

# Facilitating learning outcome assessment– development of new datasets and analysis of pre-trained language models

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## Abstract

Student mobility reflects academic transfer from one postsecondary institution to another and facilitates students’ educational goals of obtaining multiple credentials and/or advanced training in their field. This process often relies on transfer credit assessment, based on the similarity between learning outcomes, to determine what knowledge and skills were obtained at the sending institution as well as what knowledge and skills need to still be acquired at the receiving institution. As human evaluation can be both a challenging and time-consuming process, algorithms based on natural language processing can be a reliable tool for assessing transfer credit. In this article, we propose two novel datasets in the fields of Anatomy and Computer Science. Our aim is to probe the similarity between learning outcomes utilising pre-trained embedding models and compare their performance to human-annotated results. We found that ALBERT, MPNeT and DistilRoBERTa demonstrated the best ability to predict the similarity between pairs of learning outcomes. However, Davinci - a GPT-3 model which is expected to predict better results - is only able to provide a good qualitative explanation and not an accurate similarity score. The codes and datasets are available at <https://github.com/JAkriti/New-Dataset-and-Performance-of-Embedding-Models>.

## 1 Introduction

Student mobility refers to the movement - or, “transfer” – of students from one post-secondary institution (i.e., college or university) to another. Students might choose to transfer for any number of reasons; common motivating factors include the opportunity to obtain both advanced training and multiple credentials in order to increase the number of future employment options. Additionally, students whose high school grades do not allow them to enter their program or institution of choice might instead enroll first in an institution with less strin-

gent admission requirements. Obtainment of the initial post-secondary credential (e.g., diploma) can then facilitate transfer into the desired credential (e.g., degree) (Lang and Lopes, 2014), particularly when both are within related fields (e.g., Computer Programming diploma and Computer Science degree).

Transferring within similar fields of study often means that there is overlap in topics and/or courses required for both credentials; therefore, in order to effectively recognize students’ previous learning, receiving institutions are often required to assess “transfer credit.” Although numerous factors might influence this assessment, learning outcomes are considered a particularly valuable tool in the process (Arnold et al., 2020a). Learning outcomes are the measurable objectives defined at the end of an assignment, class, course, or program (Davis, 2009) and indicate the skill or knowledge level that can be expected from a student who has successfully completed the task in question. When a student transfers between institutions, the receiving institution typically reviews course learning outcomes from the previous institution to determine whether they align with the learning outcomes of comparable courses offered at the receiving institution. Generally, program coordinators or other domain experts (e.g., teaching faculty) are the trusted authority designated to determine whether credit is warranted; however, human evaluation can be a complex and challenging task (Fallon, 2015).

The process of assessing transfer credit can be facilitated through the use of Natural Language Processing (NLP) based semantic similarity algorithms. NLP has wide applicability, with the main challenge of measuring textual semantic similarity (Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021b; Majumder et al., 2016). In the past few decades, there has been rich advancement in defining various measures for similarity between words, short texts, and sentences (Corley and Mihalcea, 2005; Ramage

et al., 2009). Word-embeddings have emerged as a well-known technique that represents text in the form of a real-valued vector that reasonably captures the syntactic and semantic resemblance between them (Turian et al., 2010; Mikolov et al., 2013). Transformer-based pre-trained language models trained on large text corpora have successfully emerged to be paradigmatic models for building vector-based representations of texts (Vaswani et al., 2017). These models have applications in numerous fields such as text summarization (Mohamed and Oussalah, 2019), question/answering (Bordes et al., 2014; Lopez-Gazpio et al., 2017), sentiment analysis (Zhao et al., 2016), and sentence prediction, among others.

In this direction, this paper aims to propose two novel datasets consisting of course learning outcomes in postsecondary education. We determined the complexity of the outcomes (sentences) through readability analysis. We also implemented various embedding models to scrutinize the similarity between pairs of sentences and compared the models' performance with human-annotated results. Among different models, we found that ALBERT, MPNET and DistilRoBERTa demonstrated the best ability to predict the similarity between pairs of learning outcomes. However, Davinci - a GPT-3 model which is expected to predict better results - is only able to provide a good qualitative explanation and not an accurate similarity score.

## 2 Context and Motivation

### 2.1 Learning Outcomes in Postsecondary Education

Learning outcomes are “clearly defined and measurable statements of learning that reflect the scope and depth of performance; what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning” (Lennon et al., 2014, p. 47). Within postsecondary education, outcomes are foundational for both developing curriculum and demonstrating quality assurance (Arnold et al., 2020a; Lennon, 2015). Transfer credit assessment increasingly relies on learning outcomes as a means of evaluating similarity between courses and credentials offered by different postsecondary institutions (Arnold et al., 2020a; Fallon, 2015), with outcomes sometimes being viewed as a “currency” that students can exchange between institutions in order to avoid repeating previous learning (Young et al., 2017).

Effectively assessing transfer credit is an important process when considering that the amount of credit received can correspond to increase in academic performance as well as influence academic workload and time to completion for obtaining a postsecondary credential (Gerhardt and Masakure, 2016).

### 2.2 The Challenge of Assessing Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes have the potential to establish a common language for communicating student learning and achievement across contexts (Arnold et al., 2020b); however, the overall process of assessing transfer credit tends to be both resource- and time-intensive (Arnold et al., 2020a). Additionally, course comparisons can differ substantially across institutions, and might (or might not) incorporate numerous other considerations related to content, evaluation, and grading (Arnold et al., 2020a). This subjectivity can be detrimental for students and institutions alike (Tortola et al., 2020), with the lack of consistency in standards and processes presenting a notable barrier. A recommendation to address this concern is the implementation of policies and practices that facilitate consistent decision-making, for example by documenting previous assessments (Wheelahan et al., 2016). An additional consideration is the presence of common assumptions regarding the nature and quality of education offered at different types of institutions (e.g., colleges and universities) (Arnold et al., 2020b), which could influence transfer credit decisions. Again, establishing some means of consistency that eliminates such potential bias could facilitate a more accurate and effective assessment process.

## 3 Methodology

### 3.1 New Dataset Development

We developed two novel datasets consisting of learning outcomes related to two content areas, namely (1) human anatomy and (2) operating systems. To create each dataset, we first accessed relevant course outlines from postsecondary institutions in Ontario, Canada. All of the outlines were publicly available and could be accessed via the institutions' websites without log-in credentials or other permissions. Next, we extracted the learning outcomes from each course outline and organized them by field (i.e., human anatomy and operating

systems), institution (e.g., Institution A, Institution B, etc.), course (e.g., ANAT 101, BIOL 102, etc.), and topic (e.g., Digestive System, Muscular System, etc.). In some instances, we modified the general sentence structure of a learning outcome to either reduce “wordiness”, delete redundant information, and/or separate information pertaining to multiple topics. For example, an outcome that included two topic areas, such as “Explain the structure and function of the muscular and skeletal systems,” would become two separate outcomes (e.g., “Explain the structure and function of the muscular system; Explain the structure and function of the skeletal system”). The resulting datasets consisted of 28 (anatomy) and 59 (operating systems) unique learning outcomes (sentences) representing the knowledge and skills that would be expected of students who successfully completed the respective courses.

To create sentence pairs for analysis, learning outcomes from each dataset were paired together so that (1) both similar and dissimilar pairs were represented uniformly (i.e., by creating both inter- and intra-topic pairings) and (2) no learning outcomes were repeated more than twice. A total of 28 and 45 sentence pairs were analyzed for the anatomy and operating systems datasets, respectively. The datasets are available at <https://github.com/JAkriti/New-Dataset-and-Performance-of-Embedding-Models>.

### 3.2 Complex Sentence Dataset (Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021a)

Recently, a dataset comprising 52 sentence pairs related to definitions of Computer Science terminology was developed and analyzed. The authors conduct readability analysis anticipating that their dataset exhibits a low readability index. This claims that their dataset is more complex in comparison to two benchmark datasets (Sentences Involving Compositional Knowledge “SICK”(Marelli et al., 2014) and Semantic Text Similarity “STS”(Shao, 2017)). Their main objective is to show how the increase in complexity of sentences leads to a significant decrease in the performance of embedding models.

### 3.3 Readability Analysis

The readability score is a metric defined to measure the complexity of a sentence and deliberate the grade level of education required for a person to understand the piece of text. Depending on the

complexity of learning outcomes, it is important to comprehend how reasonably the embedding models perform to evaluate the similarity scores between them. The indices used to determine the readability scores of the sentences in the proposed datasets are – a) Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (Coleman and Liau, 1975), b) Coleman-Liau Index (Kincaid et al., 1975), c) Automated readability Index (Kincaid et al., 1975), d) Linsear Write and e) Gunning fog index (Gunning et al., 1952).

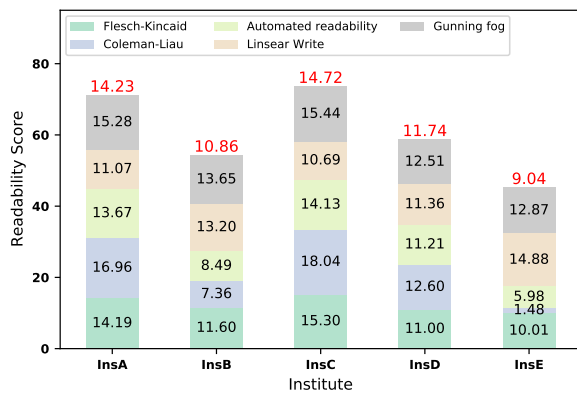
The readability scores of learning outcomes from each institute (e.g., Institute A, Institute B, etc.) are evaluated using the above indices. The aggregate of all these indices provides an overall readability score of each institute as highlighted in Figure 1 (for each dataset). For example, an average score of 11.74 shows that a reader needs a qualification of grade 11 to understand the text. Therefore, following this notation we observe that a reader requires education of collegiate level and above to understand the Anatomy sentences, and knowledge of grade 12 and above for Computer Science sentences.

### 3.4 Annotation

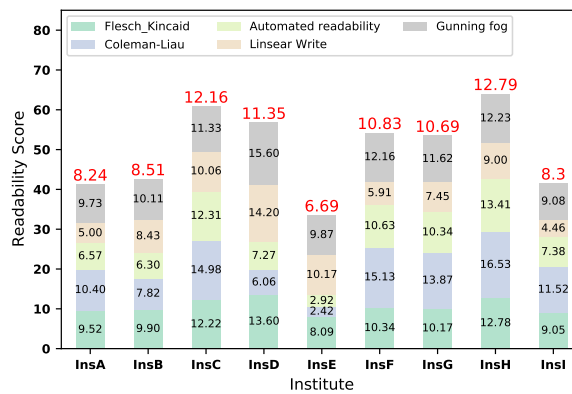
To develop a basis for comparing the performance of embedding models, the proposed datasets are each manually evaluated by three human respondents with relevant contextual expertise. The Anatomy dataset is evaluated by two graduated scholars and one graduate student in Kinesiology. The Computer Science dataset is evaluated by three thesis-based Master’s students. The annotators have been made aware of the applicability of this work. Each sentence pair is annotated on a scale of 0 to 9, where 0 (9) represents completely dissimilar (similar) sentences. To affirm the competency of these human ratings, we computed inter-rater agreement using *Krippendorff’s alpha coefficient* represented as  $\alpha$ , where data with a coefficient value between  $0.667 < \alpha < 0.8$  is considered reliable (Krippendorff, 2011; Hayes and Krippendorff, 2007). For the Anatomy dataset,  $\alpha = 0.71$ , and for the Computer Science dataset,  $\alpha = 0.68$  which indicates that the annotation is reliable.

### 3.5 Web Interface

To ensure that the implementation of pre-trained embedding models is successful in assisting transfer credit assessment, a web interface is developed to streamline the process. This begins by prompting users to upload new programs to the website



(a) Anatomy Dataset



(b) Computer Science Dataset

Figure 1: Readability analysis of learning outcomes from different institutes (denoted as InsA, InsB, and so on) for (a) Anatomy (b) Computer Science dataset using five different indices (values indicated in black). The aggregate scores are highlighted in red on each of the stacked bar graph.

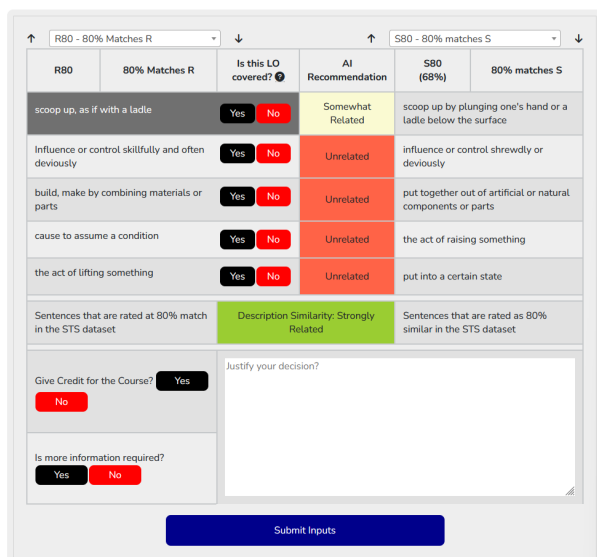


Figure 2: An example of the web interface where learning outcome comparisons can be observed

that contain information about the courses and their expected learning outcomes. Once an institute identifies a program they would like to transfer credit to, a comparative analysis is performed where a natural language processing algorithm is used to determine the semantic similarity between each course.

From these results, members of the receiving institute are able to access the screen shown in Figure 2 where they can observe suggestions from the algorithm for each learning outcome comparison before making their own decisions. After each user has provided input, the owner of the analysis can then observe the overall consensus before making

a final recommendation on the transfer credit and generating a report to show the outcome.

Model	Version
BERT <sub>base</sub> (Devlin et al., 2018)	<i>bert-base-nli-mean-tokens</i>
BERT <sub>Large</sub> (Devlin et al., 2018)	<i>bert-large-nli-mean-tokens</i>
RoBERTa <sub>base</sub> (Liu et al., 2019)	<i>roberta-base-nli-mean-tokens</i>
RoBERTa <sub>Large</sub> (Liu et al., 2019)	<i>nli-roberta-large</i>
ALBERT (Lan et al., 2019)	<i>paraphrase-albert-small-v2</i>
DistilRoBERTa (Sanh et al., 2019)	<i>all-distilroberta-v1</i>
DistilRoBERTa (Sanh et al., 2019)	<i>nli-distilroberta-base-v2</i>
MPNet (Song et al., 2020)	<i>all-mpnet-base-v2</i>
GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020)	Davinci OpenAI

Table 1: Pre-trained embedding models used to generate sentence embeddings.

### 3.6 NLP Algorithm

*Transformer* is a neural network architecture that emerged as a breakthrough in NLP (Vaswani et al., 2017). Along with the encoder-decoder structure, self-attention mechanism is the key characteristic of transformers for the algorithms to learn the long-range relationship between words in a sequence. This architecture has surpassed the performance of various traditional networks like convolutional and recurrent neural networks known for language understanding (Mikolov et al., 2011). Furthermore, *Sentence transformer* is a transformer-based model designed to generate a fixed-size dense vector for a sentence of any length (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019). A brief outline of transformer-based models along with their sentence transformer version used in this paper is given in Table 1. The resulting sentence embeddings are then compared using cosine similarity.



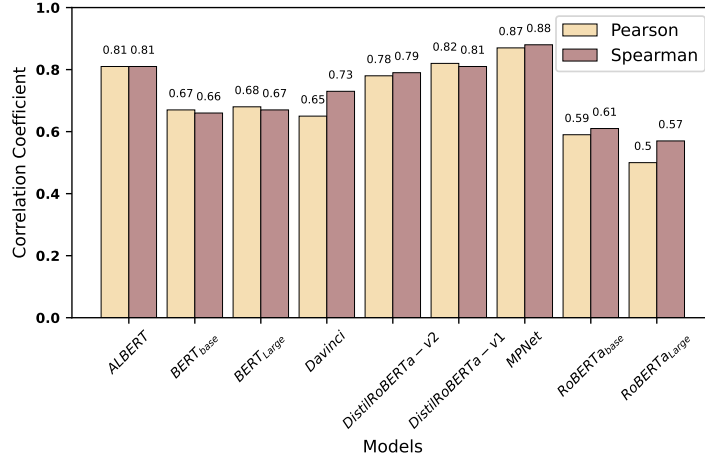


Figure 3: Pearson’s and Spearman’s correlation coefficient to analyse relationship between similarity values of human annotators and embedding models (Section 3.6) for Anatomy dataset.

S1: Discuss the structural organization and function of the respiratory system and its major organs.									
S2: List the parts of the respiratory system and identify their functions.									
ALBERT	BERT <sub>base</sub>	BERT <sub>Large</sub>	Davinci	DistilRoBERTa-v1	DistilRoBERTa-v2	MPNeT	RoBERTa <sub>base</sub>	RoBERTa <sub>Large</sub>	Human
0.8288	0.8197	0.9002	0.9098	0.7738	0.7967	0.7706	0.8901	0.8622	0.7407

Table 2: Similarity scores of a sentence pair from Anatomy dataset, evaluated using versions of pre-trained embedding models discussed in Section 3.6. Human ratings are normalized between 0 and 1.

## 4 Results

This section provides an extensive comparative analysis of various embedding techniques (discussed in Section 3.6) implemented for evaluating the similarity scores of learning outcomes in proposed datasets. To evaluate the relationship between the similarity scores of human annotators and embedding models we employ Pearson’s and Spearman’s rank coefficients for the Anatomy and Computer Science datasets (including the dataset proposed by (Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021a) and the dataset proposed in this paper).

### 4.1 New Proposed datasets

#### 4.1.1 Human Anatomy dataset

The results presented in Figure 3 demonstrate Pearson’s and Spearman’s correlation coefficients for the proposed Anatomy dataset of learning outcomes. While comparing different pre-trained embedding models we found that MPNeT achieves the best performance with 0.87 Pearson’s value and 0.88 Spearman’s value. This shows that the scores of MPNeT are very highly correlated to the human annotator’s ratings. Moreover, DistilRoBERTa-v1 and ALBERT models show good performance with nearly 0.81 for both Pearson’s and Spearman’s correlation predicting that the ratings are highly corre-

lated. However, every other model fails to predict a better similarity score. An example of sentence pair specifying how similar the sentences are according to embedding models is highlighted in Table 2, where we clearly observe that MPNeT is closest to human rating.

#### Example 1- ChatGPT

S1: Apply the basic planes of motion and fundamental movements associated with human movement using proper anatomical terminology.

S2: Describe the structure and function of bones and bony prominence.

*There is not a strong similarity between the two sentences. S1 is about applying knowledge of human movement and anatomy, while S2 is about describing the structure and function of bones. They both involve anatomy, but they are not closely related in terms of content.*

Davinci: 0.8201

Human score: 0.6667

On the other hand, where Davinci model is anticipated to provide better results, we observed that though this model is not able to predict a reliable

similarity score, it provides a piece of genuine qualitative information as shown above. This sentence pair is expected not to be similar as they are related to two different aspects of human anatomy. However, Davinci provides a high similarity score 0.8201 which is far away from the human similarity score, although it reflects a good explanation when explored on ChatGPT.

#### 4.1.2 Computer Science dataset

For the Computer Science dataset proposed in this paper, the performance of embedding models is displayed in Figure 4. Also, an example of sentence pair with similarity values between them from different models is given in Table 3. Clearly, among the various embedding models, DistilRoBERTa-v2 shows the highest value for Pearson’s and Spearman’s coefficient displaying a very good correlation between the two ratings. However, we observed that the annotated values for this dataset fail to follow the normal distribution. Therefore, it is not reasonable to certainly rely on Pearson’s test to judge the correlation between human evaluation and embedding models. Furthermore, Davinci- the most capable GPT-3 model fails to determine a good correlation. However, this model provides a justifiable interpretation of the similarity between the two sentences as shown in the example below.

**Example 2- ChatGPT**

S1- Design and install operating system to experience its functioning.  
S2- Configure Package repositories and package management.

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*There is some similarity between the two sentences. Both S1 and S2 involve working with operating systems and installing or configuring different components or features. However, the specific tasks described in the sentences are not closely related. S1 involves designing and installing an operating system to experience its functioning, while S2 involves configuring package repositories and package management.*

Davinci: 0.8192      Human score: 0.0222

Here the explanation is true and acceptable, even though the Davinci similarity score is very high i.e. 0.8192 in comparison to human rating.

#### 4.2 Complex Sentence dataset(Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021a)

In this paper, the authors show how the embedding models do not perform well to predict the similarity values of complex sentence dataset proposed by them. We try to analyze these sentence pairs using the versions of models highlighted in Section 3.6. Notably, we found that ALBERT model executes best performance with 0.83 Pearson’s coefficient and 0.77 Spearman’s value as shown in Figure 5. Furthermore, DistilRoBERTa-v2, DistilRoBERTa-v1, and MPNeT have high Pearson’s (Spearman’s) value of 0.81(0.78), 0.81(0.78), and 0.79(0.77) respectively which outperforms the results of the models presented in (Chandrasekaran and Mago, 2021a). Table 4 shows the results of embedding models for a particular sentence pair from the dataset where ALBERT performs the best in comparison to human ratings. However, the Davinci model which is expected to predict better results is only able to provide a good explanation and not a valid score. For example, the subjective description of the similarity between a chosen sentence pair from the dataset is very well elaborated by ChatGPT, as shown below. Whereas, this model predicts a high similarity score of 0.7639 which shows the sentences have a good similarity which is not actually true as observed from the human score.

**Example 3- ChatGPT**

S1: A procedure for solving a mathematical problem in a finite number of steps that frequently involves repetition of an operation.  
S2: Various methods or formats for organizing data in a computer

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*There is not a strong similarity between the two sentences. S1 is describing an algorithm, which is a specific type of procedure used to solve a mathematical problem. S2 is describing ways of organizing data in a computer. While both sentences involve some type of procedure or method, they are not closely related in terms of content.*

Davinci: 0.7639      Human score: 0.1200

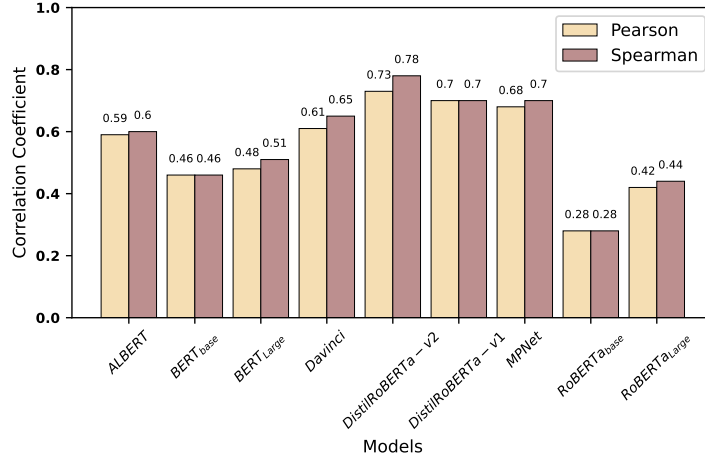


Figure 4: Pearson’s and Spearman’s correlation coefficient to analyse relationship between similarity values of human annotators and embedding models (Section 3.6) for proposed Computer Science dataset.

S1- Manage securely remote systems.									
S2- Maintain a Unix workstation and set it up as a network client.									
ALBERT	BERT <sub>base</sub>	BERT <sub>Large</sub>	Davinci	DistilRoBERTa-v1	DistilRoBERTa-v2	MPNet	RoBERTa <sub>base</sub>	RoBERTa <sub>Large</sub>	Human
0.2695	0.5247	0.5274	0.8145	0.4241	0.5708	0.4246	0.4882	0.4653	0.6667

Table 3: Similarity scores of a sentence pair from proposed Computer Science dataset, evaluated using versions of pre-trained embedding models discussed in Section 3.6. Human ratings are normalized between 0 and 1.

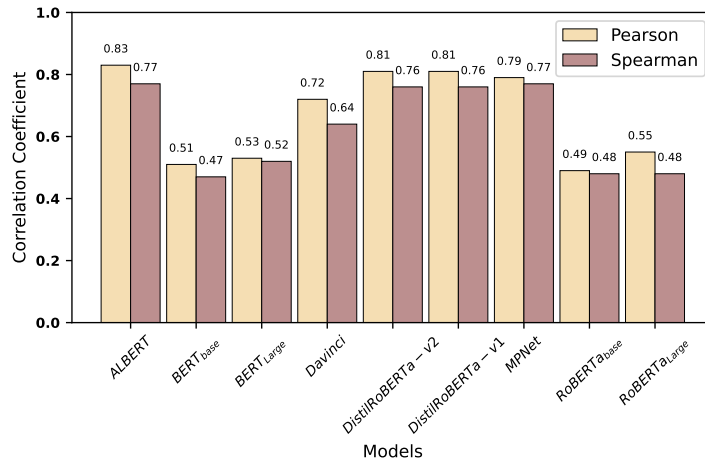


Figure 5: Pearson’s and Spearman’s correlation coefficient to analyse relationship between similarity values of human annotators and embedding models (Section 3.6) for complex sentence dataset.

S1- A procedure for solving a mathematical problem in a finite number of steps that frequently involves repetition of an operation.									
S2- Various methods or formats for organizing data in a computer.									
ALBERT	BERT <sub>base</sub>	BERT <sub>Large</sub>	Davinci	DistilRoBERTa-v1	DistilRoBERTa-v2	MPNet	RoBERTa <sub>base</sub>	RoBERTa <sub>Large</sub>	Human
0.1300	0.4967	0.5656	0.7639	0.1623	0.3924	0.2001	0.6812	0.4069	0.0667

Table 4: Similarity scores of a sentence pair from Complex sentence dataset, evaluated using versions of pre-trained embedding models discussed in Section 3.6. Human ratings are normalized between 0 and 1.

## 5 Conclusion

Transfer credit assessment usually consists of course comparisons via the evaluation of learning

outcomes, which represent an important tool for assessment but are also subject to potential inconsistencies and bias. Therefore, an automated system

to assess transfer credit based on learning outcomes across institutes can facilitate the process by providing a reliable and consistent measure of similarity. Over the years there has been a rich advancement in the era of large language models to measure semantic similarity between texts. Various pre-trained embedding models have been developed to represent text for algorithms to understand and compare semantic similarity. In this paper, we aim to propose two novel datasets of learning outcomes for courses in Human Anatomy and Computer Science operating systems and perform an analysis using embedding models to assist in transfer credit assessment. We found that versions of ALBERT, MPNeT and DistilRoBERTa outperform Davinci (a GPT-3 model) that only provides a good qualitative interpretation of the similarity between pairs of sentences. Application of these models within the context of transfer credit assessment can contribute to greater efficiency and consistency when determining learning outcome similarity.

## 6 Limitations

Due to the complexity measures (readability analysis) requiring a minimum of 100 words, some of the smaller learning outcome sets require padding. To try and minimize the effect this will have on the results, we append the word “a” until the set can be measured. Furthermore, the datasets involve learning outcomes from the same courses being offered at different years of class. Therefore, while conducting human annotation, the comparison among learning outcomes is not consistent, which leads to a low inter-rater agreement among human values for both datasets. While utilizing the pre-trained embedding models, due to fewer number of sentences in the dataset we were not able to pre-train the models. This reflects a need to further enhance the dataset.

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