1 3 2

4

5

6

8

9 10

11

7 01

Quantitative approach to collaborative learning: performance prediction, individual assessment, and group composition

Ling Cen¹ • Dymitr Ruta¹ • Jason Ng¹ • Leigh Powell¹ • Benjamin Hirsch¹

Received: 11 February 2015 / Accepted: 25 April 2016 © International Society of the Learning Sciences, Inc. 2016

Abstract The benefits of collaborative learning, although widely reported, lack the quantita-12tive rigor and detailed insight into the dynamics of interactions within the group, while 13 individual contributions and their impacts on group members and their collaborative work 14 remain hidden behind joint group assessment. To bridge this gap we intend to address three 15important aspects of collaborative learning focused on quantitative evaluation and prediction 16of group performance. First, we use machine learning techniques to predict group performance 17based on the data of member interactions and thereby identify whether, and to what extent, the 18group's performance is driven by specific patterns of learning and interaction. Specifically, we 19explore the application of Extreme Learning Machine and Classification and Regression Trees 20to assess the predictability of group academic performance from live interaction data. Second, 21we propose a comparative model to unscramble individual student performances within the 22group. These performance are then used further in a generative mixture model of group 23grading as an explicit combination of isolated individual student grade expectations and 24compared against the actual group performances to define what we coined as collaboration 25synergy - directly measururing the improvements of collaborative learning. Finally the impact 26of group composition of gender and skills on learning performance and collaboration synergy 27is evaluated. The analysis indicates a high level of predictability of group performance based 28solely on the style and mechanics of collaboration and quantitatively supports the claim that 29heterogeneous groups with the diversity of skills and genders benefit more from collaborative 30 learning than homogeneous groups. 31

KeywordsCollaborative learning · Performance prediction · Machine learning · Performance32modeling · Group composition33

Ling Cen cen.ling@kustar.ac.ae

02

¹ Etisalat, British Telecom Innovation Center, Khalifa University of Science, Technology and Research, Abu Dhabi, UAE

Introduction

35 04

Collaborative learning (CL) refers to situations and environments in which learners 36 engage in common tasks and each individual capitalizes on resources and skills from 37 one another (Bruffee 1993; Dillenbourg 1999; Mitnik et al. 2009). It is based on the 38 05 model that knowledge can be created within a population where members actively 39interact by sharing experiences and take on asymmetrical roles (Chiu 2000, 2008). 40 06 Computer-supported collaborative learning (CSCL) denotes a pedagogical approach 41 characterized by the sharing and construction of knowledge among participants using 42technology as their primary means of communication or as a common resource. In 43this approach, learning can either synchronously or asynchronously take place in 44 online and classroom learning environments via social interaction using computers 45or through the Internet (Stahl et al. 2006). CSCL continues to thrive on the back of 46the rapid growth in cheap and powerful knowledge access technologies connecting 47 and enabling students to carry out ever more learning, coursework and assessment 48 tasks together (Dillenbourg 1999; Ruta et al. 2013; Hirsch et al. 2013; Dirkx and 49Smith 2013; Davidson and Sternberg 2003; Barkley et al. 2004, and has been widely 50considered as a method to improve learning performance (Zheng and Huang 2016). 51

In collaborative learning, however, the behavior and, thereby, the learning patterns observed 52are much more complex than that of individual learning. While there is a wide body of 53qualitative evidence reporting the benefits of collaborative learning, the thorough quantitative 54analysis is clearly lagging behind in the literature. This is perhaps due to difficulties with 55formal knowledge representation and the lack of data capturing the complete process of 56collaborative learning in sufficient detail. To address this, a collaborative learning environment 57(CLE) platform has been developed at Etisalat British Telecom Innovation Centre (EBTIC) 58(Ruta et al. 2013; Hirsch et al. 2013). It was trialed over one semester in the courses of the 59Molecular Biology Engineering and the Freshman Engineering Design at Khalifa University. 60 During the trial, collaborative learning styles and their dynamics and outcomes were evaluated 61using three, group-based, formally assessed assignments. 62

This work is grounded in the fields of Educational Data Mining (EDM) and 63 CSCL and builds upon prior work on collaborative learning and data-driven learning 64 analysis, which is aimed to develop quantitative approaches to describe the charac-65teristics of collaborative learning and assess their impact on learning performance. 66 There are many theories on how and why group collaboration works, but most 67 attribute it to information exchange, conflict resolution, intersubjective meaning-68 making, group knowledge building, and participatory models (Suthers 2006). In 69 our research we focused on several aspects of group knowledge building and its 70quantitative assessment, monitoring, evaluation and prediction in order to gain more 71informed and measurable insight into the mechanics and quality of collaborative 72learning, in conjunction with its performance and key impact factors. Specifically, 73this work intends to address three important issues in collaborative learning focused 74on quantitative evaluation and prediction of group performance. 75

First, we explore the predictability of academic performance based on the mechanics of interactions during live collaborative learning. The aim is to predict how well 77 the group is likely to perform given all available individual and group historical 78 evidence as well as live interaction patterns. Predicting academic performance of 79 students engaged in individual learning has been explored largely based on data 80 mining and machine learning (ML) technologies in the literature, (e.g. Thai-Nghe 81 et al. 2011a; Yadav and Pal 2012; Romero, Ventura, Espejo, & Hervs 2012). 82 08 Although these models can provide an accurate prediction of learning performance 83 for individual students, they do not account for interaction and collaboration among 84 students within groups. It has been shown that collaboration and interaction patterns 85 in collaborative learning can affect learning outcomes, and therefore cannot be ignored 86 when considering impacts on collaborative learning performance (McNely et al. 2012). 87 Prediction of group academic performance can help to evaluate and improve collab-88 orative learning systems, identify effective grouping, design efficient interaction pat-89 terns, and help to understand what drives student academic performance in a dynamic 90 and connected learning environment at every stage of the group exercise. For instance, 91 prior predictions could offer recommendations as to which course, modules or specific 92content is suitable for the particular student or a group of students, or could aid in 93 forming optimal group composition (i.e. the one that maximizes the expected perfor-94mance). Predictions during the course could also help to identify significant deviations 95of the early progress from the initial expectations and identify the source of under-96 performance, allowing for corresponding corrective intervention. Predictions after the 97 course, on the other hand, allow one to compare pure data driven reflection on the 98 group performance vs the performance perceived by the teacher and hence flag any 99 cases of significant dissonance. 100

A complete case study on group academic performance prediction has been carried out with 101 the data collected in the trial of the CLE platform, which involves generation and extraction of 102 features from the CLE group interaction data, development of machine learning models to 103 predict group performance based on the features and evaluation of the prediction accuracy and 104 model robustness. 105

Second, a comparative model is proposed for the evaluation of individual student 106performance in relation to the group performance. In collaborative learning, a grade is 107generally given not to each student but to each group and assessment of group learning is 108 typically dominated by measures assigned after collaboration (Gress et al. 2010), where 109the performance of each group is normally measured by the quality of the solutions or 110products generated (Goggins et al. 2015). It is, however, quite useful for teachers to 111 understand the hidden performance of each individual student within the group. Moreover, 112isolating the impact of collaboration styles from the individual student qualities on the 113expected group performance allows to quantitatively analyze the groupwork improvement 114over individual tasks attributed exclusively to the way the group collaborated. The 115comparative performance analysis of both individual students and groups not only 116confirms quantitatively the advantages of collaborative learning over individual study, 117but most importantly explains exactly the circumstances and conditions when specific 118 patterns of collaboration are successful or unsuccessful and why. 119

Third, we intend to investigate the impact of group composition on learning 120 outcome in collaborative learning. A key finding of this work is the observation that 121 groups with mixed-gender and diverse skills and abilities tend to benefit more from 122 collaborative learning compared to uniform-gender groups of students with similar 123 skills. We claim these improvements can be explained by a combination of a deeper 124 diversity of skills, knowledge, and abilities to generate creative content, as well as 125

| increased engagement and focus during group work, especially in cross-gender | com- 126 |
|--|-------------|
| munication and interaction. | 127 |
| The major contributions of our work can be concluded as follows: | 128 |
| | |
| 1) Identification and extraction of the factors and features from collaborative lea | rning 129 |
| process that affect group performance; | 130 |
| 2) Unified feature normalisation across diverse assignments and assessment methods; | 131 |
| 3) Expressing diverse student's learning abilities through feature definitions; | 132 |
| 4) Exploring group performance predictability based on live interaction dynamics in a | form 133 |
| of application of classification and regression models (Extreme Learning Machine | based 134 |
| Feed-Forward Neural Networks and Classification and Regression Trees) to group | o per- 135 |
| formance prediction; | 136 |
| 5) Group performance prediction model validation on live data acquired from the | e trial 137 |
| carried out with 122 students; | 138 |
| 6) Proposition of a new comparative model of individual student performance assessm | ent in 139 |
| relation to and based on the group performance; | 140 |
| 7) Quantitative definition of a group learning synergy expressed as a difference betwee | en the 141 |
| group actual assessment and its expectation that is made of the sum of indiv | |
| members' contributions; | 143 |
| 8) Investigating the impact of group composition on collaboration performance and pr | rovid- 144 |
| ing quantitative measurable evidence of groups with mixed-gender and diversity of | skills 145 |
| performing better as compared to uniform-gender groups of students with similar si | kill in 146 |
| collaborative learning. | 147 |
| | |
| It is important to state that this work and the above contributions focus on the predict | ion of 148 |
| group performance and other attributes of groupwork after completing the task. How | |
| without any loss of generality, they can be applied at any stage during groupwork wi | |
| impact on predictive preformance proportional to the level and completedness of live tas | |
| this respect, there are therefore no intrinsic limitations of applying the presented | group 152 |
| performance prediction and knowledge discovery methodologies in real-time, even d | |
| live classroom activities. | 154 |
| It has been suggested in (Cress 2008) that analysis of CSCL should look into | both 155 |
| the group effects and individual level and, from there, carry out multilevel analys | |
| the hierarchical structure of learning data. A Multilavel Model (MIM) has | |

the hierarchical structure of learning data. A Multilevel Model (MLM) has been 157proposed for CSCL, which allows different regression functions with different inter-158cepts and different slopes for each of all groups in linear regression; as an example, 159the relation between satisfactions of individual students and their activity in collabo-160rative learning is analyzed based on multilevel analysis (Cress 2008). Although it is 161quite efficient for CSCL analysis, it requires an enormous sample size, which may not 162be quite feasible in practice (Cress 2008). In our work, learning performance is 163assessed using both groups and individuals as the units of analysis by considering 164the hierarchical structure of group learning data in multilevel analysis. In group 165performance prediction, different learning abilities of individuals are expressed in 166 feature representation and unified by feature normalization. The individual perfor-167mance is assessed by comparing individual contributions to corresponding group 168workloads and the achievement of these groups in consecutive assignments with a 169deterministic comparative performance model. It has been demonstrated that our 170

proposed methods can be applied in group learning analysis with a small CSCL data 171 set. The results described in this paper seek to quantitatively prove the synergistic 172 improvements of collaborative learning, evaluate their extent, and explain them in 173 terms of the properties of student interaction and group diversity. We believe the 174 findings arisen from this work can provide the education community with useful 175 insights in organizing their own collaborative learning processes and student group 176 structures in order to achieve optimal learning outcomes. 177

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Background on collaborative learning 178and related work on the three issues addressed in our work are introduced in Section 2. 179Section 3 introduces the CLE developed at EBTIC and discusses its features. Group perfor-180mance prediction based on classification and regression models is presented in Section 4, 181 where the diversity of assignments and students is considered in feature representation. A 182comparative analysis model to evaluate the performance of an individual student in a group 183and a generative mixture model of group performance are proposed in Sections 5 and 6, 184 respectively. The quantitative results from the prediction experiments are shown in Section 7. 185Finally, the concluding remarks are given in Section 8. 186

Collaborative learning

Collaborative learning is defined by Johnson et al. as the instructional use of small groups so 188 that students work together to maximize their own and each others learning (Johnson et al. 1891991). In recent decades, various theories of how collaboration works for learning, which are 190associated with information exchange, conflict resolution, inter-subjective mearning-making, 191group knowledge building, and participatory models, have been proposed (Suthers 2006). In 192contrast to individual learning, collaborative learning is characterized as a field centrally 193concerned with meaning and practices of meaning-making in the context of joint activity, 194and the ways in which these practices are mediated through designed artifacts (Koschmann 1952002). With the development of personal computers, mobile devices and wireless communi-196cation, CSCL, characterized by the sharing and construction of knowledge among participants 197using technology as their primary means of communication or as a common resource (Stahl 198et al. 2006), has been considered as an effective way to improve performance and efficiency of 199learning (Slavin 1990; Johnson et al. 2000). Significant changes in learning efficiency tend to 200be observed when students work collaboratively within groups rather than working individ-201ually, which is, in principle, attributed to being helped by partner students or helping partner 202students (Stahl et al. 2006). As an example, lower-ability students are reported to benefit much 203more from learning in a collaborative setting than higher-ability students (Saner et al. 1994). 204This observation matches the intuition that higher performing students on average tend to 205transfer knowledge to the lesser performing students. 206

Besides student academic performance, collaborative learning is also able to improve 207student interpersonal, intercultural and higher level thinking skills (Johnson and Johnson 2081988; Slavin and Cooper 1999). Collaborative learning activities provide students with 209**Q9** chances to explain their understanding of the subject matter to their group members, which 210can help students elaborate and reorganize their knowledge (Van Boxtel et al. 2000). It is also 211010 shown that discussion among students during collaborative learning can improve their ability 212of understanding and interpretations (Fall et al. 1997). Collaborative learning can also train 213students to work better in teams and to participate more effectively in a democratic society 214

(Feichtner and Davis 1991; Kagan 1994). It is even postulated that the experience achieved215from collaborative learning is essential for the healthy psychological development of students216(Johnson et al. 1998).217Q11

Unlike individual learning where the learning outcome of a student is dominated by his/her 218personal learning characteristics, e.g. learning ability, time spent, etc., effective collaborative 219learning involves not only the contribution of individual students but also depends on the way 220the group comes together to produce contributions. This may involve interdependence, 221 concurrency, work distribution, mutual evaluation and reflection. It has been reported in the 222223literature that the outcome of group-based learning in collaborative learning can be influenced by student characteristics, task characteristics, group composition, and team collaboration, e.g. 224positive interdependence, individual accountability, promotive interaction, social skills and 225group processing (Johnson and Johnson 1998; Lai 2011). To maximize the effectiveness of 226012 collaborative learning, the needs for students to be trained handling group issues (Oakley et al. 2272004) and for teachers to be guided in training students on how to conduct group work (Ward 2282006) have been highlighted. The importance of creating structured group assessments has 229been explored as well (Cohen et al. 2002; Vita 2005). The effectiveness of the student 230collaboration has a high impact on the learning outcome, which is dependent on the quality 231of interactions, especially the degree of interactivity and negotiability (Dillenbourg 2000). It 232has been shown that students' collaborative work on the same assignment followed many 233different interaction patterns, which can greatly affect the performance and assessment of the 234group work (Cen et al. 2014a). Continuous focus, self-reflection, live collaboration, and a 235Q13 fairly even distribution of workload and contributions are naturally more likely to lead to more 236refined and coherent assignment outcome, and consequently achieve better marks. 237

The behavior of a group is more than the sum of its individual parts, which indicates that 238group collaboration evolves in ways that are not necessarily evaluated based on the inputs of 239group members (Dillenbourg et al. 1996). This, in turn, brings much more complexity and 240challenges to the implementation of collaborative learning. Recent studies on collaborative 241learning have shifted the theoretical focus from individual functions within groups to an 242overall analysis based on whole groups (Dillenbourg et al. 1996). Although many studies on 243CSCL have been reported in the literature, more research is still required to achieve efficient 244learning implementation and practice. Quantitative analysis has played an important role in 245CSCL research to gain in-depth understanding of collaborative learning (Bruckman et al. 2462472002). In this work, several quantitative approaches have been developed to analyze the characteristics of collaborative learning and assess their impact on learning performance. 248Specifically, we focused on generic capability to estimate or predict group performance at 249different stages of the joint group learning exercise: before, during, and after the group task. 250Machine learning based approaches have been proposed to predict group learning performance 251during the exercise utilizing live members interactions and other dynamics describing concur-252rent and shared contributions. Effective and normalized features have been developed to 253provide the most explanative power against standardized actual assessment grades. Then, a 254simple prior group assessment expectation model that combines individual student perfor-255mances has been updated by adding generative components that allow us to reliably predict 256group performances. The deviations between the predictive expectation model and the actual 257assessment provided by the teacher was coined as an objective quantitative measure of 258collaboration synergy that directly measures whether the collaboration is effective or not and 259whether it brings group performance gains or, in some cases, the opposite. Finally, effective 260group composition and its impact on group performance have been investigated, which reveals 261

267

new quantitative insights as to the role gender distribution and skill-diversity in the group have262on its performance. All analysis has been been carried out on the group coursework interaction263data linked with the teacher-led assessments. All data collection was carried out using the264EBTIC-developed CLE platform. The following sub-sections provide a thorough review of the265related work reported in the literature.266

Prediction of group learning performance

With the development of machine learning technologies, predicting students' academic per-268formance, i.e. predicting how well a student will perform on a learning task based on historical 269knowledge or data (Thai-Nghe et al. 2011b), is one of the oldest and most useful applications 270014 of educational data mining (Romero et al. 2013), and has attracted increasing attention in the 271272learning community. Student performance prediction could provide informed guidance, advice, and early feedback that may help to improve student's knowledge retention, formal 273assessment outcomes and satisfaction from the educational experience. A common observation 274that students enjoy dealing with and achieve successes in subjects they are naturally good at 275seems to support this claim. Furthermore, a good and reliable prediction model could, in the 276long-run, define student curriculum paths and possibly replace standardized examinations, 277thereby reducing exam pressure and workload which negatively affect both teachers and 278students (Thai-Nghe et al. 2011a; Feng et al. 2009; Thai-Nghe et al. 2011b). 279

This is, however, quite a challenging problem, since the learning performance of students 280can be cross-affected by lots of factors, e.g. demographic, cultural, social, or family factors, 281socio-economic status, psychological profile, previous schooling, prior academic performance, 282interactions between students and faculty, etc. (Romero et al. 2013; Araque et al. 2009). Many 283machine learning techniques, e.g. linear regressing (Feng et al. 2009), logistic regression (Cen 284et al. 2006), decision trees (Thai-Nghe et al. 2007; Yadav and Pal 2012), neural networks 285(Romero et al. 2008), support vector machines (Thai-Nghe et al. 2009), smooth support vector 286machine classification associated with kernel k-means clustering techniques (Sembiring et al. 2872011), Bayes classification (Bhardwaj and Pal 2011), and matrix factorization based recom-288mendation technique (Thai-Nghe et al. 2011a; Thai-Nghe et al. 2011b; Thai-Nghe et al. 2010), 289015 290have been applied to solve student performance prediction problems in the literature, and, depending on the definition of the problems and the types of variables to be predicted, different 291techniques are employed, such as classification for categorical variables, regression for 292continuous variables or density estimation when the predicted values are probability density 293functions (Romero et al. 2013; Hämäläinen and Vinni 2011). An incremental ensemble of base 294classifiers, i.e. Naive Bayes, the 1-NN and the WINNOW algorithms using the voting 295methodology, has been proposed for predicting student performance in distance education 296(Kotsiantis et al. 2010). It is proposed for online learning to identify poor performance in an 297open and distance learning environment, where its data arrive continuously and it is imprac-298tical to store data for batch learning. A predictive analytic model has been developed for the 299University of Phoenix to identify students who are in danger of failing the course in which they 300 are enrolled, based on timely intervention strategies (Barber and Sharkey 2012). Three models 301 have been developed to predict student failure for distance learning by analyzing the clicking 302 behavior of students in a virtual learning environment (Wolff et al. 2013). A prediction of the 303 students' grades for assignments they are currently undertaking is made by monitoring 304students' progress based on their participation in online collaborative learning activities. 305 Selective interventions are then taken to prevent the students from actually failing 306

(Gunnarsson and Alterman 2012). Students' final performance is predicted by using different 307 data mining approaches based on participation in online discussion forums that constitute 308 communities of people learning from each other (Romero et al. 2013). Instead of using 309traditional classification, it applies clustering plus class association rules mining to build 310student performance models. It has been illustrated from the results of experiments conducted 311 for the first-year computer-science university students, that the approach is suitable for 312 performing both a final prediction at the end of the course and an early prediction before the 313 end of the course. 314

In collaborative learning, the learning behavior of students working collaboratively is more 315complicated than that of individual learning (Hackman and Morris 1975). The performance of 316 a group is not decided by individual learners, but is a complex combination of all learners' 317 contributions to the group. Assessment and prediction of group performance can help to 318 evaluate and improve a collaborative learning system, identify productive grouping and 319interaction patterns, and help to understand what drives student academic performance within 320 321 a dynamic and connected learning environment. As mentioned before, both the characteristics of individual students and their interaction patterns can influence the performance of group 322 learning, which makes performance assessment and prediction in collaborative learning much 323 more challenging compared to individual learning. 324

After reviewing 186 papers and 340 measures, Gress et al. classified group performance 325 assessment in collaborative learning into categories of self-report, interview, observation, 326 process data, discussions and dialogues, performance and products, and feedback (Gress 327 et al. 2010). However, these assessment methods, although commonly used, tend to violate 328 the assessment requirements of time, validity, reliability, and individual accountability in one 329way or another (Xing et al. 2014). Examination of final products of collaboration, e.g. group 330 assessment, by using the average score of outcome of each task (Zhu 2012), or the quality of 331 the solution produced according to a holistic rubric with consideration of productive failure in 332 collaborative learning for ill-structured and well-structured problems (Kapur and Kinzer 2009), 333 has been a dominant means to evaluate group learning performance (Goggins et al. 2015). 334However, an assessment based solely on learning outcomes cannot accurately measure group 335 performance since it overlooks elements of the collaborative learning process (McNely et al. 336 2012; Strijbos 2011), such as group dynamics, interaction, and technology-mediated processes 337 (Goggins et al. 2015). To address these aspects, qualitative methods have been developed for 338 assessing group performance based on team collaboration indicated from its dialogue during 339 collaboration (Safin et al. 2010). The major disadvantages of these methods are that they are 340341 time-consuming and difficult to implement. Some quantitative methods have been proposed to overcome these drawbacks by quantifying complex collaborative processes either by building 342 ad-hoc measures or by quantifying categories of actions or utterances (Goggins et al. 2015; 343 Strijbos 2011). For example, quantitative content analysis has been used to characterize group 344 discussion by coding and counting the frequencies of different aspects of discourse (Kapur 345et al. 2011). However, these approaches cannot accurately define the learning process and 346 group collaboration in a quantitative way (Goggins et al. 2015). The study by Xing et al. 347 (2014) assesses CSCL by using activity theory, where an automated strategy is proposed to 348assess participation in a multi-mode math discourse environment called Virtual Math Teams 349with Geogrebra (VMTwG). Most studies that are based on statistical modeling and data mining 350techniques are focused on methodology, exploration of algorithms and mathematical model-351ing, in ways tending to overlook educational contexts, theories and phenomena (Xing et al. 3522015; Baker and Yacef 2009; Romero and Ventura 2010). To overcome this limitation, a 353 methodology which connects perspectives from learning analytics, educational data mining, 354theory and application to predict students' performance in the VMTwG environment with 355small datasets has been proposed (Xing et al. 2015). In this method, students' participation in a 356 CSCL course is holistically quantified based on activity theory, and learning performance is 357 predicted by using Genetic Programming (GP) based prediction model. In the literature, other 358approaches for collaborative learning analytics based on different machine learning technol-359ogies have been proposed as well, e.g. Bayesian networks, decision trees, and fuzzy logic 360 (Ferguson and Shum 2011; Coffrin et al. 2014). A regression prediction strategy is proposed to 361 predict group performance according to the students' functional roles which are identified 362 automatically based on the analysis of their online collaborative learning interactions (Coffrin, 363 Corrin, Barba, & Kennedy 2011). A prediction model is formalized by using system-tracked 364016 data to forecast team performance, where the log records are analyzed to measure group and 365 individual participation, and direct and indirect measures of involvement are used as predictor 366 variables (Goode and Caicedo 2014). 367

In this work, novel prediction models based on supervised learning techniques are proposed 368 for group performance prediction in CSCL using historical and live group interaction evidence. 369 Compared to the techniques in the literature, the major advantages of our methods include: 1) 370 definition of a number of discriminative features from concurrent sequences of student 371 learning and shared content creation sessions to measure various characteristics of their 372 contributions to joint assignments and their interaction within groups, and to analyze their 373 abilities to differentiate between the likely outcome represented by the formal group assess-374ment; 2) address of the challenges posed by accommodating different students, diverse 375assignments and assessment methods which are resolved through normalised and unified 376 assessment representation and generic feature definitions; 3) application of both classification 377 and regression models to satisfy different prediction goals. 378

Individual assessment

In collaborative learning, an assessment grade is generally assigned to each group based on the 380 group's achievement, i.e. the quality of the solutions or products generated after collaboration 381(Goggins et al. 2015; Gress et al. 2010), which is then, in turn, assigned to all individual group 382members. It is useful as well to understand each student's individual performance in creating 383 the final assignment. Learning within groups makes it difficult to isolate individual contribu-384tions and to assess the learning outcome of an individual from the group achievement. The 385final grade given to a group for an assignment created collaboratively does not necessarily 386 reflect any one individual's effort, knowledge, skill, or ability, since students in the group may 387 not make comparable or equivalent contributions (Saner et al. 1994; Race 2001; Webb 1995). 388 Collaboration among students within groups can have evident effect on learning performance 389 even with limited interaction, e.g. a 10-minute discussion (Fall et al. 1997). It has been 390**Q17** demonstrated that group assessments may not accurately reflect individual achievements in 391 collaborative learning (Saner et al. 1994; Webb 1993; Webb et al. 1998). Especially in 392heterogeneous groups with students having various ability levels, low-ability students may 393 obtain higher grades from group assessments that are achieved based on the contributions of 394their high-ability teammates (Saner et al. 1994). If the higher performance of a group can 395reflect actual learning progress, the group assessment is not necessarily invalid; while if low-396 ability students are assigned higher scores based on the group achievement completed mostly 397 by the higher-ability students in the group, assessing individual student learning using group 398

performance as the indicator will not be accurate enough. Webb (1995) has suggested using 399 individual student assessment instead of group-based assessment if the assessment of individ-400ual student performance is more important than that of the group. Although this provides 401 accurate assessment of the individual students, the effectiveness and the synergy of groupwork 402will remain unassessed as a result, or, in extreme cases, the group may miss out on the benefits 403of collaborative learning altogether. In addition, it has been demonstrated that the achievement 404of group members are not independent of one another due to cooperation impact, and such 405impact can continuously affect the performance of subsequent individual work, especially for 406lower-ability students (Saner et al. 1994; Webb et al. 1998). 407

Most of the work in learning assessment is focused on student performance assessment in 408individual learning and group performance evaluation in collaborative learning. Individual 409student performance assessment in collaborative learning, although being an important mea-410 sure for evaluating learning achievement, has not been widely addressed in the literature. A 411 negotiation model has been used to represent student interactions for assessing the perfor-412 mance of individual students in collaborative learning (Dillenbourg et al. 1996). The interac-413tion of students within groups is indicated by conversation strategies for students' learning 414 assessment (Roschelle and Teasley 1995). Learning behaviors are analysed for assessing 415individual student interaction and performance (Webb 1991; Webb 1993; Webb et al. 1998). 416However, neither the interactions nor the student behaviors were quantitatively defined and 417 analyzed in these methods. To address this, a comparative model is proposed for the definition 418and quantitative evaluation of individual student performance in relation to the group perfor-419mance by considering the characteristics of learning and the relationship between contribution 420and achievement. 421

Group composition

A learning group is usually characterized by its size, gender and ability levels of its 423individual members assuming all members have similar ages. The size of a group 424 indicates the amount of knowledge exchange and collaboration available during the 425426 learning and content generation process. In general, larger groups with reasonable 427 sizes tend to perform better than smaller ones if learning activity levels and individual characteristics are similar (Cen et al. 2014b). It has been noted in the literature that 428018 429the composition of groups with different abilities and genders of students is closely related to the ways students engage, collaborate and learn (Webb et al. 1998; Webb 4301991; Savicki, Kelley, & Lingenfelter 1991; Savicki et al. 1996; Gordon 2000), which 431019 consequently influences learning performance. However, few quantitative approaches 432 are provided in the literature for analyzing group composition. 433

Webb (1991) has shown that both interaction patterns and collaboration effects can 434Q20 vary across groups with varying ability-level compositions. Specifically, high-ability 435students in groups tend to contribute more by providing more explanations and 436 information while low-ability students are more likely to be off-task (Webb 1991). 437Low-ability students having high-ability peers as teammates are more likely to sig-438nificantly improve their performance on both group tasks and individually-completed 439post-tests, while the performance of high-ability students working in heterogeneous 440groups consisting of students with varying ability-levels is not affected by the group 441 composition (Webb et al. 1998). Although there is no quantitative measurement of 442 performance improvement and ability-levels, this finding provides us with a strong 443

recommendation for encouraging groups' heterogeneity in collaborative learning. It 444 has also been observed (Webb 1991) that in heterogenous groups with wider ability 445 range, higher-ability and lower-ability students tend to form teacher-student relation- 446 ships and interact and collaborate more among themselves, and as a result medium- 447 ability students tend to be left out. 448

Significant research has been dedicated to study and compare the effectiveness of 449single-gender education and mixed-gender education, i.e. co-education with various 450gender compositions in classrooms. The focus of these studies aimed to employ 451gender-specific educational strategies for varying purposes such as enhancing student 452confidence and skills, improving learning outcomes, or towards achieving social 453mobility (Zeid and El-Bahey 2011). The difference in the results of these studies is 454021 mainly caused by gender specific characteristic and behaviors in collaborative learn-455ing. The study carried out on social mobility (Zeid and El-Bahey 2011) indicates that 456females tend to focus more on socially oriented activities while males tend to focus 457 more on task-oriented activities. Moreover, female students learning together in a 458technology-rich environment seem to participate more actively and persistently than 459male students regardless of the nature of the task (Goldstein and Puntambekar 2004). 460 Similarly it has been found that female engineering students collaborate more often as 461a successful learning strategy compared to their male classmates (Stump et al. 2011). 462 The research outcomes (Chennabathni and Rgskind 1998) claim that girls in high 463schools perform better with single-gender groups when learning unfamiliar tasks but 464excell more in mixed gender groups when learning familiar tasks. The study (Webb 4651991) conducted with groups of mixed genders shows that girls are more likely to be 466 ignored by their boy teammates and fail to acquire answers to their questions when 467 majority of the members in a group are male. Zeid and El-Bahey (2011) found that 468 the overall course performance for both genders was improved by changing the 469software engineering classroom composition from a gender heterogeneous to a gender 470 homogeneous classroom. However, it has been found that mixing different genders in 471 one learning group could possibly arouse learning enthusiasm of students who are 472 willing to contribute more in the learning process (Cen et al. 2014a). Although the 473effects of single-gender education and co-education have still been disputed with 474contradictory opinions, e.g. (Mael et al. 2005; Morse 1998; Crosswell and Hunter 4752012; Smith 1996), these studies indicate that gender composition can largely influ-476 ence learning outcome in collaborative learning. 477

For quantitative analysis of group composition, a generative mixture model is proposed in our work to isolate the impact of collaboration style from individual student qualities on group performance. Group composition across genders and diversity of skills and abilities is quantitatively analyzed based on this mathematical model. 481

Collaborative learning environment

The Collaborative Learning Environment (CLE) is a system developed at EBTIC (Ruta et al.4832013; Hirsch et al. 2013) that brings together a collection of tools and functionalities enabling484communication, information sharing and collaborative document creation within the same485environment. As opposed to individual communication and sharing tools like Skype,486Facebook, or Google Drive which focus on a specific interaction or activity, the CLE is487

designed to integrate these different functionalities together into one cohesive learning envi-488ronment. The CLE has been used to collect most of the data that are used in the remainder of489the article.490

The CLE is implemented as a set of modules for Moodle, an open source learning 491 management system (LMS), and as such is able to capitalise on existing Moodle functionalities 492 like group creation, file sharing and forums. By leveraging the flexibility of open-source 493 technologies, the CLE integrates seamlessly into the LMS, providing a workspace that is 494 familiar to both students and faculty, thereby reducing cognitive load and enabling more focus 495 to be placed on the collaborative process. 496

The aim of the CLE is to stimulate the collaborative learning process and enable instructors 497 to facilitate collaborative assignments more easily. Moreover, the whole interaction history is 498 logged, which provides data enabling dynamic analysis of contributions, usage and participation, as well as enabling more advanced future functions such as knowledge elicitation. A 500 screenshot of the CLE is shown in Fig. 1. 501

Communication features of the CLE include synchronous text chat and audio/video 502communication, which allow participants to exchange ideas and communicate directly with 503each other regardless of their geographic location. Additionally, a collaboration area is 504provided to allow students to either synchronously or a-synchronously create an assignment. 505This area, called the collaborative editing pad, provides a canvas on which students can 506contribute and revise their ideas. Each contributor to the pad is assigned a unique color, so 507individual contributions are evident, and each keystroke, whether it is an "add", "edit" or 508"delete", is recorded by the pad. 509

The writing area of CLE is powered by etherpad-lite, a real-time collaborative text editor. 510 Students edits are collected and stored about 60 times per minute. Etherpad-lite stores the 511 change-sets in its database, associated with a timestamp, user, and pad-id. CLE then extracts 512 relevant details (author, assignment, group, time of change, change-type (addition, deletion, 513 copy/paste)) for further analysis. 514

All individual students' assignment progress time series are merged into a single colourcoded progress timeline that can be viewed and played back like a movie. The students' 516

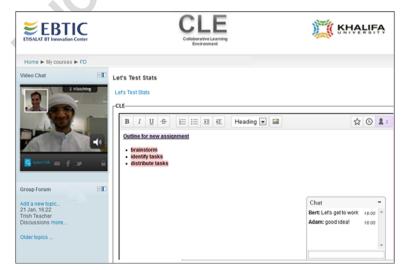


Fig. 1 A screenshot of Collaborative Learning Environment (CLE) in action

collaborative work on the same assignment follows many different patterns, from sequential to 517concurrent contributions, from one person dominated to evenly distributed workloads, from 518continuous progression of contributions to sudden bursts of activity and/or paste-ins. Figure 2 519illustrates several examples of progress timelines, signifying different patterns of group 520interactions while working on a single assignment. Such progress timelines are constructed 521by measuring the cumulative volume of keystrokes by different students, marked in different 522colors, along the time while working on the group coursework. The vertical axis measures the 523cumulative volume of the assignment content changes recorded by the CLE, and the horizontal 524axis represents the time stamps of these changes up to 1 s resolution. These progress timelines 525provide a summarised view of how the contributions from each group member evolved over 526time. It has been revealed in our prior study, exploring the impact of students collaborative 527work on students performance, that continuous focus, self-reflection, live collaboration, and 528fairly even distribution of workload and contribution are more likely to lead to more refined 529and coherent assignments, and consequently achieve better marks. These findings are impor-530tant to identify discriminative features in learning performance assessment and prediction. 531

Another way of illustrating students' interaction data is by depicting the volume of edit 532 activity (measured in keystrokes) at a higher time resolution level. An example of such an edit 533 activity plot is depicted in Fig. 3. These two illustrations are just some examples of the 534 interesting insights into how the group collaborated together. There are many other aspects of collaboration within CLE that can be analysed, for example monitoring the exact locations of 536

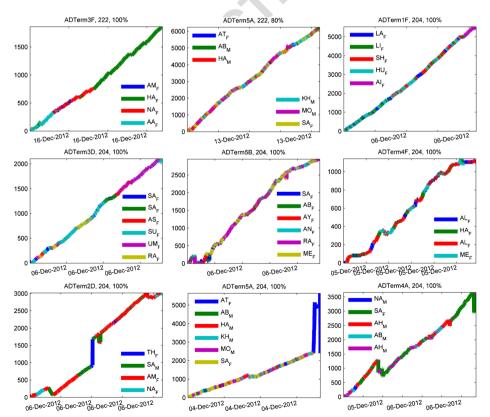
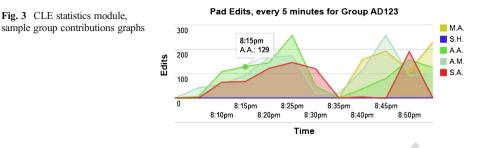


Fig. 2 Sample patterns of student interactions while working on group assignments: progress timelines



different contribution edits to assess whether the members are working independently on the537same or different parts of the assignment or actually trying to understand and assess the value538of individual contributions.539

All the above approaches to analyse collaborative learning data harvested by the CLE are supported by a statistics module that can output detailed usage statistics at different aggregate levels. Such insights are invaluable for the instructors as they allow them to obtain, in an instant, a detailed analysis of how the group assignment was completed and what were the individual members' effort and actual contributions. Beyond statistics, the CLE also provides a playback feature, that allows both the students and instructors to watch the entire creation of the assignment, from start to finish, much like watching a video. 540

Group performance prediction

This section describes group performance prediction in CSCL, in which the extraction and 548normalization of features representing contribution and interaction of students and the machine 549learning based prediction models are proposed. Machine learning, as a type of artificial intelli-550gence (AI), aims at developing algorithms that provide computers with ability to learn from 551historical data and make data-driven predictions or decisions without following strict and explicit 552program instructions. Depending on the nature of the data, machine learning tasks are typically 553classified into three broad categories, i.e. supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and rein-554forcement learning. Supervised learning aims at inferring a function from a set of training 555examples, each of which consists of an input object (features typically represented by a vector) 556and a desired output (label), while unsupervised learning aims at discovering hidden patterns in 557training data without labels provided to learning algorithms. In reinforcement learning, a 558computer program interacts with a dynamic environment in which it performs a certain goal, 559e.g. driving a car or playing games, without explicit instruction on whether it has come close to its 560goal or not. According to the values of the target variable, supervised learning has two categories; 561classification where target variables are categorical, and regression where target variables are 562continuous. In our work, group performance prediction is formulated as a supervised learning 563process and both classification and regression models are built for the prediction task. In 564classification and regression, a feature is an individual measurable property of a phenomenon 565being observed (Bishop 2006). Successfully solving classification and regression problems is 566largely dependent on the choice of informative and discriminating features. Features are, in 567general, numeric, as used in this paper, while structural features such as strings and graphs are also 568used in syntactic pattern recognition. Successful approaches are developed for feature extraction 569and normalization to capture statistics of the contribution and interaction of student members 570

574

within groups during the learning process. These features are used to learn the classification labels571or regression outputs defined as normalized grades awarded to the groups as their formal572assignment assessment. This will be elaborated further below.573

Classification and regression models

Classification and regression are supervised learning techniques to build prediction models 575from data. They share a common framework, which is shown in Fig. 4. During the training 576process, a feature set is extracted from the training data to capture important and discriminative 577 attributes of input data in relation to the target attributes. Pairs of feature sets and given target 578values are then fed to the learning algorithm to construct a mapping between the data features 579and the target attributes, which constitutes model learning. Once the model is built, the same 580feature extraction is applied to unseen data and the learned model uses these data to predict the 581target variable. 582

The main difference between classification and regression is the representation of the target 583 variable. In classification, the target variable is categorical, taking values associated with 464 different possible classes of output. Whereas, a regression model has a numerical and, usually, 585 continuous output variable. In this section, the academic performance prediction is first 586 formulated and described as a classification problem, and then a regression problem. 587

When learning performance prediction is formulated as a classification problem, the outputs 588 of the target grade variable are discretised into just several possible grade levels taking integer values that are set to be within [1,5] in our method. These levels correspond to grades and are 590 used as class labels during model learning and prediction. Note that in such defined classification the prediction error is also granular, i.e. it is either 0 or equal to the difference between 592 the actual and wrongly predicted grades. 593

In statistics, regression analysis is a methodology for estimating the relationships between a 594dependent variable and one or more independent variables, which has been widely applied in 595prediction and forecasting. When building a regression model for performance prediction, the 596dependent variable represents group grades and the independent variables are the data features. 597Unlike classification, the grades are normalized to take continuous values within the range of 598[1,100]. The advantage of using a regression model is that it provides a finer granularity of the 599target variable and normally better reflects similarity between different target values simply by 600 their distance. 601

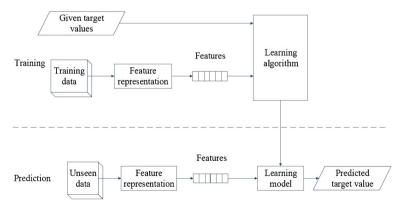


Fig. 4 Framework in supervised classification and regression

Springer

As shown in Fig. 4, feature representation and model learning are two major parts in both 602 classification and regression frameworks. Typically they consume most of the time spent in 603 building the classification or regression model. 604

Feature representation

605

609 610

611

627

The features used for grade prediction are directly extracted from students' interaction within 606 groups recorded along the duration of the assignments. The data collected for an individual 607 student during each assignment are listed below: 608

| 1. | ID and first name of the student; |
|----|--|
| 2. | ID and name of the group that the student belongs to |

- ID of the assignment that the student is completing; 3.
- Indices of revisions reflecting the order in which they were updated; 4. 612
- The contribution attributes: start length, end length, the total number of changes and the 5. 613 volume of length changes, as well as the time stamp of the contribution; 614
- 6. Grade awarded by the teacher for the assignment which, in this case, is the assessment for 615 the whole group. 616

The following list captures some simple aggregate statistics derived from the above data: 617

- 1. ID and name of the group; 618 2. The number of members in the group; 6193. The number of revisions carried out by each group member; 620
- The total number of revisions carried out by the whole group; 4. 621
- 5. The absolute number of changes (adding/deleting), the number of positive changes 622 (adding), and the number of negative changes (deleting), carried out by each group 623 member: 624
- 6. The absolute number of changes (adding/deleting), the number of positive changes 625 (adding), and the number of negative changes (deleting), carried out by the whole group; 626
- 7. Group performance, i.e. group grade.

It can be seen from the recorded data that the number of revisions and the total number of 628 changes in all revisions represent the effort made in learning, which have been observed to be 629closely associated with learning outcome (Cen et al. 2014b). Let $ratioRL_{eq}$ be the number of 630 revisions in the unit length of the change made by the *gth* group in the *ath* assignment, which 631 is calculated as 632

$$ratioRL_{ga} = R_{ga} / (L_{ga1} - L_{ga2}), g \in G, a \in A,$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where G and A denote the sets of indices of groups and assignments respectively, R_{gq} is the 634 number of revisions, and L_{ga1} and L_{ga2} are the start length and end length of the total changes 635 made by the gth group in the ath assignment. Considering that there are large differences 636 among efforts made in various revisions, we use the ratio of ratioRLga instead of using the 637 number of revisions as features.

As described before, there are positive changes and negative changes, reflecting the 639 adding and deleting of content respectively. Positive changes represent valid 640

contributions that are used in the subsequent work, while negative changes indicate 641 that some of previous contribution are considered to be invalid. Since content editing 642 can be carried out synchronously or asynchronously by different student members 643 within a group, the amount of both positive and negative changes indicates the 644 interaction among students and provides a way to estimate learning efficiency. The 645absolute number of changes measures effective changes remained in the final evalu-646 ation, which indicates group contributions. This together with the numbers of positive 647 changes and negative changes is then used as features in our method: 648

$$C_{ga} = \{ C_{|ga|}, C_{+ga}, C_{-ga} \}, g \in G, a \in A,$$
(2)

where C_{ga} denotes the change vector of the gth group in the ath assignment, $C_{|ga|}$ is 649 the absolute number of changes, and C_{+ga} and C_{-ga} are the positive and negative 651 changes respectively. It has been shown in our previous work (Cen et al. 2014a) that 652 the size of a group is also an important factor affecting the group learning outcome. It 653 indicates the amount of knowledge exchange and collaboration available during the 654 learning and content generation process. Let NS_{ga} denote the number of students in 655 the gth group taking the ath assignment. The features used in prediction can then be 656 expressed as 657

$$f_{ga} = \{ NS_{ga}, ratioRL_{ga}, C_{ga} \}, g \in G, a \in A.$$
(3)

In (3), f_{ga} represents the feature vector of the *gth* group in the *ath* assignment, which quantifies collaboration and interaction made by this group in the learning process of a assignment. 659

However in practical applications, there are often multiple assignments in one course, as is 662 the case in our work in which there are 3 assignments. Since the contents and tasks in different 663 assignments can be totally different, the features representing contribution and interaction 664 given in (3) are normalized by considering the diversity of assignments. To implement this, a 665 weighting coefficient is allocated to each of assignments to measure its difficulty level. Let 666 $\overline{grade_a}$ and $\overline{ctr_a}$ be the average grade and average contributions made in the *ath* assignment, 667 respectively, which can be expressed as 668

$$\overline{grade_a} = \frac{\sum_{g=1}^{NG_a} grade_{ga}}{NG_a}, a \in A,$$
(4)

and

$$\overline{ctr_a} = \frac{\sum_{\substack{g=1\\NG_a}}^{NG_a} C_{|ga|}}{\frac{NG_a}{NG_a}} = \frac{\sum_{\substack{g=1\\NG_a}}^{NG_a} C_{|ga|}}{\sum_{\substack{g=1\\NG_a}}^{R} R_{|ga|}}, a \in A,$$
(5)

Deringer

where $grade_{ga}$ is the grade achieved by the *gth* group in the *ath* assignment, and NG_a is the number of groups taking this assignment. The difficulty weight of the *ath* assignment, denoted as $diff_a$, is then calculated as 674

$$diff_a = \frac{\overline{ctr_a}}{\overline{grade_a}}, a \in A.$$
(6)

It can be seen from (6), the assignment with higher value of $diff_a$, is likely to have lower average grade and require more contributions, and is thus considered to be more difficult. It should be noted that this can apply only if all the assignments are involved in one course and taken by the same students, in which all comparisons can be made with a unique reference. Here, $diff_a$ is normalized within [0,1]. The revisions and changes in each assignment are then normalized according to $diff_a$, and the features in (3) are as such re-written as

$$f_{ga} = \{ NS_{ga}, ratioRL_{ga} \times diff_a, C_{ga} \times diff_a \}, g \in G, a \in A.$$

$$\tag{7}$$

By doing so, the group contributions are normalized based on the assignment difficulty, hence allowing different assignments to be compared at a similar level. 684

Although the assessment grade is allocated to a whole group, the efficiency, knowledge 685 background and level of understanding of the participating students are different. To differentiate among individual students' performance in the feature representation we allocate a 687 performance weight to each individual student in the group. Let w_s be the performance weight 688 of the *sth* student, which is calculated based on the average grade achieved in all assignments 689 completed by this student and is given as 690

$$w_s = \frac{\sum_{a=1}^{NA_s} grade_{ga}}{NA_s}, s \in S,$$
(8)

where *S* is the set of indices of students, NA_s is the number of assignments that the *sth* student has completed, and $g \in G$ is the index of the group that the *sth* student belongs to in the *ath* assignment. We then estimate a possible achievement of a group by considering the contributions and performance weights of all member students in the group, shown as: 695

$$\hat{P}_{ga} = \sum_{s=1}^{NS_{ga}} C_{|sa|} \times w_s, \ g \in G, \ a \in A,$$

$$\tag{9}$$

where \hat{P}_{ga} is the performance expectation of the *gth* group in the *ath* assignment, and $C_{|sa|}$ is 698 the absolute number of the changes made by the *sth* student in the *ath* assignment. The \hat{P}_{ga} is 698 normalized within [0,100] to satisfy the purpose of having a finer granularity, which is added 699 as a feature in (7). Since the calculation of \hat{P}_{ga} has taken into account the number of changes 700 made during assignments, it will not be used again. The feature, f_{ga} in (7) can therefore be 701 changed to: 702

$$f_{ga} = \left\{ NS_{ga}, ratioRL_{ga} \times diff_{a}, \hat{P}_{ga} \times diff_{a} \right\}.$$
 (10)

In this way, the features are further normalized to eliminate the effect of different tasks and various learning abilities of different students. It is important to reiterate at this point that all the 705

feature definitions and the related group performance prediction analysis, described above, are applied to completed groupwork task, yet it can also be equally applied in the exact form for any moment live during the groupwork. In this case the features would be recalculated continuously on a cumulative basis during the progress of the groupwork, and the predictive performance might be affected in proportion to the completeness of the groupwork interaction and its consistency of impacts on performance. 706 707 708 708 709 710 711

Learning algorithms

712

729

739

The problem of academic group performance prediction, formulated in this work, is solved713using classification and regression models as selected instances of machine learning tech-714niques. Specifically, neural networks and decision trees have been chosen for this task.715

Extreme learning machine (ELM) based feedforward neural networks (NN) 716

Traditional feedforward neural networks extensively use slow gradient-based learning 717 algorithms to train neural networks and tune the parameters iteratively, which makes 718 their learning speeds rather slow. To overcome these drawbacks, Huang and his 719 colleagues have proposed a new learning algorithm called extreme learning machine, 720 which randomly chooses hidden nodes and analytically determines the output weights 721 of the network (Huang et al. 2006). Compared to other computational intelligence 722 methods such as the conventional back-propagation (BP) algorithm and support vector 723 machines (SVMs), the ELM has much faster learning speeds, ease of implementation, 724 least human intervention, and high generalization performance. It has been reported by 725 Huang et al. (2006) that the ELM can produce better generalization performance and 726 can learn thousands of times faster than traditional learning algorithms for feedforward 727 neural networks. 728

Classification and regression trees (CART)

CART introduced by Breiman and his colleagues (Breiman et al. 1984) have been widely used 730 in data mining and machine learning. It is used to build a model that is able to predict the value 731of a target based on the values of input attributes. The prediction models are constructed from 732 data propagating through the condition tree until the leaf is reached. Specifically, the models 733 are obtained by recursively partitioning the data space and fitting a simple prediction model 734within each partition. Binary trees are constructed by repeatedly splitting a node into two child 735 nodes, beginning with a root node that contains the whole learning sample, which are used for 736 predicting categorical target variables in classification or continuous output variables in 737 regression. 738

Comparative student performance model

Generally in collaborative learning, one assessment is allocated to a whole group, which is740measured by the quality of the solutions or products generated after collaboration (Gress et al.7412010; Goggins et al. 2015). However, it is quite useful to understand the performance of each742individual student. This is not only helpful to assess the academic achievement gained by each743

student, but also helpful to analyze the impact of collaborative learning. To address this, a comparative student performance model is proposed in this section. 745

In our method, the performance of an individual student within a group achieved for a 746 particular assignment is modeled based on the grade of the group this student belongs to in this 747 assignment, the other assignments he/she has completed before, and his/her contributions 748 made to the corresponding assignments. Specifically, if the group marks are higher while the 749contributions of the student are lower (or vice versa), the student is considered to have a lower 750individual performance than his/her group performance. On the other hand, if the group marks 751and the contributions of the student are both in-line for different assignments, the student is 752likely to be among top students in the group and assumed to have a higher performance than 753that of his/her group. This will be elaborated below. 754

Let g_1 and g_2 be the group indexes of the \tilde{s}^{th} student in the a_1^{th} and a_2^{th} assignments 755 respectively, and assume that the a_1^{th} assignment is completed before the a_2^{th} assignment. It is not necessary that the two groups contain the same student members. Now we will model the 757 performance of the student in the a_2^{th} assignment by estimating the grade that the student may achieve if he/she individually completes the assignment without collaboration with the the 759 other students.

Based on the relationships between $grade_{g_1a_1}$ and $grade_{g_2a_2}$, and between $C_{|\tilde{s}a_1|}$ and $C_{|\tilde{s}a_2|}$, 761 there can be four different cases: 762

$$grade_{g_1a_1} \leq grade_{g_2a_2}, \quad C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_1\right|} \geq C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_2\right|} \tag{11}$$

$$grade_{g_1a_1} \ge grade_{g_2a_2}, \quad C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_1\right|} \le C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_2\right|}$$
(12)

768

764

$$grade_{g_1a_1} < grade_{g_2a_2}, \quad C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_1\right|} < C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_2\right|}$$

$$(13)$$

780

$$grade_{g_1a_1} > grade_{g_2a_2}, \quad C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_1\right|} > C_{\left|\tilde{s}a_2\right|} \tag{14}$$

In the cases given in (11) and (12), the student is likely to have more negative effect on group 773 performance, while the cases in (13) and (14) indicate that the contributions of the student are important to the group performance and his/her achievement tends to be better than that of the group. 774

The value of $grade_{\tilde{s}a_2}$ is estimated based on $grade_{g_2a_2}$ as

$$gr\hat{a}de_{\tilde{s}a_2} = grade_{g_2a_2} + \Delta grade_{\tilde{s}a_2}, \tag{15}$$

where $\Delta grade_{\tilde{s}a_2}$ is the grade adjustment and calculated as

$$\Delta grade_{\tilde{s}a_2} = \left(grade_{g_1a_1} - grade_{g_2a_2}\right) \times \left(ctr_{\tilde{s}a_1} - ctr_{\tilde{s}a_2}\right). \tag{16}$$

779

In (16), $ctr_{\tilde{s}a_i}$ with $i \in [1,2]$ denotes the percentage of the contribution of the \tilde{s}^{th} 780 student to the a_i^{th} assignment, which is calculated based on the ratio of the absolute 782 number of changes as: 783

$$ctr_{\tilde{s}a_{i}} = \frac{C_{|\tilde{s}a_{i}|}}{C_{|ga_{i}|}} = \frac{C_{|\tilde{s}a_{i}|}}{\sum_{s=1}^{NS_{ga_{i}}}}.$$
(17)

If more than two assignments were completed by the student, i.e. $a_2 > 2$ and $a_1 \in 784$ [1,2,..., $a_2 -1$], the assignment to which the student made the most contributions is chosen as a_1 in the model. 787

For the first assignment in a multi-assignment course or the sole assignment in a 788 single-assignment course, the performance of an individual student is modelled based 789 on the percentage of his/her contribution within the group. The basic idea is that the 790 performance of a student is expected to be higher than the group performance if the 791 contribution of the student is greater than the average student contribution in the 792 group, and vice versa. Let $\overline{ctr_{ga}}$ be the average student contribution of the *gth* group 793 in the *ath* (*a*=1) assignment, which can be calculated as 794

$$\overline{ctr_{ga}} = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{NS_{ga}} C_{|sa|}}{NS_{ga}}.$$
(18)

Let $\Delta ctr_{\tilde{s}ga}$ be the normalized deviation between $\overline{ctr_{ga}}$ and the individual contribution 796 made by the \tilde{s}^{th} student, which is expressed as 797

$$\Delta ctr_{\tilde{s}ga} = \frac{C_{\left|\tilde{s}a\right|} - ctr_{ga}}{\sum_{s=1}^{NS_{ga}} C_{\left|sa\right|}}.$$
(19)

The grade adjustment is then defined as

$$\Delta grade_{\tilde{s}a} = \Delta ctr_{\tilde{s}ga} \times grade_{full}, \tag{20}$$

where $grade_{full}$ denotes the full mark, i.e. 100. The expectation of the student grade is then calculated with the sum of $grade_{ga}$ and $\Delta grade_{\tilde{s}a}$. In order to constrain students' 802 expected grades within a reasonable range, an upper and lower bounds are set as: 803

$$grade_{ga} - 10 \le gr\hat{a}de_{\tilde{s}a_2} \le grade_{ga} + 10.$$
⁽²¹⁾

If $grade_{\tilde{s}a_2}$ exceeds given range, it will be set to the closest bound.

799

804

🖄 Springer

Group composition

L. Cen, et al.

806

As mentioned before, group composition can considerably influence the learning outcome in collaborative learning, since different configurations of groups yield different collaboration patterns and learning behaviors. In this part, the impact of collaborative learning on groups with homogeneous- or heterogeneous-genders and abilities is analyzed based on the comparative student performance model given in Section 5. This is quite important since it allows for comparisons of learning outcomes among different group composition configurations. 812

To isolate the impact of collaboration style from individual student qualities on group gerformance, a generative mixture model is proposed. The model assumes that the grade of the sasignment of the group is generated as a combination of the students grade expectations, limproved or degraded by the collaboration type that the students choose to follow. Specifically, students in the group: 818

$$gr\hat{a}de_{ga} = \sum_{s=1}^{NSga} gr\hat{a}de_{sa} \times ctr_{sa},$$
(22)

where $grade_{ga}$ is the estimated grade of the gth group in the ath assignment and $grade_{sa}$ 820 denotes the individual performance of the sth student in this assignment. Here, $grade_{sa}$ is 821 estimated by using the comparative student performance model described in Section 5. The 822 deviation between the group performance expectation and the actual grade received is likely 823 linked to the way the students collaborated together in the group. The impact of collaborative 824 learning on various group composition configurations can then be quantitatively analyzed and 825 compared. The analysis of gender and ability composition within the CLE platform throughout 826 the trial will be presented in Section 7. 827

Experiment results

Description of experiment data

The data used in the experiments were collected via the CLE platform trialed during the Fall 830 Semester of 2013. During this trial, CLE was used in two courses, the Molecular Biology 831 Engineering Course and the Freshman Design Engineering Course. The CLE trial consisted of 832 3 collaborative writing assignments related to the students' end-of-term project. The end-of-833 term project began by splitting students into teams with each team choosing a project to 834 complete based on a set of project proposals submitted by the faculty from varying disciplines 835 around the university. The faculty then became the 'client' or 'customer' for the students to 836 build and solve the proposed problem. The CLE assignments consisted of three collaboratively 837 written parts at various stages of the project process. The first assignment had each team create 838 a 'Team Charter' which would outline the structure of the team and the expected behavior for 839 the team and each of its members. The second assignment, the 'Revised Client Statement', 840 required each team to write an analysis of their client's problem based on the information they 841 had gathered from the meetings with their 'client'. As stated in the assignment, students 842 needed to reflect their new understanding of the design problem as a result of working through 843 the conceptual design cycle. The third assignment asked the students to create their 'Final 844

Design Report' document using the CLE. It should be noted that, due to limitations in the CLE 845 such as inability to add images, using the CLE for this assignment was optional. The 846 assignments were all collaborative writing assignments, but collaboration was not closely 847 monitored during this period by the faculty as the trial was focused on being a data gathering 848 exercise. 849

In total, 168 students used the tool. For the purposes of this article, a subset of the data was 850 used. First, only the Freshman Design Engineering Course was taken into consideration. While 851 152 students took this course, only 122 participated in groups that created and submitted their 852 coursework using CLE. The rest either did not use CLE at all or decided halfway through the 853 assignment to switch from CLE to more traditional methods of collaborating, such as shared 854 Word documents. In total, data of 122 students partitioned into 72 groups across the 3 855 subsequent assignments were collected, as detailed in Table 1. The group sizes varied typically 856 between 3 and 6 students, however there were instances when only 1 or 2 students contributed 857 within the CLE. The groups were prescribed by the teacher, and for each of the assignments, 858 the students were assigned to new groups. For each assignment, a grade was allocated to the 859 whole group as a result of teacher assessment on the basis of the quality of the joint reports 860 consisting of 9 assessment criteria that are format, abstract, executive summary, introduction 861 and overview, problem statement and problem framing, design alternatives considered, eval-862 uation of alternatives, basis for design selection, results of comparison of the alternatives, and 863 appendices for supporting materials. It should be noted that the grades for the students were 864 unrelated to their CLE collaboration. In the original data, the grades for the first two 865 assignments range within [0,5] and those for the third assignment range within [0,30]. To 866 make the grades comparable across all 3 assignments, they have been normalized within [1,5]867 for classification and [1,100] for regression. The distributions of the group sizes and normal-868 ized assignment grades are as shown in Fig. 5. 869

The data set used in the experiment is small in terms of the number of examples, and 870 imbalanced with respect to grade distribution as most of the samples received grades of 4 and 871 5. Despite these limitations we made several provisions to extract the maximum insights and 872 value from these data while trying to maximize the reliability of the generated outcomes and 873 the corresponding conclusions. Specifically, we tried to ensure the features extracted for the 874 predictive models contain maximum discriminative power with respect to the target of 875 prediction. Moreover, given the small data set, we limited the number of features to between 876 3 and 6 throughout the experiments in order to avoid overparameterization. We also tried to 877 eliminate excessive data imbalance with respect to target classes by fine-tuning the predictive 878 models and modifying the cost functions to better focus on predicting underrepresented 879 classes. Finally, throughout the evaluation we used the 10-fold cross-validation method for 880 assured estimation of the implemented predictive models' performance. In-line with this 881 method we first split our data set into 10 parts. In the subsequent experiments 9/10 parts of 882

| $01.1 \ Q23$ | Table 1 Description of data concelled via CLE platform developed at EBTIC and used in experiments | | | |
|--------------|---|------------|--|--|
| t1.2 | No. students | 122 | | |
| t1.3 | No. assignments | 3 | | |
| t1.4 | No. groups in 3 assignments | 26, 26, 20 | | |
| t1.5 | Min. size of groups | 1 | | |
| t1.6 | Max. size of groups | 6 | | |

t1.1 Q23 Table 1 Description of data collected via CLE platform developed at EBTIC and used in experiments

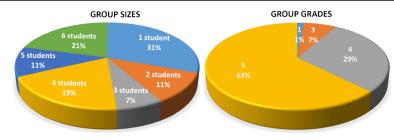


Fig. 5 Distributions of group sizes and group assignment grades

the data were used for building and training the predictive model and the remaining 1/10 part883was used for testing the model performance. These experiments were repeated for 10 different884splits into training and testing sets and the results aggregated to achieve a reliable, validated885accuracy estimate. Note that in such a method the whole data set was exposed for training and886testing at different splits and every single point was used at least once as a testing sample. This887method is very effective particularly for small data sets and eliminates the risk of dependency888on accidental or 'lucky' order of data taken for training and testing.889

Group performance prediction

This subsection is dedicated to the experimental results of group performance prediction for completed groupwork tasks based on group interaction data using both classification and regression models. With the classification model, we compared its prediction performance using the ELM and CART as learning algorithms on various feature sets. The CART was also applied as a regression model to predict the groups' scores within [1,100]. The results are elaborated below. 896

Classification based group performance prediction

To test the classification model for group performance prediction, the whole data were 898 partitioned into training and testing sets. The training set was used to train the 899 prediction model that was then tested using the testing set. First we employed the 900 ELM feedforward neural network for grades prediction. In our implementation the 901 number of hidden neurons was set to be 50 and the sigmoidal function was used as 902 the activation function. 903

A. Individual features

Following an exploration of various interaction-based features bearing high predictive 905 power for group performance predictions, we concluded with several feature definitions: the 906 907 number of revision and the length of changes representing the contribution and interaction among students within the group, and the size of the group. These features reflect the amount 908 of knowledge exchange and collaboration available during the learning and content generation 909 processes, all of which can affect group performance (Cen et al. 2014b). To evaluate their 910 individual predictive power we tested them independently using ELM model in 10-fold cross-911 validation. The average grade prediction accuracies using independently the group size, the 912number of revision and the length of changes, were respectively: 0.59, 0.61, and 0.63 for 913

890

897

916

training and 0.48, 0.51, and 0.53 for testing, indicating significant predictive power for this 5-914 class classification problem. 915

B. Feature fusion

The individual features were then combined together to predict learning performance. 917 Initially, the grades of the groups were predicted using the standard features given in Eq. (3) 918 without considering the diversity of different assignments and students. The average accuracies achieved with the training and testing sets were 0.67 and 0.58, respectively. They are illustrated in the first column group in Fig. 6, where the heights of the boxes filled with green and gray are the average accuracies in training and testing, respectively. It can be seen from the results that the accuracy is quite low without normalization. 923

The statistics of prediction accuracies achieved with different feature sets across 10-fold 924 validation are compared in Fig. 7, where the 4 boxes in each of the 2 figures illustrate the 925 independent results achieved by using group size, number of revisions, length of changes, and 926 the feature set defined in (3) respectively, in training and testing. From the figure, we can see 927 that by combining the 3 types of features together, we can achieve much better results than by 928 applying them individually. 929

Next, we considerd the assignment diversity in prediction with the features calculated 930 according to Eq. (7). With the same settings in the ELM, the average accuracies achieved in 931 10-fold validation with the training and testing sets were 0.69 and 0.62 respectively, and are 932 shown in the second column group in Fig. 6. Compared to the previous model, the testing 933 accuracies improved only slightly yet their stability, measured by the standard deviation over 934performances from individual cross-validation splits, improved from 0.13 down to 0.05. This 935 illustrates that feature normalization based on assignment diversity can help to improve 936 prediction performance with higher accuracy and better stability. 937

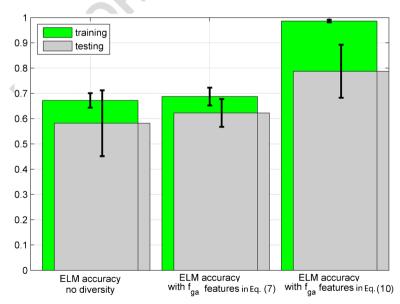


Fig. 6 ELM training and testing prediction accuracies in 10-fold cross-validation using standard features and the features defined in Eqs. cuu, respectively. The corresponding testing accuracies were 0.58, 0.62, and 0.79

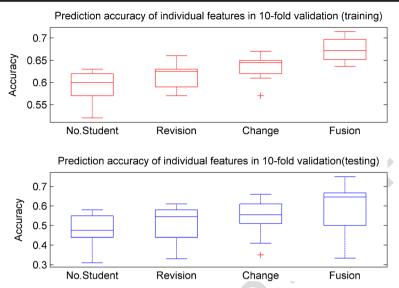


Fig. 7 ELM training and testing prediction accuracies in 10-fold cross-validation by independently using group sizes, the number of revision and the length of changes as features, together with the standard features for comparison

Finally, group performance was predicted by considering the diversity of students with the938features calculated according to Eq. (10). The accuracies of training and testing are shown in939the third column group in Fig. 6. The average accuracies were 0.99 and 0.79, respectively. The940accuracies in both training and testing were largely improved compared to both previous941models which have not considered student performance weights in feature generation.942

For reference, individual training and testing accuracies obtained for all 10 cross-validation 943 splits are presented in Table 2. The effect of normalization is clearly visible from the table, 944 where in most instances shown in the 3rd group achieved with the normalized features, the 945 predictive accuracies are much higher than in the other 2 groups. 946

Next, we employed the CART as the learning algorithm in the classification model for 947 performance prediction. The average testing accuracies achieved in 10-fold validation were 948

| t2.1 | Table 2 | Training and | testing results | from 10 |) cross-validation | splits using | ELM with | different | feature | sets |
|------|---------|--------------|-----------------|---------|--------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|---------|------|
|------|---------|--------------|-----------------|---------|--------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|---------|------|

| | ELM standar | rd | $ELM + f_{ga}$ (7) |) | $ELM + f_{ga}$ (1 | 0) |
|----------|-------------|---------|--------------------|---------|-------------------|---------|
| Split no | Training | Testing | Training | Testing | Training | Testing |
| 1 | 0.7143 | 0.4444 | 0.6984 | 0.5556 | 1.0000 | 0.6667 |
| 2 | 0.6563 | 0.5000 | 0.6563 | 0.6250 | 0.9844 | 0.6250 |
| 3 | 0.6875 | 0.5000 | 0.6563 | 0.6250 | 0.9844 | 0.7500 |
| 4 | 0.7031 | 0.6250 | 0.7344 | 0.6250 | 0.9844 | 0.7500 |
| 5 | 0.6875 | 0.7500 | 0.7344 | 0.6250 | 0.9844 | 0.7500 |
| 6 | 0.6364 | 0.6667 | 0.7273 | 0.6667 | 0.9848 | 0.8333 |
| 7 | 0.6515 | 0.6667 | 0.6667 | 0.5000 | 0.9848 | 0.8333 |
| 8 | 0.6515 | 0.6667 | 0.6515 | 0.6667 | 0.9848 | 0.8333 |
| 9 | 0.6970 | 0.3333 | 0.6515 | 0.6667 | 0.9848 | 1.0000 |
| 10 | 0.6364 | 0.6667 | 0.6970 | 0.6667 | 0.9848 | 0.8333 |

0.59, 0.72 and 0.839, with the feature set described in Eqs. (3), (7), and (10) respectively. A 949 more detailed comparison between the performance of ELM and CART, including the 950prediction accuracies of both training and testing sets, is summarized in Table 3. It confirms 951the superiority of the diversified feature definitions in Eq. (10) and also indicates a slight edge 952of the CART model over the ELM one in terms of the accuracy of predictions over testing sets. 953The results indicate that both the diversity of assignments and students' individual skills 954should be explicitly factored in the data feature representations when the objective of the task 955 is to predict the performance in the group assignment. 956

Regression based group performance prediction

In this subsection, the learning performance of groups was predicted using the CART 958 regression tree model. All grades were normalized within the range of [1,100] as discussed 959 in Section 4. 960

The features were calculated according to Eq. (10). The correlation between the actual and 961 predicted grades of the group and the Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) achieved for training 962 and testing sets across the 10-fold cross-validation are illustrated in Fig. 8. The average 963 correlation values were 0.94 and 0.82 while the average RMSE were 4.9 and 7.73 for training 964 and testing respectively. The RMSE values are below 10 that is usually considered as a unit in 965 formal assessment, which indicates the applicability of our prediction model in practice. 966

Figure 9 shows the actual and predicted values of group grades obtained from 10-fold 967 cross-validation for both the learning and testing sets. As can be seen from the figures, its 968 predictions are consistently quite close to the blue lines corresponding to prefect predictions. 969

The impact of groupwork on learning outcomes

The aim of this section is to investigate the impact of collaborative groupwork on student971learning outcome. We intended to quantitatively establish whether or not student performance972could be improved through collaborative learning. The student performance evaluation was973carried out using the comparative analysis model presented in Section 5.974

First, we compared the students' estimated grades with the grades actually received by the 975 groups to which the students belonged. The grade deviation was taken as an indicator as to 976 whether or not the students' performance could be improved through collaborative learning. 977 Among 239 student-assignment instances, 122 had higher group performance than their 978individual student performance expectations, 40 had lower group performance, and 77 had 979 the same group performance, all of which are shown in Fig. 10(a). It can be seen from the 980 figure that the group performance of most of the students is higher than their individual 981performance expectations. This indicates that collaborative learning results in additional 982

| | ELM | ELM | | | CART | | |
|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|--|
| Feature Eq. | (3) | (7) | (10) | (3) | (7) | (10) | |
| Training | 0.67 | 0.69 | 0.99 | 0.70 | 0.79 | 0.844 | |
| Testing | 0.58 | 0.62 | 0.79 | 0.59 | 0.72 | 0.839 | |

t3.1 **Table 3** Comparison of ELM and CART accuracies from training and testing with different feature sets

970

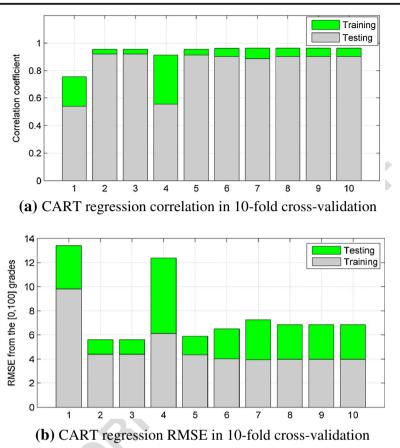


Fig. 8 CART regression correlation between actual and predicted group grades and Root Mean Squared Error over 10 cross-validations splits for training and testing

learning synergy that positively impacts on their performance in the group. Thus, a better 983 learning outcome can be expected when learning in a group as compared to learning alone. 984

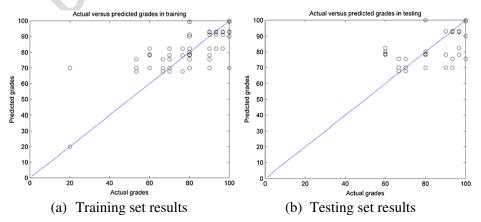


Fig. 9 Actual vs predicted grades obtained with CART model via 10-fold cross-validation

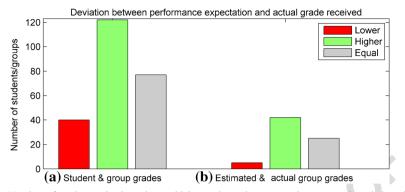


Fig. 10 Number of students who have lower, higher and equal group marks compared to their estimated individual marks; and number of groups that have lower, higher and equal group marks compared to their estimated group marks

Second, we modeled the grade of a group as a linear combination of contribution-weighted 985performances of all individual students in the group according to Eq. (22). The deviation 986 between the group performance expectation and the actual grade received is likely to be linked 987 solely to students collaboration in the group and therefore can be considered as a measure of 988 collaborative learning synergy. Collaborative learning synergy is qualitatively defined as 989 absorbing knowledge and creation of educational content with performance exceeding stu-990 dents prior performance expectations. This is the case where the quality of the creative content 991from a group of students appears to exceed the sum of their expected contributions due to the 992value-added effects of stimulation, mutual reflection, dynamic exploration, meaning-making 993 and continuous feedback. This is in agreement with the intellectual synergy of many minds 994working on a problem and the social stimulation of mutual engagement in a common endeavor 995 produced by collaborative learning reported by Golub (1988). From the quantitative point of 996 view, we defined the synergy of group collaboration simply as a difference between the actual 997 group assessment and the expected group assessment understood as an average of the 998 performances of group members. It is considered to be a much simpler and clearer definition 999 which is easily measurable in the experiments as opposed to the qualitative definitions which 1000 are hard to quantify. 1001

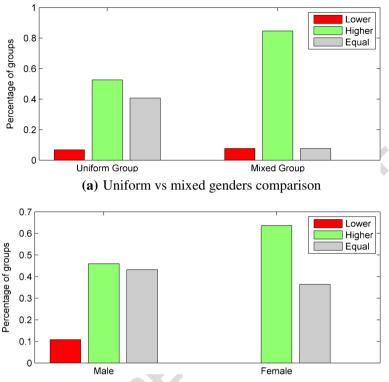
Overall there were 72 group-assignment instances, each of which represented one group1002assigned to one assignment. Among them, the actual marks in 42 groups were higher than the1003estimates, 25 groups had equal estimated and actual marks, and only 5 groups reported lower1004actual marks, which are shown in Fig. 10(b). The observed collaborative learning synergy is1005quite pronounced here: 58.3 % of the groups had the actual group performance better than the1006sum of their individual student performance contributions, while only 6.9 % of the groups had10071008

The impact of group composition

Gender composition

Among the 72 group-assignment instances, there were 59 uniform-gender groups and 1011 13 mixed-gender groups. Figure 11(a) shows a comparison between the actual and 1012

1009



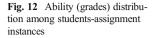
(b) Male-only vs female-only groups comparison

Fig. 11 Comparison of individual expectations and actual group grades

estimated marks for both of the uniform and mixed groups. It can be seen that 52.5 % 1013 of the uniform groups had their actual marks higher than the estimated ones, while 1014 84.62 % of the mixed groups achieved higher marks than their estimated ones. This 1015 indicates that co-education with mixed-gender groups could further stimulate 1016 groupwork synergy and push the improvement of their learning performance to even 1017 higher levels. Although the advantages of co-education have been pointed out in the 1018 literature, e.g. (Cen et al. 2014a; Crosswell, and Hunter 2012; Smith 1996), we have 1019 shown via measurable quantitative analysis the way to verify and quantify such 1020 phenomenon, and we have also provided the methodology for assessing and estimat-1021 ing how much performance improvement can be driven by and attributed to co-1022 education. For the uniform-gender groups, it has been observed that the female-only 1023groups performed better than the male-only groups in this particular course, which is 1024shown in Fig. 11(b). 1025

Ability level composition

Based on the proposed individual student performance estimates, all students were categorized1027into 5 levels: [0–70), [70–80), [80–90), [90–100), 100. The ability distribution of 239 student-1028assignment instances are illustrated in Fig. 12.1029



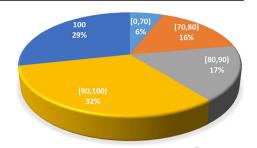


Figure 13 illustrates the impact of collaborative learning on group performance for students 1030 with different ability levels. It can be seen that more than 70 % of lower-ability students with 1031 grades lower than 80 had better group grades than their individual performance. Also for 1032 around 90 % of high-ability students with grades in the range [90,100] their performance was 1033 also improved via collaboration. The same level of improvement was likely valid for top 1034students with 100 % scores as well but is somewhat hidden in the "Equal" category. 1035Interestingly these results indicate that top- and bottom-ability students are more likely to 1036improve their performance through collaboration in heterogeneous groups consisting of 1037 students with different ability-levels. The highest-ability students, however, were not largely 1038influenced by group composition when they were working with students having relatively 1039lower abilities. This quantitatively proves and is consistent with the finding presented in (Webb 1040 et al. 1998). It is also interesting to note that more than 60 % of medium-ability students with 1041 grades within [80–90) achieved lower group grades in collaborative learning setup. This could 1042be due to the observation that in heterogeneous groups with wider ability range, higher-ability 1043and lower-ability students tend to form teacher-student relationship with more interaction and 1044 collaboration, while medium-ability students tend to be left out and participate less, as also 1045reported by Webb (1991). 1046

The above analysis was devoted to student performance modeling and understanding the impacts of various factors and characteristics of group composition and the mechanics of group interaction and groupwork generation in the context of collaborative learning. The results evidentially suggested that diverse groups with diversity of skills, abilities and even mix of genders are more likely to benefit from the synergy generated in collaborative learning and hence achieve much better learning outcomes compared to just individual learning alone. 1047 1048 1049 1050

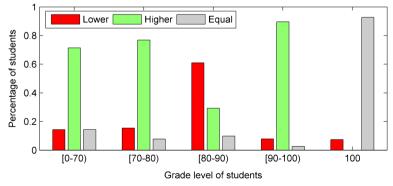


Fig. 13 The impact of collaborative learning on performance of students with different ability levels

Discussion

The experimental results described and reported above have illustrated the effectiveness of the 1054proposed quantitative approaches to measurement, prediction and impact analysis in computer-1055supported collaborative learning. Specifically, we have shown how predictive models 1056equipped with supervised learning engines can be successfully used for group performance 1057 prediction based on different amounts of evidence at different stages of the group exercises 1058(although we have only shown the results of predictions made after completion of the 1059groupwork courseworks i.e. utilizing the complete interaction evidence from the groupwork 1060 activities). We pointed out that while prior individual student performance estimates usually 1061 provide a good estimate of likely group performance, the way a group collaborates and its 1062individual members interact is crucial to generate additional collaboration synergy benefits, 1063though these are by no means guaranteed. Live group performance prediction based on 1064interaction data automatically collected by the collaboration-enabling system, offers a whole 1065new layer of benefits ranging from much more reliable group performance estimates, through 1066 monitoring individual students' contribution to the groupwork, up to early identification of 1067 under-performing students and communicating the high risk of failure to both the teachers and 1068 affected students for appropriate corrective actions. Although we have not presented detailed 1069 reconciliation between the predicted and actual groupwork performance, beyond just the 1070 average statistics, such comparison can lead to discovery of inconsistencies in teacher assess-1071 ment; this could become apparent when the deviation between data-based predictions and the 1072actual assessment is significantly above the range of synergy impact and perhaps in conflict 1073with the collaboration-activity data. 1074

The methodology we proposed for group performance prediction can be easily integrated 1075into a real-time system for automated and continuous expectation of student educational 1076 performance; this would allow the student to make more informed decisions about his/her 1077 curriculum and career path choices throughout the curriculum. It can provide real-time 1078 performance prediction from the beginning to the end of learning process depending on 1079previous student experiences and live interaction data if available. It can extend the prediction 1080 of possible group performance to what-if scenarios before the group has even formed, and with 1081 this respect could be used as a criterion for optimized automated group formation. Such a 1082groupwork performance-driven predictive recommendation engine could be an asset in every 1083 academic institution that would ensure the full exploitation of individual students' potential 1084and more efficient utilization of students' and teachers' time, with the ultimate goal of turning 1085education into an enjoyable and satisfiable experience with maximum knowledge transferred 1086 and retained among the students. 1087

A comparative student performance model has been proposed to assess the performance of 1088 individual group members, which allows teachers to quantitatively analyze the learning 1089 qualities of individual students based on their contributions to completed joint assignments 1090and group achievements. In addition, a generative mixture model has been proposed to isolate 1091the impact of collaboration style from the individual student qualities on group performance. 1092Based on this model, various forms of group composition are quantitatively analyzed, and 1093some useful grouping rules, which are either supported or disputed in the literature, are 1094suggested and quantitatively assessed. 1095

In our method, students' interaction and contribution are quantified using the number of 1096 revisions and the length of changes performed in collaborative writing. As shown in the 1097 experimental results, it can work quite well as with our data collected across 3 collaborative 1098

writing tasks. It should be noted that for some courses, e.g. mathematics, which requires fewer 1099 text inputs to complete assignments and where small changes may lead to totally different 1100 answers and, consequently, quite different scores, our method may not yield good results. Text 1101 analysis to understand context and content can be more helpful, although it will make solutions 1102more complex in terms of computational cost and system implementation. In subsequent work, 1103 we intend to extend this research by exploiting more evidence in the form of student profiles, 1104complete journey through out their curricula and the actual content of assessed assignments. 1105Multimedia components, like spoken-dialogue of discussion, will also be analyzed to catch 1106 interactive activities during the learning process. 1107

In this work, the prediction models are based on machine learning techniques. Although 1108 some of the data-driven ML models could be difficult to interpret, the models we utilized are 1109 far from black boxes. Both ELM and CART models directly express the relationship between 1110 the input characteristics of collaborative learning and the formal learning performance. ELM is 1111 in a version of neural network models which can be visualized to gain insight into how the 1112 outputs (class supports) are formed from the interconnected weighted links rooted from the 1113 inputs. In turn CART, as an instance of decision tree, is one of the most transparent models that 1114 can be shown as a tree of conditions upon the features directing the decision along the feature-1115branches to the leaves (decisions). The decision tree model can be fully converted into SOL 1116 code which is nothing more than a stream of if-then conditions applied to the raw data, and 1117 hence is extremely easy and explicit to work with. Subsequent work will investigate the 1118 approaches to further improve the comprehensibility of the models so that instructors can 1119 accurately measure to which extent individual factors affect learning performance. We also 1120intend to expand the predictive span of our systems into delivering predictive performance-1121driven recommendations on modules, courses and/or knowledge contents that each individual 1122 student likely to be best at, and hence fulfilling his/her educational and career goals with 1123satisfaction and accomplishment. In addition, research and development will be extended to 1124the live scenario of utilizing incomplete groupwork interaction data to attain real-time appli-1125cability of the presented methodology in a classrom environment, for instance, to dynamically 1126re-organize students in groups with poor expected performance predicted during the learning 1127 process or at the early stages of joint educational activity. Such non-trivial attempts would 1128 make a significant step forward to make the performance prediction models more applicable in 1129practice. 1130

The quantitative approaches proposed in our work use simple general features to represent 1131contributions and interactions among students, e.g. types and amounts of text editing in 1132collaborative writing tasks. As such, they can be applied not only with the data collected 1133 using our CLE platform, but also with the collaboration data generated by other CSCL 1134platforms. As mentioned before, the dataset used here has a very limited number of examples 1135and is imbalanced with respect to the target grade classes. However, the results are still reliable 1136based on the following consideration. First, in group performance prediction, distinctive 1137features are extracted to represent the contributions and interactions among students. 1138Second, the feature sets are limited to avoid overparameterization, while the feature definitions 1139themselves are normalized to allow comparable utilization across diverse instances of group 1140exercises, skills of group members, and group assessments. Third, throughout the experiments 1141 we used 10-fold cross-validation as a reliable performance estimation method which is 11421143 especially suitable for small datasets. We have shown that the proposed methods are reliable and stable with acceptable accuracy and small standard variation. Fourth, in the comparison 1144 between actual group grades and predicted individual performance, 122 among 239 student-1145 assignment instances show group performance higher than individual student performance 1146 expectations, while only 40 have lower group performance. It can be seen that the number of 1147 students whose group performance is higher than their individual performance expectation is 3 1148 times of those with lower group performance. Similarly, 42 of the 72 group-assignment 1149instances have higher actual marks than their estimated ones, and only 5 groups have lower 1150actual marks. Although there are a limited number of instances to calculate the statistics, the 1151difference between the two counterparts is high enough to make a significance claim related to 1152the benefits of collaborative learning and its resulted synergy. Finally, in the comparison 1153between the single- and mixed-gender groups, there are 52.5 % of 59 instances with uniform 1154groups having their actual marks higher than the estimated ones, while 84.6 % among 13 1155instances with mixed groups achieving higher grades than their prior estimates. The large 1156difference between the two indicates that the results are rather credible and convey valid 1157conclusions despite the small data size and class imbalance. In future work, an extended 1158dataset with more diverse data, for instance, a dataset with more groups containing more active 1159students and a bigger spread of grades or teacher assessments, will be collected and intensive 1160experiments will be conducted for further evaluation and formal validation (e.g. evaluating the 1161 improved prediction models with f-measure and statistical tests). 1162

Group composition is quite important in collaborative learning, which may affect group learning performance considerably. Automatic group formation approaches based on global optimization and clustering will be explored in subsequent work utilizing the evaluation criteria's key drivers identified in this work. The comparative student performance assessment model will be further validated and matched using standard reference systems like the students' actual Grade Point Average (GPA). 1163 1164 1165 1166 1167

Conclusions

In this work we have made a pioneering effort to quantitatively describe the characteristics of 1170collaborative learning and assess their impact on group academic performance. We wanted to 1171 convey a generic message that data-driven prediction of group performance could be an 1172effective criterion not only to gain an immense, objective and quantitative insight into how 1173and why collaboration is effective for learning, but also to hint at how it can guide the whole 1174start-to-end process of group learning from group composition, through live group interaction 1175monitoring to post-assessment consistency analysis and performance-driven 1176recommendations. 1177

We first focused on the central problem of predicting group performance which can be 1178 considered as the enabler of our methodology. We have shown that machine learning and, in 1179general, predictive analytics are now mature enough to provide reliable predictions of group 1180 performance at every stage of group exercise: before, during and after its completion. We have 1181 shown that while individual prior performances are good estimate of expected group perfor-1182mance, live group interaction data offer much richer evidence that can lead to more reliable 1183predictions of group performance that takes into account its resulted collaboration synergy. We 1184used both classification and regression models to predict group performance based on stu-1185dents' interaction data extracted from the trial of the Collaborative Learning Environment 1186 (CLE) platform developed at EBTIC. We defined a set of discriminative features from group 1187 sessions of concurrent student learning and interaction sequences as they were working on the 1188 group coursework. These features measured various characteristics of individual members' 1189

interactions and contributions to the joint assignments, and were designed to differentiate1190between different outcomes represented by the formal group assessment. The challenges posed1191by the necessity to accommodate different students, diverse assignments and assessment1192methods have also been addressed and resolved through normalized and unified assessment1193representations and generic normalized feature definitions.1194

Extreme Learning Machine (ELM) based feedforward Neural Networks (NN) and 1195Classification and Regression Trees (CART) were used as representative instances of 1196Machine Learning techniques applied to predict group performance in accordance with 1197 the features derived from group interaction data. The series of experiments have been 1198 carried out on the data collected from the CLE trial that ran with 122 students from the 1199courses of Molecular Biology Engineering and the Freshman Design Engineering at 1200Khalifa University. The results revealed many interesting insights. The accuracy of 1201 group's grade predictions in the classification setup was in excess of 80 %, while the 1202CART model, set up in the regression mode, reported an error rate of below 8 %. These 1203 are rather impressive results suggesting that just based on the timely style and intensity of 1204 collaborative learning we seem to be capable of predicting group grades with an average 1205error of less than one or half a grade, respectively. These prediction results were obtained 1206 after observing the complete evidence extracted from the groupwork. However, the exact 1207 methodology can also be extended, without any loss of generality, into a live scenario of 1208 real-time groupwork performance prediction with limited expected performance losses and 1209quick convergence to the final stable predictions, although the detailed analysis of such 1210 real-time framework still remains the subject of our future work. 1211

This fairly good group performance prediction capability was then back-propagated and 1212decomposed to provide explanations into how, when and why collaborative learning really 1213 works. To capture the essence of the collaboration, we have developed a comparative 1214 performance model to evaluate the academic value of individual students in relation to its 1215group performance. This is quite useful for the teachers to understand the hidden performance 1216 of individual students in collaborative learning where otherwise the assessment would be 1217 overlooked based on the achievement of the whole group. This model then evolved and was 1218 improved through a decomposition utilizing generative mixture of group performance. It 1219 assumes that the group assignment grade is generated as a combination of fixed students 1220 grade expectations, improved or degraded by the collaboration type that the students choose to 1221follow. Both models provide new interesting ways to quantitatively analyze the improvement 12221223or degradation achieved through collaborative learning exercises. We have shown, via numerical analysis, that the students indeed do improve their academic performance through learning 1224in groups compared with their individual performance expectations. 1225

What differentiates our work from the others in the field, however, is that we have proposed 1226 a simple and measurable quantitative definition of collaboration synergy that directly measures 1227 the deviation between the average individual performance expectation and the actual group 12281229assessment. Such defined synergy is an isolated measure of the quality of collaboration that solely determines whether the students will benefit or lose out from collaboration following 1230specific patterns of interaction and groupwork. The beauty of this approach is that such defined 1231synergy can itself be a subject of prediction and the data features that provide the most 1232 explanation can thereby be identified as key drivers of synergy in group collaboration. Our 1233experimental results clearly indicate that higher synergy is obtained in groups with a high 1234diversity of skills, equal-distribution of workload and high concurrency of interaction with as 1235many members as possible. 1236

Finally our work concludes with the groundwork for quantitative analysis on the impact of 1237 group composition on learning performance. This revealed several very interesting findings 1238 and hints for future promising research directions. Specifically, experiments with synergy 1239predictions back-propagated onto group composition characteristics, especially skill and 1240 gender distribution in the group, provided numerical evidence to support the claim that gender 1241diversity in the group and, separately, the diversity of student skills or abilities do improve the 1242 group performance. Members of the group with mixed gender are observed to engage, 1243 contribute and perform significantly better compared to the uniform-gender groups. 1244Additionally, the groups with a mixture of low and high performing students tend to benefit 1245the most from groupwork, due to the apparent emerging student-teacher relationships, which 1246stimulate students' engagement, knowledge exchange and reflection on mutual input; while 1247 medium-performing students appear to be a bit left out and participate less. Backed by the 1248 retrospective reflection, this intriguing observation was explained by the emergent tendency to 1249form micro-subgroups or pairs within the groups that take over the communication channel in 1250the group. Although such self-organizing sub-clustering is in general a very desirable property 1251of group interaction, it remains open to see if this can be further utilized to better distribute 1252collaboration benefits among all the members of the group and how that can be further 1253encouraged. 1254C.E

1255

1256024

References

| Araque, F., Roldan, C., & Salguero, A. (2009). Factors influencing university drop out rates. Computer and | 1257 |
|---|-----------------------|
| <i>Education</i> , 53, 563–574. | 1258 |
| Baker, R., & Yacef, K. (2009). The state of educational data mining in 2009: a review and future visions. Journal | 1259 |
| of Educational Data Mining, 1(1), 3–17. | 1260 |
| Barber, R., Sharkey, M. (2012). Course correction: using analytics to predict course success. Proceedings of the | 1261 |
| Second International Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge, ACM | 1262 |
| Barkley, E. F., Cross, K. P., Major, C. H. (2004). Collaborative learning techniques: A handbook for college | 1263Q25 |
| faculty. Jossey-Bass. | 1264 |
| Bhardwaj, B.K., Pal, S. (2011). Data mining: a prediction for performance improvement using classification. | 1265 <mark>Q26</mark> |
| International Journal of Computer Science and Information Security, 9(4). | 1266 |
| Bishop, C. (2006). Pattern recognition and machine learning. Berlin: Springer. | 1267 |
| Breiman, L., Friedman, J. H., Olshen, R. A., & Stone, C. J. (1984). Classification and regression trees. | 1268 |
| Monterey: Wadsworth, Inc. | 1269 |
| Bruckman, A., Jensen, C., & Debonte, A. (2002). Gender and programming achievement in a CSCL environ- | 1270 |
| ment. In K. Bruffee (Ed.), Collaborative learning. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press. | 1271 |
| Cen, H., Koedinger, K., Junker, B. (2006). Learning factors analysis - a general method for cognitive model | 1272 <mark>Q27</mark> |
| evaluation and improvement. International Conference on Intelligent Tutoring Systems, | 1273 |
| Cen, L., Ruta, D., Powell, L., Ng, J. (2014). Learning alone or in a group - an empirical case study of the | 1274 <mark>Q28</mark> |
| collaborative learning patterns and their impact on student grades. International Conference on Interactive | 1275 |
| Collaborative Learning. | 1276 |
| Cen, L., Ruta, D., Powell, L., Ng, J. (2014). Does gender matter for collaborative learning? International | 1277 |
| iCampus Forum 2014 on Smart Education for the 21st Century, IEEE International Conference on | 1278 |
| Teaching, Assessment, and Learning for Engineering, New Zealand. | 1279 |
| Changa, G. K., Chenb, G. D., & Wangb, C. Y. (2011). Statistical model for predicting roles and effects in learning | 1280 <mark>Q29</mark> |
| community. Behaviour and Information Technology, 30(1), 101–111. | 1281 |
| Chennabathni, R., Rgskind, G. (1998). Gender issues in collaborative learning. Canadian Women Studies, 17(4). | 1282 <mark>Q30</mark> |
| Chiu, M. M. (2000). Group problem solving processes: social interactions and individual actions. <i>Journal for the</i> | 1283 |
| Theory of Social Behaviour, 30(1), 27–50. | 1284 |
| Chiu, M. M. (2008). Flowing toward correct contributions during groups' mathematics problem solving: a | 1285 |
| statistical discourse analysis. Journal of the Learning Sciences, 17(3), 415–463. | 1286 |

| Coffrin, C., Corrin, L., Barba, P., Kennedy, G. (2014). Visualizing patterns of student engagement and performance in MOOCs. <i>ACM Press</i> , 83–92. | 1287 Q31 1288 |
|---|------------------------------------|
| Cohen, E. G., Lotan, R. A., Abram, P. L., Scarloss, B. A., & Schultz, S. E. (2002). Can groups learn? Teachers | 1289 |
| College Record, 104(6), 1045–1068. | 1290 |
| Cress, U. (2008). The need for considering multilevel analysis in CSCL research: an appeal for the use of more | 1291 |
| advanced statistical methods. International Journal of Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning, 3(1), | 1292 |
| 69-84. | 1293 |
| Crosswell, L., & Hunter, L. (2012). Navigating the muddy waters of the research into single sex class-rooms in | $1294 \\ 1295$ |
| co-educational middle years settings. <i>Australian Journal of Middle Schooling</i> , <i>12</i> (2), 16–27. Davidson, J. E., Stemberg, R. J. (Eds.) (2003). <i>The psychology of problem solving</i> . Cambridge University Press. | 1295 1296 <mark>Q32</mark> |
| Dillenbourg, P. (1999). Collaborative learning: Cognitive and computational approaches. Advances in learning | 1290 Q32 1297 Q33 |
| and instruction series. New York, NY: Elsevier Science, Inc. | 1297033 |
| Dillenbourg, P. (2000). What do you mean by 'collaborative learning'? In P. Dillenbourg (Ed.), <i>Collaborative</i> - | $1290 \\ 1299$ |
| <i>learning: Cognitive and computational approaches</i> (p. 119). Oxford: Elsevier. | $1200 \\ 1300$ |
| Dillenbourg, P., Baker, M., Blaye, A., OMalley, C. (1996). The evolution of research on collaborative learning. In | 1301 |
| E. Spada, P. Reiman (Eds.), Learning in humans and machine: Towards an interdisciplinary learning | 1302 |
| science, (189–211). Oxford: Elsevier. Proceedings of Computer Support for Collaborative Learning, 119– | 1303 |
| 127. | 1304 |
| Dirkx, J. M., Smith, R. O. (2013). Online collaborative learning. In T. S. Roberts (Ed.), IGI Global. | 1305 <mark>034</mark> |
| Fall, R., Webb, N., Chudowsky, N. (1997). Group discussion and large-scale language arts assessment: Effects on | 1306Q35 |
| students comprehension. CSE technical report, Los Angeles: Cresst. | 1307 |
| Feichtner, S. B., & Davis, E. A. (1991). Why some groups fail: a survey of students experiences with learning | 1308 |
| groups. The Organizational Behavior Teaching Review, 9(4), 75–88. | 1309 |
| Feng, M., Heffernan, N., & Koedinger, K. (2009). Addressing the assessment challenge with an online system | 1310 |
| that tutors as it assesses. User Modeling and User-Adapted Interaction, 19(3), 243–266. | 1311 |
| Ferguson, R., Shum, S.M. (2011). Learning analytics to identify exploratory dialogue within synchro- | 1312 |
| nous text chat. Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Learning Analytics and | 1313 |
| Knowledge, ACM, 99–103. | 1314 |
| Goggins, S., Xing, W., Chen, X., Chen, B., & Wadholm, B. (2015). Learning analytics at "small" scale: exploring | $1315 \\ 1316$ |
| a complexity-grounded model for assessment automation. <i>Journal of Universal Computer Science</i> , 21(1), | $1310 \\ 1317$ |
| 66–92. Goldstein, J., Puntambekar, S. (2004). The brink of change: gender in technology-rich collaborative learning | 1317 1318 <mark>Q36</mark> |
| environments. Journal of Science Education and Technology, 13(4). | 1319 |
| Golub, J. (Ed.). (1988). Focus on collaborative learning. Urbana: National Council of Teachers of English. | 1320 |
| Goode, W., & Caicedo, G. (2014). Online collaboration: individual involvement used to predict team perfor- | 1321 |
| mance. Learning and Collaboration Technologies, Technology-Rich Environments for Learning and | 1322 |
| Collaboration, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 8524, 408–416. | 1323 |
| Gordon, A. (2000). In a class of their own: boys benefit even more than girls from single-sex schools, a-level | 1324 <mark>Q37</mark> |
| grades study reveals. The Mail on Sunday (UK), 42. | 1325 |
| Gress, C. L. Z., Fior, M., Hadwin, A. F., & Winne, P. H. (2010). Measurement and assessment in computer- | 1326 |
| supported collaborative learning. Computers in Human Behavior, 26(5), 806–814. | 1327 |
| Gunnarsson, B. L., Alterman, R. (2012). Predicting failure: a case study in co-blogging. Proceedings of the 2nd | 1328 |
| International Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge, ACM. | 1329 |
| Hackman, J. R., & Morris, C. G. (1975). Group tasks, group interaction process, and group performance | 1330 |
| effectiveness: A review and proposed integration. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social | 1331 |
| psychology (p. 8). New York: Academic. | 1332 |
| Hämäläinen, W., & Vinni, M. (2011). Classifiers for educational data mining. London: Chapman and | 1333 |
| Hall/CRC. Hirsch, B., Hitt, G. W., Powell, L., Khalaf, K., Balawi, S. (2013). Collaborative learning in action. <i>Proceedings of</i> | $1334 \\ 1335$ |
| the IEEE International Conference on Teaching, Assessment and Learning for Engineering, Bali, Indonesia. | $1336 \\ 1336$ |
| Huang, G. B., Zhu, Q. Y., & Siew, C. K. (2006). Extreme learning machine: theory and applications. | 1337 |
| Neurocomputing, 70, 489–501. | 1338 |
| Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T. (1988). Two heads learn better than one. <i>Transforming Education, 34</i> , | 1339 Q38 |
| Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T. (1998). Cooperative learning and social interdependence theory. Retrieved from | 1340 |
| http://www.co-operation.org/pages/SIT.html. | 1341 |
| Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. A. (1991). Cooperative learning: Increasing college faculty | 1342 |
| instructional productivity. Washington: The George Washington University, School of Education and | 1343 |
| Human Development. | 1344 |
| Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Stanne, M. E. (2000). Cooperative learning methods: a meta analysis. | 1345 |
| Minnesota: University of Minneapolis. | 1346 |
| | |

| Kagan, S. (1994). <i>Cooperative learning</i> . San Clemente: Kagan Cooperative Publishing. | 1347 |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Kapur, M., Kinzer, C.K. (2009). Productive failure in CSCL groups. <i>International Journal of Computer-</i> Supported Collaborative Learning, 4(1). | 1348 <mark>Q39</mark> 1349 |
| Kapur, M., Voiklis, J., Kinzer, C.K. (2011). A complexity-grounded model for the emergence of convergence in | 1350 Q40 |
| CSCL groups. Analyzing interactions in CSCL (pp. 3-23). US: Springer. | 1351 |
| Koschmann, T. (2002). Deweys contribution to the foundations of CSCL research. Proceedings of Computer Supported Collaborative Learning, 17–22. | 1352 <mark>Q41</mark> 1353 |
| Kotsiantis, S., Patriarcheas, K., & Xenos, M. (2010). A combinational incremental ensemble of classifiers as a | 1354 |
| technique for predicting students' performance in distance education. <i>Knowledge-Based Systems</i> , 23(6), 529–535. | $1355 \\ 1356$ |
| Lai, E. R. (2011). Collaboration: A literature review research report. Retrieved from: http://www.pearsonassessments.com/. | $1357 \\ 1358$ |
| Mael, F., Alonso, A., Gibson, D., Rogers, K., & Smith, M. (2005). Single-sex versus coeducational schooling: A | 1359 |
| systematic review. Washington: American institutes for research. | 1360 |
| McNely, B.J., Gestwicki, P., Hill, J.H., Parli-Horne, P., Johnson, E. (2012). Learning analytics for collaborative | 1361 |
| writing: A prototype and case study. Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Learning Analytics | $1362 \\ 1363$ |
| and Knowledge, 222–225. Mitnik, R., Recabarren, M., Nussbaum, M., & Soto, A. (2009). Collaborative robotic instruction: a graph | $1303 \\ 1364$ |
| teaching experience. Computers and Education, 53(2), 330–342. | 1365 |
| Morse, S. (1998). Separated by sex: A critical look at single-sex education for girls. Washington: American | 1366 |
| Association of University Women Educational Foundation. | 1367 |
| Oakley, B., Felder, R. M., Brent, R., & Elhajj, I. (2004). Turning student groups into effective teams. <i>Journal of Student Centred Learning</i> , 2(1), 9–34. | $1368 \\ 1369$ |
| Race, P. (2001). A briefing on self, peer, and group assessment. <i>American Educational Research Journal</i> , | 1370 Q42 |
| assessment series no. 9, York, UK. | 1371 |
| Romero, C., & Ventura, S. (2010). Educational data mining: a review of the state of the art. IEEE Transactions on | 1372 |
| Systems, Man, and Cybernetics Part C: Applications and Reviews, 40(6), 601–618. | 1373 |
| Romero, C., Ventura, S., Espejo, P.G., & Hervs, C. (2008). Data mining algorithms to classify students. | 1374 |
| Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Educational Data Mining, 8–17. Romero, C., López, M., Luna, J., & Ventura, S. (2013). Predicting students' final performance from participation | $1375 \\ 1376$ |
| in on-line discussion forums. Computers and Education, 68, 458–472. | $1370 \\ 1377$ |
| Roschelle, J., & Teasley, S. D. (1995). The construction of shared knowledge in collaborative problem-solving. | 1378 |
| In C. E. O'Malley (Ed.), Computer-supported collaborative learning (pp. 69–97). Berlin: Springer. | 1379 |
| Ruta, D., Powell, L., Wang, D., Hirsch, B., Ng, J. (2013). Self-organising P2P learning for 21C education. | 1380 Q43 |
| International Symposium on Smart Learning for the Next Generation. | 1381 |
| Safin, S., Verschuere, A., Burkhardt, J., Dtienne, F., & Hbert, A. M. (2010). Quality of collaboration in a distant | 1382 |
| collaborative architectural educational setting. <i>International Reports on Socio-Informatics</i> , 7(1), 40–48. Saner, H., McCaffrey, D., Stecher, B., Klein, S., & Bell, R. (1994). The effects of working in pairs in science | $1383 \\ 1384$ |
| performance assessments. Educational Assessment, 2(4), 325–338. | 1385 |
| Savicki, V., Kelley, M., & Lingenfelter, D. (1996). Gender, group composition, and task type in small task groups | 1386 |
| using computer-mediated comunication. Computers in Human Behavior, 12, 549-565. | 1387 |
| Sembiring, S., Zarlis, M., Hartama, D., Ramliana, S., Wani, E. (2011). Prediction of student academic perfor- | 1388 |
| mance by an application of data mining techniques. Proceedings of International Conference on | 1389 |
| Management and Artificial Intelligence, 6, 110–114, Bali, Indonesia. | $1390 \\ 1391$ |
| Slavin, R. (1990). <i>Cooperative learning: Theory, research and practice</i> . New Jersey: Prentice Hall. Slavin, R., & Cooper, R. (1999). Improving intergroup relations: lessons learned from cooperative learning | $1391 \\ 1392$ |
| programs. Journal of Social Issues, 55(4), 647–663. | 1393 |
| Smith, I. (1996). Good for boys and bad for girls? Empirical evidence on the coeducation/single-sex schooling | 1394 |
| debate. Forum of Education, 51(2), 44-51. | 1395 |
| Stahl, G., Koschmann, T., & Suthers, D. (2006). Computer-supported collaborative learning: A historical | 1396 |
| perspective. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.), Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences (pp. 409-426). | 1397 |
| Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Strijbos, J. W. (2011). Assessment of (computer-supported) collaborative learning. <i>IEEE Transactions on</i> | $1398 \\ 1399$ |
| Learning Technologies, 4(1), 59–73. | $1399 \\ 1400$ |
| Stump, G. S., Hilpert, J. C., Husman, J., Chung, W. T., & Kim, W. (2011). Collaborative learning in engineering | 1401 |
| students: gender and achievement. Journal of Engineering Education, 100(3), 475–497. | 1402 |
| Suthers, D. D. (2006). Technology affordances for intersubjective meaning-making: a research agenda for CSCL. | 1403 |
| International Journal of Computer Supported Collaborative Learning, 1(2), 315–337. | 1404 |
| Thai-Nghe, N., Janecek, P., Haddawy, P. (2007). A comparative analysis of techniques for predicting academic | 1405 |
| performance. Proceedings of the 37th IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference, T2G7–T2G12. | 1406 |

- 1407 Thai-Nghe, N., Busche, A., Schmidt-Thieme, L. (2009). Improving academic performance prediction by dealing with class imbalance. Proceedings of 9th IEEE International Conference on Intelligent Systems Design and 1408 1409Applications, 878-883.
- Thai-Nghe, Drumond, N.L., Krohn-Grimberghe, A., Schmidt-Thieme, L. (2010). Recommender system for 1410 predicting student performance. Proceedings of the 1st workshop on Recommender Systems for Technology 1411 1412 Enhanced Learning, 1, 2811-2819.
- Thai-Nghe, N., et al. (2011). Multi-relational factorization models for predicting student performance. KDD 2011 Workshop on Knowledge Discovery in Educational Data.
- Thai-Nghe, N., Horvath, N., Schmidt-Thieme, L. (2011). Factorization models for forecasting student performance. Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Educational Data Mining.
- Van Boxtel, C., Van der Linden, J., & Kanselaar, G. (2000). Collaborative learning tasks and the elaboration of conceptual knowledge. Learning and Instruction, 10(4), 311-330.
- Vita, G. D. (2005). Fostering intercultural learning through multicultural group work. In J. Carroll & J. Ryan (Eds.), Teaching international students: Improving learning for all (pp. 75-83). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Ward, C. (2006). International students: Interpersonal, institutional and community impacts. Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education.
- Webb, N. M. (1991). Task-related verbal interaction and mathematical learning in small groups. Research in Mathematics Education, 22(5), 366-389.
- Webb, N. M. (1993). Collaborative group versus individual assessment in mathematics: processes and outcomes. Educational Assessment, 1(2), 131–152.
- Webb, N. M. (1995). Group collaboration in assessment: multiple objectives, processes, and outcomes. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 17(2), 239-261.
- Webb, N. M., Nemer, K. M., & Chizhik, A. W. (1998). Equity issues in collaborative group assessment: group composition and performance. American Educational Research Journal, 35(4), 607–651.
- Wolff, A., et al. (2013). Improving retention: predicting at-risk students by analysing clicking behaviour in a 1431virtual learning environment. Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Learning Analytics and 1432Knowledge, ACM. 1433
- Xing, W., Wadholm, B., Goggins, S. (2014). Learning analytics in CSCL with a focus on assessment: an 1435exploratory study of activity theory-informed cluster analysis. Proceedings of the Fourth International Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge, 59-67. 1436
- Xing, W., Guo, R., Petakovic, E., & Goggins, S. (2015). Participation-based student final performance prediction 1437 model through interpretable genetic programming: integrating learning analytics, educational data mining 14381439and theory. Computers in Human Behavior, Elsevier, 47, 168-181.
- 1440 Yaday, S. K., & Pal, S. (2012). Data mining: a prediction for performance improvement of engineering students 1441 using classification. World of Computer Science and Information Technology Journal, 2(2), 51-56.
- 1442Zeid, A., El-Bahey, R. (2011). Impact of introducing single-gender classrooms in higher education on student 1443achievement levels- a case study in software engineering courses in the GCC region. Proceedings of the 41st 1444 ASEE/IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference.
- Zheng, L., Huang, R. (2016). The effects of sentiments and co-regulation on group performance in computer 1445supported collaborative learning. The internet and higher education, 28, 59-67, Elsevier. 1446
- Zhu, C. (2012). Student satisfaction, performance, and knowledge construction in online collaborative learning. 1447 1448Journal of Educational Technology and Society, 15(1), 127–136.
 - 1449

1413

1414 1415

1416

1417

1418

1419

1420

14211422

1423

14241425

1426

1427

14281429

1430