

# Improving Refactoring Speed by 10X

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## ABSTRACT

Refactoring engines are standard tools in today's *Integrated Development Environments (IDEs)*. They allow programmers to perform one refactoring at a time, but programmers need more. Most design patterns in the Gang-of-Four text can be written as a refactoring script – a programmatic sequence of refactorings. In this paper, we present **R3**, a new Java refactoring engine that supports refactoring scripts. It builds a main-memory, non-persistent database to encode Java entity declarations (e.g., packages, classes, methods), their containment relationships, and language features such as inheritance and modifiers. Unlike classical refactoring engines that modify *Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)*, **R3** refactorings modify only the database; refactored code is produced only when pretty-printing ASTs that reference database changes. **R3** performs comparable precondition checks to those of the *Eclipse Java Development Tools (JDT)* but **R3**'s codebase is about half the size of the JDT refactoring engine and runs an order of magnitude faster. Further, a user study shows that **R3** improved the success rate of retrofitting design patterns by 25% up to 50%.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Refactoring is a core technology in software development. All major IDEs today offer some form of refactoring support; refactoring is central to popular software design movements, such as Agile [38] and Extreme Programming [10]. In the last decade, refactoring tools have revolutionized how software is developed. They enable programmers to continuously explore the design space of large codebases, while preserving existing behavior. Modern IDEs such as Eclipse, NetBeans, IntelliJ IDEA, and Visual Studio incorporate refactorings in their top menu and often compete on the basis of refactoring support.

Despite vast interest and progress, a key functionality that many have recognized to be missing in IDEs is scripting [11, 28, 51]. Most design patterns in the Gang-of-Four text [25] can be expressed as a *refactoring script* – a programmatic

sequence of refactorings [33, 52]. Adding and removing design patterns manually is laborious, repetitious, error prone, and often too difficult to do – try creating a Visitor with over 10 methods; the benefits of scripting become clear.

We recently [35] added scripting to Eclipse JDT, exposing the core declarations of a Java program (packages, classes, methods, etc.) as objects whose methods are JDT refactorings. Refactoring scripts that add or remove design patterns are short Java methods. Our tool, called **R2**, is detailed in the next section. Experiments revealed *JDT Refactoring Engine (JDTRE)* is ill-suited for scripting for three reasons:

- **Reliability.** JDTRE is buggy [21, 26, 48]. We filed 31 new bugs to date, but only a fraction has been fixed in the latest version of Eclipse. Prior to the current release, one **R2** script executed 6 JDT refactorings producing a program with 27 compilation errors. Another script invoked 96 refactorings, producing a program with 100 compilation errors. These errors are *not* due to **R2**, but are egregious bugs in JDTRE. We are constantly discovering more. Worse is waiting months or years for a repair [21]. We rediscovered a bug that took 5 years to be fixed [19]. **Note:** We are not in a position to repair JDTRE. There is no reason for us to believe our patches would be accepted. We report bugs as others do.
- **Expressivity.** We found the need for additional primitive refactorings and to repair existing refactorings. JDTRE refuses to move methods that include the **super** keyword; moving methods with **super** reference(s) is really useful. We also had to turn off parameter optimization, for example, to make JDT refactorings produce design patterns correctly [35].
- **Speed.** JDTRE's Achilles heel is its speed: it is surprisingly slow. While a single JDT refactoring is fast, executing many is not. **R2** scripts that invoke 20 refactorings take over 10 seconds. One script invoked 554 refactorings and took 5 minutes to execute. Programmers expect refactorings to be instantaneous.

We concluded that a radically different approach to build refactoring engines for scripting was needed to remove these problems. Our novel solution, called **R3**, creates a database of program elements (such as classes, methods, fields), their containment relationships, and Java language features such as inheritance and modifiers. Precondition checks consult harvested values in database tuples; refactorings alter the database. ASTs are *never changed*; refactored code is produced only when pretty-printing ASTs that reference database changes. This strategy yields a 10× increase in refactoring speed and a 50% smaller codebase.

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The contributions of this paper are:

- A novel foundation (R3) of database+pretty printing for designing a new generation of refactoring engines that support scripting,
- R3's codebase is a mere 4K LOC and does not use *Eclipse Language Toolkit (LTK)* [24] utilities,
- Efficient ways to evaluate refactoring preconditions: boolean properties of ASTs are harvested during database creation where precondition checks consult their values and the database supports fast searches,
- An empirical evaluation of R3 on 6 case studies executed 52 scripts. R3 runs at least 10× faster on average, in two cases 285× faster than JD TRE, and
- A user study involving 2 classes (44 undergraduates and 10 graduates) showed R3 improved the success rate of retrofitting design patterns by 25% up to 50%.

## 2. A RECAP OF R2

Most classical design patterns can be expressed by a series of refactorings [33, 52]. In [35], we leveraged the JD TRE to provide a practical way to write such scripts.

R2 is a Java package. Its objects correspond to Java entity declarations such as packages, classes, methods, etc. The program in Figure 1 has seven R2 objects. There are 3 classes: **Graphic**, **Square**, **Picture** and 4 methods: three **draw**s and one **add**.

```
class Graphic {
    void draw { ... }
}

class Square extends Graphic {
    void draw() { ... }
}

class Picture extends Graphic {
    void add(Graphic g) { ... }
    void draw() { ... }
}
```

Figure 1: A Java Program.

Methods of R2 objects are JD T refactorings or database retrievals. Representative methods are listed in Table 1.

R2 Type	Method Name	Semantics
RPackage	newClass	add a new class to the package
RClass	addSingleton	apply Singleton pattern to the class
	getAllMethods	return a list of R2 objects that are all methods of the class
	getPackage	return the R2 object of its own package
	newConstructor	ass a new constructor to the class
	newMethod	add a new method stub to the class
	newField	add a new field to the class
RMethod	setInterface	set to implement an interface
RMethod	getRelatives	return a list of R2 objects of methods with the same signature
RRelativeList	addParameter	add a parameter with its default value to all methods
	moveAndDelegate	move methods to a class, leaving behind a delegate
	rename	rename all methods

Table 1: Methods of R2.

R2 refactoring scripts are short Java methods. Here are two examples. Figure 2 is an R2 script that creates an Adapter. A programmer uses the Eclipse GUI to identify a Java class *c* that is to be adapted to Java interface *i*. The programmer then invokes R2's **makeAdapter** refactoring (just like a built-in Eclipse refactoring), which in turn invokes *i.makeAdapter(c,N)* where *N* is the name of the Adapter class to be created. Class *N* is created in the same pack-

age as interface *i* (Line 3), to which is added a field named **adaptee** of type *c* and a constructor to initialize **adaptee** (Lines 5–6). A stub is generated for each method in interface *i* (Line 9). The created class *N* implements interface *i* (Line 11). The R2 object for *N* is returned as the result of **makeAdapter**.

```
1 // member of RInterface class
2 RClass makeAdapter(RClass c, String N) {
3     RClass adapter = this.getPackage().newClass(N);
4
5     RField f = adapter.newField(c, "adaptee");
6     adapter.newConstructor(f);
7
8     for(RMethod m : this.getAllMethods())
9         adapter.newMethod(m);
10
11     adapter.setInterface(this);
12
13     return adapter;
14 }
```

Figure 2: R2 makeAdapter Method.

Figure 3 is an R2 script to create a Visitor design pattern. Using the Eclipse GUI, a programmer identifies a method, called a *seed*, in a class hierarchy that s/he wants to create a Visitor; s/he then invokes R2's **makeVisitor** refactoring from the Eclipse GUI. Doing so invokes **seed.makeVisitor(N)**, where **seed** is R2 object of the seed and *N* is the name of the Visitor class to be created. **makeVisitor** gets the seed's package, creates a Visitor class *v* with name *N* in that package, and makes *v* a Singleton (Lines 3–5). Next, all methods with the same signature as the seed are collected onto a list. Every method on the list is renamed to **accept** (Line 8), and then a parameter of type *v* is added whose default value is the Singleton field of *N* (Line 10). The **index** value that is returned is the index number of the Visitor parameter. Only movable methods (e.g., **abstract** or **interface** methods cannot be moved) are relocated to class *N*, leaving behind delegates, respectively (Line 11). All methods in the Visitor class are renamed to **visit**. **makeVisitor** returns *v*, the R2 Visitor class object.

```
1 // member of RMethod class
2 RClass makeVisitor(String N) {
3     RPackage pkg = this.getPackage();
4     RClass v = pkg.newClass(N);
5     RField singleton = v.addSingleton();
6
7     RRelativeList relatives = this.getRelatives();
8     relatives.rename("accept");
9
10    int index = relatives.addparameter(singleton);
11    relatives.moveAndDelegate(index);
12
13    v.getAllMethods().rename("visit");
14
15    return v;
16 }
```

Figure 3: R2 makeVisitor Method.

These examples of ~15 LOC are typical of R2 scripts; they are very short. We implemented 18 of the 23 design patterns in the Gang-of-Four text [25] using R2. Eight patterns (including Visitor) are fully automatable as there are no programmer T0-D0s. Another ten are partially automatable. This includes Adapter, where only stubs are generated. Some of the remaining patterns are automatable, such as State and Mediator,<sup>1</sup> while others, Façade and Iterator, are

<sup>1</sup>State is a typical MDE application [5]. Mediator is the essence of

so application-specific that little or nothing is reusable [35].

Java is a practical scripting language – writing R2 scripts is like writing regular Java code. Programmers do not need to learn a *Domain Specific Language (DSL)* for program transformations. R2 scripts invoke JDT refactorings and create new program elements. Although using Java as a scripting language is great, JDTR is not, as mentioned in the Introduction (reliability and speed being the biggest detractors). JDTR was never designed for scripting refactorings. Hence the motivation for R3.

### 3. R3 CONCEPTS

#### 3.1 Modularity Perspectives

Elementary physics inspired R3. A physical object looks different depending upon an observer’s location. Silhouette portraits of people are different from frontal portraits. Just as viewpoints of a physical object are created by rotations and translations, called *coordinate transformations* that *preserve object properties*, R3 does the same for programs: it refactors programs by pretty-printing without changing the program’s ASTs or behavior.

To see how, we strip away *Object-Oriented (OO)* notation. A method implements an *absolute function* (the reason for ‘absolute’ is explained shortly) where all method parameters are explicit as they would be in a C-language declaration. Figure 4a is the signature of an absolute function `foo` with three parameters whose types are B, C, D.

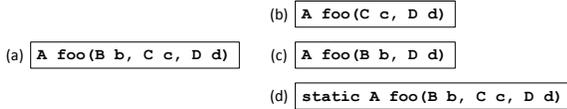


Figure 4: An Absolute Function and its Relative Methods.

If `foo` is displayed as a member of class `B`, Figure 4b is its signature: the `B` parameter becomes `this` and is otherwise implicit. If `foo` is displayed as a member of class `C`, Figure 4c is its signature, where the `C` parameter is `this`. We say the *natural homes* of an absolute function are its parameter types. The natural homes for method `foo` are B, C, D. If `foo` is displayed as a member of class `E`, not a natural home, it appears as the `static` method of Figure 4d which has no implicit `this` parameter.

A *modularity perspective* assigns absolute functions to class declarations. The idea generalizes to other entity declarations (e.g., packages, classes, fields) and their containment relationships. To illustrate, nested classes generalize absolute functions in an interesting way. Figure 5a shows class `B` nested inside class `A`. Method `m` of class `B` has the absolute function:

```
void m(A a, B b) { a.i = a.i + b.j; }
```

Although `m()` displays without parameters inside `B`, it really has two implicit parameters: `this` (of type `B`) and `A.this` (of outer type `A`). We see that `m()` can be displayed as a member of class `A` using our modularity perspective techniques by making the `B` parameter explicit. See Figure 5b.

A ‘coordinate transformation’ interpretation also explains why refactoring engines do not move methods of anonymous classes. Consider Figure 5c. The absolute function of method `p` has signature `p(A a, ? b)`, where `?` denotes an GUI builders. Neither are appropriate for a refactoring engine.

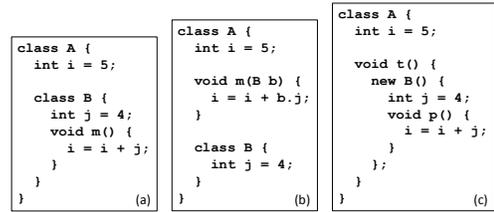


Figure 5: Nested Classes.

anonymous subclass of `B`. Since `?` has no name to display, refactoring engines refuse to move `p`.

In R3, by creating a database of program elements and their containment relationships, classical refactorings become simple database modifications and *never* alter the ASTs of the target program. The AST is ‘absolute’ or immutable; it appears different *relative to the modularity perspective* from which it is displayed. The move-instance-method refactoring, which is what Figure 4 is about, is a coordinate transformation for software; it preserves the semantic properties of a program. The same holds for other primitive refactorings.

#### 3.2 The R3 Database

R3 maintains an internal, non-persistent database to record changes in perspective. When R3 parses compilation units of a program, it creates relational database tables for all declaration types in a program. Each tuple of the `RClass` table represents a unique class declaration in the program. Among `RClass` attributes is a pointer to the AST of that class. Each tuple of the `RMethod` table represents a unique method (or absolute function) declaration in the program. Each `RMethod` tuple points to the AST of its method and to the `RClass` tuple in which that method is a member. Similarly, there are tables for package declarations (`RPackage`), field (`RField`), etc. There are no tables for Java executable statements or expressions; only classes, interfaces, fields, methods, and parameters, as these are the focus of Gang-of-Four design patterns and almost all classical refactorings.

Program source is compiled into ASTs which are traversed to populate R3 tables. Figure 6 shows the basic set-up. Three `RClass` tuples (`Graphic`, `Square`, `Picture`) are created. So too are four `RMethod` tuples (`Graphic.draw`, `Square.draw`, `Picture.add`, `Picture.draw`) that are linked to the `RClass` tuple for which each is a member.

Refactorings update this database. Renaming a method updates the `name` field of that method’s R3 tuple. Moving a method to another class updates the method’s R3 tuple to point to its new class. Only when an AST is rendered (displayed) is the information in the R3 database revealed. When a method’s AST is displayed, the name of the method is extracted from the method’s R3 tuple.

When a class is displayed, the tuples of the fields, methods, constructors, etc. that belong to it are extracted from the database. The ASTs of these tuples are then displayed, relative to their current class. Figure 7 sketches the `RClass` display method: it prints the `class` keyword, the current class name, `extends` clause with its superclass name, and `implements` clause with interface name(s); all names obtained from the database. Then each member that is assigned to that class is displayed, following by the display of the closing brace ‘}’. R3 reproduces the original order in which members appeared for ease of subsequent reference by programmers and preserves all source code comments.

Rendering is fast and less involved than updating ASTs

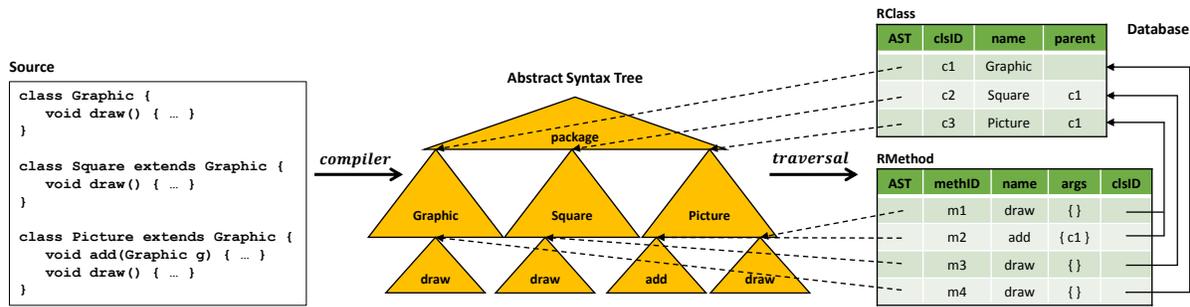


Figure 6: R3 Database.

and moving AST subtrees from one parent to another. Consider the changes that are needed when absolute method `foo` (Figure 4a) is moved from class B to C. All invocations of `foo`, such as `b.foo(c, d)`, are altered to `c.foo(b, d)`. A rendering simply changes the order in which arguments are displayed; it is more work to consistently update pointers when making this change to an AST.

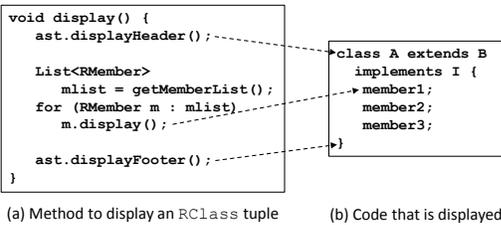


Figure 7: RClass Display Method.

Typical refactoring engines modify ASTs. In contrast, R3 eliminates AST manipulation. R3 still needs to create ASTs when new program elements are needed, but other than that, R3 does not manipulate ASTs. As we report later, a consequence of the above is that the codebase for R3 is much smaller and simpler than JD TRE.

### 3.3 Primitive Refactorings

We now explain some representative primitive refactorings to see how they are implemented in R3. In the refactoring community, behavior preservation is determined by statically analyzing whether the input code passes the refactoring’s preconditions [43]. If all preconditions are met, the refactoring engine is allowed to change the program code. We partition our discussion on refactorings into two segments: database changes corresponding to code transformations in conventional refactorings (considered in this section) and precondition checks (discussed in the next section).

#### 3.3.1 Rename Method

Rename-instance-method modifies the `name` field of the method’s `RMethod` tuple. This refactoring, like most, have a database-transaction quality. Consider a class hierarchy where all classes have their own method `foo`. To rename `foo` to `bar` can be expressed as a loop, where `getRelatives()` finds all overriding/overridden methods with the same signature as `foo`:

```
for (RMethod m : foo.getRelatives()) {
    m.rename("bar");
}
```

Until the loop completes, not all methods are renamed and preserving program semantics is not guaranteed. R3 performs renames on sets of overriding/overridden methods

with identical signatures, and by being a set operation, does not expose an inconsistent database to users:

```
RRelativeList relatives = foo.getRelatives();
relatives.rename("bar");
```

#### 3.3.2 Change Method Signature

Change-method-signature adds, removes, and reorders method parameters. Encoded in the R3 database is a list of formal parameters for every method. Adding a parameter to a method simply adds the parameter and its default value to the database. When the method is displayed, it is shown with its new parameter; method calls are displayed with its default argument.

Prior work [41, 54] found that highly-parameterized refactorings with options (name, parameter add/delete/reorder, exception, delegate) discourage the use of refactorings and make them harder to understand. Accordingly, R3 has separate methods to add, remove, and reorder parameters. Line 1 below finds the R3 tuple for a field with name `f` in class `c` of package `p`. The field’s type serves as the type of the new parameter and a reference to that field is the parameter’s default value (Line 2). The new parameter, by default, becomes the last formal parameter of method `m`. Line 3 makes it the first parameter of method `m`:

```
1 RField v = RField.find("p", "C", "f");
2 RParameter newParam = m.addParameter(v);
3 newParam.setIndex(0);
```

Like `rename`, `addParameter` has a set-based version.

#### 3.3.3 Move Method via Parameter

The move-instance-method refactoring in R3 changes the home class of a method `m`. Recall that a home parameter is any parameter of `m`, and a home class is the class of a home parameter. Moving `m` to a home class simply updates `m`’s R3 tuple to point to the tuple of its home class. Presuming `c` is a home class, the code below moves method `m` to the class `c`:

```
m.move(c);
```

#### 3.3.4 Move Method via Field

The move-via-field refactoring is illustrated in Figure 8. Method `m` in class A, whose absolute signature is `C m(A a, B b)`, is moved to class D via field `d`. A local invocation, `m(b)`, becomes `d.m(this, b)`. Here is where scripting comes in handy: move-via-field is the following R3 script:

```
// member of RMethod class
void moveViaField(RField f) {
    RParameter newHome = addParameter(f);
    move(newHome);
}
```

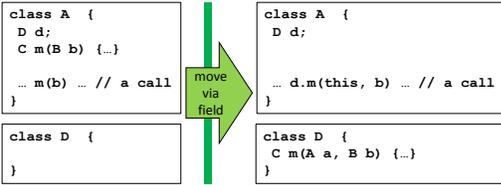


Figure 8: Move via Field Refactoring.

### 3.3.5 Introducing New Program Elements

R3 introduces complex new code declarations (classes, methods, fields, etc.) into an existing program by creating a compilation unit with these declarations. The file is compiled and the database is updated with new declarations which are then embedded into the existing program via move refactorings. The code below shows how to create a custom method `mul()`, whose R3 object is `mth`:

```
String s = "package pkg;                \n"+
           "class C {                    \n"+
           "  int mul() { return 7*57; }\n"+
           "};";
RPackage p = RProject.getPackage("Prj", "pkg");
RCompilationUnit cu = p.createCU(s);
RClass cls = p.getClass("C");
RMethod mth = cls.getMethod("mul");
```

Once the needed methods and fields are removed from compilation unit `cu`, the unit can be marked deleted in the database using the R3 remove refactoring. The AST of `cu` remains, but at pretty-printing time no text of its (now empty) compilation unit is produced.

### 3.3.6 Scripting Refactorings

R3 supports all refactorings that are essential to introduce or remove design patterns from existing programs. R3's interface is compatible with R2. That is, R2 scripts port to R3. This gives us the ability to script refactorings to retrofit design patterns into Java programs and we can build compound refactorings as compositions of primitive refactorings. We already saw scripts for `makeAdapter` (Figure 2), `makeVisitor` (Figure 3), and `moveViaField` in Section 3.3.4.

## 3.4 Preconditions

Precondition checks are *the* major performance drain in refactoring engines. JD TRE is typical: it checks preconditions as needed. Every refactoring call `r()` on an R3 object `obj` requires a conjunction of precondition checks  $\text{obj}.\rho_1() \wedge \text{obj}.\rho_2() \wedge \dots \wedge \text{obj}.\rho_n()$  where  $\rho_i()$  is a primitive precondition. For example, the JD TRE move-instance-method refactoring has 19 distinct checks (which are also present in R3); if any one fails, the move is disallowed. Since JD TRE does not know if a programmer will invoke `obj.r()`, JD TRE does the obvious thing by evaluating  $\text{obj}.\rho_1() \wedge \text{obj}.\rho_2() \wedge \dots \wedge \text{obj}.\rho_n()$  only when needed.

R3 is different. We too do not know what refactorings a programmer will invoke. But we can precompute the value of many – not all –  $\rho_i()$  for *all* R3 objects at database build time, *even though we may never use these values*. For each  $\rho_i()$ , we add a boolean attribute to R3 tables to indicate whether a tuple's AST satisfies  $\rho_i()$ . The checks for a refactoring then become a conjunction of these boolean attributes.

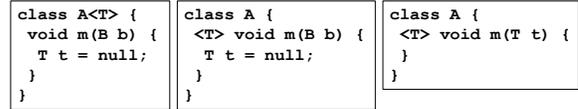
The R3 database is created by traversing the ASTs of a program and collecting semantic information. Doing so

populates the R3 database with tuples and assigns boolean values to these checks. Further, in cases where harvested boolean values are insufficient, we optimized the R3 database to facilitate fast searches, e.g., R3 collects all references of a declaration to reduce search overhead. We will see in Section 5 these techniques improve performance significantly.

### 3.4.1 Boolean Checks Made by a Single Tuple Lookup

In R3, fifteen preconditions (which JD TRE move-instance-method uses and are shared by other refactorings) are AST-harvestable at database build time as boolean values. Here is a representative sample:

- **Abstract** – is the method abstract?
- **Native** – is the method native?
- **Constructor** – is the method a constructor?
- **Interface Declaring Type** – is the enclosing type of the method an interface?
- **Non-Local Type Reference** – if the method references a non-local type parameter (e.g., a type parameter of a generic class), it cannot be moved. Figure 9a illustrates a non-local type parameter which prevents a move of method `m`. In contrast, method `m` in Figure 9b can be moved as its parameter is local.



(a) Can't move with non-local type `T` (b) Can move with local type `T` (c) Generic entity target

Figure 9: Generic Constraints.

- **Generic Entity Target** – moving a method via a type parameter is disallowed (Figure 9c).
- **Unqualified Target** – a natural home of a method cannot be an **interface**. A natural home is disqualified if its argument is assigned a value as in Figure 10a.
- **Null Home Value** – if a method call has a `null` home parameter as in Figure 10b, a move to that home is disallowed as it will dereference `null`.

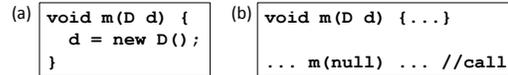
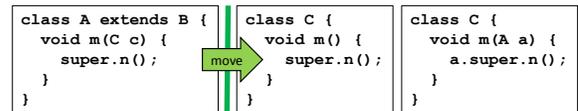


Figure 10: Target Constraints.

- **Polymorphic Method** – when the target method is polymorphic, it cannot be moved unless a delegate is left behind. Our `makeVisitor` script satisfies this constraint.
- **Super Reference** – JD TRE refuses to move any method that uses the `super` keyword. To write general purpose refactoring scripts, we removed this precondition in R2 and R3 by replacing each `super.x()` call with a call to a *super delegate*, a manufactured method `super_x()` [35]. Other IDEs, such as IntelliJ IDEA [30] and NetBeans [42], do move such methods, but do so erroneously (Figure 11).



(a) Method with `super` call (b) IntelliJ IDEA (c) NetBeans

Figure 11: Super Call Bugs.

The remaining boolean checks are more of the same [34].

### 3.4.2 Checks that Require Database Search

Not all primitive preconditions are reducible to boolean attributes; these outliers require a database search, which R3 performs efficiently. Here are some for the move-instance-method:

- **Accessibility** – after a method is moved, it must still be visible to all of its references. Symmetrically, every declaration that is referenced inside the method’s body should be accessible after the move. JD TRE promotes access modifiers of the moved method and/or referenced declarations to satisfy all visibility requirements. R3 does the same.

Associated with each RMethod object *m* is a list of its references (this list is collected at database creation time). R3 traverses this list to ensure that *m* is still visible to each reference. Similarly, R3 maintains a second list of tuples (again collected at database creation time) that are referenced in *m*’s body. R3 traverses this list to ensure that all referenced declarations remain visible to *m*. R3 makes the same adjustments in modifiers as JD TRE.

- **Conflicting Method** – a method can be moved only when it does not change bindings of existing method references. Consider the 3-class program of Figure 12. A method call *m(...)* inside *B.n()* invokes *A.m(C)*. When JD TRE moves method *C.m(B)* to class *B*, the method call changes its binding to the newly moved method *B.m(C)*.

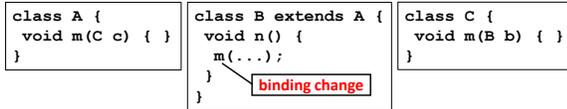


Figure 12: Method Binding Change.

Clearly this is wrong. JD TRE determines if a conflict exists in the destination class *but not its superclasses*, an error that we have reported [20]. R3 does better by traversing the class hierarchy and evaluating access modifiers to find conflicts [47].

- **Duplicate Type Parameter** – JD TRE moves method *m* in Figure 13 to class *B* only when type parameter *T* is removed from *m* since *T* already exists in class *B*. After the move, however, *T* inside method *m* changes binding to the existing *T* in class *B*.

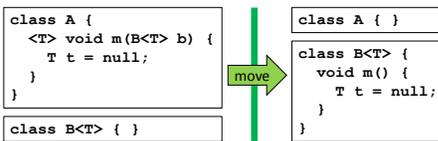


Figure 13: Duplicate Type Parameter.

R3 harvests type parameter names and stores them in the database tuple where they are declared. R3 searches the type parameter collections to find a match.

## 4. CURRENT R3 IMPLEMENTATION

JD TRE does not use a standard pretty-print AST method. To minimize R3 coding, we used a pipeline of tools, relying on Eclipse minimally and using AHEAD [6], which has pretty-print methods ideal for R3. Figure 14 shows the R3 pipeline: it is a series of stages (A)-(G) that map a target Java program (JDT project) on the left to a refactored program on the right.

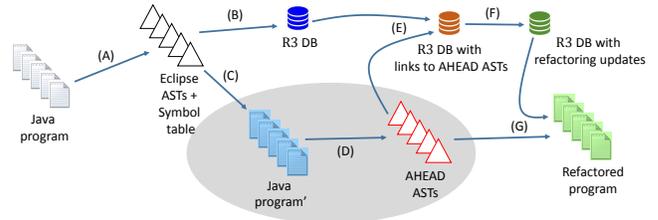


Figure 14: R3 Pipeline.

- Eclipse parses a Java program into ASTs. Below is a target program with a generic method that prints its array argument of different types:

```
package p;
class C {
    // generic method
    static <E> void print(E[] array) {
        for(E e : array)
            System.out.printf("%s ", e);
    }
}
```

- JD TRE ASTs are traversed to harvest a major part of the R3 database. Later, step (E) completes the database.
- AHEAD requires a context-free parser. To satisfy this constraint, a version of the original program is output (shown below) where white space and comments are preserved and all identifiers are replaced with manufactured and unique identifiers *ID\_#*; symbols “<” and “>” that indicate generics are replaced with unambiguous symbols “<:” and “:;>”. AHEAD can parse the revised compilation unit:

```
package ID_0;
class ID_1 {
    // generic method
    static <:ID_2:> void ID_3(ID_4[] ID_5) {
        for(ID_6 ID_7 : ID_8)
            ID_9.ID_10.ID_11("%s ", ID_12);
    }
}
```

and with the database of (B) can reconstruct the *identical* text of the original program.

- AHEAD parses the manufactured-identifier program.
- R3 database tuples are doubly-linked to their AHEAD AST nodes so each pretty-printer of an AST node can reference the corresponding R3 tuple and vice versa.
- R3 refactorings are executed. They modify only the R3 database, not AHEAD parse trees.
- The source code of the refactored program is pretty-printed as described earlier.

## 5. EVALUATION OF R3

To evaluate the usefulness of R3, we answer the following research questions:

- **RQ1** (Performance): How fast is R3 compared to JD TRE?
- **RQ2** (Correctness): Does R3 improve the correctness of the result when retrofitting a design pattern?
- **RQ3** (Productivity): Does R3 reduce the required time to retrofit a design pattern?

Previously, in [35], we evaluated the *expressiveness* of the R3’s predecessor, R2, by demonstrating that its scripts can retrofit design patterns into real-world programs. We focused on patterns that (a) were the hardest to manually create and (b) executed the most JD TRE refactorings. We used the same R2 tests for R3, not only to show that R3 is

Application (Ver#, LOC, #Tests)	Seed ID	# of Refacs	JD TRE time (seconds)			R3 time (seconds)						Speed Up
			Precon Check	Perform Change	Total	Build DB (B)	Link AST (E)	Precon Check (F1)	DB Update (F2)	Proj (G)	Total	
AHEAD jak2java [6] (130320, 26K, 75)	A1	104	16.58	2.31	18.89	1.66	0.06	0.000	0.028	0.21	0.24	79
	A2	68	18.49	2.67	21.16			0.010	0.010	0.11	0.13	163
	A3	554	260.85	37.48	298.33			0.017	0.230	1.87	2.12	141
	A4	60	14.69	3.70	18.39			0.001	0.032	0.54	0.57	32
	A5	96	35.46	7.19	42.64			0.003	0.047	0.96	1.01	42
Commons Codec [2] (1.8, 16K, 6103)	C1	6	1.80	1.39	3.19	1.18	0.03	0.000	0.007	0.41	0.42	8
	C2	16	4.26	0.70	4.96			0.000	0.007	0.30	0.31	16
	C3	16	3.60	0.30	3.90			0.000	0.007	0.24	0.24	16
	C4	12	3.91	0.68	4.59			0.000	0.007	0.21	0.22	21
	C5	6	1.51	0.50	2.00			0.000	0.005	0.37	0.37	5
Commons IO [3] (2.4, 24K, 810)	I1	4	1.20	0.19	1.40	1.75	0.04	0.000	0.000	0.05	0.05	28
	I2	4	2.21	0.20	2.40			0.000	0.002	0.08	0.08	31
	I3	6	1.80	0.50	2.31			0.000	0.004	0.35	0.35	7
	I4	4	2.70	0.30	3.00			0.000	0.002	0.07	0.07	42
	I5	6	1.68	0.20	1.88			0.000	0.004	0.32	0.32	6
JUnit [32] (4.11, 23K, 2807)	J1	16	4.49	0.70	5.20	2.01	0.04	0.000	0.011	0.17	0.18	29
	J2	4	0.31	0.09	0.40			0.000	0.004	0.05	0.05	8
	J3	18	30.22	3.37	33.60			0.000	0.008	0.32	0.33	103
	J4	20	8.10	1.40	9.49			0.000	0.011	0.44	0.45	21
	J5	4	1.41	0.20	1.61			0.000	0.003	0.09	0.10	17
Quark [6] (1.0, 575, 9)	Q	16	3.40	0.40	3.80	0.24	0.01	0.000	0.009	0.09	0.10	40
Refactoring Crawler [18] (1.0.0, 7K, 15)	W1	28	6.99	0.90	7.90	0.79	0.02	0.000	0.016	0.33	0.35	23
	W2	4	1.80	0.30	2.10			0.000	0.004	0.12	0.12	17
	W3	26	11.82	1.01	12.82			0.000	0.013	0.32	0.34	38
	W4	10	4.11	1.10	5.21			0.000	0.007	0.19	0.20	26
	W5	28	9.69	1.40	11.08			0.000	0.015	0.33	0.34	33

Table 2: Applications and Comparison with JD TRE and R3

similarly expressive and can handle the complexities of real-world programs, but also to measure R3’s performance w.r.t. JD TRE – noting that JD TRE is representative of the state of the practice in refactoring engines. In addition, in this paper we also focus on *practicality*. Namely, can programmers use R3 effectively?

To answer these questions, we use a combination of two empirical methods: a case study using 6 Java real-world programs and user studies (with 44 undergraduates and 10 graduate students) that complement each other. The user study allows us to quantify programmer time and programmer errors, while the case studies give more confidence that R3 generalizes to real-world situations.

## 5.1 Performance

The first column of Table 2 lists the programs of the R3 evaluation, along with their version, LOC, and number of regression tests. We performed two sets of experiments.

The first set of experiments retrofitted a Visitor pattern into six Java applications. The second set removed a Visitor by executing an Inverse-Visitor script that exercises a *different* set of refactorings. Inverse-Visitor does not simply undo existing changes, but is a script that removes an instance of a Visitor design pattern by moving visit methods back to their original classes.<sup>2</sup> These experiments engage the primitive refactorings that are used the most often in design patterns. We ran the regression tests on each application after script execution to confirm there was no difference in their behavior. We used an Intel CPU i7-2600 3.40GHz, 16 GB main memory, Windows 7 64-bit OS, and Eclipse JDT 4.4.2 (Luna) in our work.

Table 2 shows the performance results of the first set of experiments. Each program (with the exception of **Quark**) has five methods that serve as a Visitor seed. The complexity of a refactoring task is measured by (1) the number of JDT refactorings executed; this number is given in the **# of Refacs** column<sup>3</sup> and (2) the CPU time listed in the

<sup>2</sup>Imagine the scenario that a programmer creates a Visitor to view all declarations of a method *m* in class hierarchy. S/he then edits the methods of this Visitor. Simply “undoing” this Visitor rolls back *both* the Visitor *and* her/his changes. An Inverse-Visitor refactoring removes the Visitor *and* preserves programmer changes [35].

<sup>3</sup>Our `makeVisitor` and `inverseVisitor` scripts create and delete program elements but these operations are not counted as JDT refactorings.

**Total** column.<sup>4</sup>

JD TRE execution time has two parts, precondition checks and code changes, whose sum equals column **Total**. Column **Precon Check** is the time for all precondition checks discussed in Section 3.4 *and* a check/parse to see if the compilation units (Java files) involved in the refactoring are ‘broken’ – meaning that the file has syntax errors. Code change (column **Perform Change**) is the sum of times for calculating the code changes to make, updating the Eclipse workspace, and writing updated files to disk. **Note:** precondition checks in JD TRE consume about 87% of refactoring execution time.

R3 execution time covers six steps (B)-(G) in Figure 15. Steps (C)-(D) are due to our use of AHEAD for coding convenience and would be unnecessary if JD TRE had usable pretty-print methods. We exclude times for (C)-(D) as they have nothing to do with R3 performance.

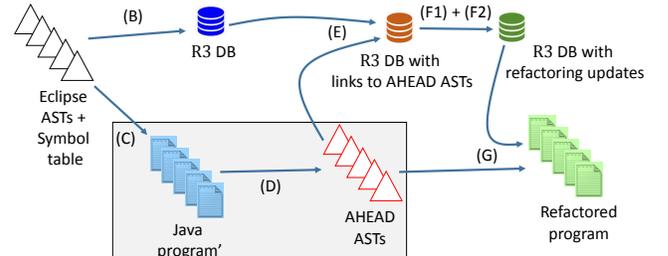


Figure 15: Performance Pipeline of R3.

A cost of R3 is (B) creating the database and (E) linking database tuples to AST nodes, shown as columns in **Build DB** and **Link AST** in Table 2. These execution times are minuscule. During the brief interval that it takes to display the R3 GUI refactoring menu, a database can be created+linked with an unnoticeable delay.

The true execution time for R3 is (F1) checking preconditions, (F2) updating database, and (G) at the end of the script execution pretty-printing the compilation units that have changed. The sum of these numbers, the **Total** column, is R3’s run-time.

We compute the ratio of the JD TRE and R3 **Total** columns, listed in the **Speed Up** column. R3 ranges from 5× to 163× faster than JD TRE. The longest JD TRE execution time was

<sup>4</sup>We used profiling tool `VisualVM` (ver. 1.3.8) [57] to measure CPU times in running the JD TRE and R3 scripts. We repeated each experiment five times and report the average execution time.

seed **A3** to create a Visitor of 276 methods, taking 298 seconds of CPU time. In contrast, **R3**'s execution time was 2.2 seconds. Interestingly, even if the number of refactorings executed in a `makeVisitor` script are small (4 – 6), **R3** was  $17\times$  faster on average; for larger numbers of refactorings ( $> 50$ ), the speed-up was  $91\times$  faster. On average for these experiments, **R3** was  $38\times$  faster than **JDTRE**.<sup>5</sup>

Table 3 shows the corresponding run-times for our second set of experiments that removed a Visitor. Although a different set of refactorings are exercised, we reach similar conclusions. **R3** ranges from  $5\times$  to  $291\times$  faster than **JDTRE**. On average, **R3** was  $55\times$  faster than **JDTRE**.<sup>6</sup>

Seed ID	# of Refa	JDTRE time (seconds)			R3 time (seconds)				Speed Up
		Prec Chk	Perf Chg	Tot	Prec Chk	DB Udt	Proj	Tot	
A1	104	50.80	8.47	59.27	0.003	0.005	0.20	0.21	286
A2	68	27.19	5.10	32.29	0.001	0.006	0.10	0.11	291
A3	554	167.27	46.59	213.86	0.023	0.021	1.75	1.79	119
A4	60	9.98	5.78	15.76	0.008	0.006	0.53	0.55	29
A5	96	19.23	8.97	28.21	0.010	0.008	0.99	1.01	28
C1	6	1.59	0.70	2.29	0.001	0.001	0.43	0.43	5
C2	16	6.61	0.68	7.28	0.000	0.001	0.28	0.28	26
C3	16	7.10	0.40	7.50	0.000	0.001	0.23	0.23	33
C4	12	4.61	0.59	5.20	0.000	0.001	0.20	0.20	26
C5	6	1.70	0.59	2.29	0.000	0.001	0.35	0.35	6
I1	4	2.20	0.21	2.40	0.000	0.000	0.05	0.05	51
I2	4	2.22	0.30	2.52	0.000	0.000	0.07	0.07	35
I3	6	2.21	0.50	2.71	0.000	0.001	0.33	0.33	8
I4	4	1.99	0.20	2.19	0.000	0.000	0.06	0.06	34
I5	6	1.51	0.49	2.00	0.000	0.001	0.30	0.30	7
J1	16	4.75	0.99	5.74	0.000	0.002	0.26	0.27	22
J2	4	1.90	0.20	2.10	0.000	0.000	0.04	0.04	51
J3	18	11.60	0.69	12.28	0.001	0.001	0.31	0.31	39
J4	20	5.81	1.10	6.91	0.001	0.002	0.45	0.46	15
J5	4	2.78	0.21	2.98	0.000	0.000	0.09	0.09	34
Q	16	2.58	0.80	3.38	0.000	0.001	0.08	0.08	41
W1	28	6.28	1.79	8.07	0.002	0.002	0.33	0.33	25
W2	4	5.01	0.40	5.41	0.000	0.001	0.11	0.11	49
W3	26	21.19	1.52	22.71	0.000	0.002	0.31	0.31	74
W4	10	7.92	0.87	8.79	0.000	0.001	0.20	0.20	44
W5	28	15.74	1.68	17.42	0.001	0.002	0.33	0.33	53

Table 3: Inverse-Visitor Results.

There are three basic reasons for the huge difference in performance. First, as mentioned earlier, **JDTRE** evaluates preconditions by searching ASTs, and piggy-backs the collection of information to know what text changes to make to perform an actual refactoring, such as creating a method delegate, adjusting declaration visibility, etc. Profiling experiments indicate that the vast majority of time (avg: 60%, sd: 15%) of the `Precon Check` column for **JDTRE** is simply due to AST searching. **R3** reduces the overhead by collecting all program elements and values needed for precondition checks or code transformation in advance.

Second, the **R3** database has been optimized to make normally slow operations lightning fast. One such operation is the rebinding of all references to one declaration to those of another (Figure 16a). The move-and-delegate refactoring is an example. Following the ‘one-fact-in-one-place’ mantra of database normalization, **R3** introduced an `RBinding` table where declaration bindings are represented once and with one update, all references are rebound (Figure 16b).

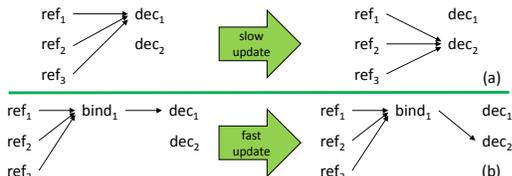


Figure 16: Reference Binding in **R3**.

Third, **JDTRE** parses all files involved in a refactoring and writes out changed files after each refactoring. In con-

<sup>5</sup>Had we included database creation time for steps (B) and (E) in our calculations, the average speed-up ratio drops to  $11\times$ .

<sup>6</sup>Had we included database build time for steps (B) and (E) in our calculations, the average speed-up ratio drops to  $10\times$ .

trast, **R3** refactorings are virtually instantaneous database updates. Projection (i.e., writing out changed files) is performed only *once* after the script execution is finished.

In short, **JDTRE** was not designed for efficient scripting.

## 5.2 Practicality

We conducted an evaluation of **R3**'s practicality. We designed two controlled experiments (the Adapter experiment and the Visitor experiment) to assess how users worked with **R3**. We ran the experiments with 44 students in Spring 2015 at the undergraduate CS373S Software Design [49] course at the University of Texas at Austin. The course exposes students to fundamental structures and concepts in software development, with an emphasis on automation. Two lectures were devoted to refactoring and seven more were dedicated to design patterns.

We ran another Visitor experiment with 10 students in Fall 2014 at the graduate CS561 Advanced Software Engineering [1] course at the Oregon State University. This course exposes students to seminal topics and recent trends in software evolution; in particular automating common changes to improve software quality. Results from both executions were consistent.

### 5.2.1 Experimental Design

We had two *dependent variables*: correctness and time. Correctness was first measured as a boolean metric: either the result was correct or not. We also used a score that measured the degree of correctness (0 meant nothing had been done to the existing code, and 100 meant the pattern had been correctly introduced). Time was measured in minutes. The only *independent variable* was the method used to retrofit the pattern (i.e., **R3** scripts vs. using available **JDT** refactorings or manual edits).

As an approximation, the complexity of a pattern instance is the number of refactorings that must be applied to produce the instance. There is clearly more: programmers must order refactorings in a proper sequence to achieve the desired result. In any case, creating and removing Visitor and Adapter pattern instances require sequences of refactorings of different length using different sets of primitive refactorings. We believe both are representative of refactoring scripts that programmers can (or would like to) apply.

Based on these patterns, we designed two separate experiments: one for Visitor and another for Adapter. To counteract the impact of the order of the method participants used, we counterbalanced it. Each experiment consisted of two tasks. *Group A* performed the first task using **R3** and the second using the available **JDT** refactorings; *Group B* did in the opposite order. Further, we balanced *Group A* and *Group B* w.r.t. their backgrounds, using information that students provided in a survey at the beginning of the course.

To ensure uniform knowledge among participants, each participant read and practiced online tutorials to:

- make and remove a Visitor and Adapter manually [35],
- write and run **R3** scripts, and
- apply **JDT** refactorings such as rename, move, and change-method-signature, with an explanation of their options.

Students submitted practice assignments (code and scripts); only when they passed the tutorial assignments could they proceed to the real experiment.

Metric	Visitor						Adapter							
	Baseline		R3		z	p	r	Baseline		R3		z	p	r
	Success	39.5%		78.0%		3.441	0.001	0.519	54.5%		81.8%		3.207	0.001
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Score	73.5	24.8	93.5	13.6	3.629	0.000	0.547	96.0	5.2	97.9	5.1	2.315	0.021	0.349
Time	37.2	29.7	91.8	46.9	4.918	0.000	0.741	19.9	9.2	43.7	27.2	5.152	0.000	0.777

Table 4: Experimental Results from UT (44 undergrad students)

In the Visitor experiment, each student received a target program, `RefactoringCrawler` [18], an open-source Eclipse plugin. `RefactoringCrawler` has 119 Java classes, 17 interfaces and 7K LOC, including a suite of JUnit tests.

In the first task, *Group A* wrote a general R3 script to make a Visitor, and applied this script to create a Visitor with 13 methods given seed W1. *Group B* applied Eclipse refactorings manually to make the same Visitor. In the second task, (1) participants removed an existing Visitor with 12 methods from the target program, but from a different class hierarchy and (2) we flipped the control group: *Group A* applied Eclipse refactorings manually and *Group B* wrote and applied a general R3 script.

In the Adapter experiment, *Group A* was required to write a general R3 script to make an Adapter that implements 35 methods, *Group B* created the same Adapter by hand as JTDRE offers no useful refactorings for this task. In the second task, we flipped the control group and targeted a different Adapter of the same size.

We capped each task to 2 hours, although some participants extended this limit. Participants were not allowed to take extended breaks but were free to abort after spending the maximum time. Participants had to verify their work by running the regression tests that came with `RefactoringCrawler`.

Tasks were homework assignments. Participants had access to classroom material and tool tutorials. To determine participant success or failure, we analyzed their refactored programs and R3 scripts, ran the regression tests, and manually inspected their code. Students also reported the time they spent on each task and completed a follow-up survey.

## 5.2.2 Results

Tables 4 and 5 summarize the results we obtained from the UT and OSU executions respectively. As Shapiro-Wilk tests showed a significant deviance from normality for score and time, we resorted to non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank tests for all the analyses. Both tables present the percentage of successful submissions, means and standard deviations for the score they obtained, and time spent. Tables also show the test result (z), its corresponding p value and the effect size (r) in the cases where statistically significant differences were found between both methods ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Results are consistent in both executions. For RQ2 (Correctness), we found statistically significant differences that favor R3 in both success and score in both UT and OSU. Moreover, the effect size introduced by R3 was large ( $r > 0.5$ ) for the Visitor experiment and medium ( $r > 0.3$ ) for the Adapter experiment, showing that R3 has a significant impact on success and score rates. We hypothesize that even greater benefits for R3 accrue when the complexity of a pattern (i.e., the types and numbers of required refactorings) increases. More on RQ2 in Section 5.3.

For RQ3 (Productivity), results show statistically significant differences that favor using JDT refactorings in the required time to apply the design pattern. Effect sizes are

Metric	Visitor						
	Baseline		R3		z	p	r
	Success	20.0%		70.0%		2.236	0.025
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Score	56.0	39.2	91.0	12.9	2.176	0.030	0.688
Time	66.6	38.3	92.1	37.7	2.075	0.038	0.656

Table 5: Experimental Results from OSU (10 grad students)

large in all cases. In other words, *for this experiment and design pattern instances*, it was faster to manually invoke JDT refactorings than to write an R3 script from scratch (however, once a script is written, it can be reused many times). More on RQ3 in Section 5.3.

Clearly students can write R3 scripts. In a follow-up poll, 91% of them said that writing (R3) refactoring scripts would be a useful addition to their IDE and 79.5% said that writing scripts improved their understanding of the Visitor and Adapter patterns. Their response was gratifying as it supported primary motivation for our research.

R3 and more details about our empirical evaluation can be downloaded at [45].

## 5.2.3 Threats to Validity

Every user study has limitations. First, although our results were comparable with undergraduate and graduate students, the results might not be translatable to more experienced programmers. Second, there might have been control loss due to the tasks being homework assignments. This was unavoidable considering the course design. The problem of reconciling classroom objectives and experimental designs has been largely recorded in the literature [7, 23]. Lastly, students were aware that R3 was developed by their instructors and, while we asked for their honest answers and were careful not to influence them on this point, this might have impacted the results.

## 5.3 Perspective

There are at least two dimensions that are not captured by our user study. There is a non-zero probability  $e$  that each manually performed refactoring will be erroneous. Assuming Bernoulli trials, Figure 17 shows the probability  $P = (1 - (1 - e)^n)$  that one or more errors will occur in a manual retrofit of a design pattern requiring  $n$  refactorings. From Table 2 row W1, the value of  $n$  is 28. From Table 4, the value of  $P$  is  $1 - 0.395 = 0.605$ . Solving  $0.605 = (1 - (1 - e)^{28})$  yields  $e = 1/30.6$ . That is, our students made an error, on average, every 30.6 manual refactorings. The dashed vertical lines in Figure 17 and Figure 18 indicate the point on this graph that corresponds to

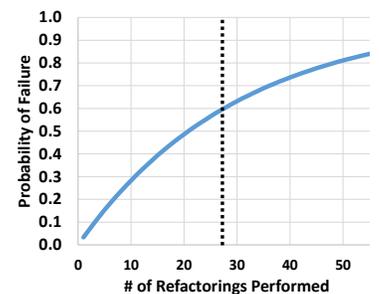


Figure 17: Probability of Failure.

our user study. Figure 17 predicts the results of additional future user studies on **RQ2**. As refactoring tasks become more complicated, **R3** wins easily; it can perform tasks correctly that humans can not.

A second dimension is time spent per refactoring task/script. We gave students only 1 manual refactoring task in our evaluation of **RQ3**. The real benefit is when a design pattern script is reused. Figure 18 shows that the break-even point of writing a script rather than manual pattern construction is on its third use. **R3** wins easily on further reuse.

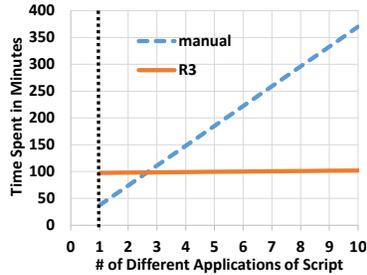


Figure 18: Error Expended with Script Reuse.

## 5.4 Other Relevant Observations on R3

**R3** uses the same or improved precondition definitions as JD TRE; these definitions are well-documented in the JD TRE code base. We extracted from the JD TRE regression suite (`org.eclipse.jdt.ui.tests.refactoring` [44]) tests that are relevant to **R3** refactorings. We excluded tests on Java 8 features (e.g., lambda expressions), as **R3** presently works on *Java Runtime Environment (JRE) 7*. There were 122 tests for change-method-signature, 72 for move-method, 73 for pull-up, 59 for push-down, and 138 for rename. **R3** satisfies all 464 extracted tests; they are now part of the **R3** regression suite.<sup>7</sup> Further, in building **R2** and **R3**, we discovered and reported 31 bugs in the JD TRE, 7 of which have now been corrected [21].

Comparing the size of **R3** to JD TRE in LOC is misleading, as JD TRE relies on layers of Eclipse functionality, whereas **R3** is self-contained. To level the playing field, we used the EcLemma code coverage tool [29] to see what volume of code was executed by JD TRE and **R3** when the `makeVisitor` script runs – this gives us an estimate of the number of *Unique LOC (ULOC)* executed for equivalent functionalities.

**R3** executes 1,782 ULOC for `makeVisitor`. But these ULOC are self-contained, meaning that print, file open and close methods are its only external calls. In contrast, JD TRE executes 1,050 ULOC, which in turn calls 1,691 ULOC in `ltk.core.refactoring` (the primary package for JD TRE) and 975 ULOC in `ltk.ui.refactoring` where other core refactoring functionality resides.<sup>8</sup> We conservatively estimate **R3**’s codebase to be 2× simpler than JD TRE.

## 6. RELATED WORK

We said earlier that **R3** was inspired by elementary physics. Another inspiration was *Intentional Programming (IP)* [14]. IP is a structure editor whose ASTs could be adorned with different pretty-print methods, allowing the contents of an

<sup>7</sup>**R3** does not produce exactly the same refactored source as JD TRE. For example, **R3** keeps track of moved methods. All type declarations in these methods are displayed with fully qualified names so that additional `import` declarations do not need to be added.

<sup>8</sup>Example: see `checkInitialConditions`, `checkFinalConditions`, and `createChange` methods in `MoveInstanceMethodProcessor.java` [40]

AST to be printed textually or graphically. **R3** is *not* a structure editor or a small tweak on IP. IP displays entire trees; **R3** integrates a database of program facts and the display of disconnected ASTs to yield a rendering that gives the appearance of a single refactored program.

In developing **R2** [35], we found 13 prior works [4, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 28, 37, 39, 50, 53, 55, 56] that could be used to implement refactoring scripts. We classified them as program transformation systems, DSLs, and refactoring engines built atop of IDEs. Notably none reported performance of refactoring engines; all were demonstrations that their particular infrastructure or tool could be used to implement refactorings or transformation scripts. Most research on refactoring engines mentions the importance of refactoring reliability or error detection [16, 26, 31, 36, 48]. See [35] for further details.

A critical property of **R2** and **R3** is that refactorings and refactoring scripts are written in the same language as the programs to be transformed (e.g., Java). We feel this property is crucial because programmers do not have to learn yet another language or programming paradigm to write refactoring scripts. Surprisingly, only one prior tool had this property: Wrangler [36]. Wrangler refactorings and refactoring scripts were written in Erlang to modify Erlang programs.

## 7. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

OO refactoring technology is now 25 years old [27, 46]. Most researchers, ourselves included, tacitly assume that few significant advances in tooling classical Java refactorings are possible after this time. But looking closer, motivated by new needs and applications for refactoring, reveals that significant practical advances are not only possible but are necessary.

We showed how *classical* Java refactorings (e.g., move, rename, change-method-signature) and refactorings that are essential to script the creation and removal of Gang-of-Four design patterns, can be implemented by a novel combination of databases and AST pretty-printing. Our tool **R3**:

1. does not rely on a huge codebase required by general-purpose program transformation systems,
2. has a much smaller code footprint than JD TRE,
3. supports the writing and execution of refactoring scripts,
4. executes refactoring scripts 10× faster than JD TRE, and
5. significantly improves correctness when retrofitting design patterns in a user study.

Having said the above, **R3** in no way eliminates the need for general-purpose program transformation systems. There are many refactorings that are not used in scripting design patterns [8, 22] and there are many refactorings that cannot simply be “pretty-printed”, such as refactoring sequential legacy code into parallel code [17]. Never-the-less, standard OO refactoring engines leave a *lot* to be desired – slow speed, no support for scripting, and overly complex code bases. Our response is: let’s do the basics better and to provide scripting for the *vast majority* of programmers, which we believe is critical to next-generation OO refactoring engines. For these reasons, **R3** offers a promising way forward.

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