

Designing technical action research, and generalizing from single cases

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1. What is TAR?
2. Logical structure of TAR
3. Generalizing from TAR
4. Summary

1. Wat is Technical Action Research?

What is Technical Action Research?

- Example
 - Researcher develops a technique to assess confidentiality risks in an IT architecture
 - She applies it to a problem that a company has ...
 - producing an advice to the company ...
 - and drawing lessons learned about the method
- She served two goals:
 - The company's goal is to assess confidentiality risks
 - The researcher's goal is to learn something about her method

What is Technical Action Research?

- The researcher plays three roles:
 - **Designer:** Designing a technique
 - **Helper:** Using the technique to help others
 - **Researcher:** Drawing lessons learned about technique
- The key to a proper methodology for TAR is keeping these roles separate

Contrast with observational study

- Example:
 - Researcher observes one or more agile projects to investigate how requirements are prioritized
 - Avoids influencing the projects
 - Observes, analyzes, concludes lessons learned
- No change goal: The company is not influenced
- Researcher's goal is to learn about prioritization in agile projects as it is currently happening
- (the resulting knowledge **may** be useful to the companies)

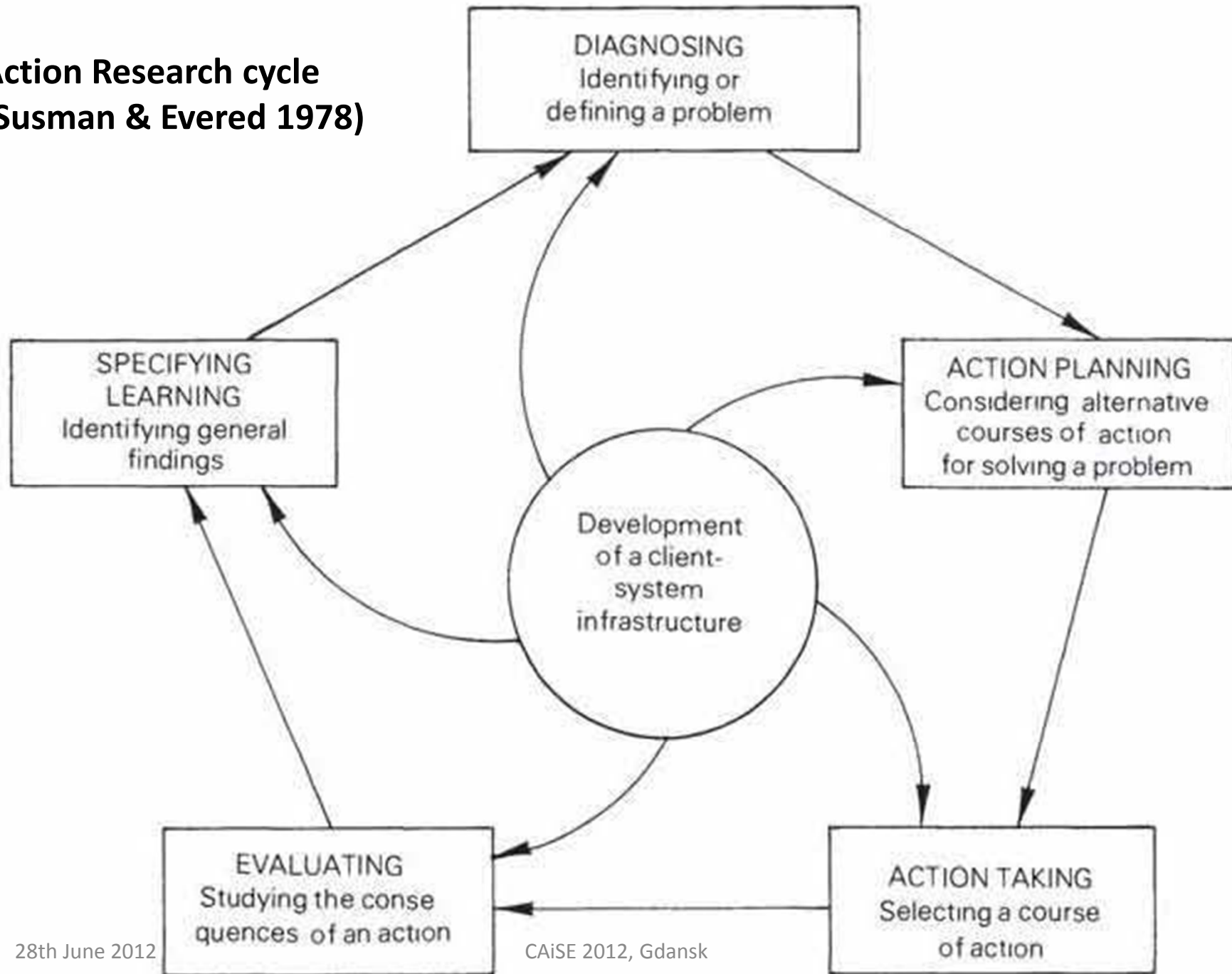
Contrast with consulting

- Consulting
 - Consultant is paid by client
 - Consultant applies known techniques rather than experimental technique
 - Reusable techniques rather than critical evaluation
 - Aims at helping the client and acquiring repeat business, rather than testing a technique
 - Knowledge dissemination (if any) is internal

Contrast with “classical” action research

- In classical AR, researcher helps client to identify and solve a problem
 - Emancipation of the powerless
 - Learning about their situation
- In TAR, the researcher wants to learn something about a technique by using it to solve a client’s problem

**Action Research cycle
(Susman & Evered 1978)**



Contrast with AR in information systems

- AR in information systems
 - Identify problem in an organization
 - Jointly search for a solution
 - Implement it
 - Evaluate
 - Specify learning
- TAR is technology-driven, not problem driven
 - The technology may be motivated by a desire to solve a class of problems
 - Not a singular problem

Why TAR for the client

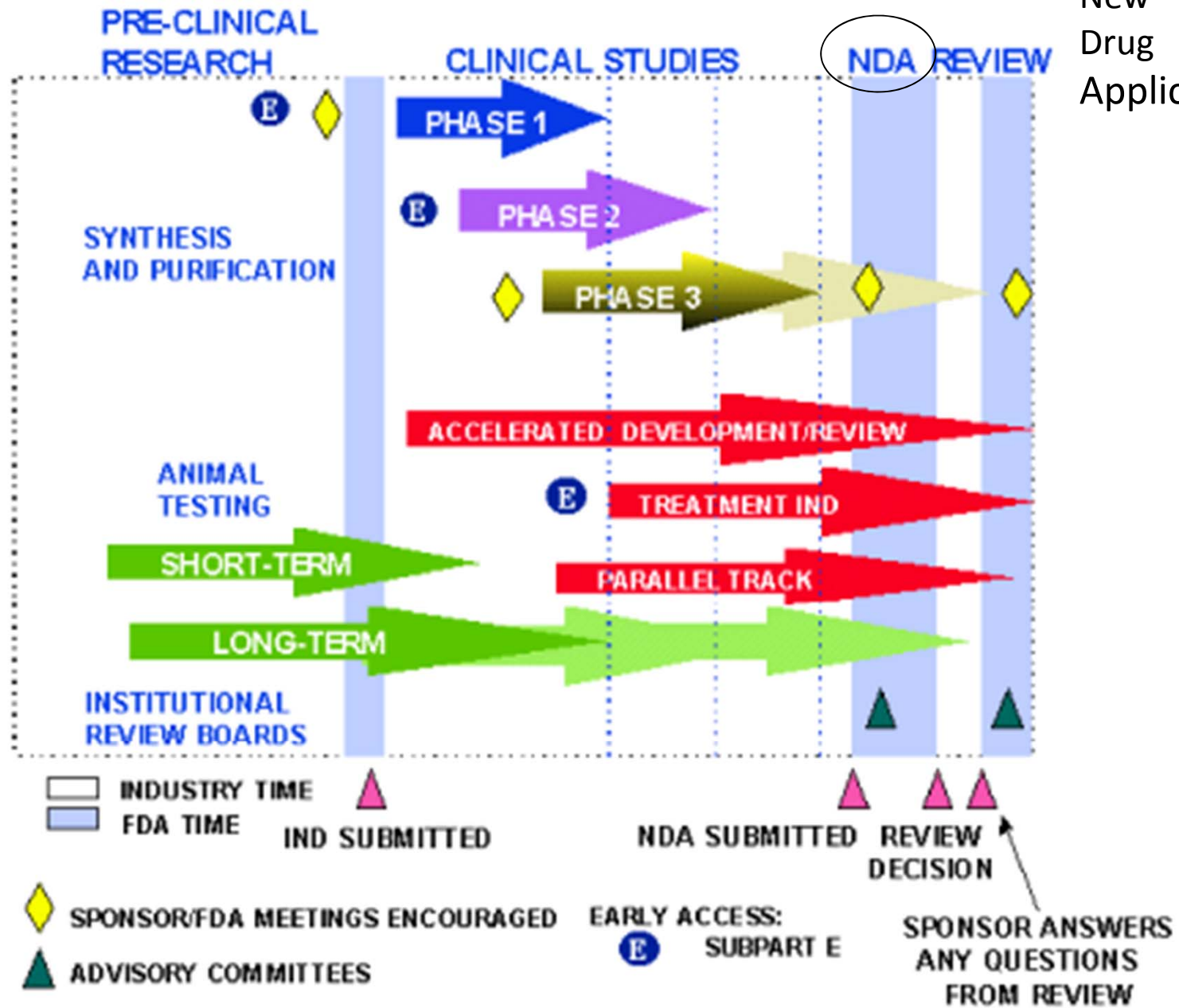
- Risky project with large chance of non-result
- What is in it for the client?
 - Free consult
 - Potentially useful result
 - Advance knowledge of and experience with new techniques
 - Good relationships with university (PR, HRM)

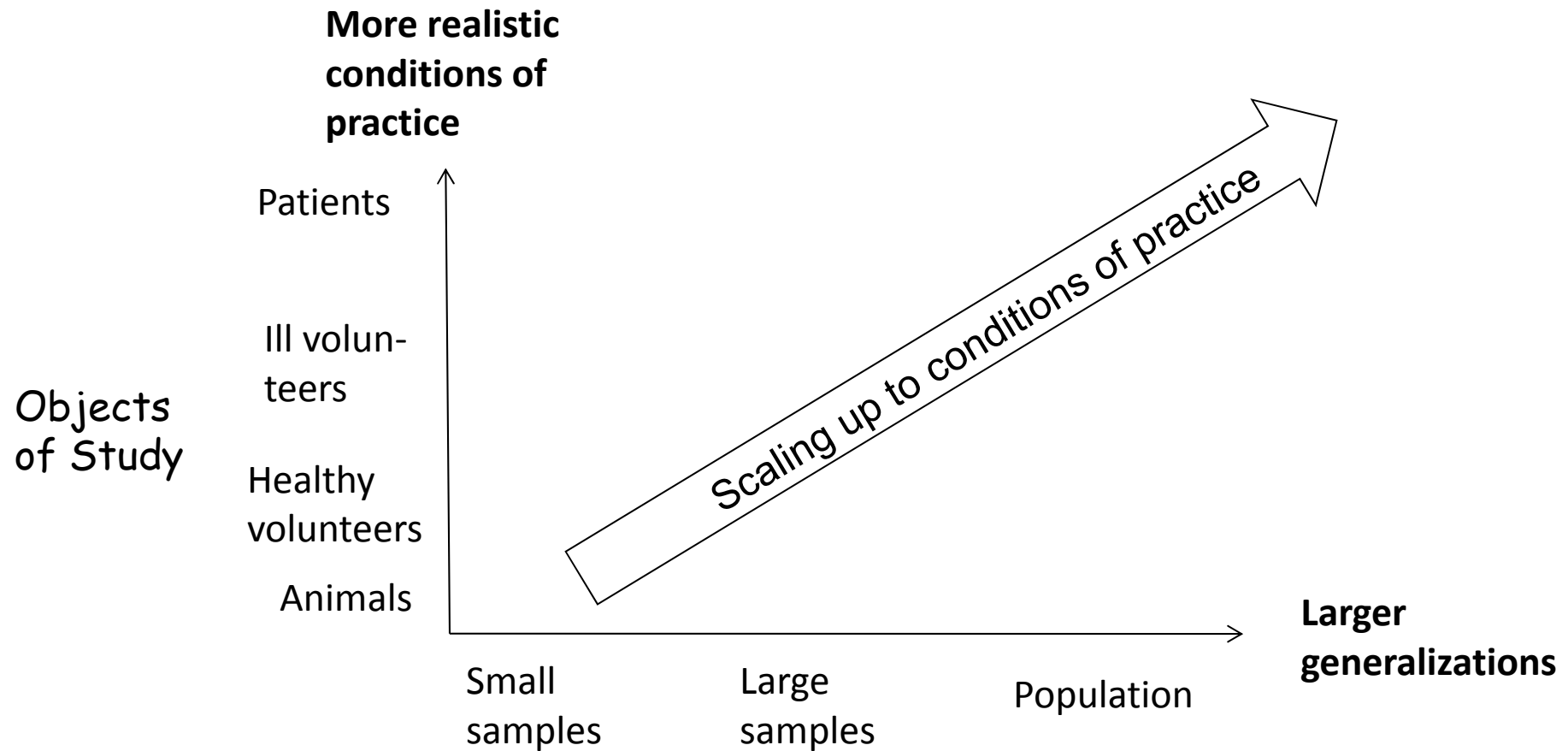
Why TAR for the researcher

- Researcher developed a technique behind her desk
- Applied it to first to small and then to realistic examples
- Compared with other proposals
- Then what?
 - Students will do as teacher tells: no realistic validation
 - Best way to learn about the technique is to apply it yourself
- Important to scale up from desk to practice

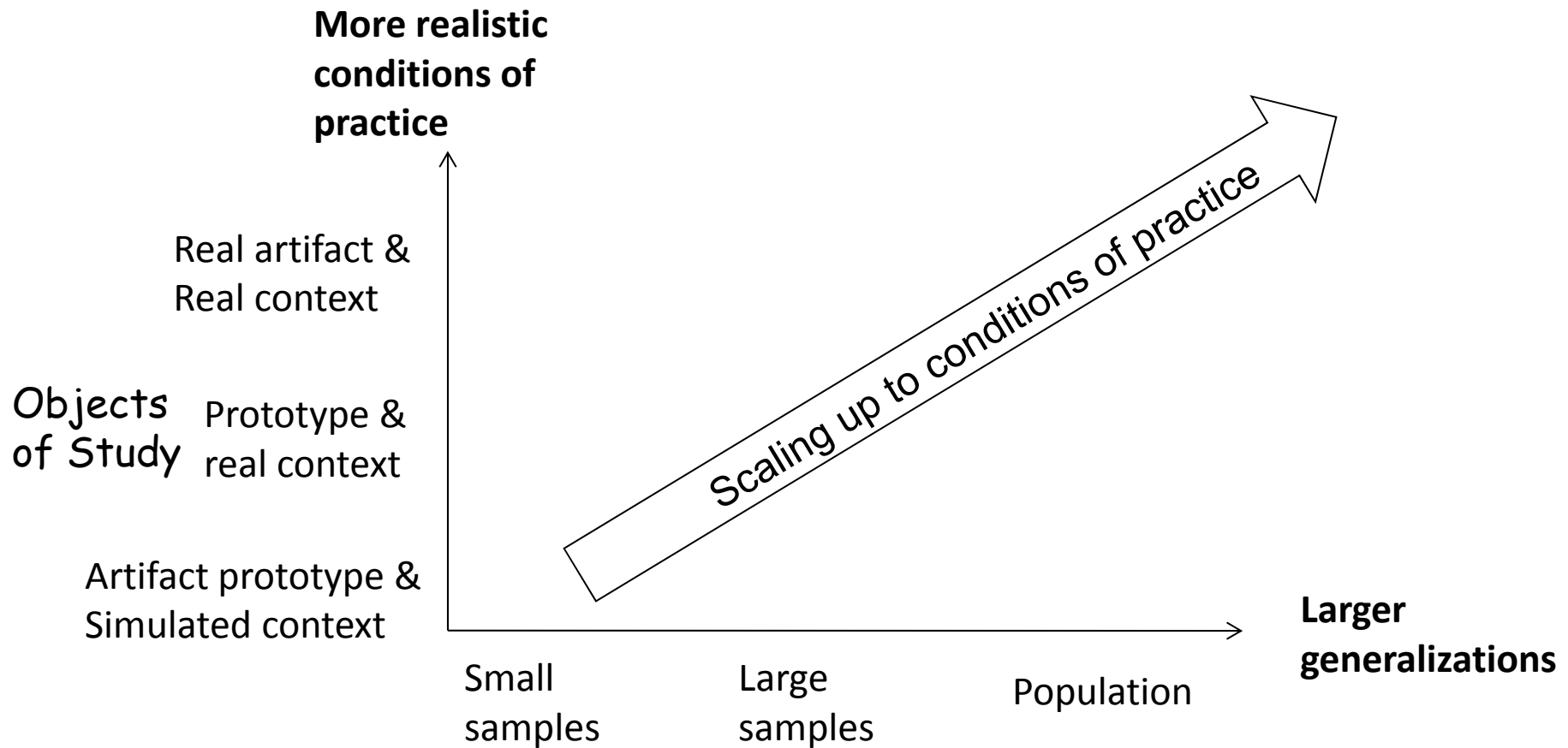
2. Scaling up to practice

New Drug Application

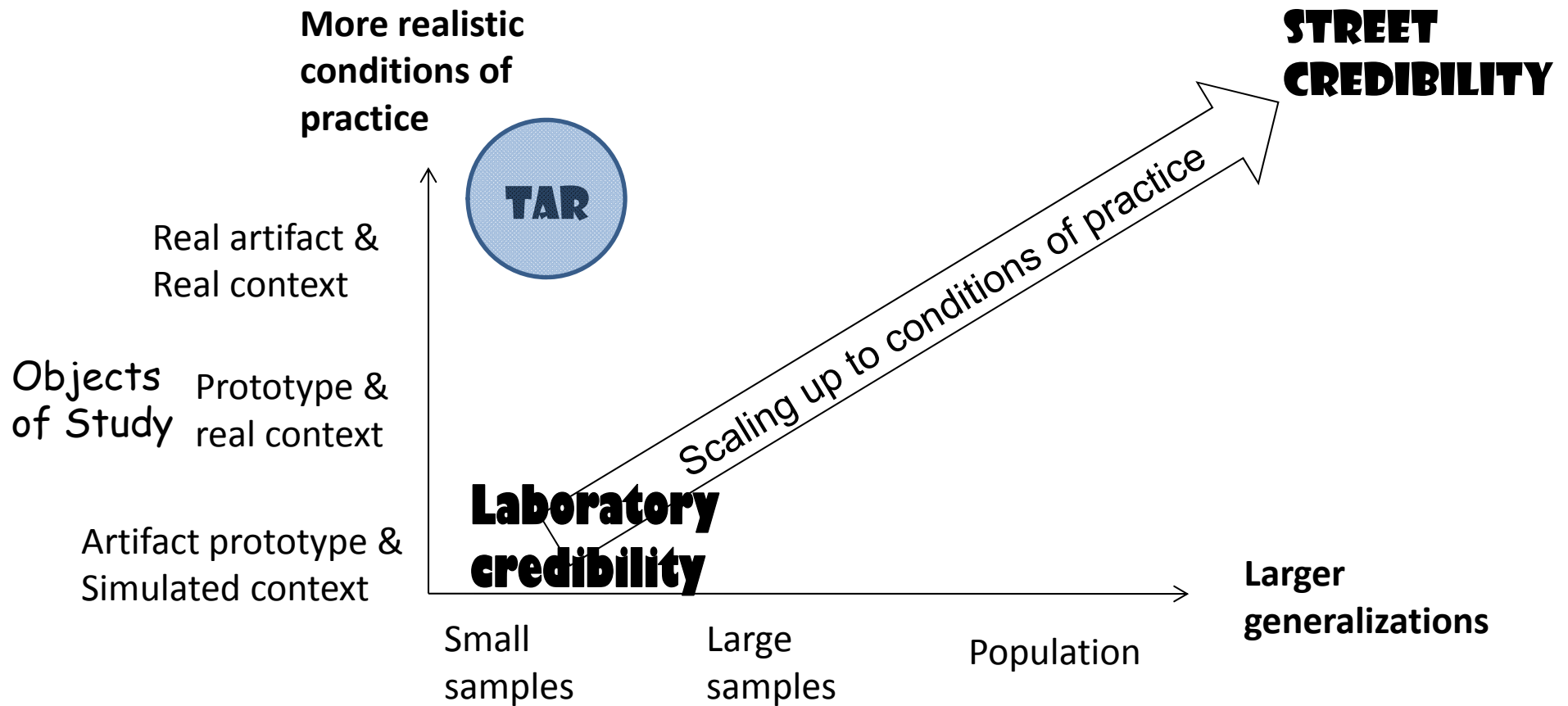




- Animals, healthy volunteers, and ill volunteers are used as **models** of arbitrary patients
- Conclusions about the models are generalized to arbitrary patients



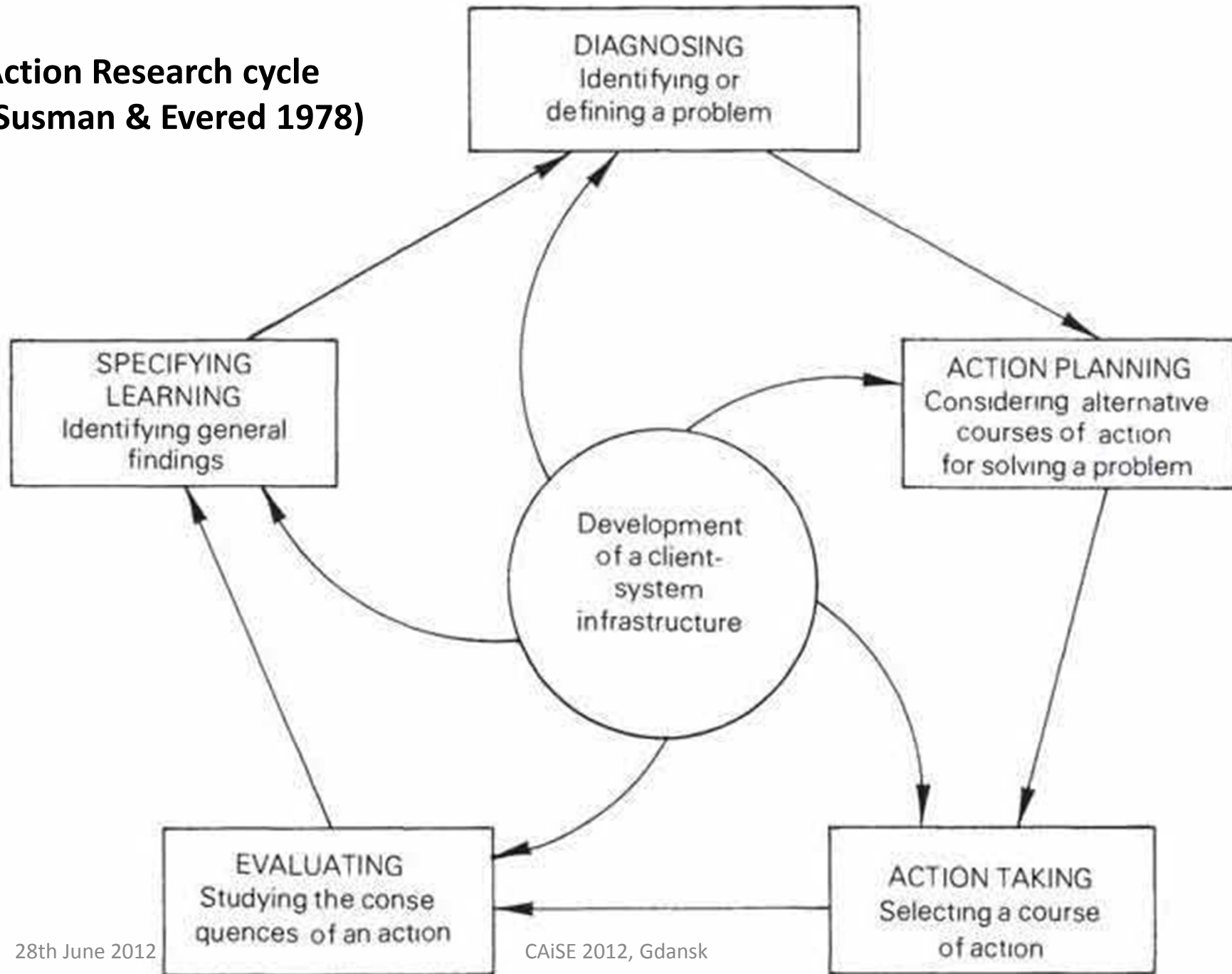
- Start with testing of prototype in the lab
- End up with using the artifact in practice
- Start with small samples of comparison, end up with large



- From: “It works in theory” before simulation
 - To “It works in the lab”
 - ... via increasingly realistic simulations ...
 - To “It works in practice”

3. Logical structure of TAR

**Action Research cycle
(Susman & Evered 1978)**



- This conflates **two** action cycles:
 - Action cycle of client
 - Action cycle of researcher
- Each has a different goal and justification

The engineering cycle

- The logical structure of a rational action is that of the engineering cycle
 - Problem investigation
 - Treatment design
 - Design validation
 - Treatment implementation
 - Implementation evaluation

The rationality of the engineer

- Separating solutions (“treatments”) from problems
 - Don’t define the problem as absence of (your) solution
- Acknowledging that there are many solutions
 - Your view is not the only one
- Specifying your action before you act
 - Think before you act
- Justifying your choice of action before you act
 - Comparison, trade-offs
- Evaluating your action after you act
 - You could have been wrong ...
 - Learn from the effects of your action

- Problem investigation → Stakeholders, goals,
Phenomena,
diagnosis,
evaluation
- Treatment design
- Design validation
- Treatment implementation
- Implementation evaluation

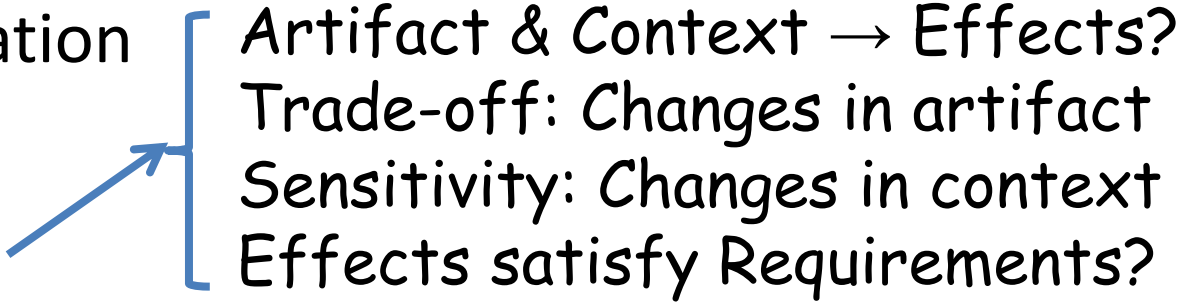
Treatment =
interaction between
artifact and context.

- Problem investigation
- Treatment design
- Design validation
- Treatment implementation
- Implementation evaluation



Requirements?
Contribution to goals?
Available treatments?
Design a treatment.

- Interaction between pill and patient
- Interaction between Software and its Context
- Interaction between method and its context of use

- Problem investigation
 - Treatment design
 - Design validation
 - Treatment implementation
 - Implementation evaluation
- Artifact & Context → Effects?
Trade-off: Changes in artifact
Sensitivity: Changes in context
Effects satisfy Requirements?
- 

- Problem investigation
- Treatment design
- Design validation
- Treatment implementation → Transfer to practice!
- Implementation evaluation

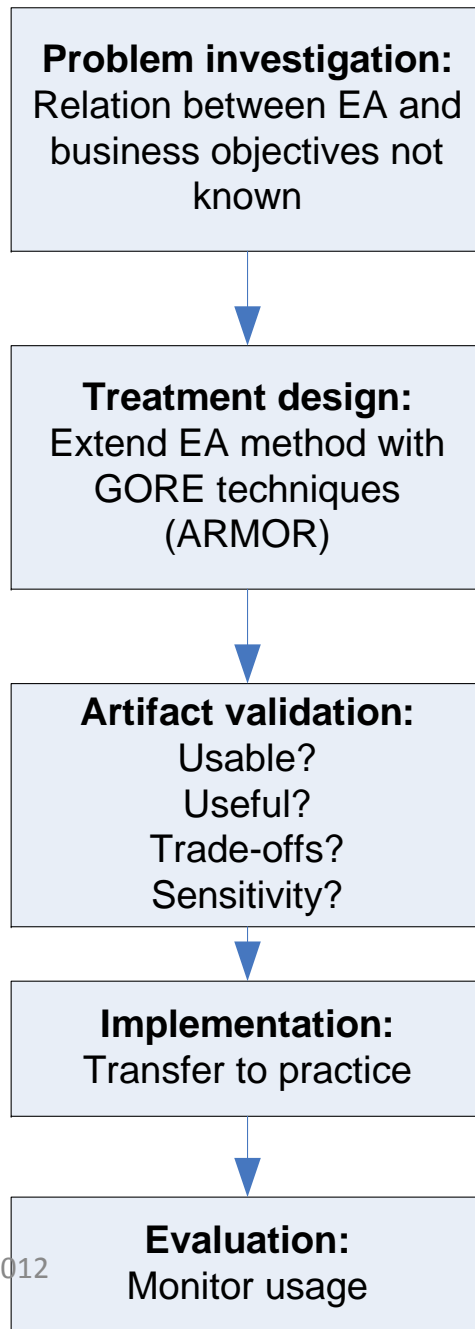
- Problem investigation
- Treatment design
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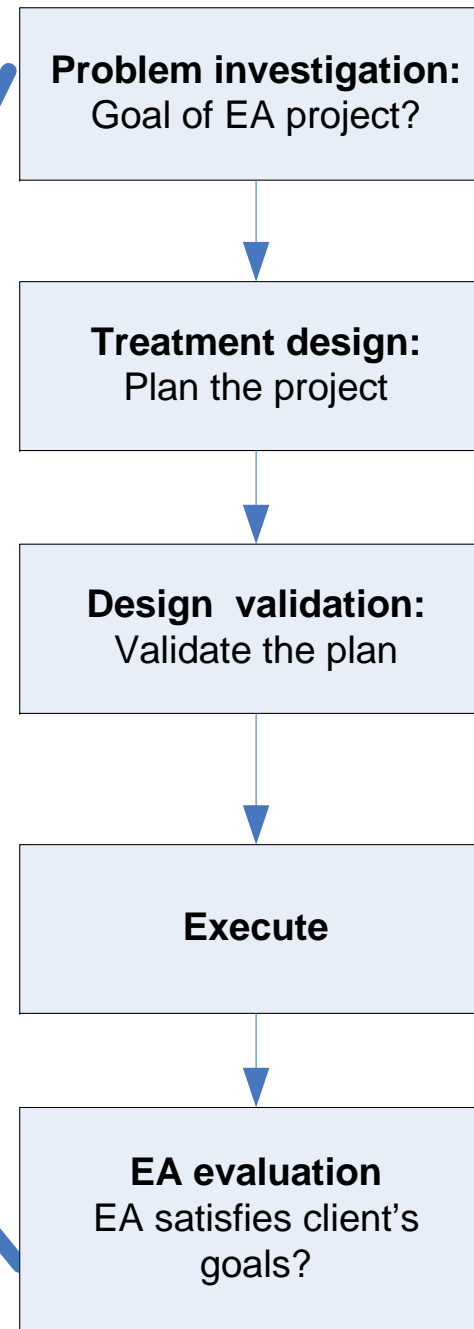
Stakeholders, goals, requirements?
Phenomena: Artifact & Context → Effects?
Evaluation: Effects satisfy Requirements?

- Example: Extending an enterprise architecture (EA) method with goal-oriented requirements engineering (GORE) manage links to business goals

Researcher's cycle



Client cycle



- Two goals
 - The client evaluates its redesigned EA against its goals
 - The researcher validates ARMOR against **his** goal
- Three roles for the researcher
 - Designing a technique
 - Using it to help a client
 - Learning from it
 - How do we use the client cycle to answer these validation questions?


The empirical research cycle

- This is the engineering cycle applied to one specific goal: Answering knowledge questions
 - Knowledge problem investigation
 - Research design
 - Design validation
 - Research execution
 - Results evaluation

The investigator's rationality

- Adopted from the engineer
- Applied to knowledge acquisition
 - Ask your questions before answering them
 - Do something (i.e. confront with reality) when answering them
 - Be honest about your uncertainty (“in which ways could I be wrong?”)
 - Justify your answers

- Knowledge problem investigation → Research questions,
Unit of study
- Research design
- Design validation
- Research execution
- Results evaluation

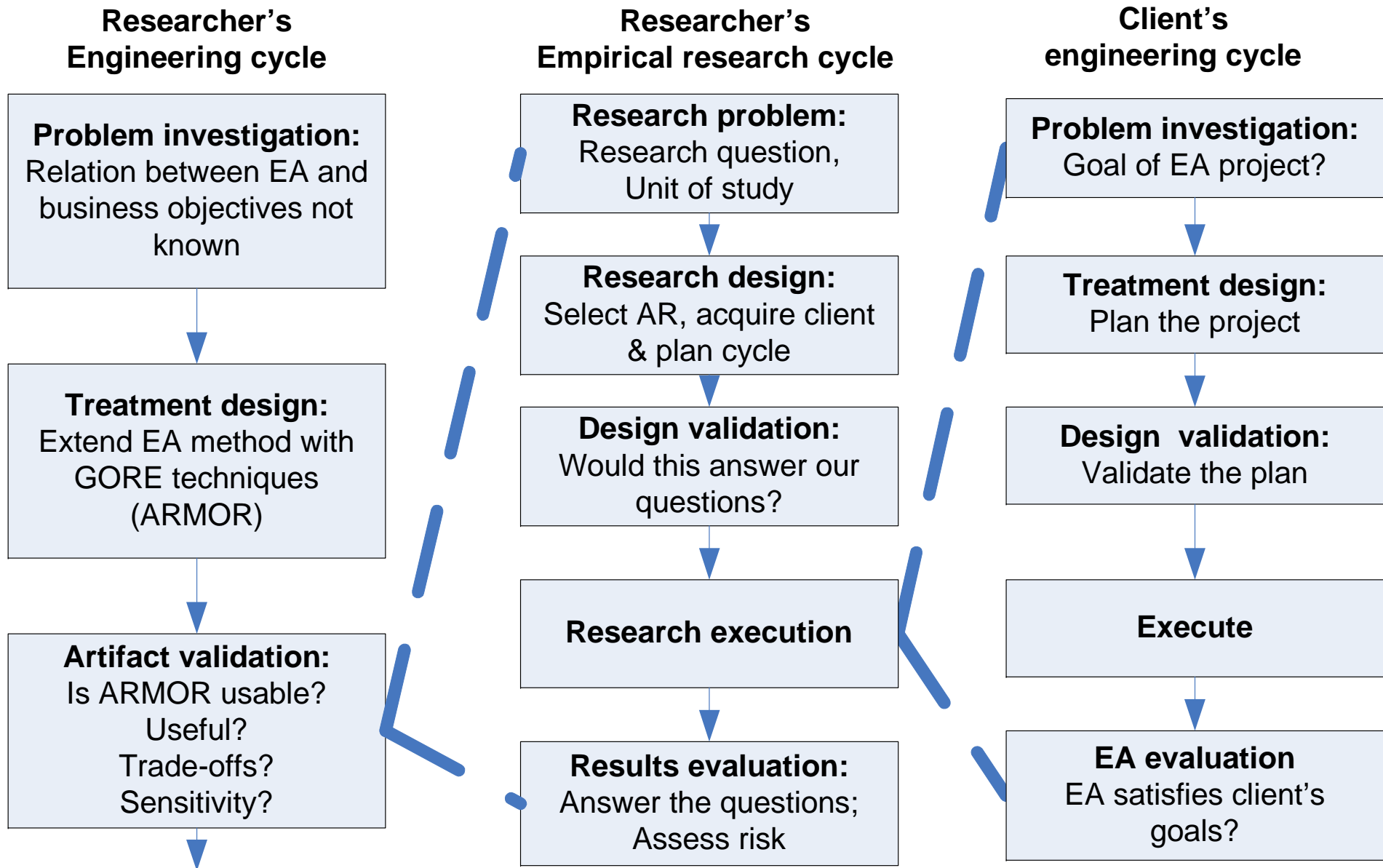
- Knowledge problem investigation
- Research design  Survey, observational case, Experiment, Action case, Simulation, ...
- Design validation
- Research execution
- Results evaluation

- Knowledge problem investigation
- Research design
- Design validation
- Research execution
- Results evaluation

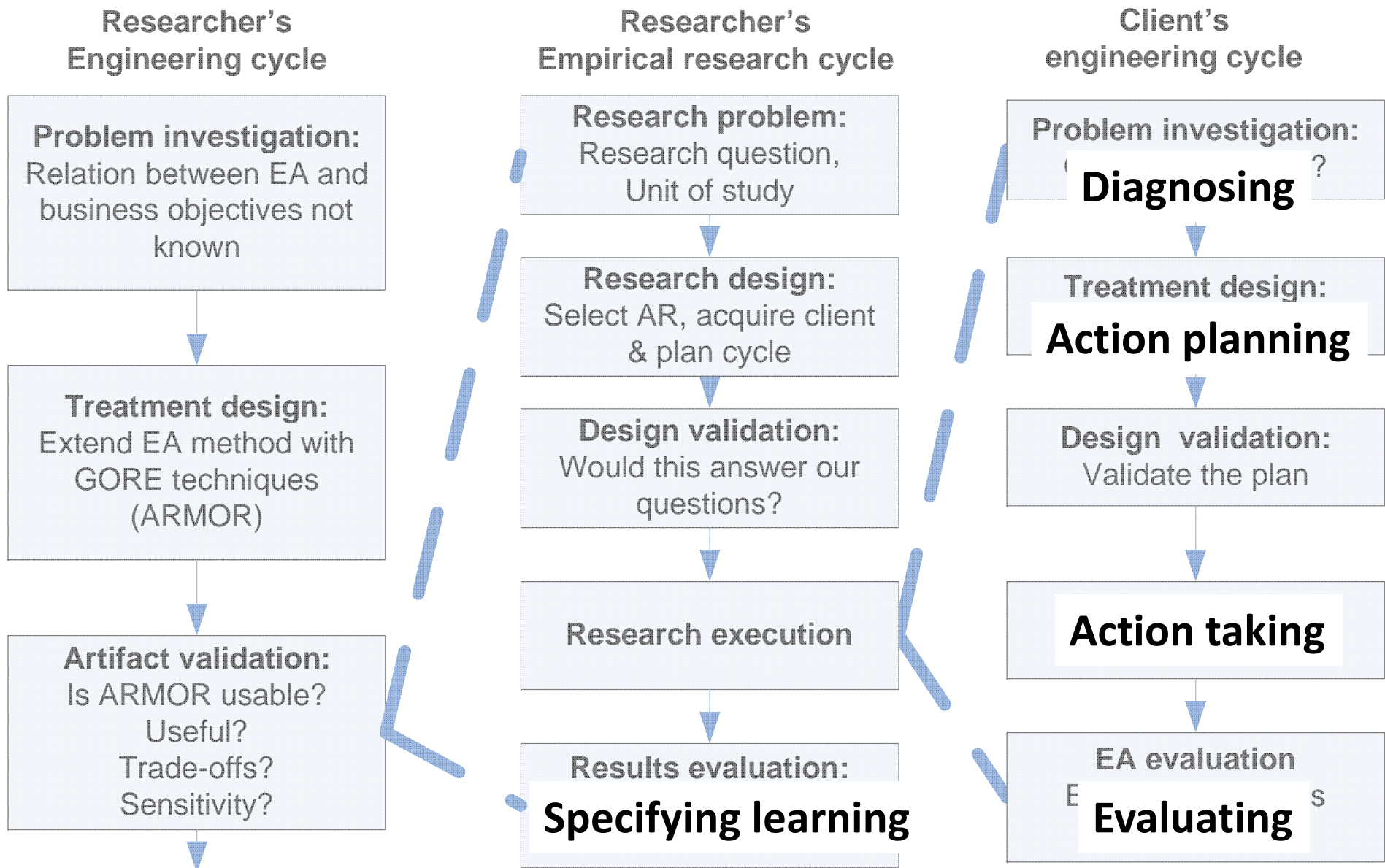


Would this really answer our questions?
Risk assessment of doing the wrong thing to answer the questions

- Knowledge problem investigation
- Research design
- Design validation
- Research execution
- Results evaluation → Did this really answer our questions?
Risk assessment of answering the questions incorrectly



Corresponds to the three roles of the researcher:
Designer, researcher, helper



Now we can see what is ignored in classical AR

Practical problem:

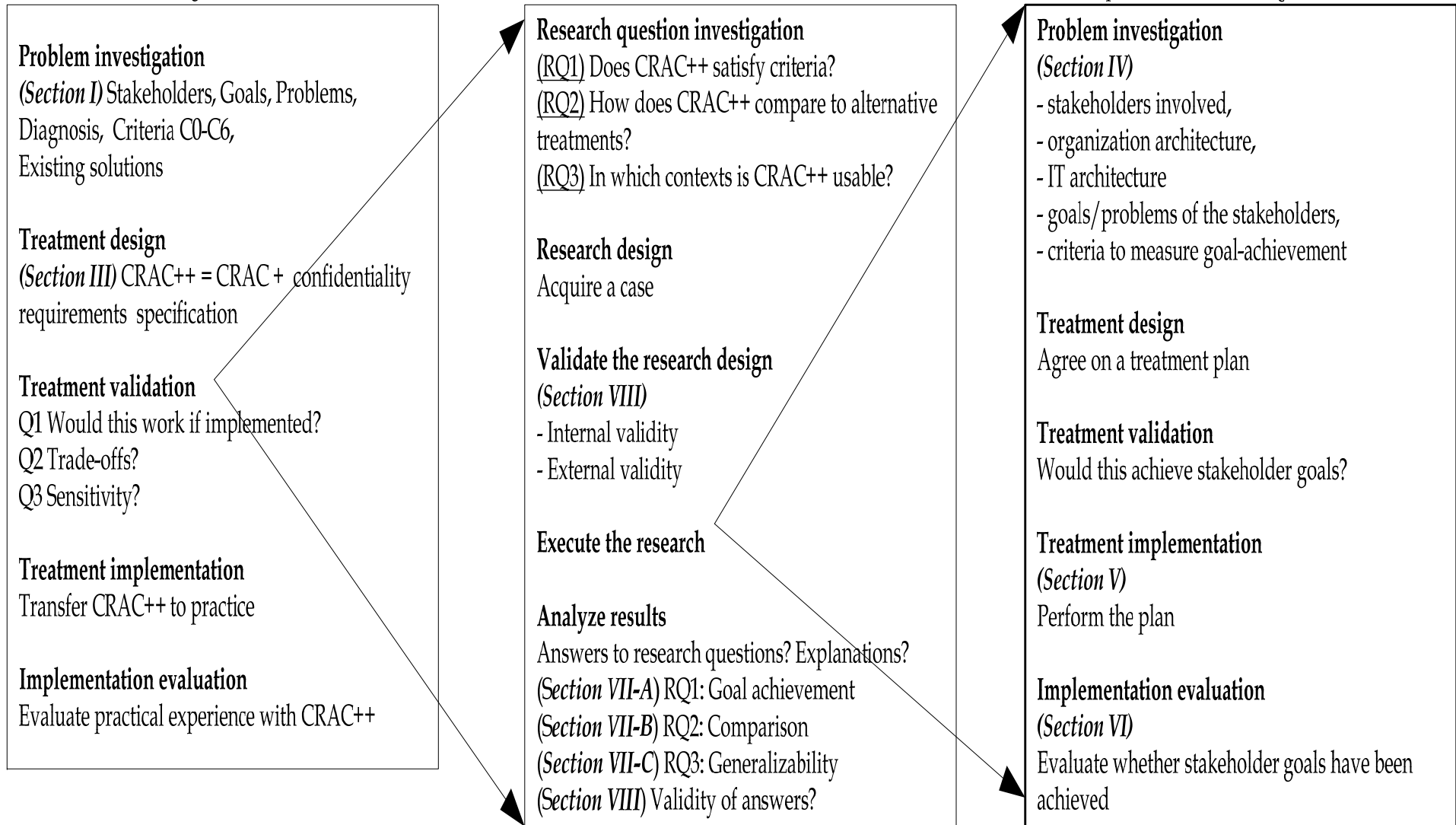
Specify confidentiality control requirements of an outsourcing client in an SLA.

Research question:

Is the proposed method valid?

Practical problem:

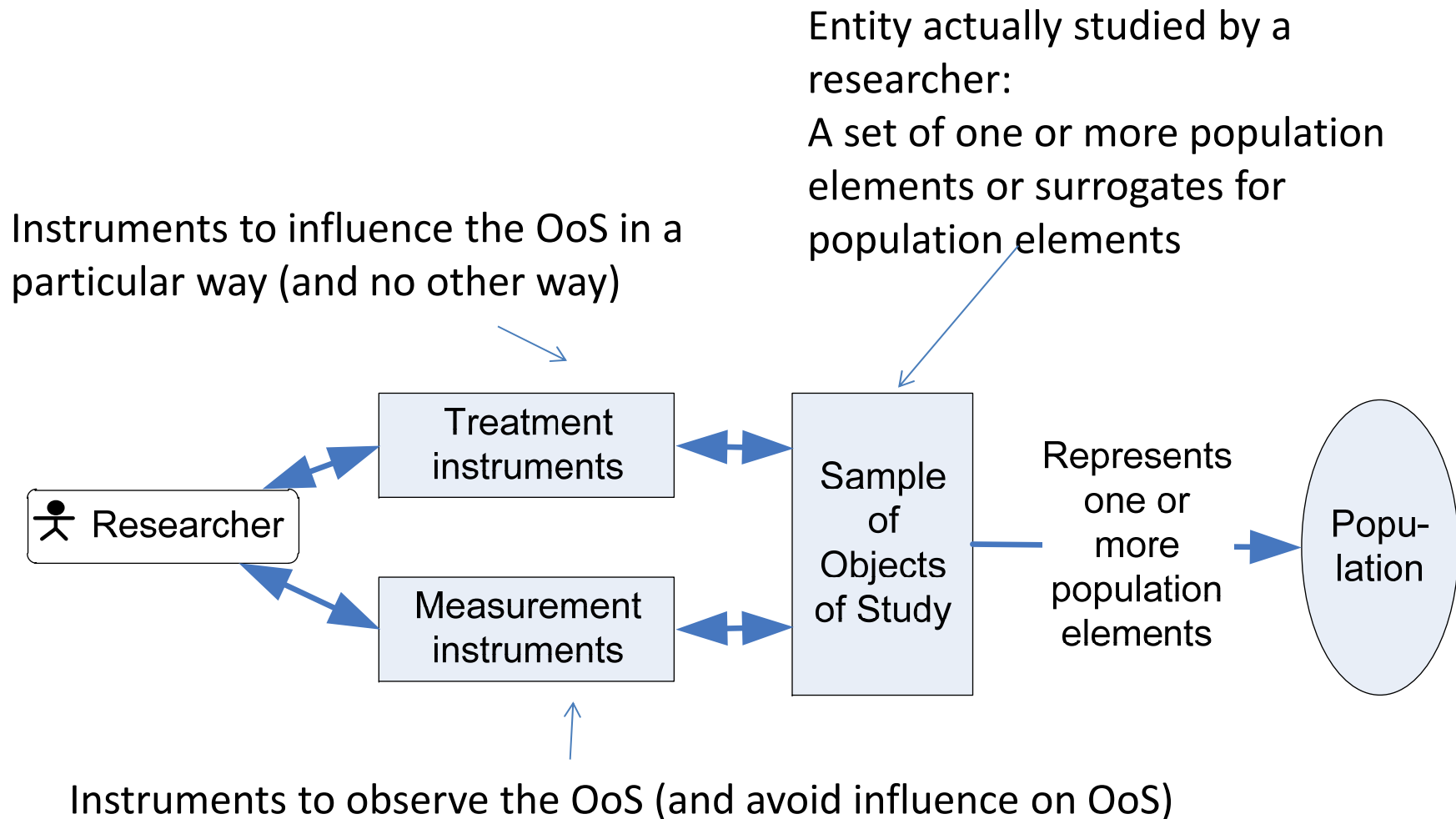
Specify confidentiality requirements of X in a particular outsourcing relation.



4. Generalizing from TAR

Discussion

General model of empirical scientific research



Generalization

- Inference from observations of the OoS to the population
- Like all non-deductive inferences, it is fallible.
 - Ampliative inference: there is more information in the conclusion than in the premisses
 - The researcher needs to give arguments in favor of conclusion
 - And discuss any reasons why the conclusion could be false (threats to external validity)

Kinds of generalization

- **Statistical inference** is reasoning about samples
 - Make an assumption about population distribution and parameters
 - Predict sample statistic
 - Observations confirm or disconfirm the assumption
- **Case-based inference** is reasoning about cases
 - Observe phenomena in a case
 - Explain in terms of architecture
 - Predict that cases with similar architecture will exhibit similar phenomena

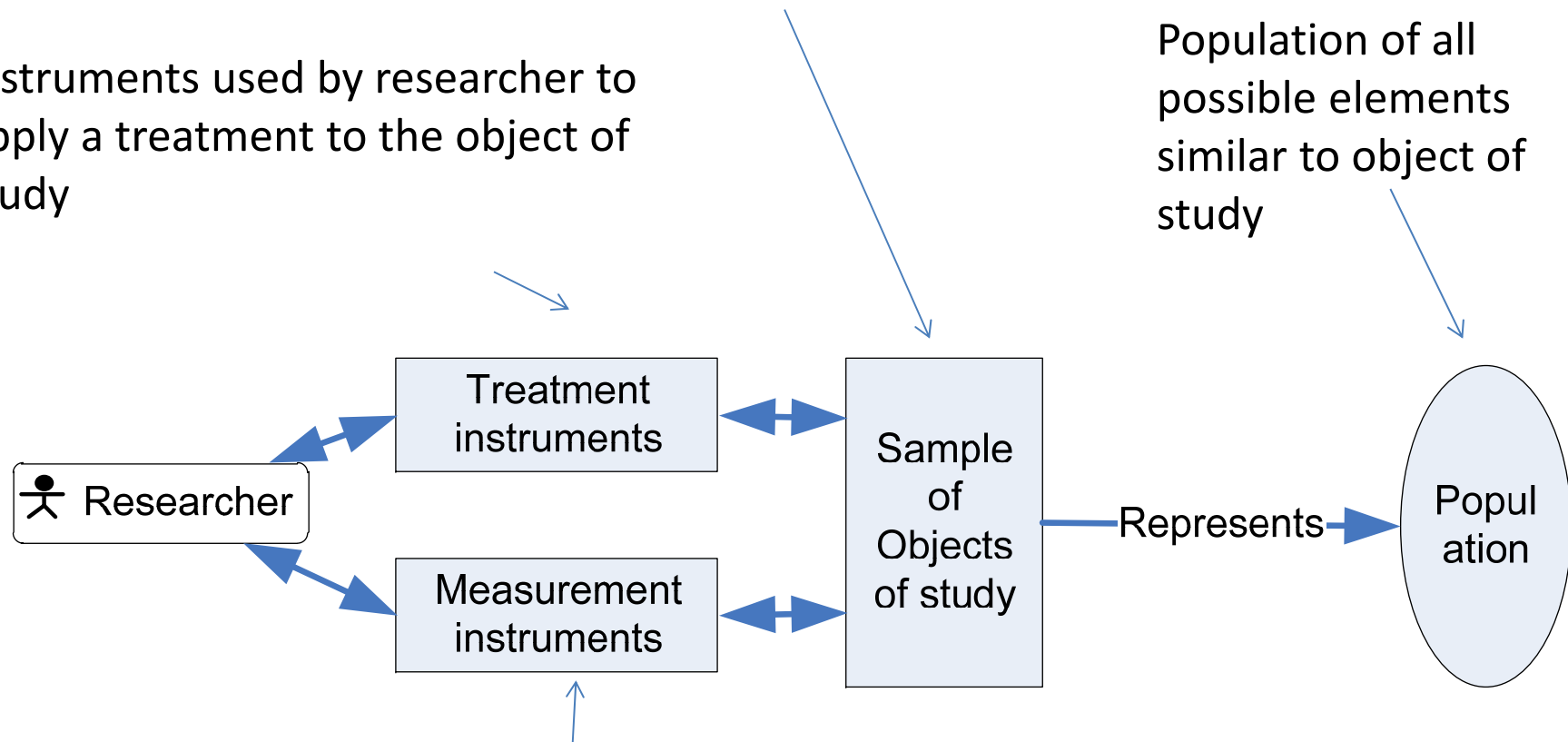
- Statistical inference uses the law of large numbers
 - Applied to a population
 - Population of what?
 - Of similar elements
- Case-based inference uses the similarity
 - Similarity of population elements (cases)
 - Similarity in what?
 - In architecture of population elements (cases)

Model of experimental research

Experimental unit(s) to be treated

Instruments used by researcher to apply a treatment to the object of study

Population of all possible elements similar to object of study

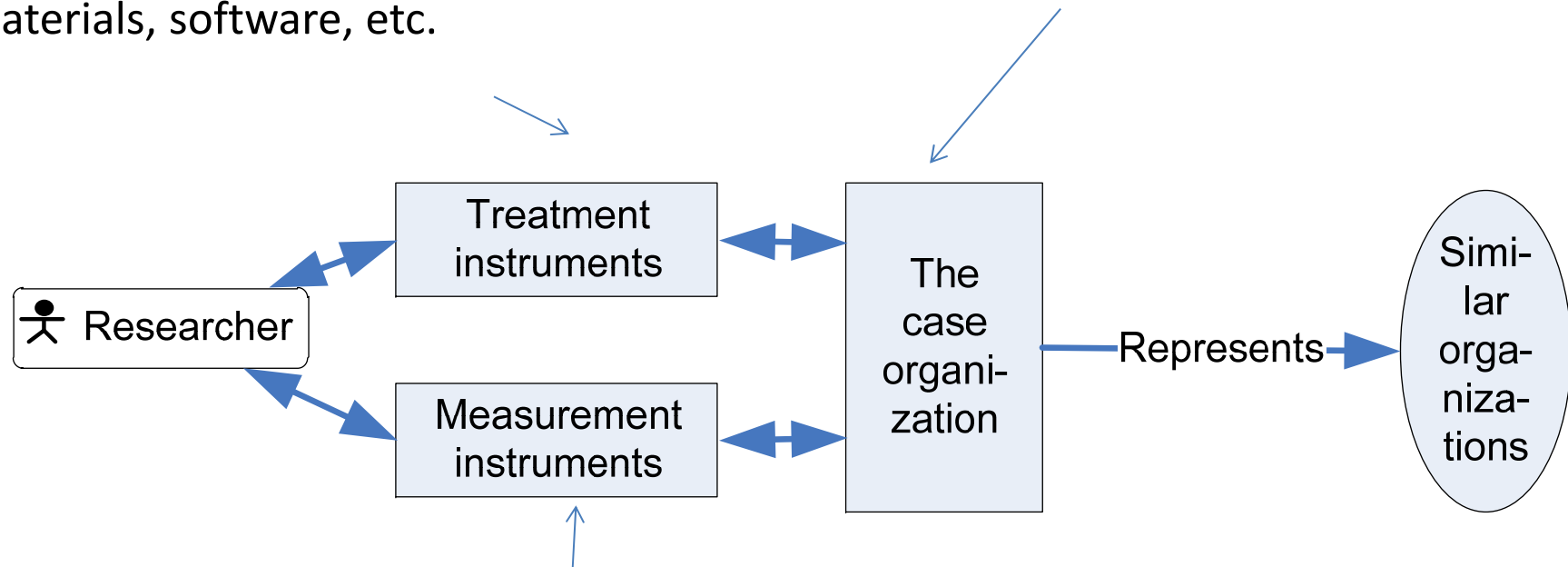


Instruments to observe what happened, e.g. pressure meters, voltmeters, questionnaires, interviews, cameras, a diary, logs, etc.

Model of action research

Instruments used by researcher to help the organization, e.g. teaching materials, software, etc.

An individual organization deemed to be representative for a population of unobserved similar organizations



Instruments to observe what happened, e.g. a diary, logs, etc.

Case-based reasoning

- Reasoning from an observed case to an unobserved case
- Is based on **similarity** between cases.
- Source in legal reasoning
 - When are two cases “similar”?
 - What follows from this “similarity”?
- Also well-known in engineering
 - Test an airfoil in a wind tunnel.
 - Infer how a real airplane with similar shape behaves in the air.
- If cases A and B are “similar” then **some** observations of A can also be expected to occur in B
 - Must be justified by a **theory of similarity**.

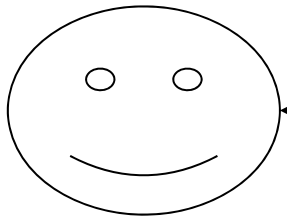


Theory of similarity,
Created, defended,
attacked and
(dis)agreed on in the
courtroom

Example of case-based reasoning

- Researcher designs a “rarity-based” lookup algorithm for distributed hash tables (DHTs).
- The algorithm should improve ability to store and look up larger numbers of service descriptions
- Service descriptions are relatively small and have many keys.

Simulated context



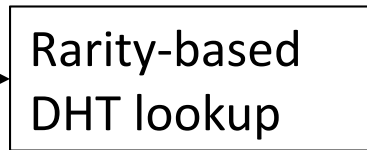
Stakeholder

- Pick number n according to some probability distribution;
- pick random document;
- pick n terms according to uniform distribution;
- use these as query terms

represents

- Eventual set of queries

Artefact prototype



- FreePastry DHT system with 500 nodes
- Java 1.5 lookup implementation;
- Run on DAS-2 distributed supercomputer;
- Limit the number of answers to 50

represents

- Intended implementation

Simulated context



- Random selection of 100 000 from a set of 260 000 documents with on the average 104 terms, created for IR research

represents

- set of resource descriptions. (Both have Zipf distribution.)

Example (continued)

- What theory of similarity is used in this example?
- *Any implementation of my rarity-based lookup procedure*
 - *Running on any P2P network*
 - *Using any distributed hash table*
 - *Looking up any set of small documents containing terms in a Zipf distribution*
 - *According to any query*
- *will have the same performance in terms of*
 - *Recall*
 - *Execution time*
- To provide more support for this we need additional validation
 - on extreme cases (more nodes, more documents, more queries)
 - On different systems (P2P network, DHT)

Architectural inference

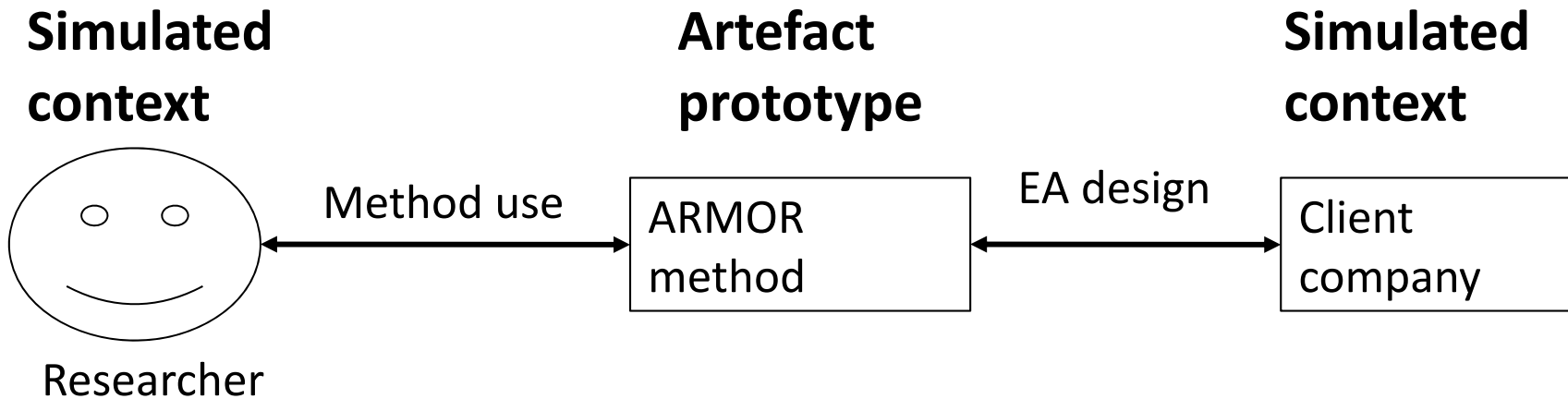
- How can this inference be valid?
 - Because it is plausible that the **mechanisms** observed in the observed case will also occur in the unobserved case ...
 - ... because they have similar **architecture**
- Architectural inference
 - Identify the case **architecture**
 - Identify the **mechanisms** by which the case responds to stimuli
 - **Explain** the observations in terms of these mechanisms
 - Conclude that in cases with **similar** architecture, similar mechanisms will produce similar responses
 - *Provided there are **no** countervailing mechanisms*

Repeatability

- Like any scientific claim, plausibility must be tested by repeating the research
 - By different researchers
 - Different time and place
 - Different objects of study from the same population
- This rules out any of these factors as relevant similarities

Regularities versus mechanisms

- Uses **statistical inference** to show there are regularities without using any knowledge of underlying mechanisms
 - Statistical claims are about samples from a population of similar elements
- Use **case-based inference** to test the presence of mechanisms
 - Case-based claims are about individuals from a population of similar elements



- Designer-researcher

represents

- Architects who will eventually use method

- Limited description

represents

- Eventual method description

- Company with EA organization

represents

- Future companies where ARMOR will be applied

- Researcher is not representative of intended users
- Client company is representative of similar companies
 - service organization, experienced architects, mature EA process are relevant features that impact the effectiveness of ARMOR

Summary of architectural inference

- Architecture of a case
 - Entities with **capabilities**
 - Relations of **influence**
- Mechanism of an architecture
 - The way entities interact when a system stimulus occurs
- Relevant similarities of cases are architectural
 - The case is a sociotechnical system with an architecture
 - Components have capabilities and influence relations
 - People have competencies, devices have specifications, matter has potential to respond

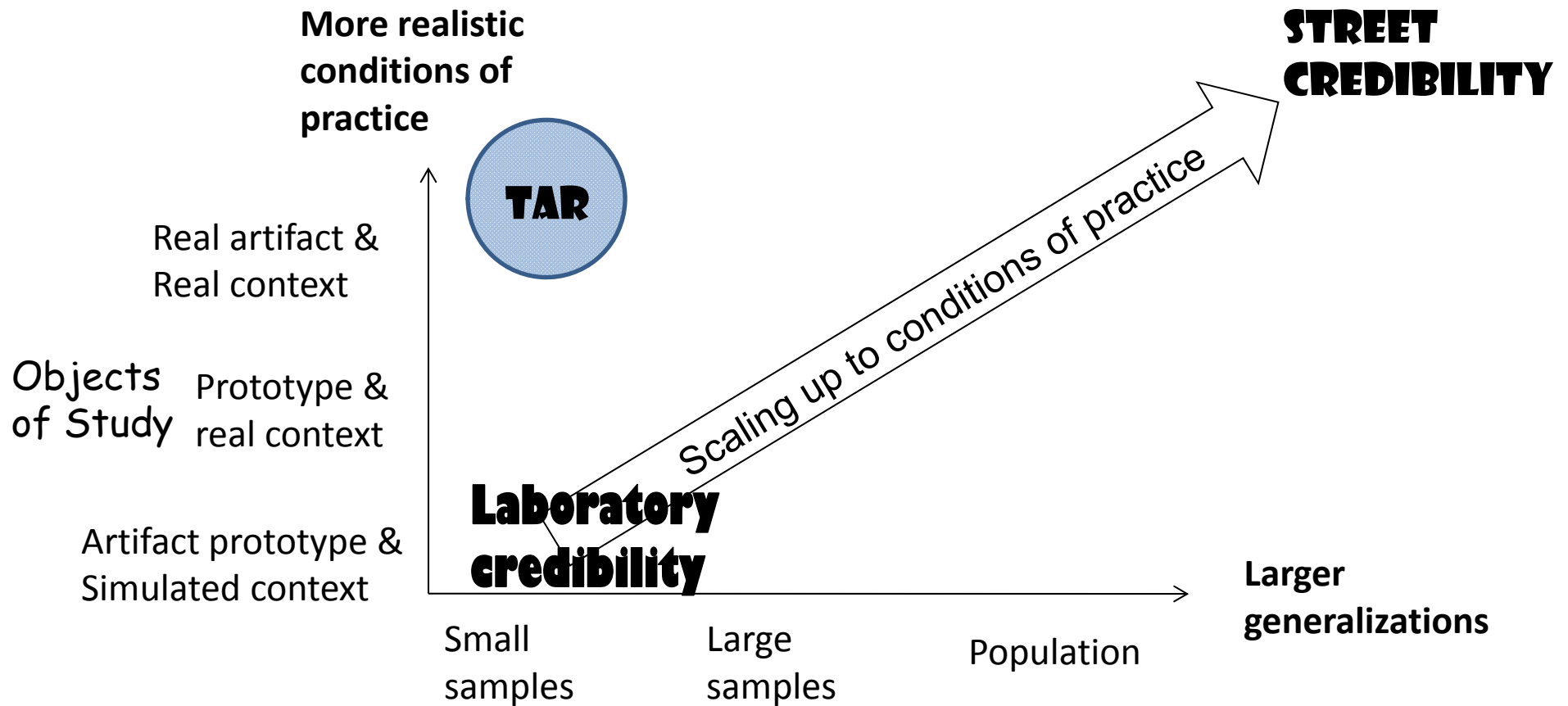
Architectural inference gives us architectural generalizations

- Generalizations are existential (“for some”, “for many”, “for most”),
- not universal (“for all”)
 - There may be exceptions
 - Individual cases have many architectures
 - Components may have many capabilities
 - A stimulus may trigger many interacting mechanisms
- Universality comes at the price of idealization
 - Laws of nature are about an idealized, non-existing universe
 - Point masses (physics), perfect rationality (economics) and Turing machines (computer science)

4. Summary

TAR and design science

- Design science is designing and investigating artifacts
- Characteristic for design science is scaling up to practice
 - Start at the desk,
 - continue in the lab,
 - end up in the field
 - In the field you do TAR and/or statistical field experiments
 - Similar to scaling up in pharmaceutical research



- From: “It works in theory” before simulation
 - To “It works in the lab”
 - ... via increasingly realistic simulations ...
 - To “It works in practice”

Limitations of TAR

- Not always clear which of the many conditions of the case contribute to the effect of the artifact
 - These conditions must be present in other cases too
 - But we may not know what they are
- Competencies of people in the context may have a major influence on effect of artifact
- Manage these limitations by repeating the research

- Technical action research is the validation of an artifact by applying it in a realistic case
- The technical researcher is
 - a designer
 - a helper
 - a researcher of knowledge questions
- Generalize by identifying architecture and mechanisms