

CSC2130:
Empirical Research Methods for Computer Scientists

Seminar 3: Basics of Empirical Research

Steve Easterbrook sme@cs.toronto.edu

Barbara Neves barbara@bbneves.com

www.cs.toronto.edu/~sme/CSC2130/

Topics for Today

- Recap from last week
- Discussion: Is most published research wrong?
- Study Design Planning Checklist
- Elements of research design
 - Units of Analysis
 - Sampling
 - Measurement
 - Validity
 - Reliability

Planning Checklist

- ✓ Pick a topic
 - Identify the research question(s)
 - Check the literature
 - Identify your philosophical stance
 - Identify appropriate theories
 - Choose the method(s)
 - Design the study
 - Unit of analysis?
 - Target population?
 - Sampling technique?
 - Data collection techniques?
 - Metrics for key variables?
 - Handle confounding factors
- Critically appraise the design for threats to validity
- Get IRB approval
 - Informed consent?
 - Benefits outweigh risks?
- Recruit subjects / field sites
- Conduct the study
- Analyze the data
- Write up the results and publish them
- Iterate

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What type of question are you asking?

- Existence:
 - Does X exist?
- Description & Classification
 - What is X like?
 - What are its properties?
 - How can it be categorized?
 - How can we measure it?
 - What are its components?
- Descriptive-Comparative
 - How does X differ from Y?
- Frequency and Distribution
 - How often does X occur?
 - What is an average amount of X?
- Descriptive-Process
 - How does X normally work?
 - By what process does X happen?
 - What are the steps as X evolves?
- Relationship
 - Are X and Y related?
 - Do occurrences of X correlate with occurrences of Y?
- Causality
 - Does X cause Y?
 - Does X prevent Y?
 - What causes X?
 - What effect does X have on Y?
- Causality-Comparative
 - Does X cause more Y than does Z?
 - Is X better at preventing Y than is Z?
 - Does X cause more Y than does Z under one condition but not others?
- Design
 - What is an effective way to achieve X?
 - How can we improve X?

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What type of question are you asking?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Existence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Does X exist? ○ Description & Classification <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What is X like? ● What are its properties? ● How can it be categorized? ● How can we measure it? ● What are its components? ○ Descriptive-Comparative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How does X differ from Y? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Relationship <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Are X and Y related? ● Do occurrences of X correlate with occurrences of Y? |
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Putting the Question in Context



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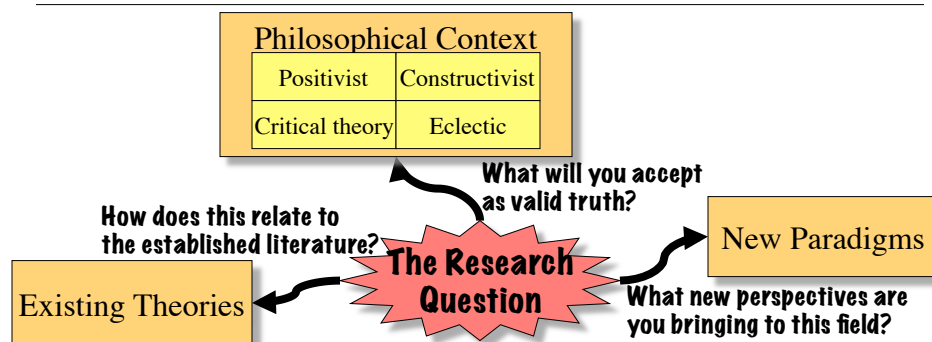
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Putting the Question in Context



What will you accept as knowledge?

○ Positivist (or “Post-positivist”)

- Knowledge is objective
- “Causes determine effects/ outcomes”
- Reductionist: study complex things by breaking down to simpler ones
- Prefer quantitative approaches
- Verifying (or Falsifying) theories

○ Constructivist/Interpretivist

- Knowledge is socially constructed
- Truth is relative to context
- Theoretical terms are open to interpretation
- Prefer qualitative approaches
- Generating “local” theories

○ Critical Theorist

- Research is a political act
- Knowledge is created to empower groups/individuals
- Choose what to research based on who it will help
- Prefer participatory approaches
- Seeking change in society

○ Eclectic/Pragmatist

- Research is problem-centered
- “All forms of inquiry are biased”
- Truth is what works at the time
- Prefer multiple methods / multiple perspectives
- seeking practical solutions to problems

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Identify Appropriate Theories

- Where do theories come from?



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The Theoretical Lens

- Our Theories impact how we see the world
 - Real-world phenomena too rich and complex
 - Need a way of filtering our observations
 - The theory guides us, whether it is explicitly stated or not
- In Quantitative Methods:
 - Theoretical lens tells you what variables to measure...
 - ...and which to ignore or control
- In Qualitative Methods:
 - Theoretical lens usually applied after data is collected
 - ...and used to help with labeling and categorizing the data

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Theories are good for generalization...

Statistical Generalization

- Generalize from sample to population
- Can only be used for quantifiable variables
- Based on random sampling:
 - Test whether results on a sample apply to the whole population
- Not useful when:
 - You can't characterize the population
 - You can't do random sampling
 - You can't get enough data points

Analytical Generalization

- Generalize from findings to theory
- Applicable to quantitative and qualitative studies
- Compares findings with theory
 - Do the data support/refute the theory?
 - Do they support this theory better than rival theories?
- Supports empirical induction:
 - Evidence builds if subsequent studies also support the theory
- More powerful than stats
 - Doesn't rely on correlations
 - Examines underlying mechanisms

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Planning Checklist

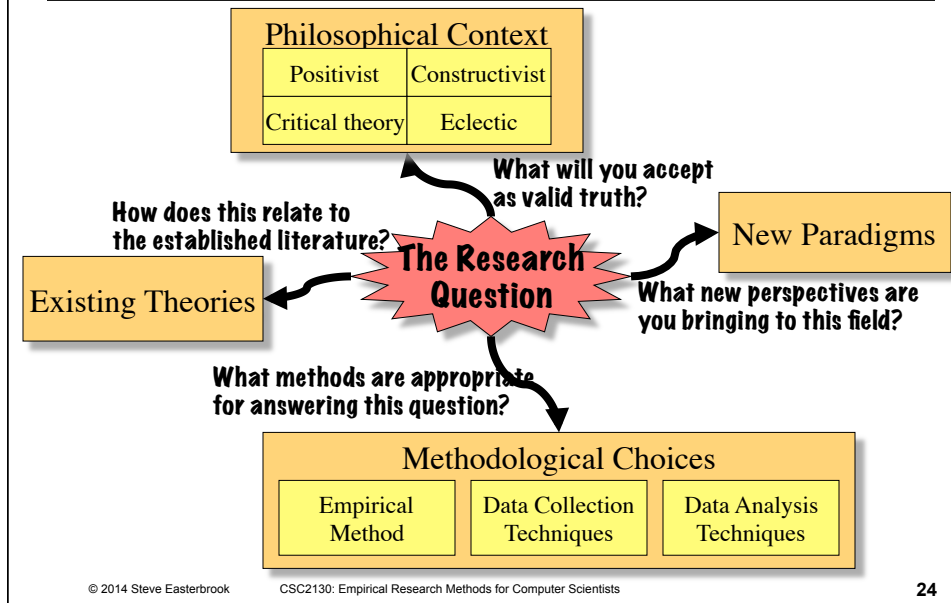
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Putting the Question in Context



Choose a Method...

○ Exploratory

Used to build new theories where we don't have any yet

- E.g. What do CMM level 3 organizations have in common?
- E.g. What are the experiences of developers who have adopted Ruby?

○ Descriptive

Describes sequence of events and underlying mechanisms

- E.g. How does pair programming actually work?
- E.g. How do software immigrants naturalize?

○ Causal

Determines whether there are causal relationship between phenomena

- E.g. Does tool X lead to software with fewer defects?
- E.g. Do requirements traceability tools help programmers find information more rapidly?

○ Explanatory

Adjudicates between competing explanations (theories)

- E.g. Why does software inspection work?
- E.g. Why do people fail to document their requirements?

How will you substantiate your claims?

Common “in the lab” Methods

- Controlled Experiments
- Rational Reconstructions
- Exemplars
- Benchmarks
- Simulations

Common “in the wild” Methods

- Quasi-Experiments
- Case Studies
- Survey Research
- Ethnographies
- Action Research

- Artifact/Archive Analysis (“mining”!)

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Unit of Analysis

- Defines what phenomena you will analyze
 - Choice depends on the primary research questions
 - Choice affects decisions on data collection and analysis
 - Hard to change once the study has started (but can be done if there are compelling reasons)
 - If possible, use same unit of analysis as previous studies (why?)
- Often many choices:
 - E.g. for an exploratory study of agile programming:
 - Unit of analysis = individual developer (study focuses on a person's participation in the project)
 - Unit of analysis = a team (study focuses on team activities)
 - Unit of analysis = a decision (study focuses on activities around that decision)
 - Unit of analysis = a process (study examines how user stories are collected and prioritized)
 - ...

Examples of Units of Analysis

- For a study of how software immigrants naturalize
 - Individuals?
 - ... or the Development team?
 - ... or the Organization?
- For a study of pair programming
 - Programming episodes?
 - ... or Pairs of programmers?
 - ... or the Development team?
 - ... or the Organization?
- For a study of software evolution
 - A Modification report?
 - ... or a File?
 - ... or a System?
 - ... or a Release?
 - ... or a Stable release?

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Target Population

- Determines scope of applicability of your results
 - If you don't define the target population...
 - ...nobody will know whether your results apply to anything at all
- From what population are your units of analysis drawn?
 - UoA = "developer using agile programming"
 - Population =
 - All software developers in the world?
 - All developers who use agile methods?
 - All developers in Canadian Software Industry?
 - All developers in Small Companies in Ontario?
 - All students taking SE courses at U of T?
- Choice closely tied to choice of sampling method...

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Sampling Method

- Used to select representative set from a population
 - Simple Random Sampling - choose every kth element
 - Stratified Random Sampling - identify strata and sample each
 - Clustered Random Sampling - choose a representative subpopulation and sample it
 - Purposive Sampling - choose the parts you think are relevant without worrying about statistical issues (see next slide...)
- Sample Size is important
 - balance between cost of data collection/analysis and required significance
- Process:
 - Decide what data should be collected
 - Determine the population
 - Choose type of sample
 - Choose sample size

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Purposive Sampling

- Typical Case
 - Identify typical, normal, average case
- Extreme or Deviant Case
 - E.g outstanding success/notable failures, exotic events, crises.
- Critical Case
 - if it's true of this one case it's likely to be true of all other cases.
- Intensity
 - Information-rich examples that clearly show the phenomenon (but not extreme)
- Maximum Variation
 - choose a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest
- Homogeneous
 - Instance has little internal variability - simplifies analysis
- Snowball or Chain
 - Select cases that should lead to identification of further good cases
- Criterion
 - All cases that meet some criterion
- Confirming or Disconfirming
 - Exceptions, variations on initial cases
- Opportunistic
 - Rare opportunity where access is normally hard/impossible
- Politically Important Cases
 - Attracts attention to the study
- Convenience sampling
 - Cases that are easy/cheap to study
 - (May reduce credibility)
- ...Or any combination of the above

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Data Collection Techniques

- Direct Techniques
 - Brainstorming / Focus Groups
 - Interviews
 - Questionnaires
 - Conceptual Modeling
 - Work Diaries
 - Think-aloud Sessions
 - Shadowing and Observation
 - Participant Observation
- Indirect Techniques
 - Instrumented Systems
 - Fly on the wall
- Independent Techniques
 - Analysis of work databases
 - Analysis of tool usage logs
 - Documentation Analysis
 - Static and Dynamic Analysis

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How will you measure things?

Type	Meaning	Admissible Operations
Nominal Scale	Unordered classification of objects	=
Ordinal Scale	Ranking of objects into ordered categories	=, <, >
Interval Scale	Differences between points on the scale are meaningful	=, <, >, difference, mean
Ratio Scale	Ratios between points on the scale are meaningful	=, <, >, difference, mean, ratio
Absolute Scale	No units necessary - scale cannot be transformed	=, <, >, difference, mean, ratio

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What could go wrong?

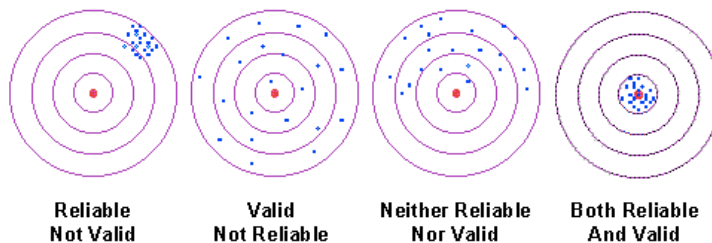
- Many phenomena might affect your results
- Must be able to distinguish:
 - My results follow clearly from the phenomena I observed
 - My results were caused by phenomena that I failed to observe
- Identify all (likely) confounding variables
- For each, decide what to do:
 - Selection/Exclusion
 - Balancing
 - Manipulation
 - Ignore (with justification)

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Validity vs. Reliability

- Reliability: Does the study get consistent results?
- Validity: Does the study get true results?



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Validity (positivist view)

- Construct Validity
 - Are we measuring the construct we intended to measure?
 - Did we translate these constructs correctly into observable measures?
 - Did the metrics we use have suitable discriminatory power?
- Internal Validity
 - Do the results really follow from the data?
 - Have we properly eliminated any confounding variables?
- External Validity
 - Are the findings generalizable beyond the immediate study?
 - Do the results support the claims of generalizability?
- Empirical Reliability
 - If the study was repeated, would we get the same results?
 - Did we eliminate all researcher biases?

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Typical Problems

- Construct Validity
 - Using things that are easy to measure instead of the intended concept
 - Wrong scale; insufficient discriminatory power
- Internal Validity
 - Confounding variables: Familiarity and learning;
 - Unmeasured variables: time to complete task, quality of result, etc.
- External Validity
 - Task representativeness: toy problem?
 - Subject representativeness: students for professional developers!
- Theoretical Reliability
 - Researcher bias: subjects know what outcome you prefer

Construct Validity

- E.g. Hypothesis: "Inspection meetings are unnecessary"
 - Inspection -> Perspective-based reading of requirements docs
 - Meeting -> Inspectors gather together and report their findings
 - Unnecessary -> find fewer total # errors than inspectors working alone
- But:
 - What's the theory here?
 - E.g. Fagin Inspections:
 - Purpose of inspection is process improvement (not bug fixing!)
 - Many intangible benefits: staff training, morale, knowledge transfer, standard setting,...

Construct Validity

- Are we measuring what we intend to measure?
 - Akin to the requirements problem: are we building the right system?
 - If we don't get this right, the rest doesn't matter
 - Helps if concepts in the theory have been precisely defined!
- Divide construct validity into three parts:
 - **Intentional Validity** - are we measuring precisely what we intend?
 - E.g. measuring "expertise" as "years of experience"?
 - **Representation Validity** - do our measurements accurately operationalize the constructs?
 - E.g. is it okay to break "intelligence" down into verbal, spatial & numeric reasoning?
 - Face validity argument – "seems okay on the face of it"
 - Content validity argument – "measures demonstrated to cover the concept"
 - **Observation Validity** - how good are the measures by themselves?
 - E.g. the short form of a test correlates well with longer form

More on Observation Validity

- Predictive Validity
 - Observed measure predicts what it should predict and nothing else
 - E.g. check that college aptitude tests do predict success in college
- Criterion Validity
 - Observed measure agrees with an independent standard
 - Eg, for college aptitude, GPA or successful first year
- Convergent Validity
 - Observed measure correlates with other observable measures for the same construct
 - I.e. our measure gives a new way of distinguishing a particular trait while correlating with similar measures
- Discriminant Validity
 - Observed measure distinguishes between two groups that differ on the trait in question
 - E.g. Measurement of code quality can distinguish "good" code from "bad"

Internal Validity

- Can we be sure our results really follow from the data?
 - Have we adequately ruled out rival hypotheses?
- Have we eliminated confounding variables?
 - Participant variables
 - Researcher variables
 - Stimulus, procedural and situational variables
 - Instrumentation
 - Nuisance variables
- Confounding sources of internal invalidity
 - H: History
 - events happen during the study (eg, study session was interrupted)
 - M: Maturation
 - older/wiser/better between treatments (or during study)
 - I: Instrumentation
 - change due to observation/measurement instruments
 - S: Selection
 - differing nature of participants
 - effects of choosing participants

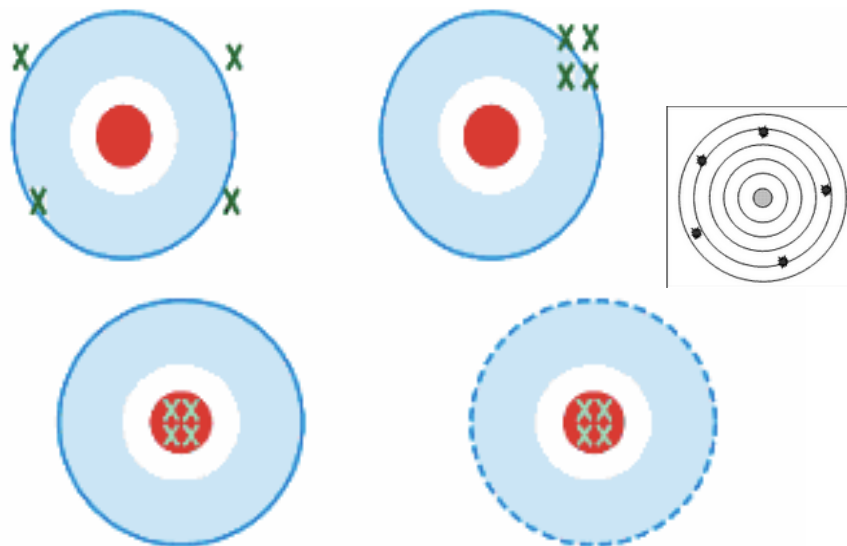
External Validity

- Two issues:
 - Results will generalize beyond the specific situations studied
 - E.g. do results on students generalize to professionals?
 - Do the results *support the claims* of generalizability?
 - E.g. if the effect size is small, will it be swamped/masked in other settings?
 - E.g. will other (unstudied) phenomena dominate?
- Two strategies:
 - Provide arguments in favour of generalizability
 - Replicate the finding in further studies:
 - Literal replication - repeat study using the same design
 - Empirical Induction - related studies test additional aspects of the theory
- Also: Ecological Validity
 - Does the study set-up approximate real-world conditions?
 - (can achieve external validity without this, but it's hard)

Reliability

- Could the study be repeated with the same results?
 - On the same subjects (not a replication!)
- Issues:
 - No mistakes were made in conducting the experiment
 - Steps taken in data collection and analysis were made explicit
 - No biases were introduced by the researchers
- Good practice:
 - Carefully document all procedures used in the study
 - Prepare a “lab package” of all materials and procedures used
 - Conduct the study in such a way that an auditor could follow the documented procedures and arrive at the same results

Validity vs. Reliability



Validity (Constructivist View)

- Repeatability is suspect:
 - Reality is “multiple and constructed”, same situation can never recur
 - Researcher objectivity is unattainable
 - E.g. successful replication depends on tacit knowledge
- Focus instead on “trustworthiness”:
 - Credibility of researchers and results
 - Transferability of findings
 - Dependability - results are robust across a range of situations
 - Confirmability
- Identify strategies to increase trustworthiness...

Strategies for constructivists

- Triangulation
 - Different sources of data used to confirm findings
- Member checking
 - Research participants confirm that results make sense from their perspective
- Rich, thick descriptions
 - As much detail as possible on the setting and the data collected
- Clarify bias
 - Be honest about researcher's bias
 - Self-reflection when reporting findings
- Report discrepant information
 - Include data that contradicts findings as well as that which confirms
- Prolonged contact with participants
 - Spend long enough to ensure researcher really understands the situation being studied
- Peer debriefing
 - A colleague critically reviews the study and tests assumptions
- External Auditor
 - Independent expert reviews procedures and findings

Validity (Critical theorist's view)

- Validity depends on utility of the knowledge gained
 - Research is intended to challenge perspectives, shift power, etc.
 - Problems tackled are context sensitive...
 - ...repeatability not an issue
- Criteria (e.g. for action research)
 - Problem tackled is authentic
 - Intended change is appropriate and adequate
 - Participants are authentic (real problem owners)
 - Researcher has appropriate level of access to the organization
 - Planned exit point
 - Clear knowledge outcomes for participants

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