Research

The software maintenance project effort estimation model based on function points

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SUMMARY

In this study, software maintenance size is discussed and the software maintenance project effort estimation model (SMPEEM) is proposed. The SMPEEM uses function points to calculate the volume of the maintenance function. Ten value adjustment factors (VAF) are considered and grouped into three categories of maintenance characteristics, that is the engineer's skill (people domain), its technical characteristics (product domain) and the maintenance environment (process domain). Finally, we suggest an exponential function model which can show the relationships among the maintenance efforts, maintenance environment factors, and function points of the software maintenance project. Regression analysis of some small maintenance projects demonstrates the significance of the SMPEEM model. Copyright © 2003 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

KEY WORDS: function point; software maintenance; maintenance project effort estimation

1. INTRODUCTION

Software maintenance is categorized into adaptive, corrective, preventive and perfective [1–3]. Most organizations are concerned about the costs of software maintenance, for it has been increasing steadily and many companies spend approximately 80% of their software budget on maintenance [4,5]. Therefore, these organizations need to manage their software maintenance efforts and costs effectively. However, there are fewer effort estimation models for a software maintenance project compared with software development.

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The major issues in estimation related to software maintenance efforts include the software system's size and maintenance productivity [4]. A number of estimation models for software development have been broadly adopted such as size measures as source lines of code, function points, etc. [6]. Lines of code (LOC) have also been adopted as the size measure of software maintenance in spite of some difficulties which derived from the variation in the definition on source codes itself and counting the new, changed, or reused lines delivered. However, counting the LOC for *a priori* estimation is usually difficult in order to estimate how much effort would be required for software maintenance [6,7]. In addition, productivity factors on software maintenance projects should be differentiated from those for software development projects.

In this study, the software maintenance project effort estimation model (SMPEEM) is proposed which is based on the function point measure and new maintenance productivity factors. The SMPEEM is empirically validated focusing on small maintenance projects.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, some models related to the estimation of maintenance efforts and productivity of software maintenance are reviewed.

2.1. Estimation model for software maintenance efforts

There are some sizing approaches for estimating the software maintenance efforts such as source lines of code (SLOC) [8], function points (FPs) [9], and object points [10,11]. We review the annual change traffic (ACT) model, the FP model and COnstruction COst MOdel (COCOMO) 2.0 reuse model.

The ACT model estimates the maintenance size depending on the actual data of annual change traffic and the FP model counts the number of FPs. The COCOMO 2.0 reuse model reflects the estimated efforts for modifying reusable software. Each model is described in detail.

2.1.1. The ACT model

ACT is defined as 'the fraction of the software product's source instructions which undergo change during a typical year, either addition or modification' [12]. Boehm established Equation (1) for estimating maintenance costs using the data gathered from 63 projects [13]

$$AME = ACT \times SDT \tag{1}$$

where AME and SDT are the annual maintenance effort and the software development time, respectively. The dimension of AME may be expressed in man-months (MM). Similarly, Schaefer's study suggests the following Equation (2) [14]:

$$E = ACT \times 2.4 KLOC^{1.05}$$
 (2)

where *E* is the effort (MM) required to maintain the software annually. ACT is defined as the ratio of the system undergoing maintenance and the number of source code instructions that are modified or added during one year of maintenance.



These models are derived from the original COCOMO model. They are mainly applicable for annual maintenance cost estimation where an organization has the historical data for ACT. Therefore, the following fundamental problems are still present in these models.

First, if the systems are completely new and there is no historic basis for estimating the ACT, the results of estimation are likely to be unreliable. Second, the quantity of source code changed and added does not always represent the effort of the maintenance project. Third, expressing software size using lines of code *a priori* to the project can vary. Finally, this approach has the critical risk that it does not consider quantitatively any scientific attributes representative of software maintainability.

An estimation guide [15] of software maintenance costs may be calculated as the multiplication of the system's LOC and maintenance adjustment score. Five factors, such as the frequency of required maintenance, the volume of processed data, the relevance of the external system, the necessity of understanding business rules, and the degree of distributed processing are checked for their maintenance adjustment score [15]. However, this model also contains the insufficiencies of the ACT model, because the maintenance workload is computed as LOC and the frequency of required maintenance is considered as a kind of ACT which cannot be easily estimated.

2.1.2. The COCOMO 2.0 reuse model

The COCOMO 2.0 model is an update of the COCOMO model [16]. The post-architecture stage of this model has the following form:

Effort =
$$A \times [\text{size}]^{1.01 + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \text{SF}i} \times \prod_{i=1}^{17} \text{EM}i$$
 (3)

where *A* is a constant and the size is measured in terms of KSLOC (thousands of source lines of code), FPs or object points. SF means the five scale factors such as precedentedness, development flexibility, architecture/risk resolution, team cohesion and process maturity. EM means the 17 effort multipliers including the required software reliability, database size, product complexity, required reusability, documentation, etc.

In the viewpoint of the software maintenance project, the size and instructions of a new project (SLOC), are derived from the following equation:

$$SLOC = \frac{ASLOC \times (AA + SU + 0.4 \times DM + 0.3 \times CM + 0.3 \times IM)}{100}$$
(4)

In Equation (4), the size involves the estimated amount of software to be adapted (ASLOC), the rating scale for assessment and assimilation increment (AA), the software understanding increment (SU), and three degrees of modification parameters: DM, the percentage of design modification; CM, the percentage of code modification; and IM, the percentage of the original integration effort required for integrating the reused software. The rating scale for AA has five levels relating to the effort of module test and evaluation (T&E) and documentation. As for SU, the rating scales are decided by the degree of the software's structure, applications clarity, and self-descriptiveness factor.

We can, however, consider this model as a management model rather than an estimation model, because of the modification parameters which cannot be estimated before the planning stage of the maintenance project.



2.1.3. The FP model

The FP model [17] was developed originally for the effort estimation of a new software project in the 1970s and was expanded to the software maintenance and enhancement project by Albrecht's FP revision model [18].

The FP model defines the five basic function types to estimate the size of the software. Two data functions types are internal logical files (ILF) and external interface files (EIF), and the remaining three transactional function types are external inputs (EI), external outputs (EO), and external inquiries (EO).

In order to adopt this FP model, the maintenance and enhancement project function point calculation consists of three components of functionality [9]: (1) the application functionality which is included in the user requirements for the project; (2) the conversion functionality; and (3) the value adjustment factor (VAF).

Application functionality consists of FPs which are added, changed, and deleted by a maintenance project. Conversion functionality consists of FPs delivered because of a conversion. The VAF is based on the 14 weighted characteristics. The degree of influence ranges from zero to five, from no influence to strong influence.

The formula for the maintenance and enhancement project FP calculation is defined as follows [9]

$$EFP = (ADD + CHG + CFP) \times VAFa + (DEL \times VAFb)$$
 (5)

where EFP is the enhancement project function point, added (ADD), changed (CHG), deleted (DEL) FPs are counted as application functionality, and CFP means the unadjusted function points added by conversion. VAFa and VAFb are the value adjustment factor of the application after and before the project, respectively.

Function point counts are a more consistent *a priori* measure of software size compared to the source lines of code [6]. FP is currently the functional size metric most often used and it continues to gain adherents in the management information system field and has proven to be successful for building productivity models and for estimating project costs [19].

However, the VAF of this model is originally introduced for a new software development project. There are several examples of VAFs such as data communications, distributed processing, and performance, etc. These factors are not also applicable to the maintenance environment and cannot be measured with an objective view.

2.2. Productivity factors on software maintenance

In general, maintenance costs are difficult to estimate, because these costs are related to the number of product, process, and organizational factors related to the productivity of software maintenance. Some models do not differentiate the productivity factors of software maintenance from those of development [9,20]. However, the productivity factors of software maintenance differ from those of software development.

The major maintenance cost driver is associated with the size, age, and complexity [21]. Sommerville [2] asserted that the productivity factors concerning the environment of software maintenance can include characteristics such as module independence, programming language, programming style etc.



Table I. Software maintainability hierarchy.

Management	Personnel Process
Operational environment	Existing Target
Target system	Maturity attributes Source code Documentation

In 1985, software productivity research (SPR) introduced a new way to calculate function points [22]. The SPR technique for dealing with complexity is to separate the overall complexity into three distinct areas: problem complexity, code complexity, and data complexity. In this way, the effort to complete the calculations can also be reduced. Also, software maintainability characteristics were expressed as a hierarchical structure of seven attributes by Oman's research as shown in Table I [23].

Belady *et al.* consider maintenance efforts as the aforementioned productivity effort, complexity of software design and documentation, and the degree of familiarity with the software [24]. Jorgensen's effort prediction model includes variables such as the cause of the task, the degree of change in the code, the type of operation on the code (mode), and the confidence of the maintainer [25]. The questionnaires in the study asked for information of environmental characteristics including technical constraints (response time, security, number of users, platforms), maintenance tools and techniques (development methodology, CASE tools), and factors related to personnel (number of programmers, experience) [3].

In the perspectives of software product, the size of both the software understanding and the module interface checking penalty can be reduced by good software structuring [16], because modular and hierarchical structuring can reduce the number of interfaces which need checking (discussed in [16]).

Therefore, the various characteristics which have an influence on software maintenance productivity should be refined.

3. SOFTWARE MAINTENANCE PROJECT EFFORT ESTIMATION MODEL

This section provides a description of the suggested Software Maintenance Project Effort Estimation Model (SMPEEM). After introducing the approach, the process of counting and adjusting the function points is explained. Finally, the adjusted function points are applied to estimate the software maintenance effort by using SMPEEM.

3.1. Approach

The framework of our SMPEEM is based on the concepts shown in Figure 1. First, to estimate the size of the maintenance tasks, the concept of a FP model is applied. Second, to adjust the counted



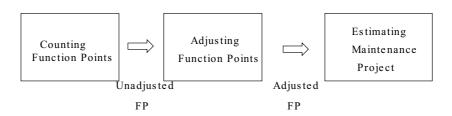


Figure 1. The concept of suggested SMPEEM.

Table II. Unadjusted FP count calculation table. (Source: *IFPUG Counting Practice Manual 4.1*, 1999.)

	Weight value by functional complexity (W)					
Function type	Low Average High					
EI	3	4	6			
EO	4	5	7			
EQ	3	4	6			
ILF	7	10	15			
EIF	5	7	10			

FP considering the maintenance environment, we need to introduce the new concept of the VAF. The VAFs of this model are related to the attributes of each characteristic group such as the engineer's skill, technical characteristics and the maintenance environment. Finally, we suggest an exponential function model that can estimate how much effort is required for the software maintenance project.

3.2. Counting FPs

FPs of each application type should be counted to estimate the size of the maintenance project. There are three types of application maintenance such as adding, changing, and deleting. The rule of counting the function point is used as in the International Function Points User Group (IFPUG) model [9].

An application maintenance type could be one of the five function types: ILF, EIF, EI, EO, or EQ. Each of these is individually assessed for complexity and given a weighting value that varies from three (for simple EIs) to 15 (for complex ILFs) as shown in Table II.

The unadjusted function count (FC) is computed by multiplying each raw count by the estimated weight (W):

$$FC = \sum_{\text{function types}} \text{No. of functions} \times W$$
 (6)

where FC is the counted function point and W is the complexity weighting value of each function type.



Table III. Value adjustment factors.

Characteristic groups	Factors	Notation
Engineer's skill	(1) Knowledge of application domain(2) Familiarity with programming language	KAD FPL
	(2) Familiarity with programming language (3) Experience with system software (OS, DBMS)	ESS
Technical characteristics	(4) Structuredness of software modules(5) Independence between software modules(6) Changeability/readability of program language(7) reusability of legacy software modules	SSS ISM CRP RLS
Maintenance environment	(8) Up-to-dateness of documentation (9) Conformity with software engineering standard (10) Testability	DOC SES TST

3.3. Adjusting the FPs

3.3.1. Value adjustment factors

This FC is then further modified by the 10 VAFs. In the SMPEEM model, the three types of VAFs are: (1) the engineer's skill, considered as the perspective of 'people'; (2) the technical characteristics considered as the perspective of 'product'; (3) the maintenance environment characteristics considered as the perspective of 'process'; as shown in Table III.

The first characteristic group is the engineer's skill required for the software maintenance, which includes three factors such as a knowledge of the application domain, familiarity with programming language, and experience with the system software (OS, DBMS). These factors describe the capability level of maintenance staff. If the application domain is well understood, the system requirements can be analyzed easily [2]. Also application experience, language and tool experience, and platform experience factors measure the productivity of COCOMO 2.0 [16].

The second technical characteristic group contains four factors, i.e. the structuredness of the software modules, the independence of the software modules, the changeability/readability of the programming language, and the reusability of the legacy software modules. These factors are representative of program modules status. As the software is maintained, its structure is degraded [2]. Application age [25] and reusability [16,26] factors are adopted as the technical productivity measures of software.

The last characteristic group is the maintenance environment which includes up-to-dateness of documentation, conformity with software engineering standards, and testability factors. These factors are more related to the maintenance process. Documentation matches with the lifecycle needs [16,26]; process maturity and testability [26] are referenced as the productivity factors to reduce maintenance costs.

These 10 factors are selected focusing on the perspective of maintenance project managers. In order to adjust the FP after counting it, as shown in Figure 1, some factors related to the size measures



of maintenance projects must be excluded; for example, maintenance traffic, size of software system or database. Because SMPEEM is aimed to estimate efforts in this phase, some factors related to output measures of estimation must also be excluded; for example the size of required efforts or team. Some factors related to maintenance organization characteristics for outsourcing can also be excluded because we consider only internal maintenance projects. We do not include the factors related to maintenance tools, because the responded organizations do not use any automatic maintenance tools.

3.3.2. Adjustment method

The unadjusted FP is multiplied by the VAF to produce the final FP. In SMPEEM, three characteristic groups of the 10 VAFs have a weighting value for each group and for each of the factors, respectively. The VAF of a software maintenance project could be calculated from the following equation:

$$VAF = \sum_{\text{group}=1}^{3} \left[\sum_{\text{factors}=1}^{k} \left(\frac{\text{scores} \times Wf}{100} \right) \times \left(\frac{Wg}{100} \right) \right]$$
 (7)

where Wg and Wf are the weighting values of each characteristic group and their factors, respectively. These weight values can be substituted from the value in Table III. Scores are measured by the software maintenance project manager and vary from 0 (the lowest degree) to 5 (the highest degree), and are answered in part 2 of our questionnaire.

The VAF ranges from 0 to 50. This VAF can be used to adjust an unadjusted function count which was computed by Equation (6).

Alternatively, FPs can be computed by Equation (8), which is introduced for adjusting function counts as the unit of $\pm \delta\%$:

$$FP = FC \times \left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{\delta}{100} \right) + \left(\frac{2\delta}{5000} \right) * VAF \right\}$$
 (8)

where δ is the absolute value of the adjustment range. The adjustment range can be decided by the actual data and repeated experiments of the concerned organization. For example, if an organization intends to adjust the function counts within the range of $\pm 20\%$, δ of Equation (8) can be substituted with an absolute value of ± 20 to produce the following equation

$$FP = FC \times \{0.80 + (0.008 \times VAF)\}$$
(9)

From Equation (9), we obtain the adjusted FPs which can be used to calculate the estimated software maintenance effort. In the case of VAF = 0, FP is calculated as 80% of the unadjusted function counts. In contrast, the maximum VAF (50) provides 120% of the unadjusted function counts to final FPs. Hence, Equation (8) gives us the adjusted FPs through the various adjustment ranges.

3.4. Estimation of software maintenance project effort

Software cost estimation models often have an exponential factor to account for the relative economies or diseconomies of scale encountered as a software project increases its size [16]. This factor is generally represented as the exponent *B* in the equation:

$$Effort = A \times (Size)^B$$



	Weig	ght (Wg)		.+ (4f 21)	95% Confidence interval	
CI.	Mean Standard		T-tes	$\frac{\operatorname{st} (\operatorname{df} = 31)}{\operatorname{gr} \cdot \operatorname{sc}}$	of the difference	
Characteristic groups	(%)	deviation	T	Significance	Lower	Upper
Engineer's skill	36.7	9.6	0.011	0.991	-3.4263	3.4638
Technical characteristics	33.1	8.6	0.016	0.987	-3.0721	3.1221
Maintenance environment	30.2	9.9	0.025	0.980	-3.6048	3.5173

Table IV. Weight of characteristic groups (N = 32).

The relation between the software maintenance effort and FPs can be represented in the following exponential equation

$$Effort = a \times FP^b \tag{10}$$

where the constants a and b are the coefficients which can be introduced from the result of regression. So, if FP and VAF of any maintenance project is known, the maintenance effort can be estimated by Equation (10).

4. VALIDATION

To validate the proposed SMPEEM empirically, a survey method was used. In this section, the summary of questionnaires and collected data will be described. For searching the best estimation model, regression analysis was performed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), version 9.0.

4.1. Questionnaires

In this study, the questionnaire in the survey consists of two parts. The first part includes questions about the VAFs' weight value covering the software maintenance project of most business applications. The second part is for the collection of actual data about function points and maintenance efforts of past projects.

4.2. Data collection

To validate the proposed SMPEEM model, the actual data were collected from a survey of the system management (SM) organizations of four system integration (SI) companies in Korea.

For the sample of software maintenance project managers, a total of 44 questionnaires were distributed. 32 answers for part 1 and 26 answers of part 2 were collected.

Part 1 of our questionnaire asked to assign weights to the value adjustment factors listed in Tables IV and V. From these answers, we derive the mean and standard deviation. These average values are suitable as adjustment factors of SMPEEM if the variance is low.



Table V. Value adjustment factors of SMPEEM (N = 32).

		Weig	ght(Wf)			95% Confidence interval			
Characteristic groups	Factors	Mean (%)	Standard deviation	t (df = 31)	Significance	Lower	Upper Upper	Cronbach's alpha	Factor's loading
Engineer's skill	KAD FPL ESS	45.0 28.3 26.7	13.7 8.7 8.6	$0.000 \\ -0.012 \\ 0.012$	1.000 0.990 0.990	-4.9316 -3.1448 -3.0736	4.9316 3.1073 3.1111	0.679	0.359 0.985 0.924
Technical characteristics	SSS ISM CRP RLS	31.3 25.9 21.9 20.8	10.6 6.8 11.2 5.3	-0.027 0.031 -0.013 -0.020	0.979 0.975 0.990 0.984	-3.8809 -2.4043 -4.0624 -1.9127	3.7809 2.4793 4.0124 1.8752	0.896	0.884 0.836 0.912 0.862
Maintenance environment	DOC MET TST	38.6 29.1 32.5	15.5 11.8 12.2	-0.002 -0.018 0.000	0.998 0.986 1.000	-5.5811 -4.2945 -4.3919	5.5686 4.2195 4.3919	0.643	0.873 0.758 0.646

In Table IV, the mean and standard deviation of the characteristic groups are shown. Each mean value was tested using the two-tailed one sample t-test at the 95% significance level. All significance probabilities (sig.) of Table IV are above significance level (0.05) and confidence intervals include zero. For instance, significance probability (sig.) of characteristic group 'engineer's skill' is 0.991 > 0.05 and the confidence interval ranging from the lower (-3.4263) to the upper (3.4638) bound includes zero. The mean value (36.7) of this group can be supported. Likewise, these mean values of Table IV could be used as the weight value (Wg) in the SMPEEM model.

We also find that all significance probabilities (sig.) of Table V are above significance level (0.05) and confidence intervals include zero. For instance, the significance probability (sig.) of the 'knowledge of application domain (KAD)' is 1.000 > 0.05 and the confidence interval ranging from lower (-4.9316) to upper (4.9316) bound includes zero. Using the same approach, the mean values of 10 factors, shown in Table V, are calculated and can be used as the weight value (Wf) of adjustment factors after testing of the two-tailed one sample t-test.

For the collected data from part 1 of our questionnaire, reliability and validity tests were performed. Table V shows the Cronbach's alphas as they exceed 0.6. The factor's loading values are the result of factor analysis using the extraction method of principle component analysis.

4.3. Regression analysis

Table VI shows the general descriptions of 26 maintenance projects collected from part 2 of the questionnaires.

For this dataset, we see the general description of these systems. These systems have an average of 169.1 source modules. The mean value of the age of the systems is 6.24 years. The programming language of the 22 systems is C, C++ or COBOL. The other four systems are written in PowerBuilder.



Table VI. General descriptions of projects (N = 26).

Items	Unit	Mean value		
System's volume Programming language	No. of source modules Project	169.1 4 (Power Builder)		
System's age Size/project Maintenance effort/project	Year Function point Man-weeks	22 (C, C++ or COBOL) 6.24 33.8 9.5		

Table VII. Actual function point and efforts.

Project	Unadjusted FP	VAF	Actual effort
1	31	3.27	5.7
2	18	3.56	3.6
3	28	3.58	5.7
4	18	3.15	1.4
5	18	3.04	1.4
6	21	3.25	2.8
7	11	2.84	2.1
8	46	2.89	5.0
9	28	1.80	6.1
10	23	2.84	2.8
11	27	2.46	4.0
12	22	3.41	5.3
13	68	3.37	20.5
14	57	3.01	12.9
15	23	3.15	3.1
16	19	2.65	2.8
17	26	2.68	4.6
18	53	1.90	13.4
19	140	4.05	50.2
20	28	3.25	3.0
21	13	2.66	2.7
22	16	3.77	1.7
23	44	3.54	15.0
24	23	3.28	4.0
25	60	2.41	12.9
26	17	2.79	2.0



Table VIII. Regression results by adjustment range.

				Asymptotic 95% confidence interval				
				Asympt	otic 95% (confidence	ınterval	
				(a	į	b	
Adjustment			2					
range (%)	a	b	R^2	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
±0	0.041	1.440	0.9654	0.0192	0.0626	1.3249	1.5554	
± 10	0.048	1.394	0.9660	0.0233	0.0717	1.2848	1.5033	
± 20	0.054	1.353	0.9664	0.0277	0.0811	1.2483	1.4572	
± 30	0.062	1.311	0.9648	0.0318	0.0924	1.2087	1.4140	
± 40	0.068	1.282	0.9639	0.0490	0.1006	1.1810	1.3834	
±50	0.073	1.256	0.9613	0.0370	0.1090	1.1543	1.3585	
± 100	0.037	1.304	0.9647	0.1768	0.0570	1.2019	1.4058	
± 150	0.022	1.302	0.9646	0.0096	0.0348	1.2003	1.4043	
±200	0.015	1.304	0.9649	0.0061	0.0241	1.2023	1.4060	

Also, the average function points per maintenance project are 33.8 with a minimum of 11 and a maximum of 140. The average effort of maintenance project is 9.5 man-weeks, which is much smaller than the size of new development projects.

From part 2 of the questionnaire, unadjusted FPs of Table VII were estimated using the IFPUG model. VAFs were calculated according to the SMPEEM model. The responded projects include the add and change types of projects. Actual efforts were collected from the survey results and measured in man-weeks.

To evaluate the SMPEEM model, regression analysis is performed. Equation (10) was used for nonlinear regression analysis which describes the relation of actual efforts and adjusted FPs. The actual effort (man-weeks) and the FP values of Table VII were used in Equation (10) for each project. The constants a, b are the coefficients which resulted from the regression.

Table VIII shows a summary of the regression analysis results. We sought the best regression model by varying the adjustment range from $\pm 0\%$ to $\pm 200\%$. Regression coefficients (R^2) of most models are above 0.9. Constants a and b are significant in the asymptotic 95% confidence interval.

We obtain the highest R^2 value $R^2 = 0.9664$, F = 259.90 in the model of adjustment range $\pm 20\%$. This figure is meaningful considering the significant F value $F_{0.95}(3, 25) = 2.99$. In conclusion, Equation (10) can be rewritten as follows

$$Effort(man-weeks) = 0.054 \times FP^{1.353}$$
(11)

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The SMPEEM is designed to help the project manager in charge of software maintenance to calculate the estimated software maintenance effort. Software maintenance means repairing defects in order to correct errors and adding small new features to software applications. In this model, the method of counting the FP to estimate the size of the maintenance is referred to as the FP model of the IFPUG.

Ten new VAFs are used for adjusting the FPs considering the software maintenance complexity characteristics. These VAFs are grouped into three categories, i.e. the engineer's skill (people domain),



its technical characteristics (product domain) and the maintenance environment (process domain). Each weight of VAFs and the three characteristic groups is given by the mean value of collected data and validated by the t-test. The ten factors of the SMPEEM are simpler and adequate for assessing the maintenance effort.

With experimental analysis of the ranges of adjustment, the most significant regression model could be selected. We found that unadjusted FPs are a good measure to estimate the effort of the maintenance project and that they can be adjusted in the range of $\pm 20\%$ by the 10 VAFs of SMPEEM. However, the 10 VAFs are not as influential as one expected.

We are aware that the collected data are only from small maintenance projects. Due to the limitations of the actual data, our SMPEEM should be refined by collecting and analyzing more actual projects if this model is to be applied to an organization. The result is that the methodology of SMPEEM may be used as a useful guide for the estimation of a maintenance project in any organization.

This study also can be further extended by using the maintenance projects of larger size software systems. These and similar investigations will provide a better estimation of the maintenance efforts based on productivity factors.

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