Duration and cost variability of construction activities: an empirical study

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On the duration and cost variability of construction activities: an empirical study

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Abstract

The unique nature of construction projects can mean that construction activities often suffer from duration and cost variability. As this variability is unplanned it can present a problem when attempting to complete a project on time and on budget. Various factors causing this variability have been identified in the literature, but they predominantly refer to the nature and/or context of the whole project, rather than their specific activities.

In this paper, the order of magnitude of and correlation between activity duration and cost variability is analyzed in 101 construction projects with over 5000 activities. To do this, the first four moments (mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) of actual versus planned duration and cost (log) ratios are analyzed by project, phase of execution and activity type. Results suggest that, contrary to common wisdom, construction activities do not end late on average. Instead, the large variability in the activity duration is the major factor causing significant project delays and cost overruns. The values of average activity duration and cost variability gathered in this study will also serve as a reference for construction

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managers to improve future construction planning and project simulation studies with more realistic data.

Keywords: scheduling; activity variability; merge event bias; network topology; project delays

Introduction

Construction activities usually suffer from variability in terms of both duration and cost. With each construction project being unique, factors of this variability are plentiful (Ballesteros-Pérez et al. 2017). These factors include project location, clients, regulations, labor, equipment, technology, subcontractors, experience, stakeholders, even the project team, are likely to change, at least partially, among projects (Chudley and Greeno 2016). All these factors, plus many other, make of the duration and cost estimation exercise, a challenging task for construction managers.

It may be easy to believe, though, that construction activities are apparently more likely to end later and cost more than the other way around. In fact, this would constitute a compelling reason why so many construction projects end late and exceed their initial budget.

Factors that cause projects to end late or result in cost overruns have been studied in the construction literature for a long time. Some of the most recurrent are poor planning and control practices, deficient construction site management, shortages of labor and/or low productivity, problems with the supply chain and/or procurement practices, contractor's and/or client's financial problems, project specifications or design changes, communication and/or co-ordination problems among stakeholders, interferences with onsite services, adverse weather conditions, and legal disputes and contract claims (Ballesteros-pérez et al. 2015, 2018b). Among all these, however, poor planning and control practices are consistently among the most pervasive (AlSehaimi and Koskela 2008).

Ballesteros-Pérez et al. (2018a) recently showed how the most common scheduling techniques (Gantt chart, Critical Path Method and Project Evaluation and Review Technique, PERT) consistently underestimate the actual project duration and cost. One of the major causes of this underestimation came precisely from neglecting activity duration variability.

Apart from the classical scheduling techniques, more advanced techniques for getting improved project duration and/or cost estimates have been proposed over the years (e.g. fuzzy logic, neural network analysis, Monte Carlo simulations, artificial intelligence methods, many variants of PERT, and even more extensions of Earned Value Management (Ballesteros-Pérez, 2017a)). What all these methods have in common, classical and modern alike, is that they all require some prior estimates of the potential activity durations and costs. For example, PERT-related techniques generally resort to three-point estimates (pessimistic, optimistic and most likely durations and costs); Monte Carlo simulations require the statistical distributions of each activity as input; and neural network analysis and artificial intelligence methods require training sets of similar construction projects. Access to this information is often the major limitation of these methods. Similarly, realistic data on the correlation between activity duration and costs is also a rare commodity, which forces these techniques to either assume independence between activities and costs, or resort to subjective correlation factors (Banerjee and Paul 2008; Cho 2009). Consequently, when enough quantity or quality of information is not available, the forecasting accuracy of the actual project duration and/or cost is expected to be unreliable.

Unfortunately, despite its importance, there is a dearth of research into activity duration and cost variability in the construction management literature. Maybe, the only exception would be the work of Trietsch et al. (2012) who attempted to establish a distribution that satisfactorily describes construction activity durations. However, as early suggested by MacCrimmon and Ryavec (1964), trying to find a universal distribution that fits all types of activities is a futile effort because each type of activity is unique. Furthermore, its context might also have a significant influence which is difficult, if not impossible, to parameterize mathematically.

Nonetheless, these difficulties should not be a deterrent to, at least, attempting to measure the average level of variability of construction activity durations and costs. As argued, this would be an extremely valuable input for future project duration and cost forecasting techniques, as well as providing powerful baseline information for enhancing project control and monitoring.

Hence, the present paper precisely attempts to fill this research gap in the construction management literature: measure the average level of activity duration and cost variability. It will also justify how and why, given this level of activity variability in common project networks, it is expected that most construction projects end late and go over budget. To achieve this, the actual/planned (log) ratios of many project and activity durations and costs will be analyzed. The correlation between activity durations and costs will also be studied. Finally, the most common network topologies (descriptors of what the project networks are like, that is, how activities are arranged and connected with each other) will be summarized and the potential impact of activity variability on these networks described in detail.

The paper will be structured as follows. The *background* section will provide an overview of the importance of the first four moments of the activity duration and costs impacting the final project duration and cost. This section will introduce the concept of merge event bias and describe how it may cause project delays and cost overruns depending of each project network topology. The *materials and methods* section will describe how a dataset of 101 projects was classified according to different activity categories, and then their log actual vs planned durations and cost deviations analyzed activity by activity. The *discussion* section will provide insights on to what the numerical results mean and how they are connected to the project network topology in common construction projects. Finally, the *conclusions* will summarize the whole analysis, highlight the major contributions to the body of knowledge, state the study limitations, and propose future research continuations.

Background

There have been numerous studies analyzing delays and cost overruns in construction projects at project level (e.g. (Hamzah et al. 2011; Keane and Caletka 2008; Mahamid et al. 2012; Ogunlana et al. 1996; Orangi et al. 2011; Senouci et al. 2016)). Most studies have focused on either establishing the causes of delays and cost overruns, and/or proposing some regression analyses to avoid slippages in the future. Generally, these studies have been aligned with a more reductionist perspective, seeking to emphasize a particular context (same region, client, type of projects, or a combination of these).

Conversely, there have not been hardly studies measuring the 'activity' durations and costs, let alone their variability in real construction projects. With the exception of Trietsch et al. (2012) mentioned earlier, perhaps the closest are a handful of studies analyzing the sensitivity of the project duration to different levels of activity mean duration and dispersion (e.g. Elmaghraby & Taner (1999) and Elmaghraby (2000)).

Additionally, but from a purely mathematical and simulation perspective, some studies have tried to gauge to what extent the adopted activity statistical distributions have a significant repercussion on the final project duration. In this regard, a recent study by Hajdu and Bokor (2014) concluded that the maximum project duration deviation when using alternative activity distributions was generally well below 10%. This finding resonated with observations from an earlier study on the limitations of PERT. MacCrimmon and Ryavec

(1964) showed that, if triangular distributions for modelling activity durations had been chosen instead of Beta distributions, the probabilistic project duration would have produced almost identical results.

The reason why the choice of a particular statistical distribution does not seem that relevant is because the third and fourth moments (skewness and kurtosis) are blurred very quickly in Stochastic Network Analysis (SNA) (Hajdu and Bokor 2016). At the time of writing, SNA is considered the most accurate approach to model project schedule networks (Ballesteros-Pérez, 2017b). In SNA, activity durations and costs are modelled by statistical distributions (with or without correlation with each other). More precisely, distributions are summed when computing the total costs of activities, or the total duration of activities arrayed in series. On the other hand, the maximum of distributions (instead of a sum) is calculated whenever we calculate the total duration of a set of activities placed in parallel. In either case, the third and fourth moments (skewness and kurtosis) have a minor influence on the resulting distribution (of a path or project duration).

However, the first two moments (mean and variance, or alternatively, standard deviation) play a major role in the resulting distribution modelling the total project duration. When there is some correlation between durations and costs (virtually always in construction projects), they also have an indirect but still significant, influence on the final project cost.

To sum up, when two or more distributions are convoluted (summed for computing the project cost or the duration of activities in series) the resulting distribution, by the Central Limit Theorem, quickly converges to a Normal distribution. The mean and variance of this Normal distribution correspond to the sum of means and variances, respectively, of the individual activity distributions. Therefore, the first two moments will mostly determine what the resulting distribution looks like.

When some activities are arranged in parallel and they all need to finish before the project can continue, the resulting distribution quickly converges to an extreme value distribution of maxima (normally a Fréchet or a Gumbel distribution) (Dodin and Sirvanci 1990). Again, the first two moments of the involved activity distributions will determine the location and scale of the resulting extreme value distribution. This phenomenon is commonly known as the 'merge event bias' (Khamooshi & Cioffi, 2013; Vanhoucke, 2012) and it is indeed the major source of inaccuracy of all deterministic scheduling techniques.

Real construction project schedules (networks) generally involve many subsets of activities both arranged in parallel and in series. Hence, multiple convolutions (sums) and maxima of distributions need to be computed so that the final project duration and cost can be calculated. The influence of each activity's first two moments (mean and standard deviation) will be key in this final result. This justifies why an order of magnitude of these two moments is worth collecting from a representative dataset of real construction activities.

Finally, another factor that determines how the activity distributions are merged with each other is dependent on the project network topology itself. Network topology refers to the logical layout of a network (a project schedule). It defines the way different activities (often referred to as nodes) are placed and interconnected with each other. Many metrics have been proposed for describing the network configuration. Some well-known examples are the Coefficient of Network Complexity (Davies 1973; Pascoe 1966), the Order Strength (Mastor 1970) and the Complexity Index (Bein et al. 1992). However, these only capture the project complexity and will not be used here.

Instead, this study will make use of four topology measures that describe the structure of an activity-on-the-node network, not just its complexity. These measures were initially proposed by Tavares et al. (1999) and later improved by Vanhoucke (2008). The four measures (also named *indicators*) used are: serial-Parallel (SP) indicator, Activity

Distribution (AD), Length of Arcs (LA) indicator, and Topological Float (TF) which will be explained in the following sections. All these indicators range between 0 and 1 and constitute simple measures describing to what extent the first two moments of the construction activities may condition the final duration and cost of a project.

Materials and methods

In this section, the characteristics of the projects and activity datasets analyzed are described first. The details of how the activity and project data was filtered and categorized, under multiple levels of analysis, is also presented. Next, the first four moments of activity durations and costs are reported and commented separately. Finally, the correlations between activity durations and costs are reported along with their statistical significance.

Projects and activities dataset

This research used two different project datasets. The first (and main) one is analyzed at both activity- and project-level. The second dataset contains project level information (planned and actual project durations and costs) and will be used for illustrative purposes in the *discussions*.

In order to obtain representative values of the first four moments of the activity durations and costs, a significant amount of activities is necessary. In the first dataset, 101 construction projects are analyzed initially encompassing 5,697 activities.

Projects are classified in four types: Building, Civil engineering, Industrial and Services. Building projects are mostly aimed at constructing a building or parts of a building. Civil engineering refers to infrastructure construction in general. Industrial projects refer to installations and/or electromechanical equipment. Services refer to projects with a significant operational and/or production component.

The 101-project dataset was retrieved from a real projects dataset originally developed by Batselier and Vanhoucke (2015) and Vanhoucke et al. (2016). Although the exact location of those projects is not disclosed in most cases (due to a confidentiality clause with the information donors), it is known that most of them belong to Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, USA and Azerbaijan.

At the time of writing, the complete project dataset is curated by the Operations Research & Scheduling Research Group at Ghent University and comprises 125 projects. 24 projects out of the 125 were not used as they did not include tracking information (actual activity durations and costs). All 125 projects, however, can be accessed at the website of OR-AS.be (2018). The major features of the 101 construction projects selected for this study are summarized in Table 1. The last four columns of Table 1 include some project network topological information (indicators SP, AD, LA, and TF) that will be used later.

<Insert Table 1 here>

We deem the variety and number of project types, costs, durations, topologies and number of activities as sufficiently representative for a first representative analysis. Yet, further details and specific project information can also be found as individual project cards at OR-AS.be (2018).

Analysis outline

This analysis focuses first on the activity-level deviations of durations and costs. Project-level data will also be analyzed later, but from a complementary point of view to activities analyses. The activity duration and cost deviations are calculated for each activity *i* in the first dataset according to these two expressions, respectively:

$$Activity\ duration\ deviation\ of\ activity\ i = LOG_{10}\left(\frac{Actual\ duration\ of\ activity\ i}{Planned\ duration\ of\ activity\ i}\right) \quad (1)$$

$$Activity\ cost\ deviation\ of\ activity\ i = LOG_{10}\left(\frac{Actual\ cost\ of\ activity\ i}{Planned\ cost\ of\ activity\ i}\right) \quad (2)$$

It is worth emphasizing that both ratios above are expressed in logarithmic scale. This is important, as ratios of variables which are always positive (e.g. durations and costs) are not symmetrical respect to the value 1. The scale distortion of these ratios (they range between 0 and 1 when the denominator is bigger than the numerator, but between 1 and + infinity when the numerator is bigger than the denominator) creates an artificial positive skewness in the data distribution that can only be removed by taking the log ratios beforehand. Additionally, in log scale, the variable variances are additive, rather than multiplicative.

Therefore, we will take the logarithm of every ratio before analyzing their activity duration and cost moments. We resorted to logarithms with base 10 because their orders of magnitude are a little more familiar, but any other base would have been possible.

Lastly, it is important to note that ratios in natural scale from 0 to 1 correspond to values from -infinity to 0 in any log scale. Whereas ratios in natural scale from 1 to +infinity correspond to the $(0, +\infty)$ range. Both ranges also have a symmetrical correspondence with each other in log scale (e.g. ratios ½ and 2 in natural scale have the same values with opposite signs in log scale, that is -0.301 and 0.301, respectively) which makes the interpretations of variability results easier. Bearing this in mind, the next step consists of describing how the activities were grouped to analyze their ratios and produce robust results. The progressive classification levels can be found in Table 2.

<Insert Table 2 here>

From top to bottom, three levels of activity classifications are presented. Each level consists of three types of activities:

- Planned and Performed (P&P). These activities correspond to activities that were initially planned and were also finally executed in the projects analyzed. These are the most frequent and the only ones that are considered in the analysis.
- Unplanned but Performed (UbP). These activities correspond to activities that were not initially planned but that were deemed necessary and had to be eventually carried out. These activities were removed from the analysis because their ratios converged to + infinity (as the planned values in the denominators equal 0), and because most of the time they come from planning mistakes or omissions.
- Planned but not Performed (PbnP). These activities correspond to activities that were initially planned, but that were not executed in the end. These activity ratios would equal zero in natural scale but their logarithmic values would converge to - infinity. They also represent bad estimates of the planned schedule like UbP activities, hence, they were also removed from the analysis.

Concerning activity grouping, four levels of analysis (0 to 3) were considered:

- Level 0 comprises all activities analyzed from all projects. This allows drawing general average conclusions without paying attention to proportions nor types of those activities.
- Level 1. Activities are classified under the same four types of projects stated in Table 1 (building, civil engineering, industrial and services). As expected, this level allows analyzing how the activity durations and costs deviations differ by (generic) types of

projects. Some group average and dispersion results of activity durations and costs are also included for reference on the right columns of Level 1 sub-table.

- Level 2. Within the previous four project type categories we further classify activities into three standard phases of the every project lifecycle according to the PMBoK: Planning, Execution and Closure (Project Management Institute 2017). Classifying activities into these three categories is straightforward with the activity descriptions available in almost all projects. The fourth phase considered by the PMBoK (Monitoring and control) is not relevant for this analysis, therefore not considered.
- Level 3. For the *execution* phase of *Building* and *Civil engineering* projects only activities are further classified into five generic groups, called here *activity types* (auxiliary works, substructure, superstructure, specialized works, and facilities). These are also common and relatively straightforward groups of activities in most construction projects. For a more detailed description of the scope of each group the reader is referred to Chudley and Greeno (2016).

Level 3 allowed classifying activities into one last level right above the nature of the activity itself. Activities in this level were classified mostly thanks to the descriptions of the project *summary activities* (that were indeed not used for anything else in the analysis). Finally, as highlighted at the beginning of level 3, only activities from the *execution* phase of *building* and *civil engineering* projects were used. This is due to the number of *execution* activities in *Industrial* projects being considered too low. Also, because *Execution* activities belonging to *Services* projects, despite higher in number, were found too heterogeneous. The latter made hard to classify these activities within similar self-contained categories (*Services* projects are indeed much more varied regarding the nature of its activities).

Activity duration results

The first four moments (average, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) of the activities log ratios were analyzed according to the four levels described in Table 2. Table 3 shows now the results for the activity *duration* log ratios (LOG_{10} (*actual* / *planned*)).

<Insert Table 3 here>

For each case and level analyzed, four numerical values are displayed: *n* (the sample size, that is, the number of activities used to calculate the four moments), and the four moment values (in logarithmic scale). However, due to the major relevance of the first two moments (average and standard deviation) these two have also been included in natural scale within parentheses right below their respective logarithmic values. Values in natural scale are expected to help the reader to better grasp the order of magnitude of these moments. With this information, Table 3 is self-explanatory. The number of readings and details in this table are numerous, so attention is given to the most relevant findings.

Concerning *Averages*, it is striking to observe how most values remain very close to 0 (in log values) or 1 (in natural values). Some exceptions may be *Services* projects and the *Planning* phase activities (Level 2) from *Building* and *Civil engineering* projects. Yet, in the latter, average ratios values remain close to 5% (in log values) or 11% (in natural values). Overall, as these log ratios are so close to zero, this suggests that construction activities do *not* end late (on average). This may be an unexpected finding, as the easier explanation for projects ending late was that its activities ended late on average. This result seems to suggest the problem lies somewhere else.

Concerning the *Standard Deviation* (SD) values, results are very different. SD, by definition, can only be positive but it is quite clear that, unlike the averages, SDs are not close to zero. Instead, with a few exceptions, SD values are almost always above 0.15 (in log scale) or 43% (in natural scale) between the actual and planned durations. This is an extremely high level of variability and, despite construction activities do not end late *on average*, they do suffer from wide dispersions which condition to a big extent the project-level delays, as will be justified later. On a secondary note, *Industrial* and *Services* projects also have a bigger variability than the other types of projects. Interpretations by project phase (level 2) and activity type (level 3) are more varied.

The results on *Skewness* are relatively uniform. A common rule of thumb assumes that skewness values ranging from -2 to +2 are indicative of a low distribution asymmetry (George and Mallery 2010). This is the case in Table 3 with very few exceptions. Therefore, the log ratios distribution must be approximately symmetrical and, combined with averages also close to zero, we can conclude that there is approximately the same probability of finding early activities than tardy activities.

Concerning *kurtosis*, the picture is very different. Values are generally well above 3, which would describe the kurtosis corresponding to the Normal distribution. This result means that log ratio duration values resemble a peaked distribution with heavy tails. In other words, the majority of the actual durations are not close to their planned values. As stated earlier, many other readings may be extracted from Table 3. However, for the sake of clarity, only the most relevant high-level interpretations are presented.

Activity cost results

Table 4 represents the first four moments of the activity actual versus planned *cost* log ratios. In parentheses, we can find the antilogarithmic (natural scale) values of the first two moments as well. Table 4 values differ substantially from those found in Table 3.

<Insert Table 4 here>

Concerning *Average* values, most of them are clearly positive and generally above 1.01 (in log values) or alternatively above 3% (in natural scale). A clear exception may be the *Industrial* projects whose average is negative. This may be because *Industrial* projects are frequently composed of electromechanical equipment whose procurement prices are relatively easier to estimate more accurately ex-ante than other types of projects. Additionally, *Civil engineering* and *Services* projects are among the ones whose activities tend to suffer from more cost overruns. This may be due to *civil engineering* projects being (generally) less standard than Buildings whose average log ratios remain closer to 0. On the other hand, *services* projects as indicated in Table 3, suffered from more delays on average than other types of projects. Being these types of projects frequently more labor intensive, it seems logical that those extra durations are correlated with these extra costs.

Concerning *Standard Deviation* (SD), variability is even more evident than in the case of duration log ratios. On level 0 we can appreciate how the average activity SD reaches 0.25 (78% of variability in natural scale). On level 1, no project type has a variability below 0.16 (46% of variability, in the case of *Building* projects) and two of them (*Civil engineering* and *Services*) remain above 0.30 (>100% of variability). SDs on levels 2 and 3 offer similar readings but with wider values.

Concerning *skewness*, cost log ratios are more varied than their duration counterparts. In general, when *average* values are negative, the skewness values are also predominantly negative. Similarly, when the *average* costs are positive, the cost distribution is also positively skewed.

Concerning *kurtosis*, values are much higher than its duration ratios counterpart too. This would be indicative again that most activity actual costs substantially differ from their planned values (a high proportion of the actual costs tend to be substantially different from their planned costs).

Activity duration and cost correlation

Numerical results of the log ratios of the first four moments offered very interesting information about the nature of duration extensions and cost overruns at activity level. It is not the intention of this study to find a distribution that fits these four moments, though. As suggested by other researchers and also discussed earlier, each activity is different in nature and it is quite likely that a fit-for-all distribution does not exist. Indeed, on observing the wide range of skewness and kurtosis values in Tables 3 and 4, that seems to be exactly the case.

However, a pending but also equally relevant issue is to analyze the potential correlation between activity duration variation and cost variation. For this aim, all activities were grouped under the very same levels previously described and linear correlations were calculated among the duration log ratios and the cost log ratios. A summary of this analysis is presented in Table 5. Spearman's rho and Kendall's tau non-linear (rank) correlations were also tested. However, they only very marginally improved the linear correlation results and were considered not worth including as they did not seem to barely depart from the linear case shown in Table 5.

<Insert Table 5 here>

Table 5 is divided in two major blocks. The upper block is devoted to activity-level correlations. The lower block is reserved for project-level correlations. For each correlation it has been specified how many datapoints were used (column labelled as n), Pearson's correlation coefficient (R), the coefficient of determination (R^2), along with the gradient (*slope* column) and *intercept* of the linear regression lines.Statistically highly significant correlations have been marked with two asterisks (**) separately for R^2 tests (with the

Snedecor's *F* distribution) and *slope* tests (with the Student's *T* distribution). Significant statistical correlations have been marked with a single asterisk (*).

In the case of activity-level correlations, almost all correlation values are significant. This mean that values of R^2 are very unlikely to have happened by chance. This is not the case at Project-level correlations where, apart from the level 0 of analysis (all 101 projects grouped together), R^2 values have not been found to be statistically significant. This means we cannot count on the reliability of project-level duration-cost correlations, hence they will be ignored moving forward.

Correlations at activity-level do offer very interesting results. R and R^2 evidence weak to moderate correlations (R^2 ranging between 0.10 and 0.62), but the slopes of such correlations are rather close to 0.50 in some levels and almost all of them are significant (marked with ** or *). More precisely, when there is no differentiation among activities (level 0), the slope is as high as 0.704. This means that a 100% activity duration extension (in log scale) would cause a 70.4% cost increment on that activity. This is quite a high gradient.

Differentiating by project type (level 1), the slopes become more informative. *Building* and *civil engineering* projects boast a gradient close to 0.5, that is, every 100% of duration increment is likely to cause a 50% of cost increment for that activity. For the other two types of projects we have no statistically significant slopes, despite it seems clear that *industrial* projects (probably due to the higher component of electromechanical equipment in the project budget) have lower slopes. On the contrary, *Services* projects, being more labor intensive, have higher slopes.

Results by project phase (level 2) seem more homogeneous. However, only the *execution* activities' slope is statistically significant. This level of correlation seems to replicate the results previously provided for level 0.

Results at level 3 are again not that heterogeneous and they all are statistically significant. However, there is nothing remarkable that has not been highlighted before.

A last note concerns the regression line intercepts (last column in Table 5). As can be seen, these values remain above 0.02 (in log scale) most of the time. That is approximately equivalent to an intercept of 5% in natural scale, which means that, no matter whether activity duration extensions are materialized or not, costs are likely to increase around 5% by default. These values are in line with the log ratio cost *averages* found in Table 4.

Discussion

So far, almost all analyses have focused on individual activities. Yet, it is acknowledged that the construction process is not an exact science and construction managers are often 'judged' upon their capability to manage activity variability. Hence, the key concern is the whole project suffering from delays and cost overruns, not just some of its activities. It was proposed earlier that this is because activities suffer from variability (both positive and negative), not because they are delayed on average. This section is devoted to analyze whether this speculation seems acceptable.

Let us start by approaching the problem from a graphical perspective first. For that purpose, a second dataset of 746 road construction projects from the Florida Department of Transportation (USA) is used. Given the number of contracts, no descriptive table is included in the paper, but the complete dataset can be found as *supplemental online material*. This additional project dataset has been used here because they represent relatively similar (homogeneous) contracts, from the same client, and during a short period of time. Arguably, this is the closest to assuming that these projects are 746 different realizations (possible outcomes) of the same generic type of project (in this case a road construction, that is, a *civil engineering* project).

Figure 1 represents the distributions of the log deviation ratios for durations and costs for the 746 contracts (using expressions (1) and (2) at project-level, not activity-level).

<Insert Figure 1 here>

Concerning project duration deviations (curve with black circles), it closely resembles an extreme value distribution of maxima (both Fréchet and Gumbel fits have been provided for comparison in black colors). This means that the merge event bias takes an important role when determining the actual project duration. Results in natural scale are, in this occasion, almost identical but they have not been provided to avoid curve cluttering.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that the average project duration extension is around 0.21 (in log scale). For *Civil Engineering* projects in Table 3, the average of the duration log ratio was negative (-0.008). This means the activities from civil engineering projects ended sooner than planned (on average). It is unlikely then, that the projects represented in Figure 1 could have ended later because a significant proportion of their activities ended late. However, the activity duration variability (the standard deviation) was 0.20. In extreme value theory, the mean of the highest order statistic distribution of a Normal distribution with three or four draws is approximately one standard deviation. The Normal distribution represents very well the distribution of the durations of each path (before they merge) (Ballesteros-Pérez, 2017a). Therefore, the average of the duration distribution coincides very closely with what is to be expected from the data from Table 3 for civil engineering projects (0.21≈0.20). Later it will be shown how more than three paths are quite common in civil engineering construction schedules.

Concerning project costs (curve with grey crosses), the situation is very different. The distribution of costs (log scale) resembles a Gamma distribution. It is worth noting that when a random variable *X* follows a Pareto distribution with parameter λ, the logarithm of *X* follows an Exponential distribution with the same parameter λ. This is relevant because the costs of individual activities are well known to resemble a Pareto distribution in almost all construction projects (Love et al. 2014; Love and Sing 2013). Hence, as cost ratios are being processed here in log values, our distribution should also resemble an Exponential distribution (continuous grey line in Figure 1). Additionally, as the sum of exponential distributions is a Gamma distribution, that would offer some explanation, to why we are observing a Gamma distribution (dashed grey line) fitting almost perfectly the log cost deviations in Figure 1. In this case the exponential distribution also provides a good fit, but that is not always the case in other construction project datasets.

Having approached the problem from a graphical and statistical perspective, it will be addressed now from a topological perspective. Network topology describes the layout of project schedules. The values of four representative topological indicators are displayed on the last four columns of Table 1 for the 101 projects analyzed. Table 6 now shows the average values of each topological indicator listed in Table 1, but categorized by Project type (*building, civil engineering, industrial* and *services*), as well as for all projects together (last row).

<Insert Table 6 here>

The Serial-Parallel (SP) indicator is probably the most relevant of the four indicators for the purpose of this study. This indicator measures the closeness of a network to a serial or parallel network. Namely, SP = (m-1)/(n-1); where n is the total number of project activities in a project schedule, and m is the number of activities in the path with a higher number of activities (which may not necessarily be the longest in duration, as topological measures ignore the activity durations). Hence, SP=0 means all activities are in parallel, whereas SP=100% means all activities are in series. This indicator can also be considered as an estimate of the amount of critical and non-critical activities in a network (Vanhoucke and Vandevoorde 2009). Therefore, rounded up values of the inverse of the SP (that is $\lceil 1/SP \rceil$) provide us with an estimate of the minimum number of paths of a project schedule. Values of SP below 50% would mean that construction schedules have (approximately) at least three paths. This agrees with what we appreciated in the black curve of Figure 1. *Industrial* projects, despite having on average at least two paths, generally have a dominant one (which condenses, on average, 55% of the activities). In *service* projects schedules there are at least five paths (on average), as only 20% (a fifth) of the activities are critical.

Activity Distribution (AD) measures the distribution of project activities along the levels of the project. In network topology, the number of project levels can be loosely defined as the number of activities that are arrayed in parallel in a project schedule. Hence, AD measures the width of the network. However, it is worth noting that activities arrayed in parallel do not necessarily have be executed simultaneously (because they may have different time lags and/or activity durations). When AD=0 all levels contain a similar number of activities and the number of activities is uniformly distributed over all levels. When AD=100% there is one level with a maximal number of activities, and all other levels contain a single activity. All four types of projects average AD values are close to 58% indicating that the longest path has more activities than other paths, but still those other paths contain a significant number of activities, that is, they can potentially cause project delays.

The Length of Arcs (LA) indicator measures the tightness of each precedence relationship between two activities as the distance between two activities in the project network. When LA=0 the network has many precedence relationships between two activities on levels far from each other such that the activity can be shifted further in the network.

When LA=100%, many precedence relationships have a length of one, resulting in activities with immediate successors on the next level of the network and with little freedom to shift. Average LA values are much closer to 0 than to 100% (overall average of 14.1%). This means that activities tend to have many predecessors (on average) from different levels (paths), which would reinforce the merge event bias effect.

Finally, the Topological Float (TF) measures the degrees of freedom per activity as the amount of slack or float an activity has. When TF=0 the network structure is 100% dense and no activities can be shifted within its structure. When TF=100% the schedule consists of a single chain of activities without topological float. The average TF indicator value of 40.5% means that the average activity structure of construction projects is rather dense.

Therefore, the highlights of this brief topological analysis above for construction projects are that: construction schedules are relatively dense (activity-wise), usually composed of at least three major paths, and with activities whose predecessors usually come, not just from activities located on the same path, but also from other paths. This means that the merge event bias plays a very important role in construction schedules. And, precisely thanks to the high level of duration variability existing at activity level, many delays are expected to cumulate every time two or more paths merge into a single successor.

However, mergers are much more frequent towards the end of the project compared to the earlier stages of execution. This is as, for any paths to close, they have to open first. Therefore, it is not a surprise that many construction projects get off to a good start (on time and on budget), but half way across their duration, (local) delays start being detected (whenever two or more paths are merged into one). As delays emerge, the cost of activities will also increase proportionally as the correlation between duration deviations and cost deviations was quite substantial on average. As a result, it is not that surprising that projects end later and cost more than initially anticipated.

Conclusions

The activity duration and cost variability of construction projects has been analyzed in this research by different types of projects (*building*, *civil engineering*, *industrial* and *services*), project phase (*planning*, *execution* and *closure*), and activity type (*auxiliary works*, *substructure*, *superstructure*, *specialized works*, and *facilities*). Correlation factors between activity duration deviations and activity cost deviations have also been studied under the same activity categories. The research is novel because it describes the first four moments (average, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) of how actual versus planned durations and costs differ at activity level in construction projects. A set of 101 projects and 5289 activities, plus another set with 746 projects have been used.

The first contribution of this study is providing construction managers with a first, yet rather complete, set of actual-vs-planned average activity durations and costs deviations with application in multiple contexts (project types, execution phases and types of activity). From now on, a construction manager will be able to more realistically (thus accurately) anticipate how likely and how much the activities in the project schedule will vary, that is, last or cost something different. This might potentially improve the quality and robustness of all construction schedules, for example allowing them to feed more advanced (non-deterministic) scheduling and simulation tools with more representative data. These techniques generally need a substantial amount of information from previous similar projects which is rarely available. With the set of moments provided here, these techniques will be able to resort to average values for their activity durations and cost distribution parameters depending on the type and/or execution phase of the project. These distributions will also be able to assume non-independence between the stochastically-generated activity durations and costs values (thanks to the set of duration-cost correlation values also published in this study).

This is expected to enhance future construction project monitoring and control, but also actual project duration and cost forecasting accuracy.

However, the analysis developed has also provided some interesting insights from its numerical perspective. One of the most relevant is that it has been shown that construction activities do not end late on average. Instead, it is their high level of variability (around 60% of its average duration) the key factor eventually causing project-level delays. Such high levels of activity variability exacerbate the merge event bias, a phenomenon by which whenever two or more schedule paths converge into a single one, the average completion times exceed the maximum average path durations.

Actual activity costs, on the other hand, do tend to be higher than what was planned (around 7%). This cannot be the result of price adjustments or inflation, as hardly any project lasted longer than a year. Instead, the major project-level cost overruns are expected to occur as a consequence of delayed start of activities located nearer the end of the project. This, as it has been demonstrated how most duration-cost correlation factors range within 0.40 and 0.70. The latter would cause that those activities that cannot start until their predecessors have finished, start incurring in costs before their actual execution.

Many other interpretations can arise from the numerical results of the four moments describing activity duration and cost variability that refer to specific types of projects, phases of execution or activity types that have not been recounted here. The reader is invited to refer to Tables 3 and 4 for such a purpose.

A limitation of this study is mostly connected to the composition and sample size of the construction projects analyzed. 101 projects have been used here with a varied composition. However, this sample size could have been bigger. It must be clarified, though, that accessing actual duration and cost information is ontologically questionable and certainly methodologically challenging. Companies are not open to share this information because it would clearly indicate how competent and efficient their operations are. Under that perspective, the current sample size probably seems satisfactory, at least for a first representative analysis.

A second limitation arises from having removed at the outset the Unplanned but Performed (UbP) and Planned but Unperformed (PbU) activities. This was necessary as the ratios (either in natural or log scale) converged to infinity causing a distortion in the moments calculation. However, we acknowledge that these activities can be found in almost all real projects. Frequently, they are the consequence of scope changes, works reorganization or changes in the available resources. Obviously, UbP and PbU activities add to the total project variability (beyond the activity duration and cost variability analysed here). In our analysis, though, there were only 279 UbP + 129 PbU = 408 activities out of the initial 5,697 (7% in total). Hence, while we believe the influence of UbP and PbU activities needs to be duly investigated, our analysis (with 93% of the activities) can still be considered representative enough to draw valid conclusions. Additionally, it is also expected that some degree of cancellation will occur among those 7% of activities (as frequently new activities replace others which are not eventually performed).

In the same vein, there are many potential future research continuations after this piece of research. Again, this study might be extended to analyze other types of projects and/or other more specific types of activities (maybe at trade-level: concrete, steel, asphalt, earthworks, etc.). The network topologies for other types of projects may also be studied to anticipate to what extent current levels of activity variability might impact their final schedules. The statistical distribution of activity (duration and cost) variability may also be analyzed. This was not possible at the general activity-level as discussed in this paper, but it should be possible for activities at their trade level.

A last conclusion derived from this research is that activity duration variability is the actual foe in project monitoring and control. This may not sound new to Lean Construction researchers and practitioners. However, this research has provided compelling empirical evidence suggesting that we do really need to start taking activity variability more seriously. There is a need to develop more techniques that can effectively handle/restrain this variability. Value stream mapping and Last planner have been some attempts to address this problem, but more are needed. This will open the door to new and more effective approaches for tackling the widespread phenomenon of construction projects ending late.

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Data availability

All data generated or analyzed during the study are included in the submitted article or supplemental materials files.

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Project ID	Project Name	Project Type	Planned Cost (€)	Actual Cost (€)	Planned Dur. (d)	Actual Dur. (d)	Nº activ.	SP (%)	AD (%)	LA (%)	TF (%)
C2011-05	Telecom System Agnes	Service	180,485.27	180,485.27	43	53	20	60	58	38	9
C2011-07	Patient Transport System	Service	180,759.44	191,065.06	389	444	49	70	70	7	8
C2011-10	Building a House	Building	484,398.41	494,947.71	195	203	32	51	47	27	10
C2011-12	Claeys-Verhelst Premises	Building	3,027,133.19	3,102,395.91	443	453	49	41	50	5	43
C2011-13	Wind Farm	Civil Eng.	21,369,835.51	26,077,764.74	525	600	107	27	36	0	48
C2012-13	Pumping Station Jabbeke	Industrial	336,410.15	350,511.31	125	140	74	64	59	3	27
C2012-15	The Master Project	Service	185,472.45	185,113.10	32	32	121	17	66	0	84
C2012-17	Building a Dream	Building	241,015.00	314,856.14	145	204	33	65	61	35	19
C2013-01	Wiedauwkaai Fenders	Civil Eng.	1,069,532.42	1,314,584.58	152	152	39	48	45	0	68
C2013-02	Sewage Plant Hove	Civil Eng.	1,236,603.66	1,146,444.38	403	408	175	12	38	0	62
C2013-03	Brussels Finance Tower	Building	15,440,865.89	16,338,027.20	425	426	55	3	82	0	87
C2013-04	Kitchen Tower Anderlecht	Building	2,113,684.00	2,512,524.00	333	453	244	47	59	0	63
C2013-05	PET Packaging	Service	874,554.28	874,554.28	521	632	28	14	69	0	80
C2013-06	Govmnt. Office Building	Building	19,429,810.51	21,546,846.18	352	344	275	10	36	0	34
C2013-07	Family Residence	Building	180,476.47	175,030.65	170	174	46	40	44	3	25
C2013-08	Timber House	Building	501,029.51	576,624.05	216	235	41	29	42	0	47
C2013-09	Urban Develop.Project	Civil Eng.	1,537,398.51	1,696,971.79	291	360	71	34	51	6	16
C2013-10	Town Square	Civil Eng.	11,421,890.36	15,218,926.38	786	785	186	18	36	0	62
C2013-11	Recreation Complex	Building	5,480,518.91	5,451,028.00	359	277	159	27	44	0	32
C2013-12	Young Cattle Barn	Building	818,439.99	879,853.17	115	188	27	64	77	6	54
C2013-13	Office Finish. Works (1)	Building	1,118,496.59	955,929.22	236	217	11	20	49	33	6
C2013-14	Office Finish. Works (2)	Building	85,847.89	75,468.30	80	88	9	62	80	66	47
C2013-15	Office Finish. Works (3)	Building	341,468.11	308,343.78	171	115	17	25	43	21	35
C2013-16	Office Finish. Works (4)	Building	248,203.92	198,567.00	196	108	7	33	62	0	75
C2013-17	Office Finish. Works (5)	Building	244,205.40	203,605.97	161	107	23	36	38	20	32
C2014-01	Mixed-use Building	Building	38,697,822.73	39,777,643.30	474	448	41	50	38	3	49
C2014-02	Playing Cards	Industrial	191,492.70	190,266.50	124	146	21	81	94	0	14
C2014-03	Organizational Develop.	Service	43,170.15	83,712.15	229	260	112	9	31	0	36
C2014-04	Compres. Station Zelzate	Industrial	62,385,597.58	65,526,930.04	522	844	24	95	100	0	100
C2014-05	Apartment Building (1)	Building	532,410.29	591,410.53	228	274	25	58	71	35	18
C2014-06	Apartment Building (2)	Building	3,486,375.47	3,599,114.11	547	611	29	57	75	46	15
C2014-07	Apartment Building (3)	Building	1,102,536.78	1,289,696.78	353	404	25	58	71	35	18
C2014-08	Apartment Building (4)	Building	1,992,222.09	2,380,299.86	233	275	39	44	29	11	14
C2015-01	Young Cattle Barn (2)	Building	612,769.44	646,473.65	131	210	27	57	73	0	46
C2015-02	Railway Station (1)	Civil Eng.	1,121,316.94	967,988.79	417	501	216	8	66	1	80
C2015-03	Industrial Complex (1)	Building	2,244,090.74	1,868,796.28	257	278	135	16	43	0	58
C2015-04	Apartment Building (5)	Building	2,750,938.00	2,590,796.73	160	205	56	27	37	0	57
C2015-06	Family Residence (2)	Building	143,673.20	186,107.00	260	290	184	18	0	30	38
C2015-07	Industrial Complex (2)	Building	5,999,600.00	5,414,544.00	297	313	138	27	38	0	49
C2015-08	Garden Center	Building	467,297.21	461,900.17	191	186	186	14	52	0	79
C2015-09	Railway Station (2)	Civil Eng.	1,457,424.00	2,145,682.26	354	569	340	4	48	0	75
C2015-10	Tax Return System (1)	Service	18,990.00	8,010.00	85	85	15	10	82	23	21
C2015-11	Staff Authoriz. System	Service	14,400.00	9,105.00	55	55	7	25	66	0	52
C2015-12	Premium Payment System	Service	132,570.00	58,410.00	184	184	35	19	63	9	61
C2015-13	Broker Acc.Conv. System	Service	12,735.00	9,990.00	117	117	16	19	60	7	51
C2015-14	Sup. Pensions Database	Service	34,260.00	18,285.00	124	124	17	17	55	3	50
C2015-15	FACTA System	Service	11,700.00	7,035.00	57	57	13	22	57	8	18
C2015-16	Generic Doc. Output Syst.	Service	64,620.00	64,125.00	270	270	22	10	61	12	26
C2015-17	Insurance Bundling Syst.	Service	281,430.00	281,070.00	208	236	86	6	77	8	41
C2015-18	Tax Return System (2)	Service	39,450.00	25,380.00	128	128	15	10	66	16	11
C2015-19	Receipt Numb. System	Service	43,800.00	37,530.00	182	182	20	21	46	8	31
C2015-20	Policy Numbering System	Service	12,645.00	11,100.00	171	161	6	20	62	20	13

C2015-21	Investment Product (1)	Service	4,020.00	3,240.00	37	37	12	18	35	2	36
C2015-22	Risk Profile Questionnaire	Service	29,880.00	17,400.00	151	151	22	16	70	9	40
C2015-23	Investment Product (2)	Industrial	46,920.00	32,805.00	122	120	33	17	53	5	39
C2015-24	CRM System	Service	44,130.00	36,870.00	233	233	21	7	59	7	29
C2015-25	Beer Tasting	Service	1,210.00	1,780.00	14	14	18	16	40	21	19
C2015-26	Debt Collection System	Service	458,112.37	512,546.15	148	154	214	9	43	0	61
C2015-27	Railway Station Antwerp	Building	22,703.52	25,313.12	68	81	18	23	40	-2	54
C2015-28	Web. Tennis Vlaanderen	Service	219,275.00	382,475.00	201	212	20	15	54	0	67
C2015-29	Fire Station	Building	1,874,496.82	1,887,087.25	284	298	204	48	34	0	41
C2015-30	Social Apts. Ypres (1)	Building	440,940.89	440,940.89	244	254	40	25	51	-1	76
C2015-31	Social Apts Ypres (2)	Building	1,310,723.46	1,282,185.98	271	364	29	32	49	23	43
C2015-32	Social Apts Ypres (3)	Building	2,509,031.42	2,509,031.42	358	265	48	38	63	3	59
C2015-33	IJzertoren Memor. Square	Civil Eng.	214,417.71	224,789.67	50	94	12	63	57	0	14
C2015-34	Roadworks Poperinge	Civil Eng.	511,325.86	440,394.16	120	193	13	91	99	0	18
C2015-35	Retirement Apartments	Building	14,956,314.25	16,068,878.30	850	951	11	48	57	21	35
C2016-01	Railway Bridge (1)	Civil Eng.	671,383.50	703,703.50	225	274	26	51	71	0	86
C2016-02	Railway Bridge (2)	Civil Eng.	962,181.56	972,341.56	229	239	23	63	71	0	82
C2016-03	Railway Bridge (3)	Civil Eng.	926,888.01	910,728.01	203	220	25	16	37	0	56
C2016-04	Railway Bridge (4)	Civil Eng.	906,253.87	906,253.87	248	242	26	64	62	0	71
C2016-05	Railway Bridge (5)	Civil Eng.	832,497.46	832,497.46	195	197	32	77	74	0	51
C2016-06	Defense Building	Service	4,331,260.49	4,331,260.49	252	232	96	14	55	0	76
C2016-07	Shop. Village Walkways	Civil Eng.	930,179.09	932,757.25	224	316	110	95	98	0	99
C2016-08	SCM System	Service	375,253.34	438,741.66	725	725	99	49	59	8	52
C2016-09	Data Loss Prevent. System	Service	584,951.77	1,425,155.96	195	189	113	10	36	1	51
C2016-10	Biofuel Refinery	Industrial	14,362,625.00	14,466,100.00	360	375	23	18	22	6	21
C2016-11	Residential House (1)	Building	162,472.00	163,189.00	241	254	55	57	77	52	16
C2016-12	Residential House (2)	Building	222,858.00	226,285.00	291	291	59	56	72	50	19
C2016-13	Residential House (3)	Building	367,952.00	379,300.00	306	330	51	64	81	54	14
C2016-14	Residential House (4)	Building	218,366.00	222,021.78	321	320	48	68	78	42	10
C2016-15	Resid. House Struct. Work	Building	95,694.00	100,763.00	126	130	13	66	75	100	0
C2016-16	Resid. Finish. Works (1)	Building	54,577.76	64,526.76	90	90	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-17	Resid. Finish. Works (2)	Building	54,703.17	64,580.17	86	86	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-18	Resid. Finish. Works (3)	Building	51,115.52	60,829.52	91	91	25	66	62	27	31
C2016-19	Resid. Finish. Works (4)	Building	51,303.38	53,351.38	91	91	25	66	62	27	31
C2016-20	Resid. Finish. Works (5)	Building	52,021.28	53,783.28	91	91	25	66	62	27	31
C2016-21	Resid. Finish. Works (6)	Building	54,324.22	54,996.22	101	101	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-22	Resid. Finish. Works (7)	Building	56,969.40	57,822.40	101	101	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-23	Resid. Finish. Works (8)	Building	56,182.71	56,645.71	101	101	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-24	Resid. Finish. Works (9)	Building	52,262.83	53,176.83	101	101	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-25	Resid. Finish. Works (10)	Building	54,580.33	56,748.33	91	91	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-26	Resid. Finish. Works (11)	Building	51,286.24	53,319.24	91	91	24	69	68	50	28
C2016-27	Apt. Build. Foundat. (1)	Building	813,663.06	879,701.06	78	88	16	66	59	0	48
C2016-28	Apt. Struct. Work (1)	Building	569,177.85	586,086.85	71	79	19	55	29	0	30
C2016-29	Apt. Struct. Work (2)	Building	1,797,873.62	1,860,330.62	129	148	19	72	69	0	35
C2016-30	Apt. Struct. Work (3)	Building	1,319,736.29	1,353,361.29	85	96	23	81	83	0	31
C2016-31	Apt. Struct. Work (1)	Building	488,936.00	498,473.00	105	117	23	31	40	0	11
C2016-32	Apt. Struct. Work (2)	Building	477,381.00	496,991.00	89	97	22	52	72	0	27
C2016-33	Apt. Struct. Work (3)	Building	377,282.00	394,829.00	116	129	23	50	72	0	30
C2016-34	Apt. Struct. Work (4)	Building	362,476.00	383,871.00	83	92	23	40	43	0	26
		Avg.	2,647,861.81	2,837,446.83	221	240	Σ=5,697	41.0	58.2	14.1	40.5

Table 1. First projects dataset summary

Level 0 (All activities*)

Nº activities		
Planned & Performed	Unplanned but Performed	Planned but not performed
5289	279	129

Level 1 (by Project type*)

Project Type	n	Nº activities			Actual Cost (10^3€)		Actual Dur. (days)	
		Planned & Performed	Unplanned but Performed	Planned but not performed	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD
Building	56	2894	18	12	48.88	267.20	11.35	29.78
Civil Eng.	15	1092	250	59	40.43	161.26	12.92	15.92
Industrial	5	170	0	5	473.92	1225.85	21.60	48.60
Services	25	1133	11	53	8.03	31.15	11.13	31.48
Sum	101	5289	279	129				

Level 2 (by Project phase*)

Proj. type > Project phase V	Nº activities							
	Building		**Civil Engineering**		**Industrial**		**Service**	
	Plan. & Perform.	Unplan. but Perform.	Plan. & Perform.	Unplan. but Perform.	Plan. & Perform.	Unplan. but Perform.	Plan. & Perform.	Unplan. but Perform.
Planning	49	0	38	0	10	0	81	0
Execution	2810	18	1034	250	154	0	990	11
Closure	35	0	20	0	6	0	62	0

Level 3 (by Activity type *&**)

Project type > Activity type V	Nº activities					
	Building			**Civil Engineering**		
	Planned & Performed	Unplan. but Performed	Planned but not perform.	Planned & Performed	Unplan. but Performed	Planned but not perform.
Auxiliary works	139	1	0	207	27	9
Substructure	171	2	0	229	11	4
Superstructure	654	1	0	257	104	20
Specialized works	1272	11	10	264	88	25
Facilities	574	3	2	77	20	1

*Only Planned & Performed activities are used for later analyses

** Only for 'Execution' activities from Building and Civil Engineering projects

Table 2. Summary of activities analyzed

Level 0 (All Activities)					**Level 1** (by Project Type)						**Level 2** (by Project phase)						**Level 3** (by Activity type)					
n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Type	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Phase	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Type	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt
5289	0.010 (1.023)	0.19 (1.56)	0.91	9.90	**Building**	2894	0.004 (1.009)	0.15 (1.43)	-0.36	9.88	**Planning**	49	0.035 (1.083)	0.21 (1.62)	1.51	8.13	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	2810	0.003 (1.007)	0.15 (1.42)	-0.46	9.92	**Auxiliary Works**	139	0.017 (1.040)	0.16 (1.46)	0.36	5.54
																	Substructure	171	0.035 (1.083)	0.14 (1.39)	1.89	8.38
																	Superstructure	654	-0.018 (0.960)	0.16 (1.45)	-0.98	9.60
																	Specialized Works	1272	0.004 (1.010)	0.15 (1.42)	-0.87	10.02
																	Facilities	574	0.011 (1.026)	0.14 (1.39)	0.53	11.71
											Closure	35	0.022 (1.052)	0.16 (1.45)	1.33	3.91	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Civil Eng.	1092	-0.008 (0.982)	0.20 (1.58)	0.53	9.61	**Planning**	38	0.052 (1.126)	0.18 (1.53)	2.38	12.88	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	1034	-0.010 (0.977)	0.20 (1.58)	0.49	9.36	**Auxiliary Works**	207	0.013 (1.030)	0.13 (1.36)	1.75	9.43
																	Substructure	229	-0.005 (0.990)	0.18 (1.53)	-0.39	8.57
																	Superstructure	257	-0.030 (0.934)	0.20 (1.57)	0.90	10.73
																	Specialized Works	264	-0.012 (0.972)	0.24 (1.72)	0.28	5.81
																	Facilities	77	-0.018 (0.959)	0.26 (1.82)	1.09	10.65
											Closure	20	-0.011 (0.975)	0.05 (1.12)	-4.47	20.00	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Industrial	170	-0.010 (0.977)	0.22 (1.65)	-0.76	3.37	**Planning**	10	0.001 (1.003)	0.05 (1.12)	0.43	4.59	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	154	-0.009 (0.981)	0.23 (1.68)	-0.76	3.17	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Closure	6	-0.090 (0.813)	0.25 (1.77)	0.04	0.81	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Services	1133	0.045 (1.110)	0.26 (1.83)	1.53	5.87	**Planning**	81	0.055 (1.134)	0.22 (1.67)	1.05	3.55	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	990	0.048 (1.118)	0.27 (1.86)	1.58	5.70	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Closure	62	-0.014 (0.969)	0.19 (1.54)	-1.36	7.74	*(insufficient data sample)*					

Table 3. Activity actual/planned duration log ratios (natural values stated between parentheses)

Level 0 (All Activities)					**Level 1** (by Project Type)						**Level 2** (by Project phase)						**Level 3** (by Activity type)					
n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Type	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Phase	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt	Type	n	Avg	SD	Skew	Kurt
5289	0.031 (1.074)	0.25 (1.78)	2.49	15.56	**Building**	2894	0.015 (1.035)	0.16 (1.46)	2.02	25.27	**Planning**	49	-0.002 (0.996)	0.19 (1.56)	-1.66	10.45	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	2810	0.015 (1.035)	0.16 (1.46)	2.12	25.91	**Aux. Works**	139	0.027 (1.065)	0.11 (1.29)	2.73	14.82
																	Substruct.	171	0.014 (1.034)	0.10 (1.26)	-0.21	8.37
																	Superstruct.	654	0.010 (1.023)	0.10 (1.26)	0.01	10.14
																	Spec. Works	1272	0.014 (1.034)	0.21 (1.62)	2.12	18.98
																	Facilities	574	0.020 (1.046)	0.12 (1.33)	0.53	13.85
											Closure	35	0.041 (1.098)	0.16 (1.43)	2.01	6.60	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Civil Eng.	1092	0.057 (1.139)	0.30 (2.01)	1.78	6.28	**Planning**	38	0.322 (2.099)	0.43 (2.71)	0.99	-0.75	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	1034	0.048 (1.116)	0.30 (1.98)	1.77	6.87	**Aux. Works**	207	0.059 (1.147)	0.32 (2.08)	2.89	11.31
																	Substruct.	229	0.057 (1.140)	0.30 (1.98)	0.63	2.26
																	Superstruct.	257	0.057 (1.141)	0.32 (2.11)	1.40	3.11
																	Spec. Works	264	0.016 (1.038)	0.24 (1.74)	1.93	13.70
																	Facilities	77	0.067 (1.166)	0.31 (2.04)	2.03	7.66
											Closure	20	0.011 (1.026)	0.01 (1.02)	-0.95	-1.24	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Industrial	170	-0.011 (0.975)	0.20 (1.59)	-2.05	11.12	**Planning**	10	0.02 (1.046)	0.05 (1.03)	0.74	0.71	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	154	-0.004 (0.99)	0.18 (1.50)	-1.65	12.65	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Closure	6	-0.27 (0.536)	0.67 (4.63)	-0.12	-2.71	*(insufficient data sample)*					
					Services	1133	0.052 (1.128)	0.36 (2.29)	2.25	9.01	**Planning**	81	0.021 (1.05)	0.18 (1.53)	0.40	3.89	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Execution	990	0.059 (1.145)	0.37 (2.37)	2.23	8.27	*(insufficient data sample)*					
											Closure	62	-0.007 (0.985)	0.29 (1.93)	1.28	13.16	*(insufficient data sample)*					

Table 4. Activity actual/planned costs log ratios (natural values stated between parentheses)

Group of analysis		n	R	R^2	Slope	Intercept
***Activity-level** (duration-cost correlations)*						
Level 0	All activities	5289	0.55	0.30**	0.704**	0.024
Level 1	Building	2894	0.46	0.21**	0.488**	0.013
	Civil Engineering	1092	0.33	0.11**	0.502**	0.061
	Industrial	170	0.11	0.01	0.106	-0.010
	Services	1133	0.79	0.62**	1.074	0.004
Level 2	Planning	178	0.38	0.15**	0.534	0.055
	Execution	4988	0.55	0.30**	0.706**	0.024
	Closure	123	0.60	0.36**	0.534	0.055
Level3	Auxiliary Works	349	0.34	0.12**	0.601*	0.037
	Substructure	400	0.25	0.06**	0.343*	0.035
	Superstructure	912	0.32	0.10**	0.289**	-0.028
	Specialized Works	1609	0.44	0.20**	0.566*	0.013
	Facilities	654	0.53	0.28**	0.522**	0.021
***Project-level** (duration-cost correlations)*						
	All Projects	101	0.22	0.05*	0.156*	0.029
	Building	56	0.52	0.27	0.957	0.006
	Civil Engineering	15	0.01	0.00	0.017	0.080
	Industrial	5	0.56	0.31	0.629	0.083
	Services	25	0.23	0.05	0.039	0.014
	Road projects (Figure 1)	746	0.34	0.11	0.108	0.016

**Snedecor's F test (for R^2) or student's T test (for slopes) significant at $\alpha<0.001$

* Snedecor's F test (for R^2) or student's T test (for slopes) significant at $\alpha<0.05$

Table 5. Duration vs Cost (log ratios) linear correlations

Project type	n	SP (%)	AD (%)	LA (%)	TF (%)
Building	56	48.2	57.4	21.4	35.2
Civil Eng.	15	44.7	59.3	0.5	44.7
Industrial	5	55.0	65.6	2.8	55.0
Service	25	20.1	57.6	8.3	20.1
All	101	41.0	58.2	14.1	40.5

Table 6. Average network topological values by project type

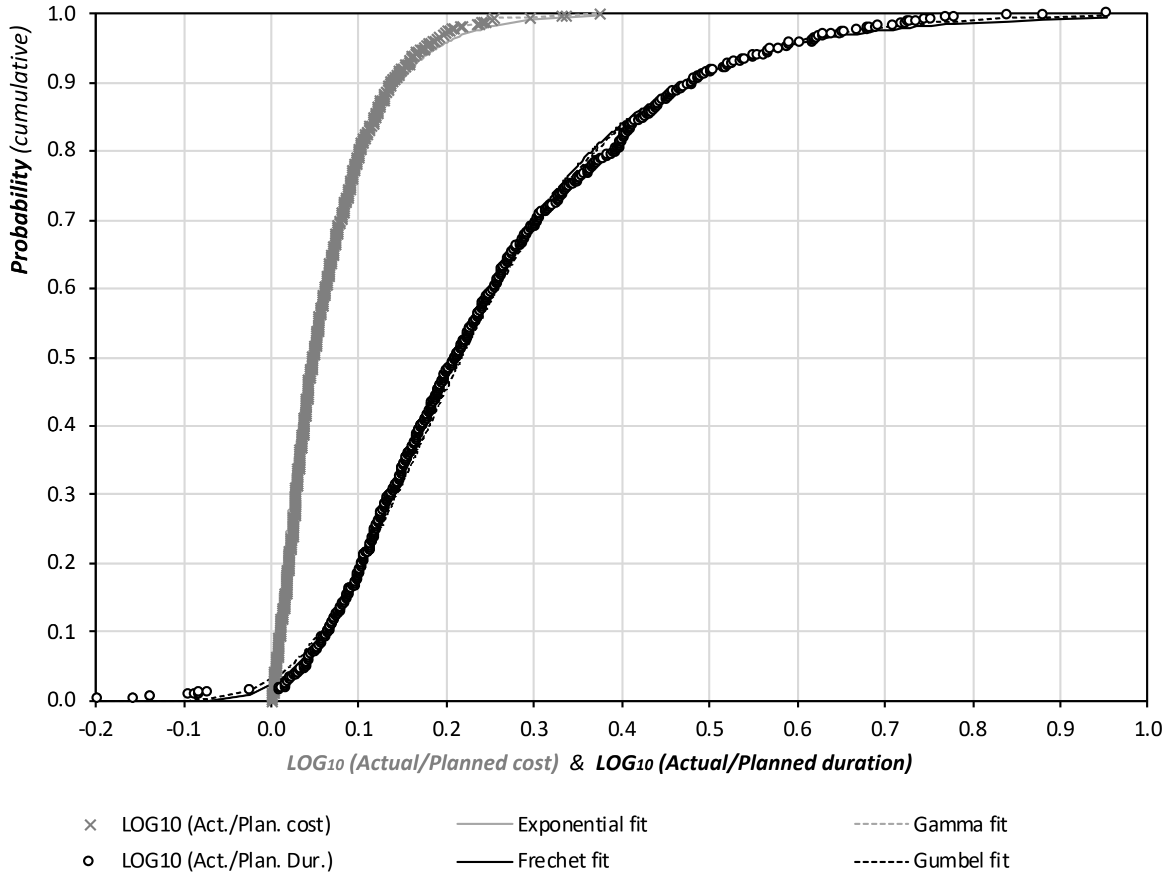

Fig 1. Duration and Cost overrun probability distribution of 746 road construction projects from the Florida Department of Transportation