final result

and that the network is able to generalise the knowledge gained. The testing set is an independent dataset, i.e., does not participate during the learning process and measures how well the network performs with unknown data. During training the inputs are presented to the network in patterns (inputs/output) and corrections are made on the weights of the network according to the overall error in the output and the contribution of each node to this error.

#### 4.1.2 Results

The experiments conducted constituted an empirical investigation mainly regarding the number of inputs and internal neurons forming the layers of the ANN. In these experiments several ANN parameters were kept constant as some preliminary experiments previously conducted implied that varying the type of the activation function in each layer had no significant effect on the forecasting quality. More specifically, we employed the following functions: for  $i$  the linear  $[-1,1]$ ,  $h_1$  the Gaussian,  $h_2$  the tanh,  $h_3$  the Gaussian complement and for  $o$  the logistic function. Also, the learning rate, the momentum, the initial weights and the amount of iterations were set to 0.1, 0.1, 0.3 and 10,000 respectively.

In addition, the randomly generated subsets were given a specific chronological order ( $t_i$ ) and for each repetition of the procedure a sliding window technique was used to extract an input vector and supply it to the ANN model. The window-sliding size  $i$  varied, with  $i=1...5$ . Practically, this is expressed in Table 1, covering the following Input Output Methods (IOM):

- (1-2) using the lines of code or the function points of  $i$  projects we estimate the effort of the  $i$ -th project;
- (3-4) using lines of code or function points with effort of the  $i$ -th project we estimate the effort required for the next project ( $i+1$ )-th in the series sequence;
- (5-6) using lines of code or function points of the  $i$ -th and ( $i+1$ )-th projects and effort of the  $i$ -th project we estimate the effort required for the ( $i+1$ )-th project.

Each input method may vary the number of past samples per variable from 1 to 5 ( $i$  index).

Table 1: Sliding window technique to determine the ANN input and output data supply method. (\*where  $i=1...5$ ).

Input Output Method	Inputs*	Output*
IOM-1	LOC( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_i$ )
IOM-2	FP( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_i$ )
IOM-3	LOC( $t_i$ ), EFF( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_{i+1}$ )
IOM-4	FP( $t_i$ ), EFF( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_{i+1}$ )
IOM-5	LOC( $t_i$ ), LOC( $t_{i+1}$ ), EFF( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_{i+1}$ )
IOM-6	FP( $t_i$ ), FP( $t_{i+1}$ ), EFF( $t_i$ )	EFF( $t_{i+1}$ )

The best results obtained utilising the ANN model and various datasets are summarised in Table 2. The first column refers to the dataset used, the second column to the input and output method (IOM) with which  $i$  data inputs are fed to the model, the third column refers to the ANN topology and the rest of the columns refer to the error metrics during the training and testing phase. The last two columns indicate the number of predicted projects that have the same sign tendency, in the sequence of the effort samples and the total percentage of the successful tendencies during testing. The figures in Table 2 show that an ANN model deploying a mixture of architectures and input, output methods yields various accuracy levels. More specifically, the DESH'89 dataset achieves high prediction accuracy, with lowest *MRE* equal to 0.05 and *CC* equal to 1.0. The KEM'87 dataset also performs adequately well with relatively low error figures. The worst prediction performance is obtained with ALGAF'83 and COKEM'87 datasets. These failures may be attributed to too few projects involved in the prediction in the first case, and to the creation of a heterogeneous dataset in the latter case. Finally, as the results suggest, the COC'81 and KEM'87 datasets achieve adequately fit predictions and thus, we may claim that the method is able to approximate the actual development cost. Another observation is that the majority of the best yielded results employ a large number of internal neurons. Therefore, further investigation is needed with respect to different ANN topologies and IOM for the various datasets. To this end we resorted to using a hybrid scheme, combining ANN with GA, the latter attempting to evolve the near to optimal network topology and input/output schema that yields accurate predictions and has reasonably small size (i.e., number of neurons) so as to avoid overfitting.

## 4.2 A Hybrid Model Approach

The rationale behind this attempt was that the performance of ANN highly depends on the size, structure and connectivity of the network and results

Table 2: Best Experimental Results obtained with the ANN-model.

DATASET	INPUT OUTPUT METHOD	ANN ARCHITECTURE	TRAINING PHASE			TESTING PHASE			Sign(p)	Sign(p) %
			MRE	CC	NRMSE	MRE	CC	NRMSE		
COC'81	IOM-5	3-15-15-15-1	0.929	0.709	0.716	0.551	0.407	0.952	5/10	50.00
COC'81	IOM-1	2-9-9-9-1	0.871	0.696	0.718	0.525	0.447	0.963	7/12	58.33
KEM'87	IOM-1	1-15-15-15-1	0.494	0.759	0.774	0.256	0.878	0.830	2/3	66.67
KEM'87	IOM-5	5-20-20-20-1	0.759	0.939	0.384	0.232	0.988	0.503	2/2	100.00
COKEM'87	IOM-3	8-20-20-20-1	5.038	0.626	0.781	0.951	0.432	0.948	3/8	37.50
COKEM'87	IOM-3	4-3-3-3-1	5.052	0.610	0.796	0.768	0.257	1.177	4/8	50.00
ALGAF'83	IOM-6	5-3-3-3-1	0.371	0.873	0.527	1.142	0.817	0.649	3/4	75.00
ALGAF'83	IOM-2	2-20-20-20-1	0.335	0.975	0.231	1.640	0.936	0.415	2/4	50.00
DESH'89	IOM-4	4-9-9-9-1	0.298	0.935	0.355	0.481	0.970	0.247	17/20	85.00
DESH'89	IOM-4	6-9-9-9-1	0.031	0.999	0.042	0.051	1.000	0.032	20/20	100.00

may be further improved if the right parameters are found. Therefore, we applied a GA to investigate whether we can find the ideal network settings by means of a cycle of generations including candidate solutions that are pruned by the criterion 'survival of the fittest', meaning the best performing ANN.

#### 4.2.1 Model Description

The first task for producing the hybrid model was to determine a type of encoding so as to express the potential solutions (binary string representing the ANN architecture, including inputs). The space of all feasible solutions (the set of solutions among which the desired solution resides) was called the search space. Each point in the search space represents one possible solution. Each possible solution was "marked" by its fitness value, which in our case was expressed in equation (7), minimizing both the *MRE* and the size of the network.

$$fitness = \frac{1}{1 + MRE + size} \quad (7)$$

The GA looks for the best solution among a number of possible solutions represented by one point in the search space. Searching for a solution is then equal to looking for some extreme value (minimum or maximum) in the search space. The GA developed included three types of operators: selection (roulette wheel), crossover (with rate equal to 0.25) and mutation (with rate equal to 0.01). Selection chooses members from the population of chromosomes proportionally to their fitness; and also elitism was used to ensure that the best member of each population was always selected for the new population. Crossover adapts the genotype of two parents by exchanging parts of them and creates a new chromosome with a new genotype. Crossover was performed by selecting a random gene along the length of the chromosomes and swapping all the genes after that point. Finally, the mutation operator

simply changes a specific gene of a selected individual in order to create a new chromosome with a different genotype.

#### 4.2.2 Results

This section presents and discusses the results obtained using the Hybrid model on the various available datasets. The best ANN architectures yielded are displayed in the third column of Table 3 with the various error figures obtained both during the training and the testing phase.

The main observation is that for some of the datasets the hybrid model optimised the ANN prediction accuracy (i.e., ALGAF'83), whereas for other datasets it performs adequately well in terms of generalisation (i.e., DESH'89). More specifically, the experiments show that the *MRE* is significantly lowered during testing in almost all the datasets, with KEM'87 being the only exception. The *CC* improves or remains at the same levels in most of the cases, whereas *NRMSE* deteriorates. The error figures show that in most of the cases the yielded architectures are consistent in that they improve the respective estimations, even though the training phase errors suggest that the ANN's learning ability is reduced. Another observation is that we cannot suggest with confidence that this approach universally improves the performance levels as the yielded results are not consistent among the datasets, even though the hybrid models manage to generalise. It seems that while in some cases the ANNs presented high learning success (e.g., DESH'89, ALGAF'83, KEM'87) in other cases learning was quite poor (e.g., COC'81) as indicated in the training phases. The results indicate that the approach may be further improved, so that to improve the learning ability of the ANNs and obtain even better predictions.

Table 3: Hybrid model (coupling ANN and GA) results.

DATASET	INPUT OUTPUT METHOD	YIELDED ANN ARCHITECTURE	TRAINING PHASE			TESTING PHASE		
			MRE	CC	NRMSE	MRE	CC	NRMSE
COC'81	IOM-1	3-25-2-9-1	4.290	0.801	0.595	0.431	0.838	0.549
COC'81	IOM-3	2-16-21-18-1	6.356	0.736	0.668	1.967	0.942	0.556
COC'81	IOM-5	7-0-9-14-1	7.086	0.995	0.095	0.981	0.708	0.725
KEM'87	IOM-1	2-20-14-2-1	6.6445E-005	1.000	1.8165E-005	0.572	-0.552	1.521
KEM'87	IOM-3	2-11-4-5-1	4.5565E-006	1.000	1.735E-006	0.474	-0.500	1.593
KEM'87	IOM-5	5-6-19-6-1	3.4593E-006	1.000	7.0407E-007	0.572	-0.551	1.521
ALGAF'83	IOM-2	6-20-6-11-1	8.4427E-006	1.000	1.3176E-005	0.083	0.141	1.109
ALGAF'83	IOM-4	6-3-7-3-1	0.004	1.000	0.004	0.113	0.061	1.075
ALGAF'83	IOM-6	1-0-2-5-1	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.083	0.141	1.109
DESH'89	IOM-2	3-28-12-14-1	1.332	0.651	0.776	0.047	0.663	0.777
DESH'89	IOM-4	2-17-5-25-1	0.657	0.872	0.486	0.042	0.782	0.717
DESH'89	IOM-6	3-2-26-3-1	0.914	0.657	0.747	0.124	0.374	0.890

### 4.3 Comparison to a Classic Regression-based Approach

In this section we present the results obtained from a simple Multi-Linear Regression (MLR) model so as to provide some comparative assessment of the models proposed thus far. The MLR model will assess how well the regression line approximates the real effort and it is built with the leave-one-out sampling testing technique. The assumption for this model is that the dependent variable (effort) is linearly related with the independent variable(s) (size and/or next effort).

#### 4.3.1 Model Description

The MLR model is built by employing the yielded  $b$  coefficients from each of the IOM specified earlier with the leave-one-out technique, both during training and testing. According to equation (8) the model produces the slope of a line that best fits the data and then, during the testing phase we estimate the value of the dependent variable using the sliding-window. We assessed the values of the predicted and actual effort calculated from the coefficients influencing the independent variables of size and effort in the regression equation with the performance metrics.

$$y = b_0 + b_1 \cdot x_1 + \dots + b_n \cdot x_n + e \quad (8)$$

#### 4.3.2 Results

The MLR approach was tested only on the largest datasets, namely COC'81 and DESH'89 which yielded the best predictions with the ANN and thus a comparison to the ANN models will become feasible. The results of the MLR indicate average performance for both datasets with precision accuracy lower than the accuracy of both the

approaches proposed in this work (simple and hybrid ANN). With the COC'81 dataset the yielded results were  $MRE$  3.017,  $CC$  0.647 and  $NRMSE$  0.798 for the training, and 10.097, 0.011 and 3.029 for the testing phase. With the DESH'89 dataset  $MRE$  was equal to 1.035,  $CC$  0.093,  $NRMSE$  0.985 during training and 1.57, 0.112 and 1.032 respectively during testing. The main problem of the MLR method yielding mediocre results may be attributed mainly to the method's dependence on the distribution and normality of the data points used and its inability to approximate unknown functions, as opposed to the ability demonstrated by the ANN and GA.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

In the present work we attempted to study the potentials of developing a software cost model using computational intelligence techniques relying only on size and effort project data. The core of the model proposed consists of Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) trained and tested using project size metrics (Lines of Code, or, Function Points) and Effort, aiming to predict the next project effort in the series sequence as accurately as possible. Separate training and testing subsets were used and serial sampling with a sliding window propagated through the data to extract the projects fed to the models. Commonly, it is recognized that the yielded performance of an ANN model mainly depends on the architecture and parameter settings, and usually empirical rules are used to determine these settings. The problem was thus reduced to finding the ideal ANN architecture for formulating a reliable prediction model. The first experimental results indicated mediocre to high prediction success according to the dataset used. In addition, it became evident that there was need for

more extensive exploration of solutions in the search space of various topologies and input methods as the results obtained by the simple ANN model did not converge to a general solution. Therefore, in order to select a more suitable ANN architecture, we resorted to using Evolutionary Algorithms. More specifically, a Hybrid model was introduced consisting of ANN and Genetic Algorithms (GA). The latter evolved a population of networks to select the optimal architecture and inputs that provided the most accurate software cost predictions. In addition, a classic MLR model was utilised as benchmark so as to perform comparison of the results.

Although the results of this work are at a preliminary stage it became evident that the ANN approach combined with a GA yields better estimates than the MLR model and that the technique is very promising. The main limitation of this method, as well as any other size-based approach, is that size estimates must be known in advance to provide accurate enough effort estimations, and, in addition, there is a large discrepancy between the actual and estimated size, especially when the estimation is made in the early project phases. Finally, the lack of a satisfactory volume of homogeneous data as well as of definition and measurement rules for size units such as LOC and FP result in uncertainty to the estimation process. The software size is also affected by other factors that are not investigated by the models, such as programming language and platform, and in this work we emphasised only on coding effort which accounts for only a percentage of the total effort in software development. Another important limitation with the technologies used is that the ANNs are considered “black boxes” and the GA requires extensive space search which is very time-consuming. Therefore, future research steps will concentrate on ways to improve performance; examples of which may be: (i) study of other factors affecting development effort and their interdependencies, (ii) further adjustment of the ANN and GA parameter settings, such as modification of the fitness function, (iii) improvement of the efficiency of the algorithms by testing more homogeneous or clustered data and, (iv) improvement of the quality of the data and use more recent datasets to achieve better convergence.

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