

# Using Simulation for Understanding and Reproducing Distributed Software Development Processes in the Cloud

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# Using Simulation for Understanding and Reproducing Distributed Software Development Processes in the Cloud

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## Abstract

**Context:** Organizations increasingly develop software in a distributed manner. The Cloud provides an environment to create and maintain software-based products and services. Currently, it is unknown which software processes are suited for Cloud-based development and what their effects in specific contexts are.

**Objective:** We aim at better understanding the software process applied to distributed software development using the Cloud as development environment. We further aim at providing an instrument, which helps project managers comparing different solution approaches and to adapt team processes to improve future project activities and outcomes.

**Method:** We provide a simulation model, which helps analyzing different project parameters and their impact on projects performed in the Cloud. To evaluate the simulation model, we conduct different analyses using a Scrum process and data from a project executed in Finland and Spain. An extra adaptation of the simulation model for Scrum and Kanban was used to evaluate the suitability of the simulation model to cover further process models.

**Results:** A comparison of the real project data with the results obtained from the different simulation runs shows the simulation producing results close to the real data, and we could successfully replicate a distributed software project. Furthermore, we could show that the simulation model is suitable to address further process models.

**Conclusion:** The simulator helps reproducing activities, developers, and events in the project, and it helps analyzing potential tradeoffs, e.g., regarding throughput, total time, project size, team size and work-in-progress limits. Furthermore, the simulation model supports project managers selecting the most suitable planning alternative thus supporting decision-making processes.

*Keywords:* Scrum, Kanban, Process Simulation, Comparison.

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## 1. Introduction

Being able to collaborate effectively has become a crucial factor in software development and maintenance. Organizations increasingly develop software in a distributed manner by appointing external developers and development teams, who collaboratively work at different sites utilizing a multitude of communication tools (Bird et al., 2009; Portillo-Rodríguez et al., 2012). Literature shows distributed software

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6 development being challenged by many factors, e.g., distance in language, culture, time and location, coordi-  
7 nation of distributed (virtual) teams, and lack of trust among developers (Sengupta et al., 2006; Herbsleb  
8 and Mockus, 2003). Notably agile software development constitutes a challenge, as agile software devel-  
9 opment relies on a set of principles and values that put the people and close collaboration and interaction in  
10 the spotlight. It is crucial to understand how agile methods “behave” in distributed software development  
11 as adapting and deploying an agile method to a project spanning several sites bears some risk (Lous et al.,  
12 2017).

13 A simulation-based approach grounded in statistical data from previous projects can help analyzing  
14 risks and evaluating different process variants (Kellner et al., 1999; Wakeland et al., 2004), but also helps  
15 evaluating decisions and potential effects on a project (Armbrust et al., 2005). Moreover, a process sim-  
16 ulation offers insights faster than a full case study (Fagerholm et al., 2017, pp. 11–13). In particular, a  
17 *simulation model* can be modified and the results quickly provide indication whether or not modified pa-  
18 rameters affect a project and how—so-called “what-if” analyses (Zhang et al., 2008). For example, while  
19 it is hard to modify the team in a “real” project, in a simulation, modifying the *team size* parameter helps  
20 analyzing the impact, e.g., on work-in-progress (WIP), lead/cycle time, and team productivity. Further-  
21 more, a simulation model provides flexibility to allow for configuring different process models, running  
22 simulations on a shared dataset, and to compare and study aspects of interest of different process models.  
23 For instance, project managers interested in minimizing cycle times can use a simulation to compare the be-  
24 havior of Scrum- and Kanban-based processes to pick the process variant promising the best performance.  
25 In this regard, a simulation can be utilized to modify parameters, find relations between parameters, and  
26 study complex processes over time. According to Kellner et al. (1999) and Armbrust et al. (2005), a sim-  
27 ulation used this way can help reproducing a real system, compare variants, identify bottlenecks, and so  
28 forth. Hence, a process simulation is a tool to help project managers analyzing different actions, evaluating  
29 impact, and eventually selecting those actions best fitting a particular situation (Lunesu et al., 2017).

30 *Problem Statement.* Even though globally distributed software development (also called Global Software  
31 Development; GSD, or *Global Software Engineering; GSE*) is around for years, still, practitioners struggle  
32 with effectively adapting agile methods (Lous et al., 2017). In this context, the *Cloud* provides a highly  
33 flexible environment offering a variety of services. However, little is known which processes are used for  
34 distributed development using the *Cloud as software development environment*, how these processes are  
35 used and customized, and how they might differ from other approaches.

36 *Objective.* Our overall objective is to better understand the software process applied in GSE settings, no-  
37 tably settings using the Cloud as development environment. Based on real project data<sup>1</sup>, a simulation-based  
38 approach was chosen to improve the understanding of such processes and to support project managers to  
39 select and tailor software processes for Cloud-based distributed software development. Hence, an objective  
40 of the presented work is also to show feasibility/reliability of using simulation models, e.g., for projects in  
41 the *Software Factory* environment. Finally, we aim at providing an instrument, which helps project man-  
42 agers comparing different solution approaches and to adapt current team processes to improve future project  
43 activities and outcomes.

44 *Contribution.* An event-driven simulator (Anderson et al., 2012) was configured using a Scrumban process  
45 with the number of user stories and their effort and priority in the backlog as input. The simulator helps

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<sup>1</sup>For seven weeks, six developers in Finland and six in Spain, located at three sites (two in Spain and one in Finland) worked on a project developing a SmartGrid system. See Section 4.1 for further details.

46 reproducing activities, developers, user stories and events in the project, and it generates statistics, e.g., on  
47 throughput, total time, and lead and cycle time. The resulting simulation model can be customized to sim-  
48 ulate different processes. Specifically, in addition to the Scrum process, we also modeled “pure” Scrum  
49 and Kanban processes to allow for comparing the different processes with regard to project performance  
50 thus supporting project managers in selecting the best-fitting development approach for a specific scenario.

51 *Outline.* The remainder of the article is organized as follows: Section 2 provides an overview of related  
52 work. In Section 3, we describe the research design including research questions, simulation variables,  
53 and the specification and implementation of the simulation model. Section 4 presents the results from the  
54 different simulations. We conclude this article in Section 5.

## 55 2. Related Work

56 *Software Processes and GSE.* Globally distributed software development has become commodity, and it  
57 was showcased that distributed teams and even outsourced teams can be as productive as small collocated  
58 teams (Sutherland et al., 2007), which, however, requires a full implementation of Scrum along with good  
59 engineering practices. Paasivaara et al. (2009) state that agile methods can provide a competitive advantage  
60 by delivering early, simplifying communication and allowing the business to respond more quickly to the  
61 market by changing the software. To support this claim, authors present a multi-case study on the appli-  
62 cation of Scrum practices to three globally distributed projects discussing challenges and benefits. In this  
63 regard, Phalnikar et al. (2009) propose two team structures for implementing Scrum in a distributed setting.  
64 However, deploying agile methods to a GSE-setting is challenging for several reasons, such as demand-  
65 ing communication in a distributed setup, challenges related to coordination, and collaboration (Alzoubi  
66 et al., 2016; Vallon et al., 2017; Lous et al., 2017), and there is yet no agreement on generalizable solution  
67 approaches. For instance, while Vallon et al. (2017) discuss how agile practices can help improving or  
68 resolving such issues and found Scrum the most promising/successful development approach, Lous et al.  
69 (2017) found GSE challenging Scrum, especially when it comes to scaling the process in the context of  
70 (large) distributed settings. Wang et al. (2012) state that using agile methods helps mitigating challenges  
71 in co-located as well as in distributed teams, e.g., responding to fast-paced changes that occur in software  
72 projects. All the factors above influence the way in which software is defined, built, tested, and delivered.  
73 Ramesh et al. (2006) discuss how to integrate and balance agile and distributed development approaches to  
74 address such typical challenges in distributed development.

75 Complementing the “pure” agile approaches, *Lean* approaches have gained significance in the software  
76 industry, and they are used in co-located and distributed settings alike. Such approaches focus on eliminating  
77 waste, e.g., (Mujtaba et al., 2010), yet, these approaches are still under study, notably with regards to the  
78 question if and how these approaches help mitigating the various challenges in GSE. For instance, Tanner  
79 and Dauane (2017) study Kanban and highlight those elements that can help alleviating communication and  
80 collaboration issues in GSE. Kanban is a development approach, which applies Lean principles (Ahmad  
81 et al., 2013; Ikonen et al., 2011; Ahmad et al., 2016) and is becoming increasingly popular as an effective  
82 extension of Scrum and other agile methods. However, even though Kanban’s popularity is increasing,  
83 many questions regarding its adoption in software development remain open. Practitioners face serious  
84 challenges while implementing Kanban, since clear definitions of its practices, principles, techniques, and  
85 tools are missing. In response, distributed teams use a plethora of specific tools to facilitate collaborative  
86 work Portillo-Rodríguez et al. (2012). However, different studies suggest the projects’ processes being  
87 selected in a pragmatic rather than in a systematic manner (Vijayasathy and Butler, 2016; Theocharis  
88 et al., 2015; Kuhrmann et al., 2017), and studies also suggest agile methods stepping into the background

89 when it comes to define proper tool support (Femmer et al., 2014). On the other hand, GSE is a discipline  
90 that is maturing, as for instance Šmite et al. (2010) show in their discussion of available empirical evidence  
91 in the field or Ebert et al. (2016) who discuss the impact of GSE-related research to industry. That is, there  
92 is a variety of software processes and support tools used in practice. Such combinations are usually made  
93 in response to the respective project context (Kuhrmann et al., 2017), which gives project managers a hard  
94 time picking the most efficient process-tool combination for a project.

95 *Software Process Simulation.* Software Process Modeling Simulation (SPMS) is presented as a promising  
96 approach suitable to address various kinds of issues in software engineering (Kellner et al., 1999). Martin  
97 and Raffo (2001) present the simulation of a practically used software processes with the purpose of evalu-  
98 ating a potential process change to mitigate risks coming along with process change. Their model simulates  
99 discrete activities within the context of an environment described by a system dynamics model. A system-  
100 atic review by Zhang et al. (2008) showed that especially risk management is one of the key objectives of  
101 SPMS. Liu et al. (2009) conducted a systematic review on risk management and SPMS concluding that the  
102 number of studies has been increasing gradually and that *discrete-event simulation* and *system dynamics* are  
103 the most popular simulation paradigms. For instance, examples for discrete-event simulations of agile prac-  
104 tices are presented by (Melis et al., 2006; Turnu et al., 2006). Cao et al. (2010) present an approach based on  
105 system dynamics to study the complex interdependencies among the practices used in agile development.  
106 However, discrete-event models have to be considered critical as they use simple building blocks and tend to  
107 be fairly basic, and such models face problems concerning the discretization of time and insufficient detail  
108 of parameters and variables. An analysis of the dynamic behavior of a Scrum and Kanban variant has been  
109 conducted by Cocco et al. (2011). Turner et al. (2012) simulate the process performance of shared systems  
110 engineering services. They developed a specific Kanban-based process to support software development in  
111 rapid response environments, simulated this process using three modeling approaches (system dynamics,  
112 discrete events, and agents), and compared it to a simulated traditional process to determine if there were  
113 gains in effectiveness and value over time. Their overall goal was to study whether organizing projects as a  
114 Kanban-based scheduling system (KSS) leads to a better project performance. Tregubov and Lane (2015)  
115 presented a simulation model designed to explore effects of using KSS in multilevel systems. Their model  
116 implements a discrete-event simulation of the software-intensive system engineering processes for the pur-  
117 pose of estimating how KSS-scheduling can achieve predicted benefits, i.e., delivered value over time and  
118 schedule. Other than in the predictive simulation approach, Ali et al. (2015) use simulation as a tool to  
119 support reflections and discussions. They found simulations substantially contributing in identifying oppor-  
120 tunities, e.g., reduction of idle times and improvement of the workflow in a process. Simulation was found  
121 beneficial in reasoning about and selection of alternative practices to steer process improvements. Finally,  
122 the suitability of software process simulation and an agenda for advancing reciprocity among research and  
123 industrial practice is presented by Houston (2012), who also shows the hurdles coming along with process  
124 simulation.

125 *Software Process Simulation and GSE.* Globally distributed projects that are conducted in an agile way  
126 can be characterized as human-intensive endeavors, yet, simulating humans and their behavior is difficult.  
127 However, empirically proven models for simulating complex behaviors exist, e.g., in the field of psychology.  
128 While modeling of human behavior is not in the scope of the presented work (and this should be considered  
129 when using the models), Armbrust et al. (2005) provide a discussion on human resource modeling in soft-  
130 ware development. Nevertheless, using process simulation for distributed projects is considered a promising  
131 route towards prediction and fast evaluation of process change, as several aspects can be analyzed quickly  
132 and without utilizing long-lasting thus expensive case studies or limited student lab experiments (Fager-

133 [holm et al., 2017](#)). Although contributing to the body of knowledge, case studies describe context-specific  
134 approaches and, therefore, transferring the outcomes to another context usually requires setting up a new  
135 case study. A process simulation as presented in this article helps improving decision-making processes by  
136 constructing a parameterized simulation model, which allows for modeling the intended process (or a set of  
137 alternatives), feeding the simulation with (empirical) data from past projects, calibrate the simulation, and  
138 eventually conclude a feasible solution; a procedure that was, so far, successfully applied to other fields,  
139 e.g., risk management in distributed projects as presented by [Lamersdorf et al. \(2012\)](#).

140 The work presented in this article emerges from the various difficulties regarding the use of simulation  
141 models to reproduce real case studies from China and India ([Concas et al., 2013](#); [Anderson et al., 2012,](#)  
142 [2011](#); [Lunesu, 2013](#)). This article thus contributes to the body of knowledge by presenting a simulation-  
143 based approach that can help reflecting on past projects and selecting and evaluating process alternatives to  
144 improve the GSE development approach.

145 *Cloud-based Development and GSE.* So far, in literature, few reports on using process simulation of agile  
146 methods in GSE using the Cloud as major development environment are available. Due to its *economies*  
147 *of scale*, Cloud computing has become the norm for consuming computing resources. While the potential  
148 for using the Cloud for GSE has been investigated in the literature, [Alajrami et al. \(2016\)](#) go one step fur-  
149 ther and propose a Cloud-based software process enactment architecture which utilizes the Cloud elasticity,  
150 accessibility and availability to facilitate distributed development, and to overcome some of the associated  
151 technical and communication challenges. [Yara et al. \(2009\)](#) present a Cloud-based platform that addresses  
152 core problems, e.g., computing capacity, bandwidth, storage, security, and outline a generic Cloud archi-  
153 tecture and an initial implementation in the context of GSE. Nevertheless, even though companies have  
154 implemented GSE, they still face challenges in the development lifecycle. [Hashmi et al. \(2011\)](#) provide a  
155 synopsis of Cloud computing, GSE challenges, and discuss the problem that “Cloud” denotes a process *and*  
156 a product alike. Therefore, [Hashmi et al. \(2011\)](#) especially support our motivation to use Cloud technologies  
157 in GSE.

158 This article thus contributes to the body of knowledge by providing a study on the Cloud as development  
159 environment for GSE. Our study addresses the issues above by using a simulation-based research approach.  
160 Grounded in historical data, we provide a means to model distributed projects and simulating them in  
161 order to investigate the various challenges and effects coming along with using agile and Lean software  
162 development approaches in GSE.

163 *Previously Published Material.* The article at hand is an extended version of [Lunesu et al. \(2017\)](#) in which  
164 we compared three process simulations with the original process, Kanban, and Scrum to study the methods’  
165 impact on performance, total time, and throughput. In this extended article, we added a fourth research  
166 question (Table 1) to our previously published conference paper with which we extend our analysis by a  
167 comparison of the different processes. Accordingly, related work as well as the result presentation and  
168 discussion have been extended.

### 169 3. Research Design

170 This section presents the research design for the study. The development of the simulation model and  
171 the execution of the simulations followed the approach described in [Rus et al. \(2003\)](#) and [Armbrust et al.](#)  
172 [\(2005\)](#). The overall research objective and research questions studied are presented in Section 3.1. Sec-  
173 tion 3.2 describes the goals and requirements. The simulation model as key element of the study is specified  
174 in Section 3.3, and its implementation is presented in Section 3.4.

175



176 3.1. Research Questions

177 To study distributed software development in the Cloud and make a comparison among Lean Agile processes using an adapted simulation model, we formulate the research questions in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of the research questions addressed in the study at hand.

Research Question and Rationale	
RQ <sub>1</sub>	<p><i>How does the simulation model need to be calibrated, such that it reflects the particularities of the distributed project?</i></p> <p>The first research question aims at extending a previously defined simulation model (Anderson et al., 2012), such that it covers the particularities of distributed software development. For this, different elements of the model need to be adjusted, and several simulation runs need to be performed to tune the model. For each simulation run, only a single parameter varies (e.g., average effort of each user story, project size, and team size). Finally, the total time required and throughput values are examined to understand whether the variations are continuous or non-linear. For this, the following metrics are used: <code>throughput</code> and <code>total_time</code>, for a chosen value of one parameter and for fixed values of the other inputs, the simulator is run once until it stops (the end of the simulation) and the variation of the throughput (and total time) is examined.</p>
RQ <sub>2</sub>	<p><i>To what extent can the simulation model reproduce the data obtained in the real project?</i></p> <p>Having the calibrated simulation model available, the second research question aims to study whether the simulation model can be used to reproduce the real project. In particular, results (i.e., <code>throughput</code> and <code>total_time</code>) are collected feeding the simulation model with artificial and real project data. Results are used to improve the simulation model and, eventually, a comparison is carried out using the metric distance (between curves) of released user stories.</p>
RQ <sub>3</sub>	<p><i>How reliable is the simulation model?</i></p> <p>The third research question studies the reliability of the simulation model. In particular, if many simulation runs are performed using the same inputs: Does the model behave as expected? For this, several runs of the simulation model are performed using a list of artificial user stories. As metric, the <code>variation</code> (of average effort) is used to compare the variation in the calculated effort with the real effort from the project data.</p>
RQ <sub>4</sub>	<p><i>Can a comparison of Scrumban, Kanban, and Scrum processes performance support decision-making?</i></p> <p>The fourth research question studies the adaptability of the simulation model for reproducing Scrum and Kanban processes in order to compare them. For this, several runs of the simulation model are performed using input data collected from the <i>Software Factory</i> project. As metrics, the <code>average</code>, <code>median</code>, <code>min</code>, <code>max</code>, and the standard deviation of <code>cycle_time</code> are used to compare the performance of the three development processes.</p>

178

179

180 3.2. Simulation Goals and Requirements

181 The overall goal of this study is to better understand distributed software development in a Cloud con-  
182 text. For this, an existing simulation model (Anderson et al., 2012) is modified to better support decision-  
183 making processes concerning planning a distributed development process. The aim of this simulation model  
184 is thus to analyze the tradeoffs regarding throughput and total time on varying project size, team size, WIP  
185 limits and average effort. Furthermore, the modified simulation model aims to help project managers select-  
186 ing the most suitable planning alternative. The overall simulation goals setting the scene for the simulation  
187 are therefore in Table 2 described using the GQM goal template according to Solingen and Berghout (1999):

188

189 The simulation model is purposed to answer the detailed questions collected in Table 3. For this, we  
190 define the input and output parameters/variables as summarized in Table 4. The simulation is performed  
191 instrumenting five scenarios, which are defined in Table 5.

Table 2: Summary of the simulation goals and context using the GQM goal template.

Object	Simulation model of a distributed development process
Purpose	Support decisions for planning
Quality Focus	Throughput, total time, cycle time, size of the project, and size of the team
View Point	Project Manager
Context	Software Factory Network

Table 3: Simulation-specific questions.

Question	
Q <sub>1</sub>	If the throughput is fixed, how can the other parameters be adjusted?
Q <sub>2</sub>	If the project size varies, but other parameters remain fixed, what is the effect on the throughput and on the total time required?
Q <sub>3</sub>	If the team size varies, but other parameters remain fixed, what is the effect on the throughput and on the total time required?
Q <sub>4</sub>	If the work-in-progress limit (i.e., the maximum number of user stories that can be handled at any given time) varies for different activities, how does the throughput change?
Q <sub>5</sub>	What is the relationship between the average effort for the user stories in the project and the total time required?
Q <sub>6</sub>	Which parameters can be used to best compare process performance?

Table 4: Simulation input and output parameters and variables.

Input		Output	
I <sub>1</sub>	Project size (total number of user stories) at time t, it is denoted by $N_F(t)$	O <sub>1</sub>	Throughput
I <sub>2</sub>	Team size (number of developers), it is denoted by $N_D$	O <sub>2</sub>	Total time
I <sub>3</sub>	Average effort	O <sub>3</sub>	Duration of simulation T
I <sub>4</sub>	Number of activities, it is denoted by $N_A$	O <sub>4</sub>	Cycle time for a user story <sup>a</sup>
I <sub>5</sub>	WIP Limits in each activity (the maximum number of user stories that can be handled at any given time), it is denoted by $M_k$ for the $k^{\text{th}}$ activity		

<sup>a</sup> Time required to complete a user story is collected and computed using actual time, mean, median, and standard deviation.

### 192 3.3. Specification of the Simulation Model

193 In this section, we briefly introduce the *Software Factory* process, which serves as a blueprint for dis-  
 194 tributed development projects, and we analyze and explain the modifications required to use this process as  
 195 input for the simulation model.

#### 196 3.3.1. The Software Factory Process Model

197 In the *Software Factory* (Fagerholm et al., 2013), Scrumban (Kniberg and Skarin, 2010) is used to run  
 198 the distributed software development projects. In general, a coach combined an agile process (Scrum) with  
 199 a Kanban board, which visualizes the user story assignment in each process step.

200 The Scrumban model as shown in Figure 1 comprises the four steps *Pregame*, *Sprint Planning*, *Sprint*,  
 201 and *Review Meeting*. In the reported setting, a single sprint takes two weeks. Apart from this, most of the  
 202 well-known Scrum practices are applied, e.g., the *product owner* selects *user stories*, *developers* estimate  
 203 the given stories, and *daily stand-up meetings* are performed. To set up the simulation, we provide a for-



Table 5: Simulation scenarios.

Scenario Description	
S <sub>1</sub>	For a chosen value of the throughput or total time and for fixed values of the other inputs (project and team size), the simulator is run once until it stops and the total time required is examined.
S <sub>2</sub>	For a chosen value of the size of the project and for fixed values of the other inputs, the simulator is run once until it stops (the size of the project is reached) and throughput and total time are examined.
S <sub>3</sub>	The simulator is run for a chosen value of size of the team, and for the fixed values of the other inputs, the values of the throughput and total time are examined.
S <sub>4</sub>	For a chosen value of the WIP limits in each activity and for the fixed values of the other inputs, the values of the throughput and total time are examined.
S <sub>5</sub>	For a chosen number of simulation runs, and all parameters remain fixed, and the relation among average effort and total time is examined.
S <sub>6</sub>	For a chosen number of simulation runs, and all parameters remain fixed, the comparison of cycle time statistics of three different processes are examined.

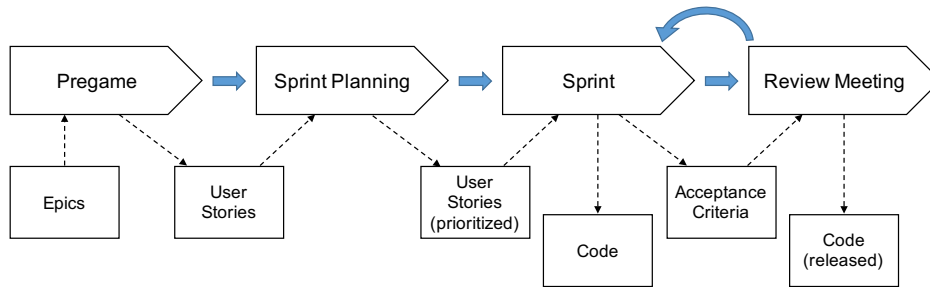


Figure 1: Overview of the Scrum process as used in the Software Factory. This overview illustrates the main steps in the process and the incoming/outgoing artifacts per process step. The thick opaque arrows show the control flow, and the dotted arrows show the product flow.

204 malization of the process model from Figure 1. Therefore, we need a detailed understanding of the process  
 205 model and how specific practices are implemented. Table 6 provides a detailed description of the process  
 206 steps and assigns inputs and outputs.

207 According to the general Scrum guideline (Schwaber and Beedle, 2002; Kniberg and Skarin, 2010), the  
 208 three roles *Scrum master*, *product owner*, and *team* are present in a software project. In the *Software Factory*,  
 209 these roles are generally present and implemented. However, due to the distributed project setup, the team  
 210 is spread across three project sites (one team per site). That is, the project is operated as a distributed project  
 211 and, thus, the team faces several challenges of distributed projects (Lous et al., 2017), such as time loss  
 212 due to long meetings caused by an inefficient Internet connection, due to the problems with communication  
 213 tools, due to the dependencies among different user stories, and allocation of work among different sites at  
 214 which the team members are located.

215 The *Software Factory* was used for on-site observations to collect information for modeling the project  
 216 context of our simulation model appropriately. After each iteration, interviews have been conducted with  
 217 the development team members. Furthermore, we were involved in the daily meetings and the sprint review  
 218 meetings to collect extra data for improving the simulation model. For instance, the different teams were  
 219 composed of practitioners and graduate students each with different skills and work experience. Information  
 220 about the team members has been used to calibrate the simulation model.

Table 6: Detailed description of the different process elements considered in the process simulation. Implementation of actual practices in the Software Factory are explained.

Process Activity	Input	Output
In the <i>Pregame</i> , <i>Epics</i> as input are divided into <i>User Stories</i> . The outcome of this meeting is the (initial) Backlog containing all <i>User Stories</i> to be prioritized in the <i>Sprint Planning</i> activity. In the Software Factory, the <i>Pregame</i> usually takes two days.	Epics	User Stories
Based on the Backlog, in the <i>Sprint Planning</i> , each <i>User Story</i> or task (in which some user stories are divided) is prioritized.	User Stories	User Stories (prioritized)
In the <i>Sprint</i> , the actual development activities (including analysis and coding tasks performed by the developers) are carried out. During the <i>Sprint</i> , daily meetings (10-15 minutes) are held in which the four basic Daily Scrum questions are asked and answered. Eventually, this activity produces the actual systems, i.e., the <i>Code</i> of the system, and a set of <i>Acceptance Criteria</i> (according to a “Definition of Done”; DoD), which are used in later analyses of the goal achievement.	User Stories (prioritized)	Code, Acceptance Criteria
In the <i>Review Meeting</i> , the team and the Product Owner verify the fulfillment of the <i>Acceptance Criteria</i> defined in the analysis steps of the <i>Sprint</i> . The product-centered <i>Review Meeting</i> is complemented by a more process-oriented retrospective. Depending on the review outcomes, some tasks might be subject to rework, i.e., certain tasks might be repeated, and those tasks are scheduled for the next <i>Sprint</i> . Tasks that are considered done eventually result in released <i>Code</i> . In the Software Factory, a <i>Review Meeting</i> takes about one hour.	Acceptance Criteria	Code (released)

### 221 3.3.2. General Adaptation of the Simulation Model

222 The presented simulation model is grounded in a previously developed model by Anderson et al. (2012)  
 223 for which the *Software Factory* process served as calibration model. The underlying simulation model was  
 224 used to reproduce the originally used PSP/TSP (Humphrey, 2000a,b), Scrum, and Lean-Kanban processes  
 225 by describing process elements such as features, activities, and developers. We analyzed the practical appli-  
 226 cation of the *Software Factory* process and compared it to the original simulation model to determine those  
 227 parameters to be used for calibration. In particular, multi-site development and the resulting challenges for  
 228 collaboration and communication had to be implemented in the simulation model. Specifically, the follow-  
 229 ing changes have been made to the original simulation model to adequately reflect the *Software Factory*  
 230 process:

- 231 • The *Pregame* activity was added to the simulation model.
- 232 • *Rework* was added to the simulation model.
- 233 • The simulation model was modified to better reflect productivity in distributed settings.

234 The implementation of *rework* in the simulation model allows for repeating those tasks that are not yet  
 235 finished or that do not fulfill the *acceptance criteria*. Such tasks are scheduled for the next *Sprint* and  
 236 continue previous activities (from *review meeting* to *Sprint*). The productivity-related modification was  
 237 performed to better reflect the productivity in terms of the number of hours worked (per developer) and  
 238 changes of the team size in different phases of the project. For instance, the modification covers changing  
 239 team setups, such as on-boarding a team, e.g., the core team consists of six developers (begin, end) and in  
 240 selected phases, another six developers join the team.



260 amount of work required to complete a user story (in days), and a priority (as a numerical value; the higher  
261 the value the higher the user story's priority). Furthermore, a set of parameters related to the real process  
262 data, such as number of developers, developer skills, probability of rework, and work-in-progress (WIP)  
263 limits is required. Finally, a script initializes the process (the process variables), e.g., duration of meetings  
264 or sprint length. The script also runs the simulation, collects, and stores data to CSV files. The actual  
265 technical implementation of the project environment and, accordingly, the infrastructure used to realize the  
266 simulation model, which is implemented in Smalltalk, follows the infrastructure setup described in detail  
267 by [Fagerholm et al. \(2013\)](#).

### 268 3.4.1. Modification of the Simulation Model for Scrum and Kanban

269 In addition to the *Software Factory* process above, we included two more processes in our study: Kanban  
270 and Scrum. Both adaptations of the simulation are explained in the following:

271 *Modification for Simulating Scrum.* Scrum is characterized by iterations (so-called *sprints*) of a maximum  
272 30 work days. Each sprint starts with an iteration planning meeting and ends with a *retrospective*. The  
273 length of the two meetings should not exceed one day. In a sprint, a *daily sprint* meeting is held every  
274 day. If one or more user stories from the *sprint backlog* are not finished in a sprint, they are moved to the  
275 next sprint. The completed user stories are released at the end of the sprint (so-called *potentially shippable*  
276 *product*). In the context of our simulation, we considered the similarities of Scrum and Scrumban. Yet,  
277 we ignored the *pregame* phase and we assumed an already completed sprint backlog containing estimated  
278 user stories. Likewise, we considered the implementation of *rework* in the simulation model that allows  
279 for repeating those tasks that are not yet finished or that do not fulfill the *acceptance criteria*. Such tasks  
280 are scheduled for the next *sprint* and continue previous activities (from *review meeting* to *sprint*). The  
281 productivity-related modification was performed to better reflect the productivity in terms of the number of  
282 hours worked (per developer) and changes of the team size in different phases of the project. For instance,  
283 the modification covers changing team setups, such as on-boarding a team, e.g., the core team consists of  
284 six developers (begin, end) and in selected phases, another six developers join the team. Also the duration  
285 of the sprint has been adapted, since Scrum does not define a *pregame* phase and WIP-limits as used for a  
286 Kanban board.

287 *Modification for Simulating Kanban.* For simulating Kanban, we also assumed a completed backlog. The  
288 Kanban workflow has been modeled for the simulation as follows: in the first activity (*analysis*), estimated  
289 and prioritized activities are analyzed and pulled from the second activity (*implementation*), which happens  
290 respecting the WIP-limits set and the skills of available developers. Once the implementation is done, user  
291 stories are pulled from the third activity (*test*) to evaluate the quality according to the acceptance criteria set.  
292 Finally, completed user stories are either pulled from the *deployment* activity or sent back to the analysis  
293 phase in case rework is necessary. Same as in the Scrum model, we also implemented *rework* for Kanban  
294 thus allowing for repeating those tasks that have not been finished or failed the testing phase, and we provide  
295 WIP limits concerning the size of the team and activities such as: analysis, implementation and testing and  
296 deployment. The productivity-related modification was performed to better reflect the productivity in terms  
297 of the number of hours worked (per developer) and changes of the team size in different phases of the project  
298 (see adaptation of the simulation model for Scrum above).

## 299 4. Simulation Results

300 In this section, we present the simulation results. In Section 4.1, we describe the actual simulation setup.  
301 In Section 4.2, we present the outcomes of the simulation runs and a discussion. Finally, in Section 4.3, we

302 critically discuss our findings regarding the threats to validity.

#### 303 4.1. Simulation Setup

304 We observed a project<sup>2</sup> from April 23, 2012 till July 6, 2012 in which a team of six developers (divided  
305 into two groups) started working for 3 h/d in Spain. From May 14, 2012 until June 29, 2012, another team  
306 of six developers located in Helsinki joined the project and worked for 6 h/d. In these periods, we monitored  
307 the processes implemented and collected the raw project data, which has been analyzed and used to create  
308 the input for the simulation model. To better reproduce rework on interconnected tasks, we have reduced  
309 the 64 user stories (considering user stories and tasks, in which some user stories have been divided,) to 25  
310 user stories. The throughput in the real project was almost three user stories per week with an average effort  
311 of 1.3 to 1.5 person days. Eventually, for the initial setup, we considered 25 user stories and tasks stored  
312 in the backlog, whereas we expect new user stories coming in after the last review meeting of an iteration,  
313 or at the beginning of a new iteration. Furthermore, we assume developers always available to work on and  
release upcoming user stories.

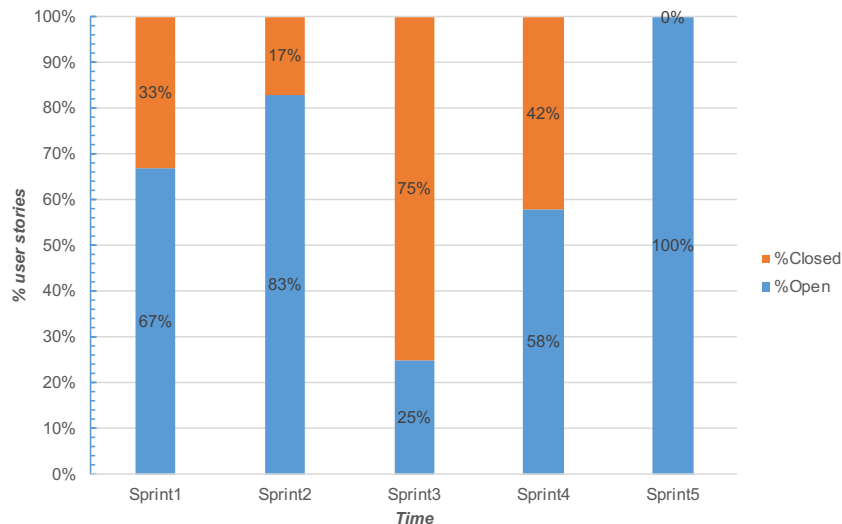


Figure 3: Percentage of open and closed user stories as used for the different simulated sprints.

314 In this simulation we analyzed five sprints, and we performed simulation runs using real and artificial  
315 data. Real data has been collected directly from the aforementioned project, and artificial data has been  
316 collected by using an algorithm of the simulation model that takes the real data as input. After the data  
317 analysis, we calculated the average effort and standard deviation to identify the data distribution<sup>3</sup> and to  
318 obtain statistical values for incoming user stories. Having the data required, we built the list of user stories  
319 that serve as input for the simulator (Figure 3 shows the resulting user story setup used for the simulation).  
320

<sup>2</sup>In this project in the context of a smart grid environment, the system to be implemented had to process and analyze a substantial quantity of data concerned with measurement of data consumption. Data was collected hourly, daily, and monthly. The teams were appointed to implement the different modules that compose the system for the processing data.

<sup>3</sup>For the data distribution, we assume a log-Normal distribution. For incoming user stories, however, the distribution is unknown. Therefore and in order to allow for replicating input data in different simulation runs, we use a linear interpolation method.

321 *4.2. Simulation Runs*

322 In this section, we provide insights into the simulations and present and discuss the results. The different  
 323 simulations address the questions (Table 3) and scenarios (Table 5) as introduced in Section 3.2. The  
 324 full mapping of simulations, questions, and scenarios is shown in Table 7. For example, question Q<sub>1</sub> is  
 325 studied using the first simulation for scenario S<sub>1</sub>, i.e., for a given throughput, what parameters can be varied.  
 326 Similarly, simulation two for scenario S<sub>2</sub> helps answering Q<sub>2</sub> and Q<sub>5</sub>, i.e., how total time and throughput  
 327 vary in relation to varying project size. In the following, we first describe the individual simulations before  
 integrating the different outcomes for answering the research questions in Section 4.2.8.

Table 7: Mapping of simulations to questions (Q) and scenarios (S).

Q <sub>1</sub>	Q <sub>2</sub>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Q <sub>4</sub>	Q <sub>5</sub>	Q <sub>6</sub>	Simulation	S <sub>1</sub>	S <sub>2</sub>	S <sub>3</sub>	S <sub>4</sub>	S <sub>5</sub>	S <sub>6</sub>
x						1	x					
	x			x		2		x				
		x				3			x			
			x			4				x		
				x		5					x	
						6					x	
					x	7						x

328

329 *4.2.1. Simulation 1*

330 The first simulation addresses Q<sub>1</sub> and studies variables that can be modified—and how they can be  
 331 modified—if the variables `team_size` or `project_size` are fixed. In particular, the variables `throughput`  
 332 and `total_time` are of interest, and how they can be modified. For S<sub>1</sub>, the throughput is set and time  
 333 required to complete the simulation is examined.

334 In the chosen team setup (12 developers, *Group 1* has six developers working 6 h/d and *Group 2* has  
 335 six developers working 3 h/d), a project of 25 user stories, each with an effort of 1.3–1.5 person days, was  
 336 chosen. The overall performance was five to six user stories per day and, eventually, the team could work  
 337 on about 500 user stories without inflationary growth of the backlog. However, communication issues and  
 338 dependencies among user stories and/or tasks limited the performance, such that S<sub>1</sub> yielded in an average  
 339 throughput of only three user stories per day.

340 *4.2.2. Simulation 2*

341 The second simulation studies Q<sub>2</sub>, i.e., studying what effect a varying project size has (i.e., keeping the  
 342 other parameters fixed) on the throughput and the total time required for a project. For a chosen value of  
 343 `project_size` and fixed values of other inputs, the simulator is run once until it stops (the size of the project  
 344 is reached) and the values of the variables `throughput` and `total_time` are evaluated. We assumed that  
 345 a linear relation among `project_size`, and `throughput` and `total_time` required exists. Therefore, we  
 346 re-ran the simulation with a stepwise increasing `project_size`, but kept the other parameters fixed. The  
 347 number of user stories (with an average effort of 1.3 person days) increases and we checked the differences  
 348 in `throughput` and `total_time` as shown in Figure 4.

349 For a doubled project size the throughput increases in linearly, yet shows a little steep when the size  
 350 of the project increases from 200 to 400 user stories; and then continues with a linear trend until 500 user  
 351 stories<sup>4</sup>. Regarding the total time required, the trend is almost linear with slow rise and a steep when the

<sup>4</sup>Which is almost the maximum number of user stories the team can work on without an exceeding growth of the backlog.



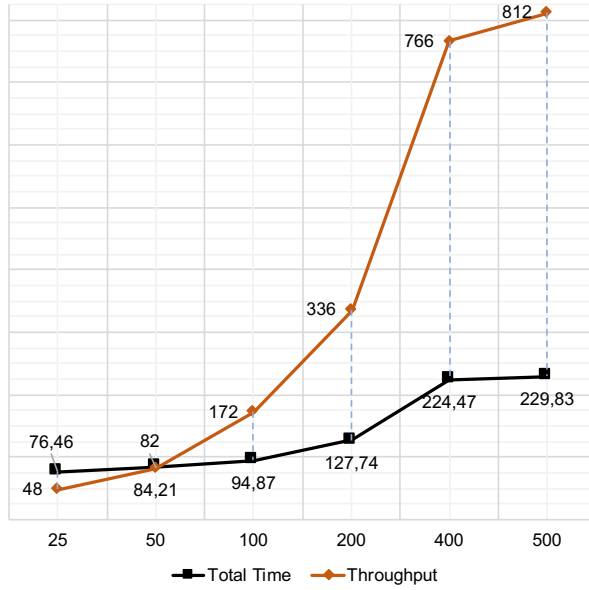


Figure 4: Relation of total time (in days) and throughput (user stories released) of the simulated projects with different amounts of user stories (see Table 8).

352 projects size increases from 200 to 400 user stories—and then continues with a linear trend until 500 user  
 353 stories. In Table 8 we tabulated the obtained throughput as the total user stories released during the project.  
 354 We consider the throughput as the number of user stories released at the end of the project. Table 8 shows  
 355 that for a project size of 25 user stories, the throughput is approx. three to four user stories per week (48 user  
 356 stories, including assumed 20% of rework) and a total\_time of 76.46. For a project size of 50 user stories,  
 357 the throughput is seven to eight user stories per week, i.e., the throughput equals 82 closed user stories  
 and a total\_time of 84.21, and so forth. Hence, doubling the project size also doubles the throughput.

Table 8: Variation in the size of the project and impact on throughput and total time required.

Size	Total Time	Throughput
25	76.46	48
50	84.21	82
100	94.87	172
200	127.74	336
400	224.47	766
500	229.83	812

358

### 359 4.2.3. Simulation 3

360 In  $S_3$ , we study the relationship between `team_size`, `throughput` and `total_time` to answer  $Q_3$ , i.e.,  
 361 what the effect on the throughput and the total time required is if the team size varies, but other parameters  
 362 are fixed. We assume that no linear relation exists among `team_size`, `throughput`, and `total_time`.  
 363 That is, if the number of developers skilled in testing goes to zero, throughput is blocked. If the number of  
 364 blocked user stories grows, adding new tester does not increase the throughput, due to the bottleneck from

365 the previous phase. The summary of the simulation results is shown in Table 9 in which the throughput is  
 366 again represented by the number of user stories released by the end of the project.

Table 9: Team size and throughput (project performances in relation to different team size and skill profiles; skills for activities: 1=analysis, 2=development, 3=testing, and 4=deployment).

Team Size	Skills				Total Time in days	Backlog	Pregame	Sprint Planning	Sprint	Review Meeting	# of Released User Stories
	1	2	3	4							
All		–			83.923	25	25	25	33	30	42
6		X	X	X	85.0125	25	25	25	32	28	34
6		X	X	X	98.0263	25	25	25	30	29	37
6		X	X	X	98.0263	25	25	25	30	29	37
6		X	X	X	84.3339	25	25	25	39	34	52
6	X	X	X		76.7853	25	25	25	26	20	0
6		X	X		77.4417	25	25	25	30	19	0
6		X	X		76.7853	25	25	25	26	20	0
6		X	X		96.651	25	25	25	41	31	45
6	X	X	X	X	96.0761	25	25	25	33	28	38
6		X	X	X	96.0761	25	25	25	33	28	38
6		X	X	X	99.2204	25	25	25	33	27	31
6	X	X	X	X	86.5942	25	25	25	37	32	46
6		X	X	X	89.6905	25	25	25	36	32	46
3	X	X	X	X	98.5971	25	25	25	39	34	52
3		X	X	X	98.5971	25	25	25	39	34	52
3		X	X	X	98.5971	25	25	25	39	34	52
3		X	X		125.745	25	25	25	38	32	46
3		X	X	X	79.3474	25	25	25	26	22	0
3		X	X	X	105.672	25	25	25	39	31	43
3		X	X	X	104.795	25	25	25	35	30	40
3			X	X	77.4448	25	25	25	33	22	0
3		X	X	X	78.2208	25	25	25	32	22	0
3		X	X	X	84.6146	25	25	25	37	29	39
3		X	X	X	95.5282	25	25	25	34	29	39
3			X	X	105.672	25	25	25	39	31	43
3	X	X	X	X	84.7019	25	25	25	32	28	34
3	X	X	X	X	84.7019	25	25	25	32	28	34
3		X	X	X	103.79	25	25	25	36	32	16

366 The team size was chosen, in order to study the impact on the throughput when other project parameters  
 367 remained fixed. For this, we use the number of hours that each developer works. We assume that variations  
 368 on throughput and total\_time depend on the developers' skills, on the number of hours they work,  
 369 and on the strategy used to assign them to the activities rather than the size of the team. We selected the  
 370 cases of the whole team, and teams with six and three developers respectively. The results demonstrated  
 371 that variations in throughput and total\_time mostly depend on the skills of the developers and their  
 372 assignment to the different activities. Table 9 shows that if three developers or six developers, that are  
 373 skilled in all activities, work on the same number of user stories, they may obtain the same throughput  
 374 and the same total\_time. Instead, when the number of developers is not high enough to satisfy the effort  
 375 required for an activity, throughput decreases and the total\_time increases.  
 376

#### 377 4.2.4. Simulation 4

378 In S<sub>4</sub>, we study the relation between the use of WIP limits, throughput and total\_time to answer  
 379 Q<sub>4</sub>, i.e., what the impact on the throughput is if the WIP limit for activities varies. For a given WIP limit,

380 it is possible to examine the resulting throughput and `total_time`, if other parameters remain fixed. It is  
381 required to perform many simulation runs to obtain WIP-limit values, which can yield optimal throughput  
382 in the minimum time required. For a team setup of 12 developers, we performed several simulation runs  
383 with different values for the WIP limit, and without limits. For example, at first one may consider a WIP  
384 limit of *10–12*, i.e., 10 in the first and last activity, and 12 in the second and third activity. WIP limits  
385 tested were also *6–8* and *3–4*. We observed that for lower WIP-limit values, throughput decreases and  
386 the `total_time` increases—a bottleneck may exist. However, if we consider WIP limits of six to eight or  
387 higher, results are the same as if there were no limits at all. This could be a result from the small number of  
388 user stories or the big team size and, thus, WIP limits are not useful (this also hampers generalizability). In  
389 a nutshell, for low WIP limits, we obtained a low throughput and a longer `total_time`, yet, higher WIP  
390 limits have not shown any effect on the throughput.

#### 391 4.2.5. Simulation 5

392 In simulation  $S_5$ , we study the relation between `average_effort`, throughput, and `total_time` to  
393 answer  $Q_5$ , i.e., whether there is a relation between effort for user stories and the total time required for  
394 the project. For a given number of simulation runs, all simulation parameters remain fixed. At the end of  
395 each simulation, values for `average_effort`, throughput, and `total_time` are examined to understand  
396 if variations, as expected, are continuous. Accordingly, two experiments have been conducted: one with  
397 real data, and another using artificial data. The results obtained show that variations in the effort cause  
398 variations in throughput and `total_time`. Furthermore, the relation is almost continuous without major  
399 gaps. Performing many simulation runs, we found a low correlation between variations in `average_effort`  
400 and `total_time`.

Table 10: Correlation of effort and total time.

Variable	Average	Standard Deviation
Total Time	77.26	2.62
Effort	1.297	0.203
Corr (effort/time)	0.0888	

Table 11: Correlation of effort and throughput.

Variable	Average	Standard Deviation
Throughput	44.19	6.02
Effort	1.297	0.203
Corr (effort/throughput)	-0.119	

401 Simulations performed using the real project data, did not show any variation for neither variable. Yet,  
402 simulations using the artificial data showed variations. In total, we performed 100 simulation runs and  
403 found a low correlation 0.0888 between the variation in `average_effort` and `total_time` (Table 10).  
404 Furthermore, we found a correlation of -0.119 between `average_effort` and throughput (Table 11).  
405 Hence, there is no direct relation between `average_effort` and throughput.

#### 406 4.2.6. Simulation 6

407 In  $S_6$ , we study the relations between `average_effort`, throughput, and `total_time` with a partic-  
408 ular focus on the question to what extent the simulation model can reproduce data from the real project.

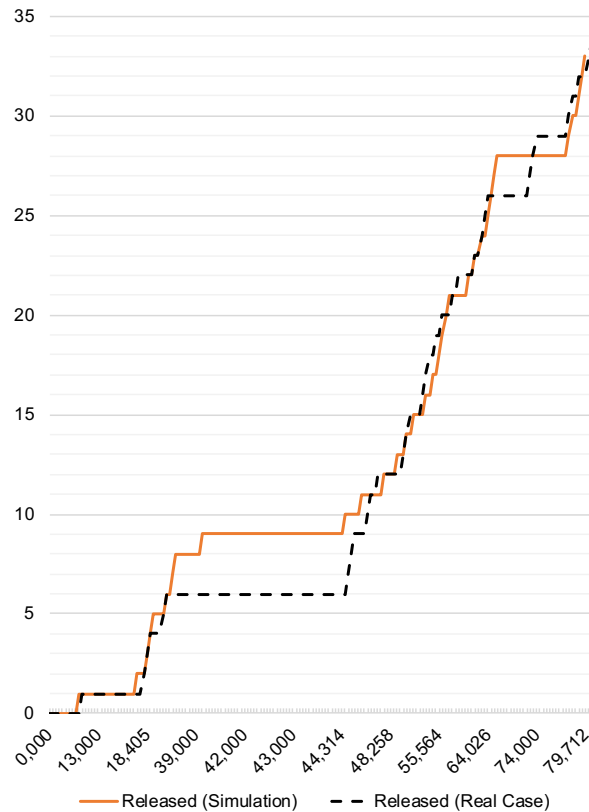


Figure 5: Comparison between simulated and real case with the number of user stories released (y-axis) and the time required to release the user stories (x-axis).

409 The implemented software development model presented in Section 3.3.1 is used to allow for comparing  
 410 the results (i.e., throughput and total\_time required to finish the project) obtained from the simula-  
 411 tions performed on real and artificial data. In particular, simulations were run using the list of user stories,  
 412 parametrized with values for the effort taken from the real project. The analysis was carried out on the num-  
 413 ber of released user stories, in particular by comparing the two performance curves shown in Figure 5. The  
 414 curves represent the cumulative number of user stories released in the project and, in an optimal case, both  
 415 curves should overlap. As Figure 5 shows, our experimental results suggest that the presented simulation  
 416 model produces data that well match, which demonstrates the feasibility of the approach presented.

#### 417 4.2.7. Simulation 7

418 In last simulation  $S_7$ , we compare the cycle\_time of the three different processes Scrumban (the origi-  
 419 nal *Software Factory* process), Scrum, and Kanban to improve our ability to choose the right process for the  
 420 respective context and to adapt other processes in similar cases. Again, we study in how far our simulation  
 421 model can also reproduce data from the real project.

422 The *Software Factory's* Scrumban model (see Section 3.3.1) and the adaptations of our simulation model  
 423 for Scrum and Kanban (see Section 3.4.1) are to compare the performance of the different processes, specif-  
 424 ically the cycle\_time. Furthermore, data is used to compare the simulation outcomes with results obtained  
 425 in the real projects. In this simulation, the different runs used the list of estimated and parametrized user  
 426 stories from the real case project. Analyses have been performed on the real case data as well as on the

Table 12: Summary of cycle time statistics of the Scrumban, Kanban, and Scrum processes in the real cases compared with the simulation results.

Process	Real Case					Simulated Case				
	Average	Median	Min	Max	St.Dev.	Average	Median	Min	Max	St.Dev.
Scrumban	7.58	6.82	1.06	17.46	5.46	7.34	4.93	1.80	19.45	4.79
Kanban	6.65	5.70	1.58	18.48	4.80	6.28	4.33	1.17	20.56	4.93
Scrum	8.42	6.21	1.23	25.70	6.99	7.36	5.15	2.44	26.21	5.45

427 simulation results collected from 100 runs for each case. Table 12 shows the results, which suggest that  
 428 our simulation model produces data that well match the real cases. Hence, we conclude that our simulation  
 429 model satisfactorily reproduces the real case.

430 Comparing the three different processes, we see that the results related to each process are very close,  
 431 in particular Scrum and Scrumban. Yet, our data suggests that—in the current distributed context—Kanban  
 432 seems to be more efficient. A reason can be the more “sequential” nature of Kanban and its strong focus  
 433 to limit work-in-progress, i.e., an attempt to improve the effective work assignment. This effect can be  
 434 observed in the real case and the simulated case alike.

#### 435 4.2.8. Summary of the Simulation Results

436 In this section, we briefly summarize our simulation results and answer the research questions (see  
 437 Section 3.1). To support answering the research questions, in Table 7, we relate the different simulation  
 438 scenarios shown in Table 5 with the detailed simulation questions shown in Table 3.

439 *Research Question 1.* To answer the first research question, we use the simulations  $S_{1-5}$ . The different out-  
 440 comes presented in the previous paragraphs show the relationships between the three variables `throughput`,  
 441 `total_time`, `average_effort`. The findings further show how the original simulation model by Anderson  
 442 et al. (2012) can be calibrated in order to reproduce distributed software development (processes). In partic-  
 443 ular, the simulation for scenario  $S_1$  showed that for a given `throughput`, `total_time` is the only parameter  
 444 that can change (gives all other variables are immutable). The simulation for scenario  $S_2$  showed a linear  
 445 relationship between `throughput` and `total_time` for a varying `project_size`, whereas the simulation  
 446 for scenario  $S_3$  found no linear relationship if `team_size` is the subject of study. The simulation for sce-  
 447 nario  $S_4$  studied WIP limits and the impact on `throughput`, finding no effect on the `throughput` for higher  
 448 WIP limits.

449 *Research Question 2.* The second research question aims at comparing simulation results with real project  
 450 data (and experience). For this, the simulation for scenario  $S_6$  is used. The results are shown in Figure 5,  
 451 which shows the distance of the two curves as a measure of accuracy. In summary, the adapted simulation  
 452 model was found feasible to reproduce a real project.

453 *Research Question 3.* The third research question aims to study the reliability of the simulation model.  
 454 For this, the simulation for scenario  $S_5$  was used, and the simulation was run several 100 times. The out-  
 455 comes show the simulation model reliably reproducing results with acceptable variations for `throughput`,  
 456 `total_time`, and `average_effort` regardless of the input data, i.e., real or artificial data.

457 *Research Question 4.* The fourth research question aims at comparing simulation results from three dif-  
 458 ferent processes to support project managers in selecting the project-specific development approach. For  
 459 this, the simulation seven was used, and the simulation was run several 100 times. The outcomes show the

460 simulation model reliably reproducing results (in our case for the `cycle_time`) from a real case and, thus,  
461 providing a means to ground decisions in the simulation results.

### 462 4.3. Threats to Validity

463 In the following, we discuss the threats to validity to be considered when applying the method presented  
464 in the paper at hand.

465 *Internal Validity.* According to [Shadish et al. \(2001\)](#), an experiment may have unknown and hidden fac-  
466 tors that could affect the results. In the presented case, information regarding teams and organization of  
467 work originated from the projects. Data used in the simulation model was extracted from systems used by  
468 the teams and personal observations, which might influence result quality. Although the model properly  
469 simulates skilled developers performing task sequences, still, the simulation model does not fully cover  
470 interactions among the developers thus introducing a threat regarding the inclusion of human factors in the  
471 simulation.

472 *Construct Validity.* Construct validity concerns the degree to which inferences are warranted from the ob-  
473 served phenomena to the constructs that these instances might represent ([Wohlin et al., 2012](#)). A first threat  
474 to construct validity is that, although in this study we have carefully analyzed and preprocessed the *Software*  
475 *Factory* data, our results could be affected by the data quality (such as possible noisy data). Another threat  
476 related to construct validity is the fact that our work is centered on the study of how the process determines  
477 the efficiency of the development activity. However, there are many other human-related factors that could  
478 affect the efficiency and productivity of the team, e.g., considering (co-)workers, keeping the team motivated  
479 and satisfied, and so on. Just limiting the work-in-progress will not be effective if a team is troubled and  
480 dissatisfied. A simulation model can simulate a process, but it is very difficult to explicitly include human  
481 factors. To mitigate this threat, data about the Software Factory process (e.g., user stories, effort, and WIP  
482 limits) was collected daily by external researchers. Furthermore, at the end of the Software Factory projects,  
483 one researcher extracted data from the different tools used in projects, e.g., documentation and code, and  
484 interviews with the team members have been performed.

485 *External Validity.* If a study possesses external validity, its results will generalize to a larger population  
486 not considered in the experiment ([Shadish et al., 2001](#); [Wohlin et al., 2012](#)). In this study, we only ran the  
487 simulation model on one development project. This project is small, and the number of subjects used in this  
488 study is small. This is a clear threat to external validity of our results. However, the simulation methods  
489 we proposed are evaluated on large software systems that experienced a long evolution. Furthermore,  
490 we extended our simulation in terms of modifying the simulation model to represent further development  
491 processes for a comparative study. Since these extra simulations confirmed the study of the Software Factory  
492 process, we assume a generalizability of the general simulation model. However, further studies need to be  
493 conducted to also confirm the project-related findings and whether these findings can be generalized.

494 *Reliability.* The main threat to the reliability of the simulation model and the input data is that only one  
495 researcher performed the observation, data collection and initial data analysis. To mitigate this threat,  
496 researcher triangulation was implemented for quality assurance of the different procedures applied and  
497 the data collected. To improve the data basis for developing the simulation model, in a first step, the  
498 data collected from the Software Factory projects was pre-processed by one researcher. During the data  
499 collection and the pre-processing phase, researchers and project team members established a continuous  
500 communication and result analysis to reduce the risk of misinterpreting (tentative) results. In a second step,  
501 using a linear regression algorithm, an artificial list of user stories was created from the actual project data,  
502 which allows for testing the reliability of the dataset in the simulation model.



503 **5. Conclusion**

504 In this paper, we presented a simulation process model able to reproduce the process followed in the  
505 *Software Factory* project. We demonstrated the calibration of the simulation model and its implementation.  
506 An existing simulation model was modified to reflect the Scrum process as used in the *Software Factory*.  
507 We described the customization of the relevant parameters and aspects to implement the *Software Factory*  
508 process. Eventually, we performed a case study with (real-life) data gathered from *Software Factory* project.

509 *Summary of Findings.* The simulation results in the following major findings: Project teams face problems  
510 regarding communication and organization of distributed projects affecting the teams' productivity and/or  
511 increasing the time required to achieve the project goals. The results obtained from our simulation show  
512 the influence of decisions in the project planning activities, e.g., in assigning work, when a distributed  
513 development is considered for a project. Therefore, our simulation model can be used to model project  
514 setups of interest, to elaborate potential pitfalls, and to work out solutions to address those problems. This  
515 opportunity was especially shown by a comparative analysis of a simulated case and a real case. We could  
516 successfully model and reproduce the Scrum process as used in the *Software Factory*, and our simulation  
517 generated results comparable to the real project data. Hence, the simulation model allows for modeling a  
518 distributed project, analyzing and predicting trends, and eventually selecting the most promising (according  
519 to the respective project goals) project configuration.

520 The key advantage of using a simulation is that various project parameters can be evaluated quickly  
521 and relatively easy to support the project management in selecting the most promising process alternative  
522 to positively influence the project performance. In our previous work, we could also show that project  
523 managers could improve their knowledge about the issues critical to the project and, thus, adapt the process  
524 for next iteration or for future projects. Hence, project managers get a tool to early analyze project con-  
525 figurations, to better understand the development process and variations thereof and, in future, to apply the  
526 most suitable planning alternatives for the respective context. Beyond the analysis of the *Software Factory*  
527 process, we also analyzed the general adaptability of our simulation and therefore evaluated the suitability  
528 of the simulation model for further process models. For this, we tailored the simulation model to support  
529 "pure" Scrum and Kanban and conducted a comparative analysis of the processes' `cycle_time`. Again, we  
530 could see that the simulation model adequately reproduces the real case data.

531 Companies doing this kind of simulation projects can use the presented simulation model for identifying  
532 and better understanding factors (e.g., communication, work assignments) that could have an impact on the  
533 planning and operation of projects. These factors might need a specific consideration. The simulation  
534 models might also help to better understand the mechanics and dynamic relationships inside such projects  
535 or lead to important questions to be posed before starting a project. However, the models are not aimed  
536 at generating precise point estimates or supporting decision making at a micro level. This would require a  
537 very careful customization of the models to a company's context and a respective calibration.

538 *Limitations.* The model presented only partially addresses the (quantitative) relationship of different ac-  
539 tions, which introduces some conceptual issues (e.g., human factors) in the model. Hence, the simulation  
540 capabilities of the model are limited to only those project aspects that can be sufficiently measured. There-  
541 fore, the results obtained in the presented simulation are limited for specific cases and can only serve as  
542 indication, but do not yet allow for generalization. However, such a generalization would be very helpful  
543 to have "standard" process customizations at disposal, which could be used to calibrate an organization- or  
544 project-specific simulation model.

545 *Future Work.* Future work thus comprises gathering data from further *Software Factory* projects and from  
546 other industrial projects from different contexts. These steps will enhance the data bases and they will  
547 support the model’s validation to improve its reliability. Furthermore, the present model is expected to be  
548 extended to allow for simulating and reproducing further processes, i.e., to be generalized and then cus-  
549 tomized for application to further domains. We demonstrated this by providing an initial simulation and  
550 comparison of the *Software Factory*’s Scrum process and the “pure” Scrum and Kanban processes. Yet,  
551 a transfer to other processes and process combinations in different application domains remains subject  
552 to future work. Another aspect that is worth consideration is the improvement of the presented simula-  
553 tion model towards a prediction tool. So far, we could increase understanding of the relationships, e.g.,  
554 project size and work-in-progress, and we could reproduce real project data, i.e., the model is primarily  
555 used as analysis tool. Therefore, given a sufficient dataset as a basis and a sufficiently validated model, the  
556 approach presented in this paper could also serve as prediction tool to proactively improve the decision-  
557 making process of project managers. In this regard, an updated work-in-progress version of the simulator  
558 could directly access issue tracking systems such as Jira or Redmine. This extended simulation tool would  
559 collect data about the project such as, e.g., number and list of issues, estimated time and time spent for  
560 resolving issues, priority of issues, team size, and the process followed as a workflow (number of steps and  
561 connection among the steps). Furthermore, this extended simulator could be quickly adapted for a particu-  
562 lar project to reproduce and/or simulate the project providing the total time needed to finish the project and  
563 some statistics, e.g., concerning the number of issues per day, developer productivity, and so forth. Using  
564 Montecarlo simulations and variations of project parameters such as developer availability or error in effort  
565 estimation, such and updated simulator would also allow for risk analyses.

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