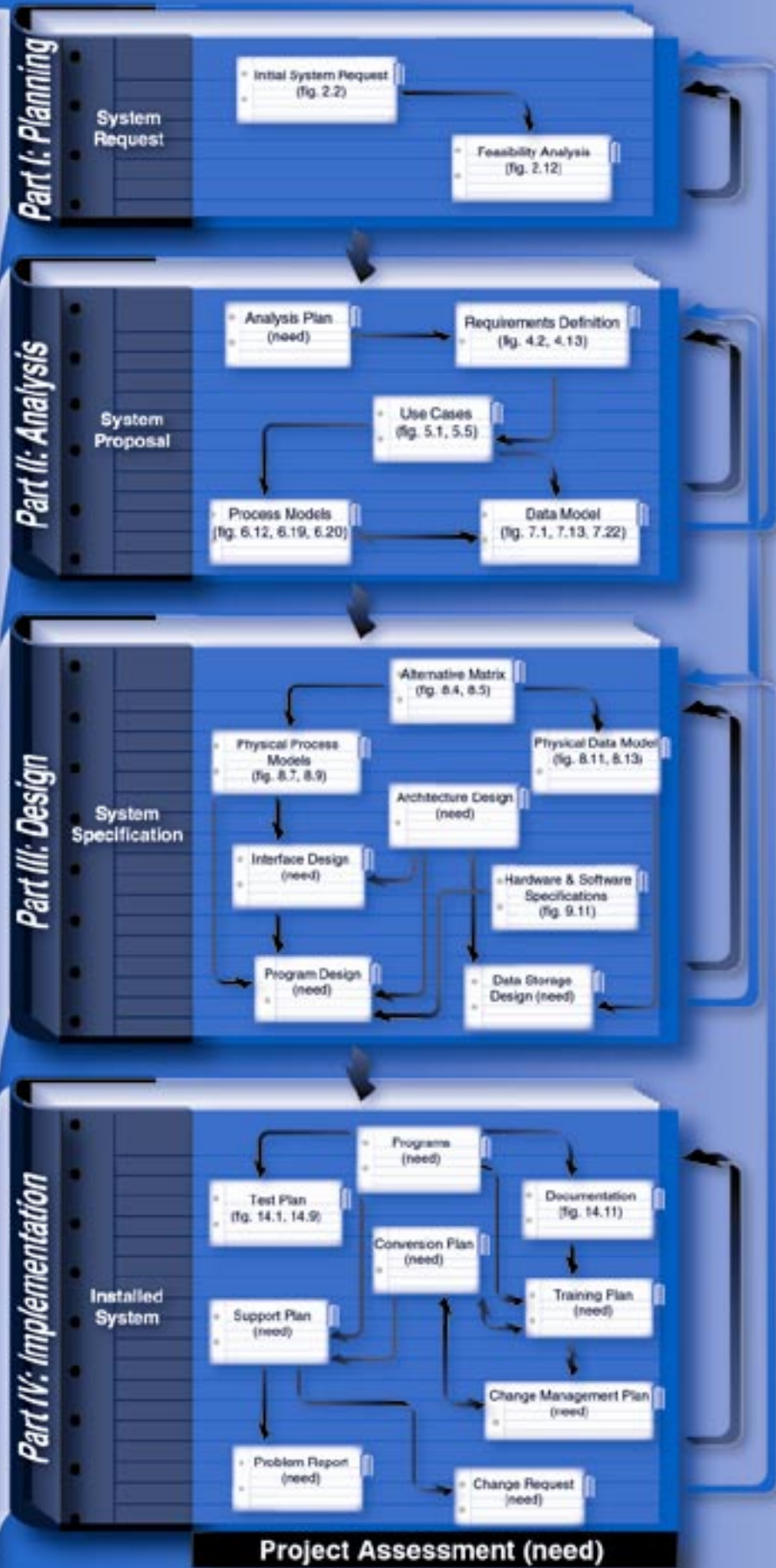


Project Management



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the systems development life cycle, the fundamental four-phase model (planning, analysis, design, and implementation) that is common to all information system development projects. It then examines several commonly used methodologies that differ in their focus and approach to each of these phases. The chapter closes with a discussion of the skills and roles within the project team.

OBJECTIVES

- Understand the fundamental systems development life cycle and its four phases.
- Understand several different types of methodologies and how to choose among them.
- Be familiar with the different skills and roles on the project team.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Introduction	<i>Selecting the Appropriate</i>
The Systems Development Life Cycle	<i>Development Methodology</i>
<i>Planning</i>	Project Team Skills and Roles
<i>Analysis</i>	<i>Business Analyst</i>
<i>Design</i>	<i>Systems Analyst</i>
<i>Implementation</i>	<i>Infrastructure Analyst</i>
Systems Development Methodologies	<i>Change Management Analyst</i>
<i>Structured Design</i>	<i>Project Manager</i>
<i>Rapid Application Development</i>	Summary
<i>Agile Development</i>	

INTRODUCTION

The *systems development life cycle* (SDLC) is the process of understanding how an information system (IS) can support business needs, designing the system, building it, and delivering it to users. If you have taken a programming class or have programmed on your own, this probably sounds pretty simple. Unfortunately, it is not. A 1996 survey by the Standish Group found that 42% of all corporate IS projects were abandoned before completion. A similar study done in 1996 by the General Accounting Office found 53% of all U.S. government IS projects were abandoned. Unfortunately, many of the systems that aren't abandoned are delivered to the users significantly late, end up costing far more than expected, and have fewer features than originally planned.

Most of us would like to think that these problems only occur to other people or other organizations, but they happen in most companies. Even Microsoft has a history of failures and overdue projects (e.g., Windows 1.0, Windows 95).¹

We would like to promote this book as a silver bullet that will keep you from IS failures, but a silver bullet that guarantees IS development success does not exist. Instead, this book will provide you with several fundamental concepts and many practical techniques that you can use to improve the probability of success.

The key person in the SDLC is the systems analyst, who analyzes the business situation, identifies opportunities for improvements, and designs an IS to implement them. Being a systems analyst is one of the most interesting, exciting, and challenging jobs around. As a systems analyst, you will work with a variety of people and learn how they conduct business. You will work with a team of systems analysts, programmers, and others on a common mission. You will feel the satisfaction of seeing systems that you designed and developed make a significant business impact, and you will know that you contributed your unique skills to make that happen.

It is important to remember that the primary objective of the systems analyst is not to create a wonderful system. The primary goal is to create value for the organization, which for most companies means increasing profits (government agencies and not-for-profit organizations measure value differently). Many failed systems were abandoned because the analysts tried to build a wonderful system without clearly understanding how the system would fit with the organization's goals, current business processes, and other information systems to provide value. An investment in an information system is like any other investment, such as a new machine tool. The goal is not to acquire the tool, because the tool is simply a means to an end; the goal is to enable the organization to perform work better so it can earn greater profits or serve its constituents more effectively.

This book will introduce you to the fundamental skills you need to be a systems analyst. This is a pragmatic book that discusses best practices in systems development; it does not present a general survey of systems development that exposes you to everything about the topic. By definition, systems analysts *do things* and challenge the current way that organizations work. To get the most out of this book, you will need to actively apply the ideas and concepts in the examples, those

¹ For more information on the problem, see Capers Jones, *Patterns of Software System Failure and Success*, London: International Thompson Computer Press, 1996; Capers Jones, *Assessment and Control of Software Risks*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Yourdon Press, 1994; Julia King, "IS Reins in Runaway Projects," *Computerworld*. February 24, 1997.

CONCEPTS**1-A AN EXPENSIVE FALSE START****IN ACTION**

A real-estate group in the federal government cosponsored a data warehouse with the IT department. A formal proposal was written by IT in which costs were estimated at \$800,000, the project duration was estimated to be eight months, and the responsibility for funding was defined as the business unit's. The IT department proceeded with the project before hearing whether the proposal was ever accepted.

The project actually lasted two years because requirements gathering took nine months instead of one and a half, the planned user base grew from 200 to 2,500, and the approval process to buy technology for

the project took a year. Three weeks prior to technical delivery, the IT Director canceled the project. This failed endeavor cost the organization \$2.5 million.

Source: "Data Warehousing Failure: Case Studies and Findings" *The Journal of Data Warehousing*, by Hugh J. Watson et al., 4 (1), 1999, pp. 44–54.

QUESTION:

Why did this system fail? Why would a company spend money and time on a project and then cancel it? What could have been done to prevent this?

in the "Your Turn" exercises that are presented throughout, and, ideally, from those you develop in your own systems development project. This book will guide you through all the steps for delivering a successful information system. Also, we will illustrate how one organization (which we call CD Selections) applies the steps in one project (developing a Web-based CD sales system). By the time you finish the book, you won't be an expert analyst, but you will be ready to start building systems for real.

In this chapter, we first introduce the basic SDLC that IS projects follow. This life cycle is common to all projects, although the focus and approach to each phase of the life cycle may differ. In the next section, we discuss three fundamentally different types of methodologies (structured design, rapid application development, and agile development). Finally, we discuss one of the most challenging aspects of systems development—the depth and breadth of skills that are required. Today, most organizations use project teams that contain members with unique but complementary skills. This chapter closes with a discussion of the key roles played by members of the systems development team.

THE SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT LIFE CYCLE

In many ways, building an information system is similar to building a house. First, the house (or the information system) starts with a basic idea. Second, this idea is transformed into a simple drawing that is shown to the customer and refined (often through several drawings, each improving on the other) until the customer agrees that the picture depicts what he or she wants. Third, a set of blueprints is designed that present much more detailed information about the house (e.g., the type of water faucets, where the telephone jacks will be placed). Finally, the house is built following the blueprints—and often with some changes and decisions made by the customer as the house is erected.

The SDLC has a similar set of four fundamental *phases*: planning, analysis design, and implementation (Figure 1-1). Different projects may emphasize differ-

Phase	Chapter	Step	Technique	Deliverable
Planning (Why build the system?) System Request	2	Identify Opportunity	Project Identification	System Request
	2	Analyze Feasibility	Technical Feasibility Economic Feasibility Organizational Feasibility	Feasibility Analysis
	3	Develop Workplan	Time Estimation Timeboxing Task Identification Work Breakdown Structure Pert Chart GANNT Chart	Workplan
	3	Staff Project	Scope Management Project Staffing Project Charter	Staffing Plan
Analysis (Who, what, when, where will the system be?) System Proposal	3	Control and Direct Project	CASE Repository Standards Documentation Risk Management	Standards List Risk Assessment
	4	Develop Analysis Strategy	Business Process Automation Business Process Improvement Business Process Reengineering	System Proposal
	4	Determine Business Requirements	Interview JAD session Questionnaire Document Analysis Observation	Requirements Definition
	5 6 7	Create Use Cases Model Processes Model Data	Use-Case Analysis Data Flow Diagramming Entity Relationship Modeling Normalization	Use Cases Process Models Data Model
Design (How will the system VWork?) System Specification	8	Design Physical System	Design Selection Data Flow Diagramming Entity Relationship Modeling	Alternative Matrix Physical Process Models Physical Data Model System Specification
	9	Design Architecture	Architecture Design Hardware & Software Selection	Architecture Report Hardware & Software Specification
	10	Design Interface	Use Scenario Interface Structure Interface Standards Interface Prototype Interface Evaluation	Interface Design
	11	Design Databases and Files	Data Format Selection Denormalization Performance Tuning Size Estimation	Data Storage Design
	12	Design Programs	Transform Analysis Program Structure Chart Program Specification	Program Design
Implementation (System delivery) Installed System	13	Construct System	Programming Software Teasting Performance Testing	Test Plan Programs Documentation
	14	Install System	Conversion Style Selection Training	Conversion Plan Training Plan
	14	Maintain System	Support Selection System Maintenance Project Assessment	Support Plan Problem Report Change Request
	14	Postimplementation	Postimplementation Audit	Postimplementation Audit Report

FIGURE 1-1
Systems Development Life Cycle Phases

ent parts of the SDLC or approach the SDLC phases in different ways, but all projects have elements of these four phases. Each phase is itself composed of a series of *steps*, which rely on *techniques* that produce *deliverables* (specific documents/files that provide understanding about the project).

For example, when you apply for admission to a university, there are several phases that all students go through: information gathering, applying, and accepting. Each of these phases has steps: information gathering includes such steps as searching for schools, requesting information, and reading brochures. Students then use techniques (e.g., Internet searching) that can be applied to steps (e.g., requesting information) to create deliverables (e.g., evaluations of different aspects of universities).

Figure 1-1 suggests that the SDLC phases and steps proceed in a logical path from start to finish. In some projects, this is true, but in many projects, the project teams move through the steps consecutively, iteratively, or in other patterns. In this section, we describe the phases and steps and some of the techniques that are used to accomplish the steps at a very high level. We should emphasize that not all organizations follow the SDLC in exactly the way described next. As we shall shortly see, there are many variations on the overall SDLC.

For now, there are two important points to understand about the SDLC. First, you should get a general sense of the phases and steps that IS projects move through and some of the techniques that produce certain deliverables. Second, it is important to understand that the SDLC is a process of *gradual refinement*. The deliverables produced in the analysis phase provide a general idea of the shape of the new system. These deliverables are used as input to the design phase, which then refines them to produce a set of deliverables that describe in much more detailed terms exactly how the system will be built. These deliverables in turn are used in the implementation phase to produce the actual system. Each phase refines and elaborates on the work done previously.

Planning

The *planning phase* is the fundamental process of understanding *why* an information system should be built and determining how the project team will go about building it. The first step is to identify opportunity, during which the system's business value to the organization is identified—how will it lower costs or increase profits? Most ideas for new systems come from outside the IS area (from the marketing department, accounting department, etc.) in the form of a *system request*. A system request presents a brief summary of a business need, and it explains how a system that supports the need will create business value. The IS department works together with the person or department that generated the request (called the *project sponsor*) to conduct a *feasibility analysis* that examines the idea's technical feasibility (i.e., can we build it?), the economic feasibility (i.e., will it provide business value?), and the organizational feasibility (i.e., if we build it, will it be used?).

The system request and feasibility analysis are presented to an IS *approval committee* (sometimes called a steering committee), which decides whether the project should be undertaken. If the committee approves the project, then the next step of planning occurs—*project management*. During project management, the *project manager* creates a *workplan*, staffs the project, and puts techniques in place to help him or her control and direct the project through the entire SDLC. The deliverable for project management is a *project workplan* that describes how the project

team will go about developing the system. This workplan includes all of the project management deliverables.

Analysis

The *analysis phase* answers the questions of *who* will use the system, *what* the system will do, and *where* and *when* it will be used. During this phase, the project team investigates any current system(s), identifies improvement opportunities, and develops a concept for the new system. See Figure 1-1.

Analysis begins with the development of an *analysis strategy* that guides the project team’s efforts. Such a strategy usually includes an analysis of the current system (called the *as-is system*) and its problems and then an analysis of ways to design a new system (called the *to-be system*). The next step is gathering business requirements (e.g., through interviews or questionnaires). The analysis of this information—in conjunction with input from the project sponsor and many other people—leads to the development of a list of business requirements for the new system. This Requirements Definition is then used as a basis to develop use cases and a *process model* that describe how the business will operate if the new system were developed. Figure 1-2 shows an example process model, with processes (the tasks that someone performs) shown as boxes with rounded corners, inputs and outputs of the processes as arrows, and data storage containers as boxes with an open side. Finally, a *data model* is developed to describe the information that is needed to support the process.

The analyses, Requirements Definition Use Cases, process model, and data model are combined into a document called the *system proposal*, which is presented to the project sponsor and other key decision makers (e.g., members of the approval committee) who decide whether the project should continue to move forward. See Figure 1-1.

The system proposal is the initial deliverable that describes what business requirements the new system should meet. Because it is really the first step in the design of the new system, some experts argue that it is inappropriate to use the term *analysis*, as the name for this phase, some argue a better name would be *analysis*

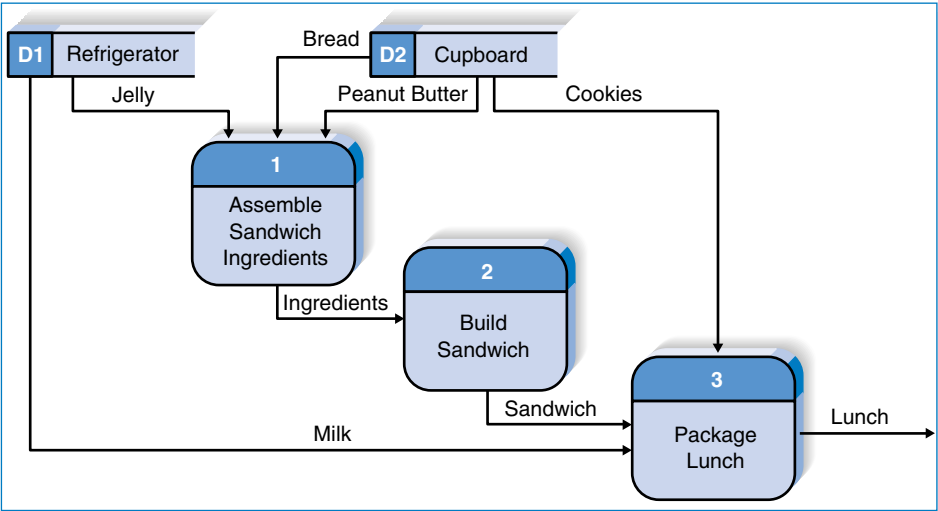


FIGURE 1-2
A Simple Process Model for Making Lunch

and initial design. Because most organizations continue to use the name *analysis* for this phase, we will use it in this book as well, but it is important to remember that the deliverable from the analysis phase is both an analysis and a high-level initial design for the new system.

Design

The *design phase* decides *how* the system will operate, in terms of the hardware, software, and network infrastructure; the user interface, forms, and reports that will be used; and the specific programs, databases, and files that will be needed. Although most of the strategic decisions about the system were made in the development of the system concept during the analysis phase, the steps in the design phase determine exactly how the system will operate.

The first step in the design phase is to perform the *design selection*: will the system will be developed by the company's own programmers, will it will be outsourced to another firm (usually a consulting firm), or will the company will buy an existing software package. This leads to the development of the basic *architecture design* for the system that describes the hardware, software, and network infrastructure that will be used. In most cases, the system will add or change the infrastructure that already exists in the organization. The *interface design* specifies how the users will move through the system (i.e., navigation methods such as menus and on-screen buttons) and the forms and reports that the system will use. Next, the *data storage design* that defines exactly what and how data will be stored is developed. Finally, the analysis team develops the *program design*, which defines the programs that need to be written and exactly what each program will do.

This collection of deliverables (architecture design, interface design, database and file specifications, and program design) is the *system specification* that is handed to the programming team for implementation. At the end of the design phase, the feasibility analysis and workplan are reexamined and revised, and another decision is made by the project sponsor and approval committee about whether to terminate the project or continue. See Figure 1-1.

Implementation

The final phase in the SDLC is the *implementation phase*, during which the system is actually built (or purchased, in the case of a packaged software design). This is the phase that usually gets the most attention, because for most systems it is the longest and most expensive single part of the development process.

The first step in implementation is system *construction*, during which the system is built and tested to ensure it performs as designed. Testing is one of the most critical steps in implementation, because the cost of bugs can be immense; most organizations spend more time and attention on testing than on writing the programs in the first place. Once the system has passed a series of tests, it is installed. *Installation* is the process by which the old system is turned off and the new one turned on, and it may include a direct cutover approach (in which the new system immediately replaces the old system), a parallel conversion approach (in which both the old and new systems are operated for a month or two until it is clear that there are no bugs in the new system), or a phased conversion strategy (in which the new system is installed in one part of the organization as an initial trial and then gradually installed in others). One of the most important aspects of conversion is

the development of a *training plan* to teach users how to use the new system and help manage the changes caused by the new system.

Once the system has been installed, the analyst team establishes a *support plan* for the system. This plan usually includes a formal or informal postimplementation review as well as a systematic way for identifying major and minor changes needed for the system.

SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT METHODOLOGIES

A *methodology* is a formalized approach to implementing the SDLC (i.e., it is a list of steps and deliverables). There are many different systems development methodologies, and each one is unique because of its emphasis on processes versus data and the order and focus it places on each SDLC phase. Some methodologies are formal standards used by government agencies, whereas others have been developed by consulting firms to sell to clients. Many organizations have their own internal methodologies that have been refined over the years, and they explain exactly how each phase of the SDLC is to be performed in that company.

There are many ways to categorize methodologies. One way is by looking at whether they focus on business processes or on the data that supports the business. Methodologies are *process centered* if they emphasize process models (Chapter 6) as the core of the system concept. In Figure 1-2, for example, process-centered methodologies would focus first on defining the processes (e.g., assemble sandwich ingredients). Methodologies are *data centered* if they emphasize data models (Chapter 7) as the core of the system concept. In Figure 1-2, for example, data-centered methodologies would focus first on defining the contents of the storage areas (e.g., refrigerator) and how the contents were organized. Other methodologies, such as *object-oriented methodologies* (Chapter 15), attempt to balance the focus between process and data by incorporating both into one model.² In Figure 1-2, these methodologies would focus first on defining the major elements of the system (e.g., sandwiches, lunches) and look at the processes and data (i.e., storage items) that were involved with each.

Another important factor in categorizing methodologies is the sequencing of the SDLC phases and the amount of time and effort devoted to each.³ In the early days of computing, the need for formal and well-planned life cycle methodologies was not well understood. Programmers tended to move directly from a very simple planning phase right into the construction step of the implementation phase; in other words, they moved directly from a very fuzzy, not-well-thought-out system request into writing code, which is the same approach that you sometimes use when writing programs for a programming class. This approach can work for small programs that

² The classic modern process-centered methodology is that by Edward Yourdon, *Modern Structured Analysis*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Yourdon Press, 1989. An example of a data-centered methodology is information engineering by James Martin, *Information Engineering*, volumes 1-3, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1989. Many new object-oriented methodologies are based on the Unified Modeling Language defined in *UML Document Set*, Santa Clara, CA: Relational Software Corp., 1997. A widely accepted standardized methodology that balances processes and data is IDEF; see FIPS 183, *Integration Definition for Function Modeling*, Federal Information Processing Standards Publications, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1993.

³ A good reference for comparing systems development methodologies is Steve McConnell, *Rapid Development*, Redmond, WA: Microsoft Press, 1996.

require only one programmer, but if the requirements are complex or unclear, you may miss important aspects of the problem and have to start all over again, throwing away part of the program (and the time and effort spent writing it). This approach also makes teamwork difficult because members have little idea about what needs to be accomplished and how to work together to produce a final product.

Structured Design

The first category of systems development methodologies is called *structured design*. These methodologies became dominant in the 1980s, replacing the previous ad hoc and undisciplined approach. Structured design methodologies adopt a formal step-by-step approach to the SDLC that moves logically from one phase to the next. There are numerous process-centered methodologies and data-centered methodologies that follow the basic approach of the two structured design categories outlined next.

Waterfall Development The original structured design methodology (that is still used today) is *waterfall development*. With waterfall development, the analysts and users proceed in sequence from one phase to the next; see Figure 1-3. The key deliverables for each phase are typically produced on paper (often hundreds of pages in length) and are presented to the project sponsor for approval as the project moves from phase to phase. Once the sponsor approves the work that was conducted for a phase, the phase ends and the next one begins. This approach is called waterfall development because it moves forward from phase to phase in the same manner as a waterfall. Although it is possible to go backward in the SDLC (e.g., from design back to analysis), it is extremely difficult. (Imagine yourself as a salmon trying to swim upstream in a waterfall as shown in Figure 1-3.)

The two key advantages of waterfall development are that it identifies system requirements long before programming begins and that it minimizes changes to the

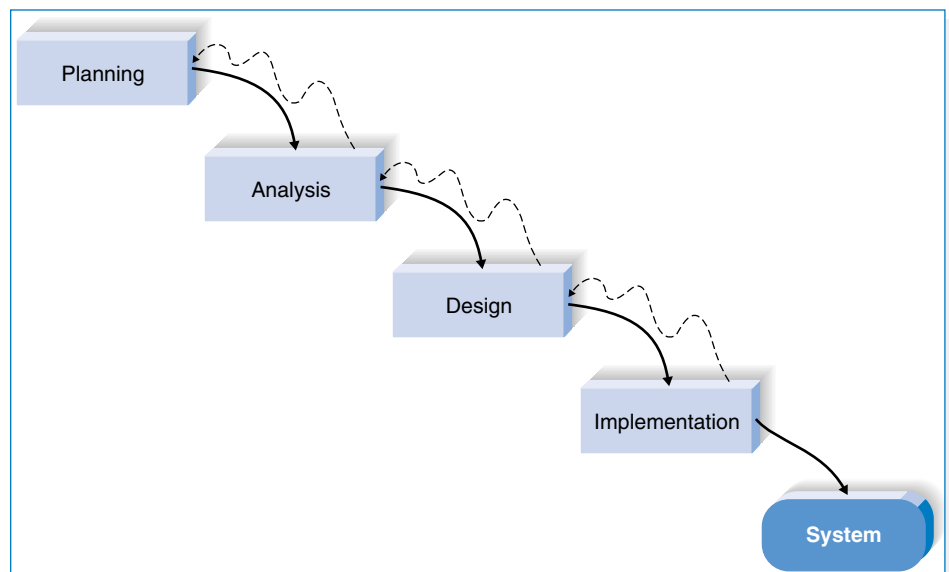


FIGURE 1-3
The Waterfall Development Methodology

requirements as the project proceeds. The two key disadvantages are that the design must be completely specified on paper before programming begins and that a long time elapses between the completion of the system proposal in the analysis phase and the delivery of the system (usually many months or years). A paper document is often a poor communication mechanism, so important requirements can be overlooked in the hundreds of pages of documentation. Users rarely are prepared for their introduction to the new system, which occurs long after the initial idea for the system was introduced. If the project team misses important requirements, expensive postimplementation programming may be needed. (Imagine yourself trying to design a car on paper. How likely would you be to remember to include interior lights that come on when the doors open or to specify the right number of valves on the engine?)

A system also may require significant rework because the business environment has changed from the time that the analysis phase occurred. When changes do occur, it means going back to the initial phases and following the change through each of the subsequent phases in turn.

Parallel Development The *parallel development* methodology attempts to address the problem of long delays between the analysis phase and the delivery of the system. Instead of doing the design and implementation in sequence, it performs a general design for the whole system and then divides the project into a series of distinct subprojects that can be designed and implemented in parallel. Once all subprojects are complete, there is a final integration of the separate pieces, and the system is delivered (Figure 1-4).

The primary advantage of this methodology is that it can reduce the schedule time required to deliver a system; thus there is less chance of changes in the business environment causing rework. However, the approach still suffers from problems caused by paper documents. It also adds a new problem: sometimes the subprojects are not completely independent; design decisions made in one subproject may affect another, and the end of the project may require significant integrative efforts.

Rapid Application Development

Rapid application development (RAD) is a newer approach to systems development that emerged in the 1990s. RAD attempts to address both weaknesses of the structured development methodologies: long development times and the difficulty in understanding a system from a paper-based description. RAD methodologies adjust the SDLC phases to get some part of the system developed quickly and into the hands of the users. In this way, the users can better understand the system and suggest revisions that bring the system closer to what is needed.⁴

Most RAD methodologies recommend that analysts use special techniques and computer tools to speed up the analysis, design, and implementation phases, such as CASE (computer-aided software engineering) tools (see Chapter 3), JAD (joint application design) sessions (see Chapter 5), fourth-generation/visual programming languages that simplify and speed up programming (e.g., Visual Basic), and code generators that automatically produce programs from design specifica-

⁴ One of the best RAD books is that by Steve McConnell, *Rapid Development*, Redmond, WA: Microsoft Press, 1996.

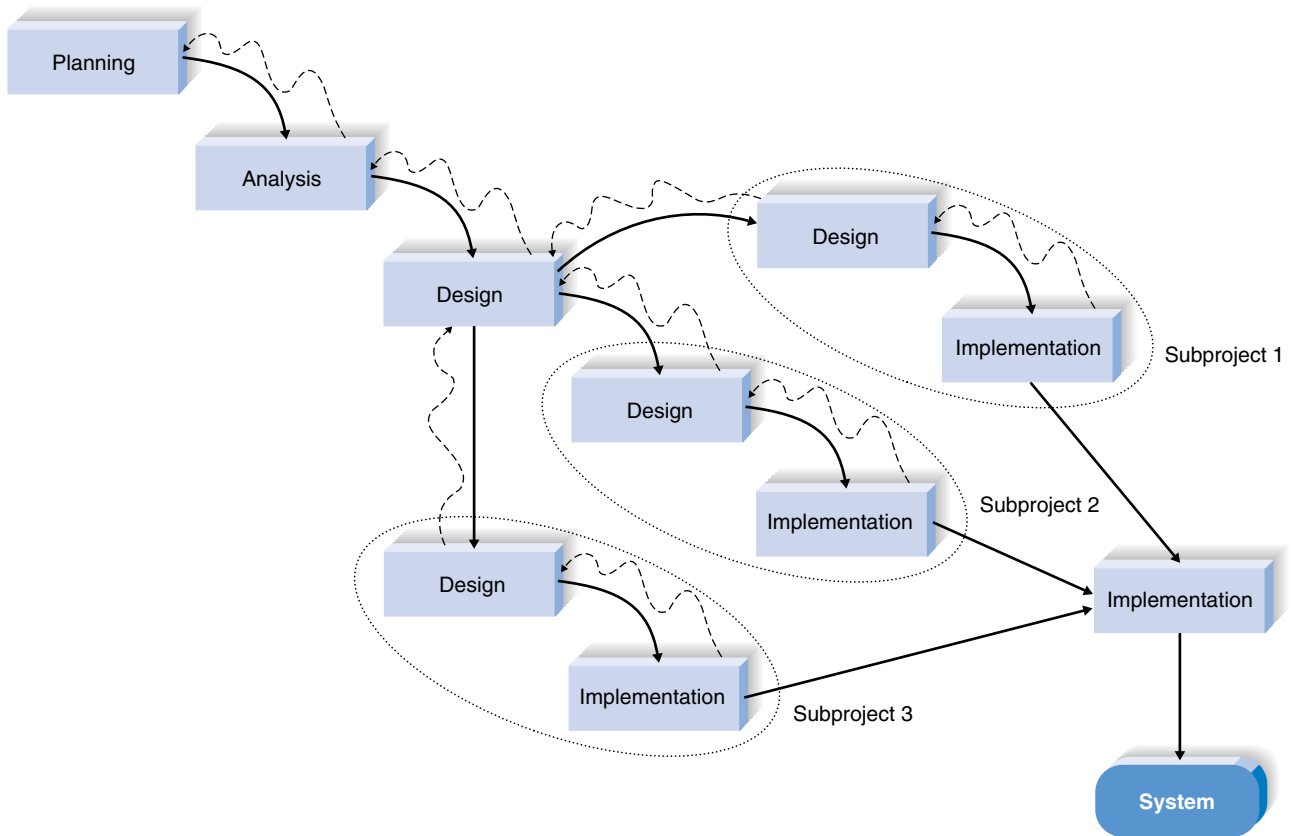


FIGURE 1-4
The Parallel Development Methodology

tions. It is the combination of the changed SDLC phases and the use of these tools and techniques that improves the speed and quality of systems development. There are process-centered, data-centered, and object-oriented methodologies that follow the basic approaches of the three RAD categories described next.

Phased development The *phased development* methodology breaks the overall system into a series of *versions* that are developed sequentially. The analysis phase identifies the overall system concept, and the project team, users, and system sponsor then categorize the requirements into a series of versions. The most important and fundamental requirements are bundled into the first version of the system. The analysis phase then leads into design and implementation, but only with the set of requirements identified for version 1 (Figure 1-5).

Once version 1 is implemented, work begins on version 2. Additional analysis is performed on the basis of the previously identified requirements and combined with new ideas and issues that arose from users' experience with version 1. Version 2 then is designed and implemented, and work immediately begins on the next version. This process continues until the system is complete or is no longer in use.

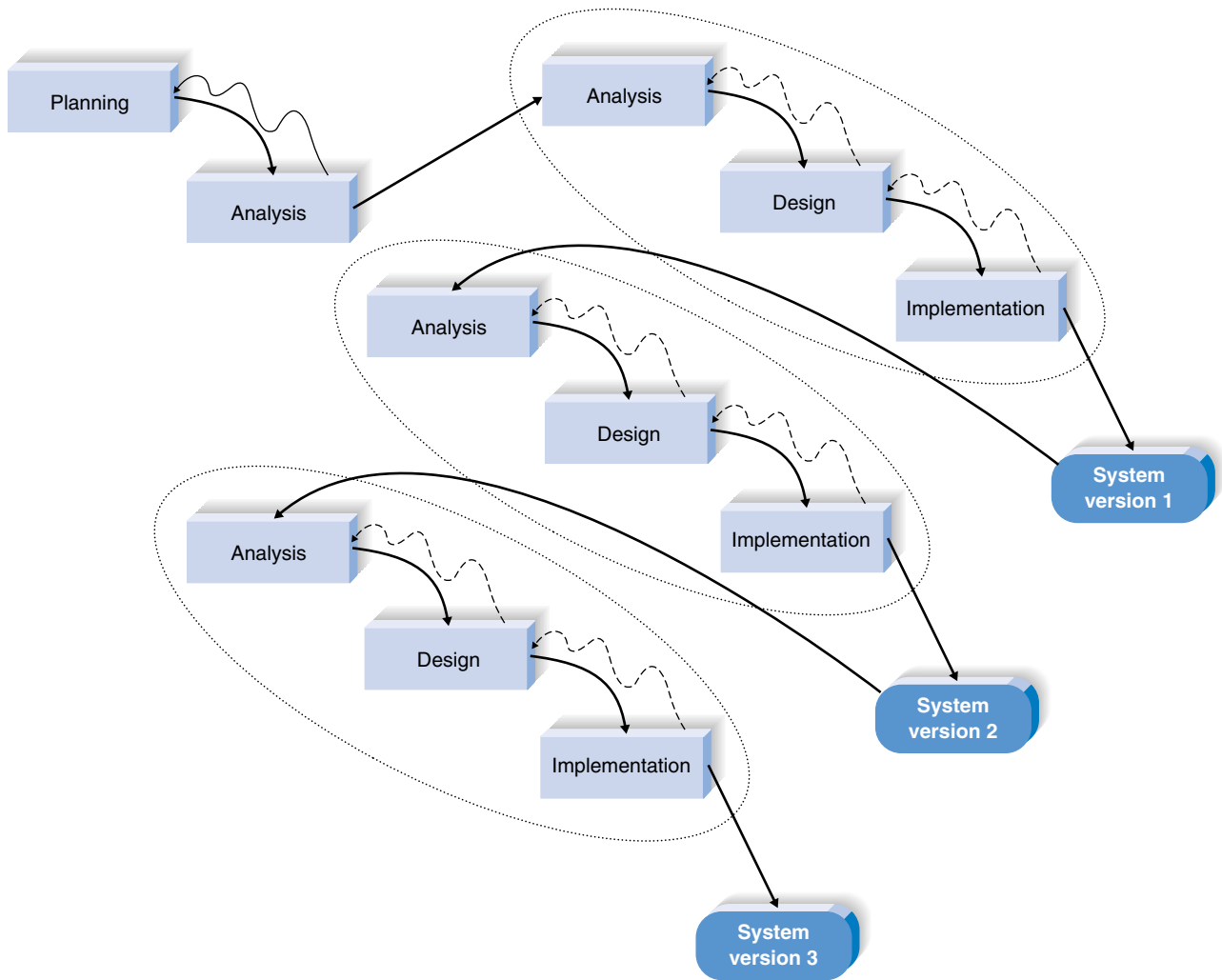


FIGURE 1-5
The Phased Development Methodology

Phased development has the advantage of quickly getting a useful system into the hands of the users. Although it does not perform all the functions the users need at first, it begins to provide business value sooner than if the system were delivered after completion, as is the case with the waterfall or parallel methodologies. Likewise, because users begin to work with the system sooner, they are more likely to identify important additional requirements sooner than with structured design situations.

The major drawback to phased development is that users begin to work with systems that are intentionally incomplete. It is critical to identify the most important and useful features and include them in the first version while managing users' expectations along the way.

Prototyping The *prototyping* methodology performs the analysis, design, and implementation phases concurrently, and all three phases are performed repeatedly

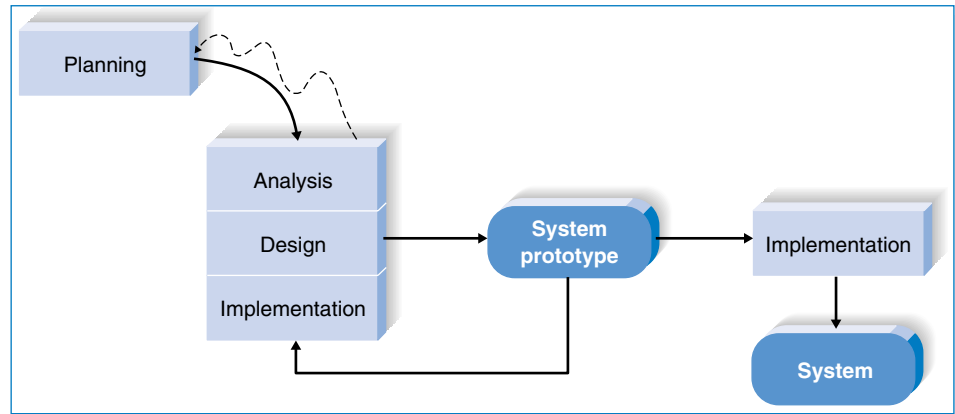


FIGURE 1-6
The Prototyping Methodology

in a cycle until the system is completed. With this approach, the basics of analysis and design are performed, and work immediately begins on a *system prototype*, a “quick-and-dirty” program that provides a minimal amount of features. The first prototype is usually the first part of the system that the user will use. This is shown to the users and the project sponsor, who provide comments, which are used to reanalyze, redesign, and reimplement a second prototype that provides a few more features. This process continues in a cycle until the analysts, users, and sponsor agree that the prototype provides enough functionality to be installed and used in the organization. After the prototype (now called the “system”) is installed, refinement occurs until it is accepted as the new system (Figure 1-6).

The key advantage of prototyping is that it *very* quickly provides a system for the users to interact with, even if it is not ready for widespread organizational use at first. Prototyping reassures the users that the project team is working on the system (there are no long delays in which the users see little progress), and the approach helps to more quickly refine real requirements. Rather than attempting to understand a system specification on paper, the users can interact with the prototype to better understand what it can and cannot do.

The major problem with prototyping is that its fast-paced system releases challenge attempts to conduct careful, methodical analysis. Often the prototype undergoes such significant changes that many initial design decisions become poor ones. This can cause problems in the development of complex systems because fundamental issues and problems are not recognized until well into the development process. Imagine building a car and discovering late in the prototyping process that you have to take the whole engine out to change the oil (because no one thought about the need to change the oil until after it had been driven 10,000 miles).

Throwaway Prototyping The *throwaway prototyping* methodology is similar to the prototyping methodology in that it includes the development of prototypes; however, throwaway prototypes are done at a different point in the SDLC. These prototypes are used for a very different purpose than ones previously discussed, and they have a very different appearance⁵ (Figure 1-7).

⁵ Our description of the throwaway prototyping methodology is a modified version of the spiral development methodology developed by Barry Boehm, “A Spiral Model of Software Development and Enhancement,” *Computer*, May 1988, 21(5):61–72.

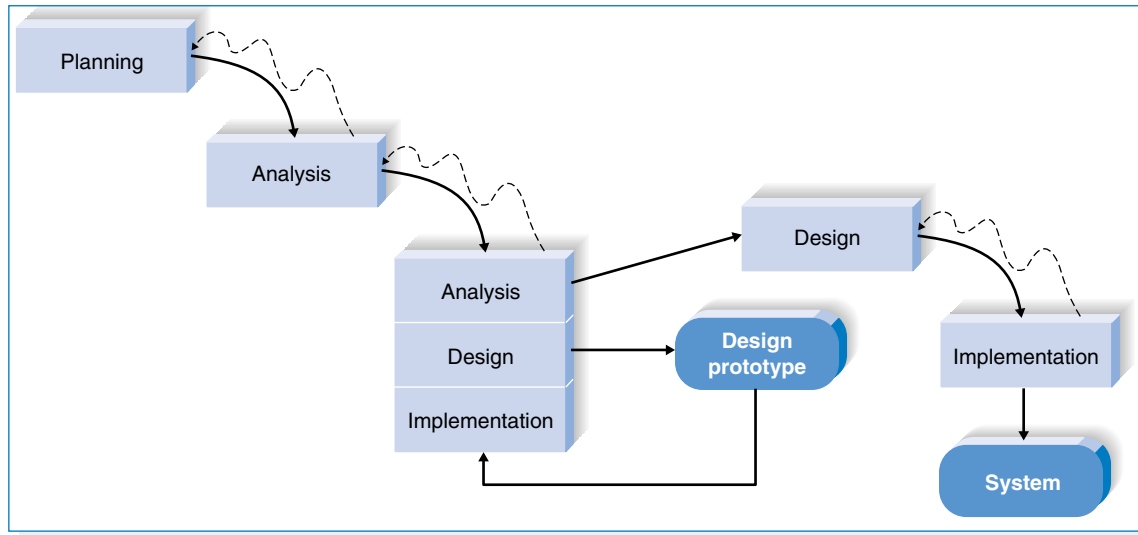


FIGURE 1-7
The Throwaway Prototyping Methodology

Throwaway prototyping has a relatively thorough analysis phase that is used to gather information and to develop ideas for the system concept. However, many of the features suggested by the users may not be well understood, and there may be challenging technical issues to be solved. Each of these issues is examined by analyzing, designing, and building a *design prototype*. A design prototype is not a working system; it only represents a part of the system that needs additional refinement and it contains only enough detail to enable users to understand the issues under consideration. For example, suppose users are not completely clear on how an order entry system should work. The analyst team might build a series of hyper-text mark-up language (HTML) pages viewed using a Web browser to help the users visualize such a system. In this case, a series of mock-up screens *appear* to be a system, but they really do nothing. Alternately, suppose that the project team needs to develop a sophisticated graphics program in Java. The team could write a portion of the program with pretend data to ensure that they could do a full-blown program successfully.

A system that is developed using this approach typically uses several design prototypes during the analysis and design phases. Each of the prototypes is used to minimize the risk associated with the system by confirming that important issues are understood before the real system is built. Once the issues are resolved, the project moves into design and implementation. At this point, the design prototypes are thrown away, which is an important difference between this approach and prototyping, in which the prototypes evolve into the final system.

Throwaway prototyping balances the benefits of well-thought-out analysis and design phases with the advantages of using prototypes to refine key issues before a system is built. It may take longer to deliver the final system as compared with prototyping (because the prototypes do not become the final system), but the approach usually produces more stable and reliable systems.

Agile Development

The third category of systems development methodologies is still emerging today, and it is called *Agile Development*. These programming-centric methodologies have few rules and practices, all of which are fairly easy to follow. They focus on streamlining the SDLC by eliminating much of the modeling and documentation overhead, and the time spent on those tasks. Instead, projects emphasize simple, iterative application development. Examples of Agile Development methodologies include extreme programming, scrum, and the dynamic systems development method (DSDM). The Agile Development approach as described next typically is used in conjunction with object-oriented methodologies.

Extreme Programming *Extreme programming (XP)*⁶ uses continuous testing, simple coding performed by pairs of developers, and close interactions with end users to build systems very quickly. After a superficial planning process, projects perform analysis, design, and implementation phases iteratively (Figure 1-8). The system functionality grows over time.

Testing and efficient coding practices are core to XP. In fact, each day code is tested and placed into an integrative testing environment. If bugs exist, the code is backed out until it is completely free of errors. XP relies heavily on refactoring, which is a disciplined way to restructure code to keep it simple.

An XP project begins with user stories that describe what the system needs to do. Then, programmers code in small, simple modules and test to meet those needs. Users are required to be available to clear up questions and issues as they arise. Standards are very important to minimize confusion, so XP teams use a common set of names, descriptions, and coding practices.

XP projects deliver results sooner than even the RAD approaches, and they rarely get bogged down in gathering requirements for the system. XP works very well when requirements are undefined or rapidly changing, and it can be a good fit with object-oriented technologies. The methodology works well with projects that have very short schedules or time-critical requirements.

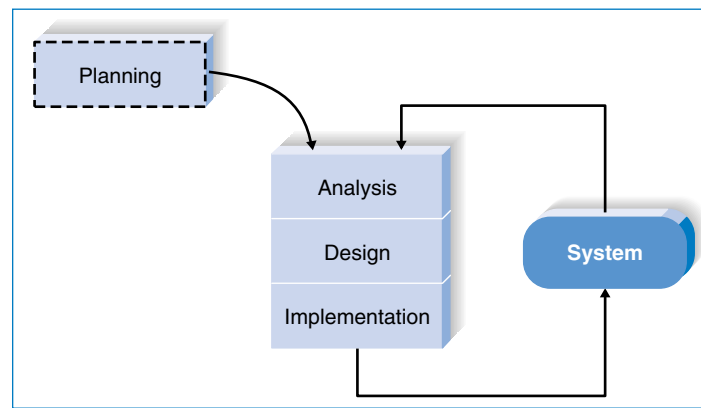


FIGURE 1-8
The Extreme Programming Methodology

⁶ For more information, see *Extreme Programming Explained: Embrace Change*, City: Addison-Wesley, 1999.

Ability to Develop Systems	Structured Methodologies			RAD Methodologies		Agile Methodologies
	Waterfall	Parallel	Phased	Prototyping	Throwaway Prototyping	XP
with Unclear User Requirements	Poor	Poor	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent
with Unfamiliar Technology	Poor	Poor	Good	Poor	Excellent	Poor
that are Complex	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Excellent	Poor
that are Reliable	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Excellent	Good
with a Short Time Schedule	Poor	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Good	Excellent
with Schedule Visibility	Poor	Poor	Excellent	Excellent	Good	Good

FIGURE 1-9
Criteria for Selecting a Methodology

XP requires a great deal of discipline, however. Otherwise, projects may become unfocused and chaotic. It is recommended for small groups of developers—no more than twelve developers working in pairs, and it is not advised for large applications. Also, the methodology needs a lot of on-site user input, something to which many business units cannot commit.

Selecting the Appropriate Development Methodology

Since there are many methodologies, the first challenge faced by analysts is to select which methodology to use. Choosing a methodology is not simple, because no one methodology is always best. (If it were, we'd simply use it everywhere!) Many organizations have standards and policies to guide the choice of methodology. You will find that organizations range from having one approved methodology to having several methodology options to having no formal policies at all.

Figure 1-9 summarizes some important methodology selection criteria. One important item not discussed in this figure is the degree of experience of the analyst team. Many of the RAD methodologies require the use of new tools and techniques that have a significant learning curve. Often these tools and techniques increase the complexity of the project and extra require time for learning. However, once they are adopted and the team becomes experienced, they can significantly increase the speed of the SDLC.

Clarity of User Requirements When the user requirements for what the system should do are unclear or subject to change, it is difficult to understand them by talking about them and explaining them with written reports. Users normally need to interact with technology to really understand what the new system can do and how to best apply it to their needs. Prototyping, throwaway prototyping, and XP usually more appropriate when user requirements are unclear or unstable because they provide prototypes for users to interact with early in the SDLC.

Familiarity with Technology When the system will use new technology with which the analysts and programmers are not familiar (e.g., the first Web development pro-

ject with Java), early application of the new technology in the SDLC will improve the chance of success. If the system is designed without some familiarity with the base technology, risks increase because the tools may not be capable of doing what is needed. Throwaway prototyping is particularly appropriate for a lack of familiarity with technology because it explicitly encourages the developers to develop design prototypes for areas with high risks. Phased development is good as well because it creates opportunities to investigate the technology in some depth before the design is complete. Although one might think prototyping would also be appropriate, it is much less so, because the early prototypes that are built usually only scratch the surface of the new technology. Usually, it is only after several prototypes and several months that the developers discover weaknesses or problems in the new technology.

System Complexity Complex systems require careful and detailed analysis and design. Throwaway prototyping is particularly well suited to such detailed analysis and design, but prototyping is not. The traditional structured methodologies can handle complex systems, but without the ability to get the system or prototypes into users' hands early on, some key issues may be overlooked. Even though the phased methodology enables users to interact with the system early in the process, we have observed that project teams who follow this methodology tend to devote less attention to the analysis of the complete problem domain than they might if they were using other methodologies.

System Reliability System reliability is usually an important factor in system development. After all, who wants an unreliable system? However, reliability is just one factor among several. For some applications reliability is truly critical (e.g., medical equipment, missile control systems), whereas for other applications it is merely important (e.g., games, Internet video). Throwaway prototyping is the most appropriate when system reliability is a high priority, because it combines detailed analysis and design phases with the ability for the project team to test many different approaches through design prototypes before completing the design. Prototyping is generally not a good choice when reliability is critical, because it lacks the careful analysis and design phases that are essential for dependable systems.

Short Time Schedules Projects that have short time schedules are well suited for RAD and Agile methodologies because those methodologies are designed to increase the speed of development. Prototyping, phased development, and XP are excellent choices when timelines are short because they best enable the project team to adjust the functionality in the system on the basis of a specific delivery date, and if the project schedule starts to slip, it can be readjusted by removing functionality from the version or prototype under development. The waterfall methodology is the worst choice when time is at a premium because it does not allow for easy schedule changes.

Schedule Visibility One of the greatest challenges in systems development is knowing whether a project is on schedule. This is particularly true of the structured methodologies because design and implementation occur at the end of the project. The RAD methodologies move many of the critical design decisions to an earlier point in the project to help project managers recognize and address risk factors and keep expectations in check.

PROJECT TEAM SKILLS AND ROLES

As should be clear from the various phases and steps performed during the SDLC, the project team needs a variety of skills. Project members are *change agents* who identify ways to improve an organization, build an information system to support them, and train and motivate others to use the system. Leading a successful organizational change effort is one of the most difficult jobs that someone can do. Understanding what to change, how to change it, and convincing others of the need for change requires a wide range of skills. These skills can be broken down into six major categories: technical, business, analytical, interpersonal, management, and ethical.

Analysts must have the technical skills to understand the organization's existing technical environment, the technology that will comprise the new system, and the way in which both can be fit into an integrated technical solution. Business skills are required to understand how IT can be applied to business situations and to ensure that the IT delivers real business value. Analysts are continuous problem solvers at both the project and the organizational level, and they put their analytical skills to the test regularly.

Often, analysts need to communicate effectively one-on-one with users and business managers (who often have little experience with technology) and with programmers (who often have more technical expertise than the analyst). They must be able to give presentations to large and small groups and write reports. Not only do they need to have strong interpersonal abilities, but also they need to manage people with whom they work and to manage the pressure and risks associated with unclear situations.

Finally, analysts must deal fairly, honestly, and ethically with other project team members, managers, and system users. Analysts often deal with confidential information or information that if shared with others could cause harm (e.g., dissent among employees); it is important to maintain confidence and trust with all people.

In addition to these six general skill sets, analysts require many specific skills that are associated with roles that are performed on a project. In the early days of systems development, most organizations expected one person, the analyst, to have all of the specific skills needed to conduct a systems development project. Some small organizations still expect one person to perform many roles, but because organizations and technology have become more complex, most large organizations now build project teams that contain several individuals with clearly defined responsibilities. Different organizations divide the roles differently, but Figure 1-10

YOUR

T U R N

1-1 SELECTING A METHODOLOGY

Suppose you are an analyst for the ABC Company, a large consulting firm with offices around the world. The company wants to build a new knowledge management system that can identify and track the expertise of individual consultants anywhere in the world on the basis of their education and the various consulting projects on which they have worked. Assume that this is a new idea that has never before been

attempted in ABC or elsewhere. ABC has an international network, but the offices in each country may use somewhat different hardware and software. ABC management wants the system up and running within a year.

QUESTION:

What methodology would you recommend ABC Company use? Why?

Role	Responsibilities
Business analyst	Analyzing the key business aspects of the system Identifying how the system will provide business value Designing the new business processes and policies
Systems analyst	Identifying how technology can improve business processes Designing the new business processes Designing the information system Ensuring that the system conforms to information systems standards
Infrastructure analyst	Ensuring the system conforms to infrastructure standards Identifying infrastructure changes needed to support the system
Change management analyst	Developing and executing a change management plan Developing and executing a user training plan
Project manager	Managing the team of analysts, programmers, technical writers, and other specialists Developing and monitoring the project plan Assigning resources Serving as the primary point of contact for the project

FIGURE 1-10
Project Team Roles

presents one commonly used set of project team roles. Most IS teams include many other individuals, such as the *programmers* who actually write the programs that make up the system and *technical writers*, who prepare the help screens and other documentation (e.g., users manuals, systems manuals).

Business Analyst

The *business analyst* focuses on the business issues surrounding the system. These include identifying the business value that the system will create, developing ideas and suggestions for how the business processes can be improved, and designing the new processes and policies in conjunction with the systems analyst. This individual will likely have business experience and some type of professional training (e.g., the business analyst for accounting systems will likely be a CPA [certified public accountant in the United States] or a CA [chartered accountant in Great Britain and Canada]). He or she represents the interests of the project sponsor and the ultimate users of the system. The business analyst assists in the planning and design phases but is most active in the analysis phase.

Systems Analyst

The *systems analyst* focuses on the IS issues surrounding the system. This person develops ideas and suggestions for how IT can improve business processes, designs the new business processes with help from the business analyst, designs the new information system, and ensures that all IS standards are maintained. The systems

YOUR
TURN

1-2 BEING AN ANALYST

Suppose you decide to become an analyst after you graduate. What type of analyst would you most prefer to be? What type of courses should you take before you graduate? What type of summer job or internship should you seek?

QUESTION:

Develop a short plan that describes how you will prepare for your career as an analyst.

analyst likely will have significant training and experience in analysis and design, programming, and even areas of the business. He or she represents the interests of the IS department and works intensively throughout the project but perhaps less so during the implementation phase.

Infrastructure Analyst

The *infrastructure analyst* focuses on the technical issues surrounding how the system will interact with the organization's technical infrastructure (e.g., hardware, software, networks, and databases). The infrastructure analyst's tasks include ensuring that the new information system conforms to organizational standards and identifying infrastructure changes needed to support the system. This individual will likely have significant training and experience in networking, database administration, and various hardware and software products. He or she represents the interests of the organization and IS group that ultimately will have to operate and support the new system once it has been installed. The infrastructure analyst works throughout the project but perhaps less so during planning and analysis phases.

Change Management Analyst

The *change management analyst* focuses on the people and management issues surrounding the system installation. The roles of this person include ensuring that adequate documentation and support are available to users, providing user training on the new system, and developing strategies to overcome resistance to change. This individual likely will have significant training and experience in organizational behavior in general and change management in particular. He or she represents the interests of the project sponsor and users for whom the system is being designed. The change management analyst works most actively during the implementation phase but begins laying the groundwork for change during the analysis and design phases.

Project Manager

The *project manager* is responsible for ensuring that the project is completed on time and within budget and that the system delivers all benefits that were intended by the project sponsor. The role of the project manager includes managing the team members, developing the project plan, assigning resources, and being the primary

point of contact when people outside the team have questions about the project. This individual likely will have significant experience in project management and likely has worked for many years as a systems analyst beforehand. He or she represents the interests of the IS department and the project sponsor. The project manager works intensely during all phases of the project.

SUMMARY

The System Development Life Cycle

All system development projects follow essentially the same fundamental process called the system development life cycle (SDLC). SDLC starts with a planning phase in which the project team identifies the business value of the system, conducts a feasibility analysis, and plans the project. The second phase is the analysis phase, in which the team develops an analysis strategy, gathers information, writes use cases, builds a process model, and builds a data model. In the next phase, the design phase, the team develops the physical design, architecture design, interface design, data storage design, and program design. In the final phase, implementation, the system is built, installed, and maintained.

Systems Development Methodologies

Structured design methodologies, such as waterfall and parallel development, use a formal step-by-step approach to the SDLC that moves logically from one phase to the next (and makes it hard to reverse direction). They produce a solid, well-thought-out system but can overlook requirements because users must specify them early in the design process before seeing the actual system. Rapid application development (RAD) methodologies attempt to speed up development and make it easier for users to specify requirements by having parts of the system developed sooner either by producing different versions (phased development) or by using prototypes (prototyping, throwaway prototyping). Agile development methodologies focus on streamlining the SDLC by eliminating many of the tasks and time associated with requirements definition and documentation. The choice of a methodology is influenced by the clarity of the user requirements, familiarity with the base technology, system complexity, the need for system reliability, time pressures, and the need to see progress on the time schedule.

Project Team Roles and Skills

The project team needs a variety of skills. All analysts need to have general skills, such as technical, business, analytical, interpersonal, management, and ethical. However, different kinds of analysts require specific skills in addition to these. Business analysts usually have business skills that help them to understand the business issues surrounding the system, whereas systems analysts also have significant experience in analysis and design and programming. The infrastructure analyst focuses on technical issues surrounding how the system will interact with the organization's technical infrastructure, and the change management analyst focuses on people and management issues surrounding the system installation. In addition to analysts, project teams will include a project manager, programmers, technical writers, and other specialists.

KEY TERMS

Agile development	Gradual refinement	Step
Analysis phase	Implementation phase	Structured design
Analysis strategy	Infrastructure analyst	Support plan
Approval committee	Interface design	System analyst
Architecture design	Methodology	System development life cycle (SDLC)
As-is system	Object-oriented methodology	System proposal
Business analyst	Parallel development	System prototype
Change agent	Phase	System request
Change management analyst	Phased development	System specification
Construction	Planning phase	Technical writer
Conversion	Process model	Technique
Data model	Process-centered methodology	Throwaway prototyping
Data storage design	Program design	To-be system
Data-centered methodology	Programmer	Training plan
Deliverable	Project manager	Version
Design phase	Project binder	Waterfall development
Design prototype	Project sponsor	Workplan
Design selection	Prototyping	
Extreme programming	Rapid application development (RAD)	
Feasibility analysis		

QUESTIONS

- Compare and contrast phases, steps, techniques, and deliverables.
- Describe the major phases in the systems development life cycle (SDLC).
- Describe the principal steps in the planning phase. What are some major deliverables?
- Describe the principal steps in the analysis phase. What are some major deliverables?
- Describe the principal steps in the design phase. What are some major deliverables?
- Describe the principal steps in the implementation phase. What are some major deliverables?
- What does *gradual refinement* mean in the context of SDLC?
- Compare and contrast process-centered methodologies, data-centered methodologies, and object-oriented methodologies.
- Compare and contrast structured design methodologies in general to rapid application development (RAD) methodologies in general.
- Compare and contrast extreme programming and throwaway prototyping.
- Describe the major elements and issues with waterfall development.
- Describe the major elements and issues with parallel development.
- Describe the major elements and issues with phased development.
- Describe the major elements and issues with prototyping.
- What are the key factors in selecting a methodology?
- What are the six general skills all project team members should have?
- What are the major roles on a project team?
- Compare and contrast the role of a systems analyst, business analyst, and infrastructure analyst.
- Why do you think the most popular methodology in the 1970s and 1980s was waterfall development? Why do you think RAD approaches are more common today? Why are Agile approaches becoming popular?
- Which phase in the SDLC is most important?

EXERCISES

- A. Suppose you are a project manager using the waterfall development methodology on a large and complex project. Your manager has just read the latest article in *Computerworld* that advocates replacing the waterfall methodology with prototyping and comes to your office requesting you to switch. What do you say?
- B. The six basic methodologies discussed in this chapter can be combined and integrated to form new hybrid methodologies. Suppose you were to combine throwaway prototyping with the use of parallel development. What would the methodology look like? Draw a picture (similar to Figure 1-7). How would this new methodology compare to the others? Develop a new column for Figure 1-8.
- C. Suppose you were an analyst working for a small company to develop an accounting system. What methodology would you use? Why?
- D. Suppose you were an analyst developing a new executive information system (EIS) intended to provide key strategic information from existing corporate databases to senior executives to help in their decision making. What methodology would you use? Why?
- E. Suppose you were an analyst developing a new information system to automate the sales transactions and manage inventory for each retail store in a large chain. The system would be installed at each store and exchange data with a mainframe computer at the company's head office. What methodology would you use? Why?
- F. Look in the classified section of your local newspaper. What kinds of job opportunities are available for people who want analyst positions? Compare and contrast the skills that the ads ask for to the skills that we presented in this chapter.
- G. Think about your ideal analyst position. Write a newspaper ad to hire someone for that position. What requirements would the job have? What skills and experience would be required? How would applicants demonstrate that they have the appropriate skills and experience?

MINICASES

1. Barbara Singleton, manager of western regional sales at the WAMAP Company, requested that the IS department develop a sales force management and tracking system that would enable her to better monitor the performance of her sales staff. Unfortunately, due to the massive backlog of work facing the IS department, her request was given a low priority. After 6 months of inaction by the IS department, Barbara decided to take matters into her own hands. Based on the advice of friends, Barbara purchased a PC and simple database software and constructed a sales force management and tracking system on her own.

Although Barbara's system has been "completed" for about 6 weeks, it still has many features that do not work correctly, and some functions are full of errors. Barbara's assistant is so mistrustful of the system that she has secretly gone back to using her old paper-based system, since it is much more reliable.

Over dinner one evening, Barbara complained to a systems analyst friend, "I don't know what went wrong with this project. It seemed pretty simple to me. Those IS guys wanted me to follow this elaborate set of steps

and tasks, but I didn't think all that really applied to a PC-based system. I just thought I could build this system and tweak it around until I got what I wanted without all the fuss and bother of the methodology the IS guys were pushing. I mean, doesn't that just apply to their big, expensive systems?"

Assuming you are Barbara's systems analyst friend, how would you respond to her complaint?

2. Marcus Weber, IS project manager at ICAN Mutual Insurance Co., is reviewing the staffing arrangements for his next major project, the development of an expert system-based underwriters assistant. This new system will involve a whole new way for the underwriters to perform their tasks. The underwriters assistant system will function as sort of an underwriting supervisor, reviewing key elements of each application, checking for consistency in the underwriter's decisions, and ensuring that no critical factors have been overlooked. The goal of the new system is to improve the quality of the underwriters' decisions and to improve underwriter productivity. It is expected that the new system will substantially change the way the underwriting staff do their jobs.

Marcus is dismayed to learn that due to budget constraints, he must choose between one of two available staff members. Barry Filmore has had considerable experience and training in individual and organizational behavior. Barry has worked on several other projects in which the end users had to make significant adjustments to the new system, and Barry seems to have a knack for anticipating problems and smoothing the transition to a new work environment. Marcus had hoped to have Barry's involvement in this project.

Marcus's other potential staff member is Kim Danville. Prior to joining ICAN Mutual, Kim had con-

siderable work experience with the expert system technologies that ICAN has chosen for this expert system project. Marcus was counting on Kim to help integrate the new expert system technology into ICAN's systems environment, and also to provide on-the-job training and insights to the other developers on this team.

Given that Marcus's budget will only permit him to add Barry or Kim to this project team, but not both, what choice do you recommend for him? Justify your answer.

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