An Initial Framework For Organic Data Science (?)

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ABSTRACT
An abstract.

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INTRODUCTION
Over the last hundred years, science has become an increasingly collaborative endeavor. Scientific collaborations, sometimes referred to as "collaboratories" and "virtual organizations", range from those that work closely together and others that are more loosely coordinated [Ribes and Finholt 2009; Bos et al 2007]. Some scientific collaborations revolve around sharing instruments (e.g., the Large Hadron Collider), others focus on a shared database (e.g., the Sloan Sky Digital Survey), others form around a shared software base (e.g., SciPy), and others around a shared scientific quest (e.g., the Human Genome Project). Our work focuses on scientific collaborations that revolve around complex science questions that require:

- *multi-disciplinary contributions*, so that the participants belong to different communities with diverse practices and approaches

- *significant coordination*, where ideas, models, software and data need to be discussed and integrated to address the shared science goals

- *unanticipated participants*, so that the collaboration needs to grow over time and include new contributors that may bring in new knowledge, skills, or data

Such scientific collaborations do occur but are not very common. Unfortunately, they take a significant amount of effort to pull together and to sustain for the usually long period of time required to solve the science questions. Yet, these kinds of collaborations are needed in order to address major engineering and science challenges ahead (e.g., http://www.engineeringchallenges.org). Our goal is to develop a collaborative software platform that supports such scientific collaborations, and ultimately make them significantly more efficient and commonplace.

This paper presents an **Organic Data Science framework** to support scientific collaborations that revolve around complex science questions that require multi-disciplinary contributions to gather and analyze data, significant coordination to synthesize findings, and grow organically to accommodate new contributors as needed as the work evolves over time. The key idea is to open science by exposing science processes declaratively to enable broader participation. Science processes describe the what, who, when, and how of the activities pursued by the collaboration. The framework is still under development, and it evolves to accommodate user feedback and to incorporate new collaboration features.

There is a significant body of work on studying on-line communities [Kraut and Resnick 2011], notably on Wikipedia. Our work builds on the social design principles uncovered by this research. However, our belief is that scientific work is best organized around tasks, not topic pages.

There are a wide range of approaches that have been explored for collaboration, although they have not had much adoption in science practice [Introne et al 2013]. ==ADD MORE HERE.==

The paper begins with a motivating scenario of a complex science task that we are currently pursuing using this framework. We then review prior work on social studies that discuss the nature and challenges of scientific

collaborations, and on interfaces developed to support on-line collaboration.

APPROACH

Key features of our approach are:

1. **providing a task-oriented nexus driven by science goals** that connects scientists together, organizing tasks to help scientists track where they can contribute and when, as well as their past contributions

2. **incorporating principles from social sciences research on successful on-line collaborations**, including best practices for retention and growth of the community

3. **opening the science process in that the framework exposes all tasks and activities publicly**, so that all participants (especially newcomers) can immediately see what work is being done and what tasks they can contribute to

Task-Centered Collaborative Spaces

In practice, the contributors to the organic data science framework form an organization. We use tasks as an organizational mechanism for coordination. [Polanyi 1983] coined the terms and discussed differences between tacit as well as explicit knowledge of individuals in organizations. According to Polanyi an individual can have tacit knowledge without being able to explicitly express this knowledge in its essence. In contrast, explicit knowledge can be communicated in formal languages that can be processed by other persons. In their theory on organizational knowledge creation, Nonaka and Takeuchi described the transformation modes between tacit and explicit knowledge with socialization, externalization, internalization, and combination [Takeuchi and Nonaka 2004; Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995]. In our project, we aim at externalizing tacit knowledge of researchers to resolve and formulate tasks in the science process through ad-hoc collaboration in an open framework. While we are focusing on science processes in this paper, Davenport also described the importance of processes and tasks for the productivity of knowledge workers in an organizational context [Davenport 2013].

Decomposition of subtasks is an important aspect of describing tasks. Many explanations of procedures, including scientific and technical expositions, exhibit goal-oriented hierarchical structure [Britt and Larson 03].

Temporal aspects of task achievement are also important. In project management, the duration estimates and resource selection have been found to be important [Pietras and Coury 94].

The user interface should be designed so users have some initial structure to express tasks. [Van Merrienboer 97] proposes the use of process worksheets to guide students through complex tasks. [Mahling and Croft 88] also found that the formulation of tasks is greatly improved through form-based interfaces.

Social Principles

There are numerous studies about successful on-line communities [Kraut and Resnick 2011]. Many studies are focused on Wikipedia and other wiki-style frameworks, with topics as varied as the design of the editorial process [Spinellis and Louridas 2008], community composition and activities [Gil and Ratnakar 2013], incentives to contributors [Mao et al 2013; Leskovec et al 2010], critical mass of contributors [Raban et al 2010], coordination across contributions [Kittur et al 2009], group composition [Lam et al 2010], conflict [Kittur et al 2010], trust [McGuinness et al 2006], and user interaction design [Hoffman et al 2009]. These studies suggest a number of principles for the design of our on-line collaboration framework.

Figure 1 summarizes the social principles that we are using in our approach. We follow the organization used in [Kraut and Resnick 2011], but we focus here on social principles that are relevant to early stages of the community, and leave out more advanced principles (e.g., for retention of members and for regulating behavior). The principles are written to be self-explanatory, and in the next section we will explain how they map to features in our user interface (marked with numbers on the right-hand side of the figure).

Opening Science Process

We find inspiration in the Polymath project, set up to collaboratively develop proofs for mathematical theorems [Nielsen 2011; Gowers 2009a], where professional mathematicians collaborate with volunteers that range from high-school teachers to engineers to solve mathematics conjectures. The collaboration is centered around tasks, that contributors create, decompose, reformulate, and resolve. This project uses common Web infrastructure for collaboration, interlinking public blogs for publishing problems and associated discussion threads [Nielsen 2013] with wiki pages that are used for write-ups of basic definitions, proof steps, and overall final publication [Gowers 2013]. Interactions among contributors to share tasks and discuss ideas are regulated by a simple set of guidelines that serve as social norms for the collaboration [Gowers 2009b]. The growth of the community is driven by the tasks that are posted, as tasks are decomposed into small enough chunks that potential contributors can see a way to contribute.

Another project that has exposed best practices of a large collaboration is ENCODE [Birney 2012; Nature 2012]. In ENCODE, the tasks that are carved out for each group in the collaboration are formally assigned since there is funding allocated to the tasks. In addition the collaboration members are selected beforehand. Despite these differences with our project, we share the explicit assignment of tasks in service of science goals.

Figure 2 outlines the best practices and lessons learned from these two projects that are applicable to our work.

5. Starting communities

    5.1. Carve a niche of interest, scoped in terms of topics, members, activities, and purpose

    5.2. Relate to competing sites, integrate content

    5.3. Organize content, people, and activities into subspaces once there is enough activity

    5.4. Highlight more active tasks ❶②❹

    5.5. Inactive tasks should have "expected active times" ❷❻

    5.6. Create mechanisms to match people to activities ①

6. Encouraging contributions through motivation

    6.1. Make it easy to see and track needed contributions ❶②❸❹❺❻❼⑨❿

    6.2. Ask specific people on tasks of interest to them ❾

    6.3. Simple tasks with challenging goals are easier to comply with ❶

    6.4. Specify deadlines for tasks, while leaving people in control ❷③❹❼

    6.5. Give frequent feedback specific to the goals ("immersive") ②❻⑨❿

    6.6. Requests coming from leaders lead to more contributions

    6.7. Stress benefits of contribution

    6.8. Give (small, intangible) rewards tied to performance (not just for signing up)

    6.9. Publicize that others have complied with requests ④

    6.10. People are more willing to contribute: 1) when group is small, 2) when committed to the group, 3) when their contributions are unique ❸④⑨

7. Encouraging commitment

    7.1. Cluster members to help them identify with the community ③❾

    7.2. Give subgroups a name and a tagline ①❸

    7.3. Put subgroups in the context of a larger group ①❸④

    7.4. Make community goals and purpose explicit ①④❻

    7.5. Interdependent tasks increase commitment and reduce conflict

8. Dealing with newcomers

    8.1. Members recruiting colleagues is most effective

    8.2. Appoint people responsible for immediate friendly interactions

    8.3. Introducing newcomers to members increases interactions

    8.4. Entry barriers for newcomers help screen for commitment

    8.5. When small, acknowledge each new member

    8.6. Advertise members particularly community leaders, include pictures

    8.7. Provide concrete incentives to early members

    8.8. Design common learning experiences for newcomers

    8.9. Design clear sequence of stages to newcomers

    8.10. Newcomers go through experiences to learn community rules

    8.11. Provide sandboxes for newcomers while they are learning

    8.12. Progressive access controls reduce harm while learning

● Addressed by Feature   ○ Partly addressed by Feature

Figure 1. Selected social principles from [Kraut and Resnick 2011] for building successful online communities that can be applied to Organic Data Science. We focus on social principles that are relevant to early stages of the community, and leave out more advanced principles (e.g., for retention of members and for regulating behavior).

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5. Best practices from Polymath

    5.1. Permanent URLs for posts and comments, so others can refer to them ❶

    5.2. Appoint a volunteer to summarize periodically

    5.3. Appoint a volunteer to answer questions from newcomers

    5.4. Low barrier of entry: make it VERY easy to comment

    5.5. Advance notice of tasks that are anticipated

    5.6. Keep few tasks active at any given time, helps focus

6. Lessons learned from ENCODE

    6.1. Spine of leadership, including a few leading scientists and 1-2 operational project managers, that resolves complex scientific and social problems and has transparent decision making

    6.2. Written and publicly accessible rules to transfer work between groups, to assign credit when papers are published, to present the work

    6.3. Quality inspection with visibility into intermediate steps

    6.4. Export of data and results, integration with existing standards

● Addressed by Feature

Figure 2. Selected best practices from the Polymath [Nielsen 2011] project and lessons learned from ENCODE [Nature 2012] that can be applied to the initial design of our Organic Data Science framework.

FRAMEWORK

Our framework builds on top of the Semantic Media Wiki and uses the semantics to structure the task centered data. Normally users are scared by using semantic data structures. Therefore we provide an intuitive user interface which is easy to use and users not need to care about the semantics annotation. We designed all features based on the Social Design Principles in Figure 1 and the best practices in Figure 2. In the following we explain all main features in detail.

❶**Task Representation:** Every task is represented with an adapted wiki page. Tasks are accessible via their unique human readable URL. A task URL is basically the encoded task name. All task metadata is stored as semantic properties. Task pages follow a certain structure. The parent task is shown on the top. In the next line the actual task name is written. Below that, a subtask explorer navigation is provided. Alternatively, all subtasks can be represented as a time line visualization, illustrated in Figure 3. After the subtask block, a gray box represents all tasks metadata. Everything below this box is page content. Additionally we allow users to assign semantic properties comparable with key value pairs.

❷**Task Metadata:** Our approach distinguish between mandatory and nice to have metadata. Mandatory metadata attributes are the task type, the progress for low-level type tasks, start date, target date and task owner. The attributes

are needed e.g. to calculate the task progress or link the task to a person. Additional task metadata attributes are participants and the needed expertise to accomplish this task. Tasks are most relevant in a certain time interval. Therefore every task has a defined start and target date. Start and target date must be in the scope of the parent task. This time interval is used to calculate the progress of tasks depending on the task type. We introduced three different task types. High-level tasks have a high abstraction grade and a high uncertainty in the estimation of the task completion. E.g. a task on a project level. Medium-level tasks have a medium uncertainty in estimation of the task completion. E.g. represents an activity within a project and is may split into several subtasks. Low-level tasks have a low uncertainty in estimation of the task completion. E.g. small well defined tasks which can be accomplished in a short time period. We indicate the task type with different green colors in the task icon. High-level task is light green and a low-level tasks is dark green. The progress of every task is calculated dependent on the task type. For high-level tasks we estimate a linear progress based on the start and target date in relation to the today's date. The progress of Medium-level tasks is calculated as average of the subtasks progress. Low-level tasks are estimated by users because they know it best. To provide simple user feedback we created icons for each metadata attribute the color of this icon indicates the state of this attribute. Not defined attributes are gray, valid defined attributes are green and
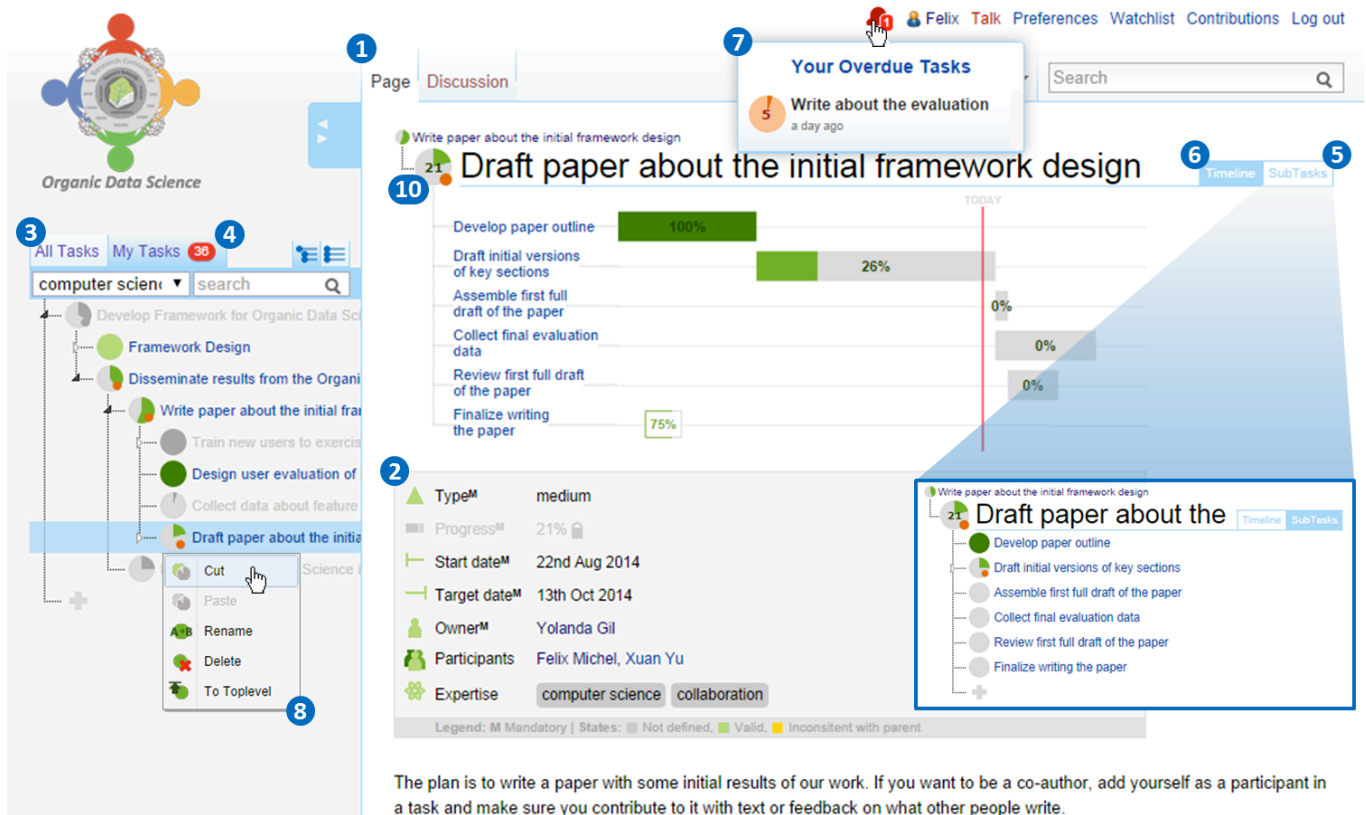

Figure 3: Organic Data Science Task Page.

attributes which are inconsistent with attributes of the parent task are yellow.

❸**Task Explorer:** Similar to well-known hierarchical folder navigation we provide a hierarchical task navigation. The nested task structure is expandable until the leaf is reached or the searched task is found. Additionally we provide a task title search and a task expertise filter. All tasks which does not match with filter are hidden. Except parent tasks which have matching subtasks are represented fade out to provide context.

❹**Personal Worklist:** The worklist contains a subset of tasks form the task explorer. All tasks which contain the logged in user as owner or as participant are part the worklist. A red counter indicates the current number of tasks in the worklist.

❺**Subtask Explorer:** Subtasks of the currently opened task are presented. The navigation works similar to the Task Explorer. No filter and search option is provided.

❻**Timeline Explorer:** All subtasks are represented regarding the time context comparable to a Gantt chart. Tasks on a meta-level are represented with an empty rectangle. The green part of the border shows the percentage of completed metadata. Content level tasks are basically illustrated with a gray rectangle. The green part represents the progress of the task. Start and target date define the position. Navigating via timeline works similar to the subtask explorer.

❼**Task Alert:** A task alert occurs when a task is not completed until target date is reached. Only the task owner get this alert notification. A red alert bell with a small number indicates the number of overdue tasks. The owner responsible to complete the task or get other users involved completing the task.

❽**Task Management:** We support ad-hoc collaboration this leads to an emerging task structure. After a certain time the task structure need to be adapted. E.g. introducing a new top level task. This frameworks supports actions like creating, renaming, moving and deleting tasks. To ensure a good usability all actions requires reversibility. Subtasks can be created via subtask explorer with the plus button below the last task. Root tasks can be crated in the task explorer on the left. If an expertise is selected or/and the "my task" tab is used the new task is created with the selected metadata. All other actions are accessible via context menu. Deleting a task means deleting the task itself and all their subtasks. Tasks can be moved with the cut and paste operation. Moving a task to the root level works only with the "To Toplevel" action. All moving actions can cause inconsistent task hierarchies. E.g. the time interval of the pasted task does not fit into the time interval of the new parent task. The same problem can occur with the tasks type. All tasks which have an inconstant state are
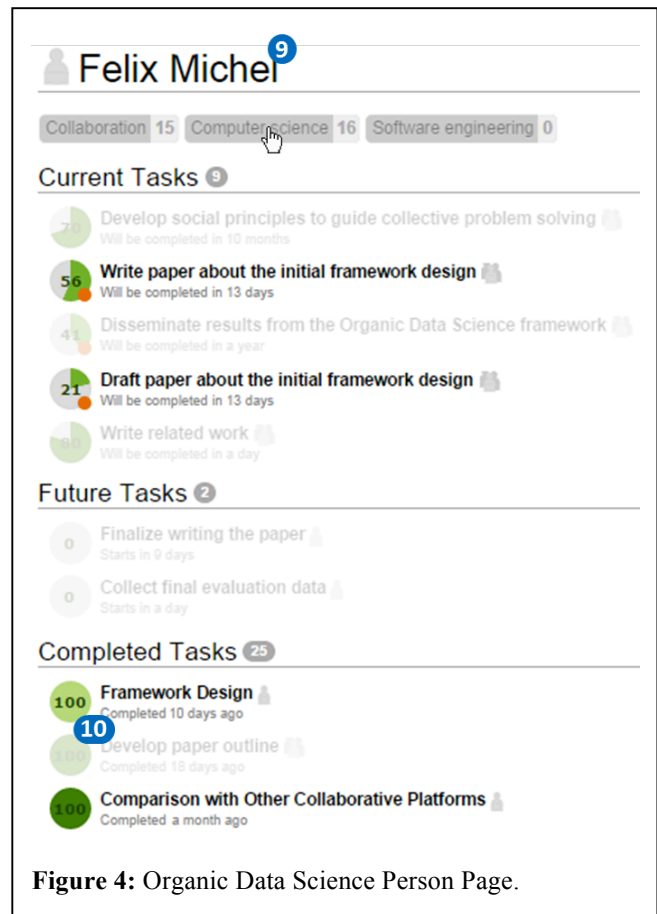

Figure 4: Organic Data Science Person Page.

highlighted in yellow and the parent tasks indicate this inconsistency with a small yellow triangle.

❾**User Tasks and Expertise:** Allows users to easily see what other users planning to work on, they recently working on and on what they have worked in the past. This creates a transparent working process. This makes it easy for newcomers to browse tasks of topic related users and help finding important tasks for themselves. The top of every user page contains a user icon followed by the user name. Users are individual persons and every user has expertise in a certain field. Hovering over a certain expertise fades out all not related tasks.

❿**Task State Representation:** The state of every task is summarized within the task icons (see Figure 5). Basically we distinguish between tasks on meta-level and tasks on content-level. Tasks on meta-level are represented with a cycle, the green part indicates the percentage of completed metadata. All tasks which have completed all mandatory metadata are content level tasks. Content level tasks are represented by a pie chart, the green part indicates the competed part. Different green are used to express the task type. We extended the explained states representation with the states illustrated in Figure 6 to cover all task states. All representations can be distinguished along two dimensions meta-level or content-level and active or passive. Tasks which provides context but not match an applied filter are
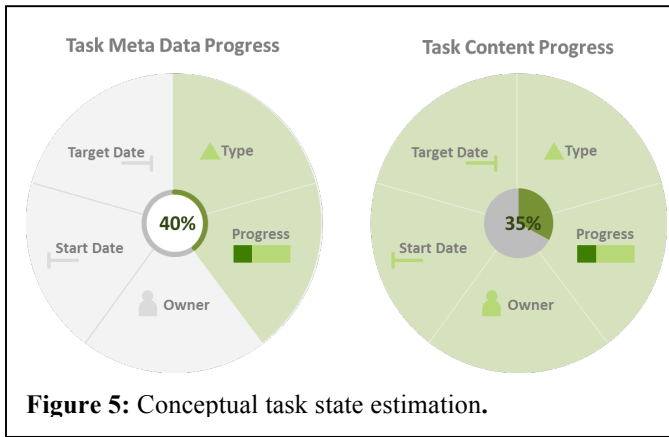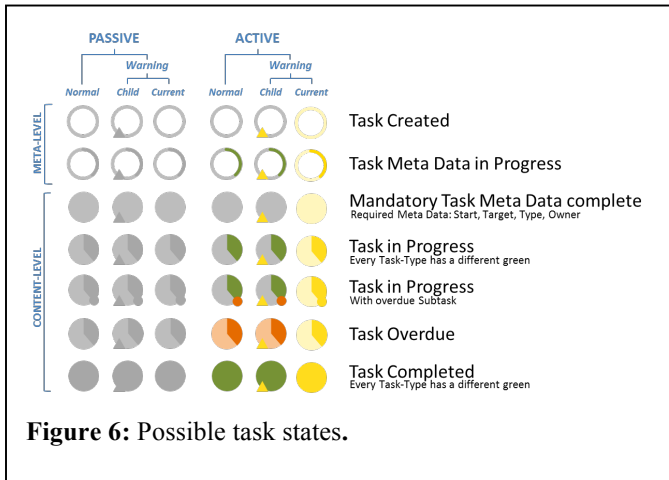
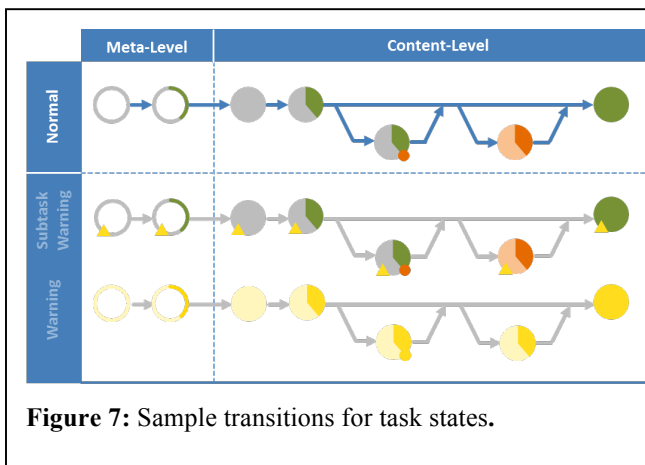**Figure 5:** Conceptual task state estimation.

Figure 6: Possible task states.

Figure 7: Sample transitions for task states.

Figure 8: Training a new contributor.

subtasks. All task icons existing in three different sizes. Figure 6 shows the most used medium size icons. Large size icons additional contain the progress in percentage as text. The large representation is use for the currently opened task to provide more information.

(11) Training new contributors: We set up a separate site for training new users. This training site also uses the Organic Data Science framework, so it has the same features 1-10 above. A new user is given a set of predefined training tasks, shown in Figure 8, each for learning and practicing a different feature of the interface. As they complete the tasks, they can see the task status changing. The training is divided in two phases. The first phase, which takes one hour, trains them to contribute to existing tasks. The second phase trains them to create new tasks and to manage them as owners.

EVALUATION

We evaluated our collaborative framework approach with the organic data science wiki. Currently this wiki has 18 registered users, thereof 12 active users and contains 122 Tasks. After the features has been rolled out we instrument our framework. Within 10 weeks we collected around 19,000 log entities. All task pages together have been accessed more than 2,900 times. All person pages together have been accessed 328 times.

passive tasks. This tasks are fade out versions of the active tasks. The progress of normal tasks is shown in different greens depending on the task type, this is not visible in the Figure 6. The progress of overdue tasks are indicated with an orange pie chart. A small orange point indicates that at least on subtask of any level is an overdue task. This is especially helpful for users to find overdue subtasks via task explorer. Yellow colored icons indicate inconsistent tasks caused by move operations. The yellow triangles indicate an inconsistent subtask similar to the overdue
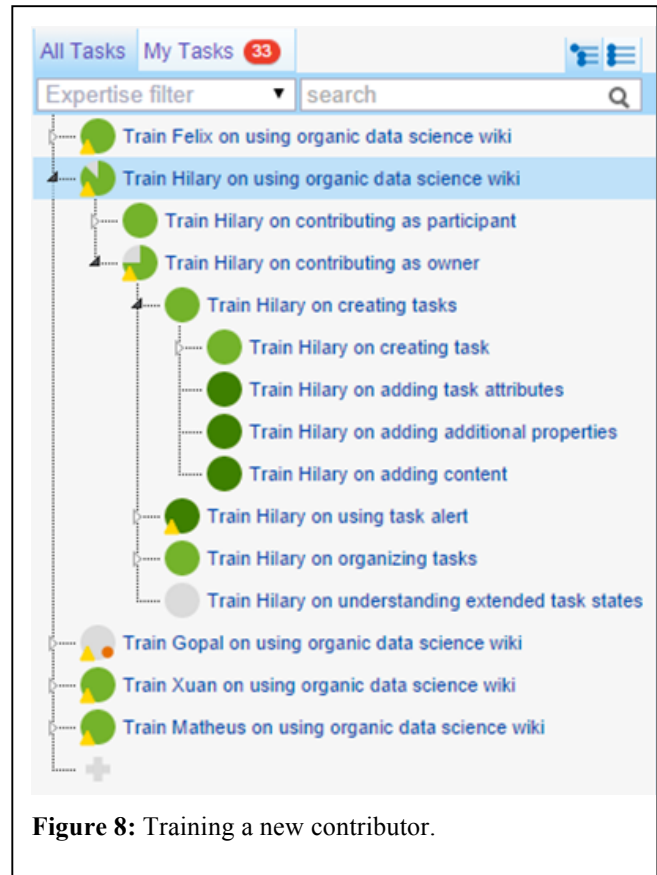
How easy is it for new people to participate? Our approach to lower the participation barrier is to provide our users a trainings wiki with several tasks to train. The trainings tasks follow the documentation structure and guides the new users practicing relevant topics. To evaluate how valuable the documentation in combination with the training we evaluate: *How often is the documentation accessed after training?* <mark>-> No one has accessed the docu after the training! ->maybe they are not logged in ASK USER</mark>

How often tasks are deleted short after creation by the same user? One user deleted in sum 3 tasks within five minutes after creation. This happened during he accomplished the trainings tasks in the trainings wiki.

What is the new user's total training time?

<mark>Monday Call: Ask Matheus, Hilary 1h+x, Xuan</mark>

How do users find relevant tasks? We analyzed the log data of our self-implemented java-script tracking tool. We measured how tasks pages are opened. The results are shown in Figure 9. Most users used the task explorer navigation to find their relevant pages. This is probably because users have overview over all tasks. At the same time it is possible to find relevant tasks quickly with a drill down or certain filters. The task alert not used that often but we expect that this feature will be more important a rising amount of tasks over time.
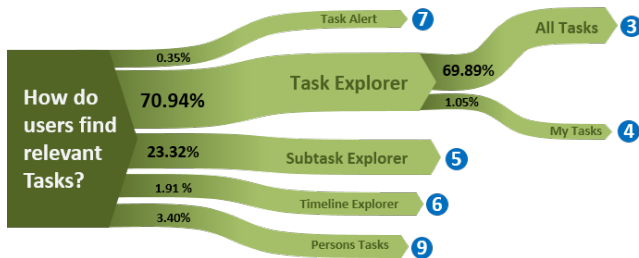

Figure 9: Finding Tasks via Features.

Where are collaboration touch points? To measure the collaboration we split this question into four sub questions. The system contains 122 tasks but the total number of tasks for the following questions can be higher or lower due to the reason that tasks can be renamed or deleted. We do not consider results where no persons are involved due to that this tasks are just created. All results are illustrated in Figure 10.

Ⓐ*Is more than one person viewing the task page?* Currently 48 percentage of all task pages are accessed by only one person. The high vale is due to the reason that we consider also new created pages. The percentage of new create pages is in a new wiki comparable high.

Ⓑ*Is more than one person signed up for each task?* For the evaluation we count the participants and add one person for

the owner if set. With 32 percentage it is most common that 3 persons are assigned to a task. Tasks with two person

Ⓒ*Is more than one person editing task metadata?* Currently 81 percentage of all tasks metadata is edited by only one percentage. The task creator often also adds the initial metadata which leads to such high percentage. Around 16 of the tasks metadata is edited by 2 persons.

Ⓓ*Is more than one person editing the content of tasks?* The result of this question has a similarity with previous question. The tasks content is edited to 88 percentage by one person and around 10 percentage of two persons.
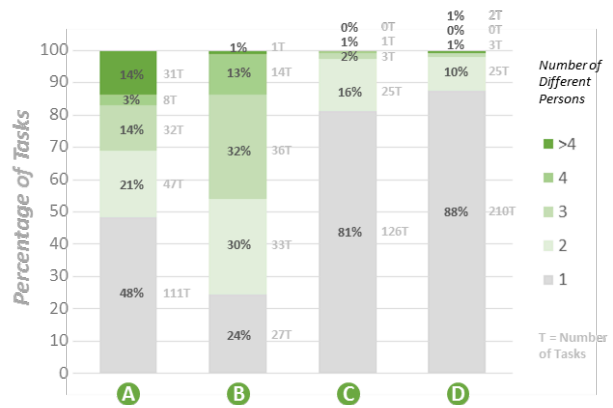

Figure 10: Task Collaboration Evaluation.

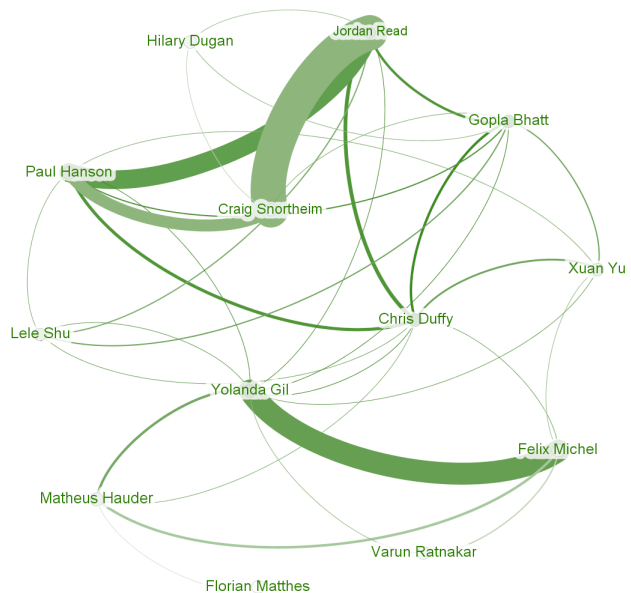**Figure 11:** Organic Data Science Collaboration Graph.

We used the tasks metadata attributes to evaluate this. Every task has a metadata attribute owner and participants. We created an artificial users set collaborators which combines the owner and participants. In the next step we created user-collaboration pairs and counted how often they collaborate on tasks. The result is illustrated in Figure 11.

Users are represented as nodes and the number of tasks they have in common is expressed with the strength of edges. It is simply visible that there are basically two strong collaborations exist. This spread collaboration groups exist because we there are two main goals. The smaller collaboration group is developing this organic data science framework and the larger group represents the researchers which use this framework to accomplish their science goals.

RELATED WORK

We discuss related work in three categories: approaches to scientific collaboration, on-line collaboration systems, and task-centered user interfaces.

Scientific Collaboration

[Bos et al 2007] did a comprehensive multi-year study of scientific collaborations and propose seven types of collaboratories (MAYBE PUT THIS IN A TABLE??): *1) Shared Instruments*, where instruments or sensors are used by a community (e.g., National Ecological Observatory Network [cite NEON]); *2) Community Data Systems*, where a data resource is maintained and used by a community (e.g., the Protein Data Bank [cite PDB]), *3) Open Community Contribution Systems*, where tasks are carried out by a community including citizen scientists (e.g., the GalaxyZoo citizen science project for labeling galaxy images [cite Zooniverse]), *4) Virtual Communities of Practice*, where a community shares interest in specific research topics (e.g., the Global Lake Ecological Observatory Network [cite GLEON]), *5) Virtual Learning Communities*, where the purpose is to learn through the collaboration (e.g., the VIVO research network [Krafft et al 2010]), *6) Distributed Research Centers*, where several institutions collaborate in a funded project (e.g., the ENCODE genomics project [cite ENCODE], and *7) Community Infrastructure Projects*, where a community gets together to develop shared computing and software infrastructure (e.g., the Community Surface Dynamics Modeling System [Peckham et al 2013]). Our work has some of the properties of a distributed research center, since the project is jumpstarted by a multi-institutional collaboration, and is an open community contribution system but without the prescribed tasks typically found on those systems. Organic Data Science can be considered a new type of collaboratory, where the tasks are defined on the fly as the project progresses and the collaboration includes unanticipated contributors.

[Ribes and Finholt 2009] analyze the challenges of organizing work in four scientific collaborations: GEON (Geosciences Network), LEAD (Linked Environments for Atmospheric Discovery), WATERS (Water and Environmental Research Systems), and LTER (Long-Term Ecological Research). They found that major challenges for organizing work were: 1) the tension between planned work, with its work breakdown structures with deadlines, versus emergent organization as new requirements and

unknowns are uncovered, 2) the tradeoff that participants face between doing basic research and contributing to the technical development in support of the research, and 3) the desire to incorporate innovations while needing a stable framework to do research. Organic Data Science is poised to offer the flexibility of easily incorporating emergent tasks and people, and the enticement to participants through acknowledgement of contributions so that uneven support from particular contributors is properly exposed.

On-Line Collaboration Systems

CITE HERE WORK FROM THE CSCW CONFERENCE.

Argumentation interfaces facilitate the collaborative synthesis of diverse ideas [Buckingham-Shum 2006], and have been used in the context of science. [Introne et al 2013] describe the Climate CoLab, a collaborative environment for climate research. It offers argumentation structures, where evidence and hypotheses from different scientists can be compared and integrated to create a common view on climate research. This work, however, does not focus on supporting science research tasks while they are being carried out, only on organizing results of scientific work. In addition, climate researchers can be considered one discipline, and we are investigating the integration of multi-disciplinary research.

Task-Centered User Interfaces

Some task-oriented collaboration systems have been developed for information seeking tasks (e.g., Web search). An example is Kolline [Filho et al 2010], which supports the collaboration is between inexperienced users that need help from more advanced users. Our goal is to support tasks that have interrelated subtasks and that involve collaboration among peers.

Other work on managing tasks in on-line environments addresses tasks for remote workers, such as microtasks in Amazon Mechanical Turk [Park et al 2014; Kamar et al 2012]. The workers are not explicitly coordinating the work, and the tasks are pre-defined for them and tend to be repetitive across workers.

User tasks are sometimes inferred from their use of the interface [Steichen et al 2013]. These tend to be tasks that have to do with interface use, rather than organizational or coordination tasks.

Task-oriented interfaces have been developed for scientific computing, where data analysis tasks are cast as workflows whose validation and execution are managed by the system [Chin 2002; Gil et al 2011]. In our framework, tasks can be decomposed into more and more specific and well-defined tasks that can be turned into workflows that can be executed for data analysis. The interface between our framework and a workflow system is an area of future work.

CONCLUSION

Text.

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