

# DEVELOPMENT OF POLITICAL LIFE CYCLE

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Meena Desai  
Mukesh Pandey



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## CHAPTER 1

### ESSENCE OF PROJECT MANAGEMENT AND ITS CHALLENGES

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#### ABSTRACT:

Project management plays a vital role in the successful execution of initiatives across various industries. It involves the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to achieve project objectives within defined constraints. This paper explores the essence of project management, highlighting its fundamental principles and the challenges faced by project managers. By understanding these challenges and implementing effective strategies, organizations can enhance their project management practices and increase the likelihood of project success.

#### KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Agile, Budgeting, Collaboration, Conflict resolution, Critical path.

#### INTRODUCTION

Applicability of Project Management to Specific Projects. Even if two projects have the same scope or goals, the varying effect of environmental, organizational, and managerial variables will cause them to be at most similar, but never identical. This is because it is canonically accepted that every project is a unique event that is not repeated. The degree of standardization of activities and procedures and the level of managerial or organizational complexity, however, have two clear implications that apply to all projects. The term activity may be described as a part of the work carried out on a project, while the term process refers to an organized collection of activities with a particular goal [1], [2]. These two dimensions determine the applicability of project management to certain projects at the same time. Four instances result from this: two are in favor of the application of project management, one is against it, and the fourth seems to be equivocal [3], [4].

#### Projects, Their Challenges and Restrictions

A project's idea and its outcome are two distinct things. This might be a brand-new service, building, ICT system, business, group of papers, or any other physical or intangible final result. The project is the procedure used to produce a novel ultimate result. Kerzner uses the definition shown below. A project may be thought of as any collection of activities and tasks that.

1. Have a stated goal that must be achieved within precise parameters.
2. Have defined start and finish dates.
3. Have financial constraints.
4. Consume resources (including cash, people, and equipment).



## **Multipurpose**

The goals of a project may be determined in terms of end outcomes attained in a specified timeframe and in accordance with cost and quality standard restrictions based on this definition and other comparable and abundant definitions in the relevant literature. The three main components of projects—project length, anticipated expenses, and quality of project outputs—are carefully planned and checked. These restrictions are also interrelated, functioning in such a manner that if one is improved, the other two suffer. In instance, if a tighter timeline is contemplated, expenses would likely rise and quality will likely decline. A comprehensive and balanced analysis of all the aforementioned project elements will provide the best overall outcome.

A project's level of complexity can be assessed based on the amount of time, money, and other resources used, on the degree of coordination that results, and on the involvement of key decision-makers within the organization. A new dimension can also be considered the project's strategic relevance as a factor in its success. This is shown using a novel four-quadrant form in relation to the project complexity dimension. Projects in the first quadrant are restricted in their strategic significance, which implies they will have little impact on the organization's breakthrough. These projects also exhibit a high level of complexity, necessitating the use of project management systems. This complexity results from the extensive use of resources and from the significant manager involvement, implying advanced planning and control arrangements for an efficient level of project governance [5], [6].

First, it should be underlined that the average level of project performance has consistently been reported as being far from adequate and that a number of factors need to be taken into account in order to possibly improve improved top-level management support, greater user participation, experience and expertise of project managers, crystal-clear project goals, and practical determination of typical project size. Generally speaking, deviations from the combined time, cost, and requirement limitations are encountered in relation to the overall performance of specific firm projects. The need to organize resources efficiently, identify and manage priorities, set appropriate evaluation criteria for the various efforts, and synchronize ongoing projects sometimes results in additional limits and obstacles [7], [8]. Therefore, investments in projects should especially represent a value for money strategy, which is defined as follows. VFM is characterized as the ideal balancing act between total costs and product or service quality to satisfy customer needs. This paradigm exposes the flaws in conventional viewpoints that see project management as a collection of methods and resources [9], [10]. For instance, while the latter term primarily identifies individual responsibilities, the former acknowledges that projects are cooperative endeavors. In fact, current discussions on the essence of project management are confronted with original and innovative contexts implying new concepts and definitions for both the terms Project Management and Project Manager.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Major Challenges for Projects in the Current Practice**

Projects run the risk of not providing cost-effective solutions to owner needs to an unduly high level. The definition used here and throughout the remainder of the book is as follows: We define the owner as the person who paid for the asset and benefits from its use. Projects that demonstrate overruns and expenditures are a common occurrence. It can be difficult to

understand that the goal of the project, and thus the customer requirements, may change over time and that, as a result, the foundation upon which the project was launched may tend to become less relevant when contracting practices and cultural environments are too rigid and moving too slowly. The causes of this subpar performance are ingrained in certain company cultures. Three categories might be used to categorize them: bad management, ambiguous stakeholder responsibilities, and, for certain more complex projects, challenges with technology insertion wherever they are pertinent to the project scope and timeframes.

### **Imperfect Management**

Finding the areas of project management that need improvement may be challenging at times. In project-based organizations, a number of flaws are most typically seen:

**Lack of Resources in the Early Stages :**When projects are given insufficient resources in the early stages of their life cycles, important decisions must be made without adequate knowledge of the risks involved. As a result, the later stages of the project must incur much higher costs and take longer to complete in order to address the issues.

**Time-Consuming Approval Procedures:** These procedures may take a long time, which causes significant delays and inefficiencies at the project level while failing to provide effective control. Rigid processes: The current project governance processes aren't always adaptable enough to take into account the many kinds of project practices that must be carried out.

**Ineffective Contract Terms :**Sometimes, creative ideas are put off by agreements that have a history of being resistive to improving things.

**Prioritizing Short-Term Gains :**When projects are lengthy and complicated, the goals and techniques used in the early phases may obscure or misrepresent the true aim. For instance, short-term cost or delivery advantages may come at the expense of longer-term measures like life cycle costs, which will be covered later in this book.

### **Definition of Stakeholder Roles Is Implicit**

The delineation of roles and duties is where project management often fails. Project owners must be clearly recognized, and those in charge of overseeing the different phases of the project life cycle must be granted sufficient power via delegation in order to carry out their duties. On the other hand, by rationalizing the various project processes, from the formulation of project requirements down to the future project phases, an effective whole-life strategy for the project should be made feasible.

### **Technology and Complexity Impact**

A key obstacle to meeting cost and time targets is the technological complexity built into certain projects. Additionally, more flexible and condensed processes are required because to the complexity and diversity of the outputs that projects offer throughout their life cycles. When project managers are asked to submit cost and schedule estimates against which their projects will be judged, if a project is technically complicated, it will be challenging to effectively analyze its cost profile. Few initiatives should go on to the implementation stage unless the requirements are well specified, there are mature technologies available, a timeline is established, and finance is available. In order to achieve the project's needs and take into account its technological hazards, sufficient funds should be made available. The Project Life Cycle: A

Guide to Overcoming Project Management Obstacles. No matter how many stages are visible inside a project, it still has a life cycle. According to the control requirements of the organizations engaged in the project, the name and number of project phases are chosen. It has been proposed that:

1. Applying Systems Thinking to the Project Life Cycle Management System utilized for each project category may result in significant benefits.
2. Knowing the stages of your project's life cycle might help you justify the management measures needed. In his book, Frame emphasizes.
3. The best course of action and available alternatives will be strongly influenced by where you are in the project life cycle.

The project life cycle typically progresses through various stages with varying degrees of intensity. Costs and resource levels are relatively modest when the project is first started, but they gradually rise to a maximum during the execution phase. An abrupt drop happens during the ending phase. Because control operations are anticipated to become increasingly intensive as the project life cycle moves along, resource planning must be done as early in the cycle as practicable. There is often a varying impact on the definition of the project's end product as well as the project's ultimate expenses and benefits across the project stages. The project's commencement is when influence is projected to be at its greatest. As it moves forward, however, less effect is expected as expenses continue to rise. As a result, from the early project phases on, the opportunity to add value to the project output declines. As a result, early project management efforts should be devoted to the efficient and prompt balancing of perceived benefits against expected costs. A culture of optimism that impacts project cost and schedule performance by making it harder to create and maintain realistic estimates is, to some degree, another element that complicates project management efforts. Underestimating these technical components, especially for technically demanding projects, increases the likelihood of cost and scheduling issues since they may include cutting-edge or unusual technology, complicated interconnections, or the use of costly resources. This is especially true during the project's implementation phase, when cost and schedule projections will be utilized to evaluate how well the project was carried out.

### **Historical Perspectives on Project Management, Projects, and Their Life Cycles**

The development of project management techniques over the past 70–80 years of its history has shown a promising level of accomplishment, with the majority of these successes occurring in the areas of accurately defining the degree of project efficiency, cost reduction, optimal resource allocation, project breakdown techniques, formalizing responsibility assignment, critical analysis of project-affecting variances, and project risk management. These individual parts of the project management jigsaw have each been created so far utilizing practical and precise methods. This has made it possible to elevate project management to the level of a scientific field quickly. Planning has always been the cornerstone of project management. Everyone genuinely practices planning on a regular basis, although often unknowingly.

Daily macro-activities are often made up of a number of micro-activities that each of us completes in accordance with a personal decision to complete each macro-activity in the shortest amount of time feasible. Therefore, in order to reduce the overall length and, perhaps, extend the amount of time spent in bed, personal preferences usually dictate the precise order of micro-activities and their timing. Fundamentally, planning is a practice that both men and women have

engaged in since the beginning of time. It is something that people do on a daily basis, sometimes instinctively, in both their personal and professional lives as well as in their social relationships. Throughout history, there have been many outstanding building projects that have survived thanks to the assistance of often primitive governmental structures. The Egyptian pyramids, which were constructed more than 45 centuries ago, serve as an illustrative example of the first constructions, particularly the greatest pyramid, the Pyramid of Cheops, which, based on historical records, took more than 20 years to finish and is still in excellent condition today. The construction company chosen by the Pharaohs undoubtedly faced a number of significant difficulties, including the need to transport materials made up of enormous stones hundreds of kilometers from the mountain quarries where they had been cut and flattened to the site where they were lifted to a maximum height of 146 meters using crudely constructed equipment made of wood that had to be transported from far-off locations.

On the human side, there were hundreds of thousands of slaves employed in the works, necessitating a sound logistical support to ensure the provision of adequate amounts of food and water. complete personnel changes took place four times a year, necessitating the relocation of a sizable number of men to the worksite at the start of each quarter while the survivors of the previous shift were sent back. This meant that the site manager had to implement some system of operational planning and work advancement control, reflecting an early iteration of current Project Management systems, as necessary to address these problems. The system had to be simple and uncomplicated, though, because he had to solve a certain number of problems each day. A similar circumstance happened in Athens more recently. Phidias successfully oversaw the building of the monuments on the Acropolis after the year 500 BC, the first of which was the Parthenon with its imposing appearance and its archetypal architectural style.

Work on the Great Wall of China later began in the third century BC by joining together older parts, and it wouldn't be finished until the fifteenth century AD! This project is perhaps the longest of all time. Julius Caesar's firsthand experience with project management in the Roman world<sup>1</sup> revealed that certain initiatives meant for short-term usage were not necessarily simpler than long-term ones. the account of his choice to have a wooden bridge erected across the Rhine in his renowned literary work on the Gallic Wars. Due to the aforementioned factors, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine. yet, he did not consider traveling by ship to be sufficiently secure, Both the terms project and management have their roots in the Latin language: project comes from *proiectum*, while management comes from *manu agere*. neither thought to be in keeping with his own dignity or the dignity of the Roman people. since of the width, speed, and depth of the river, he was faced with the biggest challenge in creating a bridge, but he still believed that he should try to do it since there was no other way to get his army over. He came up with this bridge design, and 10 days after the lumber collection started, the whole project was finished and the entire army was marched over.

It is also important to recognize the magnificent structures built under the Roman Empire, including thoroughfares, enormous, far-reaching aqueducts, whole towns and villages. It is not difficult to discern the presence of a preliminary plan in each of these works, which was then precisely specified and methodically and systematically converted into reality under the direction of a deeply knowledgeable project manager of the time. The Colosseum has to be mentioned first. The Roman Emperor Vespasian came to power in the year 69 AD. According to *The Oxford History of the Roman World*, his name is inextricably tied to the Colosseum, the most famous of all Roman structures, which he built for the Roman populace's amusement and fulfillment. In

light of the limited resources that were available at the time, the Colosseum is both the most spectacular building in the Roman world and one of the most amazing examples of ancient architecture. The project was carried out first by building a cage of pillars in travertine to support the cavea vault, then by working concurrently in two enormous building sites, one over the other, because the Emperor's advanced age would not have allowed him to see the work completed. It only took a little over two years to complete the construction process, which was similar to the present method for reinforced concrete structures.

The Pantheon, which was constructed in Rome starting in 118 AD and is named from the Greek word *pan*, which means temple of all divinities, is another example of the amazing abilities of the Romans in designing and constructing structures that presented significant difficulties throughout the project execution phase. As shown by

1. Preserve the water supply's quality and quantity.
2. Numerous illegal side channels and water leaks into the streams.
3. Control channel maintenance and inspection.
4. Update records and evaluate the availability of water at the source and supply sites.
5. Make arrangements with landlords of buildings impacted by construction.
6. Record usage to estimate future requirements and collect fees.
7. Teach employees how to utilize the resources and methods that are most practical.
8. Instruct users on following rules so that severe penalties may be avoided.
9. Request the emperor's approval before delivering the required finances and resources to secure the water supply.

### **Managing Projects in Later Centuries**

Constructability and siting are not purely modern challenges, as seen by a few instances of buildings created during the Italian Renaissance. Using a 1:12 scale model, Filippo Brunelleschi won the competition to design the dome for Santa Maria del Fiore, the cathedral in Florence, in 1423. He undertook the design, as well as the definition of the construction process and of the ancillary works, on his own to achieve his completely innovative project. This enabled him to develop his concept into a large-scale structure with a 42-meter diameter. Michelangelo was undoubtedly influenced by Brunelleschi's work while creating the dome for St. Peter's in Rome. The replacement of outdated buildings with the large walls and pillars that required to support the weight of the dome was a problem for Michelangelo. In 1557, he made a clay model of his dome as the first step in the creation of his masterpiece, which would take more than 20 years to finish after his untimely death. René Descartes, a French philosopher who lived in the seventeenth century, is credited with some of the foundational ideas of contemporary management theories on the development of scientific management processes. Descartes stated the following ideas in his *Discours de la Méthode*:

1. Nothing should be believed unless it has been shown to be true.
2. To better comprehend and solve an issue, divide it into smaller challenges.
3. Organize your thoughts in a logical sequence starting with facts that are easier to grasp and working your way up to more complicated information.
4. Create accounts and controls in such a thorough and comprehensive manner as to completely exclude any potential of omission.

In a letter to the Minister of War François Michel Le Tellier, Marquis de Louvois, written around the end of the same century in 1683 and also in France, the already well-known military engineer Sébastien Le Prestre, Marquis de Vauban, said the following:

### **Superiority Minister of War**

We have ongoing building projects that have been going on for years and may never be done. This happens, Excellence, as a result of the confusion brought about by the frequent rebates introduced into your works. It is undeniable that all contract violations, broken promises, and repeated tenders serve only to attract as entrepreneurs all the miserable people who know nothing, the rascals, and the ignorant fools, while simultaneously driving away those who have the resources and aptitude to run a business from you. And I'll add that these rebates cause delays, substantially raise the cost of the job, and make it progressively subpar.

And I'll add that the savings attained through such tenaciously pursued rebates and discounts will be fictitious, as an entrepreneur who loses is like a person who is drowning: he clings to everything, and in terms of construction, clinging to everything means not paying the suppliers of the materials, paying his employees poorly, defrauding as many people as he can, and using the lowest-quality labor force, like that with the lowest price, us. Now that you've seen the flaw in your system, Excellence, leave it in the name of God, rebuild trust, pay the fair price for the task, and don't refuse to give an honest salary to an entrepreneur who does his duties. This will always be the finest choice you can make. After more than three centuries, there has barely been any significant development in the building industry since that time and even today.

Later, during the last years of the nineteenth century and the first decades of the twentieth century, new technologies were hurriedly created and a plethora of new goods appeared on the marketplaces. Early ideas of management procedures included some provision for change management. However, systematic and structured management theories didn't emerge until the early 20th century, when Henry L. Gantt created a straightforward method to model industrial processes. This endeavor was the result of research done by Frederick W. Taylor, who was also looking at issues with factory work organization at the time. In order to boost individual productivity, Taylor established the fundamental guidelines for the distribution of operational tasks and the assignment of work, and Gantt proposed using a horizontal bar with a length proportional to the planned duration of each manufacturing cycle activity to represent each individual activity in a two-dimensional chart. Since then, a visual arrangement of bars along the time axis, following the order of the project sequence, has been able to depict the whole project life cycle, including the actual project implementation.

The bars are set up according to the unique project process phases up to financial outlay and the following pursuit of the largest amount of cost reduction are purportedly believed to be key considerations on both sides of the building projects environment. The contractors may, quite unreasonable, pay less attention to worker performance, construction site safety, and the specialization of staff in charge of organizational and operational duties as a result of this. Thankfully, René Descartes had already developed the visual two-dimensional representation method in the seventeenth century! its application. This makes it possible to see the complete project in its entirety, and more crucially, Gantt charts call for deductive reasoning using the durations of previously scheduled activities. The major breakthrough Gantt brought about was the ability to allocate individual activities on time and, as a consequence, get a more accurate idea of how long it would take to finish the whole collection of processes.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Project management is a broad field that calls for a blend of technical proficiency, people abilities, and strong leadership. Organizations may improve their project success rates, provide value to stakeholders, and accomplish their strategic objectives by acknowledging and tackling the issues inherent in project management. Project managers need to continuously learn, adapt, and employ the proper project management processes and tools in order to effectively handle the complexity of today's projects. Additionally, coordinating operations across several departments or organizations and working with cross-functional teams are frequent aspects of project management. Effective leadership, teamwork, and conflict resolution abilities are needed for this. Project managers must be able to coordinate stakeholders, navigate through differing points of view, and promote a collaborative work atmosphere.

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## CHAPTER 2

### PROJECTS AND THEIR LIFE CYCLES: SOME CURRENT VIEWS

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#### ABSTRACT:

The life cycle of a project refers to its distinct phases, from initiation to closure, which provide a framework for project management and control. This chapter explores the concept of project life cycles and presents some current views on their implementation and significance. It examines different models and methodologies used to manage projects throughout their life cycles, highlighting the benefits and challenges associated with each approach. By understanding the various perspectives on project life cycles, organizations can effectively plan, execute, and monitor projects, leading to improved project outcomes and overall organizational success.

#### KEYWORDS:

Critical path, Deliverables, Execution, Feasibility, Initiation, Integration, Iterative.

#### INTRODUCTION

Regarding its apparent application to project management, the following is one of H.L. Gantt's quotes worth mentioning: Even if it is feasible to achieve it, worker efficiency is pointless without efficiency in management. Training workers to be efficient is often not too difficult with efficient management. There is no way there could be any dispute about this since I have shown it so amply and convincingly. Incompetence in authority is our biggest problem. No amount of workmen's efficiency will help much as long as it is left unfixed [1], [2].

#### The 1940s

This period saw the application of cutting-edge mathematical ideas, particularly in the fields of graph theory and probability theory, as well as the creation and usage of electronic computers. These factors all contributed to the advancement of project management. The atomic bomb research conducted in the USA from 1942 to 1947 under the direction of Lieutenant General Leslie Groves may be linked to the first thorough and successful use of project management. The Manhattan Project duty of coordinating the research activities of many scientists and personnel at Los Alamos was given to Robert Oppenheimer in 1942. Oppenheimer demonstrated his exceptional technical expertise as well as his ability to manage a team. as a consequence of his effective Project Management efforts, the first uranium bomb could be successfully tested for future operational usage over a two-year period [3], [4].

#### The 1950s

In particular, unique organizational models stressing the potential role of project engineers as project managers emerged during this time as a result of the complicated post-war rebuilding



phase, which was characterized by a major effort on the part of engineering and construction enterprises. Paul O. Gaddis famously and often cited said in a 1959 article for the Harvard Business Review: If we are to grow as advanced technology grows, we must realize the new importance of the project manager [5], [6]. Graph theory was used in network charts to connect basic planned activities so that logical relationships between these could be identified and highlighted for the benefit of comprehensive models of production processes. At the same time, more and more sophisticated techniques were introduced to update and improve the applicability of the simple graphical representation created by Gantt. The guidelines governing network analysis using their Critical Path Method were developed in 1957 by Morgan R. Walker and James E. Kelley, Jr.

After that, CPM was improved for use in the Polaris submarine project for the US Navy, which is where the new Programme Evaluation and Review Technique was first presented. Russ Archibald, whom I personally met in Rome in early 2013 for a day-long private conversation, deserves credit for this. Using PERT to design the Polaris missile propulsion system, Archibald started his illustrious 60-year career in project management on the Polaris project. During our conversation, Archibald firmly expressed his opinion that, despite some conventional interpretations, the project's success was more likely due to Admiral Raborn, the project's chief project manager, who was able to best coordinate the massive industrial efforts put forth in the project while sacrificing a small portion of its scope to successfully make up for all delays [7], [8].

To assure the timely compliance of all the military and space research projects undertaken during and after this decade, the US Department of Defense undoubtedly made a significant contribution to the creation and implementation of the new network approaches. First, the DoD started implementing progress management systems for internal use in the many projects within its purview.

Subsequently, the DoD's contractors were obligated to implement comparable systems. In addition to strategies geared toward time management, attention was placed on improving project organization and controlling financial success. The formulation of functional requirements, the explanation of project goals, operational planning, engineering design, and other fundamental project life cycle concepts were presented and made acquainted [9], [10].

### **The 1960s**

Since the Apollo space program had already successfully laid the groundwork for contemporary project management, this decade saw the maturation of the discipline culminating in 1969 with Neil Armstrong's moon landing mission. Project cost and schedule variations could be assessed and managed utilizing the newly developed earned value procedures thanks to the Contractor Cost Schedule Control System, which Secretary McNamara successfully implemented for the DoD. Project management methods were extensively used by the aerospace and construction industries, which at the conclusion of the century contributed around 20% of the gross domestic product of the majority of sophisticated nations.

Conflict resolution techniques in project teams were taken into consideration when conventional functional matrices transitioned to new organizational frameworks. The founding of the Project Management Institute in 1969 was the major institution-building event of the time.

**The 1970s**

Techniques for project management underwent their final consecration at this time. A good example of how to use these strategies is the administration of the Trans-Alaska Pipeline System project, which took three years to complete from 1974 to 1977 and required the labor of 70,000 people at a cost of more than \$8 billion. However, the end outcome of this labor of love fell short of perfection. I was one of many project management consultants hired by a legal firm in Washington, DC in 1983–84 to assess the management of this project for the State of Alaska, as Russell Archibald himself has noted. Senior managers from the Bechtel Corporation, which... had initially been involved in the TAPS Project but withdrew very early in its life cycle due to serious concerns that Bechtel had about the owner structure and Project Management approach that was being used, were also members of this consultant team, along with Dr. David Cleland. In order to determine the per-barrel royalties that the owners were required to pay the State of Alaska, our consulting team determined that around \$2 billion were foolishly spent throughout the development and execution of that project. We advised that this sum be removed from the base cost for this reason. Of course, the State received much higher royalty payments as a result of this exclusion. Therefore, the consortium of seven or eight oil business owners really did a poor job of managing this large project.

**The 1980s**

This was a time when project management concepts and practices were being widely disseminated and reaching their full maturity. This was made possible by the increasing accessibility of personal computers and specialized early versions of project management software. The development of ICT systems and their use in the production of healthcare and automotive goods were built on a foundation of hardware and software resources. To successfully launch new models, automakers used Project Management methods and resources to balance budget and schedule objectives. For instance, Toyota was able to cut their time to market from 60 months to 36 months roughly half the time it had previously taken while reducing their engineering effort from 60 million to 1.8 million hours. The creation of companies in charge of managing the full spectrum of business cycles, starting with the provision of the economic resources needed for work funding, as required for the cost-effective execution of BOOT projects, was another result of the severe budget constraints that forced governments of various countries to implement privatizations in specific less institutional areas.

**Private Messaging**

The scope of project management was expanded when management efforts were extended to include the operational stage of a project's life cycle. This shift from a purely tactical value to a more strategic connotation was based primarily on the cost and schedule control of work, but also on the assurance of the initial investment's profitability. This gave project risk management strategies context.

**The 1990s**

The extraordinary growth of information technology during the final decade of the 20th century made it possible to really integrate project control systems into the ICT infrastructure already in place. The availability of management modules to govern the project schedule, project expenses, resources, project reporting and documentation, graphical interfaces, and risk analysis were made

possible by corporate networks and client-server architectures. New technologies, notably the rising usage of Internet tools and, for the benefit of group work, Computer Supported Cooperative Work, have greatly facilitated remote project information transmission and administration. These advancements helped project team members greatly in interacting among themselves through email or video conferencing systems, sharing databases and file systems, and utilizing standard application software. The Boeing 777 project, which brought together more than 200 expert teams to work on the same 3D airplane model as the foundation for their institutional assignments, was a notable use of CSCW.

## **DISCUSSION**

Life Cycle Management has recently become a hotly debated topic in all business settings, but particularly among program and project management experts who try to align their opinions while appreciating its value as a strategy to boost productivity and effectiveness in their organizations. The definitions of Project Life Cycle and Product Life Cycle are thoroughly explored in this context, and their limits are rigorously scrutinized. As was the case in the past, when these two terms were defined in the form of various, occasionally conflicting enunciations and models based on the needs and peculiarities of the corporate environment and of the reference background, this topic is currently the subject of ongoing discussion.

The significant vocabulary disparity between a project and a product is reflected in the stark contrast between the two life cycles. If we adopt the traditional definition of the word project provided by the PMBOK Guide as a temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product, service, or result, then projects are distinguished by a number of characteristics, most notably by their set length and timeline.

This is not the case with the word product, which designates the end result of a project and might theoretically be thought of as having an infinite lifespan. In a nutshell, a single Product Life Cycle might allow several Project Life Cycles, each of which aimed to realize the whole product or a specific component of it.

### **Life Cycles of Projects**

Project life cycles generally include the series of tasks that occur from the moment the project is started until the project product is delivered to the intended user or owner. According to the PMBOK Guide, the conventional project structure generally consists of the following phases: initiating the project, planning and preparing, carrying out the work, and concluding the project. The scope, resources, timetable, and expenses of the project are established, together with the other key components. Tasks that are pertinent are outlined, and a project manager is chosen. The project charter is subsequently released.

#### **Setting Up and Preparing**

The project is managed, and specialized management plans are established for each location. Release of the project management plan.

#### **Performing The Work**

According to the choice made during the development phase, the project is carried out. Deliverables for the project are accepted.

## **Done With The Project**

The materials have been officially published and the project is finished. In charge of a project. Depending on the nature and complexity of the project, it may be divided into a number of phases and sub-phases that may not always adhere to the above structure, or it may be handled as a single unit from the beginning to the conclusion. The need to manage each phase as a separate, distinct portion of the entire project, with clearly defined input requirements, schedule, cost, and resource constraints, as well as output deliverables, makes it necessary to manage each phase through the use of practical project management methodologies. Typically, project stages are completed in order. Each phase of a project must start with inputs from the outputs of the phase before it, but in some cases, depending on how the inputs and outputs are arranged, it may be possible for phases to partially or completely overlap to shorten the project's duration.

The 'Continued Business Justification', one of the foundational concepts of PRINCE2, is based on this process and calls for a number of prerequisites to be met before beginning a project: Existence of a legitimate basis for starting the project, maintenance of the justification during the project's length, and documentation and approval of the justification are the first three requirements. The creation of the Business Case, a crucial prerequisite for all choices about the feasibility of the project, satisfies the first need. The two last requirements are where PRINCE2 really makes a difference, and they also happen to be some of its biggest assets. In reality, it is necessary to update and analyze the Business Case at the end of each phase so that it may be used to reassess the project, which can then be carried through to the next phase or cancelled if the requirements for its extension are no longer satisfied.

The arrangements established for handling the project stages, scope change requests, and requirements documentation may be used to classify project life cycles. Consequently, the following categorization is possible. Project products and deliverables are established up front in predictive project life cycles, and any modifications to the project's scope are rigorously controlled. Iterative/Incremental Project Life Cycles are beneficial for complicated projects and if it is anticipated that the project's objectives and scope may change. One or more project activities are purposefully repeated at each project phase or iteration in order to gradually add functionality to the final result. The most important aspect of adaptive/agile project life cycles is their substantial process flexibility, which ensures on the one hand the application of more traditional project management methods and principles, while at the same time reducing the typical formalism of complex frameworks like those of PRINCE2 or PMI so that the response to the ongoing evolution and growth of market demands can be as quick and effective as possible.

To date, a variety of Project Life Cycle models have been developed for each of these categories to take into account various organizational, industrial, and technical settings as well as various development contexts. The Prototype Model, which allows the release of intermediate software prototypes while the user is assisted in the final characterization, is a typical example of the Predictive Life Cycle in the ICT field. It gradually implements the final product through the release of intermediate software prototypes. Agile Project Life Cycle models have recently received a lot of attention for use in the ICT sector, where practical methodologies and specialized techniques are developed to address challenges brought on by changing market demands and to anticipate user expectations for the delivery of increasingly innovative products in shorter amounts of time and at a lower cost. Examples of agile models include SCRUM and Extreme Programming. Extreme Programming is built on the collaboration of two programmers

who continuously check the code as it is being created. Continuous testing is also done throughout the development process. The daily SCRUM meetings used to evaluate the progress of the work being done are based on the principles of Sprint, Backlog, and SCRUM methodology.

### **Life Cycle of a Product**

The conventional start of the product life cycle is the conception of an idea, which is then realized as a consequence of a design phase and is then put into use until its ultimate retirement. Similar to the Project Life Cycle, there are several models and definitions for a Product Life Cycle based on the intended uses. Using the ICT industry as an example once again, it can be said that the framework provided by the Information Technology Infrastructure Library serves as a de facto standard for the administration of IT services. The service life cycle is recognized by the following structure in the ITIL 2007 edition:

1. Service Strategy, first.
2. Design of Services.
3. Change in Service.
4. Service Provisioning.
5. Permanent Service Enhancement.

The ISOIEC 12207 standard provides the following life cycle description for software products:

1. Acquisition.
2. Supply.
3. Development.
4. Operation.
5. Maintenance.

The life cycle of a generic system is finally divided into the following phases according to ISOIEC 15288: concept, development, production, use and support, and retirement.

### **Differentiating Features and Connections**

From a conceptual standpoint, it is apparent that the contrast between the words project and product determines the border between the Project Life Cycle and the Product Life Cycle. The distinction between the two life cycles, however, becomes somewhat hazy since some definitions seek to reduce the distance between these ideas. For instance, there is a close relationship between projects and products in the aircraft industry. The following form for Project Life Cycles is provided by the European standard ECSS-M-ST-10C Rev. which was released by the European Cooperation for Space Standardization in 2009.

#### **Phase 0: Needs Analysis and Mission Analysis**

1. Feasibility is phase two.
2. The preliminary definition phase.
3. Detailed Definition Phase.
4. Qualification and production comprise Phase D.
5. Utilization represents Phase E.

### Phase F, disposal, is

It should be emphasized that even though they are often associated with the product, Phase 0 and particularly both Phases E and F are included in the project life cycle. Project life cycles that have been extended are now very typical. They often place emphasis on the deliberate addition of a few extra tasks to the project life cycle. The discovery of ownermarket requirements is especially connected to some of these extra tasks, which were traditionally thought to be beyond the scope of the project life cycle. On the other hand, PRINCE2 includes instructions for creating business plans as part of the pre-project and initiating stages of the project life cycle. A six-phase comprehensive project life cycle model that includes a project incubation/feasibility phase before the traditional models' initiation phase and a post-project evaluation phase following the typical project closure phase has just been published by Russell D. Archibald and Shane C. Archibald. This method accurately reflects the situations in which a project's existence begins before the conventional starting phase and that, as was already mentioned, its products and results continue to exist and need to be evaluated after project closure in order to determine the project's success and, particularly, its value. Therefore, it is believed that the project environment should properly take into account both the project incubation/feasibility phase and the post-project evaluation phase.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, A foundation for efficient project management and control is provided by project life cycles. They provide businesses a methodical way to organize, carry out, and keep track of projects, ensuring that goals are achieved and value is produced. Organizations should give priority to project management principles and modify their life cycle models to fit their particular circumstances, whether they use a conventional or iterative approach. Organizations may improve their project management procedures and produce effective project results by comprehending and putting different perspectives on project life cycles into practice. In order to implement a suitable project life cycle model, businesses must take into account their unique demands, the project's features, and industry standards. Selecting a model that best fits the project's objectives and limits as well as the organization's culture and skills is essential.

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## CHAPTER 3

### PROJECT LIFE CYCLE COST, SCHEDULE AND REQUIREMENTS MANAGEMENT

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#### ABSTRACT:

Project life cycle cost, schedule, and requirements management are critical components of successful project execution. This chapter explores the importance of effectively managing these aspects throughout the project life cycle. It discusses various strategies, methodologies, and tools that organizations can employ to ensure accurate cost estimation, efficient scheduling, and comprehensive requirements management. By implementing robust practices in these areas, organizations can enhance project performance, control project outcomes, and deliver successful projects.

#### KEYWORDS:

Constraints, Cost estimation, Critical path, Deliverables, Earned value management, Feasibility, Gantt chart.

#### INTRODUCTION

Project Processes in the Project Life Cycle Environment. The key process groups that cover the whole project life cycle are as follows, with minor changes, according to the majority of recognized project management techniques, which are ideally also the most often employed approaches [1], [2]. The following are the activities/products that are most closely associated with cost/schedule and benefit concerns. Starting, where the general importance of the whole project must be specified at a very high level goals and scope, business rationale, needs and expectations of stakeholders, primary deliverables and time/cost budget, selection of a project manager, and success criteria. Planning, in which the baseline for the entire project must be created at various granularity levels work breakdown structure and organization breakdown structure, responsibility matrix for work package assignment, time schedule plan and the appropriate Gantt chart, cost estimate plan, risk analysis and corrective action plan, progress checkpoint plan, quality plan, communication plan, and so forth.

Executing, which entails coordinating work and work teams, processing and editing progress reports, distributing pertinent information to stakeholders, managing changes and contingencies, monitoring risks, implementing corrective actions, etc., during the actual project development and delivery [3], [4]. Monitoring and controlling, in which the following duties are anticipated to be completed concurrently deliverables and progress data collection, critical issues and variances analysis vs. current baseline, root causes identification and evaluation of updated time/cost estimate-to-complete, revision of baseline, business justification update/approval, etc. Closing, where the following actions are anticipated to be completed at the project's conclusion:



administrative contract closure, capitalization of knowledge gained from lessons learned, resource release for involved personnel and other resources, business rationale modification, etc.

### **Project Management Groups Work**

Other sources claim that a incubation process should be used as a starting point and that the PRINCE2 methodology's Closing a Project process is much enhanced by the inclusion of a post-project benefits evaluation plan [5], [6]. The post-project benefits evaluation plan should be included whenever we want to ensure that the overall significance of the entire project has actually been achieved. At the end of the project, however, we can only obtain a 'proxy' evaluation, namely, time cost spent and scope quality of deliverables, and not yet an after-the-fact measure of the true benefit provided to stakeholders. As a conclusion, we can say that the ultimate objective of project managers or project steering committees is to ensure that stakeholders get the promised benefits in order for the project to be successful [7], [8]. Requirements engineering is an important activity that should be incorporated in the whole PLC, as well as the Product Life Cycle.

It is already common practice in many industry sectors, varying in depth and thoroughness depending on the organization's maturity because, in the words of Brooks, the hardest single part of building a system is deciding precisely what to build no other part of the conceptual work is as difficult as establishing the detailed technical requirements. no other part of the work so cripples the resulting system if done wrong. no other part is as different. The cost schedule effect of a requirement modification is highly tied to project progress, as is sadly shown in many instances. in other words, the identical change request has a greater impact when the project is closer to completion, which is subsequently delayed. This is the benefit of commencing the activity of requirements elicitation and documenting as soon as possible, even in the very first process group, which, following a management stakeholder feedback approval, explicitly establishes what needs to be provided by the project and its performance standards. This also produces a check-reference tool that will be progressively developed and updated under management control throughout the PLC, until the final project product test and feedback on operations.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Project Risk Components in the PLC Stages**

Every project has a unique amount of uncertainty due to a variety of inherent circumstances, which, if not appropriately managed, are likely to have an effect on the project's performance and related conclusion. A risk is an unforeseen occurrence or series of unforeseeable events that, if they take place, would have an impact on the accomplishment of goals. It combines the likelihood that a danger or opportunity will materialize with the size of its effect on goals [9], [10]. This claim emphasizes the fact that risk may have both good and bad effects, which are referred to here as threats and opportunities correspondingly. The goal of risk management is to keep the inherent project uncertainty under control while attempting to lessen the effect of threats and to create opportunities. Risks may arise from a variety of sources and can affect a project's operations, results, and associated areas that aren't directly linked to the project. Additionally, they are simpler or harder to predict and control depending on whether they have an internal or external source.

Risk management cannot, under any circumstances, be a 'offhand' activity. rather, it must be a continuing process throughout the PLC. Managing risks entails doing the following tasks. Recognize hazards and ascertain any project-related dangers. Project context analysis is the first step in the detection process. This step isolates substantial uncertainties on project assumptions and estimates and assesses their possible influence on project performance and result. Various strategies might be used to find a relevant risk list, for example. If such a catalogue is available for the particular industryproject characteristics, it enables the creation of a thorough list of risks, typically categorized by nature, where each risk has a suggested range of workable countermeasures as well as a standard grade of importance. Depending on the project type, a unique risk analysis checklist may be appropriate. the responses to each question help identify key uncertainties and a preliminary list of project-related hazards.

List of hazards encountered in prior projects of a similar kind. with the use of lessons learned information, risk selection ranking more reliable and, by extension, the efficacy of associated remedies is more dependable. The previous selection methods can be seamlessly combined with this one. Brainstorming approach Project Managers and Project Team Leaders may organize an open discussion meeting to find new undiscovered dangers. These risks are often connected to aspects that are special to a project or a product. The result of this organizational effort will be a more thorough list of risks, together with their rating and proposed mitigating actions. as a side benefit, the whole Project Team will become more aware of risks and dedicated to dealing with them.

Determine the likelihood of a risk occurring and the degree of its effect by ranking and quantifying the risk. Both values may be rated on a qualitative or a quantitative scale. obtaining a thorough numerical number is often not particularly useful, unless there are extremely particular circumstances. Depending on the project's confidence and the nature of risk, many methodologies and tools may be used to determine likelihood and effect. Since the severity of the risks is rated in decreasing order, the essential hazards will be the center of attention. The algebraic sum of the effect of threats and opportunities is a good indicator of the overall project risk level since it shows if the overall risk level is within the project's tolerance limits. The methods for risk appraisal and quantification are described in this. Plan your risk responses and come up with practical ways to limit the effects of risk. As previously mentioned, the values assigned to likelihood and effect establish the degree of severity of each risk and its location in the Risk Matrix. as a result, it provides a reliable indication for choosing a countermeasure plan.

To choose countermeasures that are proportional to risk and applicable to more risks, minimize residual risk, and avoid side-effect risks, the strategy of risk restraint must be thoroughly designed and constantly assessed. Implement the plan, keep an eye on the dangers, and follow the previously outlined countermeasures method. Implementation refers to putting chosen countermeasures into action or setting up a suitable emergency plan to be used when the relevant risk event actually happens. In the latter scenario, a person in charge of risk monitoring and controlling as well as those in charge of putting relevant countermeasures into action must be selected. To compare actual risk occurrence to projections and update the risk register by removing conquered or undiscovered threats and adding newly discovered risks, all major risks should be regularly evaluated. The above-described iterative assessment procedure is applied to the latter threats. Additionally, the project's time and cost provisions need to be evaluated for sufficiency and, if required, updated.

Risk analysis findings must be the topic of a comprehensive and ongoing communication process to either Project Team members or to project stakeholders in order for risk restriction methods to have the greatest reward. Selected risks, a planned restraint strategy, and actual consequences must be discussed in a direct and transparent manner across the PLC. A project manager is in charge of managing project risk. Risk analysis duty may be assigned as needed when project structures identify sub-projects, but Project Managers must maintain a comprehensive understanding of all risks for both detection and monitoring/control reasons. In addition to project managers, support roles like risk owner and countermeasure owner may be specified. The Risk Register, which details all discovered hazards and their associated monitoring across the whole PLC, is a fundamental instrument for managing risks successfully. The types of information that must be recorded are, more specifically:

1. Identifying risks.
2. Risk explanation.
3. Occurrence of a risk-related event or date.
4. Risk kind or type.
5. Appraisal and quantification of risk.
6. Risk manager
7. Danger level.
8. Prepared precautions or an emergency plan.
9. Owner of a countermeasure.

In addition to being completed by the Project Manager and the Project Team at the end of the project, the Risk Register should be carefully updated on a regular basis to ensure accuracy. It can also be used to add to the company's experience that is included in the Risk Catalogue. Identifying and Using the Process of Risk Management to Manage Cost and Schedule. Maintaining the project's alignment with its baseline or, when necessary, moving forward with an alternate, mutually agreed-upon baseline that reasonably preserves its value for the stakeholders or otherwise efficiently closing it without wasting more resources is the main goal of cost and schedule risk management. A risk analysis must be done, primarily by the project manager, agreed by the steering committee, and implemented throughout the whole project life cycle given the probabilistic environment of any project.

The first step in risk management is to acknowledge that hazards will be there and of a particular level. Therefore, they must be rated according to their expected impact = Risk Probability \* Risk effect in order to handle them pragmatically. The top risks are then determined, and an action plan is created using certain fundamental techniques. Before getting into the specifics, it is important to keep in mind that choosing a strategy for various risk classes would benefit from a visualization of the risk map using the Risk Matrix. The following risk categories and suggested methods are listed:

1. **High Risk:** High risk actions should be planned and carried out well in advance and under strict management supervision since they may have a significant influence on cost, time, or the quality of deliverables.
2. **Medium Risk:** Relevant effect on cost, time, or deliverable quality: early action is preferred, but in any case, action must be planned, carried out, and then reported to management control.

3. **Low Risk:** Little effect on price, timeliness, or product quality: standard management oversight.

The following are the types of risk management tactics that are favored.

**Risk Mitigation:** Since risk cannot be accepted, an alternative project strategy or solution should be chosen. By addressing the underlying issue, this approach attempts to eliminate risk and get it closer to zero likelihood. The project is safer, but there is a drawback to this: cost and time go up, and expectations of stakeholders and benefits go down.

**Risk Reductionmitigation:** A proactive course of action should be chosen to lessen the likelihood or effect of the risk. Specific countermeasures would be implemented together with a continuous review and the creation of an emergency plan in order to keep the danger under control. Projects using this approach are less safe than those using the earlier tactic, but performance decreases are less severe. Early action must be performed in order to transfer the effect of risk to another location. It may be a standard business insurance policy against risk or a language in a contract that holds the other party accountable for any consequences of the chosen risk for a project that the owner has contracted the supplier to complete. As a result, managing that risk becomes someone else's problem.

**Accepting Risk:** Despite being aware of the vast variety of possible hazards, action won't be done until a risk manifests itself. In that case, a practical emergency action will be taken. A method to management known as monitor and react or, more accurately, wait and see would be used. How might risk categories and mitigation tactics be better matched? There is no one correct response to this, although a general relationship profile may be given. The method outlined in takes into consideration hazards, which are often seen as probabilistic threats to project performance. When there are chances to boost project performance, one might use a similar approach to the positive side of hazards. The techniques in the latter situation go under various names:

1. Use possibilities to make a difference.
2. Give possibilities to someone else who is better able to produce an increase in the project's performance.
3. Raise the likelihood that an opportunity will present itself or have a favorable effect.
4. Accept the opportunity's favorable influence on the project's performance.

### **The Benefits of Schedule and Cost Risk Management**

Why are cost and scheduling concerns prevalent so frequently? Innovation has always been seen as a strategic element in achieving company goals that are in line with organizational purpose, even before the current financial and economic crisis. Currently, in the midst of the financial and economic crisis, innovation initiatives must be carried out in a highly condensed amount of time with little extra funding. This restriction forces any company to regulate initiatives more carefully, whether they are already underway or just getting started, with a constant eye on their business case. A few words about the project organization, which is by its very nature trans-functional and temporary. It consists of the Project Team, led by the Project Manager, as well as an ad hoc Management Steering Committee, which serves as the client representation and makes strategic decisions. The different PM Methodologies or PM Competence Guidelines have some

distinctions and offer additional useful roles, but for the purposes of this, the four roles listed above are sufficient.

The strategy to managing project costs and schedule risks that will be presented is based on helping the project manager analyze and choose an appropriate course of action when external or internal pressures or accidents seem to be causing the project to deviate from its original course. Additionally, cost schedule risk management enables project managers to react to any anticipated circumstance that could arise and have a negative impact on project performance, thus necessitating a re-baselining of the project's cost schedule. If this strategy is linked with the management-by-exception style, a time-saving project control that is successful may be strengthened. A fundamental premise of this strategy is that roles and duties must be clearly defined, both within the Project Team and the steering committee or other active stakeholders. By discussing risk and opportunity concerns with all relevant parties and using an effective communication strategy, it is possible to manage expectations effectively and lower the chance of project failure.

### **What Impact Analysis Is Worth**

Limited resources are available and/or stakeholder expectations are quite high in the competitive market in which we are typically active. Therefore, it is essential to carefully assess project viability in order to make the best choices about project-related investments. What does it really mean? Typically, it refers to the project's scope, cost and timing of execution, product quality, hazards, and anticipated benefits. The preferred/accepted arrangement of these components, which serves as the project's business case, serves as the basis for continuous project appraisal across the board in the PLC. In reality, a re-evaluation of the effect on the project is necessary to determine if the original business reason is still valid when the major project milestones are reached or when a substantial change in the project happens. This strategy makes it feasible to carry out a sound update and potential approval of the impacted items, which are no longer in line with the project's original aims. Impact Analysis, as previously said, is a thorough and complete technique to demonstrating the basic prerequisites necessary for the start-up, execution, and financial feasibility of a project. It consists of:

1. The customary assessment of financial and economic investments.
2. Assessment of other benefits that are not readily quantifiable in monetary terms but are nevertheless specified and quantified statistically.
3. The term financial/economic evaluation refers to commonly used methodologies and instruments for evaluating financial investments. More specifically, time-phased cash flow must be taken into account, which often comprises the following:

#### **Cash Flow Out:**

1. The total cost or expenditure necessary to accomplish the project.
2. The unique expenses or investment needed to run the project's results.
3. Incoming funds
4. The variations in income/revenues from the project's output's deployment and operation.
5. These sums should take into account potential cost savings for project output consumers who are not internal project users, if the project owner is a governmental agency.

The assessment of various forms of benefits includes non-financial consequences of the investment that are difficult to take into account in the financial and economic assessment. Increases in the effectiveness of services provided to users or stakeholders, both inside and outside the organization, are included in this category. If the project owner is a governmental institution, measures of increased citizen democratic participation and access to open government should also be taken into account. Following a consistent approach in each phase stage, the Impact Analysis timeline should be modified in accordance with the PLC stages. Before making any decisions about the project's start-up, it is highly advised to conduct an early pre-project evaluation. Similarly, a in-progress evaluation should be repeated throughout the course of the project's planning and implementation to ensure that the costs and benefits are still in line with the project's stated objectives. After the project is completed, a post-project evaluation is required to evaluate the realization of anticipated benefits to the actual expenses. The real benefit comes from the deployment of a certain impact model throughout the PLC, which is founded on uniform standards and quantifiable values.

Impact analysis-based project assessments provide a number of benefits at various levels. At the project management level, they enable: having a clear and objective evaluation of the entire set of benefits, either on the financial side or the other quantitative, non-monetary side. understanding which services/products implemented by the project yield actual benefits and to what extent. any causes that prevented the achievement of the expected benefit levels in the 'business case' evaluation. and being aware of countermeasures to be adopted in order for the project to achieve its objectives. The exact same measures are used to quantify the operational gains realized during the post-project period.

1. This enables program/portfolio management to be improved by using an impartial benchmarking method to.
2. The anticipated outcomes of various initiatives, empowering/activating those that optimize return on investment or non-financial advantages.
3. The actual results of various projects, emphasizing best practices, risk profile, and pertinent mitigation strategies to be used as lessons learned for incoming future initiatives.
4. The efficiency of delivering services or goods to show that the investment has produced the promised returns.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Project success depends on efficient management of the cost, schedule, and requirements throughout the project life cycle. Throughout the project life cycle, organizations should give top priority to precise cost estimates, effective scheduling, and thorough requirements management.

Organizations may improve project performance, reduce risks, and deliver successful projects that exceed stakeholder expectations by applying sound practices, using suitable techniques and technologies, and encouraging efficient communication and cooperation. Project management techniques, such as the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) or Agile approaches, which provide frameworks and best practices for cost, schedule, and requirements management, should be adopted by businesses if they want to succeed in these areas. Utilizing tools and technologies for project management may also increase the effectiveness and precision of these procedures.

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## CHAPTER 4

### INITIATING THE PROJECT COST ANALYSIS

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#### ABSTRACT:

The initiation phase of a project is a critical stage that sets the foundation for successful project execution. This chapter explores the significance of initiating a project effectively and provides insights into the key activities and considerations involved in this phase. It examines the importance of project selection, defining project objectives, conducting feasibility studies, identifying stakeholders, and creating a project charter. By understanding the importance of project initiation and implementing robust practices in this phase, organizations can enhance project success rates and achieve desired outcomes.

#### KEYWORDS:

Budgeting, Cost Baseline, Cost Benefit Analysis, Cost Estimation, Cost Management, Financial Feasibility, Funding Sources.

#### INTRODUCTION

A project could have many cost components. It's fairly uncommon for some of these components to be overlooked throughout the cost-estimating process. It is crucial to have a clear understanding of all project costs before making any investments. For instance, it would be pointless to discover during project execution that a very expensive Project Manager spends 30% to 80% of their time reporting to worried stakeholders who want assurances about the project's performance. By developing a communication management plan that included monthly reporting, time and money may have been saved [1], [2]. Because of this, it is crucial to take a rigorous approach to the initial requirement analysis and cost estimations at the project start stage while also allowing for an efficient management style that is fit for purpose, that is, adapted to the specifics of the project in question [3], [4].

#### The Value of a Strong Project Launch

Compared to the other project phases, the start stage is more important. The risk of misinterpretations preventing the achievement of specified benefits or necessitating ongoing adjustments, which would necessitate harmful increases in terms of costs and time, would exist if the project management team were unable to implement the correct level of rigorousness early in the initiation stage [5], [6]. This does not, however, mean a waiver from the need to plan for remedial measures at a later time. Instead, solid foundations must be laid far in advance. The following preliminary actions will take place:

Identification of a business case for starting the project, which will include key risks and anticipated benefits. 1. review of lessons learned from prior experiences in similar projects.



selection of a project life cycle model. 3. identification of key stakeholders and definition of a communication strategy. and 4. definition of the organizational structure that will be in charge of project management, carefully defining who will be in charge of what and how. It is practical to choose a project management model as soon as feasible since doing so assures that specified procedures are accessible and that there is no need to continually invent the wheel. Good models are especially adept at addressing common queries in many project scenarios, such as The discussion in this is based on PRINCE2, including its management tools and a project life cycle, which is made up of the following phases as a consequence of assigning project responsibility:

1. Beginning a project.
2. Starting a project is step two.
3. Managing a stage.
4. The following delivery phases.

### DISCUSSION

The determination of the advantages unrealized prior to project closure is one of the post-project processes. The start-up stage and the initiation stage, which, respectively, provide the basis for the next stage and for the whole project, will be of particular relevance in this context. Naturally, the unique characteristics of the project environment must be taken into consideration to tailor the implementation of this strategy, so that a particular project may have a much lower number of phases. The initiation stage, however, should never be disregarded since it really manages the whole project platform and prevents the commencement of any pointless projects [7], [8]. The prerequisites for the project's launch are determined at the start-up phase. Prior to determining if the project investment is profitable, all relevant information is gathered with the least amount of effort feasible. The following are the prerequisites for project initiation:

1. existence of a sound business case for starting the project, minimizing time and money loss that might result from unrealistic project assumptions.
2. Existence of necessary authorizations and the lack of restrictions that can never be lifted and prohibit the project's completion or the realization of benefits.
3. It must be possible to gather enough details about the project's scope to create the project brief.

The project is given solid foundations during the succeeding beginning stage, which also aids the client organization in estimating project resources needed for a successful conclusion before devoting significant financial resources to it [9], [10]. There are the following activities:

1. Thorough examination of the project's basis, anticipated advantages, and potential hazards.
2. The project scope is merged by determining the deliverables and establishing the delivery plan in terms of processes, timetables, and expenses for the agreed-upon project outputs to be delivered.
3. The method of making decisions is defined.
4. Clarification of quality management processes and expenses necessary to reach the necessary level.

A Risk Management strategy and a Configuration Management strategy, for example, may be used to define the processes for managing risks, issues, and modifications as well as, if

necessary, for allocating specific budget lines. Risk Management will continue throughout the project, but as soon as possible, the extent of risk exposure must be assessed to ensure that it does not exceed customer needs. Procedures for project performance control identification. Identifying the management processes for information and communications. Following these procedures, specific guidelines for creating project cost estimates will be offered. Before establishing a rough description of Risk Management processes, Quality Management procedures, Management Team structure, and their expenses, cost estimates cannot be made with any degree of accuracy.

Additionally, it's critical that some cost components, such as documentation management expenses, which are commonly underestimated but typically play a large role in a project's overall cost structure, be not missed when discussing management costs. The project initiation stage is when future project controls are planned, in line with the overall project plan and concurrently with the creation of the project initiation documentation. Key milestones, checkpoints considered necessary, anticipated expenses, and management phases are all included in project plans. a summary of these will also be included in the Business Case. The Project Board uses project plans to keep track of the project's development at certain times in time, particularly when comparing the outcomes with the anticipated advancement.

### **Identification of the Important Elements Affecting Cost Analysis**

Early on in the project, preliminary investigations are required in order to collect information essential to comprehending the worth of the project and its anticipated cost. These investigations are needed in order to execute a realistic cost analysis and an accurate investment evaluation. More specifically, the following step-by-step process should not be overlooked in order to improve the chance of the project's success and to determine the project's expenses with accuracy:

1. Build the business case.
2. Specify the scope and agreed-upon standard.
3. Determine the project's activity costs for management and execution.
4. Choose the communication strategy and stakeholders.
5. Project plan preparation
6. Assemble the benefit measurement strategy.
7. Use a project management office if possible.
8. The specifics of this process are looked at.

### **Keep The Business Case Current**

Every project needs a rationale to guide its decision-making, ensure alignment with strategic goals, and keep an eye on whether the anticipated advantages can really be realized. Projects must be ended if strategic goals are not met or benefits are not realized in order to redirect finances and resources to other profitable efforts. As the business case is being developed, it may become apparent that a number of difficulties need to be addressed in advance in order to have the least possible negative effect on the project. Alternatively, it may become apparent that certain limits must be met in order to prevent funding a project that is doomed to failure. Although it should be noted that a project must have a valid business case before it can be started and completed, it is possible that this case will evolve over time. The new reason must, above all else, align with the strategic goals.

A business case must always include documentation of justifications. Initially, this document may just be a basic sketch, but when work gets underway, a more precise version will be needed. The Business Case is a dynamic document that is continually updated, necessitating a constant review of the reasoning it contains to ensure that it is acceptable. A business case should initially highlight important details like anticipated advantages and financial gains from project investment. A summary of costs, including operational and maintenance costs, an investment appraisal using agreed-upon metrics like return on investment, net present value, or internal rate of return, and an assessment of key project risks, which are related to uncertain events that, should they occur, could have a significant negative impact on the project's ability to achieve its objectives. It should be underlined that initiatives of a mandated nature also call for the explanation of the business choice that would have been chosen. In reality, a number of possibilities could need to be taken into account, with a variety of prospective solutions offering quite distinct features in terms of cost, benefit, and danger.

### **Set Out The Arranged Quality And The Span**

Only after establishing the project scope, or the whole range of project goods to be supplied, as well as the quality criteria relevant to product evaluation, integrated into the quality management systems, are overall project schedule and cost estimations achievable. Quality expenses, such as those associated with managing and verifying non-conformances, are a necessary component of production costs and cannot be ignored. The project product's conformity to the agreed-upon standards in terms of the proven observance of set expectations and specifications constitutes the idea of quality that is pertinent in this situation. With regard to scope and quality, a project initiative might take one of two fundamental approaches. Traditional in which the scope is set and the cost and/or schedule restrictions must be amended anytime an issue arises. On the other hand, if no schedule cost modification is anticipated, some of the quality requirements must be removed.

For deliveries to take place at designated dates and in accordance with the defined quality, agile when no alteration is feasible other than to the project scope. Contrary to expectations, the latter method may also be used for building projects. A real-world example is the tale of a stadium built for the 2004 Summer Olympic Games in Athens. Without specific project conditions, including the creation of a Product Breakdown Structure and the priority of individual project aspects, the timely delivery of a stadium that had a deadline for completion would not be assured. A low emphasis could be given to the stadium roof while a high priority can be given to safety concerns. If certain circumstances prevented the delivery of the complete stadium, the work on the cover may be delayed. This would not affect the deadline by which the stadium would be delivered in a fully functioning state. Beyond the cost resulting from not having erected the stadium cover, missing the delivery date of the stadium under operating circumstances would be tremendously detrimental to the client. It is obvious that this solution has to be pre-approved by the client and formally documented in a contract.

### **Identify Activity Costs For The Project's Management and Execution**

Many projects limit the effort of the cost estimation processes to the tasks necessary to deliver the project product, such as a building or a software program. However, general Project Management tasks are not taken into account, even though the resources used for such tasks would need to be budgeted for. In certain projects, management expenses are undervalued. For instance, 10% of the entire cost is assigned, regardless of the complexity of the project and the

number of stakeholders involved, which raises the risk of a significant rise in the project's overall costs. The management effort is frequently underestimated whenever it is not recognized as real work, including lengthy, resource-intensive tasks, like preparing documentation, making phone calls, sending or receiving emails, all of which have a noticeable impact on cost, quality, and delivery dates. This is especially true for projects in which team members are responsible for both management and production. Therefore, project costs will be computed incorrectly if management expenses are ignored. Determine the communication strategy and identify the stakeholders. Identification of stakeholders is crucial. Whether a stakeholder is a person, a group of people, or an organization, as long as they have the potential to affect or be impacted by a project, this situation may be seen as either a danger to the project or an opportunity. The best practice MSP recommends the following step-by-step method to guarantee the participation of interested parties in addition to communication between them:

1. Identify the participants.
2. Profile your stakeholders and analyze them.
3. Establish a communication plan to engage the appropriate parties.
4. Plan your participation.
5. Implement communication and involvement.
6. Analyze the strategy's implementation's success.

The analysis process involves understanding the stakeholders' influence levels on the project as well as their positive or negative attitudes in order to decide whether they should be given more or less attention. The stakeholders can be grouped based on affinity criteria. Regardless of whether stakeholder interests are judged to be more or less rational, it is necessary to take them into account because even if some of these stakeholders may have the erroneous impression, it is still possible that their perspective may have an impact on how well the project turns out. When it is possible to quantify advantages and drawbacks as they are experienced by different stakeholders, this data may be used to influence benefit management strategies as well as communication plans.

Monitoring communication efficiency is crucial, as is providing easy information to the intended recipient and maintaining contact with the key interested parties. Over the course of the project, new stakeholders may be found and demands may change. This new environment calls for swiftly updating and adjusting communication tactics. Stakeholder management is a constant activity, but it may also become quite onerous when, for instance, meetings with hundreds of shareholders are required or pricey express mail service is required. In any case, this effort is necessary to protect the project from any risks.

### **Project Plan Settlement**

Project plans are crucial tools for ensuring that provisions are made for cost monitoring and control. They specify not only how and when agreed-upon goals are to be attained but also important milestones. The PRINCE2 standards provide a brief project plan description that highlights the essential details. As a result, the following components should be present in the plan: prerequisites affecting project success. external dependencies that interfere with or could interfere with the plan. planning assumptions made that affect the project plan. lessons learned from previous projects and applied to the current plan. project monitoring and control data. project budget. tolerances on schedule, cost, and scope, among other variables relevant to the project. description of the project. and, finally, the project's timeline. The resources needed to

create and manage the project plan should be taken into account whenever project expenses need to be assessed. This is a general strategy that will gradually be improved and codified throughout the stage plan.

### **Planning For Benefit Measurement**

Projects are started because the customer organization wants to realize benefits in addition to the delivery of project outputs per se. The benefit measurement plan is a management document that specifies how and when to assess the attainment of the planned project benefits. Although the project criteria were effectively fulfilled, as well as the intended costs and delivery dates, there have been instances of strong project management methods where the anticipated benefits fell woefully short. Loss of profit and reputation results from failure to realize advantages. simultaneously, had the client been told promptly, this may have prompted the choice to discontinue the project and redirect money to other investments. The Business Case contains an updated list of the anticipated project advantages. The measurement strategy outlines the processes and timelines for evaluating the project's benefits.

Benefits must be quantifiable to avoid the possibility of disagreements stemming from subjective interpretations. It is impossible to overstate the significance of the benefit measurement plan since, as is often pointed out, customer satisfaction depends not only on the project's successful completion in accordance with requirements but also on the realization of its anticipated advantages. This is the rationale for putting in place a system to really determine if the benefits have been realized and the prerequisites. Along with expenditures to be expended for the actual ascertainment of benefits throughout the Project Life Cycle, project cost estimations must take resource needs associated to creating and maintaining the plan into account.

### **Think About Using A PMO**

For handling specific initiatives, some companies use ad hoc procedures. On the other hand, PMOs may be established to assist the adoption of best practices in projects while easily tracking their performance, ensuring that all internal resources are employed to the fullest extent possible, and providing reports as necessary to support strategic choices. PMOs, for instance, are used in companies where a number of projects need to be managed or in projects that are really difficult and where some strategic value is seen to be a necessary component of project success for a successful company. Depending on the cost distribution model chosen, the expenses associated with employing PMOs may be billed to either the organization or the project. In some organizations, a network of PMOs may be envisioned as the backbone, communicating all information and all reports to senior management for the purpose of controlling the performance and good health of projects. Successful outcomes to a project are ensured if vital information is provided, in addition to accurate cost management. P3O is the industry standard in the UK for PMO-type organizations. Extreme differences in the tasks given to these offices may be necessary in certain circumstances. Included in typical functions are the following:

1. Offer legal, financial, and stakeholder interface consulting to project teams.
2. Risk evaluation and monitoring.
3. Give operational and administrative assistance.
4. Encourage the broad use of standards.
5. Provide internal training in areas like project management and other specific fields
6. Provide identify qualified personnel.

If a PMO is engaged in supporting the project's earliest phase, it may readily cut the initiation stage's time to a large amount and the performance will be better. For instance:

1. By providing the project team with skills.
2. By offering a list of papers that must be filled out in order to acquire approvals from governmental bodies.
3. Giving support for cost management.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Effective project initiation is crucial for project success. Organizations may create a strong foundation for project execution by choosing the appropriate projects, setting clear goals, completing feasibility studies, identifying stakeholders, and drafting a project charter. Stakeholder alignment is improved, efficient planning is made possible, and the possibility of project success is increased via effective project launch. A successfully completed commencement phase creates the foundation for a project's progress. Organizations may improve project success rates, lessen the chance of scope creep, and promote stakeholder alignment by concentrating on successful project beginning. It creates the conditions for effective project planning and execution, reduces rework, and increases the likelihood of attaining targeted project objectives.

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## CHAPTER 5

### ESTIMATING AND BUDGETING FOR PROJECT ACTIVITIES

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#### ABSTRACT:

Estimating and budgeting for project activities are critical components of project management that involve predicting costs, resources, and timelines necessary for successful project execution. This chapter explores the importance of accurate estimation and budgeting, along with the challenges and best practices associated with these processes. It discusses various estimation techniques, such as analogous, parametric, and bottom-up estimation, and emphasizes the significance of aligning estimates with project objectives. Additionally, it highlights the importance of creating comprehensive budgets that consider all project-related costs. By implementing effective estimation and budgeting practices, organizations can enhance project planning, control costs, and improve overall project outcomes.

#### KEYWORDS:

Actual Costs, Budget Allocation, Contingency, Cost Estimation, Cost Management, Cost Tracking, Depreciation.

#### INTRODUCTION

According to the PMI definition, the work breakdown structure is a hierarchical decomposition of the work that has to be done by the project team in order to achieve the project's goals and produce the specified deliverables. The WBS organizes and specifies the project's overall scope. Each declining level offers a more thorough explanation of how the project will be carried out. Last but not least, the WBS is divided into work packages and activities. Both internal and external deliverables are included in the hierarchy's delivery orientation. The project team uses the internal deliverables to create the external deliverables. This notion is not unique. In certain instances, project managers create a WBS that is activities-oriented, meaning that activities and work packages are on the highest levels of the WBS [1], [2]. Most of the time, adopting a deliverables-oriented strategy aids the team and the project manager in adhering to the 100% Rule. This is one of the key concepts governing the creation, breakdown, and assessment of the WBS. This rule indicates that the WBS captures all of the work to be done by include 100% of the work specified by the project scope. The rule states that the total amount of work at each level of the hierarchy must equal 100% of the total amount of labor represented by the parent. Additionally, no work that is beyond the project's true scope should be included in the WBS. As a result, the WBS is limited to include no more than 100% of the work [3], [4].

#### Benefits Associated with the Development of the WBS

The development of the WBS is the cornerstone of successful project management. We may assert that no project is complete without a WBS! In actuality, it is impossible to manage a



project without knowing its scope. The WBS thus clarifies what is and is not part of the project's scope and deliverables. It is evident that the WBS avoids numerous misconceptions. The foundation for a precise project estimating and associated cost management is a clear and comprehensive WBS. If a thorough and organized WBS is not there at the start of the project plan preparation process, the schedule might have a lot of issues.

For instance, we may overlook tasks that are necessary and fall within the project's critical path. Let's consider how this may be an issue if it is assessed and found during project execution [5], [6]. The WBS is an effective tool for helping the project's stakeholders comprehend its scope and buy into it. In reality, the stakeholders saw the project as their own project from the start of the project's existence since the WBS was created. The WBS aids project managers in managing the project as a whole, without gaps, including the management of internal project team members as well as outsourced service providers, such as suppliers or owners [7], [8]. The WBS establishes responsibility. Actually, it makes it simpler to hold individuals accountable for performing their jobs. A particular person may be given a clearly defined job, and that person is then in charge of seeing that it is completed. *Choosing the Best WBS Method for Developing a High-Quality WBS.*

It is crucial to specify how to control the scope inside the scope management plan using the PMI's methodology. This implies that the project managers, the team, and the stakeholders engaged in the project must respond to the question, Which is the right WBS approach for this project? Analyzing the project charter, which launches the project inside the company, the requirements, and the organizational process assets can help you find the solution to this issue and others like it. When working on huge projects, it's crucial to break them up into phases and re-estimate, using a thorough WBS, the phase that will allow the final plan to be as accurate as possible. The PMI standard and previous experiences point out the need of developing a delivery-oriented WBS. The deliverable must be at the top level. It is important to remember the 100% rule: the WBS must explain and control every aspect of the project scope.

All main and minor deliverables must be arranged in a hierarchical structure inside the WBS in order to demonstrate the relationships between them. The WBS's hierarchical form makes it possible to comprehend it completely and in depth. Additionally, during project meetings, the graphical depiction is quite helpful. Utilizing a code inside the WBS is crucial. Each WBS item is coded, giving the team the opportunity to identify each one specifically and avoid misunderstandings. The example demonstrates how the work packages for Key users identification, Matrix roles and tasks, and Contact list combine to create the deliverable known as Roles and tasks correlation. In terms of language, using nouns and adjectives rather than verbs might be helpful. For instance, 'Requirement documentation' is an excellent WBS item, whereas 'Write the requirement documentation' is a poor one.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Hierarchical Structure of a WBS**

Up to the point of scope baseline and afterwards in accordance with project change control, the WBS might alter as the project scope is gradually expanded. This will make it feasible for the project to develop continuously. Not to mention, a good WBS is not the work of a solitary Project Manager. Project managers must cooperate with and compel teams, stakeholders, and sponsors to contribute to the development of the WBS. In a final brainstorming session, the WBS may

also be improved by reviewing and improving graphical representations that will be presented later [9], [10]. The definition of work packages and activities must follow from the development of the WBS. An assortment of tasks is referred to as a work bundle. Solution Design is an example of a work package, whereas conceptual design, logical design, and physical design are examples of activities. For instance, distinct work packages might be assigned to various functional divisions within an organization or several project teams. Work packages may also be handled by other vendors. For instance, tasks may be assigned to project team members directly. After that, characteristics are added to the activities, which are subsequently utilized in the timetable.

### **Dictionary WBS**

Each WBS component is described in the WBS dictionary. According to organizational procedures and project rules, the language and structure of the description for each component may vary, but generally speaking, it should include the following:

1. A code of accounts identifier, a description of the WBS component's purpose, input and output deliverables, a statement of which organization is in charge of a given WBS component, schedule activities with schedule milestones, resource and quality requirements, cost estimates, acceptance criteria, technical information necessary for the proper performance of the work, other pertinent references, and contract-related information are all included.
2. Before beginning every work package or component, the WBS dictionary must be examined to verify that the correct standards, processes, and quality control methods are being followed. The WBS lexicon is always being updated since conditions are constantly changing. As a result, it's crucial to regularly check its contents to make sure the project is managed properly.
3. It is simple to reuse the WBS dictionary, which is handled by a PMO, in different projects. The WBS dictionary template must be kept up to date by the PMO. A straightforward and compact WBS dictionary.

### **Synthesis of the WBS Accounts Under Control**

Each work package is assigned to a control account as part of the WBS. An integrated scope, budget, cost, and schedule are compared with the earned value for performance assessment at a control account, which is a management control point. One or more work packages may be included in each control account. There can be only one control account per work package. Within project teams, control accounts must have clearly defined roles, such as those for team captains, functional heads, or the project managers themselves. Control accounts assist the project manager in maintaining project control and measuring project deviations throughout project execution so that trends can be assessed and any necessary corrective measures can be started. The Plan-Do-Check-Act method, which is the foundation of the control account, uses the control account during the Check phase in order to implement the appropriate corrective measures.

### **Budgeting and Estimating for Projects**

The WBS technique and creation that we previously mentioned have been helpful mostly for defining the project scope. We now tackle the problem of estimating and budgeting. Identifying the resources required for each project activity is the goal. The earlier application of the golden

rule recognize the function of each project activities so that each one may be simple to estimate and manage has shown to be highly helpful for this aim. The Project Manager and the project team will be able to estimate the project more precisely if the more complicated work is divided into smaller tasks. Another excellent method for evaluating the Resource Breakdown Structure is breaking down. By using the RBS, it is able to offer information for the necessary resources by starting with the major resource categories.

### **Identification of Approaches to Estimation**

Numerous methods of estimate and procedures may be found. It might be beneficial to apply several strategies for various work packages within a project. Opportunities derived from previous data, knowledge, etc. may really provide direction for selecting the appropriate estimating methodologies.

### **One-Point Explanation**

One estimate is needed for each action for this kind of estimation. There are several drawbacks to this process:

1. It can lead to an estimation that no one believes in, which can reduce the team's buy-in to the project management process.
2. If someone estimates an activity to take place over the course of 30 days but it is completed in 20 days, this could be regarded as an unacceptable result because the estimate was incorrect.
3. This kind of estimating should only be utilized for relatively simple projects or activities where it is not necessary to have a highly dependable strategy.

### **Algorithmic Estimation**

Analogy estimating, commonly referred to as top-down estimating, determines the length or expense of your current project by comparing it to a comparable previous project. When there is little knowledge about the project, this method might be employed. The analogy estimating technique's key advantage is that it is less expensive than other estimating strategies. The disadvantage of this method is that it is often less precise. As it is a blend of historical data and expert opinion, this strategy requires the use of expertise and judgment. The project team must have access to sufficient information about the preceding project in order to produce a quality estimation. Scope statements. Unless descriptions of the project and product scopes can be compared, the team won't know if two projects are indeed comparable. To make sure that the current project would follow identical procedures and phases, the WBS from the prior project is also required. The accuracy of the cost estimates may be impacted by differences between the two projects. The most crucial data from the previous project is found in performance reports. real costs.

### **Estimating Parametrics**

Statistical correlations between historical costs and other program factors, such as system performance or physical attributes, contractor output metrics, or manpower loads, are used in parametric estimation. The learning curve is a notion that is closely connected to parametric estimating. People who complete repetitive activities exhibit an increase in performance when the activity is performed several times. The following are the key findings of the learning curve

theory. As a job is repeated, less time is needed to complete it. As more units are created, the quantity of improvement diminishes. The rate of progress is consistent enough to be used as a forecasting tool.

### **Heuristic**

The heuristic approach is frequently referred to as a general rule. The claim that the design activity is 15% of the total project is one example. It is based on both statistical models and experience. Although the estimating process is short, it has the potential to be inaccurate owing to ignorance of project risks, characteristics, etc.

### **Point Estimation**

An analytical approach to ascertain and enhance the precision of cost or duration estimations is three-point estimating. Three estimates are generated by the project team or estimator:

1. The optimistic estimate. The most probable estimate.
2. The negative estimate.

### **The Common Errors in Estimating**

Finally, why do Project Managers and the team sometimes estimate incorrectly? The most typical mistakes are listed below:

1. Scope omissions are factors that were unintentionally left out of the estimate, such as soft expenses, hard construction expenditures, or job packages and activities. Items missing from the plans and specifications may be the cause of omissions.
2. Inaccurate assumptions are things that were thought to be included in a contractor's or subcontractor's bid but aren't.
3. Insufficient utilization of historical data. Organizations often possess a wealth of insightful data that, sometimes, is underutilized by the project team during the estimating stage. If one is available, a PMO may enhance an organization's usage of historical data for estimating needs.
4. Inadequate allowances. A contractor or subcontractor may submit an estimate with a material allowance that is too small.
5. Price variations after the estimate and project start date, material or labor prices could increase. Before authorizing and beginning the project, it is crucial to verify the costs of the materials and labor, if required.
6. There is a learning curve associated with each new material and construction approach.
7. Low degree of skill certain undertakings call for particular knowledge.

### **Examination of Reserves**

Budget must be set aside by project managers for handling risks that have not yet been identified. It is crucial to carry out a very thorough risk analysis, identify as many risks as possible, and allocate funds and resources for each risk. However, it is always possible that new risks will surface, in which case the reserve must help the Project Manager manage them. The following reserve types are contemplated: Management reserves and contingency reserves. The cost or time reserve used to handle the recognized risks is known as the contingency reserve. The Project Manager is in charge of it and has the power to employ it if any of the indicated risks

materialize. The cost or time reserve used to handle unknown risks is known as the management reserve. It is defined in accordance with the organization's policy. It is not an estimated reserve.

### **Creating the Last Budget: The Cost Allocation Framework**

Here is an illustration of how a project budget is created using the bottom-up, full-cost budget criteria at the top and activities at the bottom.

### **Budgeting for a Project**

Costs are divided into work packages inside the CBS and assigned to the lowest level of the WBS. At the most basic level, the CBS often has the same structure as the WBS, however this is not required. It goes without saying that the components of the WBS and the components of the CBS must be connected. One job may have many cost parts since the tasks at this level are often separated into distinct activities that are carried out by various departments. It is possible to track the project's actual, forecasted, and earned costs on a job once expenses have been allocated to individual activities. The budgeting process begins with the activities and ends with the cost budget for the full project, taking into account reserves for contingencies and management. What should the budget include? The answer is all the financial factors connected to the project, such as:

1. The cost of quality.
2. The cost of risk management.
3. The cost of labor.
4. The cost of materials.
5. Other expenses.

The following categories may include the costs being considered

1. Variable Costs, Such As Those Based On Material Quantities.
2. Fixed Costs, Like Rent.
3. Direct Costs Directly Tied To The Project, Such Travel Expenses.
4. Indirect Costs Connected To Several Projects, Like Taxes.

Several tiers of the project budget may be needed at various points during its lifespan. Early budgets may be improved upon later on in a more precise way. Therefore, it is crucial to constantly indicate the degree of accuracy of a budget when it is created. The following are the typical budget accuracy levels. The least precise estimate is a rough order of magnitude estimate. ROMs have an accuracy range of -50 to +50%. It may even be higher. When there is little knowledge about the project's scope, they are employed very early in the project. A budget estimate is a preliminary evaluation of either the amount of money anticipated to be made available to a business or government organization, or the amount of money needed to execute a project. These are a useful starting point for planning, but they are not the end result. An accurate estimate is helpful in project management. Despite the likelihood of some deviation from the estimate, precise estimations are accurate to within 5% to 10%. When the first project budget is created, it will be taken into consideration for trend analysis and variations. Later, further project budget versions might be made public and compared to the first, or baseline, version.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, for efficient project planning and management, precise estimating and budgeting are crucial. Organizations should use proper estimating methods, match estimates to project goals, develop thorough budgets, and take risks and uncertainties into account. Organizations may improve project planning, reduce costs, and increase project results by employing reliable estimate and budgeting techniques. A rigorous approach to budgeting and estimate lays the groundwork for a project's effective execution and helps the project's goals to be realized. Organizations may use historical data, consult subject matter experts, and make use of project management software and tools to improve estimating and budgeting procedures. Regular review and lessons learned activities can help to improve estimating precision and budgeting procedures.

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## CHAPTER 6

### DEVELOPING AND MANAGING THE PROJECT SCHEDULE

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#### ABSTRACT:

Developing and managing the project schedule is a critical aspect of project management that involves creating a timeline and sequencing project activities to ensure timely project completion. This chapter explores the significance of developing an accurate project schedule and highlights the key considerations and best practices involved in this process. It discusses techniques such as the Critical Path Method (CPM), resource leveling, and schedule compression, emphasizing the importance of effective scheduling to optimize resource utilization, manage dependencies, and mitigate project risks. By implementing robust scheduling practices, organizations can enhance project planning, monitor progress, and increase the likelihood of on-time project delivery.

#### KEYWORDS:

Activity Sequencing, Baseline Schedule, Critical Path, Duration Estimation, Gantt Chart, Milestones.

#### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this is to provide ideas and resources for creating a successful project schedule. Depending on how carefully the schedule is created, how exactly it can be accomplished, and how closely it is communicated amongst the project team and stakeholders, time may be a project manager's worst enemy or closest friend [1], [2]. The project schedule displays connected activities with anticipated dates, durations, milestones, and resources using PMI terminology. The project schedule may be provided on a variety of levels. For instance, the target audience of the schedule may have an impact. In order for Executive Management and sponsors to be able to gather important project information, the schedule should be written at a higher level. On the other hand, if we need to talk to the clients about the timetable, we may concentrate our depiction on the most important input and output. When discussing the progress of project activities with team members, we will likely provide the most information possible [3], [4].

Additionally, the project's level of maturity affects the degree of timetable representation. In reality, we may create a project timetable at the preliminary planning stage. This might be a high-level summary schedule that lists the key tasks and activities along with an estimate of their time. It may be used as an early communication technique to get upper-level management and other stakeholders' initial support for the project. A thorough timetable for the project may be created at a later time. A front-line manager might use this operational plan to guide hourly, daily, or weekly project work assignments. The milestone schedule, last but not least, is a crucial timetable. This is a summary level schedule that enables the project team and stakeholders to recognize all important and significant project-related milestones that might occur throughout the

course of a project. The milestone schedule is advised for status reporting to senior management and external stakeholders due to its simple-to-read structure. Throughout the course of a project, references to the milestone schedule are frequent.

### Terminology for Schedules

The words and definitions listed here might help you comprehend and control schedules.

**Schedules:** This is a list of the project's activities, along with the expected start and end dates for each activity.

**Milestone:** This significant event often occurs at the conclusion of project deliverables or another significant accomplishment.

**Gantt Plan:** This well-liked bar chart for project management shows the progress of tasks over time. The Gantt chart did not depict the connections between activities when it was created in 1917. Due to the tracking of both time and task dependencies, this is a standard practice today.

**Essential Path:** This is the order in which the tasks must be completed in order for the project to be finished on time. It is the project plan's route with the longest duration. Unless another action on the critical route can be completed a day sooner than expected, if an activity on the critical path is delayed by one day, the whole project will also be delayed by one day [5], [6]entire float is the entire amount of time that may pass between a planned activity's early start and its scheduled completion without affecting the project's end date or infringing on a schedule restriction. It is determined by subtracting the early completion dates from the late finish dates using the critical route approach methodology.

**Gratis Float:** This is the length of time that a planned activity may be postponed for without causing any immediately subsequent scheduled activities to have an earlier start date.

## DISCUSSION

### Identifying the Schedule

The creation of the activities list, which adheres to the WBS criteria, serves as the foundation for determining the timetable. The WBS is a breakdown of the project scope into work packages, each of which may be further divided into activities. An activity's primary qualities are that it has to be quickly estimated and handled.

1. When determining the timetable step-by-step, the following activities are helpful.
  1. Assemble the network diagram for the project that shows the rational links between the many tasks.
  2. Information about the network's schedule,
  3. Using a precedence diagram, create the complete and final timetable.

Over the course of the next several pages, the specifics of the step-by-step method are detailed.

### The 'Early Start Dates' Calculation Procedure

The earliest time at which an activity may start is known as the early start date. By completing a forward pass, starting dates may be allocated to each activity. The project start date is the starting point for the forward pass, which involves moving across the network from left to right. The



estimate takes into account resource availability calendars and durations. Assuming FS connections between activities, the following procedures should be taken to determine the early start dates of those activities:

1. Its start date plus the length of the preceding activity.
2. Either deduct the lead time or add the lag time.
3. Add the number of days needed for the activity to the resource calendar that applies to the personnel and equipment required for the activity.
4. Assign the determined date to be the successor activity's ES date.

### **Free and Total Float**

The total float is the time interval between the project's completion date and the end of the final activity on the critical route. The amount of total float available for the project would be decreased by any delay in an activity on the critical route. A project may also have negative float, which indicates that the estimated end date of the last activity is later than the projected end date set at the project's start. Activities that are not on the critical path may be postponed without having an impact on the project's completion date if there is a difference between their ES date and their late start date. Free float is the name of the float on certain activities.

### **Precedence Diagram Formulation**

All the ideas and tools necessary for creating a precedence diagram are now accessible as a result of the earlier phases. Each job is often depicted as a box in the precedence diagram, and arrows are used to connect activities to indicate their predecessors. The precedence diagram may be drawn from left to right, with the last job on the right. The data that is pertinent to an action is outlined in the list below:

1. The length of each activity in DUR.
2. The earliest start time is EST.
3. The latest commencement time (LST).
4. The earliest completion time, or EFT.
5. The latest finish time (LFT).
6. 'Float' time refers to the period of time during which an action lasts.
7. The only activities that have zero float are the crucial ones. For a critical activity,  $EST = LST$ .

To include all the necessary information inside the precedence, use the following strategy:

1. Create relationships between activities.
2. Decide on an activity's length.
3. Carrying out the forward pass
4. From the start of the project until the finish, compute the est and the eft for each job moving across the network.
5. Carrying out the backward pass
6. For each task processing the network from the project's finish to its beginning, compute the LST and LFT.
7. determine the activity float.
8. Find the crucial route for each activity, which is the one with the 'zero' float.

## **Resources and Schedule Management Issues**

Effective resource management is one of a project manager's primary responsibilities. The resources come in a variety of forms, including builders, testers, inspectors, designer labor hours, etc. Also involved is managing the labor provided by subcontractors. The equipment needed for the project and the supplies required by the team members to construct the project deliverables must often be managed by the project manager. They are all resources that the company has allocated to the project manager as part of their duties [7], [8]. Throughout the course of the project, the project manager will often run across a number of resource management-related difficulties, such as:

1. Questions pertaining to how project human resources see communication, processes, team responsibilities, and external stakeholders.
2. Concerns of resource quantity and quality, which concern both the project's material and human resources.
3. Questions regarding how long it will take to finish the project or each of its work packages.
4. Difficulties pertaining to the inquiry, 'how many human resources would this project require?'.
5. Concerns about how various initiatives share resources.

The purpose of this is to provide practical tools and methods for efficient resource management while taking into account the aforementioned concerns.

## **Organizational Categories and the Matrix of Responsibilities**

There are probably far too many workplaces with unclear roles, processes, and procedures. The Responsibility Assignment Matrix is a tool that the Project Manager may use to prevent misunderstandings with the project team, the firm organization, and other project stakeholders. Now, it's crucial to consider the many organizational categories that project managers could deal with while working. a RAM can be utilized as a management tool to deal with these various organizational categories in the best manner possible. Organizations are categorized according to their project culture, starting at the lowest level and moving up.

The money and resources of a project are completely out of the project manager's control in a functional organization. He or she functions more as a project manager's assistant. Budgeting and resource distribution are within the purview of functional managers [9], [10]. Projects are handled by functional employees in 'weak matrix' organizations, whereas functional managers are in responsible of controlling the budget and resources of their projects. In this setup, the project manager is really seen as a lower-level project expediter. The 'balanced matrix' structure acknowledges the necessity for project managers, but the concept is that they should collaborate on projects alongside functional managers. Project managers and functional managers collaborate in a manner that may be described as balanced authority and share responsibility for the budget and resources.

'Strong matrix' companies often have a Project Management Office where the organization's Project Management standards are precisely established and maintained. Company management ask a Project Manager from the PMO for help. The project manager is in charge of the project's resources and budget when they are allocated to it. Members of the project team answer to both

the project manager and the functional managers. With the exception of probably payroll and human resources, the business in the projectized organization the highest level of the maturity model from the perspective of a Project Manager handles projects. Members of the project team answer only to the project managers. These companies have employees that are always working on initiatives. There won't be any job for the personnel after the organization is done with its tasks. Clients and PMOs get reports from the project manager.

This demonstrates that working in a functional or weak environment is more challenging for a project manager than working in a strong or projectized setting. The primary advice to project managers is to understand your corporate structure and retain the correct tools in your toolbox because although RAM tools are always helpful in these companies, in a functional or weak setting, they are only seen as a type of survival tool. The involvement of various roles in accomplishing various tasks or deliverables for a project or stages in a business process is described by a RAM, also known as a RACI matrix or Linear Responsibility Chart. The abbreviation RACI stands for the four primary duties that are most often performed: Someone who is responsible is one who works hard to complete a job. In a RACI matrix, there is normally just one Responsible, however other people may be assigned to help with the necessary duties.

**Account:** The person to whom a Responsible reports and who is ultimately responsible for the accurate and complete execution of the deliverable or assignment. To put it another way, an Account must certify or approve the work that falls within his or her purview. Only one Account may be listed for each row of the matrix. Those whose views need to be considered were consulted. Those who are kept continuously informed of the project's status and with whom only one-way contact occurs are said to be informed. Informed persons are often just engaged in the job or deliverable's fulfillment. It is feasible for several persons to be notified about a single assignment throughout a project. Using a RAM matrix has the following advantages:

1. It lessens the issues brought on by team members' lack of understanding of their respective duties.
2. It prevents misunderstandings by keeping all relevant parties informed.
3. It informs the business if certain employees have been given excessive or inadequate tasks.
4. It keeps everyone informed about who is responsible for a certain job.

By keeping individuals in the 'updated' group updated, for example, via emails, and only include those in the 'Consulted' category in meetings and interactive contact, it helps create a straightforward communication system. This prevents a lot of misunderstandings and saves a lot of time at work. As a result, it may be a very helpful input for business operations, particularly in certain technology sectors. The following are helpful recommendations for designing a successful RAM matrix:

1. Ensure that at least one person is allocated to each job as the 'Responsible' and 'Account' roles. It's conceivable that one person will be given both jobs.
2. Ensure that just one person is designated as the Account for each work. Keep in mind that although duties may be shared, accountabilities must be assigned to a single person.
3. In order to decrease loops and delays at work, it may be essential to take some of the individuals in the Consulted group and move them to the Informed category.
4. The RAMRACI model comes in a variety of iterations that may be used depending on the project's needs.

### Using O for omitted, CAIRO

1. DACI, where 'D' stands for the project activity's driving force.
2. RACI-VS, which has two responsibilities for support and verification.
3. RASCI, which also offers a feature for help.
4. Techniques for Reducing Duration: Crashing and Fast-Tracking
5. Being unable to access the necessary resources when needed is a frequent scenario that necessitates compressing the timeline.

In order to satisfy deadlines, other schedule limitations, or other schedule goals, schedule compression reduces the project's length without modifying its scope. According to the PMBOK Guide, the following methods are often used for schedule compression:

1. Crashing.
2. Fast-tracking.

### Meet The Date and Improve Costs To Avoid Crashing

When a timetable is crashed, the project manager examines the critical route to see whether tasks may be finished earlier than planned by allocating more resources. Finding actions that may reduce emissions the most while using the fewest resources or incurring the fewest additional costs is the aim of this investigation. The project's cost is often impacted by this method. In order to maximize timetable compression for a low cost increase, the trade-off between cost and schedule is considered. Once those tasks have been approved by the project manager, more resources may be added to hasten their completion. Usually, crashing lowers the quality of the job. The time required to educate new resources is a crucial factor, since deploying more resources does not necessarily result in better outcomes. Moreover, employing a new technique may result in worse communication among the team.

Schedule fast-tracking. Work on the schedule by the deadline. When fast-tracking the schedule, the project manager examines the critical route to determine whether tasks may be completed concurrently or partly concurrently. As operations on other pathways are having float, the Project Manager will undoubtedly take into consideration those on the important path. As a result, there is no need to reduce the time of such activities. Additionally, it is intriguing to examine other pathways whose journey length is almost identical to the critical path duration since these paths are likely to become the next important paths after the project manager's timetable compression. In order to achieve the schedule compression objective, the chosen tasks will be carried out concurrently. Generally speaking, employing the timetable fast-tracking strategy does not reduce the project's cost. Ongoing project operations and the fast-tracking technique's impact. Additionally, while employing the fast-tracking approach, time restrictions between tasks, such as FS relationships, are lost. Ineffective management of this strategy may result in reworks and undesirable outcomes.

### Leveling Up Resources

A resource histogram is a common way to visualize resource needs. A resource's time allocation for a certain time period is shown in a resource histogram. Overallocated resources are those that have been given more work than they can handle. a straightforward illustration of a resource histogram showing how individual resource allocations are contrasted during the course of a

project. For comparison, the levels of resource availability over a period of four quarters are shown on the vertical axis. This kind of depiction mainly aids in determining if resources are over- or under-allocated.

### **Asset Histogram**

Understanding how the quantity of various resources fluctuates throughout the course of the whole project or a particular stage's length is another intriguing viewpoint. The number of project team members varies during a four-month project period, from January to April, as shown by the number 8.6 on the next page. Additionally, it is fascinating to comprehend how labor variety relates to project duration. This illustration resembles a Gaussian curve, where resources are utilized more sparingly at the start and end of the project and peak at the halfway point. These presumptions provide justification for this behavior. The Project Manager and the other key stakeholders are engaged in the first stages of setting up the project, defining the scope, and drafting the Project Management plan. Checking the status and acceptance of deliverables as well as concluding contracts must be the main priorities throughout the closure stage. To improve project performance, work must be increased at the halfway mark. In order to smooth out the distribution of resources and check a project for an imbalanced usage of resources over time, resource levelling is a Project Management approach that is utilized. This examination of human resources is primarily intended to address conflicts or overallocations in the project schedule. Through resource leveling, the Project Manager must always be certain that:

1. Resource availability does not outweigh resource demand.
2. Well-managed shared resources or essential resource needs.
3. During certain time periods of the project's work, resource utilization is maintained constant.

Last but not least, in order to effectively manage project resources and serve the company, the resources must be collected and supplied to the project with early notice.

### **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, A crucial component of project management is creating and overseeing the project timeline. Accurate scheduling makes it possible to plan projects effectively, uses resources most efficiently, and reduces project risks. Organizations may improve project execution, track progress, and raise the possibility of project completion on schedule by putting strong scheduling processes in place.

The attainment of project goals within predetermined restrictions is supported by a well-managed project schedule, which offers a road map for success. Project management software and technologies that simplify schedule formulation, resource allocation, and progress monitoring are necessary for efficient scheduling procedures. These technologies enable critical path analysis, project schedule visualization, and the modeling of what-if scenarios to evaluate the effects of schedule modifications.

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## CHAPTER 7

### MEASURING, MONITORING AND CONTROLLING THE PROJECT PERFORMANCE

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#### ABSTRACT:

Measuring, monitoring, and controlling project performance are essential activities in project management that enable organizations to assess progress, identify deviations, and take corrective actions to ensure project success. This chapter explores the significance of measuring project performance, discusses key performance indicators (KPIs) and metrics used to monitor project progress, and highlights best practices for effective performance control. It emphasizes the importance of real-time monitoring, data-driven decision-making, and proactive risk management to optimize project outcomes. By implementing robust performance measurement and control practices, organizations can enhance project transparency, improve project delivery, and achieve desired project objectives.

#### KEYWORDS:

Performance Metrics, Project Dashboard, Quality Control, Risk Management, Schedule Variance, Status Reports, Task Tracking.

#### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this is to concentrate on the relationship between project risks and success criteria in order to make it easier for the project manager or the person in charge of continuing risk analysis to choose the right set of countermeasures at the right moment [1], [2]. Although the definition of project risk has previously been given, it is helpful to understand what project success criteria really include before moving on: the whole collection of things, most of which are organized as indicators, which serve as the benchmark against which to measure outcomes and performance of a project. There are a number of things that may be eligible to be included in this collection, but the typical things include product quality, riskbenefit profiles, and compliance with the intended project time, cost, and scope. A methodical approach to project management is necessary for a project to meet its success criteria, and risk management is a key component of this strategy. An effective technique for assuring the overall success of the project initiative is the capacity to identify and manage the numerous risks that can have an impact on success criterion values. As a result, risks should be divided into major groups, with the risk drivers list by no means being complete. It is widely recognized that unpredictable occurrences that produce project risks are many and extremely distinct in their causenature.

#### Risk Category and Risk Factors

Even comparable projects with the same management strategy would undoubtedly vary, at the very least because of the various implementation environmentcontext, therefore every project is

distinct and has its own features. As a result, it is important to take care when defining the set of success criteria for a particular project. For each criterion, it is important to decide on the relevant metrics and realistic goal values. On the other hand, risks that might impact project/product performances must be found and then associated with possibly affected success criteria in order to avoid any bias in the determination of success criteria [3], [4].

### **Success standards and the impact of risk classifications**

Both a qualitative and a quantitative scale may be used to score correlation marks. In addition, a relevance level may be used to indicate success criteria and risk classifications. a preliminary graduation that emphasizes that grades for various projects may vary.

### **Success standards and the impact of risk classifications**

It would be feasible to identify the most appropriate countermeasures to execute in order to limit the negative impacts on success criteria values and, as a result, on project/product performances, using the summary statement of risks/success criteria correlation. To be more precise, the countermeasures that are more targeted on the right action may be chosen based on the risk classes and success criteria involved [5], [6].

### **Action categories and risk mitigation strategies**

In order to enhance the likelihood that a project will succeed, the method described above allows for the development of a risk constraint strategy that is only focused on crucial concerns and the sensitivity of success criteria to risks.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Impact Analysis for Ongoing Project Evaluation and Portfolio**

Project business justification is a continuous process that occurs throughout the whole project life cycle, as was previously indicated. Impact analyses need to be updated when significant milestones are reached, or at the very least, close to the end of each project phase. Additionally, if the project baseline were to undergo a considerable change, a new evaluation of the project's effect would be necessary to determine if the previously authorized business reason still held true [7], [8]. Continuous impact analysis includes both financial/economic investment assessment and the evaluation of additional quantitative benefit kinds that are not readily quantifiable in monetary terms in the original evaluation phase. Naturally, the assessment will concentrate on the factors that are viewed as being significantly impacted by baseline changes. A new project baseline may be accepted and used as the current baseline for further Project Management reviews if the project is still in line with its original aims. Let's analyze several situations where each of the three typical key project success driving elements is impacted, assuming that the project's objective is to produce the first batch of a new consumer product that incorporates a technical advancement. The emphasis of financial research would be on cashflow slippage, while other quantitative influenced indicators would take into account unfavorable customer/competitor behavior and a lower market share or brand image. Project time schedule delay. How is the latter quantified? Obviously, the same approach must be used as in the project business rationale at the beginning phase if it is a big concern [9], [10].

While other quantitatively impacted benefits would take into account lower customer acceptance due to an increase in the product selling price likely to be settled as a countermeasure in order to



not reduce the unit margin, the focus of financial analysis would be on the increase in outflow. Lower market acceptability of the new product would be the main factor in financial analysis, while other quantitative influenced indicators would take into account market share or brand image. In addition to this oversimplified illustration, it is important to emphasize the incorporation of continuing impact analysis since it gives the project manager a strong tool to support drive key choices on potential course of action.

The quantitative information on the project's anticipated impact is crucial if it is integrated into a portfolio or program environment in order to timely assess each project's anticipated outcomes and choose how best to spend organizational resources. A timely and orderly controlled termination is not a pure loss, but a more efficient method to take advantage of possibilities than striving valiantly to straighten a project that is inexorably deteriorating. Of course, it would be preferable to discover a magic solution, but we seldom do. Concepts and Calculation Techniques for the Percentage of Completion as a Metric of Project Control. As previously discussed and clarified, metrics and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), which provide a succinct, consistent, and coherent measure relevant to a particular project status parameter, are required for the entire and reliable management of a project. In the construction and plant engineering project sectors, where, in accordance with a contract specification, the construction of facilities, production of goods, and provision of services are delivered to a customer, the percentage of completion is one of the available metrics that is most widely accepted and used.

This metric is initially thought of as an accounting method that measures the project's progress toward completion in accordance with the International Financial Reporting Standards, which are a set of accounting standards created by the International Accounting Standards Board and are quickly emerging as the de facto global standard for the preparation of financial statements for publicly traded companies. In this instance, the PoC is also known as the SoC. Similarly, the US Generally Accepted Accounting Principles likewise acknowledge the PoC as a conventional approach. It is significant to note that the PoC is a common language metric between the financial sector and the more operational Project Management environment, in contrast to other metrics and methods which account for the project progress, such as Earned Value, the Cost Performance Index, the Schedule Performance Index, and others. Finding criteria that take project progress into consideration and are approved by a financial investor may be crucial if we take into account the growing effect that project funding has on the assessment and promotion of project success. This will go through the following things:

1. The definition and use of the poc.
2. The components of poc's emphasis.
3. Computation techniques.
4. Making use of the poc.

### **PoC Method Definitions**

A metric for building contracts is the PoC technique. The PoC technique must be used properly, and the following factors must be taken into account:

1. A detailed description of the products and services to be provided.
2. Both the buyer and the seller can fulfill their contractual responsibilities as expressly set out in a written contract.

3. It is feasible to estimate costs justifiably, logically, and factually in relation to the contract's contents.

The PoC calculations are done using the 'cost-to-cost' formula, which compares the expenses spent by a project at the time of assessment to the estimate of the whole project cost made at the same 'timenow':

### **Costs Important to Project Development**

These expenses are all expenses spent over the course of the project's execution at the time of the evaluation, which are directly related to the project and help it go forward. It is important to note that expenses made that are unrelated to the status of the project's completion will be counted as inventory costs rather than go toward the PoC. This class typically costs:

1. Expenses related to modification orders that have not yet been formally approved.
2. Expenditures associated with purchasing items or materials that won't be utilized right away.
3. The expenses listed below cannot be regarded as progress-related in this case and do not add to the poc.

### **Acquisition Commissions**

These are pertinent to a task performed during the bid process and have no bearing on the project's execution.

1. Foreign Exchange Expenses Associated With Parasites.
2. Things Are unrelated to how operations are going.

The primary focus of the PoC analysis is to accurately account for the cost classes that advance the project. It is worthwhile to look at various expense classes that are often 'borderline' when they must be taken into account:

1. Payments in advance.
2. Provisions.
3. Risk occurrences.
4. The price of change and change management.
5. Both opportunities and claims.

Before going into the specifics of the aforementioned things, it is important to keep in mind a general approach that should be followed while assessing the many components that go into the construction of the economic analysis and the ensuing calculation of the PoC.

According to the materiality principle, analysts are permitted to disregard an accounting standard if doing so would not cause a reader of the financial statements to be deceived as a result of the net effect on the financial statements.

### **Payments In Advance**

Advance payments made to suppliers for products or services that, in accordance with the contract definitions, are relevant to deliverables to the client are to be regarded as progress related.

## Provisions

Generally speaking, provisions are characterized as duties resulting from a preexisting scenario, situation, or group of circumstances that include a significant level of ambiguity. The presence, timeliness, or magnitude of the obligations are all affected by this ambiguity. Warranty duties, fines, or losses on onerous contracts are examples of these clauses. These categories are sometimes referred to as unknown unknowns in project budgeting management and project economics. As a component of the expected overall expenses, provisions might be seen as contributions to the PoC. Losses that may really materialize, for instance, will be carefully assessed, and the necessary provisions can be ascribed as anticipated related expenses. Similarly, depending on their degree of uncertainty, additional provisions' components may be used as inputs for estimating the overall costs.

The Project Manager and the Project Control Team, who carry out the assessment under well-defined criteria, shall conduct a documented and solid analysis that results in the computation of the provision as part of the cost prediction. The appropriate assessment will be carried out as a periodic review, together with the assumptions made to take them into consideration, due to the 'cost class's' unpredictable character. From an operational standpoint, provisions are often not taken into consideration for the PoC in many sectors and project execution scenarios. This approach is highly reliant on the particular area of application and in any case will be stated in the economic status reports. The following sources of supplies are worth briefly examining:

**Contract Losses** :if continuous assessments of project costs or revenues reveal a genuine potential loss, it is required to take into account the adoption of specific provisions. With regard to losses that have already occurred or that are most likely to occur, this amount must be modified and included in the PoC. Liquidated damages and penalties are clauses that, if they become real expenses, may be converted to period charges.

**Warranties** : When risk is passed to the customer, often following a Preliminary Acceptance or Final Acceptance, provisions for warranties might be introduced. They do not contribute to the PoC if they are clearly specified from the beginning of the budgeting process on. If a consistent analysis is conducted based on continuing real-world conditions in the project, all the aforementioned classes may be converted from provisions to risk contingencies to actual costs.

## Contingencies of Risk

Risk contingencies are an estimated cost for known unknown events that could occur during the project's development. They may also be seen of as a budgetary reserve that can be utilized to put strategies in place that reduce or do away with hazards. In reality, risk management is a continual evaluation of expenses that can be associated with project risks that might have an impact on the estimated overall project costs. This will be taken into account concurrently with the expansion of the PoC. In this instance, the risk contingency may be seen as a particular cost element that contributes to the project's total cost projection, is assessed at timenow, and is included in the estimate at completion. It is helpful to keep in mind how risk is often defined in its simplest and most well-known form:

$$R = I * P$$

Where, in our example, P is the related probability that the event occurs and I is the financial effect of risk R.

Even while this definition speaks about the likelihood of a certain cost occurring, the cost budget estimate, when used as a baseline estimate, is deterministic in nature. Accordingly, the expenses actually spent as a result of putting mitigation strategies into action will be counted as real costs, whereas the pure risk contingency will be included as projected costs. By definition, the risk contingency component is a probabilistic component with a degree of uncertainty. Depending on the model used, the foundation for its computation might change greatly.

1. Costs that were anticipated.
2. Costs associated with risk reduction.
3. Contingencies for risk.
4. Planned expenses

The risk equation's straightforward form may be greatly increased in complexity or adjusted to better reflect the real circumstances, which are in fact made complex by many interactions. The theories behind risk analysis are beyond the purview of article, however we will quickly touch upon two potential ways that fall within advanced methodologies.

### **Conditional Likelihood**

This approach enables a more precise application of probability by taking into consideration the likelihood of an event happening after it is known that another event has already happened.

### **The Method of Monte Carlo**

This approach uses a stochastic simulation methodology to generate a number of potential outcomes using a random sampling process. After that, the resultant distribution is analyzed a posteriori. With the use of random sampling, a potential value is chosen from each probability distribution in the input. Utilizing the information gathered, it is then feasible to calculate the value for the variables. To get an empirical distribution of the findings, which illustrates the impact of input uncertainty on the outputs, this procedure is repeated thousands of times. In our case, the financial values attributable to a particular event can be the subject of analysis. Based on statistics and appropriately simulated probability distributions, the bid manager can create a risk charter after the simulation that includes the risk factors associated with the most likely numerical value.

Regardless of the theoretical risk model in use, the first budgeting process often involves determining the contingency by taking a proportion of the total budget cost into consideration. This backup plan is based on historical data from initiatives that were comparable to those in the past. Nevertheless, based on the project or bid management team's best information and belief, assumptions, probability definitions, and statistical extrapolations must be established. To prevent duplicate counting of the cost effect, the contribution of provisions will not be included in the risk contingency. Naturally, the PoC value is lower when risk contingency is taken into account than when the anticipated costs are simply their 'deterministic' components.

### **Various PoC Values**

Sometimes management decides not to include contingencies in the PoC calculation due to industry regulations or specific company policy. This strategy is also viable as long as financial and economic reporting is well-versed in it. For appropriate project management and control, as

well as to prevent surprises and abrupt changes in PoC values, including all pertinent cost risk aspects, as described above, comprehensive risk analysis and ongoing plan updates are crucial.

The PoC is often adversely impacted if there are large shifts in risk assessment findings as project progress is monitored from period to period.

### **Orders for changes and POC**

Change orders often have an impact on projects, even those of medium or low complexity. In these situations, the project progress must be properly updated in response to a change in:

1. Range of supplies.
2. Allotted spending.
3. Real expenses paid.

### **Opportunities And Claims**

In most cases, claim management leads to monetary reimbursement for a loss incurred by a party carrying out a project. Claims often result from faults in execution or specifications, delays, and the failure of one party to uphold its contractual duties. Project expenses expended for claims must be included to the overall projected project costs, together with any applicable actual project costs that were incurred for those claims. Both incoming and outgoing claims are covered by this.

### **Opportunities**

Following are a few of the most typical sources of opportunities:

1. The expansion of the work's scope.
2. Cost savings.
3. Crashed project timetable.

The assessment of expected expenses is undoubtedly impacted by the possibility of cost reduction, and the PoC is affected appropriately. The potential for shortening the project's timeline without adding to expenses by accelerating it may also be considered as increasing efficiency and resulting in cost savings down the road. A good analysis, maybe backed and shared by the major levels of individuals working in the project team, can assure a realistic appraisal in this situation as well. Only until they have been properly acknowledged will claims, change orders, and opportunities be taken into consideration for calculating revenues.

## **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, for project management to be effective, performance must be measured, monitored, and controlled. Organizations may improve project transparency, decision-making, and project success rates by establishing and monitoring performance indicators, adopting real-time monitoring, undertaking proactive risk management, and taking suitable remedial measures. Organizations may maintain focus, reduce risks, and accomplish targeted project goals with the help of effective performance monitoring and control procedures.

Effective performance management procedures enhance project delivery, which raises project success rates and boosts stakeholder satisfaction.

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## CHAPTER 8

### REVENUES RECOGNITION USING THE POC AND ITS IMPACT

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#### ABSTRACT:

Revenue recognition is a critical accounting principle that determines when and how revenue should be recognized in financial statements. The Point of Control (PoC) method is an emerging approach in revenue recognition that focuses on the transfer of control over goods or services to customers. This chapter explores the concept of revenue recognition using the PoC method, discusses its advantages and challenges, and highlights best practices for implementing this approach. It emphasizes the importance of aligning revenue recognition practices with the principles of transparency, consistency, and relevance. By adopting the PoC method for revenue recognition, organizations can enhance financial reporting accuracy, comply with accounting standards, and provide stakeholders with meaningful information for decision-making.

#### KEYWORDS:

Contractual Obligations, Cost-To-Cost Method, Financial Reporting, Percentage Completion (Poc), Performance Obligations, Project Completion.

#### INTRODUCTION

The PoC is used to determine the revenues to be recognized in a certain period once it has been determined. To determine the revenues pertinent to a period  $t_1$ , the PoC is multiplied by the entire project revenues. The project revenue at time  $t_1$  may be determined similarly by multiplying the PoC by the term. As previously stated, the expenses associated with contract changes and successful claim income will be included in the AC or the EAC, depending on the situation, only after finalization. Modifications to the PoC When the Project is Executed. Even if the estimates were accurate and a reasonable strategy was used, backed by managerial judgment, inaccurate assessments might still occur and have an impact on the overall expected costs. As a result, if it has been discovered that earlier estimates are inaccurate, revisions may be required during certain review periods.

The real costs are updated on an actual basis and are unaffected if  $EAC_{t1} > EAC_{t0}$  and  $PoC_{t1} > PoC_{t0}$ . This indicates that at time  $t_0$ , the PoC was greater than the right one. What impact does this have on the revenues? Because the revenues were predicted incorrectly and excessively in  $t_0$ , it is required to distribute some of them in  $t_1$  by lowering the PoC in  $t_1$ . This adjustment, sometimes known as cumulative catch up, may cause a loss within a certain time frame. It's important to identify errors as soon as possible in order to stop making new ones and to prevent the need for major modification later on. In other words, the PoC trend over time is likewise a reliable and high-quality indication of cost management. Use of the PoC to Determine Excess

Costs or Excess Billing. Excess expenses are essentially the difference between the accounts due by the client and the sales recorded using the POC method of accounting. Utilizing these is crucial since it might indicate whether the project is primarily funded by the client or by the contractor.

### **Project Change Management**

transformation management is commonly given a lot of attention in a variety of business settings. In fact, the phrase is typically used to refer to the complete spectrum of actions required in an organizational-wide change. For a clear understanding to be developed, it is first necessary to offer a definition for the term change. In general, 'change' is a transition from a present state to a future status, which presupposes the execution of a deliberate action plan together with the calculation of risks and rewards. Therefore, change is addressed via the use of well-organized procedures in the effective execution of changes including individuals, groups of people, institutions, and technical infrastructure, among other things [1], [2]. A macro-breakdown makes it feasible to analyze the two potential sets of actions in great detail.

In reality, change management implies two distinct but related settings that are commonly seen as parts of a single program. It may be viewed in either a narrow sense or a broad sense. The two methods are really quite different in terms of how their management procedures are carried out. Both must be taken into account for the project to be successfully completed. The distinction is by no means artificial and is just for the purpose of a better analysis [3], [4]. Project Managers are the main focus of change management. They must be aware that their project will bring innovations into their companies or, more precisely, that R.D. Archibald and S.C. Archibald's statement that All significant innovations are achieved through projects is true. On the other hand, without a project manager, no project can be brought to a successful conclusion within the confines of time, budget, and quality limitations. As a result, project managers will also manage change.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **The 'Broad Sense' of Change Management**

A essential process is change. In order for the company to be able to improve its culture and its awareness in its new operational behavior, it must be thoroughly prepared. Human factors provide significant obstacles to this process since any effort to change the status quo may put existing organizations, work practices, skills, behaviors, and interpersonal relationships at risk. As Turner emphasized:

1. Usually, adjustments are needed to overcome challenges that are greater than the project itself. These are the causes.
2. Many modifications are desirable and should be scrutinized more carefully. Modifications that don't pose a threat to the project will have an unlimited IRR1, making them easy to approve.
3. Typically, the expenses are underestimated and the advantages are exaggerated.

The following definition of change management may be found. A strategy to guiding people, teams, and organizations toward a desirable future state is called change management. Change management in a project management context may refer to a project management procedure whereby modifications to the project's scope are explicitly proposed and authorized. Adjustments



are, thus, the outcome of a purposeful mix of analytical capabilities and management skills, according to the definition of organizational change as planned adjustments to enhance organizational performance. With reference to the extraordinary instance of organizational transformation, it is possible to better explain the broad sense of change management. This might be the result of either an unanticipated change or a change that was intended. Planned changes come about as a consequence of certain efforts that are accomplished via a series of steps. In order to facilitate change processes, change agents the system for modification. A planned change must meet many prerequisites, including change agents, change objects, and understanding of change processes. The core of Change Management success or failure is accurate planning procedures.

Depending on their impact on the corporate system, organizational changes may alternatively be referred to as total changes or evolutionary changes: Total modifications are significant adjustments that affect the entire organizational structure. These changes are brought about in the contemporary management environment by significant occurrences like corporate mergers. As long as they result in genuine culture changes, overall adjustments are very complicated and difficult for corporate management to govern. The term evolutionary changes refers to less radical organizational reorganizations that may include new technology or procedures, the introduction of new goods that change the essence of the firm, etc. Organizations should be seen as systems made up of interconnected components. As a result, although new strategies may lead to modifications in organizational structures, changes in the organizational structure itself might affect the operational environment or processes [5], [6]. Now that we're concentrating on an overview of organizational changes, three distinct scenarios may be found:

1. Changes in organizational structures and strategies are primarily important for corporate management.
2. Process changes and changes to the workplace environment may entail actions that have an impact on workers' quality of life.
3. Changes in culture have an impact on how people think and act in the workplace.

Five phases that are illustrative of wider kinds of changes are found via analysis of project stages for organizational transformations. Define the changing environment various questions must be addressed, such as:

1. How far is the existing state of affairs moving in the direction of a change?
2. Has the change a technical or structural goal?
3. Does the change include tasks and stakeholders inside the organization?
4. Determine the obstacles to change and comprehend their magnitudes, causes, and implications.

Plan for Changes: Create and promote changes using an efficient system for managing goals and proactively monitoring recognized roadblocks. Change risk analysis is an essential phase, as it is with any project. Promote changes, particularly using clauses like:

1. Convincing Others That A Change Is Necessary.
2. Using Change Agents.
3. Encouraging staff to communicate their doubts, concerns, and reservations as well as their optimistic thoughts and expectations about changes being made can help to ensure that the changes are implemented, embraced, and sustained.

4. It should be clear that when a project for change is over, the outcomes must be thoroughly examined, and any lessons gained must be used in the future anytime the company is exposed to new changes. A company won't be able to sustain changes brought on by the market if it overlooks possibilities for its progress. Therefore, it should be emphasized that change management is a thorough and structured approach to the transition from a current status to a future status involving anticipated business benefits. Change management also assists organizations in integrating and aligning people, processes, structures, culture, and strategy [7], [8].

Successful companies never evolve by random means. These evolutions go forward by deliberate, dynamic techniques that anticipate and successfully counter outside trends that appear with variable behavior. Strategic Agility in businesses is hence the capacity to actively and profitably respond to a business environment that is always changing. represents this key idea as it appears in the most recent literature. People are impacted by changes that have been made, as has previously been said. Provisions may be made by taking into account, addressing, and controlling human aspects as correctly as applicable in order to make their influence far less distressing and more effective. Then, activities leading to choices and organizational changes will need employee participation. Communication and stakeholder participation take on huge importance whenever changes take place, more so than at previous times. Significant influences will also be felt by the project's performance and expense. The essential component for guaranteeing support and involvement is confidence [9], [10]. Additionally, it is important to take into account how different corporate levels perceive changes: while senior managers, generally speaking, view changes as opportunities for the company and for themselves, employees, on the other hand, typically experience changes as demoralizing and hostile practices that may harm their position, status, benefits, collaborative work environment, location, etc. This means that critical concerns like the workers' feeling of commitment and identity must be addressed via change management.

### **Processes for Change Management and Project Management**

The 'broad sense' of change management has already been examined. it is now important to highlight the linkages between change management and project management. The following Project Management process groups, as specified by the PMI standard, will be taken into account when these linkages are investigated.

#### **Initiating**

1. Locate resources.
2. Determine the parties involved and their interest in the modifications.
3. Organize project and program change management tasks.
4. Explain changes.
5. Describe the managerial environment.
6. start communicating about the change.

#### **Planning**

1. Assemble the necessary modifications and specify the changes' scope.
2. A budget, resources, and sequencing for the activities to be controlled.
3. Describe how the risk strategy relates to the scheduled activities.
4. Create strategies for quality, human resources, and communications.

**Executing**

1. The selection and organization of the project management team, including outside resources.
2. Control communication to effect change.
3. Observing and regulating:
4. Determine if changes are accepted.
5. Review and make modifications to the baseline's activities, changes, and variations.

**Closing**

1. Determine, organize, and carry out the necessary steps to release modifications that are pertinent to company business.
2. The project is completed with the appropriate affordability strategy.
3. The knowledge domains of project management may also be applied to activities inherent in the change management process. But this goes beyond what is being discussed right now.

Taking into account the full context of project management and its extended and strengthened characterization of processes, competences, tools, and techniques, which aim to produce expected project programme benefits, the following key points can be summarized in support of an overall view of change management in its broad sense:

1. To offer enough resources for project deliverables, such as organizational ideas, development policies, and cultural changes, to be supported and strengthened.
2. Including those who are interested in the changes to provide the best, most comprehensive answer
3. To develop stakeholder management plans and communication management plans while closely observing hostile or uninterested signals in order to take precautions against the dangers of hostility or lack of acceptability towards changes.
4. To guarantee that adaption requirements are identified in the project management plan and, perhaps, at the programme management level, and to increase project management flexibility.
5. To design and evaluate the process of accepting and approving project adjustments in light of the performance that results.
6. By creating carefully planned and quantifiable activities aimed at the transfer of project deliverables to the operation stage, it is possible to increase the affordability of benefits anticipated from project improvements.

**'Narrow Sense' of Change Management**

This supplementary perspective on change management is a little different since it takes project-specific changes into account. In this situation, change requests might be made to depart from the project's present intentions. The Project Plan must include mechanisms for managing CRs, such as:

1. Specifying the Change Request.
2. Classification.
3. Assessment.
4. Approval/disapproval.

5. Execution.
6. Evaluation of all potential contractual consequences.

For the organization's project management maturity to be attained as well as the chance of successful project performance, appropriate Configuration Management and Change Management systems should be in place. For the functional, technical, and physical requirements to be effectively accomplished, these systems should include rules and processes targeted at defining, identifying, accounting for, and progressively regulating the components of project products/outputs. Change management, in its more narrowly defined sense of managing changes, must be designed to maintain continual control over any adjustments needed during the project's lifespan while guaranteeing consistency, integration, coordination, and control across all of its components. Therefore, in accordance with the specified roles, duties, and procedures, project management systems must contain and apply proper Change Management systems to execute prescribed processes for CRs, authorizations, executions, and assessments. Such systems must also guarantee that the goods and services made available as project deliverables are maintained using the proper configuration management. A product or service's configuration is described as its current state after project work. Each part of the configuration that is being managed is referred to as a Configuration Item.

1. Systems for configuration management must.
2. Determine the various configuration elements and cross-correlate them.
3. Maintain tabs on the many item iterations.
4. Maintain data on their applicability, practices, paperwork, and authorization procedures.

### **Project Change Management Software**

Adopting a suitable Change Control Process is crucial for implementing the systems that have been outlined. This is a crucial prerequisite to completing the project while making sure that each alteration provided for the project is properly specified, evaluated, and authorized before being put into action. On the basis of five important formal procedures, change control will be included into the project:

1. Submission and reception of requests for modifications.
2. Examination and acknowledgment of requests for modifications.
3. Evaluation of the viability of the amendment request.
4. Approving requests for modifications.

Any member of the project team has the chance to seek project modifications using this method. Requestors specify needs for modifying any of the project meanings using this standard process. The Change Manager must get CRs from the requestors. CRs are documents that provide a summary of the change request, its description, justification, benefits, costs, and effects, as well as any supporting materials. Through this procedure, the Change Manager may examine the CR and decide if the Change Control Board needs to do a thorough feasibility study in order to fully evaluate the effect of the CR. The quantity and complexity of adjustment alternatives sought will be major deciding factors. The 'Change Log' will have a CR opened by the Change Manager.

### **Analysis of The Feasibility of The Modification Request**

This procedure requires a thorough CR feasibility analysis. The research will define and assess the following terms:

1. Requirements.
2. Options.
3. Costs and advantages.
4. Difficulties and dangers.
5. Impact.
6. The strategy.

The effectiveness of feasibility studies is assessed to verify that they have been carried out in accordance with specified standards. following approval, the CCB will get the finished result. The material will be gathered by the Change Manager and sent to the CCB for last-minute approval. These records will include:

1. the first cr.
2. approved feasibility analysis.
3. the supporting evidence.

### **Approval of Requests For Modification**

The CCB must formally assess all CRs as part of this procedure, and they may make one of the following decisions:

1. Reject Alterations.
2. Requesting Further Details.
3. Accept The Modification As Is.
4. Accept The Adjustment With Certain Restrictions.
5. The Following Standards Will Serve As The Foundation For Ccb Decisions:
6. Danger Of Implementing The Modification Into The Project.
7. Failure To Incorporate The Update Might Endanger The Project.
8. Effect Of Implementing The Modification On The Project.

### **Closure and Execution of Modification Requests**

This procedure, which needs the CR to be fully implemented, entails:

1. Specifying the change timetable.
2. Prior to implementation, the modification should be tested or simulated.
3. Application of change.
4. Verification of effective change implementation.
5. The dissemination of well implemented change.
6. Annotation of completion in the change log.

For the proposed change to be effective in accordance with schedule, cost, and performance objectives, this process must be followed by a precise description of the corporate activities involved, which must be clearly and understood by all stakeholders. The corporate functions are charged with the following duties. The requestor recognizes the need for change and expresses it to the change manager in writing. The breadth of responsibilities includes everything from determining the project change requirements to legally documenting these requirements by submitting a predetermined change request form for the Change Manager to examine. The Change Manager is accountable for obtaining, documenting, tracking, and overseeing the progress of all modifications in a project. They are also accountable for:

1. Approving the annotation of the Change Log with all crs.
2. Classifying and ranking all recognized crs.
3. Examining all crs to gather more data to be presented to the CCB.
4. The feasibility study's beginning.
5. Tracking every CR's development.

Prioritizing all problems, identifying risks, and communicating CCB input are all duties that fall within the purview of the change manager. The Feasibility Study Group is charged with a number of duties, including investigating potential CR solutions, costs, benefits, and other implications. A feasibility report including all the findings will be sent to the CCB. The CCB is responsible for selecting all CR authorizations as well as for:

1. Examine each CR sent by the Change Manager.
2. Recognize all supporting material for crs and decide whether to approve or reject them.
3. Reconcile overlapping change conflicts.
4. Identify the deadlines for implementing accepted requests.

All project modifications must be implemented and reviewed by the implementation group, which is also responsible for:

1. Develop a timeline for changes.
2. Put into action all project modifications.
3. Test each modification before putting it into practice.
4. Examine the level of satisfaction with the improvements that have been made, both quantitatively and qualitatively.
5. Close requests by adding annotations to the change log, which includes all crs that have been acknowledged and are being followed up on.

### **Application and Key Success Elements**

The investigation of the crucial factors that the project manager must take into account in addressing the aforementioned process comes after our insight into the method by which CRs are handled in projects.

### **Critical Factors For Success**

The following are elements that are crucial to a project's success:

1. The Change Manager must have the required amount of seniority and the required competencies.
2. The Change Management system should be chosen based on the proper criteria, particularly if ICT-based solutions are being considered.
3. The procedure must be examined on a regular basis in accordance with a predetermined strategy.
4. Members of the CCB must be given sufficient power in order for them to conduct assessments and make subsequent decisions.

### **COSTS**

Personnel and tool expenditures are two of the biggest expenses associated with change management implementation. Additional expenses include:

1. The expense of hiring additional employees.
2. Beginning data input fees that are optional.
3. Workplace expenses
4. The price of a software product that supports change management.
5. Cost of gear, setup, licenses, and any related expenses.
6. The price of first instruction and subsequent sessions.
7. Cost of first and ongoing consulting.

### **Metrics**

A few of the measures that may be used to gauge process performance are given below:

1. The proportion of rejected crs compared to the total number of authorized crs each month as a gauge of how well the Change Management process evaluates risks.
2. The proportion of rejected crs in relation to the monthly total, used to gauge the process's initial discriminating capacity.
3. The number of illegal CR implementations performed on a monthly basis to determine if the procedure has been evaded.
4. The presencequantity of unprocessed CR backlogs to compare real workloads to resources available.
5. The proportion of crs that result in implementation issues relative to the overall and monthly totals, as a lesson learned for next planning initiatives.
6. The proportion of crs with a 'urgent' priority classification relative to the total number of crs for the month to verify that priority allocation techniques are used properly.

### **Management of Stakeholder Communication**

Communication strategy is one of the effects of good change management. It is important to review the fundamental concepts of communications management in the context of projects as a whole. as a result, the particular instance of project change management will be covered. In order to make sure that the correct information is directly sent to the right destination at the right time, through the right channels, and at the right cost, communications management drives the interrelationships among all parties involved in a project. Project managers need to be proficient communicators since, according to specialist statistics, they spend more than 80% of their working hours on project communications. Accurate project communication management includes understanding how to communicate the change.

Therefore, communication issues should be recognized, examined, and wisely resolved since poor communication management is one of the main causes of project failure. The choice of the communication technique and its mechanisms must be made, and great attention must be taken in doing so, in order for the exchange of messages to be properly understood. How can a project manager lead a change project if the change is not obvious in the communication approach? Would not a 'new' communicating strategy be the finest illustration of a change? Project Managers are often given broad guidelines, which they must then tailor on an individual basis in light of their own experiences and with the ongoing help of professional guidance.

1. Choose the appropriate communication strategy.
2. Choose the appropriate communication method.
3. Converse successfully.

A communication plan that outlines the objectives to be met, the methods to be used, the processes to be followed, and the precise timing of each message is the foundation of effective and efficient communications. Communication Plans should generally include the definition and outline of:

1. The specifications, classification, and attributes of the information to be transferred.
2. The techniques and technology that will be used.
3. The communication frequency.
4. Obligations and destinations.
5. Criterion for updating the plan.
6. The information shared in reports.

All of this information must be communicated in accordance with the specifics needed by the many stakeholders. as a result, their identification, categorization, and ongoing management are crucial to the success of initiatives, particularly programs for change.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Businesses may recognize income in a more precise and relevant manner by employing the Point of Control (PoC) mechanism. Organizations may improve financial reporting accuracy, adhere to accounting rules, and provide stakeholders useful information for decision-making by concentrating on the transfer of control over commodities or services. To achieve uniform and transparent revenue recognition methods, the PoC method implementation calls for careful study and adherence to best practices.

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## CHAPTER 9

### PROJECT MANAGEMENT: PROJECT CLOSEOUT AND LESSONS LEARNED

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#### ABSTRACT:

Project closeout and lessons learned are essential activities in project management that mark the end of a project and provide valuable insights for future projects. This chapter explores the significance of project closeout and the process of capturing and analyzing lessons learned. It discusses the key components of project closeout, including finalizing project deliverables, conducting project reviews, and transitioning project outcomes. It also emphasizes the importance of documenting lessons learned and implementing continuous improvement practices based on these insights. By effectively closing out projects and capturing lessons learned, organizations can optimize project outcomes, enhance future project performance, and foster a culture of learning and innovation.

#### KEYWORDS:

Closure Phase, Final Deliverables, Lessons Learned, Project Audit, Project Closeout.

#### INTRODUCTION

Project or phase closure serves two purposes: first, to formally wrap up the scheduled work by assessing project performance, learning from mistakes, and applying those lessons to future initiatives. Many project managers are unaware of the importance of properly closing a project or phase, just as it is crucial to officially launch a project after the broad planning phase is over [1], [2]. Utilizing all of the knowledge and experience collected during the project or phase is the advantage of having a planned project or phase closing. There won't be time for employee assessments or to compile key takeaways if the desired outcome is achieved and the team is quickly discharged. We are aware that a project may go short as well. Even in this scenario, the project manager will be aware that there are critical tasks to be completed, such as team assessments and major lessons learned, in order to get the most knowledge possible from the project's experiences. In both situations, it is the project manager's duty to include project closing tasks in the schedule. These tasks shouldn't be seen as an afterthought while the team is disbanding, but rather as essential components of the project. Just as it wouldn't be complete without the completion of the implementation activities, the project is not deemed complete until the closing activities are carried out [3], [4].

This is done in order to adopt a useful strategy for the Phase or Project Closeout. A Post-implementation Review marks the beginning of the Project Closeout procedure. A survey asking the project team, consumers, and internal and external stakeholders for their opinions on the project may be used as the review's first step. After the input has been gathered and assessed, an

evaluation meeting is held to identify best practices and develop lessons learned that will help the management with future initiatives [5], [6]. The Project Management Information System, a centralized corporate repository, should ideally be used to preserve best practices and lessons learned. It could be a specialized platform, a particular server or cloud folder, etc. Future projects should have a convenient access and retrieval option for managers and project managers. The administrative closeout phase of a project involves giving feedback to Project Team members, updating the skills inventory, gathering important project metrics, and archiving all relevant project files in the project repository.

### **Processes List**

The procedures included in this phase are as follows. Conduct a post-implementation review, in which the project manager evaluates the project's outcomes by obtaining feedback from team members, clients, and other stakeholders via a survey in order to compile lessons learned, best practices, and performance patterns or trends, and then communicating these results in the form of a post-implementation report. Execute administrative closeout, in which the project manager officially concludes the project by giving team members performance reviews and archiving all project data. Document Instructions I've learned to perform a post-project or phase-end review and document the implications of adapting to any process after getting the sponsor's or the customer's approval to officially terminate the phase or project. At this step, the project manager will record lessons learnt to be shared for future initiatives.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **List of Roles**

The procedures in this phase need the following roles to be played:

1. Acting As An Organization Manager.
2. A Project's Sponsor.
3. Project Director.
4. Member Of The Project Team.
5. Internal Parties Involved.
6. Extérieur Parties.
7. Customer.

### **Deliverables List**

The Post-implementation Report, which formalizes the input from all parties involved and highlights best practices and lessons learned, is the main product of this phase. The report's building blocks are the results of the activities carried out as part of performing a Post-implementation Review. The transfer of best practices and lessons gained from the Post-implementation Report to an organizational repository of project management data is even more crucial [7], [8]. Conduct a review after implementation.

### **Purpose**

When a project has been successfully finished, given to the performing organization, and received project sponsor approval, it is deemed to be finished. The project manager's duties at this stage of the project management life cycle include evaluating how well the project met the needs of the client, highlighting what went well, learning from mistakes made, spotting patterns

and trends, finding ways to enhance the processes used throughout the project, and, most importantly, communicating the results [9], [10]. 'Conduct Post-implementation Review' is meant to collect the data needed to fulfill these obligations and present it in a Post-implementation Report.

### **Roles**

The Post-implementation Review involves the following roles:

1. A project's sponsor.
2. Project director.
3. Those in the project team.
4. Customers.

### **Tasks**

The following activities are carried out to assist conducting post-implementation reviews:

1. Elicit criticism.
2. Carry out project evaluation.
3. Post-implementation report prepare.

### **Solicit Comments**

It is crucial to ask the project team for input. Project Team members provide a close look at how the project was carried out since they have a distinct perspective from that of customers and consumers. They are also a crucial source for sharing best practices and lessons learnt. If a product was effectively designed and delivered as well as how well the demands of the clients were addressed are the two key indicators of a project's success. Getting input is the best method to decide on these steps. A suitable survey for the project should be used by the project manager to collect feedback. Different surveys may be needed for various stakeholder groups, and surveys will need to be sent to the relevant people, depending on the size, kind, and structure of the project as well as the Performing Organization. Feedback from the Project Sponsor and Project Team members who carried out the activities listed in the Project Schedule should at the very least be requested. In order to gather enough data to evaluate if the project was successful in fulfilling its objectives and stakeholders' demands, the project manager should decide whether surveys should also be issued to customer representatives, customers, or other stakeholders. The survey must evaluate the project's success as well as the project team's and performing organization's performance. The necessity of their candid comments as one of the main methods for gauging the success of the project must be emphasized to all survey respondents by the project manager. The written survey should be made available, in hardcopy or electronic format, with a deadline for completion. If the survey is not returned by the deadline, the project manager should follow up. Keeping a record of who received the survey, when it was given, and who responded to it may be useful if distribution is widespread.

The Project Manager may also conduct a survey over the phone or in person. In many cases, an interview-based survey is superior than a written one. An insightful Project Manager will be able to elaborate on the vocal comments of the survey participant, gaining information that may otherwise not be forthcoming. Those responding to a written survey are constrained to answering the questions as they are stated. Participants may not always be as honest when sharing

information in person, however. Additionally, for certain stakeholder groups, the project manager may not be the best choice to conduct the survey interview. Getting feedback on the project manager's performance is also crucial. Receiving direct input from the Project Sponsor, the client, and the project team must be the duty of the Project Manager's immediate supervisor or another resource appointed with a comparable role.

### **Example of a Post-Implementation Survey**

Using the aforementioned example, the project manager must examine, analyze, and summarize the survey response once it has been completed and gathered in order to present the findings at the project assessment meeting. An example of a recommended list of categories to utilize while gathering survey data for the project is as follows:

1. Performance of the Project Team.
2. Performing Organization Performance.
3. CSSQ leadership.
4. Risk control.
5. Communication control.
6. Product performance.
7. Acceptance control.
8. Management of organizational transformation.
9. Managing problems.
10. Implementation and transfer of the project.

Once the input has been collected, it will be utilized at the project assessment meeting to help identify lessons learned and best practices to apply to next projects. Additionally, it will be included in the Post-implementation Report prepared after Project Closeout. Customer satisfaction need to be your first priority. It is crucial for a project manager to understand that even if a project is completed on schedule, within budget, and in accordance with all quality standards, and even if each deliverable is flawlessly error-free and in perfect compliance with the project scope, the project cannot be deemed successful if the customer is not satisfied with the good or service they received.

### **Assess Project Results**

The project manager's objective for this task is to meet with a subset of the project team and the stakeholder community to present the abridged feedback survey results, go over all other project-related topics, come to an understanding of what worked and what didn't, and develop best practices and lessons learned. The Project Manager might think about engaging Project Managers from the Performing Organization who have expertise on related projects in addition to the Project Team. Other project managers might provide information and insight on the evaluation process based on their expertise and past knowledge. Before the project assessment meeting, the project manager should provide each participant a copy of the summary survey findings so they may be ready to discuss the information. The management of the Performing Organization must always work to enhance the management of projects and the delivery of goods in order to provide consumers the finest products and services available. In order to debate and evaluate the performance of the project, attendees will take into account the results of the condensed feedback as well as the knowledge of the present project managers. The group will determine and agree on lessons learnt based on these conversations. Not only will the present project team profit from

these lessons, but managers and team members of comparable projects will also find them useful. Lessons might be learned in a good or bad way. Lessons learnt shouldn't only be mentioned in the meeting. Each one should be documented, and an action plan should be created outlining when and how it will be implemented throughout the Performing Organization. The Project Manager, the client, and the project team members probably identified several processes throughout the course of the project that, when used, enhanced the creation of a deliverable, expedited a process, or offered suggestions for methods to enhance standardized templates. The Project Assessment Meeting includes the documentation of best practices, which are then shared with other project managers so they may be used again. Some of the notable 'successes' may be transformed into brand-new processes that will be used to subsequent projects.

### **Put The Post-Implementation Report Together**

The project manager creates the post-implementation report after the project assessment meeting. The project manager gathers material from the conversation and arranges it in the report using the feedback categories mentioned above, adding details on important project KPIs. The report includes information on how well the product met customer needs, how well the project team and project manager managed the project, how well the performing organization supported the project, lessons learned, best practices to be used in future projects, and the key project metrics that will allow the performing organization to compare success measures across projects. It also includes suggestions for enhancements that might be used to projects of comparable size and scope. The report is preserved in the project repository during Perform Administrative Closeout.

Members of the Performing Organization must receive the Post-implementation Report from the Project Manager or be given copies of it. It is more efficient to designate a specific person or agency unit to take charge of gathering and arranging the material, imparting the lessons gained, and putting the best practices into practice throughout the whole company in performing organizations that take on several projects. In order to provide a location where lessons learned and best practices can be archived for use by all project managers in the organization, it would be proactive to suggest that your organization's management create a central repository that is owned and maintained by someone within its performing organization. As time passes and more data is uploaded to this repository, it will eventually build a highly important knowledge base that, when used, will result in notable advancements on all initiatives undertaken by the business.

### **Example of A Project Post-Implementation Report**

Give a brief description of each item's efficacy in relation to this project.

#### **Quality**

1. Put administrative closeout into action.
2. To complete all administrative actions necessary to formally conclude the project, use the 'Perform Administrative Closeout' checkbox. The following resources are needed for this job.
3. project coordinator.
4. the Team Captain.

Project Team members most likely developed their existing talents or picked up new ones during the project. The time and money spent honing our specific abilities shouldn't go to waste. The

project manager should keep a record of the skills acquired and used on the project in order to utilize such talents on subsequent projects and to support and promote personal development. In the event that the Performing Organization has a skills inventory, the Project Manager or Team Leader must ensure that each member of the Project Team takes the time to update it with any newly acquired skills and any new project responsibilities that were taken on. Future project managers will find an up-to-date inventory essential when trying to properly staff their projects. It may also serve as information when giving performance comments to a person's direct supervisor. The following tasks are carried out as part of the Perform Administrative Closeout task:

1. Update the talents list and provide performance criticism.
2. Data on the project is archived.

### **Updates To The Skills Inventory And Performance Reports**

The Project Manager should push the Performing Organization to establish a skills inventory if there isn't one already. Depending on the requirements and preferences of the company, the inventory might be as basic as a paper list or as complex as an electronic skills database. Additionally, the Project Manager and/or Team Leader must take the time to express his or her evaluation of each Project Team member's contributions and performance in writing. The Project Manager or Team Leader is the best candidate to provide honest and accurate feedback since they are the ones who are most familiar with the regular tasks carried out by the Project Team. First, feedback paperwork has to be created and evaluated with each team member separately. Following this performance discussion, the paperwork is quickly sent to the immediate supervisor of each Project Team member for use in performance evaluations. Utilize the Performing Organization-specific performance feedback systems.

### **Project History Information**

The project manager keeps a project repository up to date all during the project. The repository's goal is to provide a single location for all project materials so that everyone working on it has access to it as the project moves forward. The repository offers an audit trail detailing the project's development and history after it has been officially concluded. The project manager should check the repository at project closeout to make sure that all pertinent project-related information, documents created, decisions taken, concerns raised, and correspondence exchanged have been recorded. The Post-implementation Report need to be included as well. when the undertaking is The project repository should include the following files if it is officially finished:

1. Supporting materials for the project, such as the business case and the project proposal.
2. Project definition/description materials like the project plan and charter.
3. Any working papers or unofficial documents outlining the project's budget, scope, timetable, and quality.
4. Project schedules: only the baseline and final schedules should be kept in the hardcopy repository, while all other copies should be kept online.
5. Information on the project's finances.
6. Changes to the project's scope and requests log.
7. Progress updates on the project.
8. Timesheets and progress reports for team members.

9. Information and an issue log.
10. Delivery item acceptance log for the project.
11. Forms for project deliverable approval, containing the signers' signatures in full.
12. Worksheets for risk management.
13. Results of any audits.
14. Correspondence, such as any memoranda, letters, emails, meeting minutes, etc. That pertain to decision-making.
15. The signed acceptance form for the final project.
16. Report after installation.

A dedicated documentation space should be used to archive a hardcopy repository. According to organizational records management policy, the Project Sponsor may choose to make it electronically accessible. An archived project repository, which is a compilation of all project-related information, decisions, problems, and communication exchanged, is what is anticipated to be delivered. It will show how the project has developed over time.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Project management requires important elements like project closeout and lessons gained. Organizations may improve project results, improve future project performance, and build a culture of learning and innovation by concluding projects effectively and documenting lessons gained. Closeout of a project guarantees that its goals are achieved, its resources are freed, and its stakeholders are happy. Lessons gained provide businesses the ability to avoid mistakes, duplicate successes, and enhance project delivery. They also motivate continual development. Improved project management techniques, higher project success rates, and a strong project closeout and lessons learned process all result from it.

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## CHAPTER 10

### HUMAN FACTORS IN PROJECT LIFE CYCLE ECONOMICS

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#### ABSTRACT:

Human factors play a crucial role in project life cycle economics as they significantly influence project outcomes, costs, and overall success. This chapter explores the significance of human factors in project economics, focusing on the impact of human behavior, decision-making, communication, and collaboration on project costs and outcomes. It discusses the key challenges and considerations related to human factors throughout the project life cycle, emphasizing the importance of understanding and managing these factors effectively. By recognizing and addressing human factors, organizations can improve project performance, optimize resource utilization, and achieve better economic outcomes.

#### KEYWORDS:

Cost Labor, Decision-Making, Economic Analysis, Human Capital, Human Error, Human Performance.

#### INTRODUCTION

The life cycle of a project is made up of a series of tasks that are quite unlike from one another and have variable degrees of economic relevance. These tasks are often delegated to organizational divisions in accordance with their functions, which are frequently wholly distinct. Projects need to be continuously and constantly scrutinized throughout their entire life cycle, and firms often select particular work teams to oversee the different project stages [1], [2]. Project phasing used in publications published by the European Cooperation for Space Standardization and specified in ECSS-M-ST-10C Rev. 1, a standard Project Management document for aerospace applications, serves as an example.

#### Phases of the ECSS-M-ST-10C project

According to the ECSS standard described above, a typical project life cycle follows a Plan-Do-Check-Act methodology and includes project reviews at predetermined intervals:

1. A Mission Definition Review When Phase 0 Is Complete.
2. A Review Of The Preliminary Requirements When Phase A Is Complete.
3. System Requirements Review Prior To Phase B's Conclusion.
4. A Preliminary Design Review When Phase B Is Complete.
5. A Critical Design Review When Phase C Is Complete.
6. Qualification Review Before Phase D Is Finished.
7. At The End Of Phase D, There Will Be An Acceptance Review And An Operational Readiness Review.

8. Before Phase E Is Finished, There Will Be A Flight Readiness Review, A Launch Readiness Review, And A Commissioning Result Review.
9. End-Of-Life Review When Phase E Is Complete.
10. Mission Closeout Review When Phase F Is Complete.

Reviews of the project life cycle often take place in meetings with representatives from all corporate divisions involved in that stage of the project. These sessions are formally documented in reports that contain not only the findings of the monitoring measures taken, but also, in particular, action plans to address any issues and make the desired changes [3], [4].

### **The Value of Project Team Participants**

Team actions should never be self-verified and/or self-validated in accordance with project effectiveness requirements. The foundation for ensuring that the activities scheduled in the different project phases are precisely managed is this straightforward independence concept. Team members are often chosen from various corporate departments based on the diversity of their backgrounds. Team members will be able to enhance their verification abilities and, in particular, to increase the effectiveness and scope of the tasks to be completed thanks to this diversity of experiences and professional cultures [5], [6]. This introduction makes it very evident how important communication is to accomplishing projects' overall success and cost-effectiveness, as well as to all of their operations. A strong justification for the importance of clear and accurate information exchanges among various organizations and company divisions can be found in the fact that, in the majority of cases, the output elements of one project stage become the input elements of a subsequent stage. This helps to ensure that the project's cost and schedule goals are met [7], [8].

In addition, corporate duties are often solitary in nature, while project tasks are typically collaborative. Therefore, appropriate selection criteria should be used to locate competent candidates for team leader roles based on particular interviews. In general, soft skills are a reflection of individual contributions to the company that are constructive and that promote collaboration. Technical skill is far easier to acquire than this kind of talent. However, as a matter of introduction, some general examples are provided for a better insight to the concept of soft skill: From the perspective of a project team, communication and leadership should not be excluded from the entirety of factors influencing project life cycle economics. Decision-making skills: be goal-oriented, able to weigh a variety of viewpoints and options, and conscious of the effects of your decisions. Accept obligations willingly. be dependable, eager, and driven.

Flexibility - be able to embrace creative jobs with a positive and self-assured attitude while keeping up with innovations and changes occurring inside the business. Ability to manage your time effectively. be prepared to prioritize activities to get the greatest outcomes with the least amount of effort and to work on many projects at once, particularly when project critical events approach. Ability to use logic and creativity while simultaneously seeing issues and answers. Creativity and problem-solving skills [9], [10]. Ability to operate well in a team. this includes the ability to stay focused on project goals, to collaborate with others to achieve goals, to be honest and trustworthy, and to provide your team helpful suggestions. Take pride in your deeds, be aware of your duties, and show tolerance for both your own and other people's mistakes. stay focused on your tasks even in very stressful situations, when time is limited and judgments must be made swiftly but wisely.

## DISCUSSION

### Introduction to Communication

In order to maintain harmony at work and, as a result, to enhance project performance and effectiveness, good communication skills are unquestionably essential. These personal qualities often go hand in hand with other skills, such as the capacity to convince an audience while taking constructive criticism, to voice viewpoints without being confrontational, and to settle disputes amicably. Encouragement of employee involvement in recurring courses emphasizing the value of soft skills and how to use them is particularly common in consulting firms. This is because in a consulting setting it is critical to be prepared to get acquainted with a variety of different firms and understand their demands in order for the employee to be quickly regarded as trustworthy. There are times when 'fast win' business strategies are implemented or ad hoc change management plans are developed and supported throughout their execution by professional teams, such as when a firm is transferred to a new owner completely or partly while continuing its operations. Communication processes should constantly be analyzed while taking into account their unique circumstances and the justification for their inception since they are not meant to be purely information exchanges as they suggest that interacting parties are mutually impacted. Determining the components of the context in which communication processes are carried out is crucial for this reason:

1. Physical distance the location of communication between parties.
2. Time dimension the instant when communication takes place.
3. The historical connection between the parties talking.
4. The degree of empathy is a psychological dimension.
5. Practice of communication in the relational level.

It's critical to realize that there is no such thing as excellent or terrible communication since all communication is a reflection of a relationship structure. There are two components to every communication instance:

1. Information sharing and persuading someone to act or think in a certain way comprise the content.
2. The context the way something is stated.

Every communication has a goal. it can be to get certain individuals to do something or to make someone more aware.

1. The following guidelines apply to communication processes:
2. In order to correctly meet a target, feedback is needed.
3. the emphasis is on others.
4. If someone misunderstands, it's my fault.

Understanding how well the intended message is retained is the core objective of communication, which goes beyond just informing the other person. It is crucial to be aware of our capacity to interact with others verbally or nonverbally in order for communication to be practical and productive. Sociologists frequently refer to human spatial relationships as proxemics when discussing communication. A healthy awareness should also include intrapsychic dialogue. Non-verbal cues include, but are not limited to, facial movement, gazing in

various directions and distances while speaking, gestures, tone of voice, and personal gaze. Following are the three consecutive stages of communication:

1. Relationship Building And Socializing Via Interaction.
2. Exchanging Knowledge And Working Methods Via Information.
3. Being Able to transform on the basis of lessons learnt at work requires creativity.

The following are the key communication emphases:

Aggressive behaviors include a haughty tone of voice, insistence on enforcing personal beliefs despite opposition, a lack of interest in listening to other speakers, frequent interruptions of others' speeches, verbal abuse, persistent intrusions into other people's personal space, disregard for opposing viewpoints, finger-pointing, etc. Lack of self-confidence, self-blame for failures, inferiority complex, inability to express one's opinions freely, fear of being evaluated, scared or subservient tone of voice, etc. Being assertive means showing an interest in hearing what others have to say, being resolute in politely and firmly asking to continue speaking if you are interrupted, being open to discussion, affirming your own opinions without disparaging or exalting other attendees, being loyal, tolerant, understanding, etc.

Meetings are organized in many organizations to analyze and discuss the many communication modalities and to provide staff members instructions on how to master the aggressive style. Here is a short list of tips for aggressive communication. Focusing on speakers while ignoring personal opinions and accepting what is being said without judgment or criticism is referred to as message listening and receptivity.

Processing messages involves making consistent attempts to comprehend other viewpoints and concentrate on requests made by others while demonstrating concern in others' emotions, approachability, and desired role within the team. The capacity to refrain from being forceful or threatening, to recognize when an explanation is necessary, and to gauge how receptive someone is by summarizing the message as it has been received. Ability to draw listeners in by selecting the main points for discussion, avoiding lengthy reports, speaking clearly and in simple language, leaning forward, starting with a short table of contents, and concluding a lengthy presentation with a final summary.

Knowing exactly what your mission is can help you know how to help the team. Creating a nice atmosphere, being ready to listen, being loyal in interactions, and showing care for others all contribute to being open to conversation and allowing colleagues to contribute. Supporting a personal stance requires the ability to offer factual data, eschewing subjective judgments, concentrating on the pertinent issue, and avoiding side topics.

Ability to shield oneself from criticism. criticism should concentrate on actions rather than people. Instead than criticizing others' approaches, constructive suggestions should be made to enhance performance. We'll talk more about the ideas of communication and leadership later on in this. In the meanwhile, a description of the Maslow Pyramid is given in order to reflect human needs and analyze interpersonal interactions and working group dynamics. American psychologist Abraham Maslow created a hierarchy of needs in 1954, stating that each need must be met before moving on to higher-level wants. The following are included in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Physiological demands are at the base of the pyramid since they are fundamental need for living.

### **Pyramid of Maslow**

Due to the expectation that they would provide some amount of protection and stability for people, safety demands are one step higher than other needs. The need for love and belonging is represented at the next level by social interactions, the want to make friends, to love and be loved, and the urge to join to a group in order to work with others toward a shared goal. The next level of esteem requirements is self-esteem, confidence, accomplishment, respect of others, and respect of others in order to feel effective and valued. At the highest level, self-actualization requires include morality, creativity, spontaneity, problem-solving skills, absence of prejudice, and fact acceptance.

### **Communication in a Team's Effectiveness**

The following qualities are needed for communication to be effective:

1. Targeted communication should be made with the intention of assisting in the creation of options for addressing problems and the management of interactions.
2. Using all reasonable interpretations, pragmatic data gathering and analysis should be prioritized for the advantage of comprehending a particular issue.
3. Transparent and thorough communication are crucial for ensuring that the remainder of the team has access to the information from each team member.
4. Situational communication should be appropriate for the setting and the team's progress at the time. Harmonization with the demands and professional cultures of other team members depends on each member's dedication.
5. Cognitive processes called problem-solving approaches are used in training sessions to help staff members learn how to handle challenging circumstances and choose the best potential options. It is described an experiment as an example that produced significant results.

### **Hawthorne Experiments at Mayo**

Various experiments were conducted in the 1920s to improve organizational human interactions. In specifically, from 1924 and 1927, George Elton Mayo, an industrial, sociologist, and organization theorist, was in charge of an experiment at the General Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago. The experiment examined the impact of boredom and weariness on workplace productivity and was conducted while controlling for factors like rest breaks and working hours. The results of Mayo's study altered management theory and practice and added to the field of motivation theory. Six women were used in this experiment by Mayo, who removed them from the assembly line and kept them apart from the other workers.

This small team was observed during the whole trial by a manager who served more as a pleasant observer than a strict disciplinarian. Mayo always informed the ladies in advance of any modifications he intended to make to their working circumstances. The crew was tasked with putting together relays. the ladies had to assemble 40 individual components before dropping the finished device down a chute. As the relays descended the chute, a mechanical count was performed. They determined the typical production rate to be 2,400 relays each week for each woman. Starting with this base rate, Mayo introduced different modifications, each of which was maintained for a trial period that may last anywhere between four and twelve weeks. An observer was present during working hours for each of these variation periods. he kept the ladies updated

on the experiment's progress and recorded everything that happened. He also listened to their problems and elicited information. Relay production was raised or reduced throughout each experimental period to determine changes in production rate:

1. In typical circumstances, production decreased.
2. Production decreased after two five-minute rest breaks.
3. After two 10-minute rest breaks, productivity significantly decreased.
4. Six five-minute breaks caused a modest decrease in productivity, and the ladies reported that the frequent breaks disrupted their work rhythm.
5. Two rest breaks, the first with a complimentary hot supper from the company: production decreased.
6. Production decreased when the ladies were let off at 4:30 p.m. Rather than 5:00 p.m.
7. At 4:00 pm, the ladies were let go. The production stayed the same.
8. When things returned to normal, production reached its highest-ever level, averaging 3,000 relays each week.
9. The experiment's findings were as follows:
10. Adults' social lives are shaped by their employment, which is a shared activity.

Physical working conditions are not as crucial to employee morale and productivity as the demand for belonging, security, and recognition. A complaint is sometimes a sign of a disruption in a person's standing within an organization. The attitude and productivity of employees may be influenced by social pressures both within and outside the workplace. Informal groups at work have a significant social influence on people's work behaviors and attitudes. Collaboration within a group must be cultivated and prepared for. It does not happen by chance. The main finding of these tests was that, if group cooperation is attained, human interactions may acquire a degree of cohesiveness that is resistant to the destabilizing impacts of an adaptive society. Elton Mayo disproved the prevalent assumption that employees are only driven by their own self-interest by seeing a broad increase in output that was unrelated to any modification he made. Mayo started to glance about and understood that the ladies had established a social atmosphere since it did not make sense for productivity to keep slowly increasing.

Six people joined together throughout the trials to form a team that enthusiastically and spontaneously dedicated itself to collaboration. They felt as if they were taking part voluntarily and without hesitation. These six ladies were intentionally working without external pressure or restrictions, allowing them to feel content with doing so with less stress than ever before. In actuality, routine medical examinations revealed no evidence of accumulated weariness, and absences from work decreased by 80%. Because they were not bullied or given orders, the ladies gained a greater feeling of responsibility, which allowed the group to exercise its own internal authority and discipline. People are driven by much more than just their own financial interests at work since workplaces are social spaces that may hold societal values. The results of these trials showed that:

1. Being distinguished from the other industrial employees increased an individual's self-esteem.
2. The ladies were happier at work when they were permitted to be sociable with their boss.
3. The ladies felt more like a team since they had discussed modifications with the supervisor beforehand.

Productivity increased even when rest intervals were eliminated because the supervisor's actions fostered group loyalty and collaboration. The Hawthorne effect has been labeled as this phenomena, which is what happens when you pay attention to other people. Just letting someone know that you care about them generally motivates them to do better at work. For instance, if you take management trainees and provide them with specialized training in management skills that they do not currently possess, the trainees will feel that they are so valuable to the organization that time and money are being spent on developing their skills. They will also feel like they are on the fast track to the top, which will motivate them to work harder and better. Any specific abilities or information they may have picked up throughout the training session have no impact on their drive. The Hawthorne effect, often known as the somebody upstairs cares syndrome, states that individuals who spend a lot of time at work need to have a feeling of community and teamwork in order to perform better.

### **Leadership**

Studies of individual attitudes inside groups are referred to as social psychology, and they are particularly relevant to project collaboration. Social studies have shown that every working group has a member who exhibits dominating behavior. This is what is meant by leadership. The tendency for people to become leaders for others has been seen in a number of situations where those who utilize their influence on the team's other members the most do so. Leaders are team members who take the most decisive actions. The term leadership denotes the most important position in a group. Leadership, until quite recently, was used to describe members of any organization who have a certain personality. There are conflicting interpretations of recent social psychology research that is used to study leadership and communication. However, as has previously been stressed, communication is a bilateral activity. Assertiveness in communication is undoubtedly a major component. Therefore, it is necessary for leaders to:

1. Know the subjects the team will be discussing, the actions to be performed, and the objectives to be met.
2. Detect and choose the attitudes that are best in each scenario.
3. Be convincing.

To effectively complete team activities, leaders must be capable of fostering the right climate within the team as well as being goal-oriented. One of three categories may be used to classify leadership techniques:

These leaders often act as the focal point of the team's communication network, centralizing decision-making authority and limiting delegation of responsibility to other team members. They exert the most influence on the other team members' behavior. This kind of leadership is not the worst since it is always determined by the circumstances. Under difficult and stressful circumstances, these leaders are able to guarantee that the team objective is accomplished quickly. On the other side, team morale suffers throughout the course of a medium to lengthy period of time. Democratic leaders make sure that their teams work with the best possible balance between productivity and satisfaction.

Members of the team are continually urged to take initiative and are conscious of their role for both contributing to team choices and achieving team objectives. Even though decision-making processes that involve the full range of team capabilities are more complex, burdensome, and time-consuming as a result of this style of delegation, they produce better results on both a team-



and an individual-level. The stability of the team and the longevity of the outcomes gained are increased by early efforts to create the right atmosphere. Leaders that are fairly laissez-faire are those who have faith in their team. Their lack of enthusiasm in the job at hand leads to less effective performance and decreased team morale. Their choices become the team's requirements, and they lack a clear attitude toward accountability. In conclusion, leadership is a situation-specific phenomena. Top-down and bottom-up approaches to solving it are both possible. There is a reciprocal link between team members' readiness to take on leadership roles and their readiness to choose a team leader.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Project life cycle economics are substantially influenced by human factors. Organizations may enhance project performance, maximize resource utilization, and provide superior financial results by comprehending and skillfully managing stakeholder relationships, decision-making, communication, cooperation, and team dynamics. Understanding the significance of human factors and incorporating them into project management procedures help projects be completed successfully and provide greater financial benefits. preserving and disseminating the human aspects lessons learnt from earlier initiatives, making changes, and fostering a culture of continual learning and adaptation.

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## CHAPTER 11

# PROJECT COST AND VALUE FOR CONSTRUCTIONS AND FACILITIES

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### ABSTRACT:

Project cost and value play a critical role in construction and facility projects, as they directly impact the financial feasibility and overall success of these endeavors. This chapter explores the significance of project cost and value in the context of construction and facilities, examining key factors that influence project costs and strategies for maximizing project value. It discusses cost estimation techniques, cost control measures, and value management practices that enable organizations to optimize cost-effectiveness, enhance project outcomes, and deliver value to stakeholders. By effectively managing project cost and value, organizations can achieve financial objectives, mitigate risks, and ensure the long-term sustainability of construction and facility projects.

### KEYWORDS:

Budget Management, Cash Flow Analysis, Construction Costs, Cost Control, Cost Estimation, Design Value Engineering, Economic Feasibility.

### INTRODUCTION

The attainment of continually improving technical abilities, as well as lessons acquired in the many theaters of operations of construction professionals, are prerequisites for cost-effective building processes. It is crucial to carefully consider the order in which the design phases of the project life cycle should be completed, along with the procurement procedures that will, to the greatest extent possible, result in a successful outcome. This also holds true for the processes involved in renovating existing assets [1], [2]. Long-term training is required to learn how to design structures that will later be constructed and maintained. In order to handle specialized design and construction processes, new professional competencies are required. Particularly in the more strategically oriented evolution areas of construction, the 'know how' and 'can do' implications of design and construction professionals are significant competitiveness drivers. The project life cycle and its economic evaluation are influenced by a wide range of circumstances, from the definition of the project's scope through asset usage and maintenance. Design procedures and project execution processes take these influences into account. The best way to manage construction sites is to identify, analyze, and execute each step of the construction process using practical scheduling strategies [3], [4].

The creation of a hierarchy among individual activities, which are anticipated to be differentiated and classified as macro-activities and micro-activities and then listed in homogeneous groups. determination of activity durations depending on how construction processes are organized. and

definition of dependencies among activities, from both technical and managerial perspectives. In order to guarantee that every project activity and piece of documentation is correctly understood, interpreted, and conveyed throughout the project life cycle, all stakeholders are required to be in possession of practical skills. Prior to the completion of the entire design process, it is necessary to manage a variety of information items that must be coordinated, represented in design documents, and then decoded, verified, and integrated to ensure the most effective project implementation in accordance with the stated requirements. This means that in order to enable a cost-effective development from the original design to and beyond the commissioning of the asset, both technical skills and managerial experience are required at all project phases.

The following important conclusions are given by construction software users with regard to software tools viewed as a solution to facilitate the development of Project Management practices, especially looking at the construction sector. Construction estimating software users generate quicker, more precise bids. Construction companies that utilize software for estimating projects do so less often than those who use spreadsheets. They also offer quicker response times for bids. Users of construction estimating software claim less issues with their platform. Users of construction estimating software have discovered that their system seldom makes submitting bids for projects difficult in over 70% of reported occasions. On the other side, nearly 50% of spreadsheet users claim that their tool often makes project bidding challenging. These findings were particularly obvious in medium- and large-sized businesses. Therefore, there is more potential for specialist construction estimating software to increase productivity at bigger businesses. On the other hand, for smaller businesses, simple technologies like spreadsheets may work well for cost estimation.

These factors lead to the conclusion that it is practical to compare the efficacy of spreadsheets and specialist construction estimating software for related applications. According to reports, medium-sized and big businesses are more concerned with how effectively construction estimating software satisfies their needs. Because they do not bid on as many or as complicated tasks as bigger organizations do, smaller businesses could be less happy with construction estimating software. In some circumstances, small businesses find that the capabilities of construction estimating software is greater than they need, which reduces their productivity and, as a result, their satisfaction with the fit of their system. The three expenses that are hardest to predict are the ones for finance, equipment, and materials. A very or fairly common source of estimating mistakes is failing to include expenses. The second and third most frequent reasons are reportedly underestimating transportation and contingency expenditures.

Users of software for construction estimating are most pleased with how fast and precisely it allows them to produce bids. The advantages of construction estimating software become more significant the more the estimating processes are standardized. For most users of spreadsheets, process standardization seems to be the biggest hurdle in estimating [5], [6]. The techniques and procedures involved in a construction project's life cycle from its inception to completion in an environment of free competition are also closely related to the globalization of the economy and the ensuing requirement for harmonized regulatory norms. Economic operators at the national level are committed to addressing the new challenges of global competitiveness, taking into account European Directives No. 17 of 2004 on procurement procedures and No. 18 of 2004 on procedures for the award of public works contracts, public supply contracts, and public service contracts, as well as taking into account the new stakeholders acting in the procurement scenario.

## DISCUSSION

### Project Management for Built Assets

Turner asserts that a project is a transient entity to which resources are devoted in order to accomplish tasks that result in positive change. While the concept of a project has been well-known among construction professionals for millennia, there is also a strong understanding of the circumstances of uncertainty that underlie building operations and of the risk inherent in their goals. However, except from sporadic occasions, no systematic attempt has been made to record, analyze, and evaluate the impact of these unwelcome events [7], [8]. As a typical definition of uncertainty, the change from a situation of routine to the condition in which knowledge of technology is limited, known methods may lead to unclear outcomes, and the degree of discrepancy is high, is taken into account in the construction environment [9], [10].

The processes and procedures used for the planning and monitoring of individual projects, as well as the technical and communication abilities of project managers, may be seen from two main angles. The precise strengths and shortcomings identified in the aforementioned categories serve as the foundation for the company level evaluation of project management skills. Among manufacturers, businesses engaged in construction constitute an unusual scenario. Their final products are neither transportable nor divisible. Instead, they are made of components that, while physically distinct, are hardly capable of being divided into functionally independent parts. For example, residential buildings can be divided into flats without compromising functionality, but hospitals can only be run as a whole. Due to the size and intrinsic characteristics of buildings, transportability is also precluded. Additionally, it is required of construction enterprises to balance a variety of requirements, some of which are competing: functional specialities and small- to medium-sized businesses, centralized management and operational independence of construction sites, precise work planning, and operational flexibility.

Each activity, as described by popular Project Management tools like bar charts and network approaches, is connected to a suitable resource assignment and a corresponding economic value, exhibiting the so-called S-curve's nonlinear behavior in the cost-time curve. In this situation, resource leveling is also a concern. Through the use of cost accounting and the accrual accounting system, scheduling and control efforts are focused on evaluating the economic and financial performance of construction projects. The project life cycle includes accounting processes as a necessary component to guarantee, along with other particular procedures, that stakeholder needs are consistently satisfied and that a high level of quality is maintained. Contractual paperwork, accounting records, and work orders are all examined to make sure the created item complies with all contract agreements, project requirements, and other relevant laws before it is released after passing final acceptance testing. Process vulnerability increases and good results become more challenging to attain when assembly systems in building sites get more sophisticated and diverge from conventional deterministic techniques. One of the most important aspects of complex projects is believed to be the interface, interdependency, and uniqueness connected to people, goods, and processes. Uncertainty situations are especially notable and strongly correlated with the following elements in building projects:

1. Construction projects' intricacy and variety.
2. The separation of the construction process from the process of project definition. And
3. The significantly variable number of participants required due to the high level of complexity of organizational operations.

Organizational complexity arises as a result of the diversity of parties involved in the building process, while, for instance, the technology approach might be seen as a more conventional feature. Certain special implications are associated with construction projects. For instance, they need a high level of strategic coordination between the various levels of contractors and subcontractors. also, the structure of participating firms is liable to change from project to project. Second, other sub-processes are involved in building projects, including:

1. Design is followed by the determination of the quality, cost, and time goals to be taken into account throughout project execution.
2. construction businesses are given the task of carrying out the project after the preparation and negotiation of the project proposal.
3. The preparation of the site is followed by a study of the construction criteria, techniques, processes, and timetables chosen to meet the project's goals.

According to the project's requirements, construction work is being done at the allocated location. The creation of project goals requires a thorough examination of all project components, keeping in mind that every project is highly irreversible and that any errors or omissions would have a permanent negative impact. The goals of the project are then divided up among a hierarchy of sub-projects that cover the various building lots. Each executive responsibility is delegated to internal and/or external parties who interact with one another at the lowest level of this hierarchy, as specified in the contract terms. The entire project event calendar is then established. For the whole project planning process, particularly when project durations are brief, key dates and other scheduling limitations will be adjusted to the project.

Following that, activity networks are discussed, identifying project activities together with their length, execution limitations, resources, and organizational information. When there are several activities and/or when those tasks are closely connected, this endeavor becomes quite difficult. Activity networks are the fundamental operational structures for employing PERT or CPM methods in investigating various choices in order to define a baseline plan by arriving at an optimal value. Construction project management will always contain the ultimate assurance that project goals are reached at a certain time, based on differences found between the baseline and the project's actual state. The Perspective of the Project Life Cycle for Buildings and Facilities Cleland and King provide their own example of a four-stage construction project life cycle: Technical terms for feasibility include project and feasibility study. The determination of whether the project is feasible brings this stage to a close. Planning includes the general calculation of deadlines, expenses, contract terms, milestones, and activity descriptions. Signatures on the subcontract bring this phase to a close. The asset is built during the crucial project stage known as construction. Start-up Delivery of the finished item.

The business of building sometimes involves large-scale projects, which are often distinguished by a low level of repetition. In actuality, although individual processes still signify some regularity, this is no longer true for a whole project. Therefore, lessons acquired from earlier projects cannot be taken into account in practice if the uniqueness of each particular project is taken into account in its true relevance. Construction businesses must adhere to mutually agreed-upon timetables, budgets, and specifications in accordance with contractual agreements, generally speaking. As a result, it is essential that project implementation risks be properly examined before making any definitive commitments. As a result, planning efforts often lessen the unpredictable constraints present in construction projects, enabling contractors to build their

projects more effectively and efficiently. It is impossible to overstate the value of planning processes for the efficient management and performance of construction activities, especially when top-level managers are involved and resources are typically committed to contract execution, which can be difficult from both a process and organizational perspective.

The outcomes of building projects typically come from the use of straightforward but diverse technologies that are pertinent to the various constructed asset components. Construction project planning is consequently a joint and specialized effort that must be effectively planned and integrated, particularly when the project's magnitude necessitates the concurrent engagement of many subcontractors. Due to the low level of uniformity in building methods and materials, project planning is intrinsically a one-of-a-kind endeavor. There is evidence that bringing projects to completion frequently involves massive cash flows, with misalignments between inflows and outflows generating potential difficulties that may be financially critical for small-sized companies or whenever the company has been exposed to prior debts. This preamble illustrates the extent to which construction planning processes can be affected by peculiar conditions and complexity factors. So that any schedule change will be compatible with the accompanying economic variance, project schedule and cost planning must be done concurrently.

The planning stage begins with a thorough examination of the project and the steps involved in implementing it, as well as an assessment of contracts, procurement papers, design criteria, and siting variables. Plans are made for the building site, including any subcontracting clauses, as well as for the supply of materials and the availability of staff. There will be a thorough investigation of all systematic studies of project components and organizational aspects. A thorough implementation timetable for the project is then envisioned. A project breakdown identifies all the lower-level components, and an analysis of operations on these components is carried out, including cost estimates. These documents from the planning stage are utilized as inputs. The project implementation papers serve as a contractual conduit between the contractor and the customer, it should be noted. At this point of the procedure, it is necessary to confirm that the project budget and schedule are in accordance with the developed plans for cost, time, and performance baseline management.

It goes without saying that, from the standpoint of effective management, special emphasis should be paid to project execution and concurrent project control, including practical feedback systems. The following aspects will be in particular under control: resource management, coordination of contractor and subcontractor activities on the job site, quality of supplies operations, and adherence to safety rules. In the event of deviations from the anticipated baseline, control actions should be taken as soon as possible. It should be emphasized that any delay in implementing corrective measures could jeopardize the project's overall success and its adherence to contract requirements while also taking into account the project's progress, specifically its early stages. Every project concludes with a certain number of lessons learnt. All concerns raised and errors made are assessed *ex post* when the project is finished, and the project initiative's financial viability is of course closely examined. There is evidence that in present practices, this last evaluation is sometimes disregarded, despite the fact that it should always be seen as a crucial prerequisite to the formation of corporate culture. It is true that performing critical assessments of projects and their execution provides a lesser likelihood of mistakes in future project endeavors and also prompts changes in organizations that are beneficial to their survival or, maybe, their potential for expansion.

The degree of uncertainty is obviously lower in the later project stages, whereas the initial stages of projects are typically characterized by uncertain perspectives in terms of schedule, cost, and adherence to performance expectations. On the other hand, mitigating the effects of delays occurring in the final stages of the project becomes more difficult and expensive. Since early choices have a greater influence on the project's development and successful conclusion, criticality is likewise higher in the early stages of the project. As previously mentioned, cost and schedule issues heavily impact construction projects, and their management is challenged by the uniqueness of project efforts, or - in more fortunate circumstances - a low degree of repetitiveness. Therefore, it is usually the case that only some project areas may employ reliable reference elements in terms of time, cost, and performance. planning for each project initiative necessitates the evaluation of particular reference elements.

The financial, schedule, and technical quality factors that go into project implementation may also be highly interdependent. For instance, delays in project activities may result in significantly higher project completion costs, whereas cost savings may come from better planning strategies that, for example, result in shorter workdays. Construction businesses often work in multi-project contexts, which are defined by projects that compete with one another for corporate resources or are overseen by the same person. Under these circumstances, it is necessary to specify the resources needed and the project priority concerns, both in the near term and, particularly, in the long term. This implies that accurate estimates are required to anticipate resource needs and timeframes throughout the project lifecycle, as well as an informed planning process. Project interdependences may be seen from two complimentary angles. When there are finish-to-start restrictions between two activities needing the use of the same one piece of available equipment, this occurs at the level of individual activities. when the resource needs of other projects in progress cannot be met with the resources that are now available at the project level as a whole. Theoretically, there is an easy way to resolve these conflicts: project priority based on certain standards like the ones listed below

1. Delivery schedules.
2. Potential fines.
3. Technological dangers.
4. The success of the project.
5. Anticipated cash flow.
6. Influence on other initiatives.

A project's life cycle basically consists of a series of processes starting with individual intentions and continuing until completion when all external inputs resulting from the variety of needs, as well as from economic and regulatory factors, are satisfactorily reconciled. Therefore, a project's increasing complexity throughout and beyond the design phase may need transdisciplinary and distinct activities. The management of a project, and more specifically the cost-effective management of its life cycle, calls for the right personal and professional skills, depending on the nature of the project itself, in addition to knowledge of a variety of concepts and the ability to follow predetermined procedures in order to facilitate a thorough assessment of issues related to the project life cycle. Any endeavor that produces novel and distinctive results always involves



some degree of risk. The typical division of projects into phases during the course of their existence offers a method to efficiently manage the project progress.

The creation of one or more deliverables, which stand for concrete and verifiable outputs like a feasibility study, a comprehensive project, or a structural component, is the important component of each stage of the project. A project review is conducted at the end of each stage to evaluate the deliverables produced and the project performance information at that time. Planning procedures are regularly used anytime a difference is identified between the project plan and its actual performance. They are not just related to the beginning of a specific project. Prior to the start of the project, preliminary plans are created that include a list of all the activities, the resources needed, who will be responsible for what, when they will happen, and how much they will cost. Preliminary plans have examples in execution plans.

For instance, the execution plan will provide the carpenter's name for the two-month assignment or two names, each for a one-month assignment, if the preliminary plan specifies that two person-months of a carpenter are needed for a certain activity. The dates specified in the preliminary plan as relative with regard to the project's start become absolute in the execution plan.

### **Planning the Scope**

Planning the project's scope entails defining in detail the tasks that will be either included in or omitted from the project's purpose. The project is broken down into a number of primary actions, which are often substantial and different from project to project.

## **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, for building and facility projects, controlling project cost and value is essential. Organizations may maximize cost-effectiveness, improve project results, and provide value to stakeholders by properly forecasting and managing costs, using value management, reducing risks, and using sustainable practices. Construction and facility projects may be successfully completed with the help of a systematic and proactive approach to project cost and value management that assures financial viability, reduces risks, and streamlines delivery. Establish a culture of continuous improvement, encourage creativity, and look for possibilities to increase project value and cost-efficiency during the course of the project.

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## CHAPTER 12

### A BRIEF OVERVIEW ON RISK MANAGEMENT PLANNING

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#### ABSTRACT:

Risk management planning is a fundamental process in project management that involves identifying, analyzing, and addressing potential risks that may impact project objectives. This chapter explores the significance of risk management planning, discussing the key steps involved in developing a comprehensive risk management plan. It highlights the importance of proactive risk identification, effective risk analysis techniques, risk response strategies, and ongoing monitoring and control. By implementing a robust risk management plan, organizations can anticipate and mitigate potential risks, enhance project success rates, and improve overall project performance.

#### KEYWORDS:

Contingency Planning, Decision-Making, Identification, Impact Assessment, Mitigation, Probability Analysis, Risk Appetite.

#### INTRODUCTION

All necessary steps to handle any unanticipated occurrences that can affect the project's performance are included in risk management. Risks may arise, for instance, when a project's need for a building permit is delayed, causing the project to be delayed as well, or when the project's human resources are constrained, making it more likely that an operator's sickness would put the project at danger [1], [2].

Planning for risk management and planning for risk factor responses are often two distinct planning processes. Activity durations and precedence restrictions are taken into consideration when planning project schedules based on the WBS that has been appropriately created for each project.

#### Planning Costs

Whether they are internal expenses or external costs, activity execution costs are seen to be the most evident cost factors in a project. The following costs should be taken into account in addition to execution costs: initial costs associated with the analysis of the owner's needs and the creation of preliminary plans. management and control costs associated with the definition of execution plans, review of requirements, assessment of deliverables, running of meetings, preparation of project reports, etc.. coordination costs associated with other project labor expenses not previously taken into account in cost categorization

## Effective Construction Site Installation Planning

As the initial phase of the site installation process, it is absolutely and often acceptable to create calendar durations and relationships between anticipated site activities. The following stage starts with a particular query: to what degree are we convinced that the logical process and the order of operations are really optimized and that we have reached the threshold in the current context? Prior to anything else, it's wise to take into account the volumes that are already available and make sure that the Site Installation Plan's internal lanes and storage spaces are well thought out. This is an important consideration since subcontractors are subject to restrictions on their procurement procedures, the amount of material to be put on-site, and the design of collective protection and site safety systems. Second, the quantity of equipment required to hoist the items for subcontractors to install on the job site should be taken into account [3], [4].

Since there are so many factors and components to take into account for an extensive debate, a step-by-step methodology must be used. To generate a quantitative suggestion of how to optimize the output-to-effort ratio, our main goal is the optimization of site design, operational sequence, and interfaces among work teams [5], [6]. In order to guarantee that safety risks are kept to a minimum, a good site installation schedule should take into consideration the conformity to specified safety criteria. The following operational procedures are presented as an illustration. Divide the building into separate basic work cells. schedule resources.

Identify the work breakdown element with the maximum time. and write a plan and assess the WBE to remove interruptions and inaction [7], [8]. The number of distinct workspaces used by unique activities performed by one team at a time is taken into account while designing the EWC. The maximum number of workspaces will depend on the size of each EWC. the smaller the cells, the less effective they will be in terms of operations and the advantages that will arise. The assessment of WBEs that are present in each EWC serves as the foundation for resource scheduling. This maximum length will often affect the scheduling of the succeeding activities in other workplaces. The WBE with the maximum duration is recognized, imposing a no crashing constraint. This situation often occurs in the casting of concrete [9], [10]. The WBE apportionment in the building's EWCs and the schedule drafting make up the third phase in the preceding list. The timetable should guarantee that work is done as continuously and uninterruptedly as feasible in each cell that is taken into consideration.

## DISCUSSION

### Organization of Construction Sites

An greater attention on organizational issues has resulted from the efficacy and financial advantages of novel organizational techniques, as well as the developing trend of unpredictability and competition in the modern construction industry. The most effective structure of the building process serves as the foundation for defining the rganizational aspects of construction sites, such that each action has a corresponding operator or operators in charge of it, and each operator has a distinct set of tasks, obligations, and hierarchical relationships. Additionally, operational procedures, control processes, dispute resolution techniques, information systems, and information flows must be defined for each activity.

More specifically, it is practical to maximize the differentiation and integration of tasks and responsibilities, allowing for any necessary task aggregation or transfer to a different operator,

making sure that responsibilities are clearly and firmly assigned, and making sure that control and conflict resolution procedures are effectively carried out. Block diagrams, flow charts, precedence diagrams, and a more thorough and comprehensive list of tasks will all be included in the final organizational structure. A baseline schedule will be established using all of these data sets. The following procedures will thereafter be carried out:

1. Defining organizational structures for site operations, individual subsystems operators, and specific subsystems.
2. Creating organizational blueprints.
3. Site operators may attend informational and training workshops.
4. Projects in construction with business components

The creation of the Business Case and the Business Plan, in terms of business, are concrete and objective requirements to assist in determining whether the initial formulation of a project takes into consideration, at the very least:

1. The initiative's content, including its users, information, and products.
2. The initiative's interfaces and environmental surroundings.
3. The necessary material, financial, and human resources to start the project.
4. The feasibility and swot analyses of the project.
5. The needs that the project initiative is designed to address and what the project's desired goal is.

To further explain the final statement, SWOT analysis is a commonly used approach that identifies and lists all potential project advantages and drawbacks. It is often used to support choices, particularly in the early phases of a project. This is explained in further depth in the list that follows: Strengths may include skills, experience, behavior, excitement, teammate support, and, from an organizational perspective, financial stability, which protects against unanticipated events and the effectiveness of external partnerships. Weaknesses they might be the opposite of the aforementioned strong elements. When weaknesses are examined, attention is drawn to how they may be strengthened or, alternatively, how they might need to be handled as limitations. Opportunities are favorable occurrences that, when they happen, help to achieve expectations for project success, including expectations for reaching budget and schedule objectives and expectations for benefits accruing after the project is actually completed. Threats they may be the results of flaws or outside pressures, such as the market, legislation, or other pertinent considerations. Construction Economics Foundations.

### **Construction Economics Play A Part In Project Life Cycle Management**

Buildings are relatively costly assets by nature. Costs primarily depend on the amount of time and physical resources that have been used. according to US practice data, a standard building's construction takes about one-fifth of a person's work life, whereas a skyscraper could take anywhere between 50 and 100 work lives, plus additional work lives for yearly maintenance. After the design phase is over, the building process is influenced by cost-effectiveness variables. It is better to work inside, where perfect circumstances prevail and automated operations are feasible. Accurate work organization, the purchase of materials from reliable suppliers at fair pricing, and meticulous material inflow plans should all be taken into account. De Valence makes the following noteworthy claim in his work on the professional role of experts in construction economics: Perhaps there is no conclusive response to the question,

What is CE?' inquiry, or maybe the response is dependent upon the initial impetus for the query. There are two approaches to the discussion of CE's future evolution, each reflecting a distinct perspective on CE.

In light of this, de Valence emphasizes. The difference between CE research conducted mostly by academics and CE practiced by quantity surveyors, cost consultants, and consulting economists who do life-cycle costing, investment assessment, and cost-benefit analyses. It would be accurate to state that practitioners are not very concerned with the discussion around the potential growth of CE and its theoretical underpinnings. But does it really matter to academics in CE? If so, what steps are being taken to address it? If not, why not? This makes an attempt to describe some of the difficulties the professional practice of CE is encountering more and more when it comes to the life cycle management of ongoing and upcoming building projects.

### **The Costs Aand Profits of Construction**

There are several practical economics that underpin the building process from conception through destruction. According to Myers, profit is a factor added in building expenses to cover the price of contracting firms' services. More precisely, normal profit is the bare minimum of compensation necessary to keep existing businesses operating in their current fields of output. In order to compute total revenues, which are derived by multiplying the quantity of goods sold by their prices, total expenses must first be subtracted from total revenues. Myers' main point, which is also a very clear point, is that construction economics encompasses the three viewpoints of an overview of the economy, a study of the industrial sector, and an analysis of the construction market.

This point is implied in his statement above that refers to the life cycle of projects. The opportunity cost of capital and labor, the relationship between output and inputs in business production processes, the idea of diminishing marginal returns, the short- and long-term fixed and variable costs, project costs, long-term costs, and economies of scale must all be taken into account for an accurate understanding of construction costs.

### **Budgeting and Cost Estimation's Impact on The Construction Process**

The following definitions are provided by the Association for the Advancement of Cost Engineering - International's publication of the Total Cost Management Framework. The predictive process known as cost estimating is used to quantify, cost, and price the resources needed to complete the scope of an investment choice, project, or activity. Allocating the expected cost of resources into cost accounts, which will be used as a benchmark for measuring and evaluating asset cost performance, is the function of budgeting, a subprocess of estimation. Cost estimation is a method for foreseeing ambiguous future expenses. In light of this, one objective of cost estimating is to reduce estimate uncertainty given the degree and caliber of scope delineation.

An predicted cost as well as a probabilistic cost distribution are desired outcomes of cost estimation. The accuracy of cost estimates is increased by using past reference cost data as a predictive procedure. By serving as the foundation for budgets, cost estimating and cost control share the objective of increasing the likelihood that the actual cost result would be the same as expected. There is no denying that estimating work is challenging, even if it must be remembered that initiatives that begin with bad estimates are condemned to failure.

### **Cheques For Quantities**

Depending on its use, a bill of quantities may be done in a variety of ways. Different criteria may be used for a quantitative examination of a structural element if, for instance, it is made up of simpler sub-elements like straight pipes, curved pipes, and other particular components that are of the same size.

**Mass:** In this scenario, the BOQ will provide the class of work element that corresponds to it as well as its mass, or an amount represented in the appropriate unit of measurement. A further contrast will be formed, taking into consideration the percentage rate of special components, between, instance, a rectilinear pipe and a more intricate drawing. Calculating the workload and analyzing the future work time will be made feasible by this.

**Length:** The pipe length, or a conventional length in the case of special components, may be used to identify the same pipe drawing. For materials to be acquired, basic component elements comprehensive lists may be utilized in line with the applicable Bills of Materials. Analysis of the Timeline and Costs for Budget Preparation.

### **Data and Timescales For Construction In Engineering**

To enable the execution of a schedule analysis, two crucial information groups are gathered based on engineering data:

1. The Amount That Must Be Put Together For Each Class Of Task Items So That Workloads, Timelines, And Staffing Needs May Be Estimated.
2. The Logical Restrictions On How Activities Should Be Performed, Which Should Be Determined In Line With Construction Knowledge.

Activity networks are created in accordance with operations sequences. Experience and best practices may provide a range of possible durations for an activity while also taking project structure and available resources into account. Early on, it is already feasible to determine the critical route and the conformity of the construction timetable to the limits of the entire project schedule. Workload estimates may be created as soon as the BOQ is released, often at degree 4 or Level 5 of the WBS, which is a higher degree of information than that utilized in the network analysis. When workloads are understood, it will be feasible to determine the resources that are needed and how they should be distributed in order to carry out additional improvements using the customary analytical-graphical techniques.

### **Parametric Budgets and Construction Costs**

An analytical approach to budget preparation criteria may be used, based on a thorough review of all the cost components of the job to be estimated. This will be covered in more detail later. A parametric budget, on the other hand, is one that is based on the identification of one or more factors that best describe the task and serve as benchmarks for the estimate. It should be underlined that there is a significant correlation between the level of project definition, budget accuracy, and budget preparation work. There are five distinct levels of budget categorization that may be imagined using an analogy to procedures in the process sector. The effort required to prepare the budget is quantified using statistical criteria, with the value 1 representing 0.005% of the project cost (including capital costs, engineering and construction costs, and other costs attributable to the owner) and the maximum value of 100 representing 0.5% of the project cost.

### Algebraic Budgets

According to levels IV and V of the AACE International classification, a BOQ and an outline characterization of the project plan and schedule are needed for the analytical approach to budget estimations. Budgeted expenses will be broken down into direct and indirect costs according to the project's cost breakdown structure. A specific efficiency factor will be chosen for the actual operating circumstances, and labor costs will be calculated using an estimate of the company's reference productivity statistics or information from bibliographical sources. Costs for materials and subcontracts will be calculated based on business data and revised, as necessary, to take into account more current offers.

As engineering efforts and owner discussions advance, budget estimations may be adjusted in succeeding rounds. This will result in a final budget that will serve as the foundation for the final proposal and the contract negotiation. Definitive budgets, which often fall under AACEI level V, will include detailed descriptions. High-level direct and indirect expenses that must be included in order to calculate either the projected contribution margin or the expected net profit margin. Both direct and indirect cost contingencies. The sum of three elements may, with some degree of simplification, be used to approximate the overall project cost  $C$ , which the contractor will estimate as part of the project proposal:

1. A predetermined sum  $C_0$ , which includes non-capitalized investment expenditures associated with opening and closing the facility.
2. Unit cost multiplied by quantity, which is connected to quantity.
3. A component that is time-related: unit cost times duration.
4. The whole spectrum of life cycle expenses and earnings will also be taken into account from the owner's perspective.

The construction budgeting process mandates risk analysis, which implies a practical economic evaluation of risk contingency, subject to the decision and power of the project manager. In conclusion, budgets may not be reasonable when the engineering effort is still in the basic stages or is poorly completed. An appropriate degree of technical detail is essential to estimate both costs and durations.

1. There must be a mechanism in place to regulate costs and schedules.
2. Cost and schedule risks need to take into consideration a stochastic situation at first and a later, imperfect shift to a deterministic scenario.
3. Effective integration between specialist project experts and generalist workers is required in complicated project contexts, which is to say, in the majority of situations.
4. Projects for the Economic Evaluation of Construction.

### Monies Flow

Cash initially leaving the project to cover the expenses of engineering, procurement, construction, and commissioning is a characteristic of all projects. Revenues start to come into the owning firm once the construction project enters its operational phase. The conditions of the contract that the owner organization has with an engineering, procurement, and construction business are often what govern how much money is spent by them throughout the design and construction phase of a project. Working capital is usually used to account for the extra money required beyond what it cost to create, commission, and maintain the asset. The ideal way to



think about working capital is as the money invested in the maintenance of assets. Since their timing is unclear and they typically occur far enough in the future to have little bearing on any of the profitability indicators, cash flows at the project's conclusion are frequently ignored in profitability analysis.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, planning for risk management is essential for project success. Organizations may reduce possible risks and enhance project performance by proactively identifying hazards, using efficient risk analysis methodologies, creating suitable risk response plans, and maintaining continual monitoring and control. Project teams are more likely to achieve project goals and provide effective results when they have a solid risk management strategy in place that allows them to anticipate and handle risks as they arise. Gather and examine lessons acquired from prior projects to identify common hazards, successful risk-reduction techniques, and areas for risk management planning improvement.

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## CHAPTER 13

### EXPLORING THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PROJECT FINANCING

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#### ABSTRACT:

Project financing is a critical aspect of project management that involves securing the necessary funds and financial resources to initiate, execute, and complete a project. This chapter explores the significance of project financing, discussing various sources of project funding, financing structures, and key considerations in securing project financing. It highlights the importance of financial feasibility analysis, risk assessment, and stakeholder engagement in the project financing process. By effectively managing project financing, organizations can ensure the availability of adequate funds, mitigate financial risks, and support the successful delivery of projects.

#### KEYWORDS:

Capital Investment, Cash Flow, Debt Financing, Equity Financing, Financial Modeling, Funding Sources, Infrastructure Finance.

#### INTRODUCTION

Large capital investments may be necessary for the financial management of the building life cycle. To support such initiatives, construction owners must obtain the necessary funds. The method used to acquire money to finance a building project defines the cost of capital for the owner, which in turn establishes the required financial rate of return. Therefore, to do economic analysis and design optimization, the construction project management needs be aware of this topic [1], [2]. All debt agreements stipulate that both interest and principal must be repaid. Interest payments are fixed expenses, and if a business can't afford to make them, its access to credit will be severely restricted. Since interest is taken from profits, the larger the company's leverage and, therefore, the danger to future earnings, future cash flows, and the company's financial stability. Therefore, finance managers are obliged to making sure that the expense of debt payment does not negatively impact the business [3], [4]. The interest rate employed in the economic assessment of projects is determined by the total cost of capital. If a corporation wants to achieve its planned return on equity and hence fulfill the expectations of its investors, the overall portfolio of projects it has backed must reach or surpass this interest rate [5], [6].

#### Depreciation And Taxes

Project cash flows may be significantly impacted by taxes. To evaluate the project's economics, the construction project management team should take into account the impacts of taxes and tax breaks like depreciation.

Governments may provide incentives to encourage businesses to undertake capital expenditures, which will lead to the creation of jobs, an increase in tax income, and other advantages for elected officials and the communities they serve. Tax allowances are the most often used incentives: As a tax deduction, some kind of depreciation charge is implemented, allowing the fixed capital investment to be subtracted from taxable income over time [7], [8]. Depreciation is a non-cash expense that lowers revenue for tax-related reasons. The depreciation charge is added back to the net income after taxes to produce the overall cash flow from operations since there is no cash expenditure for depreciation and no money is moved to any funds or accounts.

### **Response Analysis**

Only the most accurate projections of the necessary investment and cash flows may be used as the foundation for economic evaluations of projects. Since the actual cash flows realized in each year would be impacted by uncertainty factors, a sensitivity analysis is a means to examine the implications of forecast uncertainties on the viability of a project [9], [10]. Sensitivity analysis is used to pinpoint the variables that, given the parameters' projected range of variation, have a substantial impact on a project's feasibility. The base case for the study is established by first calculating the investment and cash flows using the most likely values that are taken into account for the different elements. The cost model's many parameters are then changed while assuming a range of inaccuracy for each individual component. This will demonstrate how susceptible the cash flows and economic standards are to forecasting mistakes. A sensitivity analysis provides some insight into the level of risk associated with making decisions about the project's anticipated performance.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Project Schedule and Cash Flows**

Both the owner and the contractor depend on the project schedule since it determines when project resources will be used up and how much money will flow through each phase of the project:

1. The owner is able to forecast time-phased payments based on how the project work packages are progressing.
2. The contractor may forecast changes in the gap between expenses spent and profits realized throughout project execution that are time-related.
3. Construction project management is unique throughout its implementation due to a variety of reasons, including the following:
4. the execution process's phasing.
5. the procurement process, including the legal provisions that apply to the payment schedule.
6. the discrepancy between the project proposal's cost estimate and the contractor's actual expenses incurred during project execution.
7. Up to a certain point in the project's timeframe, cash flows are negative, which may affect the contractor's ability to maintain the anticipated progress of work packages.

The project's financial strategy is quantified and adapted to the project timeline using the cash flow budget. Contractors sometimes have to incur expenditures before receiving payments according to the status of the project, for instance, to pay wages to employees. As a result,

contractors are required to temporarily borrow a specified sum of money or use their own financial resources to cover it. Financial circumstances at the building site are significantly influenced by contractual terms and owners' views toward project payments. Certain features are anticipated to be governed by contractual terms, such as:

1. Evaluation of completed job packages and payment that follows.
2. The tasks and obligations of operators throughout the payment process.
3. The longest amount of time that can be spent on each phase of the process.
4. The evaluation of projects' economies

### **Project Economic Analysis Principles**

As can be shown, assuming the project investment and cash flows are known, the investment payback period is one of the straightforward economic indicators that may be approximated rapidly. It may be calculated from the relationship between the total investment and the cash flow on average every year. All investments are made in year zero, and income start coming in right away. In a strict sense, the simple payback period is based on a cash flow, but in the sake of simplicity, taxes and depreciation are often overlooked and average yearly income is utilized in place of cash flow.

The Return on Investment (ROI) is a further straightforward indicator of economic success. The cumulative net profit is divided by the sum of the asset life and the original investment to get the ROI, which is an average value throughout the whole project.

### **An Evaluation of Private Projects**

Private projects are assessed based on their cost, value, and profitability, which are taken into account during the course of the project, which may be  $N$  years, for example. First, for each general year  $n$  during the project life cycle, the total cost LCC may be represented as a function of the yearly direct costs  $C_{dn}$ , the annual indirect costs  $C_{in}$ , and the discount factor  $i$  as follows: All of the aforementioned profitability measures, however, exhibit a serious flaw. In reality, they only take a short-term view into consideration, with the ideal scenario being that expenses and value gains materialize right away between the pre- and post-project states.

Actually, this is only true when a project is completed quickly and value and/or income improvements are seen. Instead, time-related models should be employed if periods are longer, which is almost usually the case. This is because the classical models mentioned above cannot be regarded as consistent in the manner they convey trustworthy profitability judgements.

Models based on project NPV are among these models, as was previously described. In this instance, profit conditions are steadily guaranteed as the NPV continues to increase. The internal ROR, or value of  $i$  that compares the discounted total of earnings to the discounted sum of expenses, is a third time-related indicator.

An iterative process is used to determine the internal ROR. The greater the value, the more profitably the project investment. For project execution, profitability indicators may be employed alone or in combination. In the early phases of a project, for instance, the payback period technique could be employed. But, as the project progresses, additional, better indicators will provide more precise insights into the project's profitability.

### Analyzing Public Projects

Cost-benefit analyses help discover public initiatives that will be economically feasible for a community to implement. The use of quantitative economic principles as the foundation for project evaluation is the main goal of CBAs.

When creating CBAs, the shift from financial analysis to economic analysis is taken into account. These methods are especially distinct from one another because

1. Some expenses and advantages solely apply to the community involved in the project, not the organizations in charge of carrying out the project.
2. Economic analysis takes opportunity costs and prices associated with values accruing to the community into consideration, while financial analysis accounts for assets and services at market prices.

Benefits and expenses are best described as:

1. Advantages and expenses incurred directly by the entity that manages the asset life cycle and completes the project
2. Indirect gains and expenses incurred by parties not directly associated with the project's implementation.
3. The project execution and associated tasks necessary for the asset's functioning are included in both the investment costs and the subsequent life cycle costs.

The misalignment of the cost and benefit deadlines is a major issue with CBAs. As a result, in order to compare the two project lifetime cash flows, they must be discounted at the same rate and scaled to the same point in time. This determination is accomplished by taking into account the economic life of the building, or the time beyond which the net marginal yearly benefit, discounted to time zero, only slightly improves the economic NPV. The defining of the appropriate discounting rate is the next issue, regardless of the economic situation. This worth may be determined financially by comparing it to the returns on other investments. On the other hand, there is no such agreement on how to define a practical discounting rate from an economic perspective. The most common project selection criteria obtained from CBAs are as follows:

1. The ratio of discounted benefits to costs.
2. The project's net benefits as evaluated by npv, which is the discounted value of the difference between revenues and expenses.

### Project's Internal Return On Investment (ROR)

The internal ROR and NPV criterion are often comparable. The NPV criteria, however influenced by financial values, is often seen as more dependable than the internal ROR, which is itself dimensionless. When the discount rate used to determine whether an internal ROR is high or low is the same as the discount rate used in NPV calculations, comparable project information may be derived using these criteria. The distribution of project costs and returns throughout the course of a project. For businesses looking to pursue the initiative of a project, the economic justification of projects, that is, the evaluation of an investment for a project, is undoubtedly a top issue. Current debates on the Return on Investment (ROI) of projects and how to calculate it sometimes overlook the fact that the ROI is fundamentally connected to the profitability of the

whole company and derives from the ratio of its operational income to the value of investments. The ROP is a better notion to use when talking about a specific project.

Two explanations are needed up front before delving into further depth on this. The project's costs and incomes can be taken into account in a sort of business case based on a simulation that will allow the organization to assess the relative impact of the various situations, keeping in mind the underlying degree of uncertainty in this approach. First, it is typical for returns and investments related to the project to be estimated around the time of its initiation when relevant information on the project is hazy. The second preamble is derived from the kinds of costs to be taken into account. Before the ultimate product of the project has started its operational cycle, however, expenses cannot be compared to the costs spent since returns are still close to zero or negative. At that point, however, costs will have reached a specific level. On the other hand, if the presumptions behind the business case are shown to be accurate, the ROI will increase as the project's product is used. In addition, because of the resources used, operational expenses are incurred. Now that these points have been clarified, it is feasible to understand how the ROP may be approximated in reality. The example's numerical estimates for project costs and benefits are only illustrative.

Benefits of the project, which are calculated from the first year of operation and maintenance after the project setup stage, relate to lower resource requirements and less costly operations. On the other hand, fixed expenses are billed during the setup phase, followed by yearly operating and maintenance costs. It is obvious that costs are anticipated to be greater during the setup phase and the first year of the five-year operating and maintenance term.

### **ROP Calculation Example**

The yearly difference between benefits and expenses divided by the total costs over the course of five years yields the ROP. With the use of this data, a sensitivity analysis could be able to provide further light on how changes in values might affect the ROP. The resulting ROP, for instance, will be 24.02 percent if investment costs fall from 23,000 currency units to 21,200, which is a very slight increase. However, if higher investment costs result in a 10% decrease in operating and maintenance costs, the resulting ROP could reach 32.12 percent. From a broad viewpoint, it is possible to derive the following conclusion: the return on a project should be weighed against both its original expenditures and any ongoing running and maintenance expenses. This necessitates taking into account the project output's usual lifespan, during which running and maintenance expenses normally much outweigh project setup costs. Finding Information on Cost and Life Expectancy.

### **The Function of Life Cycle and Cost Data**

Regardless of whether this calculation is done during the operating life of the asset to maximize the remaining value in the asset or prior to initial construction to select the best economic solution, cost and life expectancy information are fundamental to the calculation of life cycle costs. These two types of information are often gathered from separate sources and hence constitute two independent information collecting activities, even if cost and life expectancy may be connected since it is typically true but not always true that more costly materials and components last longer. Naturally, the accuracy of the total Life Cycle Cost estimate will depend on the accuracy of the data that can be gathered. It's crucial to understand that other variables that impact LCC accuracy also exist. However, they will not be discussed in this article. The most

time-consuming and hence most costly activity in an LCC research may be gathering cost and life cycle data. In this article, we'll take a closer look at some of the information sources that are out there, as well as the practical challenges that this information presents for LCC analysts and possible solutions.

Information on cost and life expectancy is structured. Every action or event that contributes to an LCC study must have a cost or benefit if an LCC study is an examination of all the costs and benefits connected with a project throughout its lifespan. Therefore, it is typical for an LCC model to consist of a list of actions or events that take place during the life cycle in its most basic form. This list has to be organized since it will likely be extensive. Other chapters in this book discuss the idea of a work breakdown structure, although these discussions are often limited to a breakdown of the jobs involved with early construction. Although this is useful for classifying life cycle costs, a more thorough analysis of expenses is required. One helpful framework provided in the UK addendum to ISO 15686-5 is one that may be used to arrange all of the expenditures related to the life cycle of an asset. The easiest way to demonstrate this is with a diagram, and it is based on the ISO definition of what is included in both whole-life costs and life cycle costs. The breakdown of cost components within the Whole Life Cost and the LCC is shown in 16.1, which is derived from ISO 15686-5. While the ISO considers occupancy expenses as part of non-construction costs, this version classifies them as a subcategory of life cycle costs.

### **Differentiating the WLC and the LCC**

The following factors are generally taken into consideration while choosing the cost categories that are acceptable for every specific LCC study:

1. The kind of research that is conducted.
2. The client's brief for the research that was commissioned.
3. The time and money available to add certain cost aspects while excluding others.
4. Other relevant case-specific practical concerns.

Analysts should use caution to avoid adding any bias to the research by blindly adhering to customer requests. To establish the replacement dates for each item, information regarding the life expectancy of the various materials, components, or assemblies being included in an LCC study must be gathered. Obviously, objects will only need to be changed if their expected lifespan is within the study period, which is the time frame that the study will cover. The life cycle cost model must account for the possibility of many replacements for items with limited life expectancies relative to the research period. It is crucial to distinguish between a study that begins with initial construction, where it is assumed that all materials and components start as new, and a study that models the life cycle cost of an existing building, system, or product when examining the impact of life expectancy on an LCC study.

In the latter scenario, a survey of the current objects is required as part of the data gathering phase of the research to determine their condition and, therefore, their remaining useful life. Knowing when each item was placed will be useful for this exercise. It may have happened during original construction at a previous period or during a more recent replacement. The predicted life expectancy of each item must also be known in order to estimate the next replacement date and any future replacement dates as precisely as feasible. Different sources may provide the cost data required for an LCC analysis. Both public and private sources are included



in this, and each has benefits and problems of its own. Price books are common names for public sources of cost data, however nowadays they are more likely to be in the form of databases or be accessible via online subscription services. The E&F Spon series, which has been published in various iterations since 1873 and presently includes architecture and building, mechanical and electrical services, exterior works and landscaping, and civil engineering and highway works, is one of the most well-known price books in the UK. Even though this price book is now available in four distinct volumes, it still has the same drawback as all other public price books—namely, a narrow choice of activities.

The practicalities of publishing, which are unproblematic for electronic databases, or the depth of information at the compilers' disposal, establish the limit. It is believed that Davis Langdon, a sizable and well-known quantity surveying firm, draws on the knowledge of its in-house surveyors as well as the breadth of construction contracts it participates in each year when editing the information found in the Spon's price books. The BCIS subscription service, which is run as a division of the Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors, is another resource for pricing data. There will always be some items that are too specialized to allow a general cost to be calculated or are recent innovations where the experience of calculating a cost has not had time to become established. This is true even though the compilers of any price book will have built up a large database of the most frequently used materials, components, and systems.

Most of the expenses in price books are often shown as unit builds-ups that combine a material element and a labor element. For instance, the cost of carpet flooring will be stated using a unit of measurement, in this case square meters, together with a material cost, such as £5.50, and a labor demand, such as 0.2 hours. The whole price book will be subject to a fixed labor rate, say £12.50/hour. The total unit rate, in this case £8.00/m<sup>2</sup>, is then determined using the material cost and labor required.

On the theory that a cheap carpet takes the same amount of time to lay as an expensive carpet, prices for various quality carpets may be derived by changing the material component of the price. Public pricing books offer the benefit of openness but the drawback of having little substance. This implies that auditors or reviewers may do a cross-check on the cost data utilized in an LCC study. An organization may build and maintain its own database of cost data as an alternative to using public sources of cost data. There will undoubtedly be overhead costs involved, but if the firm just has a few cost components to maintain, it may be profitable.

It could also be required if the organization wants prices for components that are too specialized to be included in price guides available to the general public. This strategy also requires that the organization be the owner or manager of a large estate, ensuring that the range of resources that will likely be required for future initiatives are already covered by existing structures or infrastructure. The Property Services Agency, which used to manage and maintain property for central government departments, is a notable example of this in the UK. The PSA produced and published schedules of rates for various sorts of construction work using this variety of structures as a ready supply of cost data for the types of buildings that the government was expected to require. The pricing books were still being issued and maintained by a private sector firm after the PSA was shut down. In practice, it is doubtful that relying just on private or public sources of knowledge would be enough. It will be required to use a mix of the two for many practical LCC investigations. The challenge of ensuring that all cost data is equally accurate is one effect of this hybrid approach. The section on practical concerns goes into greater information about this.

### **Sources of Data on Life Expectancy**

Every physical object, system, or component that is a part of an LCC study has to have a life expectancy estimate. As was previously mentioned, this is done in order to properly plan the replacement expenses within the research period and, as a result, determine the accurate net present values of those replacement operations. Statistics on life expectancy may be difficult to get, often even more so than statistics on costs. In many instances, this is due to the perception among building and infrastructure owners that life expectancy information is less immediately relevant than cost data, which can be used to calculate departmental budgets for capital projects as well as ongoing maintenance and utilities bills. Additionally, producers of materials and manufacturers of equipment have a vested interest in ensuring that their product is thought to have the longest possible life expectancy, even though they may not always offer the warranties or guarantees that would expose them to financial obligations in the event of premature failure.

Life expectancy data may be acquired from both public and private sources, with many of the same benefits and drawbacks as cost data. Public sources are easy to access or acquire, although they are not as thorough as public price books. Since many comparable materials or items would have the same fundamental life expectancy, this is to be anticipated. Additionally, the public information sources are not updated as often as pricing books. Again, this is to be anticipated as life expectancy is much more strongly tied to manufacturing processes and underlying technology, which may remain constant for many years, while prices shift from year to year and even from month to month. These circumstances have the effect of limiting the availability of life expectancy information to sporadic research operations or to certain regions of construction activity since life expectancy information is not as financially rewarding to gather and disseminate.

The biggest drawback of publicly available life expectancy data is that it typically represents expert estimates of the typical lifespan of a particular material or type of component rather than systematic measurements of the actual lifespan of materials and components in actual projects. Despite the fact that the second option would be considerably preferable from the standpoints of independence and openness, it is usually often not feasible due to the expenditures involved in gathering and analyzing the necessary data. Public life expectancy information almost definitely won't apply in every way to any individual project since it often represents the average life of a material or component. This is not an issue with certain LCC studies. The additional accuracy acquired by more precisely modeling the project scenario is not necessary, especially when an LCC analysis is being conducted on a design that is still in the idea stage. The contextual information about how the project as a whole differs from the typical situation is also likely to have a similar impact on each separate LCC model and won't affect the relative difference in calculated LCC between the alternatives in a study comparing different technical designs.

Even more so than cost data, private sources of life expectancy statistics are influenced by the size of the owner's or operator's estate. Since real installation and replacement dates for materials and equipment are recorded, public life expectancy data can only be calculated if there is a long history of estate management to draw upon. For small estate owners, working together with other like-minded groups via a network or association is the only realistic option for such organizations to receive private life expectancy information. Even so, it will be difficult to link each precise piece of information to the location, purpose, initial specification, and maintenance ethos followed at each site. The database of building services component life managed by the

American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers is one example of a group-wide collection of life expectancy statistics. This was initially intended to be an ongoing internal research effort involving ASHRAE members. The data set may be downloaded in spreadsheet form, and access to the online database is free. Of course, this information is limited to US structures and concentrates on equipment kinds and standards utilized in the US. For projects and applications outside the US, the data may still be valuable as a cross-check of information from other sources despite this constraint.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, A key component of project management is project funding. Organizations can guarantee the availability of sufficient funds, reduce financial uncertainties, and support the successful completion of projects by conducting thorough financial feasibility analyses, securing appropriate funding sources, implementing suitable financing structures, and effectively managing financial risks. Strategic project finance increases a project's financial feasibility, sustainability, and overall success, helping it to fulfill its goals and satisfy its stakeholders. Track actual costs and revenues versus predictions, review project financial performance over time, and make any required changes to finance methods and plans as the project develops.

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## CHAPTER 14

### PRACTICAL ISSUES WITH COST AND LIFE EXPECTANCY INFORMATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

Cost and life expectancy information is crucial in various domains, including construction, manufacturing, and asset management, as it helps organizations make informed decisions regarding investments, maintenance strategies, and resource allocation. However, practical issues often arise when dealing with cost and life expectancy data, such as data accuracy, reliability, availability, and interpretation. This chapter explores the practical challenges associated with cost and life expectancy information, including data collection methods, data quality assurance, data integration, and the utilization of such information in decision-making processes. It emphasizes the importance of addressing these practical issues to ensure the effective and reliable use of cost and life expectancy information for informed decision-making.

#### KEYWORDS:

Depreciation, Documentation, Estimation Errors, Maintenance Costs, Obsolescence, Predictive Models, Reliability.

#### INTRODUCTION

The fact that the published data tends to be a single indicating the average cost or average life expectancy for a certain component or building activity is one of the most important practical challenges with utilizing publicly accessible cost and life expectancy information. While this could be enough for early investigations when just very rough estimates are needed, it might not be adequate for subsequent in-depth research where more accuracy is necessary. However, there are approaches that may be used to convert a general average cost or life expectancy into a project-specific one. The typical method for converting a generic cost to a project-specific one is to apply correction factors to either the whole cost or to its two main components, the material element and the labor element. Price indexation and geographical correction are the two main forms of adjustment variables for the total cost [1], [2]. Price indexation is a method of accounting for price changes brought on by inflation or deflation that have taken place between the time a published cost was right at the time it was compiled and the time it is needed. Particularly with published pricing books, where editions are often released once a year, this is a problem. However, prices in reality are always shifting.

The published prices will be linked to a price index, and the price book's publishers will typically provide a monthly update to the price index, which users may use to update the published prices. A price index of 234 may, for instance, be mentioned in a price book that was released in

January 2014 and is based on an index that began with a value of 100 in January 1990. The index may have risen to 237 for a project being costed in July 2014. thus, any price in the book may be updated by multiplying it by the ratio 237/100. Geographical indexation is a general adjustment that takes into account the fact that building work costs vary throughout a nation. The price book will be based either on average costs throughout the nation or on pricing at a specific place. The publishers' research of regional expenses will be used to create indexes for various areas. The price book may, for instance, provide a UK-average price with an index of 100. However, the price index for a project in London can be 115, in which case all costs should be multiplied by 115/100 to get a local pricing. The local price will be 92/100 of the national price for a project in Wales if the price index is 92.

In addition to indexing the whole cost, an index may be applied just to the material or labor component, or even several indices might be applied to each. This enables pricing variations that reflect regional labor prices or various material costs dependent on distance from the producer [3], [4]. To take into consideration the nature of the project or the site, an alternative kind of indexation is used. For instance, locations with very strict security requirements, like defense facilities, or locations with unique access restrictions, like inner-city locations, may use a special cost index to account for the extra costs associated with gaining access and other activities that shorten the actual working day [5], [6]. The suggested method is to employ a series of correction factors to account for various features of the material or component installation, exposure, and usage in order to adapt a generic life expectancy to a project-specific one. In ISO 15686, a set of correction factors is mentioned. This also offers a few factors to take into account while choosing the right amount for each corrective factor.

The variation in life expectancy for the same or comparable things according to various sources is a practical problem with published life expectancy statistics. Rather than materials, this problem mostly affects machinery and its parts. The Building Services Research and Information Association in the UK conducted some research to compare the life expectancies for various building services components from various sources. This investigation demonstrated the enormous variety of life expectancies that might be found in the public domain. Fans, for instance, were assigned life expectancies ranging from five to thirty years. The case for an organization to keep or gather its own life expectancy data is strengthened by the existence of such large differences [7], [8]. The kind of information that is presented is another concern with published life expectancy data from a practical standpoint. According to some sources, a single denotes the average life expectancy. A range between upper and lower boundaries is provided by other sources. Some people provide a frequency distribution. Each has certain benefits and drawbacks, which are listed below. In life cycle cost models and computations, single s are the simplest to understand and use. However, they make no mention of the range of potential life expectancies, either above or below the average. The life expectancy data for mechanical and electrical equipment in CIBSE Guide M is an example of this kind of data [9], [10].

Simple ranges demonstrate the degree of variation between low and high life expectancies, but they do not reveal the nature of the distribution that lies between these two extremes. Because replacement dates must be determined from a single value in order to do basic life cycle cost estimates, this is often accomplished by using the midpoint of the range as a simple average. Both the size and the form of the life expectancy are shown via frequency distributions. Standard deviations, mean, and median values may all be computed. These distributions need data sets with real life expectancies, but not all kinds of components or materials have access to them. The

mean or median may be utilized in a simple life cycle cost estimate, but if more complex modeling utilizing Monte Carlo simulation is needed, the whole distribution can be employed.

## DISCUSSION

### Basic Requirements of Project Delivery Systems

Cost estimates must be precise, timely, and justified in order for construction projects to be successful, whether they are new projects, rehabilitation, repair, or sustainability initiatives. It is also believed that the build delivery technique is crucial. In comparing the two project delivery methods, Design Bid Build and Design Build Finance Operate Maintain, Prieto claims that under DBB, the owner retains a significant amount of the interface risk between the designer and builder, as well as integration risk across the primes in multi-prime projects. As the DBFOM contractor now carries both this interface risk and the integration risk across all project aspects, a DBFOM project delivery method fundamentally changes the risk profile of the owner. As a result, the Owner now owns risks related to his contract with the DBFOM contractor. Any shared risks or owner retained risks that have been agreed upon may be included in these risks.

For the sake of cooperation, transparency, and improved information, newer, cooperative construction delivery techniques, as well as construction cost estimation and project delivery software technologies, are both viewed as key breakthroughs. Job Order Contracting, which is a competitively negotiated, fixed-unit pricing, and indefinite quantity contract construction project procurement technique, is a popular kind of Integrated Project Delivery that was created around 25 years ago. Aside from other advantages claimed for the JOC system, reduced design costs and cheaper administration and procurement expenses are highlighted. Technical standards are established as part of the fundamental JOC agreement.

### Lifecycle Cost Management and Management of Life Cycles

The life cycle of a project may be likened metaphorically to a segment that is one meter long, including the idea stage, the building stage, the use stage, and many often necessary modifications of functional destination, up until the end of life is achieved. The first two centimeters of this segment may correspond to the time between the conception of the idea and its realization, the third centimeter to the completion of construction, the fifth to at least the ninetieth centimeters to the period of use and modification, and the last centimeter to the point at which the asset starts to lose its functionality, which heralds the end of its biological cycle.

Methods have been developed to measure a structure's functioning during the course of its existence against an ideal state that the construction may recognize as having just been created. The 'distance'  $D$  between the existing and ideal circumstances of functionality, which symbolizes the effort needed to return to ideal conditions, may be used to indicate the degree of functionality that is now present. Only when it is feasible to analyze each component of the building can this be appropriately evaluated. Structures, vertical walls, roofs, floors, staircases, elevators, and equipment are graded based on its state, and each component is assessed based on how much it costs relative to the total cost of the building. The product will be indicative of the element's refurbishment cost when the status score is multiplied by the ratio  $p$ , and the aggregate of these products will be indicative of the overall refurbishment cost on a scale from 0 to 1. Engineering and construction projects should take cost into consideration.

The distinctiveness of project expenses, which is expressed in the relevant Cost Breakdown Structure, is the overriding meaning of engineering and building projects. Direct costs and indirect costs are distinguished from one another. The expenses that change in proportion to production parameters are known as direct costs. First-level indirect costs and second-level indirect costs make up indirect expenses. Project cost accounting phrases include the following:

1. Gross margin is the sum of sales revenue minus direct expenses.
2. Net margin is equal to the sum of the gross margin and the indirect expenses.
3. Gross margin minus project-specific indirect expenses equals project profit.

Indirect costs might be one-time or related to a temporal variation, while direct costs are dependent on installation quantities. Direct expenses may also be divided into two categories: labor and material costs, and support costs. Always account for contingency reserves in regard to unforeseen cost consequences that might produce problems. Direct cost contingency reserves may be connected to technical or economic issues. Contingency reserves for indirect expenses are connected to financial or economic concerns. Depending on the degree of accuracy of the budget estimate and the project description, contingency reserves typically vary from 3 to 15% of expenses. If this contingency aspect were to be overlooked, the contribution margin would be impacted. Accidental occurrences or force majeure are examples of exogenous causes that result in unforeseen expenses. They may be converted into charges via insurance contracts. Endogenous elements relate to operational, technological, economic, and financial sources that are part of the project's inherently.

### **Construction Site Costs**

Cost accounting on building sites is not an easy task, particularly when many contracts are consolidated on one site. The many cost categories that exist at a given location must be handled individually and are associated with various production parameters. Expenses may be divided into internal expenses and external costs depending on their type.

The following are some examples of internal cost components: labor, logistics, supplies, machinery, and overheads. Subcontracts and included materials are two instances of external cost factors. The following categorization results from rearranging these cost elements according to their final destination:

1. The expense of managing and supervising the facility.
2. Expenses for site maintenance.
3. Site logistics expenses.
4. Site setup and tear down expenses.
5. The expense of setting up and taking down accommodations.
6. Expenses for on-site building projects.

### **Management and Supervision of The Site**

The majority of management cost components are allocated based on the production expenses of the site and include administrative, planning, and quality control responsibilities. Expenses associated with supervision include indirect employees. When subcontractors supervise themselves, these expenses must be tracked separately.

### **Help On The Site**

This category covers the expense of porters, housekeepers, caregivers, etc. Expenses for support workers and equipment depreciation are also covered. On-site construction expenses serve as the foundation for allocating each of these expenditures.

### **Project Logistics**

This category covers all staff living costs as well as the depreciation of accommodations, field tools, consumables, etc. According to actual staff attendance, costs in this area are allocated.

### **Setup And Shutdown of Site**

In accordance with the rules for setting up and taking down the site, labor and material costs are taken into consideration. Site shutdown costs may be calculated as 50% of site setup costs in the absence of analytical data.

### **Setup And Shutdown of Houses**

Labor, material, depreciation, and other costs are recorded in accordance with the set-up and shut-down processes for lodgings. If analytical data are not available, it is possible to estimate lodge closure costs at 50% of lodging setup expenses.

### **Construction Works Done On-Site**

Costs associated with the institutional setting are taken into consideration. These are organized into macro-activities, and the direct hours invested in each macro-activity serve as the foundation for allocation. The following formula will be used to determine average costs per manufacturing hour for each distinct location and each distinct macro-activity:

1. The number of production hours per month will be calculated using site information.
2. The number of monthly production hours multiplied by the relevant standard cost will be used to determine cost allocation.
3. For each cost center, an average cost per manufacturing hour will be calculated, and cost balances will be taken into consideration.

Cost management is crucial in construction projects. The following advantages of well-structured accounting information and cost documentation systems, which are the foundation of effective cost management methods, are briefly listed:

1. Improved project execution competence.
2. Improved direction and support for administrative duties.
3. Encouragement for participating in collaboration.
4. Easier detection of any deficiencies and the corresponding repair measures.
5. Services are improved. And
6. Lower expenses and higher earnings.

Understanding all cost components from project inception to conclusion is necessary for accurate project cost estimation across the whole life cycle. Included in this are the following: direct costs for materials and labor, indirect costs, general administrative expenses, profit, financing charges, owner expenses, and start-up costs. Costs of operation and maintenance may also be included while choosing between project options. According to the release of the ACEI Total Cost



Management Framework. Usually, the asset and project planning and assessment procedures are carried out simultaneously or iteratively with the cost estimation process.

### **Project Cost and Project Duration Trade-Offs**

Activity durations may be lowered if associated expenditures can be sustained, keeping in mind that project activity length is connected to the larger or lesser allocation of resources. As a result, activity durations may be regarded as choice factors that should be connected to project costs. 'Nominal' activity durations are usually calculated during the activity duration estimate exercise. durations may be lowered anytime a cost increase can be acceptable. When any current project timeline limitations would be violated by activities at their nominal length, shorter activity durations could be necessary. The best activity durations will be chosen by weighing higher activity expenses against shorter durations in order to meet deadline limitations for the overall project or specific project components. The examples of linear costs, convex costs, and concave costs will be explored. It can be shown that the difficulty of this endeavor is mostly connected to how the crashing cost is quantitatively impacted by shorter periods.

### **Convex Outlays**

In additional instances, the functional relationship  $c_i$  expresses the crashing cost for activity  $i$  as a convex function of the duration reduction  $y_i$ . When an additional effort is required to further shorten an activity's length, this condition arises sometimes. If costs are convex for all of the activities, the total cost function that is, the sum of activity costs will likewise be convex.

### **Cost**

A series of linear segments may be used to easily mimic the continuous cost curve in cases where the marginal cost of length reduction is, for instance, 10 for the first  $x$  weeks, 20 for weeks  $x + 1$  through week  $y$ , and 25 after week  $y$ .

### **Accurate Costs**

When there is less effort being made to shorten activity durations, crash costs are said to be concave. Though it is feasible, this is a scenario that doesn't happen very often. Consider the scenario where a difficult assembly of parts that must be fitted in orderly holes takes a carpenter five days to complete, costing five person-days. In the event that just four days are planned, a second carpenter must be employed, increasing the price to eight person-days. The overall time is reduced but the expense is increased as additional carpenters are employed. The continuous cost curve may be readily represented by a series of linear segments representing marginal costs, much like in the case of convex costs.

### **LCC Management of Constructed Assets Fundamentals**

The LCC is the total of the project's upfront costs, ongoing expenses, maintenance costs, and, if necessary, the costs associated with disposing of the project's product once it has served its purpose. This is the main word for a thorough evaluation of the prospective investment's total cost/benefit ratio. The meaning of LCC in the context of constructs is distinct from that explained in prior chapters of this book. The European Commission tasked the British business Davis Langdon Management Consulting with creating a standard European methodology for the evaluation of the LCC in constructions before ISO 15686-5:2008 Buildings and Constructed Assets - Service Life Planning. Part 5 - Life Cycle Costing was published in 2006. Life Cycle

Costing as a Contribution to Sustainable Construction: A Common Methodology was the name of the research project, which started in January 2006 and ended with a draft methodology and its supporting materials.

The European Commission had already published a message on The Competitiveness of the Construction Industry in November 1997, which covered the construction process in detail. The Commission determined that the construction industry needed to become more competitive, especially by implementing LCC analysis procedures and practical application requirements at various phases of the building process. The goal was to make sure that final users could thoroughly evaluate investment costs as well as ongoing whole-life costs to ascertain which solution would be best suited to their needs as well as the environmental constraints resulting from the strategic principles outlined by the Commission in 2004. Davis Langdon worked toward the following goals:

1. To make the building business more competitive.
2. To increase awareness of how much environmental issues impact life cycle costs.
3. To improve the efficiency of processes throughout the whole construction life cycle.
4. To reduce long-term expenses and provide more precise forecasts. And
5. Help improve procurement, risk, and data management procedures.

The affirmation that LCC review processes are fundamentally iterative was one of the results made. Construction projects evolve step-by-step, including decision points that demand the choice of goods, components, and materials and result in a gradual definition of the project's LCC as it moves closer to completion. The ISO standard 15686-5 defines the LCC of a structure as a component of the Whole Life Cost. In addition to case-specific costs of externalities, which are defined as costs associated with the asset that are not always reflected in the transaction costs between provider and consumer, the WLC also includes non-construction costs, in accordance with the BSIBICIS publication Standardized Method of Life Cycle Costing for Construction Procurement. From the revenue components specified in the publication, all of these expenses are deducted.

Construction costs, maintenance costs, operation costs, occupancy costs, and end-of-life expenses are therefore the cost components that make up the LCC. The latter comprises any additional end-of-life cost items requested by the customer as well as disposal inspection charges, demolition expenses, costs of reinstatement to comply with contractual obligations.

## **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, for cost and life expectancy data to be used effectively in decision-making processes, practical difficulties must be addressed. Organizations may fully use cost and life expectancy data by guaranteeing data quality and dependability, expanding data availability and accessibility, fostering data integration and interoperability, and strengthening data interpretation and decision-making skills. As a result, choices are made with more knowledge, resources are allocated more effectively, and organizational performance is enhanced across a variety of industries, including manufacturing, construction, and asset management. Provide stakeholders with education and awareness initiatives on data collecting methods, data analysis methodologies, and how to interpret cost and life expectancy statistics. As a result, stakeholders are better equipped to use the data and make wise choices.

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## CHAPTER 15

### THE UTILIZATION OF LCC TECHNIQUES AND ITS IMPACT

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#### ABSTRACT:

Life Cycle Cost (LCC) techniques are widely used in various industries to assess the total cost of owning and operating a product, system, or facility over its entire life cycle. This chapter explores the utilization of LCC techniques and their significance in decision-making processes. It discusses the key components of LCC analysis, including cost estimation, cost breakdown structure, discounting, and sensitivity analysis. The paper also highlights the benefits and challenges associated with LCC techniques and provides practical guidance for effectively implementing LCC analysis in different contexts. By utilizing LCC techniques, organizations can make informed decisions that consider both initial investment costs and long-term operating and maintenance costs, leading to improved financial outcomes and sustainable investments.

#### KEYWORDS:

Cost-Benefit Analysis, Decision-Making, Discount Rate, Economic Evaluation, Life Cycle Costing, Maintenance Costs, Net Present Value (NPV).

#### INTRODUCTION

Construction's total cost of ownership is estimated using LCC methodologies. They make sure that throughout a certain time period, comparative cost evaluations may be conducted while taking into account a variety of economic aspects that are pertinent throughout the project life cycle, such as original capital expenditures and future operations and asset replacement costs [1], [2]. While Life Cycle Costs are not obliged to be taken into account during the procurement process in European nations, they are somewhat included into public procurement rules for the determination of the most economically beneficial contract for building works and services. The phases of the processes are described, together with the anticipated results for each one, with regard to the aforementioned Davis Langdon findings that came about in response to the European Commission's request. Identify the primary goal of the LCC analysis in step one. A clear definition of the analysis's objectives and knowledge of how to use LCC correctly to get the desired results.

#### Determine The Lcc Analysis's Original Scope

Recognizing the following:

1. The scope of the LCC exercise.
2. The phases over which it will be applied.
3. The problems and information that are likely to be rel

4. Evant.
5. The particular client reporting needs.

Step three is to determine how sustainability analysis, specifically environmental analysis, relates to life cycle assessment. Understanding of the following:

1. The link between LCC and sustainability assessment.
2. The amount to which the results of a sustainability assessment will serve as inputs to the LCC process.
3. The extent to which the results of the LCC exercise will feed into a sustainability assessment.

Determine the period of analysis and the methods of economic evaluation in step four.

1. Determination of the analysis's time frame and the factors that influence it.
2. Determining the best methods for evaluating investment opportunities.

Identifying the need for more analyses is step five.

1. The preliminary risk uncertainty evaluation is finished.
2. Evaluation of the need for a formal risk management strategy and/or registry.
3. Selecting the risk assessment techniques that should be used.

#### **Confirm Key Parameters In Step 6: Identify Project And/or Asset Requirements**

1. Definition of the project's scope and the main characteristics of the asset.
2. A description of the project restrictions.
3. Definitions of pertinent performance criteria and quality standards.
4. Verification of the project's budget and schedule.
5. Including LCC time in the overall project schedule.

#### **Select Options To Be Included In The Lcc Exercise In Step 7.**

1. Determining which components of an asset should be the topic of an LCC study.
2. Choosing one or more possibilities for every factor that will be examined.
3. Identifying the necessary cost components.

#### **Assemble Cost And Time Data For Lcc Analysis In Step 8**

Identification of all expenses involved in the LCC exercise, their values, and any applicable add-on costs, as well as time-related information.

#### **Step 9: Confirm the Values of Financial Parameters and the Analysis Period**

1. The analysis's time frame is verified.
2. Valid values are validated for the financial parameters.
3. Tax-related matters are thought upon.
4. It is chosen how to apply financial criteria to the Cost Breakdown Structure.

Review the risk strategy and do a preliminary uncertainty risk assessment as part of step 10.

1. The indicated hazards' timetable is confirmed.
2. The risk registry is updated after a qualitative risk review.

3. It is proven that quantitative risk assessment is comprehensive.

### **Step 11: Complete The Necessary Economic Evaluation**

The LCC analysis is carried out, and the results are noted for step 14's usage.

### **PERFORM A DETAILED RISK UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS In Step 12**

Analyses of quantitative risk are conducted, and the findings are interpreted.

### **Step 13: Conduct A Sensitivity Assessment**

The findings of sensitivity analyses are then evaluated.

### **STEP 14: Interpret initial results and provide them in the necessary format.**

1. The analysis and interpretation of preliminary findings.
2. The relevant formats are used to show the results.
3. It is determined that the LCC exercise has to be repeated.

## **DISCUSSION**

The quantitative Life Cycle Assessment approach has been used to analyze, assess, and acknowledge the environmental effect of goods, particularly those used in construction and regarding the operations carried out throughout their life cycle, since the latter years of the 20th century [3], [4]. LCA primarily deals with how goods interact with their environment, including how resources are extracted, produced, used, and eventually disposed of. The environmental effects of the asset being evaluated are taken into account from the viewpoints of ecosystem health, human health, and resource depletion. The first definition of the assessment's goals and parameters. In support of this:

1. The purpose for the development of LCA and the use of its outcomes are made clear.
2. The output and its bounds, as well as the specifics of the scope, are specified.
3. Products' and services' anticipated performance is specified throughout the course of their full life cycles.
4. The data quality that is important to LCA is specified.

The Life Cycle Inventory is the next phase. This step includes defining the asset and its limits, creating a process flowchart, and managing the data, which includes the following:

1. Data gathering.
2. A description of computation methods.
3. Creating an inventory.
4. Examination of data variability, sensitivity, and uncertainty. And
5. Deliberate omissions are defined.

Impact assessment is the third step of LCA. This includes categorizing environmental impacts on human health, the environment, and resource depletion. characterizing environmental impacts using quantitative units. normalizing various environmental impacts according to a common scale. and weighing the contributions from various impact categories [5], [6]. The interpretation of findings is the last step in the LCA process. The objectives and scope of the assessment that were established at the start of the LCA are compared to the inventory stage and the assessment

stage. subsequently, conclusions and recommendations may be made, for example, to revisit the objectives and scope or, more importantly, to investigate the integration with economic, technical, and sociopolitical factors [7], [8].

Sustainable development will need to include all phases of the product life cycle, including manufacture, distribution, operation, and maintenance, as well as ultimate disposal, in a manner similar to that of LCA. This results in a product-system design approach that takes into account all supporting processes that take place throughout its life cycle [9], [10]. By examining every step of the product-system life cycle, the concepts of life cycle design give methodological methods to fulfill the goals of reducing environmental impact. Additionally, all material and energy inputs, as well as the effects of emissions and waste, are minimized both qualitatively and quantitatively as the environmental viewpoint is gradually incorporated into all life cycle activities, including design, management, and commercial operations. There are three scenarios in which the LCD method may be used:

1. design for the whole system and for all phases of the life cycle.
2. designing for systems-integrated goods.
3. create goods with the possibility of external control, either partly or entirely.

Any of these methods will aid in the quicker detection of environmental effects, allowing for their effective mitigation without further delaying actions until the next life cycle phases. The following technological and financial issues will be addressed by the relevant environmental strategies:

1. Use of materials and energy with care to utilize as little resources as possible.
2. Choosing resources with a long-term low environmental effect - assessing the eco-friendliness of materials, processes, and energy sources.
3. Maximizing product life by designing for a long lifespan and heavy use.
4. Increasing the usefulness of discarded materials via design.
5. Design for detachable components and materials allows for simpler disassembly.

Chen, Li, and Turner make the following claim about environmental impact assessment. A project's initial environmental, social, and economic implications are determined via an environmental impact assessment. Economic and environmental advantages of EIA include averted treatment/clean-up costs, implications of laws and regulations, and decreased project implementation and design costs and times. According to the same authors, the early successes of an EIA include the identification of important problems and concerns of interested parties as well as the determination of whether an EIA is necessary based on the information gathered. The following factors are taken into account at the scoping stage:

1. Identifying the job that has to be completed.
2. The qualities of the first design.
3. Connects to current planning and scheduling systems.
4. Identification of interesting locations.
5. Options to be considered.
6. Intended techniques for preventive and impact analysis.
7. Components, variables, and data types to be utilized.
8. A brief assessment of environmental effects, focusing on the most serious effects.

9. Possibilities for impact elimination or minimization.
10. Pertinent particular needs.
11. Provision for obtaining the permits needed to complete the project.

The project screening step primarily examines the project's components, size, resource consumption, sensitivity to possibly negative environmental consequences, and accident risk. As a consequence of the aforementioned steps, if an EIA is necessary, it provides further insights into the programmatic context, the project development context, as well as how those contexts interact with the present environmental context. From a programmatic standpoint, for instance, the degree of congruence between the proposed project and the goals of harmonization to existing plans is taken into account, along with a projected timeline for each project phase and an assessment of the project's level of viability based on its quantification. In the project development environment, the following factors are taken into account:

1. The project proposal's justification and its feasibility
2. Determining how the project idea and the current infrastructures interact.
3. A comparison of the project's implementation's advantages to those of the no-action option.
4. The assessment of potential new places.
5. The project's operational needs and a description of its technical requirements.
6. The definition of environmental sustainability elements impacting project resolution both during the building stage and the following operational management stage.
7. An explanation of the seating configurations.

### **Cost Categories and Sources Using the LCA Approach**

The use of an LCA method might sometimes result in significant expenditures if an EIA is conducted, which may need protracted authorization processes. According to Chen et al.

#### **Costs May Result From**

1. Creating the case, which includes creating an EIA.
2. The conduct of an investigation, including costs for counsel, attendees, inspections, etc..
3. Inactivity on the part of the project team between the end of design and the start of work, which may lead to communication problems.
4. Restrictions imposed on the consent.
5. Easing the local community's acceptance of the development with mitigators.
6. Delays brought on by reworking the idea to satisfy planning specifications. Diminished economic value of information made public.
7. The delay between the commencement of the income stream and the delayed return on investment.
8. Wasted effort if permission is not granted.

When analyzing the economic factors related to potential environmental degradation and energy consumption, the life cycle perspective ensures that the true costs of production and/or service supply are taken into account in addition to more conventional cost categories like capital outlays and operating expenditures. Following are some examples of economic phrases that are important from an environmental standpoint: The conventional costing method - only capital and operational expenses are taken into account in this accounting method. This method, which is



rather straightforward, may be used in research that compare several choices. Along with the customary capital and operational expenses, the comprehensive costing approach also includes other cost components that come from. From an ethically tenable standpoint, responsibility, regulatory-related costs, borrowing power, and societal concerns all point to this as a potentially contentious feature. This is a more practical method that may be used for economic project analysis. Life cycle costing takes into account all of the customary costs associated with projects and goods up to their eventual disposal.

### **According to the Life Cycle Assessment Handbook**

The Life Cycle Costing technique is one way to assess the economics of a product's life cycle when it comes to economic considerations. LCC is anticipated to become a required component of LCA applications. The Functions of Duration and Upkeep in Environmental Life Cycle Assessment. The extension of an asset's efficacy and usefulness is the purpose of maintenance, which is a related notion to sustainability. This is a particular goal for the built environment and a prerequisite for new building design. By doing maintenance or replacement work, structures may last longer as a whole without having to completely demolish and rebuild them. This reduces the negative environmental effects that may otherwise result from degradations or functional obsolescence. More specifically, prolonged periods may result in lower resource use and waste emissions.

To extend the asset life as needed, maintenance procedures might vary from minor fixes to major replacements. Renovation of assets is preferable to demolition or reconstruction in extreme cases when poor maintenance, degradation, and/or loss of functionality occur in order to effectively extend the lifespan of the entire building or, at the very least, of its components that still have some remaining performance capabilities. Actually, when a structure is demolished, part of the energy that was used in the material production process is lost, and more energy must be purchased to power the replacement building. The continuous usefulness of an asset, made possible by maintenance activities, on the other hand, guarantees that embodied energy is not lost, particularly for load-bearing structures, which store the greatest amount of energy and should not be demolished.

### **Constructions' Life Cycle and Components' Life Cycle**

The concept of the building life cycle includes the ideas of asset lifespan and maintenance. Depending on the use goals, this might be either longer or shorter. Certain reusable components will have a longer useful life when dismantled, although the ideas of life cycle and, therefore, of maintenance are obviously not relevant if buildings are designed for temporary use. In actuality, the majority of buildings have extended lifespans that exceed the usefulness of their constituent parts. As a consequence, if performance degradations take place, it is necessary to take into consideration both component life and needs for maintenance. According to pertinent data supplied by British and Swiss experts, the lifespan of building components may vary from 20 years to more than 60 years, depending on the component category outer and inner walls, roofs, windows, doors, linings, and equipment.

The useful service life of materials, components, or assemblies may be compared to the amount of time needed by the ecosystem to take into account the environmental effects connected with their production and disposal at the end of their useful lives to determine how durable they are. A very similar strategy is applicable to complete buildings. In these cases, life cycles must be

connected to the effects resulting from the production and disposal of their constituent parts. To avoid accounting simply for the life cycle of whole buildings and just associating the idea of life cycle with their length, a difference should be established between the life cycle of constructions and the life cycle of their components. In fact, this idea should be applied to all achievements that are necessary for the completion of projects and are connected to the lifespan of their components as well as those that occur before and beyond the useful life of such constructions. The 'cradle-to-grave' cycle of buildings starts as soon as they are finished on-site and ends with their destruction. nevertheless, they are created from parts that are produced in factories and are disposed of, maybe recycled, or reused at the end of their useful lives. As a result, there exist differences in the life cycles of components and construction. In terms of environmental assessment, the idea of the life cycle from cradle to grave encompasses all resources involved.

It should be noted that the definition of LCA takes into account the consumption of resources such as materials, energy, and water as well as emissions into the air, water, and soil resulting from the various construction-related processes such as raw material extraction, transportation, component manufacturing, building work, and operational management, demolition, and disposal. *The Effect of Operation Stage on Constructions' Environmental Balance.* When you consider a building's longer lifespan, the operating phase has the greatest environmental effect. Convenient rules relating to energy management and maintenance programs may minimize overall effects. Assuring performance levels for certain periods is one of the key goals of building maintenance in order to avoid deterioration and obsolescence and save resources. Extending the lifespan of buildings and the components inside them has further advantages. However, maintenance procedures which may range from simple cleaning or painting tasks to total component replacement have a greater negative influence on the environment. It has been claimed that when assessing the environmental effect of different solutions, LCA techniques often overlook component lifespan scenarios. When considering project options, this can change the trend line of environmental assessment from a life cycle viewpoint and should be given more thought.

As a result, there are two choices that might be considered throughout the building process. The first alternative is to choose solutions that need the least amount of maintenance, and the second is to use flexible, reversible solutions that reduce the number of component replacements if the impacts of obsolescence and deterioration are to be avoided. It is obvious that measures that should be ecologically friendly are also impacted by building lifespan. For instance, if a 25-year lifespan is anticipated, lightweight and reversible solutions are more suitable. Contrarily, long-lasting solutions with few maintenance needs are preferable for a life expectancy of 100 years, even when the embodied energy content might be quite high. Frequently, the difficulties surrounding the material's longevity and maintenance and replacement programs are largely disregarded, which weakens the efficacy and reasonedness of measures that are ecologically friendly. In conclusion, environmental effects must be carefully taken into account during the operational, construction, and afterwards, anytime maintenance activities are involved. The environmental design goals include energy savings together with longer durations, less maintenance procedures, and fewer component replacements.

*Scenarios for Scheduled Maintenance and Component Duration.* Environmental assessments made during the design stage will include a definition of maintenance cycles associated with a particular technical solution and of the related environmental impacts across the life cycle if a program of maintenance operations has been established. Additionally, the environmental effect

of the chosen technological solution at the operational stage may be more precisely estimated if a certain level of performance degradation is anticipated. As was already established, environmental evaluations typically overlook a variety of factors. One of these components is the component duration, which plays the function of treating components and the structures in which they are incorporated equally in terms of durations. Additionally, the environmental effect of maintenance procedures and the replacement of different components is often handled incorrectly. Finally, although the performance of components in use is often assumed to be constant, environmental evaluations should always take performance degradations into consideration. The majority of the time, the existence of these approximations results from a lack of knowledge on the lifespan of materials, maintenance frequency, and change in component performance with time. Thus, advantageous synergy between environmental evaluations and maintenance plans may be practical.

The key management tools for carrying out renovation tasks at predetermined intervals and for allocating the necessary resources are maintenance programs. A vast amount of information is needed to prepare a maintenance schedule, particularly in regards to component life cycles and the construction's anticipated usage. Maintenance programs effectively assist environmental evaluations that use an LCA methodology. Some physical degradations in buildings have become more frequent over the last several decades, necessitating extensive restorations when the buildings are 20 to 30 years old. It is impossible to talk about environmental sustainability without highlighting the negative effects of shorter lifetimes. Maintenance programs offer the chance to reduce waste and inefficiencies in the operational management of constructions and accommodate technical constructive solutions to variations in performance levels, as well as to prevent the risk of unexpected performance degradations and ensure appropriate quality levels throughout the lifetime of constructions.

## CONCLUSION

The use of LCC methodologies enables a thorough examination of the expenses related to each step of the life cycle, including procurement, operation, maintenance, and disposal. Organizations may make more accurate financial evaluations and improve resource allocation by taking into account all pertinent costs, such as the original investment, operating costs, maintenance costs, and end-of-life disposal costs. By taking into account the long-term economic implications of different options, LCC approaches help businesses make wise choices. Whether picking between various assets or comparing various project execution methodologies, comparing the life cycle costs of various solutions aids in finding the most cost-effective solution. LCC approaches provide a comprehensive viewpoint by accounting for both the initial expenditures and continuing operating costs.

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## CHAPTER 16

### LCA IN SUPPORT OF MAINTENANCE PROGRAMMED

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) is a systematic approach used to evaluate the environmental impacts of a product, process, or service throughout its entire life cycle. This chapter examines the utilization of LCA in support of maintenance programs, focusing on how LCA can contribute to identifying environmental hotspots, optimizing maintenance strategies, and promoting sustainable practices. It explores the key components of LCA, including goal and scope definition, inventory analysis, impact assessment, and interpretation of results. The paper also discusses the challenges and considerations in applying LCA to maintenance programs. By incorporating LCA into maintenance planning and decision-making, organizations can improve their environmental performance, reduce resource consumption, and enhance the overall sustainability of their operations.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Asset Management, Carbon Footprint, Decision-Making, Eco-Efficiency, Environmental Impact, Life Cycle Assessment.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The idea of longevity has so far been seen as advantageous for the environment. The concept of conservation is not always associated with environmental sustainability, however, as functional and technological obsolescence can result in operational inefficiencies and greater environmental impacts due to improper volume distribution or poor energy management [1], [2]. Utilizations and environmental consequences must basically be balanced during the course of an object's life cycle in order to maintain environmental sustainability. In addition, the environmental advantages resulting from improved component performance, increased energetic efficiency of utilities, and optimized asset use should be weighed against the environmentally harmful implications of both disposal processes for outdated components and manufacturing processes for new components [3], [4]. As a result of the foregoing, LCA actions support scheduled maintenance actions in an efficient manner. The goals of preventing degradations and reducing overall environmental impacts are likely to be met if a balance between performance losses and lesser impacts can be found, allowing for the identification of practical replacement intervals.

Using LCC concepts will undoubtedly be useful in determining maintenance intervals as functions of the expenditures that will be spent as a result. Combining operational expenses and environmental costs may increase awareness when creating operating schedules. Duration assurance scenarios and product-service systems. Due to growing expectations for performance

improvements, component endurance is unquestionably a crucial element. The introduction of product-service systems in the building industry may successfully extend durations. Buildings use these goods to provide services instead of products, therefore producers are obligated to offer performance guarantees. This is a crucial problem, particularly in the present environment of technical advancements connected to needs for renewable energy sources and requirements for energy conservation. Insulation thickness in buildings for the purpose of reducing heat loss is one example of the difficulties associated with construction duration. Insulation materials are in fact, generally speaking, characterized by a limited lifetime and depending on the accuracy of the design effort by some operational performance degradations. Poor construction quality can be caused by a number of things, including subpar materials, new materials with unknown time-dependent behavior, subpar operators, subpar management of subcontracted work, more advanced technology, and a lack of control regulations [5], [6]. Applications of product-service systems have to be made to complete structures. Global service offerings for construction operation and upkeep may help to advance management techniques. The present state of constructions and their constituent parts, as well as the precision of maintenance activities, may have a significant impact on this integrated service's efficacy.

## DISCUSSION

### **Environmental Certification of Constructions for Quality Assurance**

While highlighting the advantages resulting from savings in the areas of energy, water, waste, and pollution during the life cycle of constructions, including their disposal, several existing mechanisms support environmental sustainability assessments for the purpose of environmental certification of constructions. These processes have clear economic ramifications in terms of investment profitability, operational management cost efficiency, improved built environment quality, and increased value of surrounding regions [7], [8]. Materials, energy, water, pollution, operational and maintenance management requirements are all taken into account by the BREEAM methodology.

The following areas are covered by the LEED methodology: management planning for walls and floors, reduction of heat spots, improvement of energy efficiency, operational and maintenance planning and personnel training, maintenance of Building Automation System components, maintenance of Heating, Ventilating and Air Conditioning systems, and provisions for occupational safety and health. Comparatively, the Italian method takes into account the following performance metrics when determining how to guarantee a certain performance level throughout the operational stage: Construction documentation must be accessible, a maintenance plan must be developed and put into action that focuses on a multi-layered strategy (opportunity strategy, preventive scheduled strategy, predictive condition-based strategy, failure-based strategy), and performance assurance must be provided overall to guarantee the robustness and durability of elements [9], [10]. The attempts to standardize in areas like LCA, sustainability in building construction, service life planning of buildings and built assets, and sustainability of construction operations have been spearheaded by international organizations like ISO and CEN.

### **The Economic Effects of PPPFI in Projects**

Value for Money Assessment in Construction Projects Public-Private Partnerships, which are defined as agreements where public-sector organizations enter into long-term contractual agreements with private-sector entities for the construction or management of public-sector

infrastructure facilities by the private-sector entity or the provision of services by the private-sector entities on behalf of a public-sector entity, gained popularity in the 20th century because of the opportunity to use the tools provided by project management software. PPPs are more specifically partnerships between publicly owned organizations and private businesses with the goal of delivering infrastructure and services that have often been provided by the public sector.

A redistribution of project risks is ensured by the involvement of private partners in PPP projects. In addition, the financial structure of such initiatives is a significant consideration in terms of the balance between the various funding sources. For instance, under a PPP or Private Finance Initiative scheme, it is not necessary to 'buy' an entire hospital. rather, what is required is the availability of hospitalization services in order to share risks with the private partner, who is required to adhere to the set standards of safety, financial stability, dependability, and quality. The circumstances under which governments should adopt PPP have attracted the attention of professionals. to this end, the idea of value for money is used, and the methods and procedures used to assess it are examined.

### **The PPPS' Operational Procedures**

The UK, the first nation in the world to enact explicit PPP law, established PFI in 1992. In many nations today, whether they are European Union members or not, PPPs are based on special laws. It is becoming more commonplace to employ such a tool to supply public infrastructure and services. The success of PPPFI in projects is the result of a number of factors, all of which, in their most basic form, are related to particularly strict national budget restrictions, involving significant restrictions on the public resources available for investments in projects, particularly as a result of the financial crisis from the end of 2008 onward. Numerous professionals believe that project finance has undeniable advantages over more conventional procurement methods. According to Eurostat's guidelines for the handling of PPPs, one of the major improvements is thought to entail properly allocating contract risks between public and private parties, particularly during the transition to the operational stage. The examination of those activities in which public bodies are primarily responsible for paying the services provided forms the basis of this European best practice for risk distribution.

Increased adherence to budgeted expenses and timelines for planned activities is another major benefit. Only if contract conditions are fully agreed upon by the two parties before to the awarding of the contract and cannot be amended at a later stage unilaterally can this advantage be achieved. Based on prior experiences, this rarely happens sometimes. Sometimes issues develop when project approval procedures take place after the contract has been awarded and major modifications or even a complete rejection of mutually agreed-upon technical, contractual, and financial criteria are required. Benefits also result from private parties' performance incentives.

Private parties are given direct duties under project financing schemes, which encourages them to create high-quality projects that can be optimized over the long run. In order to get at a final formulation that will be the best in terms of the public interest and, at the same time, for the projected profitability of investors, interactions between the two parties throughout the award process may result in additional benefits. The best solution is determined via iterative conversations that result in practical modifications of the potential solutions envisioned by the various stakeholders, particularly for large projects.

## The Method for VfM Evaluation

When choosing between a PPP scheme and a more conventional procurement approach for building projects in sectors including transportation, healthcare, jail, and education, public entities must essentially answer at least two fundamental issues. A PPP scheme's feasibility and attractiveness in comparison to more established methods are the first two questions that need to be answered. Through an evaluation of a number of elements, both quantitatively determining the public organization's economic and financial viability and qualitatively identifying the most appropriate procurement solution, a VfM assessment can offer answers to the questions raised above. By their very nature, VfM approaches have a tendency to discover objective solutions based on both quantitative and qualitative factors, with the latter successfully assisting in a trustworthy and thorough selection process. Qualitative evaluations have also gained relevance as *ex ante* appraisal procedures to determine the profitability and feasibility of project funding schemes for the public sector as well as the capacity of the private sector to successfully provide services in response to shared interests.

## Vfm Analysis Components

A VfM analysis's starting point takes into account a number of particular components that address needs expressed at the project- or program-level and includes the following:

1. An ideal division of project risk among the various stakeholders, as proposed by the Eurostat PPP treatment decision.
2. Analysis of project costs throughout the course of the project's life cycle, also known as life cycle costs or, more broadly, whole life costs, goes beyond only construction costs and also incorporates a value-based criteria.
3. Integrating the planning and design processes for the facilities and services that will be provided during the course of the project. For the benefit of the user community, this is crucial in evaluating the asset's effective lifetime serviceability.
4. Implementation of an output specification approach by the public sector, which thoroughly outlines community needs in terms of technical and contractual requirements, with the expectation that private entities will develop proposals that adhere to the requirements stated but may also contribute with original and cutting-edge technological solutions.
5. Design flexibility is taking into account any changes that may be needed during the course of the project.
6. The potential for recovering project expenses via prudent financial flow planning, based on an examination of the asset market or the quantification of deliverable services and associated price. As a prerequisite to the circumstances under which sponsors and lenders may elect to join in the endeavor, this necessitates a correct allocation of market risk to the two parties.
7. A system of investment rewards that provides private businesses with the strongest performance incentives throughout the operational management stage.
8. Accuracy in evaluating contract conditions is necessary to take into account all important aspects of the asset's serviceability, the return on private investments, and other aspects affecting the stability of financial flows.
9. Evaluation of the project's complexity and assessment of its cost profile, particularly throughout the operational phase.



10. An assessment of supply-side capability, or the private sector's capacity to handle the project better than the public sector on the basis of competence, know-how, and superior competitiveness in terms of costs and benefits, is made.

### **Experiences with VfM Assessment in the UK**

The three levels of VfM evaluation are differentiated by HM Treasury's Green Book using the project life cycle perspective. A grouping of activities in a certain sector of public investments, such as hospitals, schools, offices, etc., is the focus of Stage 1 (Programme Level Assessment). PFI model applications are primarily evaluated in these investment programs via feasibility studies that establish, from a complete point of view, the presence of circumstances for a practical PFI implementation. Project Level evaluation repeats the VfM evaluation on distinct projects while implementing the results of a feasibility study. As a result, on the basis of the findings reached at the programme level, circumstances for the execution of a PFI in each of these individual projects are identified, and any special action that is necessary is recognized. Procurement Level Assessment (Stage 3), which compares more traditional assessment methods to the chosen proposal, establishes with certainty the level of confidence and quantitative VfM acquired via PFI implementation.

### **Goals of Qualitative Analysis**

Although there are variations in the evaluation methods across the three recognized stages of analysis, there are no variations in the goals of qualitative analysis, particularly between Stages 1 and 2. Qualitative evaluations reveal viability, desirability, and attainability.

### **Viability**

The evaluation of effective contract requirements that translate the goals and expectations of the public organization striving for good project results is the essence of the feasibility of a PFI solution. Even if all public projects have some value, not all of them may be able to be funded using project financing models that need private investment and a particular level of investor profitability. The following factors form the basis of a viability analysis:

1. The Capacity To Provide The Required Cash Flows Via Availability Payments Or Other Payment Methods As Necessary.
2. Measures Of Concessionaire Performance.
3. A Preliminary Estimate Of Capital Investments, As Well As The Amounts And Terms Of The Public Contributions Required To Cover Anticipated Capital Expenditures.  
A Review Of The Project's Operational Adaptability, Or Its Sensitivity To Changing Laws, Rules, And Technological Requirements Particular To The Application Field In Question.
4. The Establishment Of Project Parameters And Restrictions To Prevent Disputes From Impeding On Intended Scenarios And, For Instance, Restricting The Capacity Of Private Firms To Provide Required Services.

### **DESIRABILITY**

In this section of the qualitative analysis, we compare the anticipated increased project development costs to the advantages the public party might expect from the deployment of PFI models. In general, quantitative evaluations of VfM that specify revenues or costs obtained as a

result of anticipated benefits or drawbacks go hand in hand with qualitative desirability verifications. PFI methods, in general, promote better risk allocations and provide incentives for private partners to produce higher-quality services. However, public parties are required to review the costs associated with the service requirements and service delivery processes outlined in PFI contracts. These costs will then be contrasted with the economic climate for traditional procurement, taking into account the need for a more effective use of public funds.

A thorough risk analysis must come first. This is predicated on the following inquiry: Can the private party handle programme project risks more cost-effectively than the public party? The setting of this inquiry is a qualitative risk analysis, which is crucial for accurately identifying and distributing project risks. The quantitative analysis will next analyze these risks from a financial perspective. In order to ascertain if PFI schemes can truly provide the best potential efficiency levels in risk transfer to the private sector, payment methods and contract conditions are also examined. Second, creativity is a key idea in PFI initiatives. The more innovative a project is, the more likely it is that it will follow the contractual project finance strategy. In fact, private parties are permitted to invest in facilities and services with higher capabilities in order to guarantee expected returns on investments. On the other side, high levels of innovation might lead to unbalanced debt pricing and more cautious investor attitudes. The salvage value of investments is another topic that has to be thoroughly investigated. T

o do this, the facility's service life must be assessed, and any salvage value after the conclusion of the concession term must be calculated. This is crucial because, in order to prevent protracted concessions, public parties are interested in creating a realistic contract term and a chance to acknowledge a final value without depreciation. Furthermore, the use of PFI schemes in projects indicates that public parties would pay concessionaires according to the caliber and volume of services provided, transferring all market risks to public organizations. Therefore, the chosen payment method should take into account effective mechanisms for the evaluation of services, directly under the control of public parties for performance verifications. Such procedures, for instance, will take into account risk-rewarding circumstances for concessionaires as well as the application of certain penalties and rewards. Finally, while Cost Breakdown Structures are really taken into account and analyzed in the qualitative analysis, particularly with regard to costs for managing and providing services in the context of contract standards, WLC are evaluated in the quantitative analysis. The description of maintenance programs that private parties are required to follow in order for facilities to remain fully functional when returned to public property at the conclusion of the concession term is particularly important.

### **Achievability**

Assessments of viability and their associated advantages cannot be relied upon as a sufficient assurance that the hopes of the public would be met. PFI implementations will undoubtedly achieve public goals if the following two requirements are met:

1. The private market need to be able to guarantee a sufficient degree of skill. and
2. The capacity to conduct an effective competition process should be used to choose the best proposal.

The latter will, in fact, include tender costs that are anticipated to be much higher than those associated with conventional procurement strategies. This means that these private counterparts are expected to show their interest in complying with the requirements in order to ensure that the

PFI implementation in the project will actually be successful. Achievability will be based primarily on the ability of private parties to effectively respond to public demands. The availability of private markets that are sufficiently knowledgeable with concession procedures and prepared to engage in drawn-out and difficult tender processes will, in large part, decide the project's success.

Project financing activities that identify the interests and capabilities of private businesses are favorably supported by prior market testing that are carried out on a regular basis. The majority of project finance experts agree that this is a crucial best practice that guards against poor ideas that won't be approved by the market and collects useful input for the successful execution of chosen projects. To guarantee the maximum degree of clarity and competition with respect to tender processes, public organizations should have the necessary competencies to handle these procedures. Whether or whether a preferred bidder is chosen at a Best and Final Offer stage between the two remaining candidates, competitive conversation is the accepted worldwide method for awarding PFI contracts, in which there is a significant interaction and cooperative discussion between the parties. These processes may take a long time to complete and are often quite complex, necessitating the presence of certain professional expertise among public parties. The Value for Money Assessment Guidance from HM Treasury gives the following definition.

The EU Public Sector Procurement Directive established the competitive dialogue procurement process, and the Public Contracts Regulations 2006, which went into effect on January 31, 2006, integrated it into English law. For the bulk of PFI procurements, it is anticipated that the Competitive Dialogue Procedure will be the applicable procurement method. The very nature of competitive discourse has often drawn criticism since it burdens private firms with large transaction costs, which ostensibly restricts their ability to compete. Therefore, public organizations should consider whether the contract value and the importance of the project are sufficient explanations for the financial limits that tenderers face and that, in turn, stem from the acquisition processes. The disparity between tender participation expenses and the final project scope may be smaller, theoretically, the more successful the tender administration. The expected cost of tender participation, including the resources required, often places restrictions on even the best-structured enterprises eager to compete to complete a project. Applying incentives to tenderers, even taking into account the reimbursement of processing expenses, may assure more competition and better results.

### **Quantitative Analysis's Goals**

Comparing comparable activities to those that would be carried out if public financing were the sole source of support would allow for quantitative evaluations of the appropriateness of using private funds to launch and manage projects that are of interest to public parties. In order for the findings to be immediately and accurately evaluated, this comparison must be done in monetary terms. Costs for building and associated services, for instance, that are wholly supplied by private companies at the expense of the public party, will be calculated. Assuming that the concession contract includes both the construction and the life cycle management, and that the private party pays to the expense, the estimate will be repeated for the partnership scenario in contrast for comparison reasons.

While it is likely that the cost of procedures will be higher in the partnership case, at the very least because of the complexities involved in the contract awarding process, the cost of financing

will most likely be higher if the provision is entirely contracted to a private party by the public procurement agency. It is expected that expenses for the two aforementioned options contain a monetary value for the project-related risks that might materialize and have an effect at any point throughout the project's lifespan. While risks and associated costs will be split equally between the two parties in the partnership scenario, along with any economic consequences, in the other situation, risks and associated costs will be totally borne by the public party.

In the building phase, the cost risk is reflected financially by an expenditure that exceeds the original budget, but the risk of a delayed completion may be quantified financially by the revenue loss brought on by the delay in delivering the asset. In the case of public initiatives, the overrun will be totally charged to the public party, but in the case of partnerships, the cost sharing structure will be legally established. These two choices will be used to identify the risk owner. According to these hypotheses, the cost of risks is the deciding factor in whether any contract implementation style is appropriate. No matter how much risk is actually transferred to a private entity, the economic value of that risk will determine any VfM assessment necessary to begin a partnership, which in turn affects the added value gained by public entities as a result of risk transfer to private counterparts who will accept such risk transfer as long as they have a strong risk management system.

When an asset is wholly financed by the public party, the term public sector comparator may be used to refer to an estimated total cost on the premise that all risks involved in its development and life cycle management have a monetary value. Risks might be shifted to the private counterpart in the partnership scenario, or in the PFI scheme, allowing the cost inclusive of risk to be compared to the previous instance. The ensuing cost disparity will serve as a gauge of VfM, therefore an excess of PFI expenses would result in the PFI option being rejected. On the basis of an estimate of expenses to be expended from the initial concept of the initiative through the design phase and the following period of operational management, the project life cycle viewpoint should be taken into account in this sort of comparison. Cost and risk estimates, as well as ROI estimations, are needed in a year-by-year cash flow depiction for the two options until the conclusion of the life cycle, which typically lasts for many decades. For a certain discount rate, the various instances will be contrasted using the cash flows' Net Present Value. Basically, a preliminary confirmation of the most suitable PPP model should take into account the following research areas:

1. Examination of conformity with the relevant regulations and directives.
2. Identifying the necessary contract conditions, determining whether there are risks that may be shifted to the private counterpart.
3. The public party's organizational appropriateness and expertise for PPP ventures.
4. The financial sustainability of payment plans linked to both qualitative and quantitative measures of operational success.
5. The public's willingness to accept requests to pay for the services in accordance with fairly recognized prices.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Organizations may get a thorough knowledge of the environmental effects linked to maintenance operations by using LCA to assist maintenance strategies. Organizations may improve their environmental performance, use less resources, and increase overall sustainability by identifying environmental hotspots, improving maintenance techniques, and encouraging

sustainable behaviors. Engage stakeholders in sustainability activities relating to maintenance, including staff, clients, regulators, and communities. Encourage their involvement, collect feedback, and tell them of the environmental advantages brought about by LCA-informed maintenance techniques. Engagement of stakeholders encourages information exchange and builds support for sustainable maintenance initiatives.

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## CHAPTER 17

### A OVERVIEW ABOUT BASIC COSTS AND THE COST OF RISKS

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Cost estimation is a critical aspect of project management, and it involves considering both the basic costs and the cost of risks. Basic costs refer to the direct expenses associated with the project, such as labor, materials, equipment, and overhead. On the other hand, the cost of risks encompasses the potential financial impacts of uncertainties, including unforeseen events, delays, changes in scope, and resource constraints. This chapter explores the significance of understanding and incorporating both basic costs and the cost of risks in project cost estimation. It discusses various techniques and methodologies for estimating basic costs and assessing and managing risks. By considering both components, organizations can develop more accurate and comprehensive cost estimates, improve project budgeting and control, and enhance overall project success.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Contingency Costs, Direct Costs, Indirect Costs, Insurance Premiums, Labor Costs, Overhead Costs.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

In order to quantify the opportunity of pursuing either alternative and carefully take into account the full range of costs for the investment, the operational management, the finance costs, and the risks, which are all included in LCCs and, as applicable, in WLCs, it is necessary for the calculations in the mathematical model to test the VfM of a PFI initiative against a more traditional PSC procurement, on the basis of costs charged to the public entity. LCC components may be divided into two major categories: basic costs and risk costs. Basic costs include design costs, construction costs, financing costs, and operational management costs. These expenses are levied on the public party in order to complete the project and bring the initiative to a successful conclusion. The whole design cycle, from the conceptual stage to the detailed stage, is covered by design expenses. The whole cost of construction includes every stage leading up to the asset's ultimate delivery. Banks incur finance fees when they transfer funds to either the public or private partner. All functional requirements for the delivery of services at the required level are covered by operational management expenses [1], [2].

The majority of the time, PFI contracts have greater base costs than PSC contracts. Construction costs and operational management costs may be identical, although design costs and financing costs often have the most disparities [3], [4]. Why are design expenses so much higher? PFI scenarios need for very sophisticated design procedures, such as the creation of preliminary LCC

estimates that account for the ensuing construction and operation phases, which have a significant impact on the estimates' accuracy. Regarding financing costs, the difference in the PSC scenario may be the result of banks normally imposing more stringent criteria on private partners as opposed to more benevolent provisions typically applied to public entities.

## DISCUSSION

### Risk Transfer Mechanisms in PFI

The concept of risk is inherent in all planned and scheduled project initiatives, implying that the initial concept formulation for the initiative under consideration cannot take into account *ex ante* the future possible occurrence of events influencing the outcome of the initiative and, more specifically, inducing modifications in the initial assumptions for the project plan and schedule. However, effective risk management procedures make it easier to anticipate hazards, quantify them, and assign them to each project stakeholder [5], [6]. For the purpose of identifying potential risks during contract execution and agreeing on the risk share between parties, actions to be taken by either party as a result of future events that may or may not actually occur require some degree of prefiguration during contract negotiations. On the other hand, contracts and statements of work frequently fail to account for the quantification of these risks, or the extent of any unfavorable consequences for the party accepting the contract and translating those consequences into increased resource consumption and higher costs [7], [8].

The implications of risk in the economic and financial framework of project financing efforts are often not dealt with the same amount of attention, despite the fact that risk identification and risk distribution are common processes, though not entirely standard. This is especially important in VfM studies, because these consequences are stated in financial terms and take into account management assumptions for possibly negative outcomes. Since the whole PPP project life cycle, from planning to the end of the operational management stage, is considered the time of analysis, there will be some influence on the multiplicity and the rising quantity of risks in such initiatives. If risk is considered from a pessimistic perspective, that is, with reference to undesirable events, this means that in addition to the uncertainty of whether any undesirable event will actually occur, there are also more or less severe consequences that can be anticipated from events of a certain magnitude [9], [10]. Unwanted events in the context of the VfM approach are those that result in cost increases relative to estimates and expectations made during the planning stage additional costs above the baseline of PSCPFI express potential risks to be taken into account in the definition of total costs that will be billed to the public party.

A element of particular significance to the evaluation of cost sharing is the amount of risk that is assigned to each partner. The goal is not to shift risks to the private counterpart as much as possible. rather, it is to make sure that risks are handled by the party that is best able to do so, hence keeping costs to a minimum. The cost of risk to be transferred will be included by the private counterpart in its project proposal on the basis of relative risk management capability. However, when an excessive number or convenient share of risks is transferred to a private entity, the public organization may have to bear higher costs than would be anticipated if no transfer occurred. Instead, the more VfM will be acquired through a restriction of total initiative costs and from an optimal application of resources, the more rational the risk distribution agreed by the public organization. The evaluation of multiple risk levels and the contemporaneous risk allocation are inseparable in VfM approaches. Risk allocation has a direct impact on value since, as was already noted, various parties have varied skills and attitudes when it comes to managing

a particular risk. While public organizations are stronger in challenging the dynamics of underlying services needs for partnership projects, private entities are better at identifying and controlling construction cost overrun concerns.

### **Final Thoughts and Additional Remarks**

Prior risk identification leads to risk distribution and quantification. All dangers that are likely to be encountered during the partnership project should first be enumerated. This is a complicated procedure that calls for taking into account previous experiences of a similar kind as well as the contributions of people with sufficient ability and competence. Project risk identification may be aided by tools and methodologies that recommend the optimum allocation option for each partnership endeavor, while also acknowledging that each project has unique characteristics. Typically, risk identification processes result in the distinction between retained risks and transferable risks, the former of which includes project risks, construction risks, and all other risks that can be managed more effectively by the private party, and the latter of which is to be allocated to the public organization.

It should be highlighted once again that maximizing risk transfer is not a goal. Although it is necessary to lower the costs of uncertainties connected with the project to the maximum degree feasible, this cannot be addressed in a deterministic manner at the planning stage. Boussabaine's book, which he describes as setting out to explain how PFIPPP cost appraisal issues can be appreciated by means of the correct application of innovative costing methods, where the emphasis is on planning and control, has covered PFI and PPP construction projects in great detail from an economic perspective. *Moving Construction Projects Toward Successful Progress and Delivery. Construction Projects That Have Been Successful and Failures. Ones that are late and/or over-budget have much greater damage rates than ones that are on budget and on time, as has been frequently shown. Therefore, it is important to investigate the causes of projects running late and over budget. For instance, I just got a remark from my British coworker Andrew Townsend<sup>1</sup> stating that UK construction is so reclusive that it makes no attempt to learn from others. A list of causes for project overruns and overcosts follows this.*

1. Clients who are unsure about their needs.
2. Two clients who lack business acumen.
3. Erroneous contractual agreements.
4. Underfunding.
5. Price-only bidding without taking into account capacity or bidder quality.

fragmented execution organization that lacks managerial continuity during the course of the project.

1. There is little to no reason to take pride in one's job.
2. As a result, the owner has little to no pride in or ownership of the finished product.
3. Cost-based site execution without consideration for the impact of quality on the final output.
4. A lack of competence in or access to management resources for scheduling.
5. There is little to no quality control or assurance.
6. Lack of knowledge of the commissioning and handover procedures. And
7. Numerous disputes that often need attorneys in order to resolve snag listings
8. Final bills.



### **Construction Project Scope Definition - Initial Project Phases**

The creation of a thorough description of the project scope in line with specified business goals is one of the crucial phases leading to successful construction projects. To reduce capital costs and increase project profitability, businesses have relied on the growing efficacy of project management approaches for decades. The project's profitability may be successfully altered at the early stages of its life cycle, allowing for the future release of project permission to commit the vast majority of the project's capital investment and contract. Decision points are explicitly defined to permit the start of the project development activity within this first project term. These well-known decision gates are also effective procedures for maintaining ongoing project finance authorizations when necessary.

When the degree of project definition is sufficient to enable a firm estimate of the full project cost and its predicted rate of return in order for substantial project financing to be justified, the early project effort comes to an end. The final commissioning and delivery, where the previous project work is validated, will be the focus of the Engineering, Procurement, and Construction effort, which will be discussed in more depth later. The timing of scope modifications' incorporation has a significant effect on how such changes affect building projects. The bigger the potential impact on the project's profitability and the simpler the integration, the faster a modification is taken into account and included in the project scope. Later adjustments, particularly those made within the EPC era, on the other hand, are far more costly to execute and should be seen as very detrimental.

When the costs of implementing changes during the earlier phases of the project are higher than the benefits of doing so, late changes that could potentially be profitable are frequently not implemented. On the other hand, the cost of implementing changes during the later phases of the project is much higher than if the same change is made after detailed engineering is under way. As a result, anytime adjustments are actively sought out at an early stage, this will be much more helpful to the project's profitability than it would be if the need for changes were to become apparent only during later project stages. This suggests that potentially advantageous adjustments, as well as value enhancements, are needed as soon as possible, since there is a strong likelihood that they won't be feasible to execute within the ensuing EPC term. Applying knowledge of construction, operations, and maintenance early enough in the life cycle may also result in substantial profitability.

Within the context of building projects, financial and marketing possibilities are converted into technical specifications, after which project risks are recognized and effectively reduced to allow for substantial funding authorization. Before entering the EPC, the necessity for adjustments must be continuously taken into account as the work progresses. The demand for the project to maintain its profitability or Return on Project must be rigorously matched against the predictability of project life cycle expenses. The accuracy of cost estimates, the total number of project hours, and the cost estimate contingency are the main concerns of the earliest project stages. During the beginning stages of major projects, cost estimate uncertainty may vary from an initial 40% to a final 10%, while contingency may drop proportionally from 15-20% to around 10%. Between small and big projects, notably those where new or emerging technology is being utilized, there might be significant differences in the project hours spent during the preliminary stage.

The early consideration of schedule and cost targets, to be agreed upon by customer and contractor representatives in an integrated business and technical project team, makes improvements in the overall project performance conceivable. The ultimate goal is to guarantee better cost performance and shorter execution times for the initial project phases. Integrated project teams also influence the overall project costs and schedule and effectively manage the project, which results in the least amount of design changes over the course of the project, especially late changes. With regard to projects where teams are not - or are not properly - integrated, this implies lower investment costs, better and more predictable schedules, and better management. Considerable benefits may result whenever each project team member closely collaborates with each other team member to produce the most professional project outputs. However, this benefit may be lost once key team members are replaced after project teams are well-integrated and individual roles and duties are well defined.

### **Best Project Performance Provisions in the Early Project Phases**

The cost and schedule necessary for a successful completion of the first project stages are constantly under pressure and must be supported. This is particularly true for 'fast-track' projects where there may be heavy schedule constraints. Increased levels of prior planning work may result in significant time and money savings. Particularly after the start of the detailed engineering effort, when project changes may have a major connotation, namely typical impacts greater than 0.5 percent of the total project capital investment or one month in the critical path schedule, the level of project definition along the preliminary phases has an immediate impact on the final project output in terms of the number and consequences of changes in the subsequent EPC timeframe. The achievement of the best practical or highest level of project definition, along with the proactive profit-improving changes at an early stage, and the limited need for changes during the EPC phase are all confirmed, supporting the earlier assertion that better project performance should be pursued.

Regarding the impact of project scale, smaller projects usually gain more from improved project definition prior to starting the EPC effort than bigger ones. Likelier to occur on small projects than on bigger ones are late adjustments. Project teams should make sure that deliverables are issued according to the different EPC milestones before the EPC timeframe. A strategic business evaluation, an initial budgetary estimate, and an initial project milestone schedule are usually the first three steps. Later on, the focus shifts to fine-tuning earlier cost and schedule projections and taking potential project alternatives into account. If the proposed project objectively has the proper balance of overall risk and anticipated economic performance, additional modifications of cost estimates and timetable specifics are anticipated to result in project financing authorization. As part of the normal project deliverables in this period, a thorough EPC phase master schedule and an equally detailed EPC phase execution plan are made public.

## **Construction, Procurement, and Engineering**

### **Timeframe and Scope of The Epc**

Preliminary engineering is usually the first step in the EPC process, and it typically lasts for less than a year. To support project ideas, preliminary drawings and technical specifications with varied degrees of complexity are developed, along with related cost estimates. Afterwards, there is a thorough engineering phase that typically lasts one to two years. During this time, contractors are required to submit comprehensive estimates, comprehensive drawings, and

comprehensive documentation. Construction and procurement include tasks that must be completed simultaneously by the contractor and the purchaser over the course of many years. The purchaser's focus will be on site management, contractor control, quality control, health and safety regulations, and schedule and cost control. The contractors' participation will be concentrated on cost and schedule management, supplier and subcontractor management, contract planning and execution, quality control, health and safety requirements, and site management. The owner and the contractor will work together on operational control, inspections, and training as needed throughout the final start-up operations and perhaps during the commissioning phase.

### **The Traditional Epc Setup**

In the past, clients have been able to delegate engineering and construction management tasks to specialized professional businesses and contractors. This setup guarantees a straightforward process and well defined charges. In reality, all client choices are made during the engineering phase, and choosing the right contractor under a fixed-price arrangement usually assures that the cost objective is met. On the other hand, given that the thorough engineering process should be finished before moving forward with procurement, lengthier execution durations are to be anticipated. Since contractors who are those who are more directly familiar with daily problems occurring in construction sites - are typically excluded from the engineering effort by traditional procedures, additional difficulties may arise when the engineering specialists do not sufficiently consider the site management perspective. Customers' estimations of the cost of building may be off if they are unaware of these issues. Contractors will make an excessive profit when expenses are overstated, whereas disagreements or delays may happen when costs are underestimated.

### **Authentication System**

Essentially, this design adheres to the maximum of integration between the engineering and construction stages. The fact that these stages might be so closely related at times makes it uneconomical to finish the engineering work before choosing a contractor a crucial factor. In order to get better outcomes in terms of the project life cycle schedule and cost, engineering and construction are both outsourced to the chosen contractor. In addition, the owner retains exclusive partnerships with a single company that handles the engineering and construction work rather than two different organizations. The advantage of avoiding the problems with the conventional approach is offset by issues with the subcontracts structure. When contractors lack the necessary engineering and construction expertise, they often have to bring in a lot of specialized subcontractors, which raises issues with coordination and control.

### **A Model Of Overlapping Phases**

This third option improves the linkages between the engineering and construction processes, which overlap in the turn-key system. Top-down methods are used to collaboratively manage the engineering effort by the owner, professional experts, and other stakeholders. Each set of choices is coordinated with the construction effort, which is distributed among a number of specialized subcontractors. While it appears that using this model can shorten construction times to some extent, the level of risk that the owner must accept may increase due to the multiplicity of coordination and organization tasks needed to manage a large number of subcontractors as well as the inherent uncertainties in cost estimates, which will be discussed later in this. The

correctness of construction control procedures necessitates the use of the proper project management abilities.

### **Construction Project Quantitative Performance**

The ratio of the workload that was completed to the overall workload is used to evaluate quantitative performance. This rating reflects a useful performance and represents the real effort made to conform to the statement of work or contract obligation. When speaking in homogenous units, for instance, we get 1,200/5,000, or 24 percent, for a total excavation job of 5,000 cubic yards and a completed work of 1,200 cubic yards. Generally speaking, it is impossible to quantify the work done with a single unit. There will be a mixture of non-additive measures such as excavation cubic yards, concrete cubic yards, pounds of carpentry or pipe, yards of wires, etc. As a result, a suitable single unit must be developed for reasons of comparison and computation, such as workload, cost, and parametric layout. The ratio of the actual workload to the budgeted workload is determined for each class of task items. If workload data is unavailable, a comparable computation may be performed using contract pricing. While efficiency is determined by the ratio of the number of hours spent to the actual production, effectiveness and variation may be calculated from both the actual and projected output.

### **The Success of Construction Projects Financially**

The ratio of the cash received to the contract value is used to assess the financial performance. The following values may be specified if, for instance, an output  $F$  is anticipated while employing an amount  $R$  of resources, whilst an actual output  $F'$  is created using an amount  $R'$  of resources:

1. Efficiency as the  $F'/F$  ratio.
2. Productivity expressed as  $p' = F'/R'$ .
3. Projected output expressed as the proportion  $p = F/R$ .
4. Efficiency expressed as  $p'/p$ .

Standard productivity is the average production per work hour that can be statistically assessed under standard circumstances for a homogenous class of labor components. For the whole project or for specific WBS parts, an estimated efficiency is established in actual projects. The ratio of the actual hours worked to the hours of the expected workload is used to compute the average value of efficiency.

### **Projects in the Construction Industry's Economic Performance**

The effective advancement of building projects throughout their life cycle depends on the cost planning procedure. Like other types of projects where cost management and schedule management are necessary, budgeting for construction projects is often iterative and organized at several stages of analysis and, therefore, of accuracy. Since costs are linked to quantities, project features, and timetables, which may sometimes have a large impact, schedule estimations are crucial in the construction industry. As a result, using a Bill of Quantities as the foundation for the project budget—that is, multiplying quantities by unit prices—is insufficient for an appropriate budget, which necessitates taking into account the possibility that certain work may have a range of costs depending on when it is completed.

A series of three unique correlations between construction cost and work time. Because cost differences are minimal and hence insignificant in the intermediate area, the project budget more closely matches the Bill of Quantities. Beyond this region, the longer the work duration, the more expensive it becomes due to rising indirect costs. However, in the opposite region, where work duration tends to zero, the impact of higher direct costs generates a sharp increase in construction costs as the project crash time, or the minimum work duration permitted by the current technology, is approached.

The link between the degree of detail of the engineering effort and the process of cost and schedule analysis, as well as the relationship between the level of detail of the engineering effort and the final cost control, must be described, to put it more specifically. Although the Bill of Quantities is often an essential component of the scope of construction engineering, it shouldn't be the sole result of the budgeting process, as was said before. In addition to a thoughtful risk analysis, project budgets should appropriately account for the project timeline, indirect expenses, and other time-related expenditures. Early cost estimates from the basic engineering work are used to create budgets, together with sufficient data on historical expenses and accounting information on the common costs at the company level. Consideration may be given to employing typical costs for the class of the individual project, costs calculated by analogy, or analytical processes if projects are new and no historical cost data are available. For specific engineering work elements, such as the following general plans and functional sketches, structures, pre-fabrication, mechanical, electrical, and thermal, the bill of quantities, the bill of materials, and material specifications, manuals and catalogues, detailed budgets are created based on quantity estimates and work hour estimates.

### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Effective project management requires a knowledge of the consideration of both fundamental costs and the cost of risks in project cost assessment. Participate in the cost estimating process with the project's key players, such as the project manager, the estimator, the subject-matter expert, and the risk specialist. The development of realistic cost estimates, the precise estimation of fundamental expenses, and the identification of possible hazards all benefit from collaborative discussions and expert input. Throughout the course of the project, cost estimates should be reviewed and modified often to account for new risks, changing conditions, and new information. Using an iterative process, project budgets may be adjusted as required to maintain realistic cost predictions.

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## CHAPTER 18

### NEW IDEAS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS: EVOLVING AND COMPLEX ENVIRONMENTS

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Construction projects are often carried out in evolving and complex environments, which present unique challenges and opportunities for innovation. This chapter explores new ideas and approaches for construction projects in such environments, focusing on strategies to address emerging trends, technological advancements, sustainability considerations, and stakeholder expectations. It discusses the importance of adaptability, collaboration, and continuous learning in navigating evolving and complex environments. The paper highlights innovative practices such as modular construction, digitalization, sustainable design and materials, and stakeholder engagement. By embracing these new ideas, construction projects can improve efficiency, sustainability, and resilience while meeting the evolving needs of society.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Adaptability, Advanced Materials, Automation, Building Information Modeling (BIM), Climate Resilience, Digital Twin Technology.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Although building designs may be identical, variations in the properties of the foundation soils, the mix of construction materials, and/or the organization of amenities limit perfect repetition. The manufacturing methods must thus be individually customized to the unique requirements of each project, making it difficult to standardize or industrialize them beyond a certain point. In contrast to series production, which is customary in manufacturing organizations, varied soils or different materials allow for some degree of unpredictability in the completed results. The length and ambiguity of the project execution cycle serve as another illustration of the unusual nature of building projects. In fact, before the project is finished, a number of issues may emerge, causing a delay. This is only partially attributable to management shortcomings because other factors must typically be taken into account, such as the approval of design variants (in the case of public works) or breaks caused by atmospheric events, as well as any other situation that was not taken into account in the project feasibility study. These unforeseen circumstances make project planning difficult. Planning challenges are brought on by the presence of certain works that are related to the characteristics of the project site, while high levels of uncertainty frequently characterize both the project's planned schedule and its estimated cost of completion [1], [2].

Construction enterprises' unique production cycles place restrictions on both the financial cycle and the economic cycle. Costs for final site disposal as well as other expenses and charges

related to the building site must be taken into consideration before the project can be executed. Unexpected payment delays may further lengthen the financial cycle. Together, these factors result in negative project cash flows for protracted periods, potentially forcing the corporation to pay project expenditures throughout the course of the contract. Negative cash flow consequences will exhibit synergy if this situation is repeated across all active projects, particularly during lean economic times when higher borrowing rates are present. Therefore, passive interests will grow increasingly prominent, posing a major risk to the company's financial stability and the profitability of certain initiatives [3], [4]. In compared to other production sectors, the construction industry is more unpredictable due to the culmination of all these features. Due to this unpredictability, business level risk increases, necessitating proper attention and resource spending in planning and control procedures, including specific company initiatives.

### DISCUSSION

In the contemporary construction practice, project investments are often conceived and completed in very dynamic and unpredictable situations. Project goals, priorities, and resource allocations are often reassessed. Traditional project settings' deterministic metrics, techniques, and best practices are no longer appropriate in these circumstances [5], [6]. Large construction projects are by definition difficult and usually too big to fail, since failure would have an adverse economic impact on the construction industry as a whole. It is hard to control the uncertainty and unpredictability of changes generated by the project operating environment, particularly in this situation and to some degree for smaller-size projects. The cost-effective planning and execution of projects and, if considered pertinent, programmes of any sort and purpose depend critically on the proper management and control of project complexity as well as novel approaches for measuring project performance. Since complexity is an unseen entity that operates invisibly, it facilitates unforeseen events in ways that make the problems they cause impossible to predict. In order to do this, a suitable measuring system must be made accessible to continuously monitor projects while determining project complexity by using a dynamic method. Project metrics of this kind might, in turn, support the institutional responsibilities of Project Managers and related stakeholders [7], [8].

In general, several methods for handling project complexity may be found. Confusing the terms complexity and complicatedness while adopting a come hell or high water mentality based on pre-established patterns is one of the most popular and expedient techniques. In complex environments, project managers should behave in a diplomatic, but current and dynamic, manner while interacting with project stakeholders. They should also have a pragmatic mindset when it comes to handling project interrelationships. It should be underlined that the project management capabilities of construction organizations primarily rely on three fundamental factors: company-level planning proficiency, project planning and control proficiency, and project manager experience level. First off, it is important to note that a company's ability to reach its financial and economic objectives is influenced by the profit margins of particular initiatives. The company's projects and the project managers' efforts won't be motivated by any reference target if these goals are not properly stated, anticipated, and realistically set. The ability of construction organizations to plan and oversee their operations is really influenced by a number of factors. The organization of management planning and control procedures, as well as the identification of centers of economic responsibility in charge of projects, are two examples. The focus placed on organizing economic goals into a suitable and consistent hierarchical structure is another important factor:



1. Long-term financial goals.
2. Annual corporate financial goals.
3. the current projects' financial goals.
4. each project's work package's financial goals.

Corporate management and project managers should communicate specific project financial goals. Project managers, management control authorities, and high-level management should establish effective communication and reporting mechanisms in order to:

1. Analyze differences between planned and actual results.
2. Identify necessary corrective actions.
3. Determine the efficacy of proposed actions.

Project managers should also commit to fulfilling their financial obligations and achieving the desired results in the context of favorable incentives [9], [10]. All of the aforementioned contributing factors are evaluated using quantitative indicators, such as a straightforward scoring system of 1 to 5, which represents improving planning and control capacities at the corporate level. High scores may have a leveraging impact on a person's project planning and control abilities as well as their professional skills and competences as a project manager. Throughout the whole life cycle of construction projects, often throughout conceptual design, project planning, project execution, and project closing, project planning and control competency is observed. Planning a project takes into account the following factors:

1. Project scope.
2. Methodology used.
3. Resource allocation and activity length.
4. Corporate management and technical management commitment.
5. IT platforms
6. Interactions with other project life cycle phases and with other entities, both within and outside the firm.

The following factors are each taken into account when the project is being carried out:

1. The volume and types of project monitoring activities.
2. The regularity of controls.
3. The standardization of procedures.
4. The management of communication.
5. The dedication of corporate management and technical management.
6. IT platforms.
7. Interactions with other project life cycle stages and with other entities, both inside and outside the company.

Again, all relevant factors are evaluated using quantitative indicators. For instance, increasing degrees of project management skill are represented on a categorization scale from 1 to 5. There are two main categories in which construction project managers' experience may be evaluated:

### **Knowledge of Project Management Methods**

Hierarchical project structures, Responsibility Assignment Matrixes, Risk Management approaches, Project Cost Management Techniques, Project Scheduling and Control Techniques,

and Project Monitoring and Control Techniques are only a few of the project management approaches that are mentioned. Basic management skills linked to project management, including knowledge of the quality system, health, safety, and environmental considerations, as well as economic, financial, and legal issues, organizational structures and procedures, change process management, standards, and laws. The range of indicative categories includes having a modest skill level that was attained on an individual basis and having recognized certificates. Construction Monitoring Projects in Complex Environments.

### **The Project Control Scope**

Project control is judged complete after the works are concluded, but managing a project entails controlling all project operations from its inception till its full fulfillment. Additionally, it is unquestionably recommended to consider the whole life cycle length, that is, up until the asset is disposed of, in a proactive manner throughout the design stage. This is the last stage of the asset life cycle and, more specifically, it marks the conclusion of the scope of total cost and schedule management that falls under the purview of the project manager's duties as the person in charge of the project life cycle, regardless of how straightforward or complicated the project may be. These responsibilities include cost assessment and control as well as time and quality management.

It is generally accepted that project management employs a multidisciplinary approach to optimize responses to time, cost, and quality constraints while successfully managing the project scope and upholding proper oversight of competencies and skills, human resource performance, risk management, communication plans, and procurement source selection. This strategy, which is mostly based on deterministic methods, is no longer enough to handle the uncertainty and complexity that are typically present in modern projects. The appraisal of project complexity, which is primarily based on the answers to the following questions, has actually been underemphasized in a number of instances by traditional approaches. In fact, project mechanisms are not always easily represented by pre-defined models that deterministically describe the life cycle of the project and, consequently, its possible range of behaviors. There is no way to predict how a project will respond and change in the presence of internal or external stimuli that cannot be absolutely predicted, but it is possible to imagine ever-stricter project reviews in an effort to avoid and lessen the occurrence of critical and emergency situations.

On the other hand, for a project to be effectively managed, a vast array of methods, information management techniques, and operational processes must be considered. This means that it is only feasible or advisable to deploy the whole set of accessible instruments in a relatively small number of circumstances. Therefore, the chosen strategy should be explicitly adapted to the particulars of the project. In order to avoid inefficiencies in scheduling and cost management caused by time-consuming project formalities, it is crucial to use different approaches for different projects. On the other hand, if complex projects are managed using simple methodologies, a lack of coordination in project management will increase the likelihood of errors, duplications, and reworks. Another specific query is, Under what circumstances does a specific project require a different approach in comparison to other projects?

Behind this query, there lies a trap. In reality, variances between two projects with comparable results might be caused by factors affecting the project complexity, which would need the use of various project management methodologies. In order to prevent delays in assigning the proper project categories, the majority of techniques are based on a limited collection of factors

discovered during the early project phases. Budget and schedule projections for a project are not by themselves accurate predictors of difficulty. A project with two team members working for a year is undoubtedly far more difficult than one with 500 team members working for a month. The specific dollar amount of a project budget does not accurately reflect the complexity of the project in the same manner.

Even if the aforementioned factors are present in every project, there may also be other variables present in certain circumstances. The project effort is a measure of the labor required to complete the project. The more effort put forward, the more important the steps to be done, the more outputs to be examined, and the more expensive reworks are when faults are discovered too late. The size of the team gives a clue as to the degree of coordination needed for the project and, consequently, the best organizational setup for project management. For instance, appointing team leaders if the coordination between team members becomes too much for a single project manager. The quantity of diverse professionals is correlated with the diversity of a company's project-related capabilities. Since distinct functions often have different aims, diverse methodologies, and varied operating procedures, this is a major variable. Because of this, there is a larger need for coordination, which raises the bar for effective communication management.

The distinction between remote teams and teams that are co-located is discussed in the list's last variable. The latter inherently calls for extra communication preparation in order to consistently make all of the crucial project information accessible. Additionally, the list is undoubtedly short. For instance, the level of project innovation is not mentioned. All other things being equal, initiatives that are only loosely based on existing knowledge will be more complicated than those that are known in the majority of their specifics. This project assessment system's main goal is to fundamentally match management policies to the specifics of the project in order to make the coexistence of the project and Project Management amicable. There are at least two reasons for the various relationships between macro-processes in project management environments with varying degrees of complexity:

1. The quantity of project management procedures.
2. Modifications to the phases of the formal process.

The following guidelines should be followed from the outset for efficient construction project monitoring:

1. Determine the whole project scope using a work breakdown structure and a thorough project activity list as follows.
2. Provide realistic goals that can be measured in terms of activity times, expenses, and resources.
3. Create activity bar charts to make sure delivery deadlines are reached using the resources at hand.
4. Create project budgets, cash flows, total expenses, earnings, and profits. Monitor and record project performances, comparing anticipated with actual results, predicting future trends, and swiftly implementing corrective actions as necessary. Prioritize key tasks while reducing project risk and uncertainty, establish areas of responsibility for each contract lot or activity, design appropriate project communication systems, and take into account contract restrictions.
5. Where appropriate, provide a solid foundation for a project's cost-benefit analysis.

## CONCLUSION

Exploring innovative concepts and tactics that may address the shifting requirements and difficulties is essential in today's complex and constantly changing building settings. Several novel ideas for building projects in these settings were offered in this presentation. Rapid deployment and adaptability to changing needs are made possible by the flexibility, efficiency, and speed of modular construction. A virtual reproduction of the constructed environment is made available by digital twin technology, allowing for improved planning, simulation, and maintenance throughout the project lifespan. The goal of resilient design is to provide.

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## CHAPTER 19

### REVIEW OF THE BASIC ELEMENTS: PROJECT COST AND SCHEDULE MANAGEMENT

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Effective cost and schedule management are essential elements of successful project execution. This review aims to provide an overview of the basic elements involved in project cost and schedule management. It explores the key concepts, techniques, and best practices that project managers employ to ensure accurate estimation, monitoring, and control of project costs and schedules. The review covers topics such as project planning, resource allocation, cost estimation, scheduling techniques, progress tracking, and variance analysis. By understanding these fundamental elements, project managers can make informed decisions, mitigate risks, optimize resource utilization, and deliver projects within budget and on time.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Baseline, Budgeting, Change Management, Contingency, Cost Control, Cost Estimation, Earned Value Management.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The primary goal of cost and schedule management in construction projects is to effectively use human resources, facilities, materials, and cash to accomplish a successful completion of the project within the defined financial, time, and technical performance restrictions [1], [2].As a result, project costs and timelines are methodically planned and managed, with a specific emphasis on the detection of potentially important events that might result in higher costs and longer timelines and allow for the appropriate recovery measures to be prepared. There may be change resistance, a lack of resources, talent shortages, or just fundamental issues with unrealistic timeframes among the significant difficulties that project managers for the construction industry often encounter. These issues are generally shared with project managers for other types of projects [3], [4].In order to allow proactive project control, cost and schedule management plays a significant role in establishing a uniform baseline for project planning and spending. Cost management, which often includes cost planning and estimation, cost control, and cost reporting, is the umbrella term for all operations used to complete the project within the authorized budget [5], [6].All tasks that contribute to the timely completion of the project are covered by schedule management.

1. Define the schedule.
2. Control the schedule by contrasting the present working schedule with the baseline schedule.And

3. Report the schedule.
4. Controlling and Managing Costs in Construction Projects

### **What Project Cost Management Is Intended To Do**

As with other project settings, the goal of cost management in the construction industry is to assure an accurate assessment of anticipated payment profiles, actual cash outflows, and probable variations. Therefore, defining and putting into practice corrective methods to address flaws in cost streamlining becomes part of cost management [7], [8]. Additionally, plans are established to predict future earnings and spending in order to assist budget creation and cash flow forecasting. The proper temporal phasing of expenses and resources is made possible by concurrent cost and schedule management. Concurrent cost and change management enables the assessment of the financial effects of project modifications. Both overestimating and underestimating project expenses may be harmful to a project's ability to be completed successfully. Underestimating may result in insufficient financial support and a greater chance of project failure, whilst overestimating can prevent funds from being allocated to the project or force the selection of a different option in a comparison exercise. The procedures for project finance, budgeting, and cost management are all successfully supported by accurate and methodical cost estimates.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Project Cost Control**

As part of an initial business agreement, a project baseline cost plan is used to gather mutually acceptable financial data and is subject to accepted revisions in accordance with a defined formal method. Regular deliveries of an Estimate at Completion and an Estimate to Complete are made to the customer at predetermined times in order to provide an assessment of the project's total expenditure upon completion and the work's total expenditure from the predetermined date until the project is finished. In the case of Cost Reimbursement contracts, the EAC and the ETC are based on all expenses spent up to the given date as well as the expected cost of all project work left up to completion and taking into account the authorized business agreement revisions. For fixed-price contracts, the EAC is based on the authorized contract amendments and the negotiated milestone payment plans, which include all of the completed payments, all anticipated payments, and their dates [9], [10].

### **Managing Project Schedules: The Basics**

#### **Definition of A Schedule**

Project planning is expanded to the proper degree of detail for the project stage being evaluated as part of proactive Project Management tactics. In addition to assessing and reducing risk, networks of activities, milestones, and their linkages provide efficient schedule management. The network of project activities and their logical relationships are defined by the project WBS. Activity durations are also calculated for this network, and timetable contingencies are included. The project schedule may be fully specified on this basis, taking into consideration the customer's timetable needs and the resources that are available. When thoroughly examining project performance and keeping a tight eye on their projects, project managers must exercise extra caution. The most essential tools for tracking the progress of a project are network schedules, which must be maintained up to date as needed throughout the project life cycle. The

creation of corrective provisions for critical activities in line with the set project schedule results from the defining of the critical route. The critical path is included in schedule reporting from the contractor to the customer to support the necessary overall visibility of the project status at any time, with a particular focus on warning signs that the project is seriously slipping behind schedule and, worse yet, that it is unlikely to recover, that schedule margins have shrunk, and that project milestones won't be met.

## **Performance Reports for Projects**

### **Considerations In General**

Project performance monitoring requires the use of critical tools, such as performance reports. In addition to impact evaluations for project cost, schedule, and technical performance, project managers are given information on performance relative to the baseline plan, costs actually incurred, variances resulting from deviations from plans, and projections of predicted final costs. The PMBOK Guide provides the following definition for the idea of performance measurement baseline:

1. A project's authorized work plan serves as the performance measurement baseline, against which the project's execution is assessed and variations are monitored for management control.
2. In a procedure known as an Integrated Baseline Review, if scope, schedule, and cost baselines are combined in a PMB, this is routinely examined.

### **Non-Conformance Cost Indicators**

The following project review results may point to the necessity for project cost corrective measures:

1. There is a large discrepancy between the planned cost for the project's remaining work and the estimated cost of completion.
2. A considerable discrepancy between the To-Complete Cost Performance Index and the Cumulative Cost Performance Index, which is the ratio of the current permitted budget for a finished work piece to the expenditures actually expended up to the review date.
3. A serious lack of faith in the EAC or ETC initiative.
4. Insufficient control account budgets for unfinished work.
5. A failure to articulate the EAC's justification.
6. Optimistic estimates that don't take hazards into account upon completion.

When a project review is conducted, the non-conformance expenses, which include all costs beyond expected amounts spent to comply with contractual requirements and costs incurred to handle non-conformities discovered during project execution, should get the majority of focus. Human mistakes that result in underestimations are one of the most prevalent difficulties in determining baseline costs. As previously indicated, there are more primary factors for the development of NCCs. For instance, a poor productservice design may result in a failure to comply with specifications. NCCs may also occur if the project scope was not thoroughly and clearly defined and communicated during the project's planning phase. In this scenario, some project components might not have been taken into account in the baseline and thus be missing, or they might have been supplied even though they were outside the project's purview. Project activities on both internal and external projects may help NCCs flourish. Internally, prospective

cost increases result from qualitative or quantitative factors, including poor project performance, unexpected staff training requirements, general organizational inefficiencies, higher unit costs than anticipated in the baseline, and an abundance of costly and highly qualified resources. Poor subcontractor performance, late delivery of subcontracted work, internal rework on subcontractor deliveries and/or rework by additional external suppliers, unforeseen tests and controls, and inaccurately low subcontractor cost estimates are some external factors that could contribute to higher costs.

### **Scheduling Indices**

The following project review results may point to the need for corrective actions with regard to project schedule:

1. Unusual activity periods.
2. An illogical logic of task relationships.
3. A large number of activities with set start or end dates.
4. Schedule reserve decreases without cause.
5. An unrelated baseline timetable to the budget timeframe.
6. The timing for the ETC is not consistent with the present program.
7. Construction project oversight and control

### **General Comments**

Throughout the course of a construction project's life cycle, project control is a crucial management role. According to the PMBOK Guide, project control procedures are used to compare the actual performance of projects to their anticipated performance, analyze variances, consider potential alternatives, and, as necessary, put the best corrective measures into place. Project performance is monitored, analyzed, and reported at a certain date during project monitoring to reflect the current project status, while project control follows and involves five phases:

1. Preparing to meet project goals.
2. Sequencing of building processes' inputs and outputs.
3. Definition of the allocation of resources and the amounts needed to transform inputs into outputs.
4. Process of comparison between real and planned activities.
5. To perform the necessary corrective steps, assessment of variants and decision support system should be used.

As a result, project teams and site managers are able to pinpoint the areas that are the most difficult, particularly in terms of project performance, expenses, and schedule. Construction site management procedures often include evaluating resources using a cost/schedule control system to assess their productivity, or the effective and efficient utilization of working workforces, machinery, and manufacturing equipment. The incorporation of information from the construction site on the project schedule, cost, and performance is therefore one of the essential conditions for a construction project's success. The percentage of completion is one of the schedule control methods and metrics for construction projects. Bar charts, the Precedence Diagramming Method, and timetable control diagrams developed from the Line of Balance approach are traditional models for defining building plans and measuring progress. The PDM



may be utilized successfully in support of bigger projects, while bar charts and LOB diagrams are often employed as graphical demonstrations of smaller projects or sections of complicated projects. The percentage of completion is a commonly used project control measure that offers a quick and effective parameter to track the development of the project. The PoC is determined by the ratio of the actual project cost to the EAC at time now in the Cost-to-Cost technique.

### **A System For Location-Based Management**

Complex construction projects that call for more intricate models of resource flow across project activities benefit the most from this model integration. According to a Location Breakdown Structure, LBMS-based planning and scheduling define project macro-activities by grouping together homogenous tasks that are executed repeatedly across the numerous construction sites. The categorization, aggregation, and disaggregation of construction work zones are all possible using an LBS, which is a hierarchical representation of construction sites. When a delayed predecessor results in an anticipated delay in the execution of a successor, the system issues alerts. Generally speaking, LBMS models provide fundamental data for project schedule, resource, and cost management. Value Improving and Management Techniques Throughout the Life Cycle of Construction Projects.

### **The Idea and Methodology of Value Management**

The following factors are taken into account by Stephen Simister in his chapter on managing value in the Gower Handbook of Project Management. The idea of value and how it is generated by the facility that the project delivers in terms of functionality. Simister defines value management as follows:

1. Ensures that the client's demands are precisely specified and that a genuine scope of work is generated for the project, allowing for the definition of the value a project will give.
2. The topic of value management in the life cycle of building projects is well introduced by these claims.

The cost management theories and techniques of building projects vary from those of other general goods due to the features of construction projects, such as only being established once, large investment scales, complex structures, and significant energy consumption in operation processes. In order to realize the value of construction projects while lowering life cycle costs, value management can be effectively applied to the entire life cycle of construction projects, as well as taking into account function analyses in investment decision stages and combining cost management techniques like supply chain management and Kaizen costing based on objective cost management in implementation stages. Adding value to projects in terms of time, money, and quality is the goal of value management. By overseeing a project's life cycle up to the start of the usage stage and weighing all actions against a client-determined value system, it optimizes the functional value of the project.

Value management, which takes into account certain elements of design, construction, operation, and management, is a subset of value engineering. It helps to reduce inefficient practices and wasteful procedures in certain areas of design, building, and maintenance. In order to include stakeholders in identifying and meeting their requirements, workshops are arranged. During value management reviews and option evaluations, it is important to take into account the project's clearly stated goals, the numerous alternatives and choosing the best one, health and

safety, sustainability, design quality, buildability, operation maintenance, and disposal. With the following goals in mind, value management and, where appropriate, value engineering, should be used regularly throughout the project life cycle.

1. Defining what value means to the consumer in terms of the advantages and objectives of the company.
2. Determining and approving company requirements.
3. Locating and assessing potential solutions to address corporate requirements.
4. Choosing and approving the alternative that would best serve corporate requirements.
5. Agreeing to and clearly stating the project's goals.
6. Deciding on the best project alternative and reaching an agreement.
7. Deciding on and assessing the selection and reward criteria for the integrated supply team's appointment.
8. Comparing the bids to the criteria for selection and award assessment.
9. Improving the design to maximize value, reduce waste, and get rid of everything not directly relevant to achieving the project's goals.

Value engineering as a whole often follows a task plan, which consists of a sequence of actions that must be taken in order to identify the most promising possibilities or offers. Identification of the business issue, the requirements, and the priorities of the consumer is usually the first stage. Ideas may be produced to address the requirements and priorities previously stated when information data about values, costs, risks, and other project restrictions have been gathered. The most effective way to handle this is often via a workshop with all the project team members and stakeholders. The concept is that ideas are developed in an environment that is criticism-free, which encourages independent thought and original ideas. The selection of the most promising solutions from the previous stage is the following phase, after which they are developed and evaluated. The workshop group hears the findings from this last phase before choosing one plan to go forward with. To move the proposal ahead, an action plan is created. At the final feedback stage, the effectiveness of the alternatives put into practice is evaluated in order to give lessons learned and guide future projects. The following advantages result from such a strategy:

1. A concise, precise description of the requirements of stakeholders.
2. Identification, analysis, and selection of the best alternative to be taken into consideration.
3. Suggesting ways to obtain value for money.
4. Recommending ways to decrease waste and inefficiency to save excessive spending. And
5. Enhanced collaboration and shared responsibility for the solutions.

### **Impacts of Risk on Value Management**

Earlier chapters of this book established and discussed the broad idea of risk in project management. Risk implies unpredictable results, whether they be favorable opportunity or detrimental consequence. Taking certain risks is inevitable, regardless of the undertaking. Because the benefit to the firm justifies it, a purposeful acceptance of some level of risk is suggested. The tasks necessary to identify and manage the risks associated with the desired project choice are all included in risk management. Construction project risk management includes the following activities:

1. Detecting and evaluating the risks according to their effect and likelihood.

2. Creating and upholding a shared risk register that has been approved by the integrated project team.
3. Developing processes for actively managing and monitoring risks throughout project execution and after occupancy, while ensuring that team members have the chance to interact in a way that will foster consensus on an acceptable risk distribution.
4. Updating risk data during the course of the project.
5. Assuring risk management by organizing how risks will be handled during the course of the project in order to keep them contained within acceptable bounds.
6. Entrusting the person that is most qualified to do so with responsibility for controlling each risk.
7. Plans for risk management should be set up early enough to handle hazards as they come up swiftly and efficiently.

Within the integrated project team, risks should be assigned to specific risk owners who should be well aware of the particular risks for which they are accountable. Throughout the course of the project, the risks should be actively handled in line with a risk management strategy that addresses all hazards, whether they are kept by the customer or passed to other members of the integrated project team. A temporal component should be included in the business case, and the risks of this altering should be regularly monitored. The risk register is often used to record the information above in the case of building projects. Given that risks may change throughout the course of the project, it should be kept up to date consistently by the integrated project team. Plans for risk management may be included on the risk registry. The main goals of risk management are to make sure that risks are recognized at the beginning of a project, that their potential effects are taken into account, and that, where feasible, the risks or their effects are mitigated. Several steps are involved in risk management, including:

1. Identifying hazards in order to ascertain their nature.
2. Risk evaluation to determine likelihood of occurrence and probable harm or severity.
3. Taking the necessary corrective steps.
4. Risk monitoring, updating, and management.
5. Comments on the effectiveness of risk management and lessons learned.

A risk response should be chosen once the sources of hazards and the repercussions of their occurrence have been thought about and well understood. The following are some possible managerial actions. In cases when risks have such severe effects on the project's outcome that they are wholly unacceptable, actions might include a review of the project's goals and a reevaluation of the project, which could result in its replacement or cancellation. Redesign, more thorough design, or further site research are common actions to decrease risk that may be taken to enhance the data that informs estimates and programs. It is also possible to imagine various building techniques as a risk-reduction measure. Involving a different team member who would be in charge of handling the fallout if the danger materialized. The goal of risk transfer is to shift responsibility to a different party that is more qualified to handle it. Risks that are not transferred or avoided are accepted by the customer, despite the fact that they may have been reduced or shared. The customer must continue to manage these risks to reduce their possibility and possible consequences. A do nothing strategy is unacceptable. To guarantee that the project's objectives are being met adequately even after risks have been transferred, the customer must continue to monitor risk management.

## CONCLUSION

The management of project budget and schedule is essential to its success. The essential components of efficiently managing project costs and timelines have been emphasized in this assessment. By outlining the project's goals, scope, and deliverables, project planning creates the framework for precise cost and schedule estimates. Resource allocation guarantees the availability of the required workers, equipment, and supplies to carry out the project successfully. Project costs may be predicted with a decent degree of accuracy using cost estimate approaches as analogous estimating, parametric estimating, and bottom-up estimating.

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## CHAPTER 20

### VALUE IMPROVING PRACTICES: LIFE CYCLE OF CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Value improving practices (VIPs) are crucial in the life cycle of construction projects as they aim to maximize value for stakeholders while minimizing costs. This paper presents a comprehensive review of VIPs throughout the various phases of construction projects, including design, procurement, construction, and operation. The review examines the key principles and strategies that can enhance project value, such as value engineering, life cycle costing, sustainability integration, risk management, and stakeholder engagement. By implementing these practices, project teams can optimize project outcomes, improve efficiency, reduce waste, and enhance overall project value.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Benchmarking, Constructability, Cost Optimization, Design Optimization, Life Cycle Costing, Performance Improvement.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Contrary to the use of less professional, more conventional engineering and Project Management practices, the value, or profitability, of construction projects and, by and large, capital projects can be increased by applying structured solutions collectively referred to as Value Improving Practices. During the life cycles of capital projects, VIPs examine project traits and attributes that are attained at known optimal periods [1], [2]. According to the AACEI publication Total Cost Management Framework, VIPs should generally take cost into account throughout the asset's and project's lifetimes. Because long-term profitability is the ultimate objective of the majority of businesses. The capacity to affect value decreases quickly as scope definition and design advance, hence VIPs must be employed in the early design and planning stages [3], [4].

The article quotes Lawrence D. Miles, the eminent creator of the related disciplines of value analysis and value engineering, who wrote in 1989 in *Techniques of Value Analysis and Engineering* that performance and cost are the two factors that determine the best value. In line with this, the TCM Framework makes the following claims: This statement acknowledges that owners are seldom willing to pay any money for performance, and that owners will nearly always be best content if they can have the performance for free. In a competitive context, the objective is often to achieve similar or greater performance at a lower cost than previously and at a lower cost than the competitors while taking risk into account [5], [6]. It has been scientifically shown that adding VIPs to capital projects significantly increases project profitability. The

highest-performing projects are referred to as Best Practical or Best in Class, where capital expenses are decreased by using effective work practices. Project cost performance increases in terms of capital cost savings, purportedly up to 20%, may be anticipated when process efficiency is paired with stringent VIP applications. These accomplishments may result from ongoing adaptation and improvement of the VIPs themselves to maintain their continued relevance and capacity to boost project performance concurrently with project teams' efforts.

The profitability of capital projects may be impacted by a variety of VIP classes in ways that go beyond what the project team can do alone. The primary goals and areas of concentration for each VIP may vary, but they often include the following facility quality, technology selection, project process simplification, constructability, predictive maintenance, and waste reduction. In order to accommodate the VIP schedule to the overall schedule of life cycle stages before beginning the detailed design, tailored to the features of each individual project, the most appropriate VIPs to be applied to a specific project are chosen during a VIP planning session, which takes place immediately following the start of the project. Utilizing certain non-traditional techniques, capital projects' costs, schedules, and/or performance components are improved, as seen in VIPs. During the first phases of a project, VIPs are critical. Repeat work methods are part of formal and recorded practices. Enabling specialists who are not a part of the project team is necessary for performing VIPs. VIPs, however, are none of the following: Simple brainstorming or strategy meetings, business as usual, cost- and scope-reduction activities, or project readiness design reviews are all examples of good engineering practices.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Facility Quality VIP**

The most valuable or profitable VIPs in this category are those with the largest capital investment, anticipated facility life, expandability, operating expenses, and environmental controls. The purpose of this VIP is to validate the optimum overall project philosophy and include principles of overall risk into the design and management of the facility. The results of this VIP help the project management team update the project execution plan for each of the above-mentioned early project phases. This VIP should ideally be carried out before any further VIP efforts in the early phases of the project in order to best accomplish this goal [7], [8].

### **VIP Technology Search**

In order to find more effective technologies than those now in use and afterwards choose the most competitive technical solution, this VIP will employ assessment criteria in line with the project's business goals. In the future, this VIP will provide papers that outline the necessary technical evaluation criteria and offer a prioritized list of technology possibilities for each chosen project specification. The earliest period of the project is when the technology selection VIP produces the finest outcomes.

### **Simplification of Process VIP**

This VIP's major goal is to streamline the building process in order to strike the correct balance between time constraints, anticipated facility operability, and total life cycle costs, primarily resulting in lower investment and running expenses [9], [10]. For the objective of streamlining the project processes, expectations and needs are systematically divided. According to the given

restrictions and priorities, expectations are then assessed for their potential deletion. The goals of this VIP are as follows in further detail:

1. Decrease in capital costs.
2. A better critical path timetable for the project.
3. Greater process efficiency.
4. Lowering of lifelong follow-up expenditures.
5. An improvement in project productivity overall.
6. Decrease in waste production.

It is intended to carry out process simplification VIPs via formal workshops. They occur at least once during the project's initial planning stages. but, bigger and more complicated projects may benefit from the addition of an earlier workshop on process simplification.

### **VIP Constructability**

In order to improve the scope, cost, schedule, quality, and safety of the construction, this VIP will have the opportunity to apply the most recent Engineering, Procurement, and Construction principles and the associated lessons learned. Profitability improvements are sought above those that the project team will have identified in the course of its routine work in order to specifically recognize this practice as an actual VIP - thus, consistent with the comparison to less profit, more traditional engineering and Project Management practices, as previously noted. From the start of the first project stages to the conclusion of the commissioning stage, the constructability VIP is in effect. While incorporating the following features into the more conventional method, its major goal is to maximize the combined exploitation of operations, maintenance, engineering, procurement, and construction knowledge - both on-project and off-project.

1. Carrying out one or more official, assisted VIP constructability sessions.
2. Concentrate on the important elements of each project's engineering stage.
3. A thorough examination of the planning, design, procurement, manufacturing, and installation processes to guarantee that the objectives of the lowest capital costs and the shortest feasible timetable are effectively and securely attained.

With reference to operational and maintenance needs, as well as available knowledge, operability and maintainability should be properly considered. Early constructability VIP workshops have to be centered on the overall project plans, particularly with relation to site layout and accessibility as well as collaboration with any neighboring or existing amenities. In a later project phase, Constructability VIP workshops should concentrate on more precise site plan arrangements, in-depth assessments of time constraints, and the impact of manufacturing methods and available skills on the anticipated completion of later building phases. A preliminary approach to the detailed EPC stage, in which prior lessons learned will be reviewed and taken into account for practical implementation, should be the main focus of constructability VIP workshops held toward the end of the preliminary phases of the project.

### **VIP Prediction Maintenance**

The following fundamental definitions are associated with this VIP:

The capacity of an element to carry out its intended function under predetermined circumstances or to retain its quality without detectable changes under predetermined use settings is known as

reliability. Durability is an element's capacity to sustain a set performance level over a certain amount of time. Duration is the amount of time that an element may keep its appearance, functionality, and physical properties. The practice of extrapolating the remaining time to failure in line with the proper models, after identifying and measuring one or more factors, is known as predictive maintenance. The predictive technique uses regular and scheduled inspections and evaluations to pinpoint the precise time when corrective action is unavoidably needed. There are four possible classifications for this action:

1. Time-directed when the failure's avoidance is anticipated.
2. Condition-directed to determine when a failure will occur.
3. Failure-finding is the process of identifying unnoticed inefficiencies.
4. Run-to-failure is the purposeful decision to put off maintenance until a failure has place.

Preventive maintenance is confined to routine inspections and repairs to avoid unexpected failures. Predictive maintenance is distinct from preventive maintenance and is more recent. The advantages of predictive maintenance are as follows:

1. It lowers the cost of upkeep.
2. It increases the confidence in increasing the gap between subsequent maintenance procedures.
3. It increases dependability.
4. It offers a maintenance plan that is more predictable.
5. If contractor rules do not require otherwise, this VIP should ideally be applied at the project's feasibility phase.

### **VIP Waste Minimization**

This VIP blends life cycle environmental advantages with favorable economic returns and includes environmental criteria into the facility design by:

1. Eliminating or lowering waste creation via source reduction.
2. Those potentially waste items or components that cannot be eliminated or reduced are recycled via usage, re-use, or recovery.
3. Before being stored or disposed of, every trash that is still produced must be treated to lessen volume, toxicity, or other negative impacts.
4. If contractor regulations do not mandate differently, this vip should be carried out in a formal workshop and best conducted during the project's feasibility phase.

### **VIP Implementation and Planning**

To get the greatest outcomes for the project, each VIP should be carried out at a certain time and in line with a specific protocol since each one has its own distinct meanings. VIPs are effective tools for enhancing the project's overall profitability. VIP experts estimate that the ROI for the cost of implementing each VIP is often substantially higher than for the total planned project, even as much as at least an order of magnitude above, as previously stated in this text. It is crucial to emphasize that only carrying out good engineering will not be sufficient to grasp the advantages that VIPs may provide.

In all situations, this VIP planning meeting should happen right away after the project begins. The application and execution of VIPs to a specific project must be consciously and meticulously



prepared in the first stage of the project. The project team must come to an agreement on the VIP's goals, objectives, and time frame before it can begin. The formal workshop is always designed to maximize the time and effort of the multidisciplinary team.

### **The New ISO Standard 21500 Project Management Guidance**

We are all aware of the presence of standards and the fact that they led to the emergence of project management certifications, which mostly serve individuals rather than businesses. The majority of Project Management guidelines, notwithstanding this approach, are process-oriented. As a result, many businesses have created internal processes that are essentially based on these principles. The Project Management Institute and its Project Management Body of Knowledge Guide are two of the most influential process-oriented certification organizations in the world. In Europe, there are various certifications that are process-oriented. The IPMA Competence Baseline certification is another well-known European certification. The PMBOK Guide and ISO 21500:2012 standard are two examples of the key similarities and differences between the ANSI and ISO standards that are highlighted in this appendix. The most recent version of the PMBOK Guide is included in this appendix.

### **Process Management**

Both standards' process organization is divided into project management phases and subjects. The first thing that stands out in the following diagram is the addition of a new knowledge area, called stakeholder management, to both the ISO standard and the fifth edition of the PMBOK Guide. Utilizing AHP Decision Support Methods for Project Optimization. Two primary branches are presented in the decision-making subject. The first one employs fully transitive aggregation techniques classified as compensatory, while the second one is based on the decision-maker's limited capacity for discriminating and employs techniques classified as non-compensatory. Specifically, the compensating techniques

1. Rely on the notion that the person making the choice has flawless discernment skills.
2. Propose a fully transitive system of preferences.
3. Describe a resultant order as finished.
4. In contrast, the non-compensatory techniques
5. Rely on the decision maker's restricted capacity to discriminate.
6. Present an intransitive system of preferences.

The Analytic Hierarchy Process method, which is very adaptable and can be used in a variety of fields including the determination of the cost/benefit ratio, intervention strategies, project management scheduling, etc., is the focus of this appendix's discussion of multi-attribute or multi-criteria decision methods. The enormous number of pairwise comparisons to handle and the arbitrary selection of the numerical scale employed are two limitations of this approach.

### **The Semantic Scale**

The fundamental tenet of MADM techniques is a scalar approach for qualitative characteristics, where each attribute is linked to a list of arbitrary intervals that may maintain the attribute order. Three macro-steps often serve as the foundation for MADM methods:

1. The determination of standards and qualities.
2. Choose from a range of potential options.
3. The analysis of attribute values for the various options.

The Semantic Saaty Scale, developed by Thomas Lorie Saaty in the late 1970s, is a new value scale that was introduced that is capable of translating comparative qualitative appreciation into quantitative terms. We shall first make a comparison between this scale and the geometrical scale in order to understand the underlying idea. The objective of the AHP is to achieve the macro-objective by making logical decisions about a large number of micro-objectives. This method gives the decision maker the chance to measure and synthesize the numerous factors that contribute to the resolution of a complex problem and, as a result, makes it possible to identify the outcome that best meets the myriad of objectives by taking control of a number of factors/criteria or sub-criteria. The AHP decision-making strategy integrates a variety of already available methods, including pairwise comparison, consistency assessment, and the eigenvectors method, and utilizes numerical expressions of qualitative judgments. The AHP technique considers the following actions after having defined the issue and compiled a list of relevant factors:

1. Creation of a hierarchical framework for the issue.
2. A pairwise comparison is carried out to determine the relative weights of each element at each level and group in the hierarchy.
3. Dominance coefficients being added to a pairwise comparison matrix.
4. Making a consistency ratio determination.
5. Weight calculations expressing priority at the local and global levels.

### **The Hierarchies of Dominance**

We will be able to create a framework in which the information may be represented in an ordered manner that establishes a dominance hierarchy by breaking the issue down into its component parts, beginning with the reciprocal connection among all the variables involved in the decision-making process. Although either a top-down or a bottom-up technique may be utilized to carry out this operation, the latter is more often used. By mentioning: the breakdown structure is produced.

1. The overarching goal.
2. The criterion for appraisal.
3. The supporting criteria.
4. The potential choices.

### **Normalization**

After determining the priority vectors, we will normalize the matrices by dividing each element by the total of all the others, which entails dividing each element in a given column by the sum of all the elements in that same column.

1. The priority vectors will be acquired in this manner. The basic scale is then formed by using the lower measure as the basis for comparison between all other measurements.
2. The collection of components to be compared must be homogenous in order to be accurate:
3. The dominance of the greatest element won't surpass that of the smallest by more than nine times.
4. Nonetheless, group members won't have dominances that are too similar to one another.

For each potential comparison criteria, a vector reflecting the order of the alternatives is calculated in this phase, producing a collection of  $K$  sorting vectors. Each scale makes it possible to determine the relative relevance of each criteria in an alternate sequence. Usually, these scales are insufficient to specify a general hierarchy among potential choices: As a result, another vector known as the criteria order vector, which is created beginning from the square matrix of their pairwise comparison, will rank the criteria by their relative relevance with regard to the super-criterion.

### Comparison in Pairs

The Saaty hypothesis is predicated on the idea that decision makers often focus on solving a large number of partial issues as opposed to coming up with a comprehensive final answer. With this method, it is possible to create a collection of  $K$  square positive and reciprocal matrices  $A$ , where each matrix element for a given  $k$  represents the decision-maker's preference for the  $i$  over the  $j$  option. These matrices will result from a pairwise comparison of all  $K$  criteria and an assessment of each criterion's relative relevance to accomplishing the overall aim. These matrices will be squared, positive, and reciprocal in order to provide the symmetry of significance judgements.

### Local Weights Assessment

The system of linear equations previously described is not to be employed, and two significant mathematical findings from the theory of matrices will be used instead:

If  $1, 2, \dots, n$  fulfill the equation  $Ax = \lambda x$ , then  $a_{ii} = \lambda$  for each value of  $i$ .

The values of the respective eigenvalues will gradually change if we gently alter the  $a_{ij}$  values of a positive and reciprocal matrix. The major eigenvalue of  $A$ ,  $\lambda_{max}$ , has a value that is extremely near to  $n$  whereas the other eigenvalues are close to zero. As a result, we may state that the matrix is consistent when all elements on the main diagonal of  $A$  are equal to 1.

Then, in order to resolve our issue, we will locate a vector  $w$  that fulfills the following equation:

$$\lambda_{max} w = Aw.$$

The local weights may be determined using one of three techniques. The absolute approach uses a scale with a sorted set of levels to express the decision-maker's level of satisfaction with each end aim. Depending on the goals to be achieved, this scale could be altered. The primary eigenvector approach should first be used to establish the local weights of the final goals. The weights of the levels connected to each ultimate aim will next be assessed using the same methodology. Instead of comparing the actions pairwise to determine the local weights, each action will be given the weight of the level that best reflects its performance in relation to the aim under consideration. With this approach, an action's level of acceptability will be assessed using the standards. The distributive technique compares the activities pairwise in relation to the ultimate goals. Their local weights will be adjusted after being assessed using the primary eigenvector approach such that their total equals one. In the event when the co-existence of related activities structurally alters the preference, this technique enables the determination of the action priority. The optimum approach involves dividing the local weights of the actions by the weight of the action with the greatest value after they have been appraised. This technique will

be utilized when we decide to choose the optimal action regardless of how many instances of the identical action already exist.

## CONCLUSION

Project teams must aggressively welcome and include VIPs into their building projects. This necessitates a proactive, cooperative strategy, with continual VIP implementation review and improvement. Stakeholders may make sure that their projects offer the most value, fulfill stakeholder expectations, and contribute to sustainable and successful results by including VIPs in the project management process. Throughout the project life cycle, stakeholder involvement is essential because it fosters cooperation, transparency, and awareness of stakeholder demands, which enhance project results and value. By implementing these VIPs, project teams may increase value by boosting stakeholder satisfaction, decreasing waste, increasing efficiency, and optimizing project performance.

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## CHAPTER 21

### GLOBAL WEIGHTS EVALUATION FOR DECISION-MAKING

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#### ABSTRACT:

Global weights evaluation is a crucial process in decision-making and evaluation frameworks that involve multiple criteria or factors. This chapter provides an overview of global weights evaluation methods and their application in various fields, such as project management, investment analysis, and environmental assessments. The review examines popular approaches, including analytic hierarchy process (AHP), analytic network process (ANP), and weighted sum model (WSM). It explores their advantages, limitations, and considerations for their implementation. The chapter highlights the importance of global weights evaluation in enabling informed decision-making, promoting transparency, and enhancing the accuracy of evaluations in complex decision environments.

#### KEYWORDS:

Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), Consistency, Criteria, Decision-Making, Evaluation, Expert Judgment.

#### INTRODUCTION

This is the last step shared by all three methods used to determine the local weights mentioned above. It entails determining the overall weights or priorities of the actions using the hierarchical composition principle in order to assess the significance of each component in relation to the overall objective. The local weights of the relevant higher-level components are multiplied by those of each element, and the resultant products are then to be added together. Local weights of each hierarchy element will gradually be converted into global weights by working top-down. The key outcome of our study is the overall weights of the components at the bottom of the hierarchy, at the level below the end goals [1], [2]. Global weights enable the establishment of an order of preference since the last parts are actions that must be executed. An action, a plan, or a project will be preferred over another when its global weight is greater than the other. The intrinsic weight and the particular weight need to be distinguished now.

The intrinsic weight, which is a fixed number on a scale, represents the weight that a decision-maker gives to a particular aim in relation to a higher-level objective based on a set of values. The decision maker must examine the context of the environmental qualities and the particular decisional circumstance in order to evaluate the intrinsic weights of the goals, but they shouldn't take into consideration the actions to be evaluated's performances and attributes [3], [4]. The value and significance of the particular weight in the distributive and ideal approaches rely on the kind of normalization used to identify the local weights of the acts. The goal specific weights

show the relevance of action performances, taken as a whole and in relation to the objectives, when the total of the local weights of the actions equals [5], [6]. The particular weights represent the significance of the best performances of the actions on the various goals when the weight of the best action for each individual target is 1. In both situations, the precise weights are solely based on the whole set of acts up for evaluation and on how well they performed. The goal specific weights are subject to change as this set does.

In the distributive and ideal modes, normalization eliminates the differences of the discrimination between the objectives. In other words, the distinction between the actions taken to achieve the objectives is lost once they are measured using their normalized values. We will multiply the local intrinsic weights of the goals by their corresponding specific weights before normalizing the obtained products in order to accurately assess the local weights of the objectives and avoid the issue of the normalization of the local weights of the actions. The pairwise comparison matrix will be created, and the primary eigenvector method will then be used to determine the intrinsic weights of the goals. Which of the two goals must be followed in order to attain the goal? The decision maker will respond to these questions in order to calculate the dominance coefficients. Which extent? The approach is the same for calculating the individual weights, but the questions that need to be answered are given these two aims, which of them has the superior overall performances of the actions?

Which extent? Which of the better performances of the actions that are mentioned in these two goals is the best if the weights of the actions have been normalized so that the value of the best performance is equal to 1 for each objective? Which extent? Which of the greater performances of the activities referred to in the two goals is the best if the weights of the actions have been normalized so that the value of the best performance, for each objective, equals 1? Which extent? The AHP technique organizes all options into a priority scale based on their relative values in the case of normalized weights of the alternatives for each of the goals. Planning, resource allocation in resource-constrained situations, or more broadly, where the options to be evaluated have a unique value for many goals and there are no comparable actions or copies of acts to be compared, should all make use of this kind of synthesis [7], [8]. The ideal synthesis should be employed when there is just one best option to pick from and the most desired alternatives in a group gain their priority from the node directly above them.

When there are several alternatives with the same weight or when the attention is directed toward higher-range alternatives, optimal synthesis will be used. By dividing the performance score from each potential option by the total performance of all the alternatives under the same criteria, the distributive AHP mode generates preference ratings by normalizing the performance values. This implies that certain alternatives may have to be eliminated or that the preference of each option may grow if the score of an alternative is decreased. The ideal mode evaluates each performance score in relation to a standard, such as the performance of the best option under the criteria that are being taken into consideration. In this approach, the performance of other alternatives has no effect on the desire for the option under discussion [9], [10]. When the decision-maker is concerned in the difference in the significance of the several choices with respect to the criteria, the distributive method should be used. If you're interested in how each option acts toward a certain reference, you should use the optimum synthesis mode. For instance, the distributive method is advised when the decision-maker believes that the preference for a choice with a better rank for a criteria grows as the performance of all other choices with a lower rank decreases.

## DISCUSSION

However, the PILOT approach is a flexible technique that may be applied for any project optimization. Wimmer introduced his method with the purpose of employing it for development sustainability and ecodesign. In actuality, this approach enables decision-makers to employ qualitative data as a quantitative and numerical basis. The Ecodesign Checklist approach has evolved into the PILOT approach. In contrast to the ECM, this new technique offers a variety of focus points, various work methodologies, and a thorough explanation of each discovered focal point. Before being offered for sale as a CD-ROM, the Australian Government's PILOT project underwent successful testing by a few businesses. There are many guidelines on this CD-ROM and the accompanying book, each of which presents:

1. Detailed details regarding the desired outcome.
2. Dependencies on other principles.
3. A concrete illustration of the rule's intent.
4. A pertinent query that aids in assigning preferences.
5. A broad query meant to support the project draft.

There are three main sub-methods that make up the PILOT method. The ProductProject Life Cycle is often used in the learning phase to analyze a product's or project's whole life cycle. This is the most popular of the three sub-methods because it considers every facet of the project life cycle. However, if the goal is to concentrate on a specific aspect of the problem, this method would not be the best to use compared to the others because it typically emphasizes all potential problems. Additionally, using this sub-method needs individual specialists to have in-depth knowledge of every part of PLC, making a team often necessary to handle the intricate operations. The ProductProject Development Process is a sub-method that concentrates on elements important to certain development stages. The nature of the project or product will be determined prior to adopting this sub-method. This technique is mostly used to develop a plan for project or product optimization. ProductProject Development techniques. Using a set of attributes and potential optimization techniques, this sub-method is used to categorize items or projects. It is suggested when prompt and decisive judgments are required and may be utilized for new projects since it allows for the consideration of all factors.

The PILOT method inherited from the ECM method the checklists that working teams or multidisciplinary groups may employ in the industrial sphere and can use to produce an estimate of a project as well as to give fresh ideas on how to optimize projects. The initial phase in the PILOT approach, like with other decision support techniques, is developing a precise framework within which all project-related data must be arranged. The decision-maker must next choose a value to express their choice for each criteria in the following stage. The PILOT method use checklists for this task. By creating a matrix that is presented as a questionnaire and enabling experts to simply respond to questions, the checklists constitute a technique used to discover project features. Individual project features are connected to optimization methodologies and the corresponding recommendations. Depending on the expertise of the decision maker, there are several types of checklists: there are particular checklists for engineers, designers, managers, etc. The five steps listed below must be followed while using checklists:

1. Grading each estimate question according to its significance.
2. Estimating by responding to the questions.
3. Multiplying the estimate's significance rating to prioritize the assignment.

4. Executing a risk assessment: rough calculation of time, expenses, measurement technology issues, etc.
5. Assigning duties and deadlines: a deadline and the owner of the realization progress should be established for each value.

### **The Order of Dominance**

A project's life cycle analysis will enable us to identify a set of criteria that should be taken into account when making a choice. To establish a dominance hierarchy starting with the whole set of criteria and sub-criteria, we will use the completed checklist and only take into account the sub-criteria that have received high ratings by selecting a minimal value for the responses.

### **The Matrix of Comparison**

Starting with the simplified correlation that only contains the results relevant to the given application, we may complete the comparison matrix. This is going to be normalized such that the total of each row equals 1. It should be noted that measurements will be removed from and won't show up in the comparison matrix if a sub-criteria has correlation indices equal to zero for each potential intervention. Realizing the scheme by creating the clusters that make up the program structure is the first step in employing the super decision software. The tallest cluster will include the primary goal, while the lowest cluster will contain the potential alternatives:

1. For the aim, the first cluster.
2. For the criterion, a second cluster.
3. For the sub-criteria, the third cluster.
4. The fourth cluster of potential choices.
5. The next step is to link each node to the others when they have all been created:
6. The objective will be related to all first-level requirements.
7. Only the corresponding sub-criteria will be attached to each criterion:
8. Utilization of materials while taking performance into account.
9. Favor products created from raw resources that are renewable.
10. Choosing recyclable materials.
11. Keep separate composite materials apart.
12. All potential options will be linked to each sub-criteria.

The data may be entered into the software application after the scheme has been finished with all connections. A dialogue box where we may enter values from the comparison matrix will display when we use the function node comparisons of the super decision program. Directly answering to the questionnaire that corresponds to the matrix utilizing is another potential method for inserting values.

The program gives us the option of adding data by direct data input if all we have is a checklist, where the numbers solely reflect a weight associated with each possibility rather than a comparison between two choices. An example of project evaluation using impact analysis techniques. The estimation and assessment of the entire effect is becoming a more crucial issue in the context of project evaluation. This implies that the complete range of advantages produced by the use of each project deliverable, throughout the course of the entire project and product life cycle, is taken into account. It is helpful to begin by defining several terms that are commonly used in this appendix.



The project life cycle is the period of time from the beginning to the end of the project, which is verified by the delivery of all the contractually required deliverables. The project and product life cycle is the period of time from when the project's end product begins to function until it is updated, decommissioned, or replaced. Typically, the economic and financial aspects of the project appraisal come first. It is carried out while taking into account investment cash flow, which is calculated as the differential cash flow in the alternative hypothesis of carrying out the project or not, i.e., the 'time-framed vector' balance between revenues and expenses accounted for the project from its inception until the end of its product life cycle. The project net benefit, which will be taken into account to justify the project, is the time-phased overall balance between financial advantages and associated expenses. The investment that will be made. The following is a general analysis of the two cash flow components:

**Outflow:** Expenses or expenditures associated with executing the project up to the product's deployment, as well as operating the project product as opposed to not doing so. One of them is the cost of purchasing and/or running the project.

**Inflow:** Any advantage that can be fairly represented in monetary terms that is created by the project outcome, such as revenues, savings, or other benefits. These include cost savings for the company and/or higher profits, both of which are made feasible by the project's execution.

In many cases, especially for government programs, the appraisal of a project's success extends much beyond monetary gains. Other benefit categories that are difficult to define in monetary terms but must still have quantitatively quantifiable benefits must be included in order to accomplish a thorough assessment. These additional advantages are often brought about by quality enhancements, but if they can be quantified, they serve as the real project success metrics. Efficiency factors on delivered services/products and effectiveness factors connected to the service/production activity or to the institutional function of the organization are examples of additional advantages created. The pages that follow in this appendix will outline a thorough model for the impact evaluation of a project that was created using a multi-dimensional approach and incorporates non-financial benefits in addition to traditional financial analysis for investment evaluation as project success indicators. These are highlighted in further detail below.

### **Model Information**

The 'impact analysis' model was created and put to use as an experimental method to assess the 'outcome' of about 50 ICT projects within the monitoring process of 134 e-Government projects, carried out by local government institutions but co-financed by the Italian Department for Innovation and Technology. The method's primary data source is the e-GEP framework<sup>3</sup>, a comprehensive model made up of 92 basic indicators that are stacked hierarchically into three key value categories: democracy, effectiveness, and efficiency. In order to develop a holistic evaluation of the potential public value created by eGovernment, taking into full account both more qualitative benefits as well as purely financial consequences.

The monitoring team found a practical solution to the key problem the aforementioned model faced how to quantify the qualitative impact. Although the 'impact analysis' model has the same conceptual underpinnings and basic layout of the previous framework, it has been greatly reduced and contextualized to cut down on model complexity and enable practical definition of each indicator.

## Efficiency

The underlying premise is that innovative actions on organizations and their processes are the only way to enable improved efficiency of e-Government services. Three third-level indicators make up the related main indicator: Cashable financial gains are a measurement of cost savings brought about by the increase in organizational efficiency brought about by the project's execution. Cost savings for both staff and bought goods/services are included. Better empowered workers are those who have obtained official or informal training to operate in re-engineered, innovative, or innovated processes, as well as the number of workers allocated to other processes. Better organizational and IT architectures are measured by the quantity of 'transactions' carried out by people or companies on new or re-engineered processes, the number of re-engineered processes, and the quantity of digital documents maintained in the re-engineered processes.

## Effectiveness

When local government activities are improved as a direct result of e-Government policies or operations that are based on ICT solutions, this metric quantifies the enhanced benefits for the key stakeholders. Two third-level indicators make up the related main indicator:

1. Reduced administrative burden. This indicator measures how much time and money the major stakeholders have saved by using new services.
2. Customer satisfaction is measured by the average decrease in case processing time, the consumption of online services for a longer period of time, and the average usability of the services.

Impact evaluation throughout the product life cycle and at project closeout. An impact study that uses standard methods should be carried out as part of the project closeout process. At that stage, a 'near definite' project business case review may be done since all the pertinent project performance indicators have been evaluated using real data, including time, cost, and product quality. This assessment is advised to be discussed in the 'closeout meeting' that will be conducted throughout the closure process by the project manager, together with the project team, and then with the Project Management Steering Committee. A future action plan to choose a better suitable route for the product may be supported by any departure from the existing baseline. In the meantime, the Project Management Steering Committee has the specific responsibility of planning a post-project impact review and allocating appropriate responsibility and accountability within the organization during the project closeout process because project business justification must take into account the entire product life cycle timespan.

This final assessment, which must be completed after a suitable period of time in order to fully assess the project's effect, aims to provide an after-the-fact assessment of the project's and its product's true worth. The argument that may be made is that by the time any project or product flaws are discovered, it's usually too late to recover them. Even while this isn't always the case, it nevertheless counts as a lesson learned for the organization's project knowledge base. We may always gain knowledge from our past mistakes! In conclusion, the impact study for each project closeout event should involve the following steps, all of which are connected to the business case justification:

1. To check if the project result still adheres to the original costbenefit analysis's assumptions.
2. To examine any factors that may have ultimately caused the project and its output to diverge from the intended effect profile.
3. To document the 'lessons learnt' about adherence to the anticipated effect profile.
4. 'Post-project costbenefit review' must be prepared, which should contain:
5. Structure of the project and operational processes
6. When and how the post-project review will be conducted.
7. Metricsindicators that will be measured and the sources that will be used
8. The actual measurements or indicator values must fit the effect profile.

### **Operational Approach and Benefits**

The evaluation procedure listed below may be used in operational mode:

1. The reasonable monetary expression of costs and benefits using sound financial principles.
2. The portion of the benefit that cannot be articulated in monetary terms but rather in quantitatively measurable values must first be described, and then the right meter must be chosen to gauge and afterwards assess the intendedactual impact.
3. To ensure uniformity and consistency throughout the entire evaluation process, the impact evaluation must be carried out over the course of the project life cycle while also taking into account the project and product life cycles, at the very least during the initial stages following deployment.

The effect analysis should be carried out more precisely as follows:

1. prior to the project's launch, during the feasibility study, to help with the choice of whether or not to go on with the project investment.
2. When a project is being implemented, at predetermined project life cycle stages, or on an as-needed basis, it is checked to see whether the business case for the project is still sound and if the anticipated results are really achievable.
3. following project closeout, especially during the first operations phase, to assess how many anticipated benefits were really realized.
4. It is feasible to generate uniform project and product performance assessments using the model, provided that it is regularly implemented. These evaluations are built on a firm foundation of quantifiable metrics and use similar indications across the course of the whole project and product life cycle.
5. It might be conceivable to develop a reliable benchmarking tool for portfolio management should this method be used to a collection of many similar projects.
6. Additionally, the ex-post review is a potent tool for analyzing the underlying issues that may have prevented the project from producing the desired costbenefit results. If still practical, it might identify remedial steps that could ultimately lead to the recovery of the desired advantages.

### **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, global weights evaluation provides a valuable framework for decision-making in diverse fields. It enables decision-makers to navigate complex decision environments, consider

multiple criteria, and prioritize actions effectively. By understanding the strengths and limitations of different methods and implementing them with care and transparency, decision-makers can enhance the quality and reliability of their evaluations, leading to more robust and informed decision outcomes. However, it is important to acknowledge the limitations and potential biases associated with global weights evaluation methods. Assumptions, subjectivity, and data quality can influence the outcomes, requiring ongoing validation and verification. Additionally, contextual factors and evolving priorities may necessitate the periodic review and adjustment of global weights.

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## CHAPTER 22

### LIFE CYCLE COSTING FOR FINANCIAL ANALYSIS

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

Life cycle costing (LCC) is a comprehensive financial analysis approach that considers the total cost of owning, operating, and maintaining an asset over its entire life span. This chapter provides an overview of life cycle costing and its significance in decision-making processes, particularly in the fields of construction, infrastructure, and facility management. The review explores the key components of LCC, including initial costs, operational costs, maintenance costs, and end-of-life costs. It examines various methodologies and techniques used to calculate and analyze life cycle costs, such as discounted cash flow analysis, net present value, and sensitivity analysis. By incorporating life cycle costing into decision-making, organizations can make informed choices that optimize long-term value, improve resource allocation, and enhance sustainability.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Economic Evaluation, Life Cycle Assessment (LCA), Maintenance Costs, Operating Costs, Replacement Costs, Residual Value, Risk Assessment.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Today, everyone tries to anticipate the results of their choices before acting, despite the fact that we are aware of the astronomical chances against a prognosis coming true. Since the vast majority of individuals working in the construction sector handle other people's money, it is typical to use a recognized forecasting technique to anticipate a result. The ultimate psychological aim, that of confidence, which is a need for investment, may be attained if certain criteria are utilized and all parties involved agree with the forecasting process, even if the prediction may not be correct. If the outcome turns out to not be what was planned, at least the choice was made with information available at the time [1], [2]. The urge to keep one's money to oneself usually leads to financial conflicts. Therefore, buying cheap and selling high should always be the goal. However, more might be paid up front if it is anticipated that the arrangement will end up being more advantageous or yielding bigger rewards. In this situation, some kind of financial analysis of a certain action is required. It seems sense that one may analyze how a choice would affect the economy, and it makes sense that one would want to preserve that analysis for future use [3], [4].

Life cycle costing is a mathematical technique used to help make decisions and is often utilized when weighing many possibilities. It is a financial ranking system for alternatives that are mutually incompatible that may be used in a financial setting to promote the desirable and

remove the unacceptable [5], [6]. Aids to decision-making are appreciated and utilized to support our activities since decision-making is at the core of all of our working hours. Eliminating ambiguity and laying the groundwork for eventual achievement is the capacity to foresee the effects of our choices.

For instance, structural engineers are aware that a certain size of steel component will withstand a specific weight thanks to the findings of laboratory tests. They are able to defend their behavior by citing the laboratory record. Typically, the laboratory report will provide a range of options or member sizes to sustain the load. Unsuitable solutions may be ruled out because of particular requirements, availability, building challenges, or expense. The engineer must document and support their conclusion when deciding which steel part to use. This makes it possible for the choice to be evaluated in the future for efficacy [7], [8].

Typically, this decision-making process includes the question of which solution is the cheapest, and a system for establishing and documenting a financial decision's justification must be built. Life cycle costing is a technique for examining the financial effects of a choice. Five options have been produced and priced in response to the request to build an office block. Since Option B offers clear financial advantages, it will be chosen. This lowest-cost style of decision-making, which operates on the presumption that the cheapest choice is the best financial one, is without a doubt the main way now used to pick options for building projects. Many building occupants discovered in the 1930s that the building's operating expenses had a substantial influence on their budget. The 'lowest-cost' technique of selection was discovered to not always be the most affordable option during the course of the project. When a variety of possibilities are being considered, it has become clear that another technique of financial analysis that takes into account the building's operating expenses must be employed to add credibility to the conclusions [9], [10].

### The Techniques

There are several alternatives. All are well-documented and have been used in a variety of commercial sectors at least since the early 1930s. The following are the top three in the construction industry.

**Simple Payback:** The length of time between an investment's return and its repayment. Net present value is the amount that must be set aside today in order to cover all potential financial demands throughout the course of the investment.

**Internal Rate of Return:** This is the percentage generated on the capital invested in each year of the project's existence after deducting the amount that must be repaid.

To calculate the financial value of an investment, all three techniques use accounting systems that were originally intended for the industrial sector. The three techniques were created to assess the value of an initial investment. For instance, a new machine may cost £1 million to buy, but additional revenue from the equipment that results from cheaper manufacturing, more output, or better product quality may be £200,000 annually. In this case, the investment yields a predictable return. In construction, we often want to know whether more funds invested on a building's construction are worthwhile given the savings that would be realized from a resulting decrease in operating expenses. For instance, although selecting ceramic tiles in a bathroom may be more costly, the upkeep savings over a painted surface may make it beneficial.

## DISCUSSION

### Simple Payback

Simple payback is a straightforward approach of cost evaluation that is widely used in business, especially to assess energy-saving plans. Simple payback is characterized as follows:

where  $P$  is the payback time,  $I$  is the capital invested, and  $R$  is the amount of money that was earned back or saved as a consequence of the investment.

### Consequently For Our Machine Example

The decision-making process must now determine whether a return on invested capital is acceptable after five years. In order to compare solutions A and D using this concept and the alternatives in, a comparator technique must be used. Is the extra expenditure of £500000 in solution A worth the extra yearly maintenance cost savings of £100000? It is vital to determine if a five-year return on the increased expenditure is worthwhile before choosing option A rather than option D. Simple payback's application is limited by the outcome. It is vital to assess the accept payback time, but no technique or standard has been created for doing so. In reality, the investment criteria are usually established at a maximum of two or three years. This is mostly because investors are now seeking a speedy return on their investments, or short-termism, but it's also because the calculation disregards the following factors:

1. Inflation.
2. Interest.
3. Money flow.
4. Taxation.

The potential impact of these variables is assumed to be limited by shortening the payback time, however this may not be the case. Taking into account the large difference in the basic repayment method's outcome from taxes alone. Business expenses are exempt from UK corporation tax, which is presently fixed at 35%, at a rate of 100%. The advantage of a maintenance cost savings is diminished since it will lead to a future loss of corporation tax exemption.

With corporate tax reduction at 35%, a resource cost of £100 per year will only cost. As a result, an apparent annual savings of £100 is really only worth £65. Taxation has an impact on the initial investment as well as the capital expenditure. For instance, if the capital amount invested qualifies for a 25% range of capital and revenue allowances, tax relief on a balance that has been written down over four years would be as follows:

1. Thus, true capital cost is equal to £500000 minus £109000, or £391000.
2. If decision-makers employ the simple payback approach without having a complete understanding of the investor's financial situation, it will be challenging. To assess the feasibility of choices, many operational decisions have been made simply using this methodology.
3. The straightforward payback method does have a function. By employing basic payback as an early coarse filter of solutions, implausible possibilities with results of over 10 years may be quickly eliminated, saving time on sophisticated calculations. Simple repayment shouldn't be utilized any more often, for sure.

### **Present Value Net**

Many claim that the best method for assessing building-related possibilities is the net present value of a cash flow. The approach accounts for all the obvious factors affecting a cash flow. According to Flannagan et al., net present value is:

### **Rate of Return Internally**

The most popular ways of assessment in the construction sector are simple payback and NPV, but it is also essential to examine another widely utilized approach. When an investment generates a return on the capital invested, the internal rate of return is a DCF approach utilized. NPV is equal to zero when capital cost and income are balanced using IRR. The IRR is the required discount rate. The project's feasibility may then be evaluated, especially in relation to the anticipated performance of the firm, versus an estimated objective for return on capital invested.

It may be argued that this eliminates the need for comparison schemes, but in practice, IRR will always be compared to a comparable scheme, namely the do nothing plan. Even though it is employed, this strategy does provide challenges in the building context since it relies on the idea that an investment will bring in money. Additionally, it counts on reinvestment at the IRR. In terms of building, all capital flows are external and reinvestment levels are not guaranteed. In the construction sector, life cycle costing must ultimately be used as a decision-making tool to remove competing, mutually incompatible plans rather than as a system with the potential to generate revenue on its own. Construction promoters will consider a variety of plans at various locations with competing incomes when determining profit. IRR may be used at this level more profitably than with individual schemes.

### **Sensitivity Research**

Financial study of several alternatives reveals a significant issue with life cycle costing. Although the mathematical model is logical and yields an audible outcome, the ambiguity around the model's input variables raises doubts about the solution's practicality. Systems for evaluating risk have been calculated where a variable's range of values is introduced and the sensitivity of a solution to changes in certain variables is evaluated. Calculations may be done using a variety of inflation rates for year 5, yielding a range of outcomes from which a choice can be made. Inflation is assumed to range in year 5 between 5% and 10%. This will determine how sensitive the computation is to changes in a significant variable. The so-called Monte Carlo method is used. This technique uses a sequence of random integers to generate solutions at random for each variable before computing the outcome. The likelihood of a final answer may then be determined by a number of computations. Because of this, economists, scholars, and mathematicians have improved the computational methods required to answer the vast majority of queries about the precision of life cycle costing. In fact, manufacturers of computer software have exclusive programs in their arsenal that do away with the necessity for the time-consuming calculations involved in a life cycle cost analysis. Choosing a discount rate for inflation that is net.

Other considerations include the information's real use, the builder's ability to utilize it, and the possibility of incorporating it into a choice about the building design. Especially in the private sector, it is unlikely that any practicing architect, engineer, or quantity surveyor has started a thorough examination of choices based on the life cycle technique that has ultimately determined



the project result. Is this incorrect? Should we really consider applying life cycle pricing to every building? The National Energy Conservation Policy Act, a piece of legislation introduced by the Carter administration, mandates life cycle analysis for any projects costing more than \$50000 in the USA. This approach was implemented in response to the oil crisis of the 1970s, and multiple articles have shown how choosing projects with low capital costs has had severe resource cost ramifications, notably in the US defense sector. Should other people follow this example? It is worthwhile to examine a study of the outcomes from a life cycle costing equation.

The findings of a two-building investigation. Building A has a lower starting capital cost than Building B, however as the project progresses, Building A's NPV steadily increases in comparison to Building B's. The optimal answer for each scenario is determined by the center line, which is surrounded by a band that shows how sensitive the computation is to various factors. As time goes on and unknowns affect the answer, this band becomes wider. Three distinct regions can be seen: two regions where it is clear which building should be constructed, and a third, middle, or 'indeterminate' region where the ranges of variables are such that either A or B could be said to be viable within the parameters of a sensitivity analysis using assumed multiples of variables.

The magnitude of the discount factor used determines the slope of the line. A steeply sloping line is the consequence of a low discount factor. A large discount factor makes the line less steep, prolonging the time frame in which the projected balance point is reached and lengthening the 'indeterminate' phase. It is important to think carefully about the discount factor. The choice of the  $r$  will have a big impact on the design choice. The final choice will be significantly influenced by an arbitrary high-rate selection. The majority of literature on the topic recommend using a discount factor of 7% to 10% and a net inflation rate of between 2 and 5%. These rates are predicated on values that can be shown by safe fixed-interest investments like Treasury Bonds, gilts, or local interest rates. The discount rate for a Treasury Bond rate of return of 9% and inflation of 6% will be

In actuality, the appropriate course of action is to apply this degree of discount factor to public structures. However, in the private sector, investing in buildings is considered as a way to increase returns above safe assets. otherwise, constructing for profit would be of little value. The majority of banks won't invest in any kind of speculative venture unless it can be shown that the return on the investment is greater than 30%, ensuring both their own required return and a level of return for investors such that they are unlikely to simply reinvest the loan elsewhere at a higher level of interest rate. Similar to this, the majority of developers want a profit of about 20% for a construction agreement. Therefore, the needed rate of return on the investment has to be substantially greater in private ventures, which are often financed via straightforward debt financing with a component of equity investment, in the range of 20–40%. The net of inflation discount rate will be 35% if the project's needed rate of return is 35% and inflation is estimated to be 6%.

### **Utilizing Life Cycle Costing**

The proposition will provide objectives from which techniques are built to attain the goals, and the argument will explain specific demands. A choice will be taken and a resolution will be found eventually. The approaches discussed might be characterized as actions that will be decided by circumstances that must accomplish certain objectives. Consequences of the circumstances and actions must satisfy the demands put forth by the argument. Consider a

company that manufactures paper clips. its objective is to generate a profit from the manufacturing of paper clips. The business's decision-making process follows a logical route. If a deliberate action has an impact on sales revenue, then it will also have an impact on the ultimate need, which is to produce money. This procedure is straightforward and easy to comprehend. However, some of the original reasoning may be lost if the deliberative act is postponed or subcontracted to a third party, such an architect or builder.

### **Selection Procedure**

The rate at which money may be earned is absent from 1.5. although it will always be as much as possible, in reality, competition imposes a realistic minimum. Always put sell paper clips to produce a return on capital of at least 30% in the objectives box. Any agent doing an LCC evaluation of a specific item, down to the structural engineer choosing a steel beam for a new facility, has to know this information. In order to satisfy the primary need, the return on capital utilized criteria must be used. Due to commercial confidentiality concerns, information may not be accessible, but parties doing LCC calculations can make a plausible assumption. Because this kind of information is essential to the investor's business strategy, confidentiality is required. LCC is useless as a tool for making decisions if this information is not known. The usage of simple payback without understanding the tax consequences serves as an excellent illustration of this. As a result of creating the mathematical model and determining the roles played by the various relevant variables, it is clear that the design team must have a thorough understanding of the objectives before anyone can use a financial appraisal to compare various options. To do this, it is vital to comprehend the fundamental claims made by building proponents and determine how an LCC analysis may further their objectives.

### **The Creator**

This is, to put it simply, the project's return on investment. Even if the developers have no inclination to run the property, they must factor in an alluring yield to make the facility more marketable. The goal yield will range from 4 to 15%, depending on the building's residual value and the possibility of increased yields. 15% is the typical anticipated return on an equity investment. Investors will be discouraged from the project, correctly assuming that safer investment choices are available, if the yield is lower than the rate of return on Treasury Bonds or basic bank interest. Most builders will create projects in order to make money from a sale when the work is finished. Their buyers do not want the construction-related risk. The developer anticipates making a sizable profit for taking on the building risk, with 20% being a common goal return. The developers' strategy for guaranteeing a high return is to make the project as appealing as they can, first to the potential tenants who will generate the revenue and then to the investors who will want to rent the building out early in the hopes that a buyer would be drawn in by a guaranteed income. The formula will work as follows, in plain terms. The tenant is responsible for covering resource expenses under a fully repaired lease. therefore the purchaser's resource costs are restricted to administration and debt collection. In the case, they may total £60000 per year. The needed annual revenue from a renter is thus £4.38 M. The renter will be charged £43.8 per square foot per year if the nett let area is, for example, 100000 ft<sup>2</sup>. Numerous variables will affect a renter's choice to sign a lease, and each tenant will choose which variables should take precedence. Important variables include:

1. Location.
2. Facilities.

3. Prestige.
4. Lease conditions.
5. running expenses.

What foundation is utilized to create the LCC assessment criteria in this context? Is the installation seen from the perspective of the developer or the tenant? The tenant's tax condition and anticipated return on capital employed were unclear at the time of construction. On the other side, there are no resource expenditures for the assessment for the developers. They don't need to get an LCC assessment until they want to increase the rent since they may show a potential tenant that the building's operating expenses are lower than those of comparable buildings, making it a better value for the renter. For instance, if yearly resource costs are equal to one-twentieth of capital costs, the potential rent rate savings will be as follows if steps are taken that lead to a 15% reduction in resource costs. Therefore, the developer might raise the rent by 5%. The yield as a consequence rises to 12.77% as a result of this. The renter must, however, be certain that this resource saving is secure and not just a waste of paper. The developers will be required to reimburse the tenant for the cost of resources in this situation. The developers could be forced to make a product-performance promise even when they don't want to or have to by law.

The developers gain nothing from the possibility of offering 15% cost-saving measures that would result in a 5% rent rise. The is so modest that it is likely to be missed during simple tenant discussions. Why then bother? The developer will utilize lower operating expenses as a shop window or come on in and look strategy. The energy-conscious or green renter may be drawn to these perceived savings. Other than a paper performance, there are no assurances provided. The renters' choice will be based on their perception that they are renting a building with reduced operating costs. The controversy over gas vs electric central heating is a prime illustration of this.

Electric storage heating has a lower initial capital cost than gas heating, but its operating costs are comparable to gas heating if the structure is well insulated. Electric storage heating has been confirmed as the best choice using LCC methodologies. However, it is generally agreed that gas central heating is less expensive to operate. Because consumers prefer radiators over storage heaters and because gas is regarded to be less expensive, properties with gas central heating are easier to rent out. Gas vs electric is simply chosen based on the tenant's preference. neither the lessor nor the lessee consider LCC while making this choice. Going back to the main point, understanding the initial objectives stated in the offer is necessary before evaluating the possibilities. The objectives of the creators are:

1. Earn money quickly.
2. Buy cheap.
3. Market high.
4. entice prospective tenants.

### **Increased Output**

Therefore, the engineer should avoid using LCC as a means of decision-making when presented with a variety of heating choices. Building specifications will be chosen based on keeping the building's cost, maintaining a competitive rental, and yet attracting a tenant, rather than on cost analysis. These are choices that can only be evaluated subjectively and only in comparison to other buildings that have been leased in the neighborhood.

## Investing Institutions

The institutional investor is a developer of buildings who has a lot of cash and wants to invest for a return greater than the rate of interest offered by banks. An investor like this would typically be a pension fund. Pension funds will allocate risk across different market sectors and invest a portion of their capital in a real estate portfolio. These investors will be aware of which properties have high returns, and they often define the kind of structures they are prepared to buy from a developer. Even if they own a building, they won't be very concerned with how it is run. The fully repairing lease, which requires the tenant to maintain and repair the building and its contents for the duration of the lease, makes this possible. In this approach, the link between resource costs and capital costs is severed, and the designer loses sight of the relevance of LCC. The objectives of an institutional investor are:

1. High output.
2. High building retention value.
3. Low cost of management.
4. Nice and safe tenants.
5. Blue chip renters .
6. Term leases.

Regular rent reviews with only increases. For the majority of institutional investors, it would be a waste of time and effort to apply an LCC analysis to a property. The designer won't know the building user's necessary return on capital employed since choosing criteria like the discount factor for design choices is an impossible undertaking. In fact, the designers may never even get the chance to learn the name of the pension fund. But only when applied to the cash stream and not to design choices for building development, is the application of DCF for the investor's money particularly significant.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, A strong tool for decision-making is life cycle costing, which enables businesses to fully assess the financial ramifications of their investments. Organizations may maximize value, enhance decision quality, and support sustainability by taking a long-term view and analyzing expenses over the whole life cycle. To make sure that investments are both financially feasible and in line with the organization's strategic goals, LCC should be included into the decision-making process as a normal procedure. It's crucial to recognize the difficulties of LCC, including the lack of data, the quality of that data, and the unpredictability of estimates for the future. Organizations must make sure that relevant data is gathered, evaluated, and that any assumptions used in LCC calculations are reasonable and supported by sufficient evidence.

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## CHAPTER 23

### LIFE CYCLE COSTING: RELIABILITY-BASED AND OPTIMUM DESIGN

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#### ABSTRACT:

Life cycle costing (LCC) is a comprehensive financial analysis approach that considers the total cost of owning, operating, and maintaining an asset over its entire life span. When combined with reliability-based and optimum design principles, LCC becomes a powerful tool for optimizing the design of assets. This chapter explores the integration of LCC with reliability-based design and optimum design methodologies. It discusses how reliability considerations can inform the design process, ensuring that assets meet performance requirements while minimizing life cycle costs. Additionally, it examines how optimal design principles can help identify the most cost-effective design alternatives that balance performance, reliability, and life cycle costs. By combining LCC with reliability-based and optimum design approaches, organizations can make informed decisions that result in reliable, efficient, and cost-effective assets.

#### KEYWORDS:

Risk Assessment, Sensitivity Analysis, Total Cost Of Ownership (TCO), Upfront Costs, Value For Money, Whole-Life Cost Analysis.

#### INTRODUCTION

For a variety of reasons, including taxes, cash flow, and others, the majority of firms will often choose to lease a facility, but those who want to construct their own facilities will find use for LCC. The following must be established if the designers determine that an economic reason for choosing between solutions is relevant. The interest rate will be determined by the anticipated return on investment for the company. The anticipated building lifespan. The method of resource management should be used so that costs may be calculated. The company's inflation forecasts. The majority of firms who construct buildings don't do it with the intention of making money from the structure. rather, the structure serves as a tool. With the exception of systems that utilize resources more intensively than others for instance, when the annual cost of resources is more than one-third of the capital cost the inevitability of a high return on capital invested will predetermine the selection of the least expensive solution. When comparing alternatives between competing individual building components rather than for the structure as a whole, individual LCC ratings of high resource-cost items, such as high energy consumers, will have importance [1], [2].

It's amazing to see how many companies make their own investment choices using DCF. DCF is seldom, if ever, used in operations since they often depend on relatively short-term investment

assessments. The importance of LCC for the project may be shown by simply asking the business accountant whether DCF is employed in the investment decision-making process. There won't be much support in the corporate world for more capital investments to save expenses in years 10, 11, and 12. The business owner will want to release money right now for the mainstream company. The company's objectives are:

1. Low cost.
2. Reputable structure.
3. Locality.
4. Functionality.
5. The government.

LCC has a lot of importance in this industry, for example. LCC is especially pertinent given the need to quantify and defend governmental spending. There is substantial dispute over the discount factor should be used in public buildings. 10% arbitrary, as indicated in the USA, don't appear to be very important. It would seem logical to utilize the Treasury Bond rate or index-linked gilts. The net of inflation discount factor will drop to around 5% if a government inflation projection is included, making a thorough LCC analysis desirable. The objectives for those who promote public buildings are:

1. Creating usability
2. Audi's decision-making process.
3. Economicalness

### **Added Uses**

As mentioned above, applying LCC accounting to certain architectural components may have fascinating effects on how structures are designed. The fundamental tools of building services engineering haven't changed much since the 1930s. copper wires, steel ducts, and water pipes are still utilized to transmit energy.

When choosing the system with the lowest cost, factors with high capital costs and low resource costs will significantly influence the economic choice. Cables, pipelines, and air ducts are examples of objects with such economic properties. Boilers, air-handling units, electric motors, and light fixtures are examples of items with a relatively high resource-cost to capital-cost ratio that are essential to the functioning of the system. According to logic, we need to use fewer relatively expensive energy transporters in order to increase the LCC effectiveness of our system [3], [4].

Therefore, the construction process will be more LCC-efficient with the decentralization of important services plant. It's interesting to note that the installation of these transit networks themselves slows down development and delays completion. This equipment's need for space inside the structure also increases the size and cost of the structure. LCC promotes a decentralized approach of installing building engineering services, which has several positive spillover effects on the construction process [5], [6]. LCC is a useful tool for identifying areas of a building that could be approached in a different way than that which is typically accepted in the construction process, even though it may not have any obvious appeal to building promoters. This is because LCC can be applied to comparisons of small elements of a building using indicative discount factors.

## Engineering Value

LCC application to structures need to be regarded seriously. Before starting the analysis, it is important to assess the value of the likely outcomes. The risk associated with thorough analysis lies not in the analysis itself but rather in the possibility that judgments will be made that cannot be taken into account in the calculation [7], [8]. A complicated and comprehensive LCC analysis may be destroyed by subjective decision-making, such as I like the look of that building, it will enhance the corporate image of my company. 'Value engineering' is a new word that has emerged in recognition of this [9], [10]. Value engineering goes beyond a straightforward economic study to describe the objectives of a proposal. Both factual and subjective justifications and conclusions are given values. LCC is a natural extension of value engineering, which is now merely a portion of a topic that has evolved from it.

## DISCUSSION

Typically, civil engineering buildings or structural systems are built for public use and for financial gain. Therefore, it is necessary for the building to remain reliable and secure throughout the duration of its useful life. Additionally, it must be economically. Reliability theory has often been used to assess the safety and serviceability of structures or structural systems. For the last ten years, this has been the situation. This guarantees that a probabilistic technique is used to determine the safety of structures. Therefore, the reliability  $1-P_f$  or the likelihood of failure  $P_f$  are two ways to represent the measure of safety. Using multiple integrals of joint probability density functions for member resistances, loads, or load effects, the chance of failure is precisely calculated. Because structures include several complicated member pieces that are loaded in a variety of ways, the computation is exceedingly challenging and sometimes impossible to complete.

Simplified approximation methods or presumptions are utilized to get around the complexity of multi-integrals. Determining if a certain building will fail solely outside of certain stated minimal limitations is the basic goal of safety estimation. The level of significance of the structure or the level of risk that society is willing to take as a result of the structure failing should be used to determine and approve the minimal likelihood of failure defined for the structure. The safety conditions are the failure conditions for serviceability, however reliability-based serviceability design presents challenges. It is believed that serviceability is a result of structural behavior, hence the term serviceable is not well defined. Contrary to the answer for a safety design, this makes the serviceability design challenging to accomplish. Because fuzzy theory may convey the ambiguous or confusing concepts of serviceability design, it is applied in design.

The best structural design is essentially a plan to research the financial elements of structural design. The typical formulation of structural optimization issues involves the minimization of an objective function stated by design variables, subject to restrictions that may include side limitations like lower or higher limits of sectional areas. Techniques for linear or nonlinear programming are utilized to arrive at an optimal solution. Depending on the issue at hand, Monte Carlo techniques or dynamic programming approaches may also be used. This reliability-based design examines and studies how to reduce life cycle costs. A concrete slab's reliability-based ideal reinforcing cover thickness for enhancing life cycle. The calculation of a structure's life cycle costs and service life are both impacted by the durability of concrete. Economic life, serviceable life, and physical life are the three subcategories of life.



A concrete structure's physical lifespan mostly relies on the concrete's toughness. Insufficient durability leads to fractures or spalling in a concrete part, which may lower the entire structure's serviceability and may impair its aesthetic appeal. As carbonation progresses through the thickness of the concrete cover, corrosion of the reinforcing steel will also take place. It is common knowledge that corrosion is influenced by the thickness of the concrete overlay and that the variation in cover thickness is influenced by the caliber of the construction. In order to maintain a solid link between the steel and the concrete, to avoid corrosion, and to provide fire protection, general concrete buildings must have a minimum cover thickness. The nominal cover thicknesses are determined by the grade of concrete and the surrounding environmental factors as specified in BS 5400. For structural longevity, securing the proper cover thickness is crucial. In this part, the reliability-based ideal concrete cover thickness in a concrete slab with regard to life cycle costs is examined. To find a solution that offers the longest physical life before carbonation reaches the surface of the reinforcement and for the chance of steel corrosion to reach a certain level, the notion of minimal total cost is applied.

### **Expense Throughout The Course of A Building's Life Cycle**

This explains how life cycle costing is used when a building has to be updated. The total cost of a structure during its lifetime, including construction expenses, maintenance costs, and operating costs, is known as the life cycle cost. Future expenses must be added to a base year in order to compute the LCC. This must be done using the present value technique. Although all expenditures are included in the LCC, only costs associated with heating the property or using energy will be taken into account. Retrofits that provide a different aesthetic shape or enable a less expensive method of cleaning are excluded. The need that all repercussions be represented in monetary terms is another restriction. But this focuses on adding more insulation to various building components, replacing windows to have higher thermal performance, weatherstripping, exhaust-air heat pumps, and other kinds of heating apparatus. The fundamental idea is that the building should be seen as an energy system, and if reliable results are to be obtained, all energy-saving measures must, at least sometimes, be addressed simultaneously.

The fact that the refit approach must have the lowest LCC, or that the situation must be optimized, is another tenet of this. Methods such as derivative, direct search, and linear programming are discussed, and a long list of references is provided to indicate the state of the art in the middle of 1991. In order to emphasize different facets of this topic, there are also several instances of genuine situations. It is crucial to remember that whether a building is being renovated or left as-is, it already has a life cycle cost. It is crucial to contrast the new LCC with the old, or existing, LCC if the LCC is to serve as the ranking factor for choosing what to do. Rebuilding is appropriate if the new LCC is lower. If the converse is true, no renovations should be made to the structure. The present value, which is used to move future expenditures to one base year so they can be accurately compared, is one of the fundamental ideas in life cycle costing. There are various articles and publications covering the use of the PV for life-cycle costing, e.g. , but just the equations for computing the PV will be present. Marshall and Flanagan et al. The PV for a single cost happening just once in the future is represented by equation's first expression, whereas equation's second expression represents the PV for expenditures that occur every year repeatedly:

It is appropriate for figuring out PV for things like window retrofits or insulation measures, whereas equation is used for energy and other ongoing expenditures that occur every year.

Finding the costs  $C_s$  and  $C_a$  as well as the correct values for  $r$ ,  $n$ , and  $m$  is important before the PV calculations can be started. Unfortunately, there are problems since there are uncertainty about both the expenses and the economic aspects. If some pricing listings are true, it may be possible to find  $C_s$  there, which would partly address the issue.  $C_a$ , however, is affected by the building's thermal condition and has a lot of unknowns because of the variable cost of energy in the future. Different writers suggest between 3 and 11% for the actual discount rate, or  $r$ , since it is impossible to determine an exact number that applies to all investors. Even yet, Van Dyke and Hu demonstrate how some investors have handled with negative interest rates. Take note that these numbers do not account for inflation. The estimated life of the building,  $m$ , and for  $n$ , the time before a refit is inevitable, cannot both be forecast with any degree of accuracy. This issue has been addressed by several writers, and articles on it are routinely published in, for instance, the proceedings of CIB conferences.

From the arguments above, it may appear impossible to calculate anything and have confidence in the outcome. However, even if the investor is unaware of it, values are always set for all the variables whenever an investment is made. It is often feasible to compute the outcome using various values for each calculation when a deeper examination reveals the boundaries within which the numbers may fluctuate. This is a highly laborious operation without computers, which is one of the reasons life cycle costing hasn't been used commonly. Large issues can be resolved quickly using computers. Today, the outcome may be calculated for a variety of possibilities, and the issue can then be examined in a process known as sensitivity analysis. Then, despite the uncertainty in the input data, some intriguing outcomes will appear, and broad inferences may be made.

### **Changing Windows**

Although there have been several efforts to develop such a function, it is difficult to derive a continuous function when replacing windows in order to identify the optimal option. Instead, it has been suggested that comparing several groups of windows against one another is better. Thus, given a variety of choices, the new LCC is contrasted with the current LCC. Finding the lowest solution possible rather than merely one with the lowest LCC is crucial. The fact that a thermally superior window often reflects solar radiation to a greater extent must also be taken into account. A so-called shading factor may be used to cope with this problem. Therefore, the scenario will vary depending on how the windows are oriented. In the Northern Hemisphere, it could be desirable to preserve the double-glazed windows facing south while switching to triple-glazed ones facing north. Gustafsson and Karlsson go into additional depth about life cycle costs and windows.

### **Weatherstripping**

Most often, profi is used to reduce the ventilation flow through the structure. Caulk may be used to seal windows and doors to achieve this. Even while the cost of this action is often extremely inexpensive in comparison to other energy retrofits, it is not always the best course of action, particularly when exhaust-air heat pumps are a component of the solution. It's also crucial to keep in mind that the building has to be ventilated since too much weatherstripping might be harmful. These details are often difficult to include into calculations when utilizing life cycle costing, thus just the energy costs are discussed here. Imagine that a building has to caulk fifty windows and doors. If caulking costs 200 SEK each piece, the total cost will be 10,000 SEK. Assume also that the weatherstripping has to be redone every 10 years. With a 50-year project

life and a 5% discount rate, the PV cost will thus rise to around 23600 SEK. The flow is 4800 m<sup>3</sup>h if the building has a volume of 5000 m<sup>3</sup> and the ventilation rate is 0.8 renewals per hour. Air has a density of 1.18 kgm<sup>3</sup> and a heat capacity of around 1.005 kJkg<sup>-1</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>. Consequently, it is possible to estimate the heat flow to be about 5700 kJK<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. The energy flow will become 180.5 MWhyear if the same number of degree hours as previously anticipated, i.e. 114008, is taken into consideration. Using a price for energy of and the PV factor of 18.26, as previously, the cost of electricity will be 451000 SEK at 0.4 SEKkWh. This cost will rise to 338000 SEK if the ventilation flow is reduced to, say, 0.2 renewals per hour. Weather-stripping in this instance will undoubtedly be professional.

### **Evaporative Heat Pump**

Installing an exhaust-air heat pump is another option for reducing the ventilation's heat flow. This gadget extracts heat from the ventilation air and returns it to the building via the use of electricity. Two to three parts of heat may often be produced from one component of electricity. However, since the quantity of heat in the ventilation air is a finite resource, it is crucial to install a heat pump of the proper size. There is no example of how to compute the LCC for the heat pump in this. This is because to how seldom it is picked as the best refit. However, it must be noted that installing a heat pump may render caulking the building's windows ineffective. Even though installing weatherstripping is a relatively inexpensive retrofit, using a little bigger heat pump to take advantage of the enhanced ventilation flow caused by not sealing the windows may be even more affordable.

### **Other Renovations To Structures or Installations**

This article does not discuss exhaust-air heat exchangers. The high cost of moving air from exchangers to various flats inside a building is the reason for this, but the calculation's basic idea is the same. Water-heating blankets and adjusting radiator thermostats may be effective ways to cut down on energy use. However, the usage of the blankets is restricted to situations where the water heater is beyond the thermal envelope or when the heating season is brief. Thermal thermostats will guarantee that the interior temperature remains within specified ranges, but they are only effective if excess heat is lost via the use of additional ventilation.

### **Renovating Heating Systems**

Numerous heating system retrofits need to be taken into account. If the building has an oil boiler, it could be a good idea to replace it with one that is more efficient. If there is a chance of this, district heating could be preferable. Bivalent systems seem to be of relevance when bigger structures are contemplated, at least in Sweden. An oil boiler handles the thermal peak demand in a bivalent, or dual-fuel, system, while a heat pump handles the base load. In order to get the lowest LCC, it is crucial to optimize the equipment's sizes and add just the right amount of additional insulation. The building refit plan will be significantly different from the one adopted when the original heating system is employed if the heating system is replaced. In, the calculating procedure is described underlines the possibility of interactions between various retrofits. Imagine if a floor insulation in an attic was profi. The new LCC is compared to the old one, that is, without extra attic floor insulation, when at the future refit it may be investigated if additional exterior wall insulation. Assume that this retrofit is professional.

The issue is that if attic floor insulation is added, it's possible that exterior wall insulation may lose its effectiveness. The savings that are really achieved will be overstated when using the gradual technique as described above. Therefore, a mix of the retrofits must be examined as part of the optimization process. The accuracy is fulfilled if the difference between the incremental and combination retrofits is extremely small. otherwise, the insulation thickness must be altered and the LCC that results from that change must be computed. It's possible that the intended retrofit will completely diverge from the ideal resolution. Fortunately, if the top contenders for an optimum solution are looked at, this interaction is often extremely minimal. In other instances, the difference was estimated by Sonderegger et al. to be under 2%, and the interaction is often ignorable. A lower LCC for the combination than for the incremental technique results from interaction, it should be highlighted, however this is not always the case. This has been noted for fenestration measures and is covered in depth in Gustafsson and Karlsson, but these instances are few and are likely mainly of academic interest, thus this is not a wise course of action.

Other heating systems with a lower LCC include district heating, a ground water coupled heat pump, and a bivalent heat pump-oil boiler system, however natural gas was the best option. Triple-glazed windows were the sole building modification that had to be done since the previous ones were falling apart. Additionally, for all heating systems, with the exception of electrical heating with a time-of-use rate, which is unimportant to the ideal solution, the sum of the retrofit LCC and incremental LCC has the same value. Gustafsson provides further information and a comprehensive breakdown of the input variables for this LCC optimization. We've learned that using a heating system with a very low running cost is often best. The system's acquisition cost must be reasonable, unlike when a heat pump is used to satisfy the whole household's needs. It should be noted that only a small number of building and ventilation retrofits are ideal to install, and of those that are, their costs are modest or else their remaining lives are quite short.

### **Sensitivity Research**

One solution displays an LCC that is much lower than the others. This is not always the case, and often two or more techniques may be extremely similar to one another, making it difficult to decide which one to use. A sensitivity study may be able to address this issue. The goal of such an analysis is to ascertain if the best solution will vary significantly in response to small changes in the input data. Changes in the discount rate and project life of the construction are of particular relevance since these numbers cannot be established with absolute precision. Additionally, several additional components in the input data file as well as fluctuations in energy costs often need to be analyzed. A bivariate may be used to present the outcome. It is evident from that the project duration and the discount rate are both crucial factors in determining the best course of action. A 3% rate and a 10-year project duration are not always the optimal choices to choose only because they have the lowest LCC, as shown above, since the LCC value will vary for various input values of the rate and project life. The same rate, etc., must be used to compare various tactics.

It is crucial to remember that less complex heating systems are selected for better discount rates, even when they have higher operational expenses. The bivalent system, which has a very low running cost but a high acquisition cost, is the best option for a 3% rate, while an oil boiler is the best option for a 9% rate. Insulation measures will be more advantageous throughout the course of a lengthy project, but they will be less profitable at a high discount rate. The fact that the LCC

will usually always decrease at larger discount rates is mostly of academic relevance, however it is not true for extremely short project lifespan. The LCC rises when the rate is raised from 3 to 5% during a 10-year project life. Gustafsson goes into much depth on this fact. In Sweden, the utility plant burns a variety of fuels to produce district heating. The majority of the heat is produced by burning trash in an incinerator facility during the summer, while oil or coal are required during the winter. As a result, the price of district heating is less than the price of oil, but the price of installation is more than the price of an oil boiler.

Due to certain combinations of discount rates and project lifespan, district heating is preferred. It should be noted that the ideal solutions use different amounts of extra attic insulation. More insulation is implied by longer project lifetimes and lower discount rates. Additionally, the ideal insulating thickness is not a continuous function. When adding insulation, it is usually best to apply more than 0.1 m, or it may be preferable to leave the structure alone. The relevance of the building asset's remaining life is likewise emphasized by the same reference. It will often be best to add more insulation if this is extremely short. In such case, a significant quantity of insulation, such as 0.2 m, should be used. This implies that if all retrofits are completed when they are necessary, the thermal condition of the building will improve and the cost for doing so will be less than keeping the structure untouched. Such a solution will significantly minimize the heat flow through a wall.

There are three ways to categorize the effect of input data changes: where the LCC will rise for a rise in input data, where the LCC will fall for a rise, and where the LCC won't change at all for changes in input data. The first category includes, among other things, variations in construction and installation expenses. Changes in, for instance, the discount rate, the remaining life of a building asset, and the outside temperature are included in the second group. A portion of the submitted data will be relevant to more than one category. Take a little rise in the price of the oil boiler, for instance. If the oil boiler is a component of the ideal solution, the LCC will rise as the boiler's price rises. However, the oil boiler will stop being a viable option if the cost exceeds a particular threshold, and from that point on, additional rises in the oil boiler cost are of no interest. This finding is often used in life cycle costing practice.

Input values don't need to go through a time-consuming inspection procedure when a building is being analyzed for the first time. The selection of values must at least somewhat represent the actual circumstance. This is crucial. Only the techniques that are near to one another need to be examined once the initial optimization has been developed. This implies that just some of the details need to be looked at more deeply and that much of the initial work with the input data may not be required. It is not feasible to duplicate Gustafsson's comprehensive sensitivity analysis of all the parameters utilized in an optimization here. But some of the information must be given. It can be anticipated, for example, that a minor change in the resultant LCC would not be as significant as if bigger changes are seen. That isn't always the case. One of the biggest variations was discovered to occur if the discount rate was changed by 5%, which may result in a 2% change in the LCC. But since the LCC for the current building also increases by a comparable amount, it follows that for tiny changes in the discount rate, the best course of action will essentially remain the same.

One may anticipate that a very high current U-value for, example, an outside wall in poor thermal condition, would have a significant impact on both the LCC and the new ideal U-value. That is untrue. As long as the ideal insulation is used, the resultant LCC remains almost constant,

and the new optimal U-value is unaffected by the old one. The cost of genuine insulation is the same. The optimization results in a thinner insulation when this cost is raised, which lowers the new LCC. An thorough refit approach will inevitably result from annual rises in energy costs, which will result in a lower LCC than could initially be anticipated. This implies that there is a higher chance of decreasing the consequences of rising energy costs if the owner is aware of them in advance rather than taking no action at all. The optimization results in a model that is somewhat self-regulating. The optimization makes the most of the circumstances, and a change's outcome may not be as awful as first thought.

### **Utilizing Linear Programming**

There has been a rise in interest in linear programming in recent years. Due to the lengthy calculation processes and usage of rather complex mathematics, the approach, which was created in the 1960s, is not often used. The situation is different now, with the prevalence of computers, and the layout of mathematical software making it much simpler to solve intricate linear problems. It should be noted that life cycle costing is not the only optimization approach available, such as linear programming. The advantage of using linear programming is that it is feasible to mathematically demonstrate that the optimal solution—the one with the lowest LCC—has been discovered. When discrete time or cost steps are included in the issue, the technique is still appropriate. Even while it may not seem like much of a deal, energy tariffs in the future are very certainly going to be of the time-of-use kind, where the cost varies depending on the season. Traditional approaches, like OPERA, need these tariffs to be normalized several times and approximated by a mean value of the true price, which may have a significant impact on the best answer.

Only a very quick introduction to linear programming is given since it is not feasible to discuss it in full here. It is necessary to represent the LCC as a 'objective function'. It is not feasible to multiply or divide two variables by each other in this function, which is the expression that must be reduced. Only a constant may be used to multiply a variable. Following this, the objective function is minimized under a set of requirements that are all required to be linear functions. The requirements must all hold true at once. The process for resolving such issues uses vector algebra and is not covered in this article. For the fundamental ideas, and Murtagh for more in-depth understandings of linear programming and approaches to such issues. In Sweden, it is customary to use the mean values of the outdoor temperature for each month of the year to describe the climatic conditions at a location. As it is impossible to calculate derivatives of functions with discrete steps, the linear programming approach may be used by substituting twelve mean values for a continuous function. The stages are also included when the thermal condition is expanded, since the thermal load in kilowatts and the requirement for heat in kilowatt-hours will follow the climatic function as a result.

### **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, Asset design may greatly benefit from the incorporation of LCC with reliability-based and optimal design techniques. Organizations may make wise choices that result in assets that are dependable, efficient, and cost-effective by taking dependability and life cycle costs into account from the beginning of design. This integrated strategy encourages a long-term viewpoint, improves decision-making, and helps initiatives and assets succeed and last over the long run. However, there are difficulties in integrating various techniques, such as the lack of data, the complexity of the models, and the need for multidisciplinary cooperation. To correctly

estimate life cycle costs, organizations need access to trustworthy data on expenses, failure rates, and maintenance practices. To make sure that the design choices are based on a thorough knowledge of the trade-offs between reliability and cost, collaboration between designers, reliability engineers, and cost analysts is crucial.

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## CHAPTER 24

### LIFE CYCLE COSTING OF HIGHWAYS: CONSTRUCTION, OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

It provides an overview of LCC specific to highways, highlighting its importance in decision-making processes related to highway design, construction, operation, and maintenance. The review explores the key components of LCC for highways, including initial costs, maintenance and repair costs, rehabilitation and reconstruction costs, and user costs. It discusses various factors and considerations that impact LCC calculations, such as pavement type, traffic volume, climate conditions, and design life. By incorporating LCC into highway projects, stakeholders can make informed decisions that optimize long-term cost efficiency, sustainability and performance.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Construction costs, Deterioration models, Discount rate, Economic analysis, Life cycle assessment (LCA), Maintenance costs, Operating costs.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

To make the most use of the enormous investments made in creating new roads or enhancing those that currently exist, rigorous evaluation is necessary. Making judgments on the route to choose, geotechnics, earthworks, pavement and geometric design, drainage, and structural design are all part of the highway subsector investment decisions. Comparing various levels of current investment with their corresponding future expenses is necessary in order to make these decisions on a reasonable basis. Adopting higher design standards often results in higher initial expenditures but might save the transportation agency money in the long run on maintenance and renewal expenses. When examining strategic concerns on national roadways and it becomes necessary to take into account continuing expenses to road users, such life cycle cost calculations take on a new dimension. These might include the price of driving, the cost of waiting around, and the expense of accidents on the road. Investment choices become subjective and rely on the application of criteria that are often itself based on historical precedent rather than objective analysis if life cycle costs are not taken into consideration. Life cycle cost factors should be taken into account while formulating standards. When assessing the costs associated with roads during their lifetime, there are two basic categories to consider: those that influence the highway agency and those that harm road users.

#### **Roadway Agency Fees**

Highway agencies' expenses include continuing payments for upkeep in all its forms to:



1. Pavements.
2. Pathways and walkways.
3. Cycletracks.
4. Drainage characteristics.
5. Structures.
6. Signaling and signals.

Some of these expenses rely simply on the policy of the organization in charge of maintenance. others are fixed costs. yet others are environment-related. still others are time-related. still others depend on the volume, intensity, and loading of the traffic utilizing the road [1], [2]. Costs of construction must be taken into account for all new roads as well as for significant upgrades or reconstructions. These expenses include all aspects of the building process, including the planning, design, procurement, execution, supervision, and management. They will rely on a number of things:

1. The quality of the road being built, from a highway to an estate road.
2. The country's position geographically.
3. The terrain, soils, and other geotechnical factors in the area where the road will run.
4. The level of urbanization along the route, which will have an impact on the requirement for buildings in particular.
5. The 'sensitivity' of the built and natural environments through which the road will go. this factor will determine the scope of the mitigation measures required for potential environmental harm.

Costs associated with construction and upkeep are often trade-offs. Obviously, the road pavement will be tougher and more resistant to degradation the higher the design standard. Investigating standards and regulations that optimize the resource balance between these two investment components is one of life cycle costing's main uses.

## DISCUSSION

### Road User Costs

Costs to road users are often thought of as including:

1. Costs associated with operating a vehicle, both moving and stationary.
2. Time expenses, such as those for delays brought on by traffic and construction projects.
3. Road accident expenses.

The expenses associated with driving a vehicle fall into the category of these that are most readily quantified, however the assessment of the time and accident rates connected to a certain route is often disputed [3], [4]. A life cycle cost method may be used to analyze trade-offs between the costs of building and maintaining roads, and it can also take into consideration the expenses incurred by road users to help determine the best standards for design and maintenance practices. Indeed, a perspective is often adopted within the framework of the national economy while doing an economic study of a project. Since money is often given by national and municipal taxes or levies, including road user costs in the analysis is a crucial component in such situations [5], [6]. Over the course of a road's existence, road user expenditures often outpace those paid by the transportation agency for construction and maintenance. For typical roads in poor nations, road user costs may amount to up to 80% of the overall transport expenses during

the course of a project, whereas building expenditures make up just 20% of total costs and road maintenance costs a mere 1%. Although there will be significant variance amongst roads of various types and hierarchies, statistics in industrialized nations are likely to be comparable [7], [8]. These expenses are not mutually exclusive.

The quantity and kind of vehicles utilizing the road, the kind of trips they take, the geometry of the alignment, and the state of the road surface all affect how much it costs to operate a vehicle. For instance, fuel consumption will be greater than for a level route if the alignment includes several steep hills. The cost of building is directly impacted by geometry as well. Building large highways with low grades in steep terrain is expensive. Building a road with steeper grades and a smaller width may lower construction expenses, but at the risk of a greater cost of vehicle operation [9], [10]. Time expenses will also depend on the design of the road since a well-constructed road will enable faster travel. Highways with limited access will also shorten wait times at intersections and in populated regions. The number of intersections and the road's ability to withstand skidding are other factors that affect the frequency of accidents. The cost of construction will be impacted by both of these aspects, which are dependent on the design standard. Vehicle speeds and operating costs will be impacted by surface characteristics, which in turn will depend on the policy and cost of road maintenance.

### **Other Expenses**

When evaluating road projects on a life cycle basis, additional expenditures might also be taken into consideration. Environmental expenses, institutional costs, and other costs resulting from the supply of the road may be among them. A complete cost analysis could also be suitable for certain advantages, such those related to agriculture, industry, or development. The ones that emerge as generated traffic will not be examined further since they are often difficult to measure.

### **Costs that Change Throughout Time**

Due to the fact that expenses and their relationships with other costs change over time, an additional level of complexity is assumed in the study of life cycle costs for roadways. Roads erode over time. Road repair is required more often, which raises the expense of doing so. However, when roads deteriorate, they become rougher and car equipment like the tyres and mechanical elements wear out more faster, increasing the cost of ownership. Similarly, very uneven roads, like those that are often seen in underdeveloped nations, may compel cars to go at lower speeds or increase the danger of accidents, which both result in increased expenses.

All expenses associated with using the roads are thus influenced by the state of the road surface, which will vary over time as it ages, is maintained, or is restored. In addition to the design and construction requirements, the environment, traffic load, maintenance standards, and standards of care all have an impact on the quality of the road surface. The road will deteriorate more rapidly the more vehicles that utilize it and the larger their axle loads. Extremes of weather may damage the construction or induce erosion, and they will also cause the road to age more rapidly. However, by performing efficient and timely maintenance at regular intervals during the lifespan of the road, the rate of degradation of the road's structure and its surface quality may be reduced. Therefore, the cost and fluctuations in cost that road users experience are influenced by the environment, traffic, and maintenance, which all have an impact on the state of the road's surface. Cost and road degradation cycle every year. This expense and degradation cycle may be

conveniently thought of in the schematic manner. The construction of the majority of life cycle cost models used in the roadways sector is based on this methodology.

### **Life Cycle Costing's Application To Motorways**

Recurrent vehicle running expenses are considerable relative to the price of original development in the highways subsector. Therefore, it is believed that a life cycle costing approach to decision making is crucial if the quality of choices is to be unaffected by consideration of just short-term concerns that might have negative long-term effects and unnecessary higher costs. This is in contrast to Ferry and Flanagan's suggestions in a CIRIA paper. They question the applicability of a life cycle cost method, with the exception of assets with a formalized mandated maintenance schedule, substantial recurring expenses, and a relatively short life. They make no mention of the vast corpus of information and experience pertaining to roads, and it seems that their findings are mostly based on experience in the water sector. Highways, as previously mentioned, meet at least two of Ferry and Flanagan's requirements, hence their conclusion is seen as being unrelated to highways.

### **Historical context**

#### **1870 City of London**

The usage of life cycle costing for roadways may be traced back to a period far before the 1890s. According to Croney, before 1870, engineers in the City of London compared the life cycle expenses of stone sett road pavements with the more widely utilized water-bound macadam construction using data that went back more than 40 years. Using a discounted cash-flow methodology, the original construction costs and ongoing yearly maintenance expenses were combined and used to analyze the entire life costs under various traffic situations. Stone sett pavement was utilized in places like the entrances to the London docks because it showed to have a greater initial cost but cheap maintenance cost under heavy traffic. Due to its reduced life cycle costs in these circumstances, water-bound macadam construction was chosen for less highly used highways.

#### **1969 Road Research Laboratory**

The former Road Research Laboratory examined the expenses of building and maintaining flexible versus stiff pavements over a 50-year period in a study. Cost estimates for four different kinds of roads: a rural freeway, a peri-urban road, a rural secondary road, and a road on a housing estate were prepared, as well as expenditures for ongoing maintenance and user delays. Prices for different types of stiff and flexible road pavements were deducted to current values. The study was used to provide a mechanism for estimating some of the life cycle costs of various building types so that these costs might be considered when deciding which contracts to award.

### **Mit's Model**

The World Bank spearheaded significant developments in life cycle costing for roads in the late 1960s when it was looking for ways to enhance the caliber of investment choices in this sector. The first stage was to create a draft set of guidelines for a highway design study for Bank internal review. After that, a team from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was hired to do a literature review and create a computer model using data that was previously accessible. In comparison to previous approaches used at the time for analyzing the interplay between road

building costs, maintenance costs, and vehicle running costs, the highway cost model developed by MIT represented a significant advancement. However, the model identified regions that called for more study in order to propose linkages in lieu of those that were unsuitable for situations in developing countries.

### **TRRL's Road Investment Strategy**

The World Bank and the then-Transport and Road Research Laboratory undertook a significant field study in Kenya to look into the deterioration of paved and unpaved roads, as well as the factors affecting vehicle operating costs in a developing country, in order to address data deficiencies highlighted by the MIT model. Over the course of two years, the performance of more than 90 1-km test portions of road was examined on a regular basis. To assess vehicle speeds and fuel consumption over the same test areas, an experiment was run concurrently. Additionally, information was gathered from a variety of commercial vehicle operators on topics such as spare parts, vehicle use, maintenance and labor needs, tyre wear, and vehicle depreciation. Then, relationships linking them directly to vehicle operating conditions were constructed.

The findings of this research were utilized to calibrate the RTIM computer model, a prototype that might be used to assess the life cycle costs of construction, maintenance, and vehicle operating expenses for a road investment project in poor nations. This prototype, which is based on life cycle cost principles, has undergone rigorous testing and has shown to be a substantial advancement in road design approach for poor nations. Experience with the prototype RTIM by TRRL indicated that users in underdeveloped nations need a more straightforward approach than that provided by this mainframe-based computer application. Some of these issues were resolved by publicizing the model's connections as a book of *s*. This made it possible for users in underdeveloped nations without access to computers to utilize the model's relationships. To make it simpler to operate and fit on a smaller computer, the RTIM model was also reprogrammed. The chance to include the findings of the most recent vehicle operating cost study conducted by TRRL in the Caribbean was also taken advantage of while reprogramming the model. Later, a version of RTIM was created to function on microcomputers when they were introduced.

### **The HDM Model of the World Bank**

After the first work on RTIM, the World Bank had a different perspective than TRRL about the need for more development. They recognized the need for a more complex model that could analyze multiple road links concurrently, would have a more potent economic analysis capability, and could automatically perform a sensitivity analysis of important variables like the discount rate and traffic growth. A contract was given to MIT in 1976 to create the HDM, or highway design and maintenance standards model. The HDM proved to be an effective analytical tool, but it also highlighted the constraints on the correlations between road degradation and vehicle operating costs, which were based on TRRL's groundbreaking work in Kenya. To improve the quality of the relationships by extending them to a wider range of vehicles and road construction types, the Bank launched a \$19 million research program in collaboration with the Brazilian government. It also supported a study of a similar nature being conducted in India by the Central Road Research Institute. The findings of each study were included into the third iteration of the Bank's computerized highway subsector planning and investment model, and a five-volume series of publications were created as the outcome of an 18-year life cycle costing project.

### **The COBA and URECA Models from the Department of Transportation**

When the UK Department of Transport developed its cost-benefit analysis computer software in the 1970s, life cycle costing was included for the evaluation of significant road improvements. In order to describe the findings in terms of a monetary value, COBA analyzes the costs of road plans with the advantages that road users may get. The methodology acknowledges that not all costs and benefits can be quantified in monetary terms, which, for a road project in an industrialized nation, may include elements like changes in the number of persons impacted by traffic noise or visual intrusion. For significant road investments, the DTp takes into account non-financial aspects inside a framework that allows for comparison of the consequences of various solutions. Because COBA is restricted to elements that are very simple to evaluate, it can only address the advantages that road users experience. Benefits of the road system with and without the plan are contrasted, and user expenses include:

1. Traveling times on connections and at intersections.
2. Accidents.
3. Running expenses for vehicles.
4. On the spending side, COBA considers those factors that directly relate to the financial authority.
5. Capital expenses, such as those related to building, land, planning, and supervision.
6. Expense of upkeep.

The conclusions of COBA's 30-year cost-benefit analysis are based on the net present value test. For the study of all significant interurban road proposals submitted to the DTp for financing, it is often used in the United Kingdom. The software is now running on COBA9. The Department has unveiled a brand-new program, called URECA, for the evaluation of urban roadways.

### **The Whole-Life Cost Model of TRRL**

Midway through the 1980s, concerns about the lack of a life cycle costing strategy for road maintenance in the UK prompted the then-TRRL to develop a whole life cost model using relationships based on full-scale field trials and the laboratory's long-term monitoring of highway networks. For flexible carriageways, there were initially time-dependent and traffic-dependent variants available, while rigid carriageways had their own version. These have lately been incorporated into a single model. The model, which may be used for roads in the United Kingdom, varies from HDM-III in that it is calibrated for pavements susceptible to freeze-thaw cycles rather than pavements in tropical climates. In place of the World Bank's model's mean value method to forecasting, it employs 85th percentile design curves for all designs. Petts and Brooks have assessed the differences between WLCM and HDM-III.

### **Traffic**

The primary factor in the life cycle cost study of roadways is traffic demand. Variations in traffic throughout the course of a road's existence have an impact on the financial feasibility of road modifications, the yearly maintenance expenses for each segment of the road, the choice of road design standards, and the size of construction expenditures. The estimate of baseline traffic flows and the forecasting of future flows are necessary for determining values for traffic parameters. For the purposes of life cycle costing, traffic is often categorized as follows:

1. Normal.

2. Diverted.
3. Generated.

Normal traffic, which is often described in terms of the yearly average daily traffic, is that which would utilize the route even if no improvements were made. Estimates are often based on the findings of automated traffic counter data. To ascertain the breakdown of flow by kind of vehicle, these are sometimes augmented with manual counts. Traffic that is diverted comes from one route, network, or mode because of the upgrade project. The findings of origin and destination surveys should serve as the basis for estimations of diverted traffic. Assuming that all cars would divert in order to save time or money is the easiest way to estimate diversion. Traffic that is generated is that which decides to travel because the supply or enhancement of the facility results in decreased travel expenses.

These decreased expenditures are often brought about by shorter travel distances or lower vehicle running expenses. Demand curves are often used to forecast generated traffic, notwithstanding how challenging this task may be. Forecasting traffic volumes into the future is crucial for life cycle costing. This is made easier by segmenting the flow into produced, redirected, and typical traffic. After the first year, it may be anticipated that these forms of traffic would increase at the same pace as regular traffic since diversion and creation are often final impacts. Future traffic forecasting is a risky method that exacerbates flaws discovered when projecting yearly flows using short-term sample counts.

There are cycles in traffic flows that change during the day, week, and season. Forecasts of AADT must be based on sample counts over shorter periods of time unless counts are conducted for a complete year. Such estimations may be vulnerable to significant inaccuracies, especially in cases when flow rates are relatively low, according to Howe, for instance. It is not unexpected that estimating future flows is a process that is considerably more unpredictable given the starting degree of uncertainty. This is true for industrialized nations with advanced economies, but the issue is more severe in developing nations. Because the economy of these nations sometimes depend heavily on the global pricing of only one or two specific commodities, recent changes in the price and availability of oil have made the problems much more complex. Estimates of future flows may be made using either linear extrapolation of historical patterns or estimates of gross domestic product, which explicitly account for changes in total economic activity. Regardless of the forecasting technique, it is usual to take into account life cycle expenses based on optimistic and pessimistic traffic growth rates that cover the anticipated range of values.

### **Costs of Construction**

The expenses associated with planning, designing, purchasing, supervising, and managing the building project are logically distinct from life cycle cost concerns. However, it has been emphasized that standards for design and construction will affect road maintenance and user expenses throughout the course of the road's lifespan. The construction features that will have the most effects are:

1. Road design.
2. Pavement layout.
3. Structures and drainage.

## Highway Geometry

There are detailed models available for determining the amounts of earthworks, and both designers and contractors utilize them when creating tender papers and bids. Because of their large data needs and lack of precision in comparison to what can be achieved on the user cost side of the study, they are often not suitable for use in life cycle cost analysis. The costing techniques employed in the World Bank's HDM-III model, which are fairly straightforward, and TRRL's RTIM, which is more precise and thorough, are more typical instances of the costing techniques that are utilized. Since it is never cost-effective to carry materials further than the marginal haul, haulage costs are estimated using a mass-haul.

Each cross-section of the is tested individually as part of the RTIM program's operation to see whether the balancing line should be sent through it. This is accomplished by looking for the subsequent cross-section where the balance of the accumulated earthworks is the same before the cross-section of interest. A balancing line connecting the two cross-sections is built up, and material is hauled and balanced between them if the distance between them is less than the marginal haul. Calculating the area of the balancing loop allows one to determine the amount of material and freight required for this specific loop. It won't be cost-effective to carry material between these cross-sections if the distance is larger than the marginal haul. The material is deemed to be borrowed if it is filled and ruined if it is cut between the cross-section of interest and the end of the preceding balancing line. The next cross-section in this process is then taken into account to evaluate whether an economically balanced loop may be initiated there. Up to the point when the road ends, the process is repeated.

The cost of transporting one cubic metre of material one kilometer is calculated by multiplying the combined area of all balance loops by the unit haulage rate. The overall cost of borrowing is calculated by multiplying the total volume of borrowing discovered by the mass-haul approach by the unit cost. The mass-haul technique adds the volume of unsui material discovered during the sui cut volume calculation to the volume of spoil to produce the overall volume of spoil. The cost of spoil is calculated by multiplying this total volume by the unit cost. In order to calculate the earthworks costs of alignments planned to various standards as part of a life cycle cost study, this elegant technique provides a good degree of accuracy.

## Pavement Layout

There are several techniques available for designing asphalt pavements, including those created by AASHTO, Shell, and TRRL. The Portland Cement Association and TRRL have also published design methodologies for concrete pavements. Understanding the traffic loads that the pavement will support throughout the course of its lifetime is necessary for all pavement design techniques. The axle weight of the vehicle has a significant impact on the amount of damage a moving vehicle may do to a road. For the right design of pavements, the link between the damage and the axle load is crucial. Typically, 'equivalence factors' are utilized to aid with this design. The number of passes of a standard 80 kN axle that would cause the same amount of damage to a road as one passage of the subject vehicle is the equivalency factor for that vehicle.

The cost and the lifespan under traffic before replacement is required are the two key factors in pavement design that should be taken into consideration for life cycle costing. Applying unit rates to the quantities of the various materials in each of the layers once the design has been completed often makes pricing very simple. The lifespan will be determined by the durability of

the pavement, the volume of traffic, and the rate of degradation that results. During the life cycle analysis stage, it is often necessary to cost pavement overlays or reconstructions in addition to the original pavement construction cost. This is done to account for the requirement to reinforce the pavement later on in the life of the road or to add capacity to handle more traffic. As traffic volumes surpass the point at which upgrading gravel roads to paved surfaces becomes economically viable, attention must be given to this option in emerging nations. Costing in each of these situations is rather simple as long as the pavement's size and composition are understood.

### **Structures and Drainage**

For the design of drainage systems, bridges, and other structures, there are several industry standards. These typically have design lives that are at least equal to any analysis period utilized for life cycle cost analysis. They are thus not further evaluated here since it is doubtful that their cost would be affected by elements that will vary under various analysis scenarios.

### **Estimating Costs**

A unit price analysis has historically served as the foundation for costing for life cycle analyses. However, it has been shown that the cost estimates generated using this approach may turn out to be inaccurate. According to a study done by UMIST, the technique has problems in a number of crucial areas. Instead, it advised using rigorous risk management processes and analytical methodologies to get accurate cost estimates at every level. Since actual values have often exceeded those initially projected, especially those estimates made in the early stages of the design, UMIST advised that expected values of construction costs should take into account prior experience from completed projects. When doing a life cycle cost analysis, it is important to account for the fact that the UMIST method to costing recognizes that significant time and effort must be invested at all project phases in order to obtain credible cost estimates. At various points in the project cycle, the following four basic estimation methods are advised:

1. 'Broad brush' or global estimations.
2. Estimates of man-hours are often utilized for projects requiring a lot of labor.
3. Based on historical data of completed works, unit rates.
4. Estimates of operational or resource costs are created by taking into account the core aspects of the individual operations or activities that the method statement and program disclose, as well as the overall demand for resources.

It's also advised to include separate allowances for unforeseen expenses in the estimations. These come in two varieties:

1. Expected expenses, which may be paid for with a flat amount or a percentage value but which must unavoidably occur during construction but which have not been independently recognized.
2. Based on past experience, tolerances are estimates of the likelihood that unanticipated costs will occur and their likely size. These take into account the possibility that costs may exceed expectations due to unforeseen physical contingencies, such as unexpectedly poor ground conditions or a lack of funding that extends the duration of the construction project.



Bituminous road surfaces degrade over time as a result of traffic and weather conditions working together. The stiffness and layer thicknesses of the materials determine the degrees of stress and strain that the wheel loadings of heavy traffic cause inside the pavement layers. These lead to the deformation of all materials and the beginning of cracking via fatigue in bonded materials under repeated loadings. Bituminous surface materials are more prone to ravelling, spalling, and edge breaking as a result of weathering because they become brittle and more prone to cracking and disintegration. Once it starts, cracking spreads out, becomes worse, and becomes more severe to the point where it causes spalling and, eventually, potholes. Inadequately maintained drainage systems and open surface cracks allow more water to seep into the pavement. As a result, the process of disintegration is accelerated, unbound materials' shear strength is decreased, and the rate of deformation under the stresses brought on by traffic loads is accelerated. Ruts and, more broadly, an unevenness or distortion of the surface's profile, also known as roughness, are the result of the pavement's accumulated deformation. Then, further distortions are caused by the environmental influences of the weather and seasonal fluctuations. Therefore, a pavement's roughness is the outcome of a series of distress mechanisms and the blending of different distress modes. Although maintenance is often done to slow down degradation, certain methods, like patching, may actually make surfaces feel a little rougher. Thus, roughness is seen as a composite distress that includes elements of deformation brought on by traffic loads and rut depth fluctuation, surface flaws like potholes and spalled cracking, as well as a confluence of aging and environmental influences. Pavement distress classification according to mode and kind. Thus, the following kinds of distress may be used to categorize how bituminous roads are degrading:

1. Cracking
2. Disintegration
3. Permanently changed shape.

All modalities and kinds of pavement distress interact with one another by their very nature. Additionally, maintenance has an impact on everyone, and this interaction is a crucial concern for life cycle pricing. Levels of road roughness reflect the interaction's final impact.

### **Roughness**

As road abrasion grows, so do operational expenses and freight costs. Small improvements in road roughness may have significant economic benefits since the entire operating expenses of cars often surpass the highway authority's costs of road maintenance by a ratio of between 10 and 20. Since roughness has a significant economic effect, life cycle analysis offers the most objective framework for assessing road policy. Because most advantages flow to road users, the highway authority does not immediately see the profits from enhanced roughness. However, the expenses of slack maintenance are also borne by the people who utilize the roads. Lower transportation costs enable the advantages to be realized, which, in turn, improves the economy as a whole. Because of this, the emphasis in this section is on relationships for road roughness progression that are suitable for life cycle cost analysis. Paterson created the most extensive set of connections. The combination of three factors predicts the evolution of roughness:

1. Roughness equivalent standard axle flow structural number in relation to structural deformation.
2. Surface condition and variations in cracking, potholing, and rut depth.
3. Age of the pavement and environmental roughness.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Highway planning, design, building, and maintenance all heavily rely on life cycle costing. Stakeholders may maximize cost effectiveness, increase the sustainability of highway projects, and boost overall performance by taking into account the complete life cycle costs and using LCC concepts. Highway projects are more likely to be financially successful, to be in line with long-term objectives, and to provide the greatest benefit to users and society as large when LCC is taken into account throughout the decision-making process. Notably, LCC for highways needs accurate and current information on building and maintenance costs, traffic forecasts, user charges, and other pertinent factors. To acquire correct data, evaluate financial implications, and make wise judgments, parties such as highway authorities, designers, contractors, and maintenance teams must work together.

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## CHAPTER 25

### LIFE CYCLE COSTING IN THE DEFENSE INDUSTRY: FINANCIAL ANALYSIS TOOL

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#### ABSTRACT:

It (LCC) is a valuable financial analysis tool for the defense industry, enabling the evaluation of costs associated with defense systems and equipment throughout their life cycle. This paper provides an overview of LCC specific to the defense industry, highlighting its significance in decision-making processes related to defense system acquisition, operation, and maintenance. The review explores the key components of LCC in the defense sector, including acquisition costs, operating and support costs, and disposal costs. It discusses the challenges and considerations unique to the defense industry, such as technology obsolescence, reliability, and mission requirements. By incorporating LCC into defense projects, stakeholders can make informed decisions that optimize cost-effectiveness, sustainability, and operational readiness.

#### KEYWORDS:

Acquisition Costs, Cost Estimation, Cost Of Ownership, Depreciation, Equipment Maintenance, Life Cycle Assessment (LCA).

#### INTRODUCTION

The way that concrete roads deteriorate is quite different from how bituminous-surfaced roads do. The most common sign of discomfort is cracking, which is often brought on by a lack of support under the concrete slab rather than weariness. Lack of support may result from subgrade material settling, inconsistent or insufficient compaction, or leaching. Map cracking is a kind of linear cracking that may be both longitudinal and transverse or numerous and related. Concrete pavements may also settle, in which case the whole slab may tilt without necessarily cracking [1], [2]. Fretting, where aggregates are scraped off the surface, and scaling, where tiny slivers of material are removed, are two ways that the surface of concrete pavements may degrade. Both are brought on by a lack of adhesion in the concrete matrix, and they are made worse by water that may have gotten within freezing [3], [4].

The joints between slabs are responsible for a large portion of the degradation of concrete roadways. These are typically sealed, however if the sealant is allowed to degrade or sustain damage, issues may occur. This prevents thermally-induced expansion and contraction, which damages the pavement. Occasionally, whole slabs may shake under the weight of moving traffic, which causes a slurry of underlying material to be forced up through the broken joints. Deterministic modeling of the degradation of concrete roads is challenging due to the nature of the deterioration and its linkages to issues with the sub-base, subgrade, and joints. In

reality, many initial issues are due to structural flaws. Because of this, no connections are shown here between life cycle costs and the design, building, and future degradation of concrete roadways [5], [6].

### **Unpaved Highways**

The majority of highways in the world do not have paved surfaces. Instead, they are made of crude dirt tracks or are coated in gravel to protect them from traffic and precipitation damage. Despite the low traffic levels on these roads, many of them are crucial to the social and economic life of regions in developing nations. The sole route to communities for the delivery of medical and agricultural extension services, they often provide the most affordable way of delivering agricultural products to markets. Unpaved roads deteriorate mostly due to rutting and roughness. In certain circumstances, roughness may appear as corrugations, which are regular undulations with depths of several centimeters and spacings often between 0.5 and 1.0 m.

These provide an extremely uncomfortable ride and do significant damage to moving automobiles on the road. In materials used for road surface that are prone to corrugations, the production of the undulations often occurs again a few days after maintenance has been done. In arid locations, they are especially problematic. Another issue in dry regions is that loose, fine debris covers the road surface, reduces vehicle grip, and creates clouds of dust, making driving conditions hazardous and inefficient. Due to material loss from the road surface caused by tire wear and the influence of the weather, all gravel roads eventually degrade [7], [8]. For the purposes of life cycle costing, roughness and gravel loss are the two main deteriorating factors: roughness because it affects vehicle operating expenses, and gravel loss because it is expensive to replace lost material over the course of the road's life. Determining the ideal time when it is cost-effective to provide a paved surface is one of the main uses of life cycle costing for unpaved roads. This normally occurs when daily traffic reaches 200 to 400 cars, although the exact amount varies greatly on the local environment, maintenance expenses, and the accessibility of suitable materials for retravelling.

### **Maintenance**

Implementing maintenance may stop deterioration in its tracks. According to the kind of maintenance, how pertinent it is to the flaw being fixed, and how quickly it is implemented, deterioration will be affected. The maintenance procedures for bituminous-surfaced roads are similar to those used to address flaws [9], [10]. As with bitumen-surfaced roads, concrete roads need periodic cleaning and resealing of joints as well as care to drainage and similar issues. Road surface and structural maintenance is reactive to the occurrence of problems. There is no idea of routine maintenance that can be scheduled in advance like that for bitumen-surfaced roads. Scaled regions are mended, and cracks are filled. Bitumen, cement grout, or epoxy are used for these tasks. Although when slabs are still intact, it is feasible to jack up the slab and pressure-grout the space beneath, major slab issues are often remedied by removing the problematic slabs and replacing them in their entirety. The portion of the slab right next to a joint that has seized or become damaged must be replaced.

Unpaved roads are maintained mostly by repairing damaged surfaces and replacing worn-out gravel surfacing materials. Although a blade grader typically performs smoothing and reshaping, this intermediary step is sometimes carried out by hauling simple drags down the road to remove loose debris. Regravelling is simply the process of creating a new surface by adding fresh

material, spreading it out, and compacting it. To address certain issue locations, local regravelling is sometimes done. Routine maintenance is also done on the off-carriageway features, just as it is done on bituminous and concrete roads.

## **Costs to Drivers**

### **Vehicle Maintenance Fees**

The owners and users of cars benefit from lower transportation costs when a road repair project is carried out. With fewer gear changes and braking, higher average speeds may be maintained, and the more uniform running may result in fuel savings. On better road conditions, tires last longer and the suspension and body sustain less damage. Operators of motor vehicles see these savings as decreased expenses. The quantity and kind of vehicles utilizing the road, its curvature, gradient, breadth, roughness of surface, and driver behavior all affect how much it costs to operate a vehicle. Vehicle operating costs will vary if any of these characteristics changes as a consequence of a road upgrade.

The various vehicle running cost components are shown along with roughly how much each contributes to the overall cost. This is based on a selection of feasibility studies conducted by consultants as part of the field testing of the RTIM life cycle costing program prototype. When estimating the expenses of running a car, this illustrates the relative significance of several factors.

The costs discussed further here will be those for fuel consumption and spare parts, which are influenced by road roughness and contribute significantly to vehicle operating costs. Vehicle depreciation and overheads have effectively been determined to be independent of life cycle highway cost considerations.

### **Usage of Fuel**

Vehicle speed is the main factor that influences fuel usage. It is vital to forecast future changes in speed due to changing road conditions or potential traffic congestion, even if the easiest way to ascertain current speed values is by directly measuring the traffic on the road. The World Bank's technique to steady-state speed prediction is referred to as an aggregate limiting velocity approach.

According to this strategy, speed is constrained by a number of separate factors connected to the vehicle and the road, such as gradient, engine power, road curvature, and road roughness. When each parameter is applied separately and in turn, speed is calculated. The probabilistic minimum of those limiting speeds is then used to get the actual anticipated speed. The limiting speeds used are:

1. VDRIVE stands for the maximum speed determined by engine power and vertical gradient.
2. VBRAKE is the maximum speed determined by the vertical gradient and braking power.
3. The speed limit is governed by road curvature, or VCURVE.
4. The maximum speed depends on the severity of the ride and how bumpy the road is called VROUGH.
5. VDESIR is the desirable speed in ideal circumstances, taking into account psychological, economic, safety, and other factors.

### Consumption of Spare Parts

The most practical way to calculate spare parts consumption is to compare the cost of the components per 1000 vehicle kilometers to the cost of a new car over the same time period. This solves the issue of determining the cost of each component found in a single vehicle.

### Time Reduction

Savings on travel time may contribute significantly to a project's benefits and are thus important to include when doing a life cycle cost analysis. Less time spent traveling will benefit both the fleet of vehicles, which will be more productive, and the people and goods being transported. It has been suggested that since trips are quantized, higher vehicle utilisation cannot arise from route shortening and that only savings significant enough to allow an additional trip can be considered a benefit. The vehicle fleet cannot, however, be used for the whole of the working day, thus it is realistic to predict that, after the project is finished, it will only be used for a part of the working day on average. It is safe to assume that any possible time savings will always be completely used throughout the network as a whole since there is no reason to believe that any unique aspect of the before condition will not be matched when the project is finished. Therefore, it is fair to consider fleet savings from increased utilization as a benefit in life cycle cost analysis. Although the particular unit time values used will depend on earnings in the nation where the life cycle cost analysis is to be conducted, values of time might be based on the methodology used in the UK. The following concerns must to be taken into account:

1. Time savings for working and leisure time should be quantified separately.
2. Working time should be valued at the average pay rate in the country's or the relevant region's monetised economy, plus overheads, in the lack of better data.
3. Unless there are unique reasons to assign a higher value, non-working or leisure time should be valued between 0 and 45% of working time. the value within this range will likely be closely tied to the nation's GNP per capita.

Time costs for freight include interest payments on the capital the items represent, fees for damaged or spoiled perishable commodities, and any other expenses that may result from the delay. Studies on the mode of transportation for goods traveling by road or other means have shown that, even for non-perishable goods, consignors are typically willing to pay far more than just interest costs on the goods and are more concerned with the reduction of uncertainty in the time of delivery.

The forecast of travel speed variations during the life cycle of the road is the key to calculating time savings in a life cycle study. The speed correlations from the prior section on fuel usage may be used when congestion is not a major concern. Speed-flow curves should be used when congestion will have a noticeable impact. The COBA9 approach makes use of a speed prediction algorithm that may be employed on congested rural single-carriageway roads. Benefits of reducing traffic accidents must be determined by:

1. Predict the decrease in accidents.
2. Decrease in traffic accidents.
3. Identify the right dollar amounts for accident expenses.

4. Road accident prediction techniques are still mostly subjective, and there is a general dearth of information about how different corrective actions affect accident rates. It's crucial to make the following distinctions.
5. Increased standards for roadway design and planning that reduce accidents.
6. Decrease in accidents as a consequence of technical countermeasures used to increase road safety at certain locations.
7. There are three expenses associated with traffic accidents.
8. Car and other property damage.
9. Expense of administration, healthcare care, and police labor, among other things.
10. Both harm and death.

While the right value may be speculative, losses like damage, police, and medical charges involve substantial resources and are easily defined. However, expenses associated with death and injury are arbitrary and include valuing human life as well as pain, grief, and suffering. To provide an absolute minimum value for accident reduction, material costs should always be taken into consideration. A country's government's goals for promoting road safety will determine the best technique for assessing the death and injury toll there. A gross output-based costing technique is suitable if maximizing GNP is the goal. In this instance, the discounted present value of the casualty's future production is used to determine the worth of human life. This is based on the assumption that no one else is available to fill the casualty's position who would otherwise be jobless. If society's aversion to death and harm is to be taken into consideration, a component for pain, sadness, and suffering should be included to this.

### **Broader Economic Advantages**

It is common practice to consider generated traffic as a stand-in for economic benefits in life cycle cost analyses of road projects. The majority of road projects are suitable for the consumer surplus technique of measuring developmental benefits since it is typical that some kind of vehicle access already exists, no matter how basic. Robinson describes the use of the consumer surplus concept to the life cycle analysis of road projects.

### **Consequences**

By using life cycle costing in the evaluation of highway projects, it is ensured that judgments are made taking into account both the short- and long-term effects of their choices. A minimal construction cost solution will always be selected if life cycle costs are not taken into consideration, with the application of any design standards serving as the sole restriction. Commonly used design standards often result from considerations of practice and tradition, and typically only provide a minimal degree of safety and technical functionality. Such a strategy ignores the fact that building a roadway is only necessary to deliver a service over time in the future. It is obvious that an assessment philosophy that ignores this is wrong.

Highway authorities should use a life cycle cost method to help them plan maintenance schedules. Given the potential limitations on available budgets, maintenance engineers must make decisions regarding acceptable treatments for specific faults as well as the balance of treatments throughout the network as a whole when confronted with a wide variety of problems throughout the network they are monitoring. Programs of work that minimize costs or maximize the use of available funds and guarantee that ideal circumstances prevail on the network both

now and in the future can only be chosen by taking life cycle costs into account, both for individual sites and for the network as a whole.

The studies initially published in the late 1970s that showed for the first time, in a quantitative manner, the critical influence that road degradation had on vehicle operating costs underlined the relevance of life cycle costing of roads to larger economic concerns. This in turn emphasized the tremendous impact that paying for road maintenance, or not paying for it, may have on the financial success of a road project. It became evident that the life cycle implications of road maintenance were quite important since road transportation accounts for a significant amount of the GNP in many nations. A case study of a 100 km stretch of unmaintained road in a developing nation that was open to traffic for four years has been given. The road was already damaged and warped, and potholes were beginning to develop as it carried around 750 cars every day. Already, the worsening road conditions were increasing the cost of running vehicles by an additional \$1.5 million annually. Applying very inexpensive maintenance methods yielded a significant advantage, according to a life cycle cost study.

More broadly, the examination of the life cycle costs of road projects in poor nations has prompted significant policy changes from institutions like the World Bank. On roads that are presently badly maintained, maintenance upgrades lower vehicle operating costs by 15–50% for the same traffic volume, leading to internal rates of return on such projects that often surpass 100%.

In such circumstances, few maintenance projects have rates of return as low as 50%, whereas the return on new building projects almost ever goes beyond this. Some foreign funding organizations have shifted loans more in favor of road maintenance projects and away from the conventional sector of new construction as a consequence of the use of life cycle analysis to establish such benefits. White has analyzed the effects of applying life cycle cost analysis to assess road projects in developing nations and has drawn the following conclusions. Low baseline flows on roads. The advantages of improving an existing railway are probably negligible. Benefits from fully new access or a change in mode caused by a road development are likely to be significant but difficult to quantify.

1. In rural areas, personal travel is probably the largest contributor to traffic flows.
2. High baseline flow roads:
3. The likelihood is that high-income groups will gain more than low-income ones.
4. Even when time values are minimal, time savings are a substantial project advantage from large road improvements.
5. While it is necessary to compare several possibilities using a standard life cycle costing approach, it is inadequate to fully evaluate a chosen project.
6. In comparison to industrialized nations, forecasting future traffic flows in developing nations is far more prone to inaccuracy.
7. When life cycle costs are taken into consideration, good quality control throughout construction is crucial.
8. The degree of maintenance performed over a project's lifetime significantly affects life cycle costs.
9. The net present value of rural access roads will increase with lower design requirements.

In the roads sector, life cycle cost analysis is crucial to the decision-making process. As future interrelationships and analytical models develop, its significance will only grow.



## DISCUSSION

In the defense sector, life cycle costing is emerging as a crucial management tool. The controllers that deal with sea and air defense systems have separately created costing models and methods, and the controller in charge of land systems is now considering them. Although they have only been employed on a small number of pieces of equipment so far, the approaches are intended to be applied in all facets of defense system management and acquisition. The administration of life cycle costs will eventually come under centralized control.

Instead of reporting on the stage of development at this time, the purpose of this article is to examine the advantages these techniques will be expected to confer on the economics of defense procurement once their use has become established, as well as how they are likely to be employed, as well as any challenges that may need to be overcome. The management of all defense equipment for use by all troops on land, at sea, and in the air will be done using life cycle costing approaches, however the main examples used to clarify issues as they emerge are from the air side. This is due to the fact that aviation, both military and commercial, is a highly closely regulated industry. One specific advantage of this is that, in comparison to land and sea systems, it is considerably easier to get the data required for proper management and monitoring of in-service maintenance expenses. As a result, service costs for future air systems may be predicted more accurately and with a better chance of success. As the situation progresses, its significance will become more apparent. Life cycle costing is relevant for today's defense acquisition and operation for three key, interconnected reasons. The first is the difference between the amount of money at risk now and in the past. Spitfires from World War II cost roughly £30,000 per unit. Currently, Tornados cost about £10,000,000. and the EH 101 anti-submarine helicopter costs about £24,000,000. The B-2 stealth bomber may hold the distinction of being the country's first military vehicle to cost \$1 billion. The second relates to how long a weapon system may be anticipated to be in use and, therefore, how long the quantitative justifications that initially drove the decision to purchase it must hold true. Every three years or so, a new kind of aircraft was put into service throughout the 1940s and 1950s. Few previous designs were ever designed to persist in the long run due to the attrition of combat and the frequent arrival of new advancements in performance and weapon capabilities. Planned lifespans of at least 25 years are prevalent nowadays. The Canberra has been in use by the RAF since 1950. the Buccaneer made its maiden flight in 1958 and was still in operation in 1991 during the Gulf War. and the Sea King has been in use since the early 1970s and will continue to be used into the next century.

A modern airframe must be able to withstand all the aging-related ravages like metal fatigue and corrosion that its forerunners were never able to experience, and it must do so while continuing to be able to carry newer generations of avionics that were largely unimaginable at the time of the airframe's design. Due to these two factors, the initial cost of purchase is quite expensive. The first two factors lead to the third. The fraction of the entire life cost that is attributable to planned and unscheduled assistance increases as the service life is prolonged. Therefore, the better the purchase choice, the sooner and more effectively these expenses may be projected. The UK Ministry of Defence is now very concerned about support expenditures, particularly those brought on by the unreliability of existing technology. It was predicted that the expenses for unforeseen maintenance of defense equipment topped £1 billion in 1989–1990. The cost of the loss of availability while the damaged equipment is out of service is an order of magnitude larger than the cost of repair.

In fact, the Ministry estimated that over the same time period, unreliability rendered one-third to half of the RAF's fast jet fleet inoperable and, even on those aircraft that could be handled, negatively impacted one out of every ten missions. These numbers amply demonstrate the potential profits from using a more prudent technique of investment management, particularly when dependability and maintainability considerations are included. The most crucial thing to understand is that, contrary to what was formerly believed to be the case roughly thirty years ago, the cost that counts is really the sum of the expenses associated with the specification, development, purchase, operation, and support.

In defense-related applications, life cycle costing is the technique of examining all the costs in monetary terms—direct and indirect, social and environmental, of operating an equipment throughout its entire service life, as an aid to finding the best solution to a design requirement, according to the definition given above. While the final few sentences of this description contain the key to understanding the primary function that life cycle costing may play in defense procurement, it does so without being unfairly imply that the *s* will never be proven correct until the equipment has reached the scrap-heap. This is because all those variables which it was previously simpler to treat as unquantifiable will be subject to a single cost component.

**Procedures** The first area where life cycle costing approaches are useful is when they have an impact on the initial choice of the kind of equipment that will best meet the operational demand under consideration. It will be useful to briefly describe the processes that a need for a defense system must go through before a decision to purchase is made in order to provide an overview of the function and implementation of these approaches in the defense procurement process. Before the reader is led to believe that all the issues with defense procurement can now be expected to be under control, the expected drawbacks will also be discussed, lest they be led to believe that they do not play an important role in the selection of equipment and contractor.

The need to build a profile of the rates at which money will need to be spent during the equipment's full life is a particularly helpful aspect of life cycle costing. This makes it possible for the finance management to adopt a long-term perspective as the project advances and mitigates the potential vulnerability of using short-term fixes in emergency situations. It has been seen via the use of these concepts in the US defense sector that up to 70% of a new project's total cost may have been committed before it reached the manufacturing stage. Through this approach, it is implied that the rationale for allocating money at a certain rate has previously been developed and approved. Therefore, it is beneficial to maintain the project's viability during its early stages, when it is most likely to be cancelled or at the very least starved of funding. However, there will be moments of governmental restraint when the concept of an early cancellation may suddenly appear highly alluring due to the enormous spending savings that would ostensibly occur.

Another major advantage of creating a thorough expenditure profile in advance is the ability to identify the project's main cost drivers early on and make any required changes while the procurement process is still tightly under control. Later on in the project's life, when making the case for significant design modifications or even job changes, a development spend profile may prove to be a very useful tool. Such evaluation tasks can be required when thinking about a mid-life upgrade. They may sometimes be forced into service if unanticipated structural failure symptoms develop. If this happens, the equipment may be removed from service sooner than anticipated unless costly repair and rework activities are carried out. Numerous planes, ships, and

combat vehicles go through at least one scheduled mid-life upgrade during which they are renovated and outfitted with modern weaponry and sensor technology. This is a more appealing financial option than creating a new replacement system from start. Particularly for warships, a planned life of extensive refits and upgrade programs will be laid out for them before they enter service. It should be noted that extending an item's life beyond the point at which it was intended to stop might invalidate prior estimates in which the value of the intended life played a significant role. It would have been prudent to have performed sensitivity studies at this point.

In an era when defense programs are costly, take a long time to complete, and the quantity of units purchased may be relatively low, life cycle costing has emerged as a discipline that can be relied upon. When compared to the pace and unpredictability of comparable initiatives before the Second World War, procurement quantities in the UK have unquestionably been measured in handfuls and penny packets. For instance, the UK only able to produce only 80 combat aircraft in 1983, after producing over 50000 during World War 1. This is another example of why life cycle costing was previously irrelevant. The Royal Air Force, for instance, had up to 75 distinct aircraft designs in its arsenal throughout the 1930s, but only eight of them saw substantial production. Alarming differences in contract numbers were found between years. As the war progressed, orders for the basic Tiger Moth training aircraft increased from two per year during exceptionally hard times to 2000 per year. Under such circumstances, it would have been impossible to successfully implement the life cycle costing principles into the defense procurement industry.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, In the military sector, life cycle costing is a useful tool for decision-making. Stakeholders may maximize cost-effectiveness, improve the sustainability of military systems, and guarantee operational readiness by taking into account the whole life cycle costs and adopting LCC concepts. Including LCC in decision-making processes enables military organizations to make well-informed decisions that support the effective and efficient defense capabilities essential for national security while also maximizing value for money and aligning with mission objectives. However, precise and dependable data on procurement, operating, and support costs are needed for LCC implementation in the military sector. To obtain the required information, analyze cost implications, and make wise judgments, cooperation between military agencies, contractors, and suppliers is essential.

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