

Standing on the Shoulders of Giants by Managing Scientific Experiments Like Software

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Independently validating experimental results in the field of computer systems research is a challenging task. Recreating an environment that resembles the one where an experiment was originally executed is a time-consuming endeavor. In this article, we present Popper [1], a convention (or protocol) for conducting experiments following a DevOps [2] approach that allows researchers to make all associated artifacts publicly available with the goal of maximizing automation in the re-execution of an experiment and validation of its results.

A basic expectation in the practice of the scientific method is to document, archive, and share all data and the methodologies used so other scientists can reproduce and verify scientific results and students can learn how they were derived. However, in the scientific branches of computation and data exploration the lack of reproducibility has led to a credibility crisis. As more scientific disciplines are relying on computational methods and data-intensive exploration, it has become urgent to develop software tools that help document dependencies on data products, methodologies, and computational environments, that safely archive data products and documentation, and that reliably share data products and documentations so that scientists can rely on their availability.

Over the last decade software engineering and systems administration communities (also referred to as DevOps) have developed sophisticated techniques and strategies to ensure “software reproducibility,” i.e., the reproducibility of software artifacts and their behavior using versioning, dependency management, containerization, orchestration, monitoring, testing and documentation. The key idea behind the Popper Convention is to manage every experiment in computation and data exploration as a software project, using tools and services that are readily available now and enjoy wide popularity. By doing so, scientific explorations become reproducible with the same convenience, efficiency, and scalability as software reproducibility while fully leveraging continuing improvements to these tools and services. Rather than mandating a particular set of tools, the Convention requires that the tool set as a whole implements functionality necessary for software reproducibility. There are two main goals for Popper:

1. It should be usable in as many research projects as possible, regardless of domain.
2. It should abstract underlying technologies without requiring a strict set of tools, making it possible to apply it on multiple toolchains.

Common Experimental Practices

Ad hoc personal workflows: A typical practice is the use of custom bash scripts to automate some of the tasks of executing experiments and analyzing results.

Sharing source code: Version-control systems give authors, reviewers, and readers access to the same code base, but the availability of source code does not guarantee reproducibility [3]; code may not compile, and even if it does, results may differ due to differences from other components in the software stack. While sharing source code is beneficial, it leaves readers with the daunting task of recompiling, reconfiguring, deploying, and re-executing an experiment.



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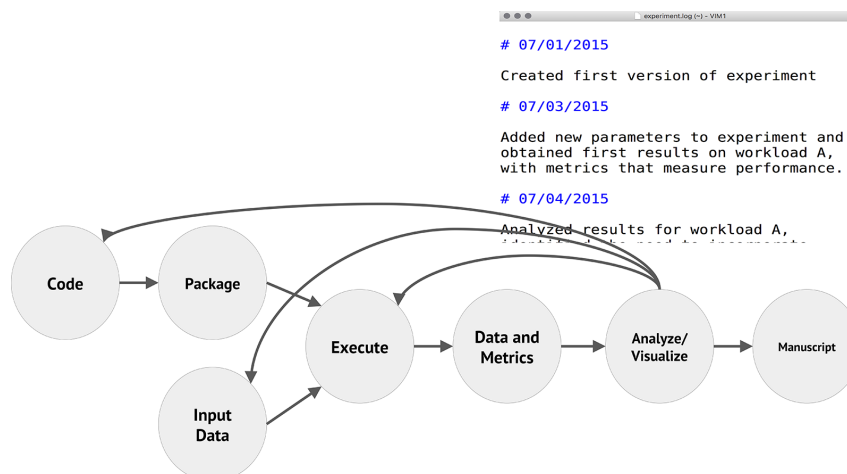


Figure 1: A generic experimentation workflow typically followed by researchers in projects with a computational component. Some of the reasons to iterate (backwards-going arrows) are: fixing a bug in the code of a system, changing a parameter of an experiment, or running the same experiment on a new workload or compute platform. Although not usually done, in some cases researchers keep a chronological record of how experiments evolve over time (the analogy of the lab notebook in experimental sciences).

Experiment repositories: An alternative to sharing source code is experiment repositories [4]. These allow researchers to upload artifacts associated with a paper, such as input datasets. Similar to code repositories, one of the main problems is the lack of automation and structure for the artifacts.

Virtual machines: A Virtual Machine (VM) can be used to partially address the limitations of only sharing source code. However, in the case of systems research where the performance is the subject of study, the overheads in terms of performance (the hypervisor “tax”) and management (creating, storing, and transferring) can be high and, in some cases, cannot be accounted for easily [5].

Data analysis ad hoc approaches: A common approach to analyze data is to capture CSV files and manually paste their contents into Excel or Google spreadsheets. This manual manipulation and plotting lacks the ability to record important steps in the process of analyzing results, such as the series of steps that it took to go from a CSV to a figure.

Eyeball validation: Assuming the reader is able to recreate the environment of an experiment, validating the outcome requires domain-specific expertise in order to determine the differences between original and recreated environments that might be the root cause of any discrepancies in the results.

Goals for a New Methodology

A diagram of a generic experimentation workflow is shown in Figure 1. The problem with current practices is that each practice only partially covers the workflow. For example, sharing source code only covers the first task (source code), experiment packing only covers the second one (packaging), and so on. Based on this, we see the need for a new methodology that:

- ◆ Is reproducible without incurring any extra work for the researcher and requires the same or less effort than current practices but does things systematically.
- ◆ Improves the personal workflows of scientists by having a common methodology that works for as many projects as possible and that can be used as the basis of collaboration.
- ◆ Captures the end-to-end workflow in a modern way, including the history of changes that are made to an article throughout its life cycle.

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- ◆ Makes use of existing tools (don’t reinvent the wheel!); the DevOps toolkit is already comprehensive and easy to use.
- ◆ Has the ability to handle large datasets and scale to an arbitrary number of machines.
- ◆ Captures validation criteria in an explicit manner so that subjective evaluation of results of a re-execution is minimized.
- ◆ Results in experiments that are amenable to improvement and allows easy collaboration; makes it easier to build upon existing work.

A DevOps Approach to Conducting Experiments

The core idea behind *Popper* is to borrow from the DevOps movement the idea of treating every component as an immutable piece of information [6] and provide references to scripts and components for the creation, execution, and validation of experiments (in a systematic way) rather than leaving to the reader the daunting task of inferring how binaries and experiments were generated or configured. Version control, package management, multi-node orchestration, bare-metal-as-a-service, dataset management, data analysis and visualization, performance monitoring, continuous integration, each of these categories of the DevOps toolkit has a corresponding open source software (OSS) project that is mature, well documented, and easy to use (see Figure 2 for examples). The goal for Popper is to give researchers a common framework to systematically reason about how to structure all the dependencies and generated artifacts associated with an experiment by making use of these DevOps tools. The convention provides the following unique features:

1. Provides a methodology (or experiment protocol) for generating self-contained experiments.
2. Makes it easier for researchers to explicitly specify validation criteria.
3. Abstracts domain-specific experimentation workflows and toolchains.
4. Provides reusable templates of curated experiments commonly used by a research community.

Self-Containment

We say that an experiment is Popper-compliant (or that it has been “Popperized”) if all of the following are available, either directly or by reference, in one single source code repository: experiment code, experiment orchestration code, reference to data dependencies, parametrization of experiment, validation criteria and results. In other words, a Popper repository contains all the dependencies for one or more experiments, optionally including a manuscript (article or tech report) that documents them.

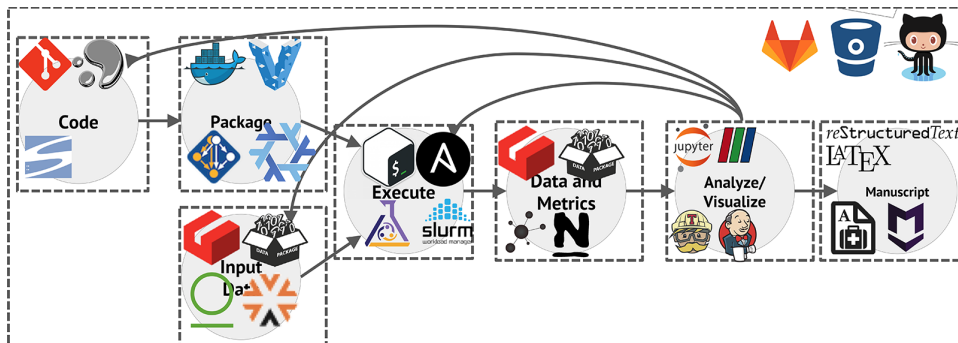


Figure 2: The same workflow as in Figure 1 viewed through a DevOps looking glass. The logos correspond to commonly used tools from the “DevOps toolkit.” From left-to-right, top-to-bottom: git, mercurial, subversion (code); docker, vagrant, spack, nix (packaging); git-lfs, datapackages, artifactory, archiva (input data); bash, ansible, puppet, slurm (execution); git-lfs, datapackages, icinga, nagios (output data and runtime metrics); jupyter, paraview, travis, jenkins (analysis, visualization and continuous integration); restructured text, latex, asciidoctor and markdown (manuscript); gitlab, bitbucket and github (experiment changes).

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An example paper project is shown in Listing 1. A paper repository is composed primarily of the article text and experiment orchestration logic. The actual code that gets executed by an experiment and all input datasets are not part of the repository; instead, they reside in their own repositories and are stored in the `experiments/` folder of the paper repository as references.

```
paper-repo
| README.md
| .git/
| .popper.yml
| .travis.yml
| experiments
| | l-- myexp
| | | l-- datasets/
| | | | l-- input-data.csv
| | | | l-- figure.png
| | | | l-- process-result.py
| | | l-- setup.yml
| | | l-- results.csv
| | | l-- run.sh
| | | l-- validations.aver
| | | -- vars.yml
| paper
| | l-- build.sh
| | l-- figures/
| | l-- paper.tex
| | -- references.bib
```

Listing 1: Sample contents of a Popper repository

With all these artifacts available, the reader can easily deploy an experiment or rebuild the article's PDF. Figure 3 shows our vision for the reader/reviewer workflow when reading a Popper for a Popperized article. The diagram uses tools we use in the use-case presented later, like Ansible and Docker, but as mentioned earlier, these can be swapped by equivalent tools. Using this workflow, the writer is completely transparent, and the article consumer is free to explore results, rerun experiments, and contradict assertions made in the paper.

A paper is written in any desired markup language (LaTeX in our example), where a `build.sh` command generates the output (e.g., PDF file). For the experiment execution logic, each experiment folder contains the necessary information such as setup, output post-processing (data analysis), and scripts for generating an image from the results. The execution of the experiment will produce output that is either consumed by a post-processing script, or directly by the scripts that generate an image.

The experiment output can be in any format (CSV, HDF, NetCDF, etc.), as long as it is versioned and referenced. An important component of the experiment logic is that it should

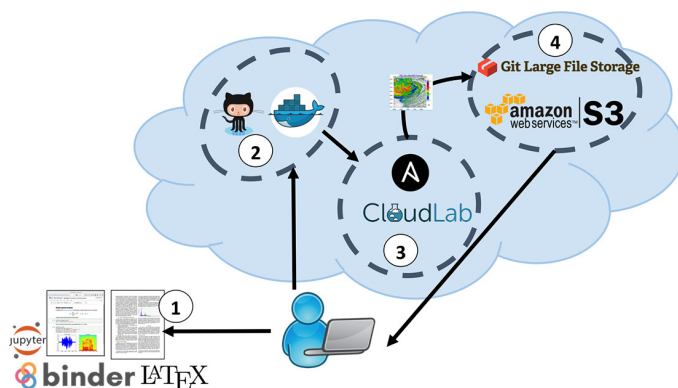


Figure 3: A sample workflow a paper reviewer or reader would use to read a Popperized article. (1) The PDF, Jupyter, or Binder are used to visualize and interact with the results postmortem on the reader's local machine. (2) If needed the reader has the option of looking at the code and cloning it locally (GitHub); for single-node experiments, they can be deployed locally too (Docker). (3) For multi-node experiments, Ansible can then be used to deploy the experiment on a public or private cloud (NSF's CloudLab in this case). (4) Lastly, experiments producing large datasets can make use of cloud storage. Popper is tool agnostic, so GitHub can be replaced with GitLab, Ansible with Puppet, Docker with VMs, etc.

assert the original assumptions made about the environment (`setup.yml`): for example, the operating system version (if the experiment assumes one). Also, it is important to parametrize the experiment explicitly (`vars.yml`) so that readers can quickly get an idea of what is the parameter space and what can be modified in order to obtain different results. One common practice we follow is to place in the caption of every figure a `[source]` link that points to the URL of the corresponding post-processing script in the version control Web interface (e.g., GitHub).

Automated Validation

Validation of experiments can be classified in two categories. In the first one, the integrity of the experimentation logic is checked using existing continuous-integration (CI) services such as TravisCI, which expects a `.travis.yml` file in the root folder specifying what tests to execute. These checks can verify that the paper is always in a state that can be built; that the syntax of orchestration files is correct so that if changes occur (e.g., addition of a new variable), it can be executed without any issues; or that the post-processing routines can be executed without problems.

The second category of validations is related to the integrity of the experimental results. These domain-specific tests ensure that the claims made in the paper are valid for every re-execution of the experiment, analogous to performance regression tests done in software projects. Alternatively, claims can also be corroborated as part of the analysis code. When experiments are not sensitive to the effects of virtualized platforms, these assertions can be executed on public/free CI platforms (e.g., TravisCI

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runs tests in VMs). However, when results are sensitive to the underlying hardware, it is preferable to leave this out of the CI pipeline and make them part of the post-processing routines of the experiment. In the example above, a `validations.aver` file contains validations in the Aver [7] language that check the integrity of runtime performance metrics. Examples of these type of assertions are: “the runtime of our algorithm is 10x better than the baseline when the level of parallelism exceeds four concurrent threads”; or “for dataset A, our model predicts the outcome with an error of 5%.”

Toolchain Agnosticism

We designed Popper as a general convention, applicable to a wide variety of environments, from cloud to high-performance computing. In general, Popper can be applied in any scenario where a component (data, code, infrastructure, hardware, etc.) can be referenced by an identifier, and where there is an underlying tool that consumes these identifiers so that they can be acted upon (install, run, store, visualize, etc.). We say that a tool is Popper-compliant if it has the following two properties:

1. Assets (code, packages, configurations, data, results, etc.) can all be associated with, and referenced using, unique identifiers.
2. The tool is scriptable (e.g., can be invoked from the command line) and can act upon given asset IDs.

In general, tools that are hard to script—e.g., because they don’t provide a command-line interface (can only interact via GUI) or they only have a programmatic API for a non-interpreted language—are beyond the scope of Popper.

Experiment Templates

Researchers that decide to follow Popper are faced with a steep learning curve, especially if they have only used a couple of tools from the DevOps toolkit. To lower the entry barrier, we have developed a command-line interface (CLI) tool that provides a list of experiment templates and helps to bootstrap a paper repository that follows the Popper Convention (available at <https://github.com/systemslab/popper>).

Use Case

We now illustrate how to follow the Popper Convention when conducting an experiment. For detailed documentation, visit our wiki at <https://github.com/systemslab/popper/wiki>.

Initializing a Popper repository: Our Popper-CLI tool assumes a Git repository exists (Listing 2). Given a Git repository, we invoke the Popper-CLI tool and initialize Popper by issuing a `popper init` command in the root of the Git repository. This creates a `.popper.yml` file that contains configuration options for the CLI tool. This file is committed to the paper (Git) repository. After the Popper repository has been initialized,

we can either create a new experiment from scratch or obtain an existing one by pulling an experiment template.

```
$ cd mypaper-repo
$ popper init
-- Initialized Popper repo

$ popper experiment list
-- available templates -----
ceph-rados  proteustm  mpip
spark-bench gassyfs   zlog
malacology  torpor    blis

$ popper add gassyfs myexp
```

Listing 2: Initialization of a Popper repo

Adding a new experiment: Assume the code of the system under study has already been packaged. In order to add an experiment that evaluates a particular aspect of the system, we first start by stating, in either a language such as Aver [7] or in plaintext, the result validation criteria. We then proceed with the implementation of the logic of the experiment, mainly orchestration code: configuration, deployment, analysis and visualization of performance metrics, and validation of results. All these files are placed in the paper repository in order to make the experiment Popper-compliant (self-contained).

Obtaining an existing experiment: As mentioned before, we maintain a list of experiment templates that have been “Popperized.” For this example, assume we select the `gassyfs` template from the list. GassyFS [8] is a new prototype in-memory file system that stores data in distributed remote memory. Although GassyFS is simple in design, it is relatively complex to set up. The combinatorial space of possible ways in which the system can be compiled, packaged, and configured is large. Having all this information in a Git repository simplifies the setup since one doesn’t need to speculate on which things were done by the original authors; all the information is available. In Figure 4 we show results of an experiment that validates the scalability of GassyFS. We note that while the obtained performance is relevant, it is not our main focus. Instead, we put more emphasis on the goals of the experiment, how we can reproduce results on multiple environments with minimal effort, and how we can validate them. Re-executing this experiment on a new platform only requires us to have host nodes to run Docker and to modify the list of hosts given to Ansible (a list of hostnames); everything else, including validation, is fully automated. The Aver [7] assertion in Listing 3 is used to check the integrity of this result and expresses our expectation of GassyFS performing sublinearly with respect to the number of nodes. After the experiment runs, Aver is invoked to test the above statement against the experiment results obtained.

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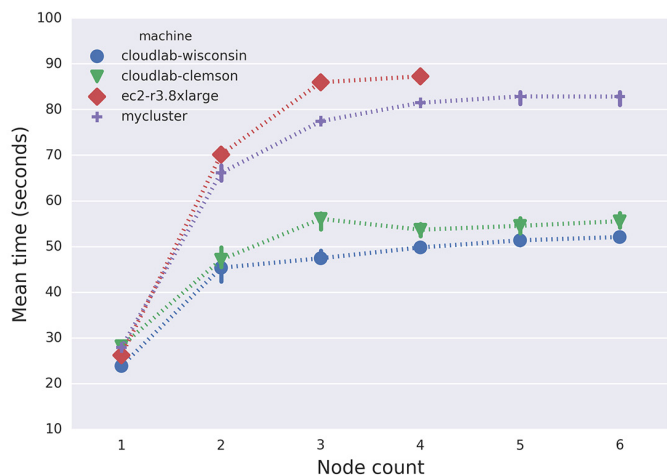


Figure 4: Scalability of GassyFS as the number of nodes in the GASNet cluster increases. The workload in question compiles Git. (source: <https://github.com/systemslab/popper-paper/blob/login/experiments/gassyfs/visualize.ipynb>)

```
when
  workload=* and machine=*
expect
  sublinear(nodes,time)
```

Listing 3: Assertion to check scalability behavior

Documenting the experiment: After we are done with an experiment, we might want to document it by creating a report or article. The Popper-CLI also provides us with manuscript templates. We can use the generic `article` template or other more domain-specific ones. To display the available templates we do `popper paper list`. In our example we use the template for USENIX articles by issuing a `popper paper add usenix`, which creates a `paper/` folder in the project's root folder, with a sample LaTeX file. We then can make reference to figures that have been generated as part of an experiment and reference them from the LaTeX file. We then generate the article (all paper templates have a `build.sh` command inside the paper folder) and see the new images added to the resulting PDF file.

The Case for Popper

We Did Well for 50 Years. Why Fix It?

Shared infrastructures “in the cloud” are becoming the norm and enable new kinds of sharing, such as experiments, that were not practical before. Thus, the opportunity of these services goes beyond just economies of scale: by using conventions and tools to enable reproducibility, we can dramatically increase the value of scientific experiments for education and for research. The Popper Convention makes available not only the result of a systems experiment but the entire experiment as well, and it allows researchers to study and reuse all aspects of it, making it practi-

cal to “stand on the shoulders of giants” by building upon the work of the community to improve the state-of-the-art without having to start from scratch every time.

The Power of “Crystallization Points”

Docker images, Ansible playbooks, CI unit tests, Git repositories, and Jupyter notebooks are all examples of artifacts around which broad-based efforts can be organized. Crystallization points are pieces of technology and are intended to be easily shareable, have the ability to grow and improve over time, and ensure buy-in from researchers and students. Examples of very successful crystallization points are the Linux kernel, Wikipedia, and the Apache Project. Crystallization points encode community knowledge and are therefore useful for leveraging past research efforts for ongoing research as well as education and training. They help people to form abstractions and common understanding that enables them to more effectively communicate reproducible science. By having popular tools such as Docker/Ansible as a lingua franca for researchers, and Popper to guide them in how to structure their paper repositories, we can expedite collaboration and at the same time benefit from all the new advances done in the DevOps world.

Perfect Is the Enemy of Good

No matter how hard we try, there will always be something that goes wrong. The context of systems experiments is often very complex, and that complexity is likely to increase in the future. Perfect repeatability will be very difficult to achieve. Recent empirical studies in computer systems [3, 9] have brought attention to the main issues that permeate the current practice of our research communities, where scenarios like the lack of information on how a particular package was compiled, or which statistical functions were used make it difficult to reproduce or even interpret results. Rather than aiming at perfect repeatability, we seek to minimize issues we currently face and to use a common language while collaborating to fix all these reproducibility issues. Additionally, following Popper quickly pays off at the individual level by improving productivity, e.g., when a researcher goes back to experiments to consider new scenarios.

DevOps Skills Are Highly Valued by Industry

While the learning curve for the DevOps toolkit is steep, having these as part of the skill set of students or researchers-in-training can only improve their curriculum. Since industry and many industrial/national laboratories have embraced (or are in the process of embracing) a DevOps approach, making use of these tools improves the prospects of future employment. These are skills that will hardly represent wasted time investments. On the contrary, this might be motivation enough for students to learn at least one tool from each of the stages of the experimentation workflow.

Conclusion

We named the convention Popper as a reference to Karl Popper, the philosopher of science who famously argued that *falsifiability* should be used as the demarcation criterion when determining whether a theory is scientific or pseudo-scientific. The OSS development model and the DevOps practice have proven to be an extraordinary way for people around the world to collaborate on software projects. As the use case presented here shows, by writing articles following the Popper Convention, authors can improve their personal workflows while at the same time generating research that is easier to validate and replicate. We are currently working with researchers from distinct scientific domains to help them “Popperize” their experiments and add new templates to our repository.

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