

UNIVERSITÄT MANNHEIM

LEVERAGING CONTINUOUS INTEGRATION PROCESS TO IMPROVE SOFTWARE REUSE

Master Thesis

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1. Introduction

2. Foundations

2.1. Software Reuse

Douglas McIlroy (McIlroy, 1968) envisaged in the 1960s a software system composed of already existent components. Where you basically put different components, that already exist, together in order to form the system is being built. Although the IT industry has tried for many years to improve the speed and reduce costs of software development by reusing components, the McIlroy's vision is still the exception rather than the rule.

Although the definition of software reuse seems trivial, it is possible to find several definitions in the literature. However, most of them are similar to the definition proposed by Krueger & W. (1992):

"Software reuse is the process of creating software systems from existing software rather than building software systems from scratch"

Since we already have a formal definition of software reuse, the next question would be: What can be reused?. To this regard, the work of Frakes & Terry (1996) defined a list 2.1 of potentially reusable software artifacts:

However, reuse traditionally means the reuse of code fragments and components Mili (2002). When we talk about components, we mean any cohesive and compact unit of software functionality with a well defined interface (Hummel et al., 2008).

1. architecture	6. estimates (templates)
2. source code	7. human interfaces
3. data	8. plans
4. designs	9. requirements
5. documentation	10. test cases

Table 2.1.: Potentially reusable aspects of software projects according to Frakes & Terry (1996).

Therefore a component can be simple classes or even web-services or Enterprise Beans.

Software reuse emerges as a solution for the so called software development crisis (Kim & Stohr, 1992). Organizations face several problems in software development including increased costs, delayed schedules, unsatisfied requirements, and software professional shortage. Therefore, by reusing software components projects can reduce time-to-market, lower development costs, and increase software quality Frakes & Kyo Kang (2005).

2.1.1. Benefits of Software Reuse

Software reuse has not failed to attract the attention of industry due to its alleged benefits. In the industry the need of reduction of redundancies, as well as costs reduction and quality improvements is perceived. Moreover, the vision of fostering innovation and market penetration due to shorter production cycles promised obvious strategic business advantages (Bauer & Vetro', 2016). Research literature has reported benefits from successful adoption of software reuse:

- Lower cost and faster development:
- Higher quality:
- Standardized architecture:
- Risk reduction:

Unfortunately the adoption of suitable reuse strategy is pretty challenging as it takes place in a multifaceted environment and, thus, incorporates aspects ranging from technical to organizational at different level of abstractions (Bauer & Vetro', 2016).

2.1.2. Challenges of Software Reuse

Although software reuse brings many benefits, it has failed to take off. Find the right third-party software component to be reused based on a well-defined specification is one of the most challenging approaches because it requires a clear-cut matching of the potential reuse candidate and the given specification. Although

there are several search tools available, most of them are still text-based and it neither reflect nor support the need to match the reuse candidates with the syntactic and semantic characteristics of a specification (Hummel & Janjic, 2013). Hummel & Janjic (2013), based on software retrieval literature, identified four problems for implementing a sustainable reuse repository.

- Repository problem (Seacord, 1999): This reuse repository should create and maintain a big enough software collection to provide promise search.
- Representation problem (Pole & Frakes, 1994): The repository should represent and index its content in a way that makes it easily accessible.
- Usability problem (Garcia et al., 2006): The repository should permit characterizing a desired component with reasonable effort and precision.
- Retrieval problem (Prieto-Díaz & Freeman, 1987): The repository should execute the queries with high precision to retrieve the desired component.

Although the two first challenges have been addressed in the last years, the last two have not been addressed completely. By the rise of open-source movement and the improvements in the Internet connectivity, software developers have got access to vast swathes of free software, thus the problem of sources of components is not problem any more. Furthermore, with the advances in database and text search technologies code-search engines have made the creation of *Internet-scale* software repositories wherefore this repository problem can be regarded as solved (Hummel & Janjic, 2013). For the second problem, clever ranking approaches such as the ranking proposed by Inoue et al. (2005) which ranks those components higher in the result list of a search that are more often used than others amongst the indexed files. Moreover, the idea of parsing source code in order to extract objects and their method introduced by Koders.com, where techniques that addressed the representation problem. However, the last two problems remain still in the focus of interest in the research community.

Beside the technical problems described above, organizational challenges and human factors have been identified as potential inhibitors to a successful implementation of reuse practices (Morisio et al., 2002). Business strategy, management commitment, and company culture are organizational factors that might affect software reuse (Standish, 1984). Moreover, technical problems are strongly related to human factors, such as cognitive efforts, program understanding, and

motivation. In the work of Bauer & Vetro' (2016) the following organizational obstacles were identified in the literature:

- Organization structure: Factors like competition, overlapping or unclear responsibilities, priority conflicts, and lack of coordination of reuse activities jeopardize the successful of reuse implementation.
- Inertia: Some organizations usually assess their managers and developers based on the success of their isolated projects, which incentives local optimization which impact reuse in a company-wide scale.
- Knowledge: If an organization plans to implement reuse practices, it needs clear position organization-wide and research into current methods and techniques for reuse.
- Measurement:
- Management: As implementing reuse practices require changes in governance strategies, it causes additional overhead that tends to be underestimated in the initial planning, which put at risk successful of reuse.
- Economic: Implementation of reusability requires investment and long-term support from management to resolve restrictive resource constraints.
- Disincentives: The quality of the reusable component candidates is one of the strongest disincentives. Moreover the criteria applied to measure developers and managers have an impact on their motivation to take part into reuse.

2.1.3. Code-search engines

Code-search engines are the heart of the new generations of reuse support tools. For example, Code Conjurer (Hummel et al., 2008) uses Merobase component search engine, CodeGenie relies on Sourcerer (Lemos et al., 2007) or ParseWeb that works over Google Code Search ¹ (Thummalapenta & Xie, 2007). Next we will describe some code search engines that are still online the time of this work.

- searchcode² searchcode is a free source code search engine. Code snippets and open source (free software) repositories are indexed and searchable.

¹Shutdown January, 15 2012 (Horowitz, 2011)

²<https://searchcode.com/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

Most information is presented in such a way that you shouldn't need to click through, but can if required.

- NerdyData³ It is a search engine for source code. It supports HTML, Javascript and CSS. With this search engine you can retrieve the web pages which are using a specific file. For example if you look up for *font-awesome.min.css* it will retrieve the sites that are using this file.
- Spars-J⁴ It is a keyword and name matching code search engine on open source XML, Java and JSPs based on component rank and keyword rank algorithm.
- ComponentSource⁵ It is a keyword-matching of component descriptions in a marketplace. Here you can find components for different platforms and technologies.
- Satsy: It is a source code search engine that implemented semantic search using input/output queries on multi-path programs with ranking. Based on survey to 30 participants, it retrieved more relevant results than Merobase (Stolee et al., 2016).
- Merobase⁶ Merobase is a component search engine that uses Lucene⁷ to index programming language units from various open source repositories (such as Sourceforge, Google Code, or the Apache projects) and the open Web. Merobase, when crawling the code, its analysis software identifies the basic abstraction implemented by a module and stores it in a language agnostic description format. This description includes the abstraction's name, methods names, parameter signatures, among others.

Although Google or Yahoo! are not specialized code search engines, they are able to return more precise results than code search engines (Hummel et al., 2007).

³<https://nerdydata.com> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

⁴<http://sel.ist.osaka-u.ac.jp/SPARS/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

⁵<https://www.componentsource.com/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

⁶<http://www.merobase.com/> - Official project deprecated, we use a local implementation

⁷Apache Lucene™ is a high-performance, full-featured text search engine library written entirely in Java. It is a technology suitable for nearly any application that requires full-text search, especially cross-platform (Foundation, 2017).

2.1.3.1. Merobase

Merobase contains special parsers for each supported programming languages (currently it supports Java, C++, and C#, also it supports WSDL files, binary Java classes from JARs and .NET binaries), which extracts syntactical information, stores it in the index and search for it later. Moreover, it contains a special parser for JUnit which is able to extract the interface of the class under test from test cases.

Every time a user make a request to Merobase, the parsers described above are invoked and try to extract as much syntactic information from the query as possible. If none of the parsers recognizes parsable code in the query, it executes a simple keyword search. Based on parsed syntactic information, Merobase supports retrieval by class and operation names, signature matching and by matching the full interface of classes described before.

When a JUnit test case is submitted, a test-driven search is triggered. In this case, Merobase automatically tries to compile, adapt and test the highest ranked candidates. If a candidate is relying on additional classes, the algorithm uses dependency information to locate them as well. It is important to point out that the actual compilation and testing are not carried out on the search server itself, but on dedicated virtual machines within sandboxes. This is due to the fact that this ensures that the executed code does not have the possibility to do anything harmful to the user's system or bring the whole testing-environment down (Hummel & Janjic, 2013).

The current implementation of Merobase, which will we used in our prototype, has been enhanced in several way since the implementation described above (Kessel & Atkinson, 2016). Many new metrics are measured on the software components, both statically and dynamically, when the test cases executed on them. Also, the semantic retrieval of components has been improved by adding a better parser for Java components which supports the creation of entire class hierarchies. With this, information about the components' class hierarchies can be retrieved and stored.

On the other hand, the current implementation is populated with software components extracted from Maven projects mainly extracted from the Maven Central

Repository⁸.

2.1.4. Component retrieval techniques

As we stated in 2.1.2, several problems of software reuse have been already addressed. Now one of the big problems is how to choose the so-called best component. In this section we will talk about the different component retrieval techniques proposed in the literature. Then we will explain further what test-driven component retrieval means.

Mili et al. (1998) divided the component retrieval techniques in six independent groups:

- Information retrieval methods: It is basically the methods of information retrieval used for retrieving candidates by applying textual analysis to software assets. This group has high recall and medium precision.
- Descriptive methods: These methods add additional textual description of assets such as keyword or facet definition, to the textual analysis. These are high precision and high recall.
- Operational semantic methods: These methods use sampling of assets to retrieve candidates. They have very high precision and high recall.
- Denotational semantic methods: These methods use signature methods for retrieving candidates. They have very high precision and high recall.
- Structural methods: These methods deal with the structure of the components to retrieve candidates. This group has very high precision and recall.
- Topological methods: This is an approach to minimize the distance between query and reusable candidates. It is difficult to estimate or define recall and precision for these methods (Mili et al., 1998).

Although Mili et al. (1998) proposed six groups, the last one relies on a *measurable* retrieval techniques so it can be considered as an approach for ranking the candidate components of a query (Hummel et al., 2007).

⁸<https://repo1.maven.org/maven2/> (accessed: 15.01.2017)

In the work Hummel et al. (2007) several retrieval techniques were compared. They compared signature matching, text-based, name-based and interface-driven. These techniques were tested using Merobase search engine. The result they obtained was that the best technique is interface-driven in terms of precision.

Another technique that was presented in Hummel & Atkinson (2004), is test-driven search. This technique uses test cases as a vehicle to retrieve the component candidates that fit better the requirements of the user. It promises to improve the precision of the searches in comparison with other techniques explained before. Below we will explain with further details how this techniques works.

2.1.4.1. Test-driven search

Simple techniques for component retrieval such as keyword-driven search or signature-driven search may lead to a tons of candidates from which just a small group might be interesting for the user, in spite of the results fulfill the search criteria. This is due to the fact that not all of them fulfill the functional properties of the desire artifact. Here is where test-driven search comes to light.

Test-driven reuse approach was first introduced in Hummel & Atkinson (2004). It is a technique that emerges as a solution to the problem of retrieving so many irrelevant component candidates due to large amount of component in a repository. Specifically this technique deals with the usability and retrieval problems we explained before. It relies on test cases written by user (step a), then it extracts the different interfaces defined in the test case (step b), then it makes the search of reuse candidate (step c). Then it runs the tests and *cleans* the result set of candidates that do not pass the tests (step d and e). Finally it shows the cleaned result set to the user (step f). This is the test-driven reuse cycle which can be seen in the figure 2.1.

An implementation of this *cycle* is Code Conjurer which can be found in (Hummel et al., 2008) and (Hummel & Janjic, 2013). This implementation is an Eclipse plugin that delivers proactively reuse recommendations by silently monitoring the user's work and triggering searches automatically whenever this seems reasonable. This tool supports interface-based searches and test-driven searches. For the latter, the tool has a background agent that monitors the required interface of the JUnit

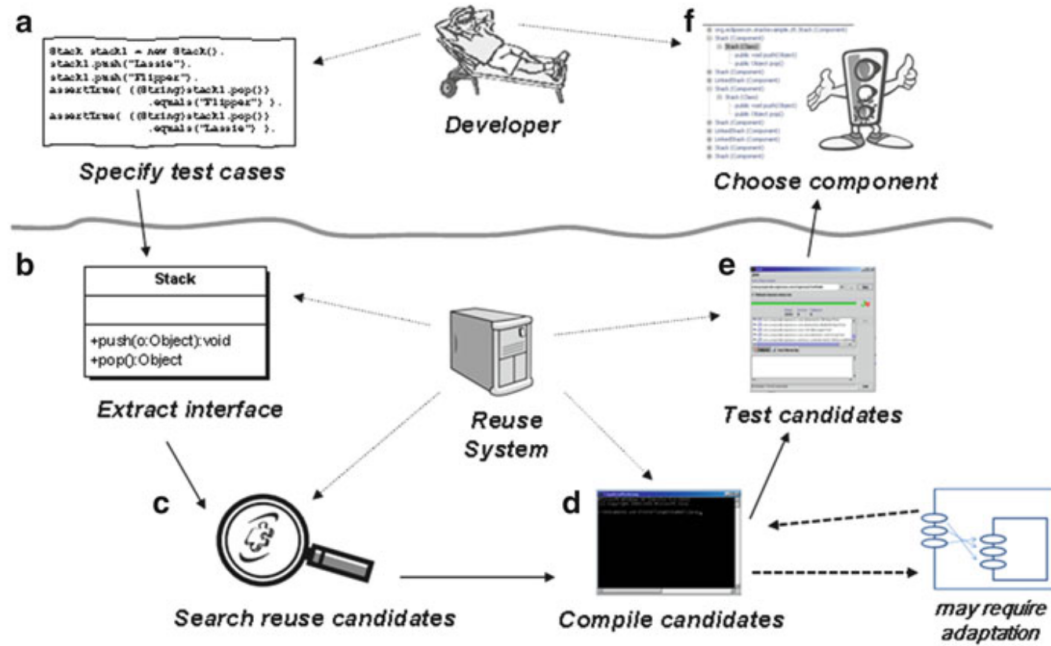


Figure 2.1.: The test-driven reuse *cycle* extracted from (Hummel & Janjic, 2013)

test case (also called, *class under test* (CUT)) written by the developer. When a change in the CUT happens, Code Conjurer sends the JUnit test to Merobase where the interfaces are extracted and used to search for results. Then the candidates retrieved are tested against the test provided and the candidates that do not pass the tests are removed. Finally the candidates are shown to the user in Eclipse.

Another tools that uses test-driven search are S6 (Reiss, 2009) and CodeGenie (Lemos et al., 2007).

This approach for searching candidates is very promising because of popularity of Agile practices and specifically of Test-Driven development (TDD) (Beck, 2003). In TDD developers writes the tests of the desired component before writing a single line of its implementation. Therefore, the chances of finding a component that can be reused instead of writing it from scratch is pretty high.

In spite of the fact that this search method retrieves more relevant resources, it needs improvement in order to be applicable for the daily work of a developer. The amount of time taken from submitting the test case till receive the results is sometimes excessive, this is due to the fact that each candidate needs to be

compiled and validated against the test case. Although this problem can be overcome by increasing the resources, it brings extra costs.

2.1.5. Ranking components

2.1.5.1. SOCORA

The ranking component approach presented in Kessel & Atkinson (2016) works as follow. First, it establishes a partial ordering of candidates using non-dominated sets determined by non-dominated sorting without assuming any preferences of the user. Depending on the priorities assigned to each selected criterion, it then subrank each non-dominated set in a recursive way until all unique priorities and their corresponding subcriteria are applied to the current level of non-dominated sets, eventually resulting in nested subrankings. Note that in each step, when (new)non-dominated sets are determined by non-dominated sorting, the ranks of sets may change according to their partial ordering. In general, partial subranking are deliberately supported since the user is not required to assign specific priorities to all his/her selected criteria. The priorities are defined by simple integer values (highest value represent more priority than a lower value) with a default priority assignment of 1 for each selected criterion. If the user wants to assign a higher or lower priority to a selected criterion, he/she may increase or decrease the priority by 1 or even a larger number. Both unique and equal priority values may be assigned to selected criteria to establish either a partial or strict ordering. For each priority value, all corresponding criteria are selected to subrank each non-dominated set of non-distinguishable candidates. This process starts with the highest priority value and continues in descending order until the smallest priority value is reached (Kessel & Atkinson, 2016). The figure 2.2 is a schematic illustration of how the component ranking works.

2.1.5.1.1 Merobase integration

The prototype of the ranking component approach is integrated with the component search engine Merobase to retrieve the candidates. The figure 2.3 shows how SOCORA⁹ is integrated with Merobase.

⁹SOCORA prototype <http://socora.merobase.com> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

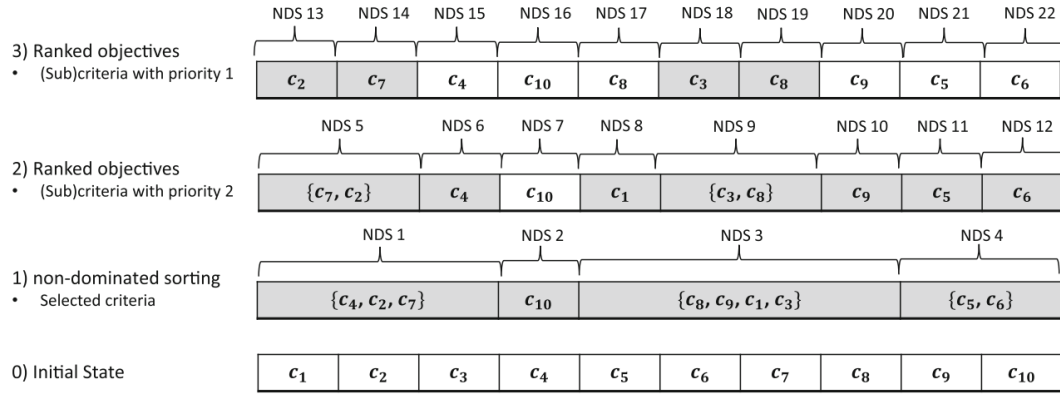


Figure 2.2.: Schematic illustration of SOCORA ranking approach (Kessel & Atkinson, 2016)

In the first step the user's functional requirements are described as a JUnit test specification using a HTML5 web-based GUI. Here the user can specify a set of non-functional *quality* criteria that he/she thinks to be important for his/her needs, also he/she optionally can provide relative priorities to partially order them. In the second step, the interface signatures in the JUnit test are extracted and a text-based search is performed in order to find suitable components. In the step 3, the result set of component from the second step are filtered by applying the JUnit test in turn, and those that do not match the filtering criteria are removed. Also, during the compilation and execution of the test, the metric selected by the user are evaluated. In the step 4, the information from the last step is used by the ranking algorithm to order the remaining components in the result set. In the step 5 the remaining components in the result set are displayed to the user. In the last step, the user can further analyze the component candidates by exploring the effects of different partial ordering (step 6a), explore different criteria (step 6b), and can group them in different way to shrink the result set (step 6c).

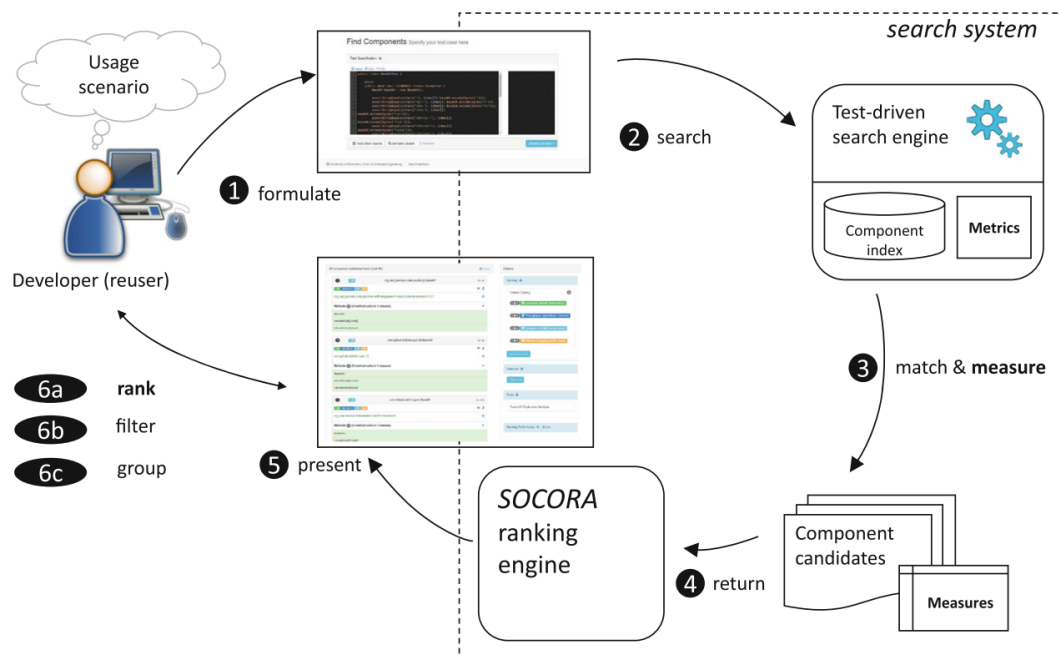


Figure 2.3.: SOCORA and Merobase integration (extracted from (Kessel & Atkinson, 2016))

2.2. Continuous Integration

In this chapter we will explain what Continuous Integration (CI) means, we will describe the process steps, its benefits and challenges. Finally we will explain how CI can be leveraged in order to improve Software Reuse.

2.2.1. What is Continuous Integration?

The term can be found in the context of micro-processes development in the work of Booch et al. (2007). Then it was adopted by Kent Beck in his definition of Extreme Programming (Beck, 1999). However, it was Martin Fowler who was credited with establishing the current definitions of the practices. Fowler defines CI as following:

CI is a software development practice where members of a team integrate their work frequently, usually each person integrates at least daily, thus leading to multiple integrations per day. Each integration is verified by an automates build (including test) to detect integration errors as quickly as possible. Many teams has found that this approach leads to significantly reduced integration problems and allows a team to develop cohesive software more rapid(Fowler, 2006).

Continuous Integration emerges as a solution for the painful moment of software integration. Although the process of integrating software is not a problem for a one-person project, when it increases in complexity it becomes more problematic. For example, in the old days, a software was divided in modules and each of them were developed independently, once they done, those modules were put together in one step at the end of the project. Doing that led to all sorts of software quality problems, which are costly and often lead to project delays (Duvall et al., 2007).

This step of module integration was a tense moment as errors and failures appeared and they were difficult to find and fix at that stage of the development. In this manner, instead of waiting till the end of modules development to integrate, CI proposes to integrate frequently, usually one person should integrate at least once a day.

Therefore we can break up the CI workflow in the following steps (Fowler, 2006):

CI Workflow:

- Developers check out code into their private workspaces
- When done, commit the changes to the repository
- The CI server monitors the repository and checks out changes when they occur.
- The CI server builds the system and runs unit and integration tests.
- The CI server releases deployable artifacts for testing.
- The CI server assigns a build label to the version of the code it just built.
- The CI server informs the team of the outcome of the build.
- In case the build or test failed, the team fixes the issue at the earliest opportunity.
- Continue to continually integrate and test throughout the project.

This uncomplicated workflow helps the development team to focus on the current code change till it is verified and validated. Moreover, it provides continuous feedback on the quality of the code.

2.2.1.1. CI Tools

Although the CI is tool agnostic, the selection of them depends on the project, framework in use, skill-set of the stakeholders and other factors. There are however two must-have tools of any CI system: (1) the version control system (VCS) and (2) the CI server.

The most popular VCS are Git, Mercurial and SVN. On top of them, we can find Version Control Platforms (VCP) such as Github, Gitlab or Bitbucket. In terms of CI servers, we can find Jenkins, Hudson, GoCD as open source projects; TravisCI, CircleCI, CodeShip and Team City as commercial tools.

Therefore choosing the appropriate tools is about finding the balance between price, setup, configuration efforts, ease-of-use, integration capabilities between the selected tools, framework suitability and maintainability in respect to current code base.

2.2.1.1.1 Git

Within the several different VCSs available, Git is one of the most popular¹⁰. Git emerges in 2005 as an alternative to BitKeeper¹¹ after the break of the relationship between the commercial company behind BitKeeper and the community that developed the Linux kernel (Chacon, 2009).

The main difference between Git and the other VCSs is the way it thinks about its data. Other VCSs such as Subversion, CVS, Perforce, and so on, think of the information they keep as a set of files and the changes made to each file over time. On the other hand, Git thinks its data like a set of snapshots of a miniature file system. Therefore, every time a user commits, or save the state of the project, Git basically takes a picture of what all the files look like at that moment and store a reference to that snapshot. In addition, Git has three main states where the files can reside in: committed, modified, and staged. Committed means that the data is stored in the local database. Modified means that the file was modified but it has not been committed yet. And staged means that the modified file has been marked to go into the next commit (Chacon, 2009). The figure 2.4 depicts these three states.

The git directory is the core of Git as it is where the metadata and object database for a project is stored. The working directory is a single checkout of one version of the project. Finally, the staging area is a file which is generally stored in the Git directory. This file contains information about what will go into the next commit.

2.2.1.1.2 Github

Github¹² is a web-based Git repository hosting service, which offers all the functionality of Git and its own features. It provides several collaboration tools such as wikis, bug tracking, feature requests, and task management as well as access control. Its development started in 2007 as a side project of P. J. Hyett and Chris Wanstrath (Weis, 2014) and it was officially lunch on the 10th of April in 2008.

¹⁰<https://rhodecode.com/insights/version-control-systems-2016> (accessed: 14.01.2017)

¹¹<https://www.bitkeeper.com/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

¹²<https://github.com/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

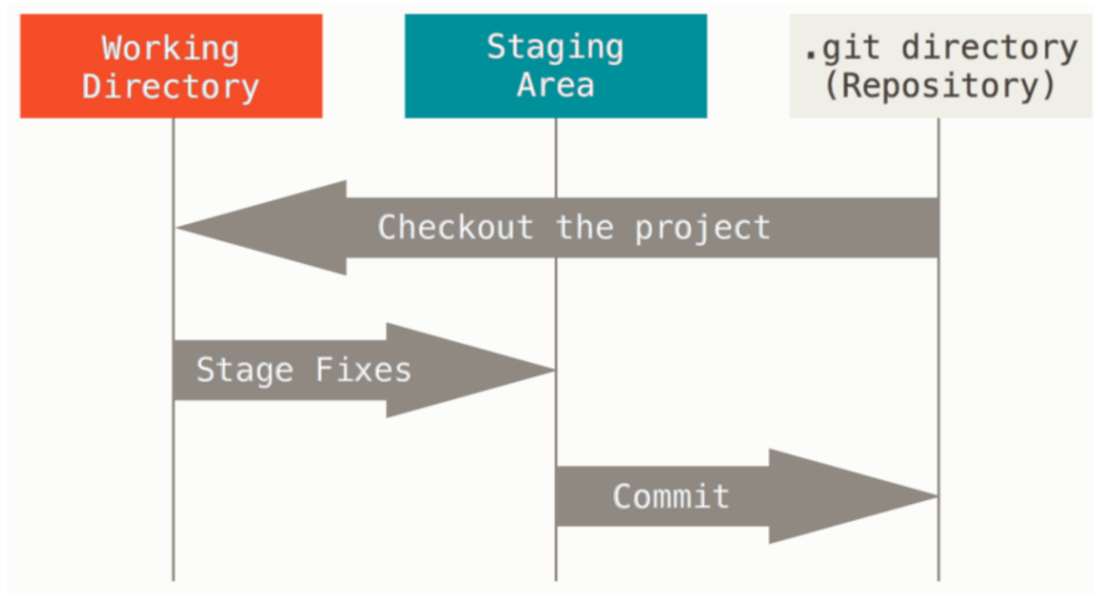


Figure 2.4.: The three main states of Git (Chacon, 2009)

Since then, Github has gain popularity through the community reaching more than 50 million projects hosted nowadays.

2.2.1.1.3 Jenkins

Jenkins is an open source automation server developed in Java. It was originally founded in 2006 as *Hudson*, however a disputed with Oracle the community behind Hudson decided to change the project name to Jenkins¹³.

Jenkins enables developers to reliable build, test, and deploy their software. Its extensible and plugin-based architecture has permitted to create a tons of plugins to adapt the CI server to a multitude of build, test, and deployment automation workloads. In 2015, Jenkins surpassed 100.000 known installation making it the most widely deployed automation server¹⁴.

2.2.2. Benefits in adopting CI/CD

Several are the benefits that come with the adoption of Continuous Integration in a software project. In this section we will describe five areas that are improved

¹³<http://archive.is/fl45> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

¹⁴<https://jenkins.io/press/> (accessed: 13.01.2017)

after CI implementation (Rejström, 2016). It is important to point out that these benefits come along with other practices such as agile transformation (Laanti et al., 2011) and lean software development (Poppendieck & Poppendieck, 2003).

- **Shorter time-to-market:** Many benefits come with the adoption of frequent releases. With fast and frequent releases is possible to get feedback quickly from customer and market, thus the organization gets better understanding of their needs expectations (Neely & Stolt, 2013). With that is possible to focus on the most relevant features. Another benefit of delivering frequently is waste reduction as features can be deployed as soon as they are done (Leppanen et al., 2015). Furthermore, with frequent releases is possible to experiment with new features easily and with low impact (Neely & Stolt, 2013).
- **Rapid feedback:** With frequent releases is possible to show progress to customers and by that get feedback quickly. With that the development team can focus on important features instead of waste time in features that are not relevant for the customers or the market.
- **Improved software quality:** Researches have reported a decreased in the number of open bugs and production incidents after adopting CI practices (Mäntylä et al., 2015) and the link between software quality improvement and the heavy reliance on automated test combined with smaller more manageable releases (Leppanen et al., 2015).
- **Improved release reliability:** In the work of Neely & Stolt (2013) was proved that a working deployment pipeline along with intensive automated testing and fast rollback mechanism positively affects release reliability and quality. With small and frequent releases fewer things can go wrong in a release according to Fowler (2013). In fact, reduction in the stress of developers and other stakeholder have been found by adopting CI (Neely & Stolt, 2013) (Chen, 2015).
- **Improved developer productivity:** By automating deployment process, environment configuration and other non-value adding tasks, significant time saving for developers have been observed (Rodríguez et al., 2016). Also, in the work of Humble & Farley (2010) was observed that although the setup cost of a deployment pipeline can be high, after it is setup developers can

focus on value adding software development works.

2.2.3. Challenges in adopting CI/CD

Adopting CI can be very beneficial for a software project as described above, however we can face some challenges that can jeopardize the successful implementation of it. According to the literature, there are seven common challenges in the implementation of a CI:

- **Change resistance:** Transforming the development of a project towards continuous integration practices requires investment and involvement from the entire organization (Rodríguez et al., 2016). Therefore any transformation in how an organization works, will receive a resistance on both a personal level and decision level within the organization.
- **External constraint:** As a software project is part of a context, external constraint may appear. Normally customer preferences and domain imposed restrictions are sources of constraints. For example in highly restricted domains, legal regulations may require extensive testing before new version can be allowed to enter production (Rodríguez et al., 2016).
- **QA effort:** The automated tests suit needs to be exhaustive enough in order to ensure the quality of what is being built. Thus it can lead to increase QA efforts due to difficulties in managing the test automation infrastructure (Rodríguez et al., 2016).
- **Legacy code:** Normally legacy software has not been design for being automatically tested and may cause integration failures which may inhibit the continuous deployment process. The ownership of legacy code might belong to another company or team which shift the testing responsibility and this might delay the deployment process.
- **Complex software:** If the complex if the software project is high, then setting up the CI workflow is more challenging (Leppanen et al., 2015).
- **Environment management:** Keeping all the environments used in development, testing and production sync and similar can be challenging. This is due to the fact that differences in the environment configuration can lead to undetected issues appear in production. Therefore is essential to have

a good configuration management that provisions environments automatically (Leppanen et al., 2015).

- Manual testing: Although automated tests are very beneficial, some aspects of software need to be manually tested such as security issues, performance and UX/UI. Therefore heavy manual testing can impact the overall speed and smoothness of the process (Leppanen et al., 2015).

2.2.4. Successful CI practices

In order to reduce the risks in adopting CI practices, eight principles, based on several literature reviews, were defined in (Rejström, 2016) which should guide the CI implementation within organizations. These principles are generic solutions which can be adapted in most cases.

- Automate the build: The task that triggers the whole pipeline is the commit. After each commit, the next step should be build the binaries. The executable that result of the build, should go through the pipeline until it gets validated, verified and deployment ready.
- Make your build self-testing:
- Every commit should build on an integration machine
- Keep the build fast
- Keep the build green
- Test in a clone of the production environment
- Everyone can see what is happening
- Automate deployment

These 8 principles should guide the CI/CD implementation within organizations. The principles have been established as best practices through the validation of these concepts through several literature reviews [Rodríguez et al. (2016); Mäntylä et al. (2015); Ståhl & Bosch (2014)]. They can be viewed almost as a design pattern for adopting CI/CD, offering a generic solution adaptable to most cases.

2.3. Microservices

Microservices is a software architecture is usually linked to Martin Fowler in its article (Fowler & Lewis, 2014). It is an architectural styles that aim to develop applications as a suite of small services independently of each other. Each of this services runs in its process and they communicate with lightweight mechanisms (e.g. HTTP resource API). These services are built around business capabilities and independently deployed by fully automated deployment machinery. Also there is a bare minimum of centralized management of these services, which may be written in different programming languages and use different data storage technologies (Fowler & Lewis, 2014).

This architectural style emerges as a solution to the monolithic style due to its problems. An application built using monolithic architectural style is considered as a single unit with normally three main parts (figure ??): a client-side user interface (i.e. HTML, CSS, JavaScript running on user's machine), a database and a server-side application. The latter is a monolith as it handles HTTP request, execute domain logic, retrieve and update data from the database, and populates and/or select the HTML views sent to the client-side. As it is a single logical executable, any changes made in the system, no matter the size of it, require a build and a deploy of the whole server-side application. It is hard to keep a good modular structure, making it harder to keep changes that must affect one module within that module. Also it is hard to scale as it is necessary to scale the entire application rather than parts of it requiring greater resources. These problems are causing frustrations on people that are using this style, specially nowadays when applications are deployed to the cloud, leading to the microservices architectural style.

2.3.1. Characteristics of a Microservice Architecture

In the work of Fowler and Lewis (Fowler & Lewis, 2014) described a list of common characteristic of applications built using microservice architectural style. It is important to point out that all the applications using this style must confirm every characteristic of this list.

Componentization via Services

First of all it is important to explain the differences between libraries and services as the primary way of componentizing is by breaking down software into services. On the one hand libraries are components that are linked into an application and called using in-memory function calls. On the other hand services are out-of-process components which communicate with a mechanism such as a web service request, or remote procedure call (Fowler & Lewis, 2014).

Splitting a software into services brings benefits such as services as components are independently deployable making it easy for changes, or services have more explicit component interfaces by using explicit remote call mechanisms.

Organized around Business Capabilities

Normally in monolithic applications the development teams are divided by technology layers such as front-end team, server-side team and database team. However when teams are divided in this way, even simple changes can lead to a cross-team project taking time and budgetary approval.

In the Microservices approach this is taken in a different way by dividing the application into services organized around business capability. Thus services involve all needed for that business area, including user-interface (UI), database, business logic, and any other external collaboration. Therefore each team is cross-functional, including the full range of skills required for the development of it.

Products not Projects

Usually software development follows a project model where the objective is to deliver some piece of software which, when it is done, is delivered to a maintenance team and the development team is disbanded.

Microservices approach follows the product model instead of project model. In the product model the development team takes full responsibility of the software, in other words it owns the product. This results in day-to-day contact of the developers with the users as they have to take on at least some of the support. Moreover this mentality ties in with the linkage to business capabilities as the focus is on how the software can assist its users

to enhance the capabilities instead on put the focus on a list of functionality.

Smart endpoints and dumb pipes

Microservices

Decentralized Governance

Decentralized Data Management

Infrastructure automation

Design for failure

Evolutionary design

3. Usage Scenario

Before explaining the approach we will propose in the next chapter, we will explain a scenario that illustrates the opportunity found that motivated our approach to improve software reuse leveraging continuous integration. The following scenario is based on the usage scenario found in Kessel & Atkinson (2016).

Envisage the following scenario in which a development team is working or has code ownership of a web service application, and recognizes that she/he requires the ability to encode and decode information in the common Base64 format (e.g., the Base64 variant used in MIME transfer encoding (Freed & Borenstein, 1996)). Also this team has adopted continuous integration, thus every member of the team is committing code at least once a day and the code committed is tested before it is accepted by the VCS. We will assume that the team is using Git as VCS, Jenkins as CI server, Java as main language and that the team has adopted TDD.

From this simple scenario emerge the following questions:

How might the team realize that what they are working on has not been developed already?

If we follow the example, the implementation of encode and decode in Base64 is very easy to find, however that does not mean that the team knows that at the moment they are developing. Therefore it would be very useful that an automatic tool analyzes the code and extracts the method signature so it would be able to make a code search for similar methods.

How might we seize continuous integration in order to improve software reuse?

Continuous integration seems to be a very good opportunity for software reuse. According to CI workflow explained in 2.2.1 every change made in the code should be committed and pushed to the VCS. This pushed code is tested by the CI server and accepted if it passes all the tests otherwise it

is rejected. This is a good chance to extract method signatures and make the code search named previously.

Would TDD be helpful?

According to TDD process before implementing a method a failure test should be implemented before. If we assume that and that every code change is committed and pushed to the VCS, we could also extract the test classes to search for similar components.

4. Simile

In this work we present Simile, which is a tool that leverages the Continuous Integration process in order to recommend similar components that are being developed in a software project. Following the usage scenario explained previously in section 3, we will describe how our approach works:

Once a member of the team makes a commit and pushes to the remote Git server, our tool will be triggered by Jenkins. This tool will receive the repository URL where the project is being stored. Then it will clone the repository locally and will go through the source code in order to extract the different class names, method signatures and test classes of the source code. Once done it will make requests to SOCORA using the information extracted. SOCORA will respond with all the components that are similar to the components extracted from the project. Simile will get this response and it will generate a report listing all the similar components to the components that are being developed by the team. This report will be sent by email to the members of team so they will know if there is already a component that can be reused instead of developing it from scratch. Figure ?? describes the process of our approach.

The main objective of Simile is to help the team to find similar components so they would be able to reuse them. Thus they would reduce time development and costs through reuse components that are already tested and ready to work.

4.1. CI integration

Our prototype leverages the Continuous Integration process to improve the chances of component reuse. Whenever

4.2. SOCORA Integration

5. Summary, Conclusions, and Further Work

The purpose of this book is to understand the influence of representations on the performance of genetic and evolutionary algorithms. This chapter summarizes the work contained in this study and lists its major contributions.

5.1. Summary

This is the final section 5.1. We started in Chap. ?? by providing the necessary background for examining representations for GEAs. Researchers recognized early that representations have a large influence on the performance of GEAs. Consequently, after a brief introduction into representations and GEAs, we discussed how the influence of representations on problem difficulty can be measured. The chapter ended with prior guidelines for choosing high-quality representations. Most of them are mainly based on empirical observations and intuition and not on theoretical analysis.

Therefore, we presented in Chap. ?? three aspects of a theory of representations for GEAs. We investigated how the locality, scaling, and locality of an encoding influences GEA performance. The performance of GEAs is determined by the solution quality at the end of a run and the number of generations until the population is converged. Consequently, for redundant and exponentially scaled encodings, we presented population sizing models and described how the time to convergence is changed. Furthermore, we were able to demonstrate that high-locality encodings do not change the difficulty of a problem; in contrast, when using low-locality encodings, on average, the difficulty of problems changes. Therefore, easy problems become more difficult and difficult problems become easier by the use of low-locality encodings. For all three properties of encodings, the theoretical models were verified with empirical results.

5.2. Conclusions

We summarize the most important contributions of this work.

Framework for design and analysis of representations (and operators) for GEAs. The main purpose of this study was to present a framework which describes how genetic representations influence the performance of GEAs. The performance of GEAs is measured by the solution quality at the end of the run and the number of generations until the population is converged. The proposed framework allows us to analyze the influence of existing representations on GEA performance and to develop efficient new representations in a theory-guided way. Furthermore, we illustrated that the framework can also be used for the design and analysis of search operators, which are relevant for direct encodings. Based on the framework, the development of high-quality representations remains not only a matter of intuition and random search but becomes an engineering design task. Even though more work is needed, we believe that the results presented are sufficiently compelling to recommend increased use of the framework.

Redundancy, Scaling, and Locality. These are the three elements of the proposed framework of representations. We demonstrated that these three properties of representations influence GEA performance and presented theoretical models to predict how solution quality and time to convergence changes. By examining the redundancy, scaling, and locality of an encoding, we are able to predict the influence of representations on GEA performance.

The theoretical analysis shows that the redundancy of an encoding influences the supply of building blocks (BB) in the initial population. r denotes the number of genotypic BBs that represent the best phenotypic BB, and k_r denotes the order of redundancy. For synonymously redundant encodings, where all genotypes that represent the same phenotype are similar to each other, the probability of GEA failure goes either with $O(\exp(-r/2^{k_r}))$ (uniformly scaled representations) or with $O(\exp(-\sqrt{r/2^{k_r}}))$ (exponentially scaled representations). Therefore, GEA performance increases if the representation overrepresents high-quality BBs. If a representation is uniformly redundant, that means each phenotype is represented by the same number of genotypes, GEA performance remains unchanged in comparison to non-redundant encodings.

The analysis of the scaling of an encoding reveals that non-uniformly scaled representations modify the dynamics of genetic search. If exponentially scaled representations are used, the alleles are solved serially which increases the overall time until convergence and results in problems with genetic drift but allows rough approximations of the expected optimal solution after a few generations.

We know from previous work that the high locality of an encoding is a necessary condition for efficient mutation-based search. An encoding has high locality if neighboring phenotypes correspond to neighboring genotypes. Investigating the influence of locality shows that high-locality encodings do not change the difficulty of a problem. In contrast, low-locality encodings, where phenotypic neighbors do not correspond to genotypic neighbors, change problem difficulty and make, on average, easy problems more difficult and deceptive problems easier. Therefore, to assure that an easy problem remains easy, high-locality representations are necessary.

5.3. Further Work

What are the open questions? What should be done next?

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Appendix

A. Installation of Simile

In this chapter we will show how to install the tools we used for implementing Simile. First we will start installing the CI Server Jenkins and explain how to configure it. Then, we will continue with installing Simile Jenkins plugin. After that we will explain how to configure Simile Jenkins plugin using the test project.

A.1. Installation of Jenkins

In this section we will explain how to install Jenkins CI server using Docker.

A.1.1. Docker

For installing Jenkins, we will use Docker containers and in this subsection we will explain how to install it in different platform such as macOS and Linux.

A.1.1.1. Docker on macOS

For macOS we will use Docker for Mac tool. This is an integrated, easy-to-deploy environment for building, assembling, and shipping applications from a Mac. Moreover, it is a native Mac application architected from scratch, with a native user interface and auto-update capability, deeply integrated with OS X native virtualization, Hypervisor Framework, networking and file system, making it faster and more reliable than previous ways of getting Docker on a Mac (Inc., 2017).

First we will download the tool from the following link: <https://download.docker.com/mac/stable/Docker.dmg>.

After downloading the *dmg* image, double-click on it and you will see something like figure A.1. When you get that image, drag and drop the Docker icon to the

Applications folder. After that, go to Applications folder and double click on Docker application.

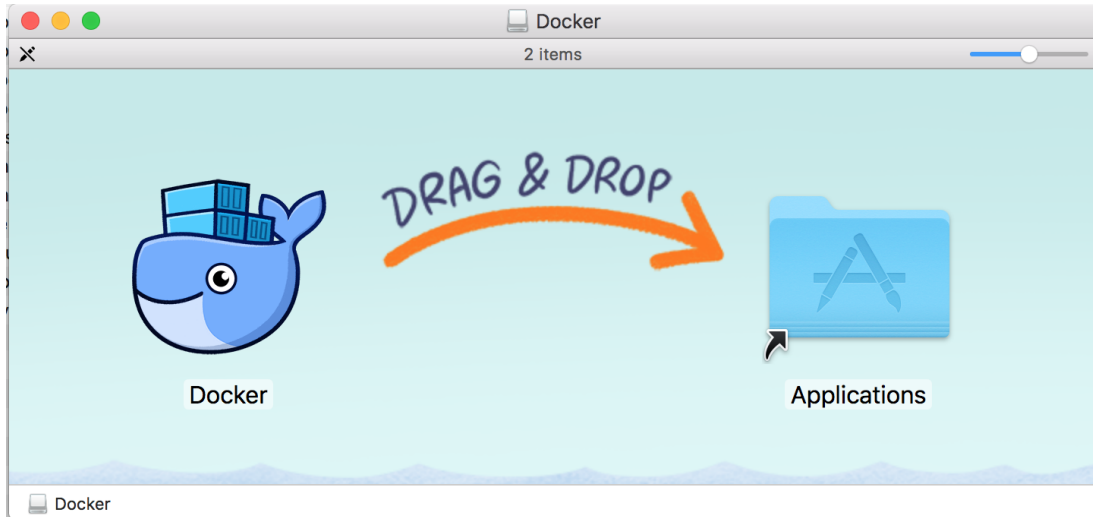


Figure A.1.: Docker for Mac installation

A.1.1.2. Docker on Linux

In this section we will explain how to install Docker in Linux, specifically in Debian (Jessie). For other distros please refer to Docker documentation¹.

First of all we need to update the repositories.

```
1 $ sudo apt-get update
```

Then we need to install the packages to allow *apt* to use repositories over HTTPS.

```
1 $ sudo apt-get install apt-transport-https \  
2                             ca-certificates \  
3                             software-properties-common
```

Then we add the official Docker's GPG key.

¹<https://docs.docker.com/engine/installation/linux/> (accessed: 21.01.2017)

```
1 $ curl -fsSL https://yum.dockerproject.org/gpg | sudo apt-key add -
```

Finally we add the stable repository of Docker and update repositories.

```
1 $ sudo add-apt-repository \  
2     "deb https://apt.dockerproject.org/repo/ \  
3     debian-$(lsb_release -cs) \  
4     main"\  
5 $ sudo apt-get update
```

Once we added the new repositories, we update the repository list.

```
1 $ sudo apt-get update
```

Then we install docker.

```
1 $ sudo apt-get -y install docker-engine
```

After the installation is done we can make a little test to be sure that everything was installed correctly. The following command will download a test image and runs it in a container. Once it is running will print an informational message and exits.

```
1 $ sudo docker run hello-world
```

A.1.2. Jenkins in Docker

Open a terminal on your mac and enter the following command to download the Jenkins image for Docker.

```
1 $ docker pull jenkins  
2     Using default tag: latest
```

```
3 latest: Pulling from library/jenkins
4
5 # some irrelevant output was remove
6 Digest: sha256:5046434030be395ec977c98e11...
7 Status: Downloaded newer image for jenkins:latest
```

Then, we just need to run the Jenkins image with the following command.

```
1 $ docker run -p 8080:8080 -p 50000:50000 jenkins
2 # some irrelevant output was remove
3 *****
4
5 Jenkins initial setup is required. An adminuser has been
6 created and a password generated.
7 Please use the following password to proceed to installation:
8
9 95199411f1894bfa97e937147c41aa62 # IMPORTANT, default admin pass
10
11 This may also be found at: /var/jenkins_home/secrets/initial.
12
13 *****
14 # some irrelevant output was removed
15 Jan 19, 2017 8:28:05 AM hudson.model.AsyncPeriodicWork$1 run
16 INFO: Finished Download metadata. 25,312 ms
```

After that, open the following URL <http://localhost:8080> and you should see some like figure A.2.

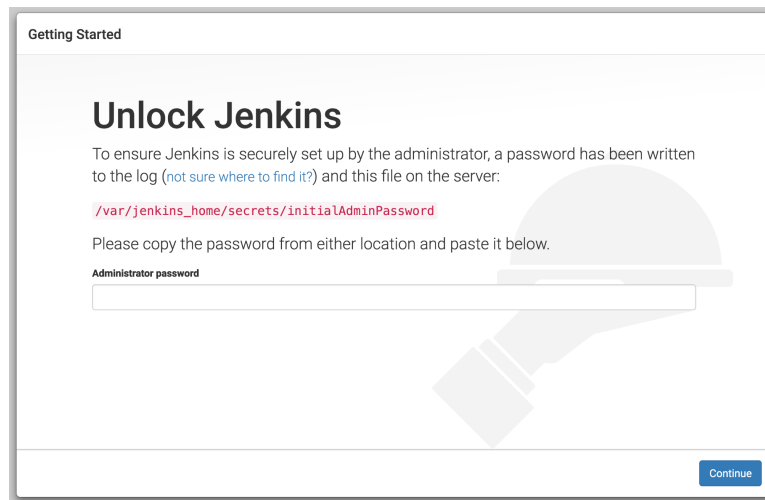


Figure A.2.: First page of Jenkins setup

There enter the password generated by Jenkins and that appeared in the logs, and then click on continue.

In the following page click on *Install suggested plugins* like the figure A.3.

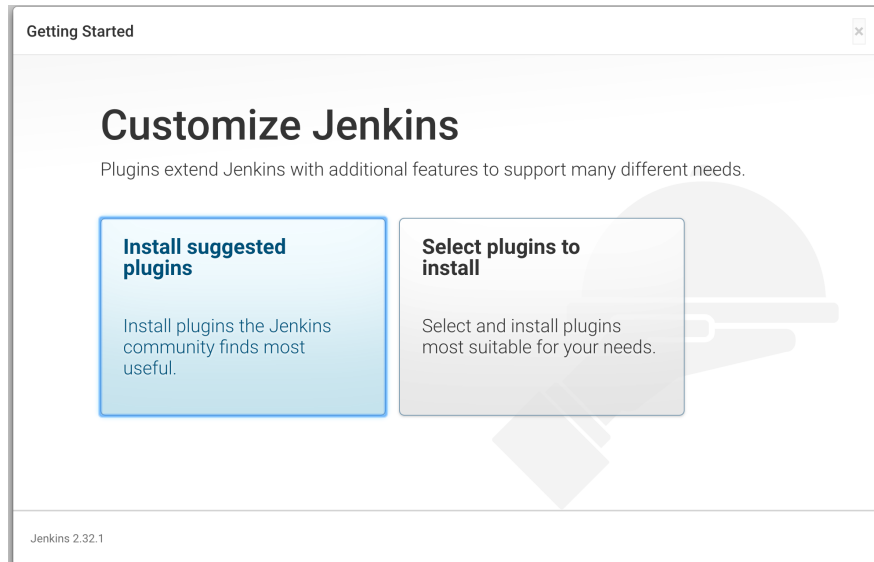


Figure A.3.: Second page of Jenkins setup

Then you should see something like the figure A.4. Here we just need to wait until the plugins installation finish.

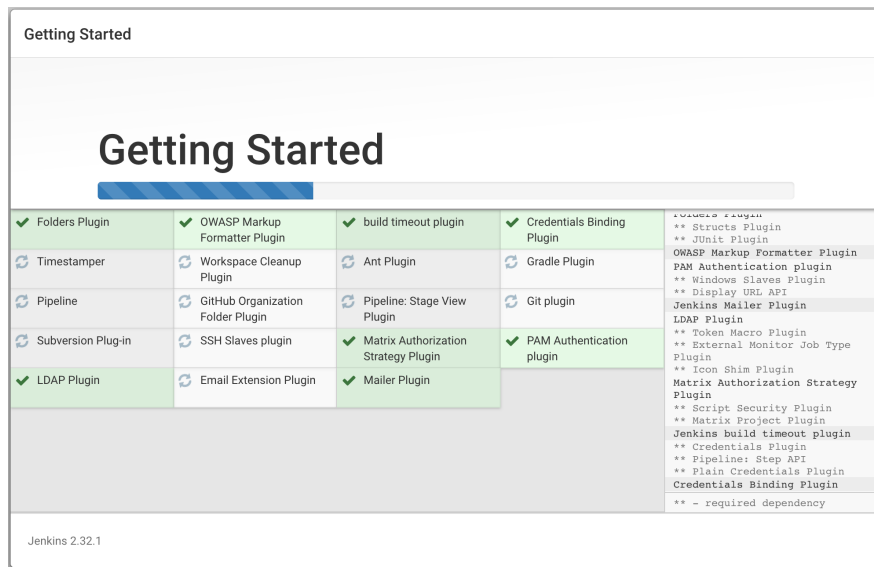


Figure A.4.: Third page of Jenkins setup

After the installation of plugins is done, click on *Continue as admin* or create custom admin user. Then you should see the home page of Jenkins (figure)

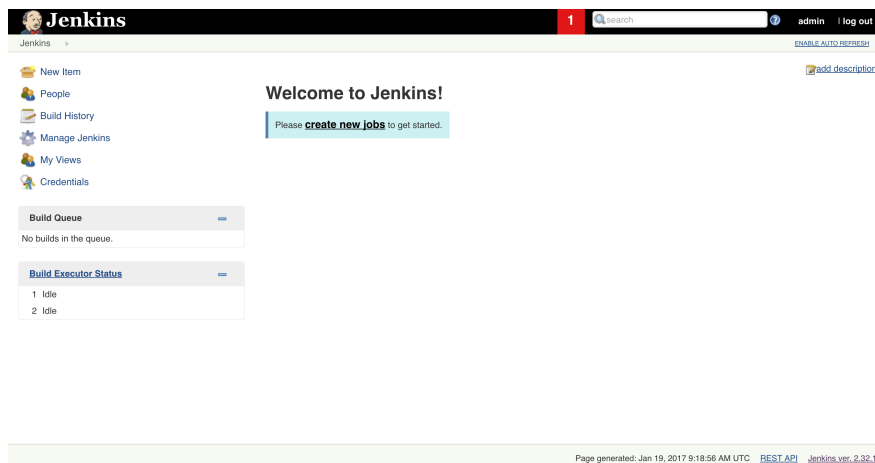


Figure A.5.: Jenkins home page

A.2. Simile Jenkins Plugin installation

To install Simile Jenkins plugin, we need to follow the following steps.

First, open Jenkins URL. Then click on *Manage Jenkins* (figure A.6).

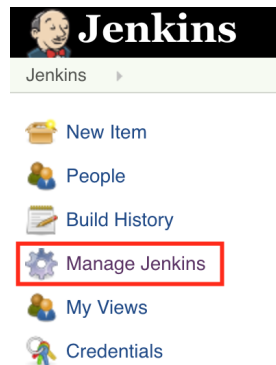


Figure A.6.: Manage Jenkins option

Then click on *Manage Plugins* (figure A.7).

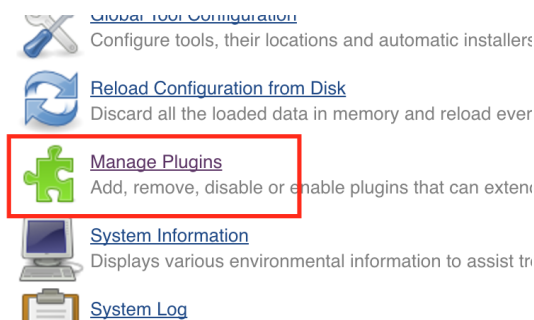


Figure A.7.: Manage Plugins option

Then go to *Advanced*, scroll down until *Upload Plugin* section (figure A.8).

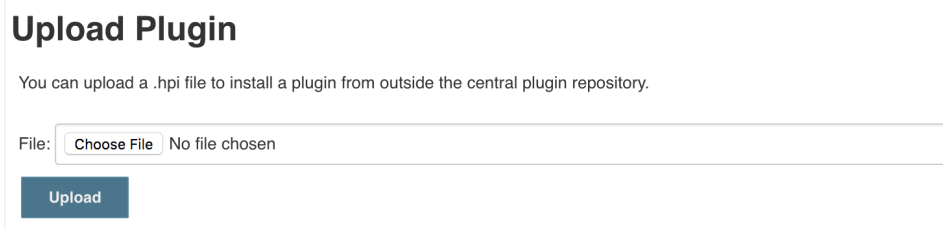


Figure A.8.: Upload Plugin section

There click on choose file and select the hpi file *simile-jenkins-plugin.hpi* provided with the CD.

Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Hiermit versichere ich, dass diese Abschlussarbeit von mir persönlich verfasst ist und dass ich keinerlei fremde Hilfe in Anspruch genommen habe. Ebenso versichere ich, dass diese Arbeit oder Teile daraus weder von mir selbst noch von anderen als Leistungsnachweise andernorts eingereicht wurden. Wörtliche oder sinngemäße Übernahmen aus anderen Schriften und Veröffentlichungen in gedruckter oder elektronischer Form sind gekennzeichnet. Sämtliche Sekundärliteratur und sonstige Quellen sind nachgewiesen und in der Bibliographie aufgeführt. Das Gleiche gilt für graphische Darstellungen und Bilder sowie für alle Internet-Quellen.

Ich bin ferner damit einverstanden, dass meine Arbeit zum Zwecke eines Plagiatsabgleichs in elektronischer Form anonymisiert versendet und gespeichert werden kann. Mir ist bekannt, dass von der Korrektur der Arbeit abgesehen werden kann, wenn die Erklärung nicht erteilt wird.

Ort, den Datum

Martin Mustermann