MEASURING COORDINATION GAPS OF OPEN SOURCE GROUPS THROUGH SOCIAL NETWORKS

Szabolcs Feczak and Liaquat Hossain

Faculty of Engineering and IT, The University of Sydney, PNR J05, Sydney, Australia

Keywords: Coordination gaps, Social Networks, Distributed Teams, Open Source Software.

Abstract: In this paper, we argue that coordination gaps, such as communication issues and task dependencies have significant impact on performance of work group. To address these issues, contemporary science suggests optimising links between social aspects of society and technical aspects of machines. A framework is proposed to describe social network structure and coordination performance variables with regards to distributed coordination during bug fixing in the Open Source domain. Based on the model and the literature reviewed, we propose two propositions—(i) level of interconnectedness has a negative relation with coordination performance variables. We provide empirical analysis by using a large sample of 415 open source projects hosted on SourceForge.net. The results suggest that there is relationship between interconnectedness and coordination performance variables of coordination measures were found to have positive relationships with the performance variables of coordination measures.

1 INTRODUCTION

Coordination can be viewed as the additional information processing required in order achieving the same goal with multiple actors as one would do alone. However, management of the dependencies and efficient communication is required to minimise coordination gaps. (Malone, 1988)

Previous studies focus on measures such as the efficiency of communication and dependency management, the quality of the outcomes, degree of meeting requirements and deadlines for reducing coordination gaps of project groups working towards a common goal. (Rathnam & Mahajan & Whinston, 1995: Kraut, 1995: Faraj & Sproull, 2000) Nevertheless, management of coordination for a distributed team imposes higher variability in the dependency management requirements and therefore, makes the coordination much more challenging compared to groups operating on the same site and not having this sort of distance. (Bonaccorsi & Rossi, 2003) Group awareness therefore can help to raise the level of efficiency through implicit coordination. (Gutwin, 2004)

Since one major facet of coordination is communication, it is important to study relation between network structures and coordination performance in a distributed environment. Centrality has been identified to have major positive influence on coordination performance in local teams, but has not been confirmed yet on large scale. (Rathnam, 1995) Therefore, analysis of coordination problems in dynamic and dispersed collaboration groups through their social structure is considered to be an important area of research.

In social networks centrality denotes the structural power position of a node in a given network. Centrality has three measures (a) Freeman degree centrality - number of adjacent nodes, (b) closeness - reciprocal value of the total number of hops in the shortest possible way to every other node. and (c) betweeness - number of times the node appears on the shortest path between other nodes. The higher the value is the more influence can a particular node has on the entire network. Centrality is not only understood on nodes, a characteristic value can be calculated for the total network as well using any if the above measures. Network density is the number of links divided by the number of all theoretically possible links. (Robert & Hanneman, 2001; Freeman 1979)

There are several studies in the open source domain looking for answers regarding coordination. (Madey & Freeh & Tynan, 2002; Spaeth, 2005)

84

Feczak S. and Hossain L. (2009). MEASURING COORDINATION GAPS OF OPEN SOURCE GROUPS THROUGH SOCIAL NETWORKS. In Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Enterprise Information Systems - Human-Computer Interaction, pages 84-90 DOI: 10.5220/0001994200840090 Copyright © SciTePress



Figure 1: OSS Coordination performance model.

"Free and Open Source Software development not only exemplifies a viable software development approach, but it is also a model for the creation of self learning and self-organising communities in which geographically distributed individuals contribute to build a particular software." (Sowe & Stamelos & Angelis, 2006) Consequently, open source as a domain for this study was chosen for exploring coordination performance measures.

2 COORDINATION THEORY FOR OSS

We apply coordination theory for exploring the effective coordination structures of open source software teams engaged in bug fixing activities. Using research findings of Sandusky and Gasser's study (Sandusky, 2005), we highlight the tasks below which relates to coordination process by incorporating normative software management processes identified in open source environment: (i) Goals: ensure that the software (i.e., is able to perform all specified functions); (ii) Tasks (i.e., production tasks--identify the defect); (iii) coordination tasks (i.e., report a bug, categorize a bug: which module does it relate to, what is the severity, priority); (iv) Actors-open source software community members (i.e., one ore more developers in various roles); and, (v) Dependencies (i.e., the most common dependencies are from the producerconsumer type). Dependency management is performed in order to achieve the ultimate goal with multiply actors: software without defects. Therefore, effectiveness of the coordination is measured against bug fixing task performance. Technical environment has a moderating role in the information technology domain (Rathnam & Mahajan & Whinston, 1995), however these tools do not have ultimate effect on coordination performance. Study by Kraut, and Streeter suggest that project size and complexity increases coordination gaps so these have been

added to the moderating variables as well (Kraut & Streeter, 1995). With regards to the features of the distributed team, experience was advised as a factor which plays an important role in coordination, providing a base for better understanding peers and work flows to carry out internal coordination without excessive communication (Faraj & Sproull, 2000). The number of the members in the team relates to the size of the project so it has been added to extend work group features.

To measure coordination performance, we consider time constraint as it has direct correlation with coordination performance (Espinosa, 2002). Since coordination performance itself is not tangible it is common practice to relate this measure to the outcome of the work actors have completed (Rathnam & Mahajan & Whinston, 1995). Evaluation of the outcome could be done with interviewing the users, however we do not have the resources to do that, so the rating which relates to dependency management is going to be done with software evaluation methods discussed above (Kraut & Streeter, 1995). Therefore, software quality metrics are going to used to extend the timeliness measure and evaluate coordination performance. Figure 1 presents the elements of the framework and relations between them. In developing this framework, previous studies of coordination and software development were analysed. After identifying certain metrics, a preliminary test was carried out to investigate if it is feasible to measure those values advised by the literature. Based on the availability and reliability of data accessible, the measures were short listed. Based on the literature and the model, we propose the following propositions for this study: (i) higher degree of network density creates redundant information flows which have a negative effect on the coordination performance; and (ii) higher degree of centrality and betweenness creates stricter hierarchy, which significantly reduces the dependencies, and coordination gaps.

3 METHODS

Most data about open source projects are publicly available. However the number of projects is large and they are scattered all over the world. Furthermore, the services they use are not homogeneous, and comparing many projects with distinct technological characteristics in an unbiased manner would be very tedious. Based on the above it has been decided to use one of these major hosting facilities as a source of data with a combination of manual investigation of the preliminary selected limited number of projects to check if they actively use the services offered. The choice on SourceForge was made based on the possibility that we could have SQL access to monthly data dumps granted through the Notre Dame University, Indiana, United States. During the data set definition the following aspects were kept in mind, to acquire as representative data set as possible: (i) avoid prominent projects; (ii) avoid projects with gatekeepers; (iii) size of the project: around ten to derive meaningful network structures; (iv) select projects which have distinct characteristic to help answering our questions, with minimum 200 interactions; and, (v) the project should be active in bug fixing.

3.1 Network Data for Social Structure Measures

First a list of the bug fixing contributors of the selected projects was extracted grouped by communication thread. Each unique participant is identified by going through all lines and adding the identifier to a vector if it does not contain it yet. An empty adjacency matrix can be formed based on that. Going through the lines again sorted by time, we count the number of times an actor could see a post from another actor in the thread before him/her, this count becomes the weight of the link. It is assumed that actors who submitted a post earlier than someone else do not read the ones followed by them unless they post again in the thread. Interactions within each thread counted separately, so even if two actors follow each other on the timeline it does not count if it was on a different thread. At the end of this process the matrix is symmetrised based on the smaller number of interactions. During the measurement, the threshold was set to minimum five interactions to consider a link significant (Adamic, 2005).

3.2 Coordination Performance Measures

Time to Fix and Mean Time Between Failure characteristics were measured based on the bug tracking system records available from the database. The Time to Fix index was calculated as an average of differences between the open and the close date. Mean Time Between Failure index was calculated as an average of differences between the open time of a bug and the open time of the bug before that bug in consecutive timely order. Based on the histograms, the variables did not follow normal distribution, descriptive statistics confirm this, because all skewness and kurtosis highly deviate from zero.

The Defect Removal Efficiency (DRE) D(415)=0.141, p<0.001, Mean Time Between Failure (MTBF) D(415)=0.130, p<0.001, and Reciprocal Time To Fix D(415)=0.206, p<0.001 were all significantly non-normal.

"Density is a measure that is difficult to use in comparisons of graphs of radically different sizes" (Scott, 2000) Comparing work group performance largely different in size would not be realistic either. Therefore cluster groups were created based on the frequency distribution of the node numbers in the sample. Small (4-12 nodes), middle (13-40 nodes) and large (41-223) network clusters were created to achieve minimal dispersion from the median of the respective pool.

4 **RESULTS**

4.1 **Proposition 1**

A number of variables show negative correlation on Table 1 with the density, however at the level of 0.05 it is only significant for the reciprocal time to fix variable in the group with 13-40 nodes. Negative effect of density on coordination can be explained by the strength of the weak ties argument, (Granovetter, 1973) which states that too densely connected actors provide mostly redundant, already known information to each other. This hinders coordination performance, as the communication does not move forward the solution of the problem it just increases the delay in the cooperative work. This delay effects the time to fix and as this lowers efficiency the defect removal deficiency as well.

What further suggest this theory is, that it can be seen that the relation of the density with RTTF is higher than with DRE, so the effect on the defect removal efficiency measure can be indirectly due

Node Group	Spearm	ian's rho	DRE	MTBF	RTTF
4-12	Density	Correlation Coefficient	011	.108	.015
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.869	.088	.810
		N	249	249	249
13-40	Density	Correlation Coefficient	182 [*]	.107	215 [*]
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.042	.237	.016
		N	125	125	125
41-223	Density	Correlation Coefficient	086	.045	142
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.594	.782	.376
		Ν	41	41	41

Table 1: Spearman Correlation grouped by nodes between Network Density and Performance variables (DRE: Defect Removal Efficiency, MTBF: Mean Time Between Failure, RTTF: Reciprocal Time to Fix).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

to the increase caused in the time to fix. The p value exceeding the significance level in the third group (nodes 41-223) can be accounted to the high value of standard error (47.17) of the node numbers in that group. "Density is a measure that is difficult to use in comparisons of graphs of radically different sizes" However the above statistics do not apply to all groups, but the coordination gaps were identified by Rathman (Rathnam & Mahajan & Whinston, 1995) increase with the higher level to of interconnectedness and network density is also referred as the degree of interconnectedness of network members (Rober & Hanneman, 2001) Again, Spearman correlation test is used to quantify relations between centrality measures and variables suggesting coordination performance.

4.2 Proposition 2

Centrality measures indeed show correlation with coordination performance measures at the significance level of 0.05. The positive relation can be seen in all groups, on Table 2, the first which applies to all of them is between Degree centrality and the Reciprocal Time to Fix. Degree centrality suggests activity so the network has more actors with higher level of degree centrality the more information is flowing through more active nodes reducing the time gap between the sequence of actions.

Mean time between failure has also positively related to Degree centrality in the groups with nodes 4-40. This suggests not only efficient fixing of the problem but also higher level of effectiveness. At a significance level of 0.1 the same thing is true in the large networks with 41-223 nodes as well. This difference in significance can result from unclean sample, or that the standard deviation of the node numbers in this group is much higher (47.17) compared to the two other groups. (2.53, 7.59). It is interesting to see that closeness centrality has positive correlation within all groups with Mean Time Between Failure and Reciprocal Time to Fix. Closeness centrality was identified to express independence (Freeman, 1979) and a good predictor on leadership. However it contradicts the general belief that open source software development is decentralised: "in practice tends to be more of a peer-to-peer network topology than a military-style command structure." (Fogel, 2005)

There is an increasing weight in the relation as we go from smaller networks to larger ones, meaning that the more actors are in the coordinated system the more effect a leader has on the coordination performance. It seems that open source is no exception under the rule, that coordinating software development requires leadership and in a distributed environment this is even more the case (Lings, 2006). Leadership was also identified to have high influence on selecting the best fitting solution. (Bonaccorsi & Rossi, 2003) It explains why the MTBF value becomes better, if a better solution is selected to fix a problem it is probably more reliable than other solutions. This is in line with the other relation that Betweenness is positively correlated with MTBF, if the leader is in a position to control information, it can positively effect the bug fixing coordination efficiency. This can be seen among all clusters as well. There is also relation between Betwenness and RTTF in the middle cluster, also at the level of 0.1 it is also related in the small group, so all together from 4-40 nodes. Again the high value of the standard error in the large

Node Group	Spearma	Spearman's rho		MTBF	RTTF
4-12	Degree	Correlation Coefficient	015	.145 [*]	.130 [*]
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.809	.022	.040
		N	249	249	249
	Closeness	Correlation Coefficient	021	.140 [*]	.145 [*]
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.746	.027	.022
		N	249	249	249
	Betweenness	Correlation Coefficient	015	.158 [*]	.111
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.820	.013	.079
		N	249	249	249
13-40	Degree	Correlation Coefficient	.099	.246**	.229*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.272	.006	.010
		N	125	125	125
	Closeness	Correlation Coefficient	.124	.217 [*]	.209*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.169	.015	.019
		N	125	125	125
	Betweenness	Correlation Coefficient	.099	.297**	.176 [*]
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.272	.001	.049
		Ν	125	125	125
41-223	Degree	Correlation Coefficient	.156	.267	.311*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.329	.091	.048
		Ν	41	41	41
	Closeness	Correlation Coefficient	.204	.316 [*]	.348*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.201	.044	.026
		N	41	41	41
	Betweenness	Correlation Coefficient	.139	.319 [*]	.249
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.387	.042	.116
		Ν	41	41	41

Table 2: Spearman Correlation grouped by nodes between Network Centrality measures and Performance variables (DRE: Defect Removal Efficiency, MTBF: Mean Time Between Failure, RTTF: Reciprocal Time to Fix).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

group (41-223) can contribute to the fact that the correlation does not reach the required level of confidence. In conclusion, all centrality measures are positively related with most of the coordination performance variables so the stricter hierarchy reduces the gaps in coordination. It has to be noted that DRE was not related to any of the centrality measures. Probably it is an implication of the domain, since stability (which is related to MTBF) considered to be more important than prompt and frequent activities (Edwards, 2001). MTBF shows high importance as the relation with centrality measures is 8 out of 9 possible times among the three groups. MTBF suggests stability, since if the

software operates without problems for longer periods it requires less bug fixing work, and consequently less coordination. The opposite is true as well, if the MTBF drops, the work load significantly increases. "If stability is not achieved, the need for communication within the project will significantly increase" (Fenton & Neil, 1999) This communication overhead than results in larger coordination gap.

4.3 **Project Level Analysis**

Scummvm project for example, which is large enough for this level of analysis it can be seen that the number of permanent nodes is positively related with the density of the network. That means that over the time the more nodes stay permanent in the network the more dense relationship they form. However this density is negatively related with the number of total nodes, so in case of a large network the nodes are more loosely connected. As density has positive effect on the error rate, so programmers can produce more error free lines it is desired to have the network built up from smaller dense groups. These smaller work groups can interact more efficiently and specialize on a specific area of the code, which brings us to modularity. The code or in general the work to be done must be broken down into pieces which are analogical with the structure of the team, or the other way round, smaller teams should be organised around each problem areas. If this out of synch that can raise issues with unclear responsibility, lines of requiring more communication which we can account as an overhead, deteriorating the overall performance. (Hinds & Kiesler, 2002) This is even more critical in case of largely distributed work groups, since there are limited possibilities for face to face interactions and therefore the delay is typically longer between exchanges. Even through phone conversations the communication is less effective and due to time zone differences the mutual time frames of availability can be very short. (Wellman, 2000)

Short phases account for less number of errors as seen on the evidence presented resulting in better performance. A shorter work phase or milestone is advantageous to accomplish goals on a smaller scale, some ideas based on short cycles were coined by the literature earlier for example the agile project management concept. However shorter project periods in case of an open environment have a negative effect on engagement. Meaning that there is less chance to attract more contributors to the project and even those who are engaged typically stay only till the end of the period. In case of a longer project phase the turnover of the participants will be higher and with people coming and going all the time there is less chance to form a dense network compared to a group with mostly steady memberships. Hence we loose performance because of a more loosely connected network. So on one hand we gain performance efficiency with the shorter stages through less turnover and more dense network, but on the other hand as a result of smaller number of people engaged the productivity is lower.

More people in the group ignites higher productivity, but at the same time it raises other issues. Without sound basic principles and strong keep it simple policy more participants can have very different ways of solving problems. This can be good because it opens a possibility for innovation, however it can easily increase work complexity, uncertainty and the number of tasks that can not be solved with best practices or routine procedures in the future. (Kraut, 1995) In case of a distributed environment more people can mean higher effectiveness, but the efficiency can drop if the leadership is not strong enough and with the lack of clear guidelines which can induce internal coordination without communication overhead.(Espinosa, 2002, Gutwin, 2004)

Leadership brings us to the importance of centrality and in fact as outlined above higher degree of centralization increases the time between the issues with the quality of the work reported. Meaning that centrally located people can influence the main direction of the project and increase the quality and reliability of the work grounding a more uniform work environment and clear vision about what are the major goals. (Bonaccorsi & Rossi, 2003) It is interesting to note however that betweenness centrality has negative effect on productivity because the more betweenness the network has the more time it takes to finish a task. In local teams the betweenness network variable is expected to project better team performance, however in distributed teams people sitting in the information flow can delay the process specially if they act as bridges and they are the only ones who connect segments of the network. If the node in question is too busy or not available and the information can not flow through any other node towards the destination that significantly decreases the reactivity of the team and as a result the overall work group performance. Based on this it would be useful to monitor the work load of nodes with high betwenness score and match it against total team reactivity.

Yet another interesting finding is that in an open environment raising number of issues can actually have positive influence on the team structure because it raises the awareness about the possibility to contribute and urge the users to do so. (von Hippel, 2005) As a result the total number of nodes in the network increases and opens possibilities for future collaboration and innovation as these new nodes when they join are only loosely connected so they can refresh the redundant information within the network with new ideas.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Empirical evidence with an argument was provided to show that centrality has importance in performance of distributed coordination. Network centrality properties shown positive relationship with Mean Time Between Failure and Reciprocal Time To Fix. We can conclude that centrally has a bearing on coordination in distributed environments. However bridging entities can slow down the flow of information, because time distances can be significant between nodes, therefore too high level of betweenness is not beneficial. The implication of this, that modularity might be important for large projects (Hinds & Kiesler, 2002), but even in the open source domain at least an informal centrally positioned leader is required to enhance the efficiency of a distributed work group. Although the significance exceeded the confidence level in two out of three clusters regarding the negative relation between density and coordination performance, but based on the results at least it is arguable that density has positive effect on coordination. The results show similarities with the results of Rathman (Rathnam & Mahajan & Whinston, 1995). This finding is interesting because their study was not in distributed environment, however the results indicating that similar relation exists in distributed environments. The relation might not as strong as other theories suggest that distributed work groups need interconnections due to the temporal and geographical distances they have to communicate asynchronously (Crowston, 2005)

REFERENCES

- Adamic, L. and E. Adar, How to search a social network. Social Networks, 2005. 27(3): p. 187-203.
- B. Wellman, J. Salaff, D. Dimitrova, L. Garton, M. Gulia, and C. Haythornthwaite, "Computer Networks as Social Networks: Collaborative Work, Telework, and Virtual Community," Knowledge and Communities, 2000
- Bonaccorsi, A. and C. Rossi, Why Open Source software can succeed. Research Policy, 2003. 32(7): p. 1243-1258.
- C. Gutwin, R. Penner, and K. Schneider, "Group awareness in distributed software development," Proceedings of the 2004 ACM conference on Computer supported cooperative work, pp. 72-81, 2004.
- Crowston, K., et al., Hierarchy and Centralization in Free and Open Source Software Team Communications. Knowledge, Technology, and Policy, 2006. 18(4): p. 65-85.

- E. von Hippel, Democratizing innovation: MIT Press, 2005.
- Edwards, K., Towards a theory for understanding the open source software phenomenon. New Definitions: Value, Community, Space, 2001.
- Espinosa, J.A., et al., Shared Mental Models, Familiarity, and Coordination: A Multi-Method Study of Distributed Software Teams. Intern. Conf. Information Systems, 2002: p. 425-433.
- Faraj, S. and L. Sproull, Coordinating Expertise in Software Development Teams. Management Science, 2000. 46(12): p. 1554-1568.
- Fenton, N.E. and M. Neil, Software metrics: successes, failures and new directions. The Journal of Systems & Software, 1999. 47(2-3): p. 149-157.
- Fogel, K., Producing Open Source Software. 2005: O'Reilly.
- Freeman, L.C., Centrality in social networks: Conceptual clarification. Social Networks, 1979. 1(3): p. 215-239.
- Granovetter, M.S., The Strength of Weak Ties. American Journal of Sociology, 1973. 78(6): p. 1360.
- Hinds, P. and S. Kiesler, Distributed Work. 2002: MIT Press.
- Kraut, R.E. and L.A. Streeter, Coordination in software development. Communications of the ACM, 1995. 38(3): p. 69-81.
- Lings, B., et al., Ten Strategies for Successful Distributed Development. The Transfer and Diffusion of Information Technology for Organizational Resilience, IFIP, 2006. 206: p. 119-137.
- Madey, G., V. Freeh, and R. Tynan, The open source software development phenomenon: An analysis based on social network theory. Americas Conference on Information Systems (AMCIS2002), 2002.
- Rathnam, S., V. Mahajan, and A.B. Whinston, Facilitating Coordination in Customer Support Teams: A Framework and Its Implications for the Design of Information Technology. Management Science, 1995. 41(12): p. 1900-1921.
- Robert, A. and M.R. Hanneman, Introduction to social network methods. Department of Sociology University of California, 2001.
- Sandusky, R.J., Negotiation and the coordination of information and activity in distributed software problem management. Proceedings of the 2005 international ACM SIGGROUP conference on Supporting group work, 2005: p. 187-196.
- J. Scott, Social Network Analysis: A Handbook: Sage, 2000.
- Sowe, S., I. Stamelos, and L. Angelis, Identifying knowledge brokers that yield software engineering knowledge in OSS projects. Information and Software Technology, 2006. 48(11): p. 1025-1033.
- Spaeth, S., Coordination in Open Source Projects, in Graduate School of Social Sciences University of St. Gallen
- T. W. Malone, "What is coordination theory?," in National Science Foundation Coordination Theory Workshop, 1988