

Course "Empirical Evaluation in Informatics"

The Scientific Method

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- Science and insight
- Informatics on the landscape of sciences
- The scientific method
- Variables, hypotheses, control
- Internal and external validity
- Validity, credibility, and relevance

"Empirische Bewertung in der Informatik"

Die wissenschaftliche Methode

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- Wissenschaft und Erkenntnismethoden
- Einordnung der Informatik
- Die wissenschaftliche Methode
- Variablen, Hypothesen, Kontrolle
- Interne und externe Gültigkeit
- Gültigkeit, Glaubwürdigkeit und Relevanz

Our goal

- In empirical evaluation, we have given a certain artifact or situation, e.g.
 - - a new (or old) design method or
 - - a new kind of hard disk, etc.
- and want to obtain an understanding of it often with respect to specific attributes, e.g.
 - - the effort for accommodating later requirements changes
 - - or the bandwidth and latency of data transfer to/from the disk or qualitatively, e.g.
 - - the process structure when introducing requirements changes
 - - how the disk fails when it dies

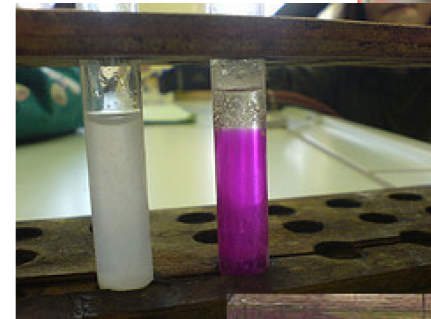
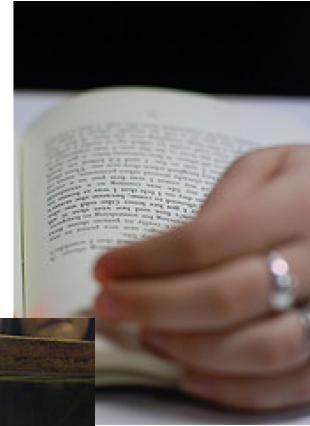


- There are different ways how people obtain understanding
 - by intuition (direct insight)
 - from some authority (tradition, teacher, book etc.)
 - by rational thought (reasoning, deduction)
 - by direct observation combined with induction
 - via the scientific method
- Each method *may* produce valid understanding
- No method can make *totally* sure that the understanding is valid
 - but the scientific method comes closest
 - and, just as important, has the best chance of convincing other people to accept the same understanding



The landscape of knowledge and science

- The arts
 - "Geisteswissenschaften"
 - Special case: Pure Mathematics
 - pure logic: principles of deduction are fixed, anything else is arbitrary
- The (natural) sciences
 - "Naturwissenschaften"
 - examines characteristics and behavior of the real world
 - Special case: the social sciences
 - "Sozialwissenschaften"
 - examines human behavior
- Engineering
 - "Ingenieurwissenschaften"
 - solves practical problems; interested in usefulness and cost



T, C, E: Theory, Construction, Empiricism

- Mathematics
 - Mostly T
 - Auxiliary C and E have entered recently (computational math.)
- The (natural) sciences
 - T and E fertilize each other
 - Construction is purely auxiliary
- The social sciences
 - E drives T
 - Construction is usually only auxiliary
- Engineering
 - T, C, and E fertilize each other
 - Some T comes from the natural sciences
 - Construction is the goal

- Informatics has its roots in
 - Mathematics: logic, formal languages
 - Engineering: constructing computers
- Today, the larger part is clearly engineering
 - (In this course, we look at this part only)
- However, the engineering is not purely technical:
 - The artifacts have to be used by people
 - and building them involves people, too
 - Brings psychology, sociology, and politics into play
- Hence, Informatics needs a lot of empiricism

- Historically, all of science was philosophy
 - at least in the western culture
 - Greek philosophers
- and much of that was mathematics
- The notion that nature could be understood by pure thought (rationalism) was prevalent in the middle ages
- The idea that observation and experimentation was necessary to understand the world began to get accepted during the renaissance

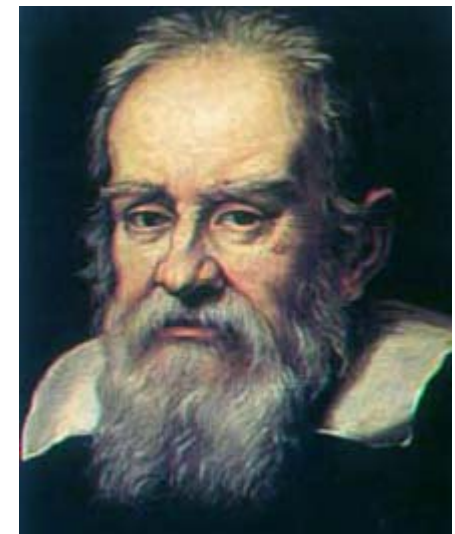
- Some of the earliest modern empiricists were the astronomers Kopernikus, Kepler, Brahe, and Galilei
 - around 1500–1600
- One of the first modern experimental scientists was Galileo Galilei
 - At the time, it was generally accepted that heavy objects fell down faster than lighter ones
 - as claimed by Aristotle (384–322 BC)
 - Galilei did not believe this and experimented with brass spheres, inclined planes, and water clocks (1589–1604)
 - He systematically varied the weight of the ball and the steepness of the plane and found weight-independent acceleration
 - These were controlled experiments



Kopernikus

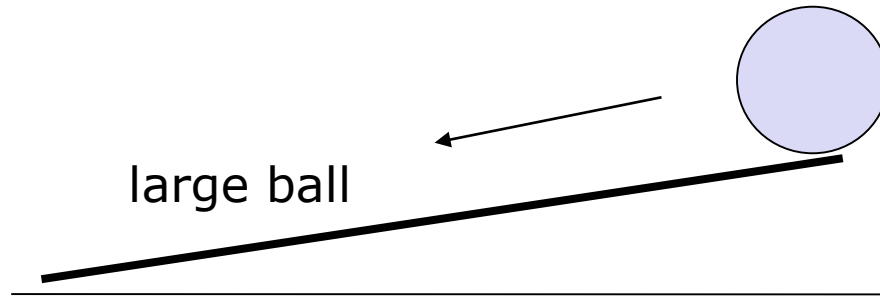


Brahe

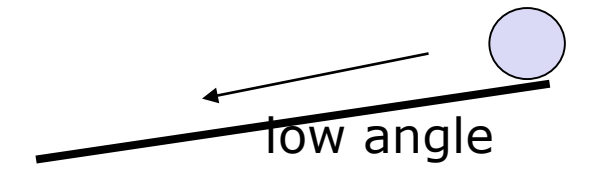
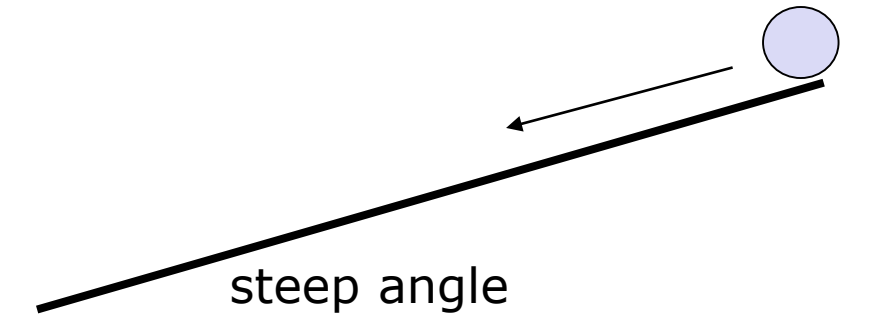
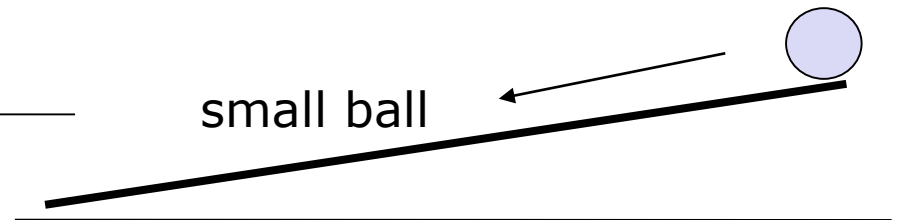


Galilei

Galilei's experiments



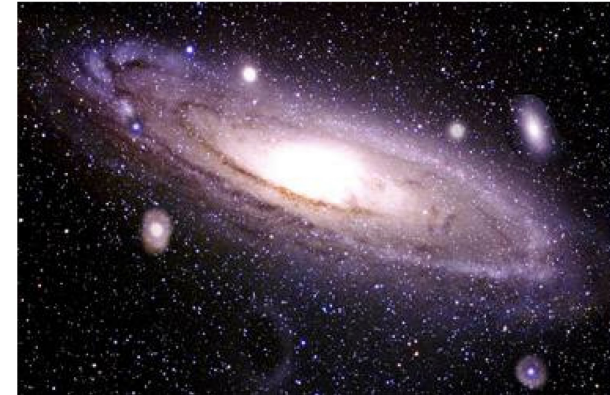
- Weight of the sphere is not relevant



- Since Galilei, physics and other sciences work according to this model:
 - Formulate a theory T about how (some aspect of) the real world behaves
 - Design and conduct experiments X for testing this theory
- Is accepted in all subjects where experimentation is possible
 - Natural sciences: Physics, chemistry, biology, medicine etc.
 - Engineering
 - Parts of many social sciences (such as economics, sociology, etc.)

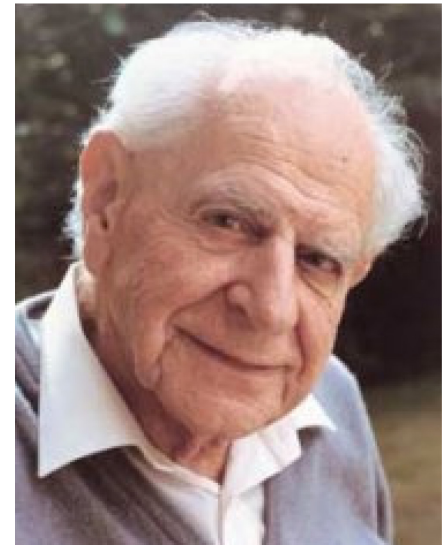
The scientific method: Limits of applicability

- The scientific method is problematic where experiments cannot be performed
 - for technical or ethical reasons
 - must rely on observation plus induction then (qualitative + quantitative argumentation)
- It is unsuitable when there are too many factors involved to formulate a precise theory, e.g.
 - social sciences
 - socio-technical systems
 - software engineering
 - again, must rely on observation plus induction then (qualitative research methods)



The scientific method: Scientific vs. unscientific theories

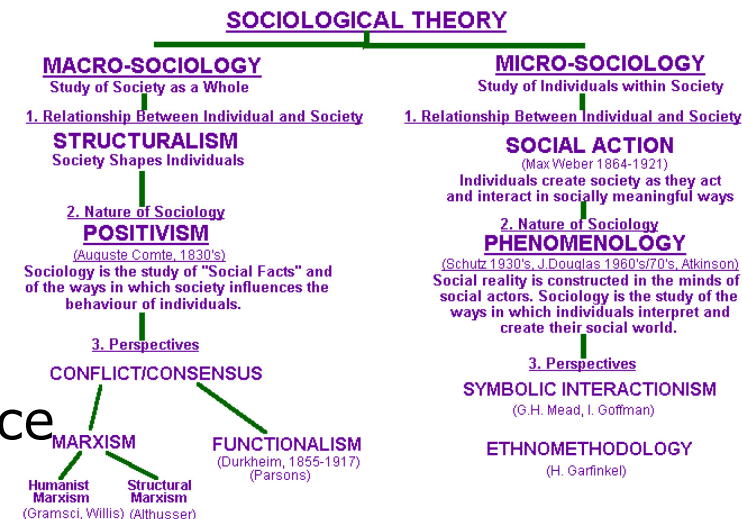
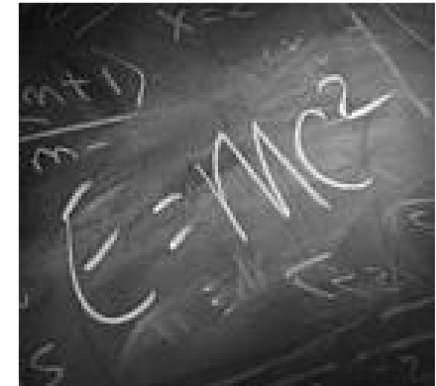
- Note the following:
 - T is called a *scientific theory* only if it predicts something specifically and hence can be tested
 - Even if T is wrong, it may happen that the results of X are as expected
 - But if X contradicts predictions of T, then T must be false
- This view of science was suggested by Karl Popper (1904–1994)
 - It is the prevalent scientific paradigm today
 - In this view, theories cannot be directly confirmed, only refuted
 - If a theory cannot be refuted for a long time, it will gradually be accepted as confirmed
 - example: special theory of relativity
 - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-X8Xfl0JdTQ>
 - good explanation in 9 minutes



- In many areas, too little is known for formulating a plausible, testable theory
 - In particular where people are involved and the situation is complex
 - social sciences, socio-technical systems, software engineering
- A different, qualitative style of empiricism is useful then:
 - Observe things that lead to hypotheses from which one could build theories
 - Often these observations have to be qualitative rather than quantitative in order to be useful
 - Qualitative research is a large and interesting branch of research methodology
 - but not the topic of this course (half-exception: Case Studies)

Hard science vs. soft science

- Many people claim that a subject is a science only if it produces theories that are precise and reliable
 - "hard science", such as physics formulas
- and hence claim that subjects involving human behavior are not scientific
 - "soft science"
 - This attitude could be called "physics envy"
- This is not true: The scientific principle can be applied
 - but the theories will be more complex and make weaker (e.g. probabilistic) predictions
- Hard science is simpler than soft science
 - That is why it is farther advanced



- When we empirically investigate something quantitatively
 - we characterize the situation by a set of **input variables**
 - often quantitative or categorical
 - e.g. "team size = 4" or "design method used = A"
 - and the observations by a set of **output variables**
 - If we choose the value of at least one input variable, the study is called an **experiment**
- The act of consciously manipulating the values of input variables is one important aspect of **control**
- Every empirical study assumes that there is some systematic relationship between inputs and outputs
 - If we have a certain expectation about this relationship, this is called a **hypothesis**
 - Any additional factors influencing the outputs are called **extraneous variables**

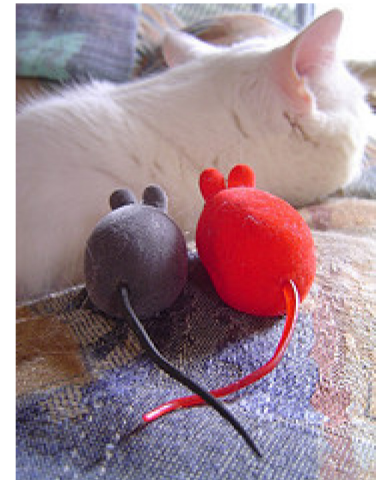
Example: Case study

- Assume we want to evaluate a design method A
- We pick a representative team of people
 - a capable, but not unrealistically clever team
- We pick a task of interest
 - a "normal" one: not unusually small or large or difficult or ...
- We have them do the design using method A
 - (hopefully they receive some training beforehand...)
- We see what happens (using many sources of observations):
 - What goes well?
 - What goes not so well?
 - How good is the resulting design?

- This case study has little control
 - We have controlled the task to be done and the method to be used
 - (and even this is unusual for a case study)
 - but not the capabilities of the people
 - Precisely how intelligent, knowledgeable, interested etc. are they?
 - Worse, we cannot judge the results without comparing them to other results
- Hence, it is not so clear what the results mean

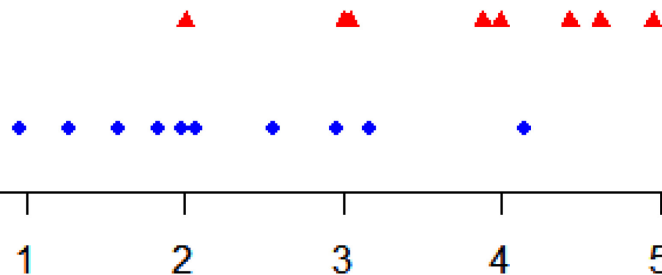
Example: Controlled experiment

- This time, we compare design methods A and B
- Again, we pick a task T and a set of people P
 - but this time a large set of people
 - we train all of them equally well in both methods
- But now we use separate teams working with A or with B
- and have 20 different teams solve T with each method
 - People are assigned to the teams at random
- We compare the average result obtained by the method A teams and method B teams



Important!

- This time we have controlled all variables:
 - task and method as before
 - the comparison to method B allows for interpreting the results
 - replication turns all kinds of individual differences into a noise signal
 - we will get different results for different teams although they are using the same condition
 - but given enough teams, the differences cancel out
 - random group assignment avoids systematic accumulations of individual differences
 - e.g. if more capable people favor working with method A
- Hence, we can decide whether A works better than B
 - at least for this kind of people, in this setting, and for this task



Important!

- Internal validity (important for credibility)
 - the degree to which the observed results were caused by only the intended input variables
 - rather than extraneous variables
- External validity (important for relevance)
 - the degree to which the results can be generalized to other circumstances
 - in our example: other people, settings, and tasks
- Improving external validity *tends* to reduce internal validity
 - because it will often strengthen the influence of extraneous variables

- Have all plausible extraneous variables been controlled completely?
- Has the act of observing influenced the observations?
- Are the measurements done correctly?
- Are the results that are compared really comparable?

Important!

A more general concept is construct validity:

- Do my measurements really represent the characteristic that I want to observe?
 - e.g. does the number of pages of a design document really represent the size of a design task?
 - (Construct validity can be considered to encompass both internal and external validity. We do not use the term much.)

Threats to external validity

- The results rely on specific characteristics of the task
 - e.g. task is unusually well suited for method A, but not for B
- The results rely on specific characteristics of the people
 - e.g. they have an unrealistically good understanding of method A, because they were thoroughly taught by its inventor
- The results rely on specific characteristics of the experimental setting
 - e.g. the subjects were enthusiastic about A, but not B.
- The threat is worst if those special characteristics are uncommon

Important!



- Credibility is achieved when
 - there is high internal validity
 - there is a reasonable amount of external validity
 - in particular: no bias of the task
 - there is no doubt that both is the case
- Relevance is achieved when
 - the question investigated is of general interest and
 - there is enough external validity

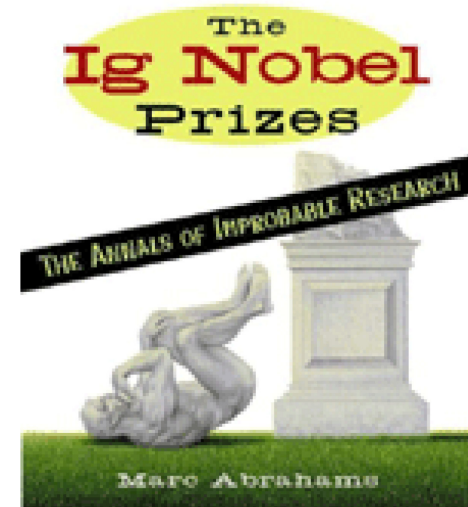


- In complex settings (e.g., software engineering, socio-technical systems) understanding which factors must occur in a theory is difficult
 - because there are so many involved
 - and they interrelate in many ways
- Until we have this understanding, qualitative research is more useful than quantitative research
 - because it helps more in identifying the factors
 - whereas quantitative research involving ill-chosen sets of factors will mislead

- Some fraction of the empirical results in scientific publications is dubious or wrong
- Outside of science, this is even much worse
- How can we discriminate valid results from dubious ones?
- The following questions help:
 - How do they know this?
 - in particular: Are the conclusions warranted by the facts?
 - What has not been said (but should have)?
 - Is this information really relevant?

(More about this in the next lecture)

Other results are correct but hardly relevant:



- Our goal is insight into objective facts and relationships
- The most powerful method for this is the scientific method:
 - Formulate a theory, derive hypotheses
 - Test them by experiments
 - Can only refute the theory, not prove it!
- It is accepted wherever experiments are possible
 - and can be approximated in many further settings
 - In Informatics, control in the experiments is often incomplete
- The goal is high internal and external validity
 - because they are key to good credibility and relevance
- Results should be judged by these criteria

Thank you!