Experimentation in Software Engineering: Theory and Practice

Part - II Analyzing Your Data

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Be Aware

- This is not a stat class
- We are not statisticians
- We do not do research in statistic
- We try to get the best we can out of our data

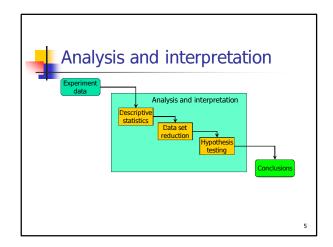
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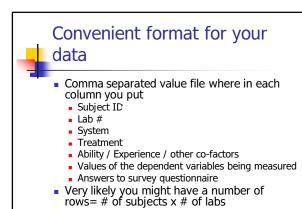
Analysis of results

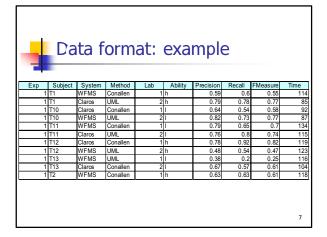


Finally...

- Let's analyze the obtained experimental results!
- Overview of the data
 - Through descriptive statistics
- Removal of outliers
- Test of hypotheses related to the main factorPaired, unpaired
- Analysis of co-factors
- Survey questionnaire analysis
- Interpretation and discussion of results



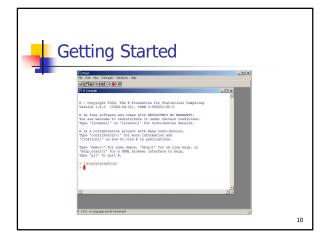








- Integrated suite of software facilities for data manipulation, calculation and graphical
 - http://www.r-project.org
 - Free implementation of S (many similarities)
- Features:
 - Data handling and storage facility
 - Operators for calculations on arrays and matrices
 - A large collection of functions for data analysis
 - Graphical facilities
 - Simple and effective programming language
 - Fully expandible via packages





Packages - I

- All R functions and datasets are stored in packages.
- To load a particular package (e.g., the boot package)
 - > library(boot)
 - Packages are often inter-dependent, and loading one may cause others to be automatically loaded.



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Packages - II

- Standard (base) packages
 - part of the R source code.
 - they contain the basic functions, and the standard statistical and graphical functions
- Contributed packages and CRAN
 - implement specialized statistical methods,
 - give access to data or hardware,
 - Some (the recommended packages) are distributed with every binary distribution of R.
 - Most are available for download from CRAN (http://cran.r-project.org/ and its mirrors)



The read.table() function

- Reads a data frame from a file or from the clipboard
- The first line of the file should have a name for each variable in the data frame
 - header=TRUE (otherwise header=FALSE)
- Each additional line of the file has its first item a row label and the values for each variable.
- If the file has one fewer item in its first line than in its second, this arrangement is presumed to be in

Read.table syntax

read.table(file, header = FALSE, sep = "", quote = "\"", dec = ".", row.names, col.names, as.is = FALSE, na.strings = "NA", colClasses = NA, nrows = -1,skip = 0, check.names = TRUE, fill = !blank.lines.skip, strip.white = FALSE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE, comment.char = "#")

read.csv(file, header = TRUE, sep = ",", quote="\"", dec=".",
fill = TRUE, ...)

- Examples:

 - read.csv("c:\table.csv") #reads a CSV file
 read.table("clipboard",sep="\t",header=TRUE) #reads from the clipboard



Basics

- Assignment
 - a<-1+2
- b<-c(1,3,3)m<-mean(b)
- Outputs the value of a variable
 - a [3]

- [3]
 Accessing a field of a data structure

 t\$System

 Subsetting
 t\$System[Method=="UML"]
 t2<-subset(t,Method=="Conallen" & System=="Claros")
 t3<-subset(t,select=-c(Method))

Data overview



Algoritmic Models

- We focused on statistical models inferred from/trained on past projects/activities
- Non algorithmic models may introduce undesired levels of subjectivity
- Non algorithmic models may be even more difficult to develop and validate

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Statistic

- A statistic is an algebraic expression combining scores into a single number
- Statistics serve two functions:
 - they estimate parameters in population models
 - they describe the data.
- There are a large number of possible statistics

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Definitions

Descriptive statistics: consists of methods for organizing and summarizing information.

Population: the collection of all individuals or items under consideration in a statistical study.



Definitions

Sample: that part of the population from wich information is collected.

Inferential statistics: consists of methods for drawing and measuring the reliability of conclusions about a population based on information obtained from a sample of the population.

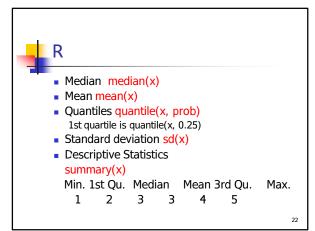
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Descriptive statistics

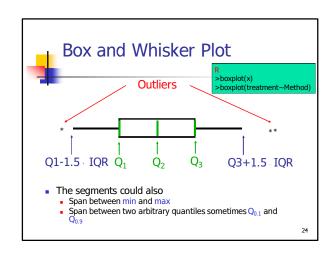
- For each experiment collect descriptive statistics of the dependent variables
 - For each treatment of the main factor
- For nominal scale (categorical data):
 - Number of answers belonging to the various categories
 - Number of correct and wrong answers
- For ordinal scale:
 - Mean (if applicable), median, standard deviation, first and third quartile, min, max
 - Boxplots
- For ratio scale:
 - Also mean and standard deviation

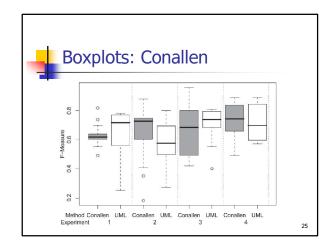
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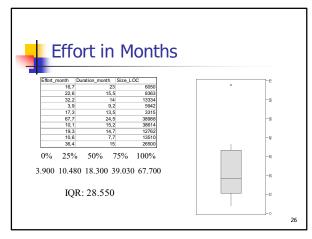


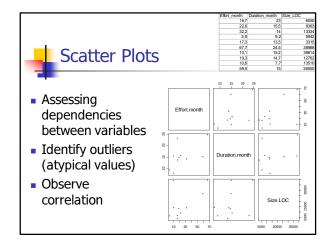


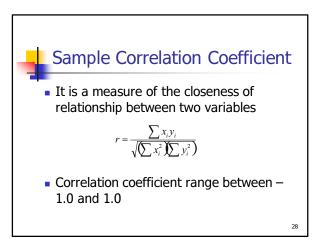
		Ί	JML	Conallen					
Exp	N	mean	median	σ	N	mean	median	0.14	
All	64	0.64	0.67	0.15	62	0.67	0.70	0.14	
Exp 1	13	0.64	0.72	0.17	13	0.63	0.62	0.08	
Exp 2	28	0.58	0.57	0.15	27	0.67	0.73	0.16	
Exp 3	15	0.71	0.74	0.12	14	0.67	0.69	0.16	
Exp 4	8	0.72	0.70	0.13	8	0.73	0.74	0.13	

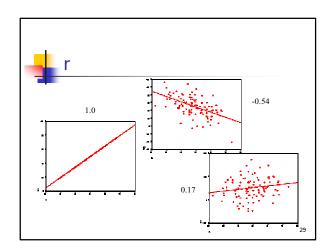


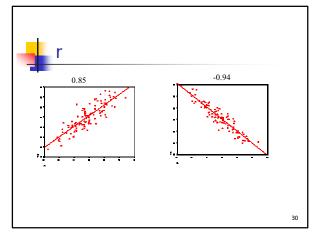


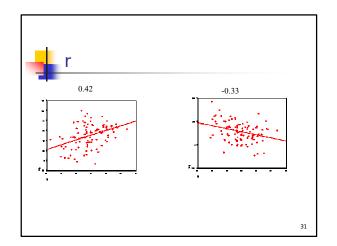


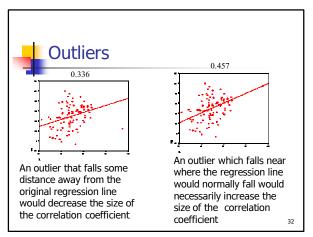


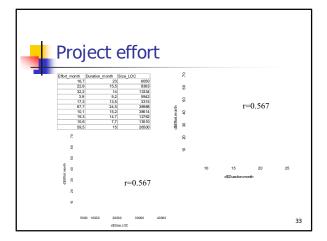














Correlation and Causation

Much of the early evidence that cigarette smoking causes cancer was correlational.

It may be that people who smoke are more nervous and nervous people are more susceptible to cancer.

It may also be that smoking does indeed cause cancer.

The cigarette companies made the former argument, while some doctors made the latter.



Correlation and Causation

Suppose there exists a high correlation between the number of popsicles sold and the number of drowning deaths.

Does that mean that one should not eat popsicles before one swims?

Not necessarily.

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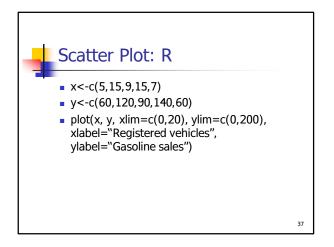


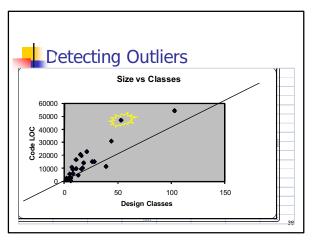
Correlation and Causation

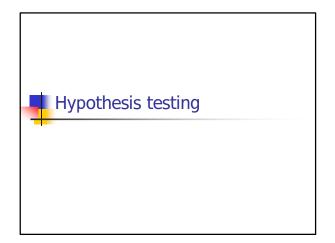
Both of the above variable are related to a common variable, the heat of the day.

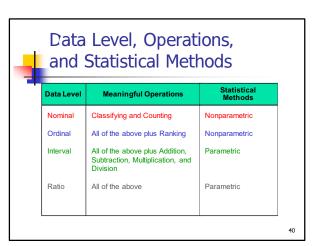
The hotter the temperature, the more popsicles sold and also the more people swimming, thus the more drowning deaths.

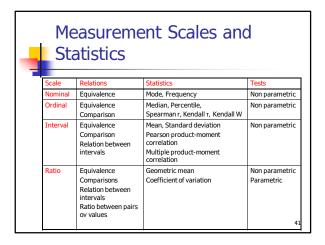
This is an example of correlation without causation.

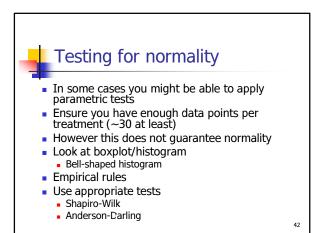


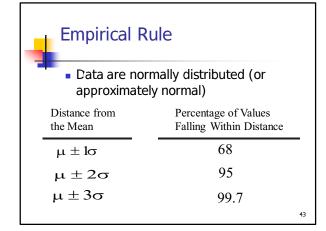


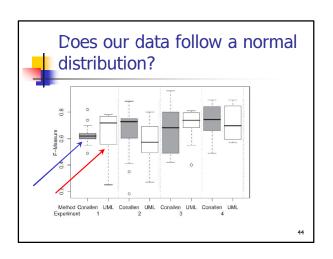


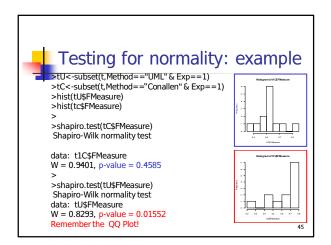


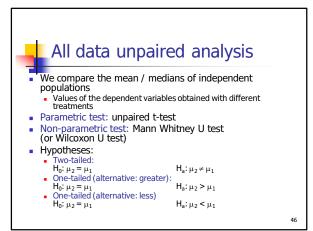


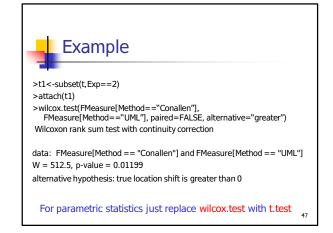


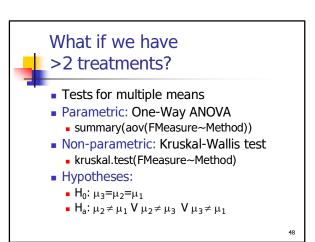














All data paired analysis

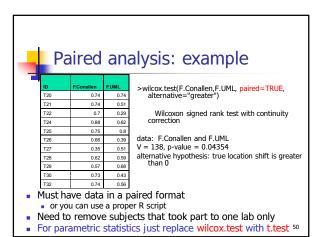
- When each subject receives different treatments
- We would like to analyze the differences exhibited by subjects with different treatments
- $H_0: \mu_d = 0$

 H_a : $\mu_d \neq 0$

- Available tests:
 - Parametric: paired t-test
 - Non-parametric: paired Wilcoxon test

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Effect size measures

- With statistical tests we have shown that distributions of samples obtained with different treatments are significantly different
 - We can reject the null hypotheses
 - Ok fine.. but even if this is the case, difference could be quite small!
 - Who would care about a new method if it introduces a statistically significant improvement, but with a negligible practical effect?

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Effect size measures

Cohen d effect size (independent samples)

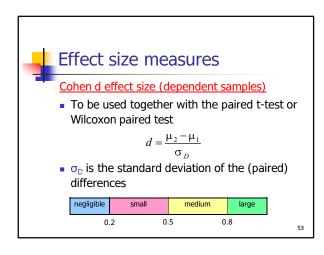
 Indicates the magnitude of a main factor treatment effect on the dependent variables

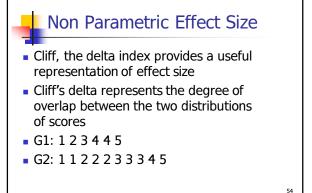
$$d = \frac{\mu_2 - \mu_1}{\sigma}$$

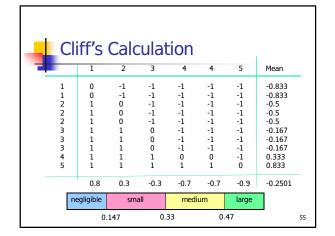
$$\sigma = \sqrt{\left(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2\right)/2}$$

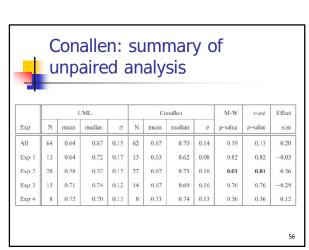
pooled std. deviation

negligible	small	medium	large
0.	.2 0	.5	0.8











Conallen: summary of paired analysis

		Diffi	rence	Wilcoxon	t-test	Effect
Exp	N	mean	median	p-value	p-value	sizo
ΔII	51	0.02	0.00	0.27	0.19	0.12
Exp 1	13	-0.00	-0.11	0.61	0.53	-0.02
Exp 2	20	0.08	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.45
Exp 3	10	-0.06	-0.09	0.88	0.80	-0.27
Exp 4	8	0.02	0.02	0.31	0.34	0.15

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Bonferroni correction

- As said, doing multiple t-tests introduce a higher error.
- I can still do t-tests and make the correction
- If I do N t-tests, I can reject the null hypotheses if the test p-values are such that:

$$p < p_{bonferroni} = \frac{\alpha}{N}$$

EO

Bonferroni correction: example

- I have results from three treatments A, B, C
- I perform 3 t.tests (or Mann-Whitney tests)
 - t.test(A,B)
 - t.test(B,C)
 - t.test(A,C)
- I can reject the hypothesis if tests provide pvalue <0.05/3=0.016



Alternative to Bonferroni

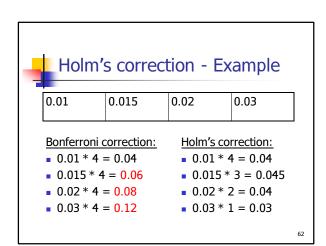
- Bonferroni correction is deemed to be too stringent
 - And criticized by many scientists
- There are less stringent alternatives...
 - Holm's correction
 - Benjamini and Hochberg correction



Holm's correction

- Rank your p-values from the smallest to the largest
- Given n the number of p-values (and thus of tests done)
- Multiply the first by n, the second by n-1, etc.
 - p-value significant if after multiplied is <0.05 (with significance 95%)

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Benjamini and Hochberg

- Rank p-values
- The largest p-value remains as is
- The second largest value is multiplied by the number of genes divided by the rank
- The others are treated as the second

Benjamini and Hochberg -Example

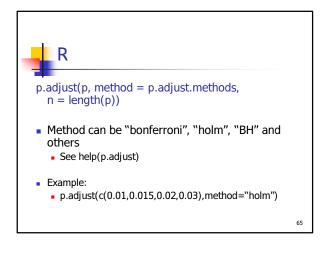
0.01 0.015 0.02 0.03

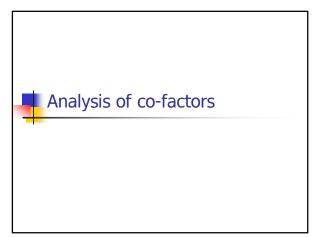
Bonferroni correction:

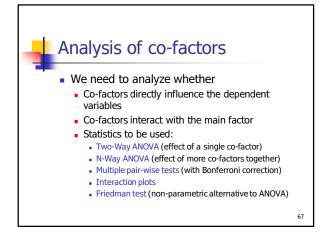
- 0.01 * 4 = 0.04
- 0.015 * 4 = 0.06
- 0.02 * 4 = 0.08
- 0.03 * 4 = 0.12

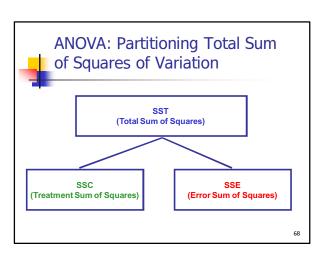
BH correction:

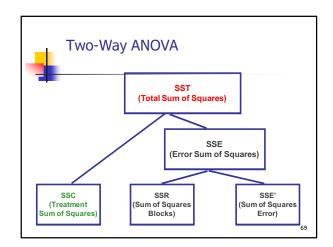
- 0.01 * 4/4 = 0.01
- 0.015 * 4/3 = 0.02
- 0.02 * 4/2 = 0.04
- 0.03 * 1 = 0.03

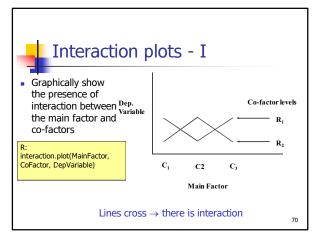


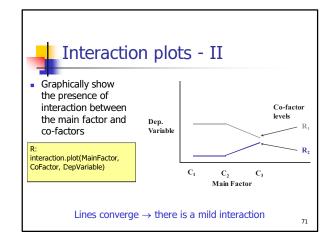


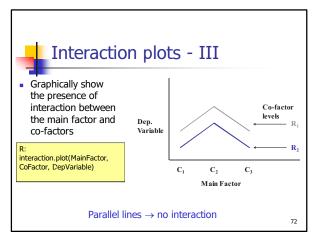












```
ANOVA by Method & Ability

>summary(aov(FMeasure-Method*Ability))

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

Method 1 0.01153 0.01153 0.6619 0.41832

Ability 1 0.02899 0.02899 1.6634 0.20086

Method:Ability 1 0.08462 0.08462 4.8555 0.03043 *

Residuals 80 1.39421 0.01743

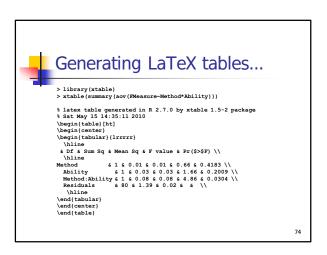
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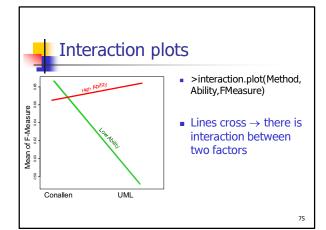
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'

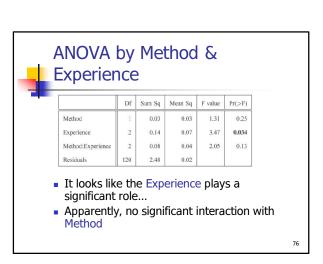
• No direct effect of Method (overall data)

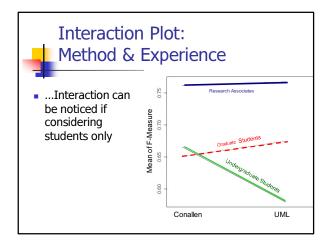
• No direct effect of Ability

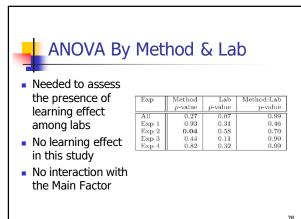
• ...but significant interaction between method and Ability
```

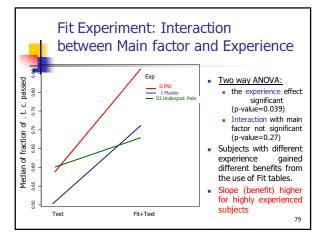




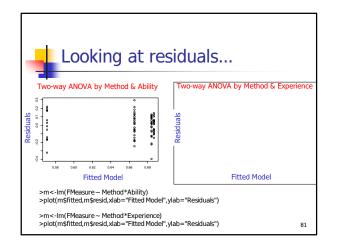


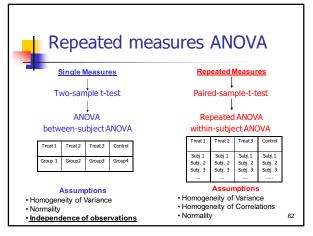


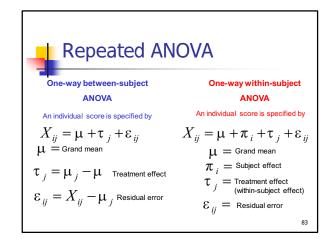


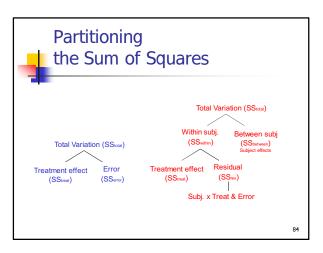


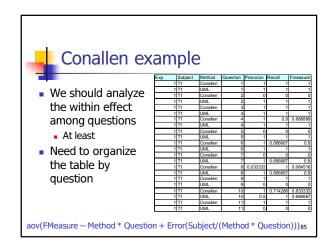
Analysis of Variance: Assumptions Observations are drawn from normally distributed populations But ok.. ANOVA is pretty robust on that Histogram or QQ plot ... Observations represent random samples from the populations Samples should be independent Design could mitigate this threat Use repeated measures ANOVA where needed Variances of the populations are equal Look at residuals

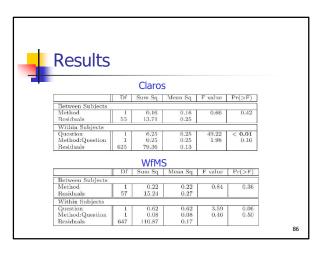


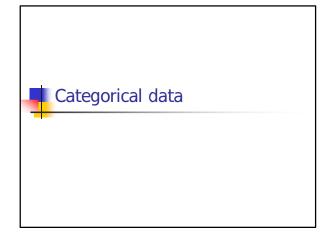


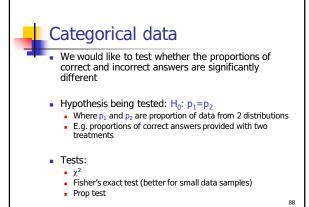














Odds Ratio

- Effect size measure for categorical data
- Odds: number of times an event occurs / number of times the event does not occur

$$Odd = p/(1-p)$$

- Used in medicine research, but also in sportive bets
- Italy has 1:11 Odds to win the world cup, Brasil 1:5
- Odds Ratio: odds of the experimental group divided by the odds of the control group

$$OR = \frac{p/(1-p)}{q/(1-q)}$$

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With a contingency table...



$$\begin{array}{c|c} & T1 & T2 \\ pass & 10 & 8 \\ fail & 9 & 5 \end{array}$$

$$OR = \frac{a/c}{b/d} = \frac{10/9}{8/5} = 0.69$$

- Odds of passing test cases with T1 are 0.69 of those with T2
- ... odds of passing test cases with T2 are 1.44 higher than with T1

..

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Example: Fit to understand requirements

Example

- Use of (non executable) Fit Tables for comprehension of requirements [Ricca et al., IST 2009]
- Hypotheses:
 - H₀₁: the availability of Fit tables as a complement to requirements does not significantly affect the comprehension level
 - H_{Q2}: the availability of Fit tables as a complement to requirements <u>does not</u> significantly affect the comprehension effort



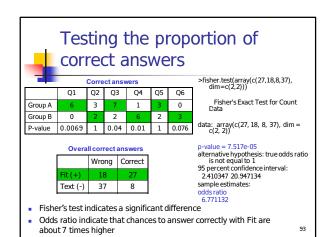
Testing the proportion of correct answers

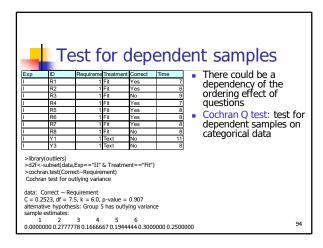
- Main factor: availability of (non executable) Fit tables as complement to requirements
- Independent variable: # of correct answers provided to questions about requirements

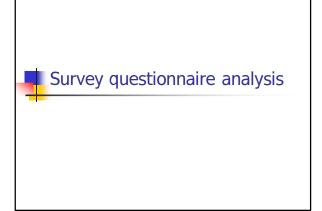
R1. The library employee can insert, delete or update a member. For each member the following fields need to be specified unique member ID, namework rather than the contribution of member ID is not natically computed by summing day, month and year of his/her birth data and submerching from the result for number of letters of name and surmanified for name and surmanified ID in the new three distances of the name and surface that the contribution of the training ID—that the extinent numbers of them ID.

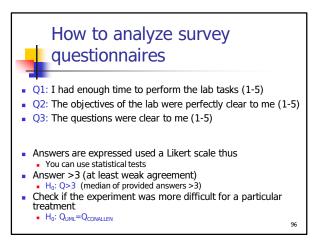
Simple design (single lab)

	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6
Group 1	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)
Group 2	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)











Conallen: objective clarity

H_0 :			$\tilde{Q}_{Conallen} = \tilde{Q}_{UML}$						
Exp	$\widetilde{Q1}$	р	$\widetilde{Q2}$	p	$\widetilde{Q3}$	p	Q1.p	Q2.p	Q3.p
All	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	0.40	0.58	0.73
Exp 1	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	0.65	0.59	1.00
Exp 2	2.00	0.01	2.00	< 0.01	3.00	0.02	0.63	0.99	1.00
Exp 3	1.00	< 0.01	1.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	0.94	0.88	0.60
Exp 4	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	0.03	2.00	0.11	0.49	0.95	0.69

- Overall objectives clear
- No significant differences between treatments

Artifact Comprehension...

- Q4: I experienced no difficulty in reading the diagrams (1-5)
- Q5: I experienced no difficulty in reading the source code (1-5)
- Q8: I understood the meaning of Conallens' stereotypes (1-5)

H_0 :			\tilde{Q}	≥ 3			$\tilde{Q}_{Conallen} = \tilde{Q}_{UML}$				
Exp	$\widetilde{Q4}$	p	$\widetilde{Q5}$	p	$\widetilde{Q8}$	р	Q4 p	Q4 d	Q5 p	Q5 d	
All	3.00	0.18	2.50	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	< 0.01	-0.60	0.81	0.02	
Exp 1	3.00	0.23	3.00	0.20	2.00	0.01	0.34	-0.44	0.98	-0.13	
Exp 2	3.00	0.98	3.00	0.14	2.00	0.04	0.07	-0.48	0.49	0.21	
Exp 3	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	< 0.01	2.00	<.0.01	0.02	-0.89	0.60	-0.24	
Exp 4	3.00	0.38	2.00	< 0.01	1.50	0.02	0.07	-1.04	1.00	0.00	

Time spent on various artifacts



- Q6: How much time (in percentage) did you spend looking at class diagrams?
 Q7: How much time (in percentage did you spend for source code browsing?
- We compute the Odds of looking at diagrams vs. looking at code for the two treatments...
- And then compute the OR
- Compare proportions using χ^2





Overall...

- No particular difficulty in the experimental tasks
- Diagrams more difficult to be understood than source code
 - But Conallen's diagrams easier to be understood
- When Conallen's diagrams are available, odds of looking at diagrams 2-3 times higher than for source code

