Automated Assessment of Computer Science Competencies from Student Programs with Gaussian Process Regression

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ABSTRACT
Recent years have seen a growing interest in learning analytics for computer science education. The significant growth of computer science enrollments coupled with the labor-intensive nature of human assessment has fueled the demand for automated assessment of student programs. Effective automated assessment tools can bridge the gap between the demand for support and restricted instructional resources by providing adaptive formative and summative feedback. Following an evidence-centered assessment design approach, we have devised an automated assessment framework for middle grades computational thinking. We report on an evaluation comparing regression models including ridge, lasso, support vector, and Gaussian process regression models utilizing a structural n-gram feature set to infer scores for students’ programs. The results show that Gaussian process regression outperforms other regression models with respect to mean squared error and adjusted coefficient of determination. They also show that the framework provides a promising approach with regard to dealing robustly with noise to effectively model student computer science competencies.

Keywords
Competency Modeling, Automated Program Assessment, Computer Science Education

1. INTRODUCTION
Computer science (CS) has become a foundational skill for students to thrive in a digital economy [14, 28]. To prepare students for future studies and science and technology professions, it is essential to ensure that they acquire robust CS competencies. A key strategy for developing CS competencies is through programming. However, learning how to program is challenging for novices [12, 13]. Hence, novice programmers need significant scaffolding to support understanding and effective use of CS concepts. Effective assessment of students’ understanding of essential CS concepts is an important step in providing students with appropriate scaffolding and feedback [11, 17]. Because the growth in demand for CS education has outstripped the supply of qualified teachers, providing every student with individualized, high-quality, and timely support and feedback is challenging. Effective automated assessment can guide adaptive formative and summative feedback to support effective CS education.

In order to provide students and their instructors with reliable automated assessments, we follow a hypothesis-driven learning analytic approach [4] based on Evidence-Centered Assessment Design (ECD) [20] to assess students’ competencies in CS concepts as demonstrated in their programs. Following this approach, we first identify CS concepts that students need to master in order to solve a particular computational thinking-focused problem with a block-based programming interface embedded in the EnGAGE game-based learning environment (Figure 1). We then collect log data from students’ interactions with the game. Content area experts then analyze the structured log data as evidence of knowledge (or lack thereof) of target CS concepts. Deriving evidence from students’ proposed solutions, we assess their mastery of identified CS concepts, such as creating appropriate algorithms and programs, and appropriate usage of computer science constructs, such as loops and conditionals. We encode programs as structural n-grams to extract essential structural and semantic information within them. Finally, we utilize regression models including ridge, lasso, support vector regression (SVR), and Gaussian process regression (GPR) models on the generated feature set to infer students’ competencies for knowledge of CS concepts and practices. We utilize GPR models to handle the remaining noise in the dataset. Evaluation results suggest that the models accurately model students’ CS competencies and are robust to noise.

2. RELATED WORK
Two primary approaches have been explored for assessing text-based programs: dynamic and static assessment [5,15]. In dynamic assessment, programs are executed against pre-defined test data to determine their correctness. Evaluation metrics include successful compilation, consideration of security threats, correct outcome, and efficiency metrics such as CPU runtime and clock time [15, 16, 25]. In contrast, static assessments are capable of assessing programs that are not necessarily complete. To perform a static assessment, an intermediate representation of the program needs to be generated from the source code. Examples of intermediate representations are textual representations, abstract syntax trees, control flow graphs, and program dependence graphs. After forming the intermediate representation, the representation is analyzed for its correctness, efficiency, and quality [26]. Although block-based programming differs from text-based programming in syntax and visual representation, they can both be transformed into the same intermediate representation. Therefore, the techniques used for...
assessing one type of programming from this representation can be readily adapted to assess the other type of programming [9, 10].

Limited previous work has focused on assessing students’ understanding of underlying CS concepts from their programs. In this paper, we propose an automated assessment framework designed following a hypothesis-driven learning analytics approach to assess students’ programs based on their mastery of underlying CS concepts for the particular problem at hand. We use the underlying CS concepts to label students’ programs with their grades. We then transform students’ programs to a feature set containing salient features that can serve as evidence for students’ proficiency of this underlying CS concepts. Utilizing the labeled data and the extracted feature set predictive models can identify students’ mastery of CS concepts.

3. ENGAGE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

To collect data on middle grade students’ programming trajectories, we conducted a study with a game-based learning environment, ENGAGE, that is designed to teach CS to middle school students [2, 18]. The game features a rich, immersive 3D storyworld (Figure 1), in which students play the role of a specialist who is sent to investigate an underwater research facility that has lost communication with the outside world through suspicious activities of a rogue scientist. In the learning environment, students navigate through a series of interconnected rooms by solving a set of computational challenges. Each of the challenges can be solved either by programming devices within the room or interacting with devices in reference to their pre-written programs. Students program the devices with a visual block-based programming language interface (Figure 1, Right) [1, 19].

In this work, we focus on students’ problem-solving approaches within a specific level of the game where students write a bubble sort algorithm to order a set of containers (Figure 1). This room has two devices: a containment device that holds six randomly positioned containers and a lock device that opens only when the containers are sorted in the increasing order. The player can exit the room through a door by correctly implementing bubble sort and executing the lock program when the containers are sorted. The lock has a pre-written program that will check the positions of containers and opens if they are in the correct position. The containment device provides students with the necessary blocks for implementing a bubble sort algorithm using a small robotic cart inside the device’s protective housing. Students can choose from 6 types of readily available blocks to write their program. A sample correct solution for this challenge is shown in Figure 1 (right). Students need to test the correctness of their program in two steps. First, they need to run the bubble sort device to sort the containers. Second, they need to run the open lock program which checks if the containers are sorted and opens the door accordingly.

4. METHODOLOGY

We utilize supervised learning to assess students’ programs. The supervised learning approach consists of three primary steps. First, we label the training dataset in accordance with a rubric designed based on essential CS constructs. Second, we extract features from students’ submitted program snapshots that represent their understanding of CS constructs. This is accomplished with a novel approach that encodes students’ programs in terms of structural n-grams. Third, we create models induced from the structural n-gram-based feature set to infer students’ scores. In this study, we utilize a variety of regression models including linear, ridge, lasso, SVR, and GPR models to predict students’ programs’ scores.

4.1 Data Annotation

We use evidence-centered assessment design (ECD) to create a rubric for labeling students’ programs [22]. Following an ECD approach, we identify explicit learning outcomes and measures to inform our rubric [7]. The relevant CS concepts are identified and used to develop the specifications of a rubric to assess students’ proficiency of identified CS concepts. Student actions during the learning task are used as evidence for predicting mastery of the identified CS concepts [24]. Following this approach, we design a rubric that utilizes evidence rules specific to the bubble sort challenge in the ENGAGE game-based learning environment. We use this rubric to manually label students’ programs [3, 4].

As students interacted with the learning environment, all of their interactions with the game were logged. For this study, we collected data from five classrooms across three schools in the United States. We collected data from 69 students’ interactions with the bubble sort challenge in the game-based learning environment, for a total of 1,570 programs that we used as the training dataset. In this rubric, the range of possible scores is between 0 to 22. To validate the labeling process, two human annotators with a computer science background separately labeled 20% of the entire submissions, achieving an inter-rater agreement of 0.856 using Cohen’s kappa [8]. Before tagging the remainder of the corpus, all instances that were tagged differently were discussed. Afterwards,
one annotator tagged the remainder of the dataset. The annotated dataset is used as the corpus for the prediction task where the assigned scores serve as the ground-truth for our data corpus.

4.2 Feature Engineering

In order to infer students’ scores based on their submitted programs, we extract structural features that are representative of the semantic information in students’ code. To extract features that capture essential structural and semantic information stored within the programs, we perform a structural n-gram encoding of the programs’ abstract syntax trees (ASTs). Since the programs are stored as programming snapshots, we first apply an intermediate transformation from programming snapshots to their corresponding ASTs [23]. We then encode the generated ASTs into their corresponding structural n-grams. After generating the ASTs from their corresponding programs, we use a structural n-gram encoding to capture essential structural information characterized within the programs. Two important structural information types in ASTs are hierarchical and ordinal. The hierarchical information encodes what blocks are nested under another (i.e., a vertical relationship in AST), and the ordinal information encodes the placement order of blocks (i.e., horizontal relationship in AST) that are nested under the same parent node. We extract n-grams with varying lengths of n to capture the most fine-grained structural information present in an AST. We repeat the n-gram encoding process separately for hierarchical feature extraction and ordinal feature extraction. We then merge the two feature sets together to build the final feature set containing both hierarchical and ordinal n-gram encodings corresponding to each program keeping only one copy of the generated unigrams. The occurrence of similar n-grams for n values more than one (unigrams) in both hierarchical and vertical encodings demonstrate presence of different structures in the AST and thus, both will be preserved.

Figure 2 shows an AST generated from a sample program along with its partial hierarchical (left) and ordinal (right) n-gram encoding. In Figure 2 (left), each colored circle shows the hierarchical (top to bottom) n-gram encoding of a specific n. In this example, we have hierarchical encoding of n-grams of size one (green ovals), two (blue ovals) and three (the purple ovals). The frequency values for each n-gram encoded feature are shown beside the AST. All of the other n-gram feature values are zero since they are not in this AST. Figure 2 (right) shows the same sample AST with its ordinal (left to right) n-gram encoding. In this example, we have an ordinal encoding of n-grams of size one (pink ovals), two (purple ovals) and three (the green ovals). Similar to Figure 2 (left), the frequency values for each n-gram feature is shown besides its corresponding AST in Figure 2 (right).

4.3 Inferring Program Scores

We trained a variety of regression models on the structural n-gram-encoded features to infer the scores of students’ programs. In particular, we used linear regression as the baseline regression model, and four additional regression models: ridge, lasso, support SVR, GPR models. Ridge and lasso regressions are characterized by their utilization of L1 and L2 regularization, respectively, which address overfitting and variance issues in comparison to linear regression. We use SVR and GPR models since their utilization of kernels makes them a suitable candidate for datasets similar to ours where the number of features is relatively high compared to the number of data points. Finally, we utilize GPR to handle the noise resulting from the subjective nature of human grading [6, 27]. To infer students’ program grades using the n-gram encoded feature set (we set the maximum n to 4 for hierarchical n-grams and 3 for ordinal n-grams in this work), we use a 5-fold cross-validation approach to tune the hyperparameters of ridge, lasso, and SVR regressions, and to identify the appropriate kernel for the GPR. After the hyperparameter optimization process is complete, we use 10-fold cross-validation to train and evaluate each regression model.

4.3.1 Linear Regression

Linear regression is a simple regression approach that works under the assumption that there is a linear relationship between features and the predicted value. The results of applying a 10-fold cross-validation evaluation on the n-gram encoded feature set resulted in a Mean Squared Error (MSE) of 3.03E+24 and an R-squared of 1.19E-23. The high MSE value reported by the linear model trained with our feature set is understandable since the high number of features in our dataset dramatically increases the complexity of the model, which in turn causes overfitting of linear regression-based predictive models to the training data.

4.3.2 Ridge Regression

To reduce the variance error, ridge regression includes a penalty term in the optimization. We used the set [0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 10] to tune the value for λ, the penalty coefficient, and found λ=10 to be
the best value for our regression task. Applying ridge regression on our dataset resulted in an MSE of 5.24 and an R-squared of 0.81. We can see that ridge regression considerably outperformed standard linear regression with respect to both MSE and R-squared.

4.3.3 Lasso Regression
Unlike ridge regression, lasso regression includes a penalty term that allows the optimization process to shrink weights to zero if necessary. As a result, lasso regression can reduce overfitting as well as perform feature selection. We used the set {0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 10} as in ridge regression to tune the value for λ and found λ=0.05 to be the best value for λ. Utilizing lasso regression resulted in an MSE of 6.30 and an R-squared of 0.77, which also outperformed standard linear regression models with respect to both MSE and R-squared.

4.3.4 Support Vector Regression
Support vector regression (SVR) use kernels to transform data from a non-linearly separable space to a linearly separable space. For our regression task, we explored with linear, polynomial, and radial basis function (RBF) kernels. For each kernel, we tuned the hyperparameters of penalty parameter (C), epsilon, and kernel coefficient (gamma). For polynomial kernels, we also tuned the parameter of the kernel projection (coef0) and degree hyperparameters. Utilizing 5-fold cross-validation, we found the polynomial kernel with a degree of four to be the best kernel for our dataset. Also, the grid search identified C=100, coef0=1, degree=4, epsilon=1, and gamma=0.001 as the best parameters for this kernel. Incorporating the SVR model resulted in an MSE of 5.09 and an R-squared of 0.82. SVR performed better than both ridge and lasso regressions in terms of MSE and R-squared. This could be due to the fact that kernel methods perform effectively on datasets with a feature set that is relatively large compared to the size of the dataset.

4.3.5 Gaussian Process Regression
GPRs provide an analytically tractable solution for regression problems with an infinite or uncountable set of considered basis functions [21]. We hypothesize that the GPR will outperform other regression techniques due to its capability of handling noise and its propriety for our dataset. To search the optimal kernel for GPR models, we cross-validated the model for radial basis functions (RBF), rational quadratic, and Matern kernels, and we found RBF to perform the best on our dataset. To find the optimal set of hyperparameters and prior parameters of the GPR, we follow the process of maximizing the probability of observing data given hyperparameters of the process (i.e., marginal likelihood). In this work, we use a limited-memory BFGS optimization technique to maximize the log marginal likelihood conditioned on the length vectors and the noise level of the kernels.

Applying GPR resulted in an MSE of 1.71, and an R-squared of 0.94. GPR performed significantly better than other regression models. Not only is GPR a kernel-based model similar to SVR, but by adding an additional noise kernel it can also account for the potential noise in our dataset. As a result, it is expected that the GPR model outperformed other models in our prediction task. Results of applying each of the regression models on the structural n-gram encoded feature set is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression</th>
<th>MSE</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>3.03E+24</td>
<td>1.19E-23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ridge</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>0.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lasso</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>0.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>SVR</td>
<td>5.09</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPR</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.94</td>
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5. CONCLUSION
Rapidly growing interest in computer science education and students’ need for guided practice of CS concepts have created a significant need for accurate and effective automated assessment. In this work, we proposed a novel structural n-gram encoding scheme to extract important structural and semantic information from students’ programs. The n-gram encoding approach, coupled with data labeled using the ECD-based rubric enables our assessment framework to model evidence from programs that are representative of students’ mastery of identified CS. We apply a variety of regression models on the n-gram encoded feature set to infer students’ program scores. The results of our prediction demonstrate the effectiveness of the n-gram encoded feature set in capturing important semantic and structural information in students’ programs. All regression models performed better than the baseline model, linear regression. Furthermore, GPR outperformed other models in terms of both mean squared and R-Squared errors. This confirms expectations since GPR models can handle noisy data and are particularly efficient for datasets in which the number of features is particularly high relative to the number of data points. Our automated CS competency assessment framework can be generalized to assess any well-structured programs in learning environments that present students with well-structured programming assignments. Furthermore, the ECD approach can facilitate rubric design and assessment for non-expert CS teachers while providing them with automated assessment of students’ programs.

Several directions for future work are promising. First, it will be important to expand the assessment framework to accommodate more open-ended programming assignments. Second, information from successive submission of students can be extracted to analyze students’ patterns of developing CS competencies.

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7. REFERENCES


similarity-based grading of student programs. 
