



Why Can't We Manage Large Projects?

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Changing managers, procurement regulations, acquisition procedures, or contracting provisions have not resolved the cost and schedule problems of large-scale system development. This article shows the problems that organizations face with large system projects—and how one government organization has succeeded, over a period of several years, using the Team Software Process (TSPSM).

The Naval Oceanographic Office (NAVO) Systems Integration Division began working with the SEI 15 years ago. Their group produces software for a range of systems that supply oceanographic and meteorological data to the U.S. Navy's worldwide fleet. These are enormous terabyte systems that operate 24-7, and their subsystems provide critical operational information to almost every branch of the Navy.

Ed Battle—branch head then, and now Systems Integration Division director—recalled that when they started working with the SEI, projects were always late, requirements were frequently misunderstood or wrong, and there was no cooperation among the many interdependent groups. When critical delivery dates approached, the director tracked the work with regular Monday, Wednesday, and Friday status meetings. While these meetings raised the pressure and took a lot of time, they didn't shed much light on project status.

Battle's question to us at the SEI was: "Isn't there a better way?"

The Large System Problem

The problems Battle's group faced are typical. Large system projects fail all the time and the larger they are, the more likely they are to fail. For example, the new IRS system was five years late when it was first used in 2005, but its costs had exploded to \$2 billion. A recent Government Accountability Office defense acquisition assessment of 72 typical weapons programs found that the development costs had climbed 40 percent from the first estimates, there was an average delay of 21 months, and the total systems overrun was \$2 billion [1].

The situation is even worse for truly massive systems programs, as the New York Times also recently reported: Two-thirds of the largest weapons systems ran over their budgets last year, for a com-

bined extra cost of \$296 billion [2]. These programs were, on average, almost two years behind schedule.

Problem Causes

Studies show that these development problems are typically not caused by technology issues but are largely due to program management [3]. Unfortunately, the

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common reaction to program management problems is to replace the program managers. This blame-based culture stifles communication and fosters an opaque and defensive management style. We have been changing managers for years, but it should now be obvious that the problem isn't bad managers: They are good people put in untenable positions.

For example, the replacement FBI system was recently killed when it fell three years behind schedule and after the project had spent \$150 million. The program had a total of five CIOs and nine program managers. Clearly, changing managers did not fix the FBI's problems. But neither did changing acquisition systems, reorganizing the Pentagon, or modifying procedures. Projects keep failing. In fact, more and more large projects fail these days than in the past—and the failures are even more expensive and painful.

The common view is that the program manager is responsible for doing whatever is required to get the job done. If new management or technical methods were needed, he or she should put them in place or take whatever steps were needed to do so. But the fact that these large projects keep failing suggests that program managers don't know what to do. However, we must do something and it should by now be clear that relying on program managers to fix these projects isn't working. This article suggests how to address these problems in a way that program managers can implement today.

Knowledge Work

We explained to the NAVO that the problems with software work were an early indicator of the problems that would soon plague all aspects of modern engineering work. Software has been hard to manage since the beginning, but the reason has nothing to do with the technology. The reason is that software is a different kind of work.

For the more traditional work of the past, the managers could walk around the lab or plant and see what was going on. This is called management by walking around (MBWA), a very effective way to keep management informed about the work and for keeping the workers on their toes. However, the principal problem with MBWA is that it is only effective for work that one can understand by watching the workers do it. Today, most sophisticated technical work is more like software: A great deal of the creative effort is done on a computer or in a worker's head, and results are largely invisible to the casual observer. Peter Drucker, the first to describe knowledge work, said that it is work with the mind rather than with the hands [4]. The products, instead of being things you can touch and feel, are ideas. While these ideas may ultimately be embodied in physical products, the bulk of the work, and the true product value, is in the creative effort required to develop

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these ideas and transform them into marketable products.

Traditional Management

Even though the workers and much of their work is vastly different from 100 years ago, today's traditional management methods are still based largely on the principles from Fredrick Winslow Taylor's 1911 book, "The Principles of Scientific Management" [5]. Taylor's methods were designed for uneducated workers and the relatively simple manual tasks of the past. The kind of work and the skills and methods involved in much of today's work are quite different, but today's management methods still follow Taylor's command and control principles. Unfortunately, with software and most other sophisticated technical work, these methods are not effective in controlling project costs, schedules, or quality. While the managers may try valiantly to manage the work, they cannot know what the knowledge workers are doing or how they are doing it.

The end result is that today's managers cannot truly manage their knowledge-working projects. That means that these projects are not being managed, and everybody knows that unmanaged projects usually fail. Unfortunately, the managers are generally blamed for the failures when the real problem is with the management system—and not the managers. The answer is not to replace potentially very capable managers, but to change the management methods. Program managers, however, typically do not know what changes to make and are understandably reluctant to change to a new management method that is not in general use by other similar programs.

Managing Knowledge Work

In considering how to manage knowledge work, Drucker concluded that since managers cannot truly manage such work, the knowledge workers must manage themselves. While many managers say that they already involve their people in their own management, involvement is quite different from responsibility. To truly manage themselves, the knowledge workers must be trained in personal and team management methods and they must be held responsible for producing their own plans, negotiating their own commitments, and meeting these commitments with quality products. The manager's job is no longer to manage the knowledge-working teams but to lead, motivate, support, and coach them.

Software teams like to work this way. Where once they struggled to meet man-

Management Principles for Knowledge Work

The management principles for knowledge work are fundamentally different from those for traditional engineering. The five management principles for knowledge work—which were adopted from my forthcoming book "Leadership, Teamwork, and Trust: Building a Competitive Software Capability"—are as follows:

1. **Trust the knowledge workers.** Management must trust the knowledge workers and teams to manage themselves.
2. **Build trustworthy teams.** The knowledge-working teams must be trustworthy. That is, they must be willing and able to manage themselves.
3. **Rely on facts and data.** The management system must rely on facts and dates—rather than status and seniority—when making decisions.
4. **Manage quality.** Quality must be the organization's highest priority.
5. **Provide leadership.** Management must provide their knowledge workers with the leadership and support they need to manage themselves.

agement's schedule targets, they now negotiate their own commitments with management. The teams feel personally responsible for and in control of their work, they know project status, and they have the data to defend their estimates. When they see problems, they resolve them or get management's help. Furthermore, when the knowledge workers measure, track, and report on their work, the managers have the data to help them resolve problems. Then the entire management system can participate in making their programs successful.

When knowledge-working teams have appropriate management, training, and support, they can work in this way (see the sidebar for the principles of knowledge management). Then they consistently meet their cost and schedule commitments with high-quality products. What's more, these identical knowledge-working principles can be applied to all of the engineering projects in an organization, producing a measurable and trackable knowledge-work management process across a large program or even an entire organization.

Workplace Objectives

One of the more fundamental problems with current management practices is that the workers and managers have different views of project success. Studies show that product developers view a project as successful if the work was technically interesting and they worked on a cohesive and supportive team [6]. This was true whether or not the project met its cost or schedule objectives. Conversely, the managers viewed projects as successful if they met their cost and schedule targets with little regard for the nature of the technical work or the working team environment. This difference in workplace objectives has a profound effect on program management. For example, when the program

manager wants to know when some large program will finish, he or she asks the project leaders. They then talk to their team members. The team members view the schedule as management's problem, however, and give vague answers such as "I'm almost through the design," or "Just a couple more bugs and I'll finish testing." While the knowledge workers are typically the first to sense that a project is in schedule trouble, they have no way to precisely describe job status. Rather than say something and risk getting involved in a lot of management debates, knowledge workers would rather concentrate on their technical work and leave the schedule problems for their managers.

The Surprise Problem

Fred Brooks once said, "Projects slip a day at a time" [7]. To keep their projects on schedule, all that managers have to do is make sure that their teams recover from these one-day slips every day. With large-scale knowledge work, however, the managers can't see these small daily problems and the developers don't have the data to describe them. As a result, the managers can't take action to recover from the one-day slips. By the time the schedule slips are large enough to be visible, it is too late to do anything about them. This is why projects that are run by very capable and experienced managers keep having cost, schedule, and quality problems. The managers don't have the feedback they need to see problems in time to prevent them. It is as if they were driving a car at a high speed in a dense fog. Once they see a problem, it is right in front of them, and they must make a panicked effort to avoid a crash. Today, in large systems projects, the managers are driving fast in a fog—and crashes happen all the time.

By the time more senior managers see these project crashes, the schedule delays

are typically quite significant. Furthermore, on a large project with many interdependencies, delays in any one part will affect many others. This means that many parts of a large program will probably get into schedule problems at about the same time. The managers of the many parts of the program then face a difficult choice: be the first to admit to schedule problems or wait for someone else to get into trouble first.

Blame-Based Management

Unfortunately, with the current system, senior leadership tends to blame the managers for management problems. By being the first to admit problems, the managers could easily be blamed for the entire program's problems. Not surprisingly, most managers decide to concentrate on the problems they can solve and wait for someone else to blow the whistle. By the time the problems are visible to senior leadership, the program is in such serious trouble that there is no chance to recover. Then everyone upstairs is surprised.

The combination of a *blame-based management system* and the lack of precise project status measures motivates both opaque management and a general reluctance to admit to problems. With large and complex systems programs, every part is important: Problems anywhere can delay everyone. That is why every component element of the work must be managed and tracked and why every team must strive to meet all of its commitments. That is also why, without precise status information, all estimates and commitments at the team level (and, for that matter every higher level) are just guesses. Finally, that is why, with today's typical management systems, large projects are almost always late and over budget.

The NAVO and the TSP

After we had reviewed these points with Battle and his associates, he agreed that it all sounded very reasonable—but wondered how it would help him and the other managers keep their large programs on schedule. We explained that the SEI had developed a knowledge-working process called the TSP, and that one of its principal features was that its management system was based on precise, operational-level data [8]. With the TSP, the developers gather and use data to manage their own work, and they use their data to accu-

rately measure project status to within fractions of a day. TSP teams report their status to management every week, and management can see exactly where every element of every project stands. With precise status information, management can see small cost and schedule problems before they become serious. They can then take timely action to identify and resolve the problems.

When knowledge workers have been trained and know how to manage themselves, they have detailed plans and know project status precisely. They also feel responsible for managing their own problems and, when they need help, can call on their teammates or, if needed, on manage-

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ment. No process can eliminate problems; they are a natural consequence of doing large-scale complex work. But with sufficient warning, recovery actions are almost always possible—and most of the problems can be avoided or resolved without a crash. The key is early warning: That is why detailed plans, precise status measures, and working-level issue ownership are critical. For knowledge work, you will only get an early warning when the knowledge workers manage themselves.

However, just training workers how to manage themselves is not enough. Many of the problems with current engineering work are caused not by the workers and managers themselves, but because they do not properly use the knowledge they already have. To use what is learned, they must know what to do and how and when to do it. For large-scale projects, an operational process is essential. Program management is a matter of detail, and every step must be done precisely and correctly. Just like airline pilots when they do their final preflight checks, they follow a detailed

checklist. While they know every step and have done it thousands of times, studies have shown that most airplane accidents involve at least one case of a skipped step or an improperly followed checklist. This focus on precise work is the role of an operational process: to ensure that every step is done precisely and correctly.

For many of the simple tasks that we do all the time, we know unconsciously what to do and how to do it. But for complex or new and unfamiliar tasks—such as personal planning, precise schedule management, and data-intensive quality management—the steps are not obvious. That means that merely training the knowledge workers in theoretical methods will not get them to use the methods correctly or consistently. For that, they must have an operational process with quality measures and trackable plans. But once knowledge workers are properly trained, know why and how to manage themselves, and have an operational process that they actually use, they can make and follow detailed plans and precisely track and report their progress against these plans.

The NAVO Experience

When the NAVO started working with the SEI, they originally used the Capability Maturity Model® (CMM®). It was helpful, but gave them the *what* when they needed help with the *how*—and it was difficult to implement. On the other hand, the NAVO found that the TSP was a better fit, with the guidance they needed to properly manage their projects. It also provided for rapid training (initial team-member training takes a week), with teams soon after launching the TSP and managing themselves.

Once the teams were using the TSP, the benefits of better planning, tracking, and reduced test time were immediately apparent. Many organizations even found that the savings from just the first project pay for that team's entire training and introduction costs. The team can then continue using it without any further training investment.

After using the TSP for several years, Battle reported that their product quality levels have improved by about 10 times and that testing times have been reduced from months to weeks. Schedule and cost performance is much more predictable than before, and the Monday, Wednesday, and Friday weekly status meetings are no longer needed. Team cooperation and coordination was also greatly improved. Battle's final conclusion was that, “This is the only way to manage large knowledge-working projects.”

* The Capability Maturity Model and CMM are registered in the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office by Carnegie Mellon University.

Conclusions

The consistent failure of large-scale development programs not only costs a lot of time and money, it delays the introduction of promising new technology and deprives our fighting forces of the tools they need to protect our nation. By now it should be obvious that the U.S. defense industry lacks the motivation to address this problem. For example, a mid-level executive of a major defense contractor recently told me that he could not afford to use high quality development methods like the TSP because it would reduce his revenue. His organization gets paid when they overrun projects and they get new contracts to fix their defective products. If this executive eliminated this source of revenue, he would lose his job. One could argue that the answer to this situation would be fixed-price contracts, but this approach has been tried several times in the last 50 years and has not solved the problem. It merely converts technical issues into contract disputes and the contractors get paid anyway.

Similarly, the program managers can't solve this problem. Even if they were familiar with the TSP and convinced that it would work, they would be reluctant to try something before it had been widely used by other programs or recommended by acquisition management. The TSP has a proven record of success and it could help to address this problem right now. The DoD—or some other government agency—should evaluate or test the TSP¹ and other promising methods to determine their suitability. It should then determine the best methods to use in managing these large programs and recommend that program managers require their contractors to use these methods. This should not be an expensive or time-consuming effort. Large-scale systems development is too critical a national problem to ignore—and the savings could be enormous. ♦

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Software Defense Application

There aren't many organizations bigger than the defense industry—and none with a bigger need for success in their large-scale development programs—where failure can have billion-dollar financial impacts and, worse yet, present dangerous security vulnerabilities. TSP creator Watts S. Humphrey, whose groundbreaking 2000 report outlining the TSP (see <www.sei.cmu.edu/reports/00tr023.pdf>) was sponsored by the DoD, feels that our defense industry can benefit significantly more from the process. Through past experiences, and the success of an organization providing oceanographic products and services to all DoD elements, Humphrey shows how and why the DoD needs the TSP now more than ever.

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Additional Resources

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Note

1. For the basics of the TSP, see <www.sei.cmu.edu/tsp> and past *CROSSTALK* issues (<www.stsc.hill.af.mil/crosstalk/2005/03>, <www.stsc.hill.af.mil/crosstalk/2006/03>, and <www.stsc.hill.af.mil/crosstalk/2002/09>). To examine more detailed information about the TSP, see the Additional Resources section of this article. For a summary of TSP project results, see <www.sei.cmu.edu/reports/03tr014.pdf> and slide 17 of <www.cmmi.news.com/2009/pdfs-sessions/73.pdf>. For more on organizations using TSP, see <www.sei.cmu.edu/tsp/case-studies>.

About the Author



Watts S. Humphrey joined the SEI after his retirement from IBM. He established the SEI's Process Program and led development of the CMM for Software, the PSP, and the TSP. At IBM, he managed their commercial software development and was vice president of technical development. He is a fellow for the SEI, the Association of Computing Machinery, and the IEEE. He is also a past member of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Board of Examiners. In 2005, President George W. Bush awarded Humphrey the prestigious National Medal of Technology for his contributions to the software engineering community. He holds master's degrees in physics and business administration and an honorary doctorate in software engineering.

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