

# Beyond Accuracy: Embracing Meaningful Parameters in Educational Data Mining

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## ABSTRACT

What does it mean for a model to be a better model? One conceptualization, indeed a common one in Educational Data Mining, is that a better model is the one that fits the data better, that is, higher prediction accuracy. However, oftentimes, models that maximize prediction accuracy do not provide meaningful parameter estimates, making them less useful for building theory and practice. Here we argue that models that provide meaningful parameters are better models and, indeed, often also provide higher prediction accuracy. To illustrate our argument, we investigate the Performance Factor Analysis (PFA) model and the Additive Factors Model (AFM). PFA often has higher prediction accuracy than the AFM. However, PFA's parameter estimates are ambiguous and confounded. We propose more interpretable models (AFMh and PFAh) designed to address the confounded parameters and use synthetic data to demonstrate PFA's parameter interpretability issues. The results from the experiment with 27 real-world datasets also support our claims and show that more interpretable models will also produce better predictions.

## Keywords

Additive Factors Model, Performance Factors Analysis, Student Modeling, Model Comparison, Knowledge Tracing

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In Educational Data Mining (EDM), the conventional wisdom suggests that a superior model exhibits a better fit to the data. However, this perspective overlooks a critical aspect: models that prioritize prediction accuracy sometimes fall short in providing interpretable and meaningful parameter estimates. Yet, having interpretable and meaningful model parameters is crucial for scientific and practical applications of the models we develop. An example of an application of meaningful parameter estimates is when Koedinger et al. observed irregular slopes in learning curves for area planning which led to the discovery of a better Knowledge

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Component (KC) model [6]. For this purpose, prediction accuracy is merely a means to an end, not the goal itself. An exception might be black-box models used for their enhanced predictive capabilities within recommender systems to great practical outcomes.

Unfortunately, recent trends in EDM research have only predominantly concentrated on model prediction accuracy, often neglecting the importance of the meaningfulness of the parameters. Our goal in this paper is to demonstrate that meaningful parameter estimation is not a necessary consequence of more accurate model prediction. One prominent example is the Deep Knowledge Tracing (DKT) model [12], a knowledge tracing model based on Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [15], which has been shown to achieve high prediction accuracy in many datasets, but the parameters in its networks are nearly uninterpretable. In this work, we perform this demonstration in the context of two popular models of student learning: the Performance Factors Analysis (PFA) [11] and the Additive Factors Model (AFM) [2]. While PFA tends to produce better predictions than AFM, PFA's parameter estimates are not meaningful because their interpretation is ambiguous. As we will explain in more detail below, interpreting the slope parameters in PFA is difficult because it could mean individual differences in learning rates or differences in prior knowledge or difficulty of specific student-KC combinations but it could also mean different learning rates from successful and unsuccessful attempts, or even “unlearning” from errors. Conversely, AFM's slope is consistently and unambiguously interpretable as learning rate [4].

To demonstrate how PFA's parameters are confounded, we proposed and evaluated two alternative models (AFMh and PFAh) designed to unconfound the interaction between KCs and students. We demonstrated the capabilities of these alternative models with synthetic data generated from different models and configurations. Then, we conducted an experiment with 27 real-world datasets from Datashop [3], and found that PFA outperforms AFM in 17 datasets, but our further analysis with the new alternative models showed that PFA's parameters are indeed difficult to interpret. We also argue for the importance of parameter interpretability by comparing AFM and PFA with these alternative models AFMh and PFAh to demonstrate their meaningful interpretations leading to potential insights and applications. In particular, we are interested in these research questions:

- RQ1: Can we demonstrate confounding parameters in PFA?
- RQ2: Do  $h$  models have meaningful parameters and also produce better predictions?

## 2. RELATED WORK

### 2.1 DataShop

In this work, we use a variety of real-world datasets across different domains from the DataShop repository [3]. DataShop is an open data repository of the Pittsburgh Science of Learning Center (<http://learnlab.org/datasshop>) for educational data with associated visualization and analysis tools, which has data from thousands of students derived from interactions with on-line course materials and intelligent tutoring systems, such as CTAT [1].

In DataShop terminology, KCs are used to represent pieces of knowledge, concepts or skills that students need to solve problems or particular steps in problems [5]. When a specific set of KCs are mapped to a set of instructional tasks (usually steps in problems) they form a KC Model, which is a specific kind of student model.

### 2.2 AFM and PFA

The Additive Factors Model (AFM) [2] is a logistic regression that extends item response theory by incorporating a growth or learning term. The model gives the probability  $p_{ij}$ , in log-odds, that a student  $i$  will get a problem step  $j$ , with related KCs ( $k$ ) specified by  $q_{jk}$ , correct based on the student's baseline ability ( $\theta_i$ ), the baseline difficulty of the related KCs on the problem step ( $\beta_k$ ), and the learning rate of the KCs ( $\gamma_k$ ). The learning rate represents the improvement on a KC with each additional practice opportunity, so it is multiplied by the number of practice opportunities ( $T_{ik}$ ) that the student already had on the KC:

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) = \theta_i + \sum_k (q_{jk}\beta_k + q_{jk}\gamma_k T_{ik}) \quad (1)$$

The Performance Factor Analysis (PFA) [11] is an extension of the AFM model that splits the number of practice opportunities ( $T_{ik}$ ) into the number of successful opportunities ( $s_{ik}$ ), where students successfully complete the problem steps, and the number of failed opportunities ( $f_{ik}$ ), where students make errors. Both ( $s_{ik}$ ) and ( $f_{ik}$ ) have their own slopes,  $\gamma_k$  and  $\rho_k$ :

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) = \theta_i + \sum_k q_{jk}(\beta_k + \gamma_k s_{ik} + \rho_k f_{ik}) \quad (2)$$

While PFA tends to produce better predictions than AFM, its parameters are not particularly meaningful [8], particularly because their slope interpretation is ambiguous. One interpretation, which is consistent with the intention of PFA, is that these parameters capture individual differences in student mastering that are particular to KCs (i.e. student-KC interactions). Namely, students who make more errors on a KC than otherwise expected will master that KC more slowly than otherwise expected.

An alternative, and perhaps more straightforward, interpretation is that the success slope (S-slope;  $\gamma_k$ ) and failure slope (F-slope,  $\rho_k$ ) represent different learning rates for prior initially successful versus failed practice opportunities. An indication supporting this notion is the occasional occurrence of a negative F-slope, which, under the second interpretation, can be interpreted as students being unable to learn from unsuccessful attempts [8]. This interpretation could be problematic since it implies that a true novice does not learn (or even unlearns) from making errors. This seems unlikely given modeling and empirical evidence that making errors can contribute significantly to positive learning, as long as feedback is provided [9, 16, 13].

In this work, we aim to demonstrate how the parameters in PFA are confounded and propose an extension of the existing models designed to unconfound the interactions between KCs and students from the PFA's slopes.

### 3. AFMh AND PFAh MODELS

In order to unconfound the student-KC interaction from the success and failure slopes, we need to add additional variables to the models to capture the student-KC interaction. A straightforward approach is to add a variable for each student-KC pair to capture the interaction, but this can lead to overparameterization. Instead, we introduce a success-history variable ( $h_{ik}$ ), which is a ratio between a number of *successful* past attempts at solving a KC ( $s_{ik}$ ) and a number of total past attempts at solving that KC ( $t_{ik}$ ). The intuition behind the success-history variable is that a student who has better prior knowledge of a particular KC would yield higher success rates for the KC. We formulated  $h_{ik}$  such that its value will be 0.5 at the first opportunity because  $h_{ik}$  should be distinguishable in the case of consecutive failed attempts at the beginning. If  $h_{ik}$  started at 0, its value would remain 0 regardless of the number of failed attempts at the beginning, which could be problematic for the model:

$$h_{ik} = \frac{s_{ik} + 1}{t_{ik} + 2} \quad (3)$$

We incorporated the  $h_{ik}$  variables into AFM and PFA models to create AFMh and PFAh models, in the term  $q_{jk}\eta_k h_{ik}$ . The equations for AFMh (Eq. 3) and PFAh (Eq. 4) are below.

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) = \theta_i + \sum_k q_{jk}(\beta_k + \gamma_k T_{ik} + \eta_k h_{ik}) \quad (4)$$

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) = \theta_i + \sum_k q_{jk}(\beta_k + \gamma_k s_{ik} + \rho_k f_{ik} + \eta_k h_{ik}) \quad (5)$$

### 4. EXPERIMENTS

We conducted two experiments, on synthetic data and real student data, to evaluate the performance of new models (AFMh and PFAh) compared to the standard models (AFM and PFA). We used Bayesian information criterion (BIC) [10] as the main metric to compare model performance. Our

**Table 1: The expected best-fitting model for each dataset configuration. PFA is expected to be the best-fitting model when there are different learning rates and no student-KC interactions, but if there are strong student-KC interactions, PFAh is expected to be the best-fitting model. Similarly, if there is a single learning rate and no student-KC interactions, AFM is expected to be the best-fitting model, but if there are strong student-KC interactions, AFMh is expected to be the best-fitting model.**

	No Interaction	With Interaction
1-slope (i.e. 1 learning rates)	AFM	AFMh
2-slopes (i.e. 2 learning rates)	PFA	PFAh

hypothesis is that if there are strong student-KC interactions, the  $h$  models will outperform the standard models, and if there are different learning rates for successful and failed attempts, PFA-based models (i.e. PFA and PFAh) will be better-fitting models, but if there is a single learning rate (i.e. slope), AFM-based models will perform better. Our hypotheses are summarized in Table 1. Additionally, if PFA parameters are indeed confounded by both the student-KC interactions and two learning rates, we expect PFA to outperforms AFM in configurations with either student-KC interactions or 2 learning rates (or both). In other words, all configurations except a single learning rate with no interaction. Consequently, if the  $h$  variables are in fact able to unconfound them by capturing the student-KC interactions, PFAh and AFMh will outperform PFA in their corresponding configuration.

## 4.1 Experiment 1: Synthetic Data

### 4.1.1 Methods

In this experiment, we aim to validate the efficacy of our newly developed model in capturing the interaction dynamics between students and KCs. To achieve this, we evaluate this model on synthetic data with known characteristics by sampling model parameters such as student intercepts, KC intercepts, and KC slopes from normal distributions with statistical properties similar to those observed in real-student data. We generated synthetic datasets based on either the AFM or PFA models, serving as the ground truth for student error rates and correctness [14]. Specifically, AFM will generate datasets that are assumed a single learning rate (i.e. slope), but PFA will generate datasets that are assumed different learning rates for successful and failed attempts. To emulate the student-KC interactions observed in real-world scenarios, we introduced variability by augmenting datasets with student-KC interaction effects. This was achieved by sampling values from a normal distribution, reflecting the variance in student performance specific to each KC. Overall, we created 18 dataset groups encompassing varying the number of students (10, 20, and 50), the number of KCs (8, 16, and 32), and the strength of the student-KC interactions ( $SD = 0.2$  and  $1.2$ ), where each configuration was used to generate 4 datasets based

on each generation models (AFM, PFA, AFM+Interaction, and PFA+Interaction) to form a 2x2 experimental design, corresponding to Table 1. The standard deviations used to simulate student-KC interactions were selected based on the standard deviations of student intercepts from all real students in our datasets estimated using AFM. We used this value as an estimate of the likely amount of variation in student intercepts in a dataset, which could be used as a proxy for reasonable variation in student-KC interactions. We evaluate all four models (AFM, PFA, AFMh, and PFAh) on each dataset. Table 2 and Table 3 show the BIC scores for each model on each dataset in this experiment and summarize the best-fitting models by BIC score.

### 4.1.2 Results

As shown in Table 2, when the student-KC interaction is weak ( $SD = 0.2$ ), AFM and PFA are the best-fitting models in all datasets depending on the generating model (i.e. AFM is the best-fitting model when the generating model is AFM, and PFA is the best-fitting model when the generating model is PFA). However, when the student-KC interaction is strong ( $SD = 1.2$ ), the model corresponding to the generation method is the best-fitting model in all datasets, except one (student=10, KC=32, method=PFA+Interaction), as shown in Table 3. In other words, when there is a reasonably strong interaction between students and KCs, the models with the  $h$  variable consistently outperform the standard models. Moreover, the result shows that PFA consistently outperforms AFM when there are student-KC interactions, even when the base generation model is AFM, in which AFMh also consistently outperforms PFA. This supports our hypothesis that PFA parameters are confounded by both the student-KC interactions and two learning rates, but the  $h$  variable will be able to unconfound them by capturing the student-KC interactions. Overall, these results also demonstrate the capability of the  $h$  models to capture the dynamics of student-KC interactions.

## 4.2 Experiment 2: Real Student Data

### 4.2.1 Methods

We conducted an experiment with 27 real-world dataset from Datasshop across different domains (e.g., geometry, fractions, physics, statistics, English articles, Chinese vocabulary), educational levels (e.g., grades 5 to 12, college, adult learners), and settings (e.g., in class vs. out of class as homework). We evaluated all four models (AFM, PFA, AFMh, and PFAh) on each dataset. Table 4 shows the BIC score obtained when fitting each model on each dataset in this experiment.

### 4.2.2 Results

Table 4 shows the BIC score of each model on each real-student dataset. When comparing between AFM and PFA, PFA outperforms AFM in 17 out of 27 datasets, replicating prior evidence. However, when comparing among all four models, PFA is the best-fitting model in only one dataset (where the difference in BIC score is relatively small), while AFM is the best-fitting model in 4 datasets. AFMh and PFAh are the best-fitting models in 11 datasets each. Among the 17 datasets that PFA outperforms AFM, AFMh is the best-fitting model in 5 datasets. In fact, AFMh outperforms

Table 2: BIC scores of all 4 models for each synthetic dataset with interaction SD = 0.2. Light grey highlights the best-fitting model among the models. AFM is always the best-fitting model when the generation model is AFM regardless of student-KC interactions. Similarly, PFA is always the best-fitting model when the generation model is PFA regardless of student-KC interactions.

Student	KC	Generation	Interaction	AFM	PFA	AFMh	PFAh	Best
10	8	AFM	Yes	1590.290	1627.946	1598.361	1636.017	AFM
			No	1630.425	1662.996	1634.406	1669.617	AFM
		PFA	Yes	2091.749	1436.743	1538.479	1444.813	PFA
			No	2072.443	1514.381	1607.171	1522.153	PFA
	16	AFM	Yes	3818.870	3880.883	3827.027	3885.613	AFM
			No	3808.662	3868.290	3817.426	3877.054	AFM
		PFA	Yes	4010.223	2807.466	2893.398	2815.151	PFA
			No	3949.252	2840.803	2913.090	2849.557	PFA
	32	AFM	Yes	6114.022	6196.097	6121.329	6205.297	AFM
			No	6042.236	6125.623	6051.586	6135.080	AFM
		PFA	Yes	7925.592	6382.965	6676.408	6392.397	PFA
			No	7823.461	6348.209	6673.301	6357.680	PFA
20	8	AFM	Yes	4791.102	4837.957	4799.797	4846.721	AFM
			No	4601.883	4653.242	4610.647	4662.006	AFM
		PFA	Yes	6755.818	6403.026	6700.326	6411.790	PFA
			No	6728.999	6445.256	6715.965	6453.907	PFA
	16	AFM	Yes	6520.145	6597.033	6529.602	6606.491	AFM
			No	6334.954	6405.390	6342.483	6410.950	AFM
		PFA	Yes	9840.107	8331.947	8969.829	8338.121	PFA
			No	10059.017	8498.802	9050.723	8508.260	PFA
	32	AFM	Yes	10894.995	10989.292	10905.136	10999.442	AFM
			No	10614.447	10714.491	10624.598	10723.488	AFM
		PFA	Yes	17967.629	14766.013	15470.549	14776.163	PFA
			No	18373.613	14781.398	15415.666	14791.548	PFA
50	8	AFM	Yes	7752.478	7813.250	7762.159	7822.930	AFM
			No	7465.130	7529.155	7474.811	7538.835	AFM
		PFA	Yes	8978.669	6766.349	7572.593	6776.029	PFA
			No	9386.140	7121.818	8032.094	7131.499	PFA
	16	AFM	Yes	17436.148	17535.014	17446.522	17545.388	AFM
			No	17380.842	17468.669	17390.404	17478.980	AFM
		PFA	Yes	23980.442	17452.077	19262.037	17462.450	PFA
			No	23881.545	17732.729	19555.968	17743.103	PFA
	32	AFM	Yes	28246.575	28398.769	28257.642	28409.835	AFM
			No	28505.827	28648.146	28515.574	28658.121	AFM
		PFA	Yes	33787.825	30985.826	31862.632	30996.893	PFA
			No	35348.852	32002.575	32923.707	32013.642	PFA

**Table 3:** BIC scores of all 4 models for each synthetic dataset with interaction SD = 1.2. Light grey highlights the best-fitting model among the models. AFM is always the best-fitting model when the generation model is AFM without student-KC interaction, but AFMh is the best-fitting model when there are student-KC interactions. Similarly, PFA is always the best-fitting model when the generation model is PFA without student-KC interaction, but PFAh is usually the best-fitting model when there are student-KC interactions.

Student	KC	Generation	Interaction	AFM	PFA	AFMh	PFAh	Best
10	8	AFM	Yes	1051.481	1094.670	1059.552	1102.728	AFM
			No	1117.250	1110.974	1095.651	1121.092	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	2086.542	1736.834	1768.927	1744.905	PFA
			No	2442.974	1779.640	1788.976	1778.851	PFAh
	16	AFM	Yes	2209.120	2267.256	2217.864	2276.020	AFM
			No	2412.882	2359.565	2333.930	2359.085	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	3741.063	3585.428	3684.478	3594.192	PFA
			No	4298.942	3809.425	3870.989	3807.412	PFAh
	32	AFM	Yes	6362.627	6444.527	6371.700	6453.985	AFM
			No	7290.315	6785.575	6770.986	6784.784	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	10103.516	8081.974	8434.942	8091.431	PFA
			No	10653.994	8404.126	8559.083	8410.545	PFA
20	8	AFM	Yes	2387.151	2438.373	2395.171	2447.137	AFM
			No	2811.167	2698.942	2661.740	2695.280	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	5208.531	4508.708	4661.685	4515.641	PFA
			No	5448.687	4676.877	4718.731	4649.611	PFAh
	16	AFM	Yes	5605.182	5687.103	5614.639	5696.560	AFM
			No	6109.225	5905.782	5833.515	5876.967	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	10155.346	7978.861	8504.096	7988.318	PFA
			No	11099.476	8051.809	8196.360	8011.967	PFAh
	32	AFM	Yes	11602.318	11720.229	11612.225	11730.379	AFM
			No	12897.355	11902.381	11796.091	11832.277	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	18625.785	14559.687	15284.133	14569.251	PFA
			No	20953.855	14522.347	14889.161	14501.333	PFAh
50	8	AFM	Yes	9270.245	9337.691	9279.925	9347.372	AFM
			No	10248.059	9472.805	9301.816	9334.143	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	13377.323	10083.043	10708.542	10092.723	PFA
			No	14207.732	9690.340	9895.612	9638.426	PFAh
	16	AFM	Yes	16027.836	16120.648	16038.208	16130.733	AFM
			No	17820.780	16525.557	16326.445	16361.036	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	19711.027	15708.241	16163.369	15718.614	PFA
			No	23266.309	16106.685	16374.813	15996.808	PFAh
	32	AFM	Yes	24554.830	24708.746	24565.897	24719.813	AFM
			No	27686.058	25585.924	25288.177	25326.152	AFMh
		PFA	Yes	47960.208	38961.412	40581.090	38972.479	PFA
			No	52031.370	40238.448	40847.476	40038.740	PFAh

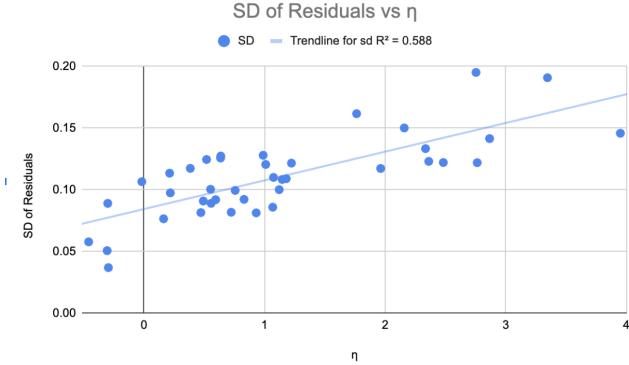


Figure 1: SD of Residuals vs  $\eta_k$ . The residuals and  $\eta_k$  are positively correlated.

PFA in 24 out of 27 datasets, in contrast to PFAh which outperforms PFA in only 13 out of 27 datasets. Generally, the results demonstrate that the  $h$  models usually fit the data better compared to the standard models because they are the best-fitting models in 22 out of 27 datasets.

## 5. DISCUSSION

### 5.1 RQ1: Confounding Parameters in PFA

From both synthetic datasets and real-student datasets, we demonstrated that PFA is usually a better fitting model compared to AFM, 45 out of 72 in synthetic datasets (63%) and 17 out of 27 in real-student datasets (63%). However, we argued that the interpretation of the parameters in PFA is not meaningful because their slope interpretation is ambiguous between individual differences in student mastering that are particular to KCs (i.e. student-KC interactions) and different learning rates, which in turn makes PFA's superiority questionable. The results from both experiments and our alternative models support this hypothesis.

In the synthetic data experiment, we demonstrated the capability of AFMh and PFAh to capture the interactions between students and KCs, as those models outperform standard AFM and PFA when interactions are incorporated in the synthetic datasets. Particularly, PFAh effectively handles the confounding slopes in PFA because the added  $\eta_k$  captures interactions and the slopes capture different rates of learning from errors and successes. It is worth noting that PFA also outperforms AFM in all datasets with strong interactions where the generation method is not AFM without interaction, including AFM with interaction. In other words, PFA is a better fitting model when the generation method includes either student-KC interactions or independent slopes for errors and successes (or both), which attests that the PFA parameters are indeed confounded.

This claim is further validated by the experiment with the real-student datasets. Of the 27 datasets, PFA produces better predictions than AFM on 17 of them – so, indeed, PFA is generally a more predictive model even if it is less interpretable than AFM. However, for 16 of these 17 datasets, either of the new more meaningful models, AFMh (5 out of 17) or PFAh (11 out of 17), yields better predictions than PFA. In other words, PFA is rarely the best-fitting model

Table 4: BIC scores of all 4 models on 27 real-student datasets. Light grey highlights a better-fitting model between AFM and PFA. Dark grey highlights the best-fitting model among all 4 models.

DS	AFM	PFA	AFMh	PFAh
99	14568.873	14564.965	14506.087	14522.619
104	6965.241	6978.620	6957.865	6987.335
115	20752.969	20612.962	20722.641	20622.806
253	14598.394	14585.407	14563.883	14585.933
271	1277.940	1305.424	1283.093	1309.691
308	3072.037	3115.442	3079.713	3120.485
1980	6920.579	6944.683	6917.875	6951.888
372	6283.754	6213.442	6207.816	6222.314
1899	5541.982	5555.805	5534.952	5564.308
392	29177.451	29005.429	29006.499	28994.564
394	5580.649	5557.175	5550.959	5565.836
445	4964.794	4971.661	4945.798	4978.275
562	57459.694	56460.229	56410.123	56355.453
563	58377.219	57007.220	56876.034	56840.820
564	67622.473	66165.224	66035.163	65999.477
565	60111.965	57395.729	57057.449	56987.445
566	64040.573	63603.997	63459.030	63470.794
567	49015.532	48010.910	48117.234	48009.947
605	3355.982	3381.284	3361.952	3388.193
1935	8034.666	8052.826	8027.439	8060.300
1330	49749.563	49698.893	49623.904	49622.238
447	87354.605	85040.246	84523.160	84499.571
531	110398.18	106320.62	106032.06	105714.36
1943	127785.50	120277.02	118027.78	117993.15
1387	3298.273	3324.936	3300.726	3330.990
1007	3720.511	3738.319	3688.687	3723.710
4555	36957.404	36506.379	36365.781	36349.639

when we compare it with the models that are designed to separately capture the student-KC interactions. Moreover, even though PFA outperforms AFM in the majority of the datasets, when compared with PFAh and AFMh, it is the best model only in one dataset (6%). On the contrary, AFM is the best model in four datasets (40%). Generally, the results also show that it is possible for a model to be both interpretable and produce better predictions, as evidenced by AFMh and PFAh.

### 5.2 RQ2: Meaningful Parameters

We return to the claim that the significance of model parameters and their interpretability supersedes goodness-of-fit or prediction accuracy. The results with real-student datasets demonstrate that AFMh and PFAh are usually better fitting models compared to standard AFM or PFA, but the question remains: do these models hold meaningful inter-

pretations, particularly concerning the  $h$  parameter?

It is essential to distinguish between the  $h_{ik}$  variable and its associated *estimated* parameters,  $\eta_k$ . Defined in Eq. 3, the  $h$  variable denotes the ratio of successful past attempts and total past attempts, positing that students with higher prior knowledge in a specific KC exhibit comparatively higher  $h$  values.  $h_{ik}$  is deterministically calculated from the data. On the other hand, its parameter,  $\eta_k$ , is estimated from fitting the model to the data and indicates the relative influence of the variable on predicting the outcome.

In a meaningful model, parameter estimates typically offer clear interpretations. For instance, in AFM, the student intercept represents the student’s prior knowledge, while the KC intercept reflects the difficulty of the KC. But what insights does  $\eta_k$  offer?

To answer this question, we investigated the relationship between  $\eta_k$  and the residuals, the difference between the actual outcomes and the model predictions, for each student on corresponding KCs. Particularly, we investigated ds99 dataset, where  $\eta_k$  ranges from -0.46 to 3.95 ( $\mu = 1.12$ ). Let’s first look at the  $h_{ik}$  variables. When the KC has a strong variance for the interactions, which means some students are really strong while some students are really weak on the KC, we will also expect a high variance for  $h_{ik}$  of that KC. In contrast, when the student-KC interactions have a weak variance,  $h_{ik}$  will also be expected to have a low variance. As a result,  $\eta_k$  should be correlated with the variance of the corresponding student-KC interactions. The result from the real-student data, as shown in Fig. 1, supports this hypothesis and shows that the variance of the residuals and  $\eta_k$  are in fact correlated.

Consequently, the  $\eta_k$  can be interpreted as representing the variance of student-KC interactions of the associated KC. In other words, when  $\eta_k$  is high, some students are really good at the KC while other students are not. For example, *number-letter* is a KC with a relatively high  $\eta_k$  from the English Article Tutor. The *number-letter* KC describes a skill that involves selecting an English article (i.e. "a" or "an") to fill in the blank. Examples of problems with *number-letter* KC are "This is the first time that I've received \_\_\_ '99' on a test." or "My name begins with \_\_\_ 'L'.". Some, perhaps otherwise struggling, students may learn this skill faster because they happen to focus on the *sound* of the letter in the following noun and whether it is a vowel or consonant sound. Other, perhaps otherwise good, students may learn this skill slower because they focus on the *written* letter and whether it is a vowel or consonant. This latter encoding sometimes works, so it is non-trivial to reject in early induction if a learner thinks of it. However, it produces errors and slows down learning overall. On the other hand, when  $\eta_k$  is low, most students are relatively similarly good at that given KC, so the differences in their performance will depend on their overall characteristics, such as student intercepts (prior knowledge). The corollary of this finding is that when  $\eta_k$  is low, students are performing as expected from the model’s prediction (Fig. 2) due to the small variances of residuals. Conversely, students are not performing as expected on the KCs when  $\eta_k$  is large (Fig. 2). Taken together, these results demonstrate that the  $h$  models are not only better fitting

Actual Outcomes vs. Predicted Outcomes ( $\eta=0.16$ )

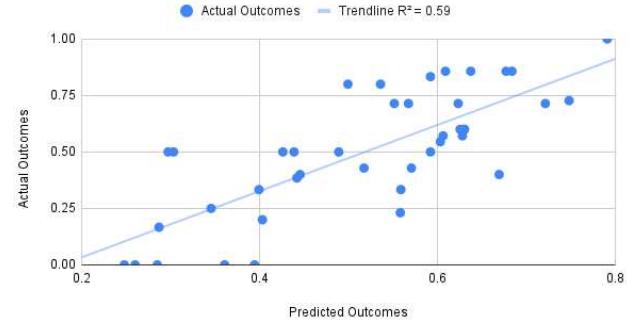


Figure 2: Actual Outcomes vs Predicted Outcomes ( $\eta_k=0.16$ ). When  $\eta_k$  is low, students are performing as expected from the model’s prediction.

Actual vs. Predicted Outcomes ( $\eta=3.35$ )

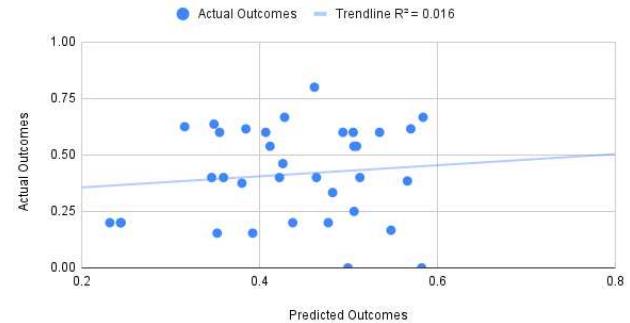


Figure 3: Actual Outcomes vs Predicted Outcomes ( $\eta_k=3.35$ ). When  $\eta_k$  is high, students are not performing as expected from the model’s prediction.

models, but their parameters are also meaningful and interpretable. To illustrate the usefulness of the meaningful interpretations, the above suggests a change in the KC model and associated instruction so that the *number-letter* KC becomes unambiguous and the variance of students’ learning is reduced.

The implications of an interpretable knowledge tracing model with better predictive power are immense, especially with practical applications. For example, Liu et al. demonstrate that meaningful interpretations of AFM parameters (e.g. learning rates for knowledge components’ slopes) can lead to new scientific insights (e.g. improved cognitive models discovery) and results in useful practical applications (e.g. an intelligent tutoring system redesign) [7]. Similarly, our work has many potential practical applications, such as improved ITS design, better student tracing, and overall improvements to the use of model parameters to make decisions about student learning and mastery.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this work, we argued that models with high prediction accuracy do not necessarily exhibit meaningful parameter

estimates, which are important for scientific and practical applications. We demonstrated our claim in the context of PFA using both synthetic data and real-student data. The result supported our hypothesis that while PFA is a better fitting model compared to AFM, its parameters' interpretation is ambiguous. Further, we proposed new models AFMh and PFAh, introducing a success-history variable ( $h_k$ ) designed to capture student-KC interactions, to the existing models. We evaluated their capabilities also with synthetic data and real-student data and demonstrated that the new models are both more interpretable and better fitting compared to PFA.

While  $h_k$  works reasonably well as a proxy of student-KC interactions, in future work it might be important to test a model with straightforward student:KC interaction terms; though, there might be a possibly intractable number of parameters. In addition, other possible configurations of  $h_k$  variables could be interesting to experiment with, such as formulating  $h_k$  to be centered at 0 instead of 0.5 or using logarithmic form.

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