

Exploring Collaboration Using Motion Sensors and Multi-Modal Learning Analytics

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we describe the analysis of multimodal data collected on small collaborative learning groups. In a previous study [1], we asked pairs (N=84) with no programming experience to program a robot to solve a series of mazes. The quality of the dyad's collaboration was evaluated, and two interventions were implemented to support collaborative learning. In the current study, we present the analysis of Kinect™ and speech data gathered on dyads during the programming task. We first show how certain movements and patterns of gestures correlate positively with collaboration and learning gains. We next use clustering algorithms to find prototypical body positions of participants and relate amount of time spent in certain postures with learning gains as in Schneider & Blikstein's work [2]. Finally, we examine measures of proxemics and physical orientation within the dyads to explore how to detect good collaboration. We discuss the relevance of these results to designing and assessing collaborative small group activities and outline future work related to other collected sensor data.

Keywords

Multi-modal learning analytics, physical synchrony, computational thinking, collaboration

1. INTRODUCTION

Collaboration is increasingly listed as a common factor in many frameworks of 21st Century Skills that highlight how classrooms and workplaces will differ from their traditional models due to deluges of digital data from information and communications technologies [3]. Likewise, computational thinking has been deemed an essential set of skills and attitudes that are now central to all science, technology, engineering, and mathematical (STEM) disciplines as well as computer science [4]. The ability to rapidly assess and evaluate collaborative computational thinking tasks can facilitate instruction that aligns with these important aspects of modern learning environments.

Multi-modal learning analytics utilizing multiple sensor technologies and machine learning techniques can offer insights

into student learning in complex, open-ended scenarios such as computer programming, robotics, and problem-based learning [5]. These methods allow researchers and educators to conduct quantitative research without necessarily losing the richness of open-ended, constructionist activities [6]. These techniques are intended to be scalable and help implement better instruction by generating formative feedback, visualizing performance, and increasing the salience of important information for instructors.

This paper focuses on measuring the quality of collaboration by analyzing participant movement and correlating a variety of measures with task performance and a coding scheme for assessing collaboration quality in dyads. We first summarize relevant literature on collaborative problem solving and the importance of gesturing in collaboration. Next, we explain the design and methods of the study where our data originated. Finally, we report our current findings and describe future work for our research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Collaborative Problem Solving

Researchers in computer-supported collaborative learning (CSCL) have long studied how small groups collaborate and co-construct knowledge [7]. The joint problem space that collaboration entails requires active social negotiation of the current problem, what can be done to solve the problem, and the goals of the task [8]. By studying how collaboration proceeds at a fine-grained level, researchers can assess the quality of this collaboration and see what measurable markers denote high quality collaboration. Examples of such dimensions include synchrony of physical actions and eye gaze [2, 9], physical reactions of participants to the actions of others [10], and gestures made during activities [11].

2.2 Gestures and Movement in Collaboration

Emerging literature from multi-modal learning analytics has explored the roles of gesture, posture, and gross motor movement in collaborative, co-located activities. For example, facial expressions and gestures related to the face predict engagement and frustration, while facial expression and body posture have been shown to predict learning [12]. Bimanual coordination has been shown to be predictive expertise, where experts use both hands in a construction task more equally than novices [13]. Researchers have also been able to predict agreement between participants with a 75% accuracy using motion sensors and audio data streams [21]. Automatically detected measures of non-verbal synchrony (computed from Kinect data) have been found to predict creativity in dyads [22]. Finally, interactive tabletops have been a fruitful area of research for studying collaborative learning

groups; motion sensors and microphones have been used to capture students' interactions and provide feedback to teachers about the status of the group [23].

Even if meanings of gestures cannot be automatically deduced from sensor data, the amounts of gesticulation can be calculated and used to augment analysis of learning [14]. While expert coders in a qualitative study can extract context-dependent meaning from a wide variety of gestures [15], quantitative work can utilize unsupervised machine learning methods to cluster student postures and movement patterns automatically to gain a coarse-grained sense of how students are transitioning between states in an activity and how those state transitions relate to learning gains and collaboration measures [2].

This paper builds upon this emerging literature to look at students' micro-behaviors during their learning process (e.g., [20]). More specifically, we explore how unsupervised machine learning algorithms can find prototypical states from dyads of students when learning to program a robot.

3. The Study

3.1 Participants

Forty-two dyads completed the study ($N = 84$) and forty groups were used in the final data set (each researcher's first session was removed to improve overall fidelity.) Participants were drawn from an existing study pool at a university in the northeastern United States. 62.2% of participants reported being students, with ages ranging from 19 to 51 years old with a mean age of 26.7 years. 60% of participants identified as female.

3.2 Design & Procedure

Employing a two-by-two between-subjects design, dyads were randomly assigned to one of four conditions: Condition #1 received neither intervention, Condition #2 received solely a visualization intervention, Condition #3 received solely an informational intervention, and Condition #4 received both interventions. The informational intervention was delivered verbally by the researcher and consisted of several research findings relevant to collaborative tasks such as equity of speech time predicting the overall quality of a collaboration. The visualization intervention utilized speech data from the motion sensor to visualize the relative proportion of speech coming from each participant over the prior 30 seconds of the activity. Each participant was represented by a color on their side of the tablet, and the screen would fill with more or less of their color to reflect

their contribution (see Figure 1, right).

After signing informed consent paperwork, participants were fitted with sensors described in 3.4. Participants were shown a tutorial video illustrating the basics of writing a simple program in Tinker, a block-based programming language. Participants then had five minutes to write code to move a simple robot across a line on the table roughly two feet in front of it. The robot consisted of a microcontroller, two DC motors with wheels, and proximity sensors mounted on the front, right, and left (see Figure 1, left).

Following the tutorial activity, dyads were shown a second tutorial video that highlighted more advanced features of Tinker such as using provided pre-written functions to turn the robot, checking the values of the proximity sensors, and using conditional statements. A hard copy of a reference sheet that summarized the contents of the video was provided following this. Dyads then had 30 minutes to write code to allow the robot to solve a series of increasingly complex mazes (see Figure 1, center). Once the participants' code successfully guided the robot through a maze twice, a new maze was provided. During the main portion of the activity, a series of predetermined hints were given to dyads at 5-minute intervals regarding common pitfalls researchers identified in pilot testing.

3.3 Dependent Measures

The dyad's collaboration and task behaviors were evaluated during the task by the researcher running that session. Quality of collaboration was assessed on nine scales based on Meier, Spada, and Rummel's work [16]: sustaining mutual understanding, dialogue management, information pooling, reaching consensus, task division, time management, technical coordination, reciprocal interaction, and individual task orientation. Task behaviors evaluated were task performance, task understanding, and improvement over time. Following the activity, researchers coded the quality of the final block-based code each dyad produced to determine how well the code could theoretically guide the robot through a maze of unknown layout.

To assess learning of computational thinking skills, participants individually completed a pre- and post-test with four questions assessing principles of computer science such as using conditional statements, looping, and predicting the output of given code (adapted from [17], [18]). Researchers coded the completeness of answers based on their demonstrations of understanding of computational thinking principles. Along with the post-test,



Figure 1. Materials used in the study: the robot that participants had to program (left), one example maze (middle) and the Kinect-based speech visualization (right).

participants completed a self-assessment of the perceived quality of their collaboration with their partner (also adapted from [16]). Participants also filled out demographic information and completed a free response reflection regarding how their thinking changed over time.

3.4 Process Data from Multi-modal Sensors

We used three types of sensors during the study: two mobile eye-trackers captured participants gaze movements at 50Hz; two Empatica wristbands captured physiological signals (e.g., electrodermal activity, heart rate, ...) at various rates; and one Kinect sensor captured body postures and facial information. Finally, we also used several cameras and microphones to get an overview of the interaction. The details of the exact sensors used and the types of data collected are available in [1]. In this paper, we focus more closely on the Kinect data.

The Kinect motion sensor collects roughly 100 variables related to a person's body joints and skeleton (24 different points with columns for x, y, z coordinates), their facial expressions, and their amount of speech (Figure 2, top). Typically collected at 30 Hz (30 times per second), this results in roughly 3,000 observations per second or 5.4 million observations per individual during a 30-minute session of our study. When done with dyads, this amount of data doubles.

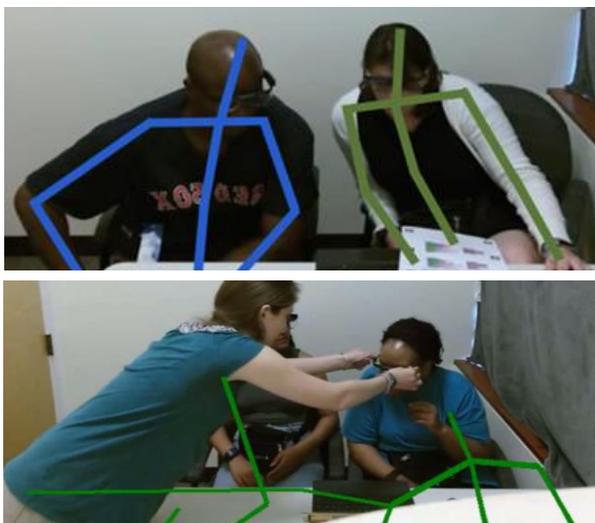


Figure 2. Visual representation of skeletons of participants (top), example of “messy” data caused by researcher entering the frame (bottom).

3.5 Data Preprocessing

Each session's Kinect data contained 8-10 comma separated value (CSV) files as a new file was created every time a participant was lost and then detected again by the motion sensor. After cleaning the data to leave only observations collected during the main portion of the activity, CSV files were assigned to either the left or right participant based on their average spine locations. Experimental design prohibited participants from switching sides during the activity.

Additional cleaning was required in instances where researchers briefly entered the frame of the Kinect while the session was underway. This often led to participant wireframes merging or otherwise becoming distorted (Figure 2, bottom). All instances where participant skeletons could not be clearly resolved were removed from our analysis.

After assignment of participant side and cleaning, movement variables were calculated for each of the skeleton points by calculating the difference between the coordinates of a point at one observation and the coordinates of the same point at the next observation. If the skeletal point was occluded from the Kinect sensor (i.e., a hand below the surface of the table) positions of that point were automatically inferred by the sensor but no movement variables were calculated. Joint angles were also calculated for each major joint.

CSV files were combined in two different ways: all were concatenated to give an *individual* level file while left and right participant files were outer joined to create a *dyad* level file. The Kinect data computations for this paper were run in Python 2.7 and analyses of pre-post survey data was done in R 3.4.3 and RStudio 1.1.423.

4. RESULTS

This section summarizes our analyses and results: first, we describe some trends in the dependent measures (4.1). Second, we look at the amount of movement generated by each participant / dyads, and how they correlate with the dependent measures (4.2). Third, we use clustering methods to find prototypical body postures to identify “(un)productive” states (4.3). Finally, we analyze dyadic interactions from the Kinect data (4.4).

4.1 Task Performance and Collaboration

We first briefly describe the main results of the study (also to be reported in [1]). The researcher-coded quality of collaboration differed significantly between the conditions that received the informational intervention (3&4) and those that did not (1&2). Dyads assigned to “explanation” scored 7.1 percentage points higher than those in “no interventions” ($p < 0.001$). Dyads in “both interventions” scored 4.8 percentage points higher than those in “visualization” ($p = 0.03$).

Participant individual self-assessments of the quality of their collaboration differed significantly from researcher assessment at the dyad level ($F = 15.21, p < 0.001$) but both are significantly positively correlated ($r = 0.43, p = 0.001$). Self-reported scores were higher for measures of task division, time management, and reciprocal interaction while being lower for reaching consensus, dialog management, and sustaining mutual understanding.

Participants across all conditions gained an average of 19.8 percentage points on the survey of computational thinking principles ($t = 6.18, p < 0.001$). Learning gains did not differ significantly by condition, gender, the gender makeup of the group, or level of previous education. Pre-test scores did not differ significantly by condition. The quality of the final block-based code dyads produced was significantly correlated with the number of mazes completed ($r = 0.45, p < 0.001$), task understanding ($r = 0.45, p < 0.001$), and improvement over time ($r = 0.54, p < 0.001$). Significant correlations from these surveys and assessments are summarized in Figure 3.



Figure 3. Correlogram of performance metrics and ratings of collaboration. All correlations shown are significant.

4.2 Movement Variables

At the individual level, neither the total movement of any specific joint nor the average movement of those points correlated significantly with any of our collaboration or task performance metrics. Amount of time talking was significantly correlated with total quality of collaboration at the individual level ($r = 0.30$, $p = 0.01$) and will be investigated in-depth.

Most of our measures are at the dyad level, so movement variables were aggregated by session rather than participant. Improvement over time was significantly correlated with increased movement of the right elbow ($r = 0.47$, $p = 0.006$), right shoulder ($r = 0.38$, $p = 0.029$), mid-spine ($r = 0.41$, $p = 0.018$), and neck ($r = 0.38$, $p = 0.028$). Task performance was significantly correlated with right elbow ($r = 0.35$, $p = 0.037$), right shoulder ($r = 0.35$, $p = 0.035$), right hand ($r = 0.36$, $p = 0.027$), and mid-spine movement ($r = 0.40$, $p = 0.017$). Code quality was significantly correlated with increased movement of the right elbow ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.025$), right shoulder ($r = 0.32$, $p = 0.032$), mid-spine ($r = 0.31$, $p = 0.017$), and neck ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.024$). Overall collaboration more strongly correlated with higher average talk time at the dyad level than the individual level ($r = 0.48$, $p = 0.0008$).

Clustering was done on the movement variables to identify patterns of movement that may be relevant to our measures of collaboration and task performance. Due to the unpredictable

nature of missing data due to occluded limbs and joints, the 18 movement variables per observation often had one or two missing values. Rather than throw out the entire row, we utilized the K-POD algorithm [19], a variant of k-means clustering that can handle and impute missing data. We generated 2 through 9 clusters and visually inspected the separation of the different centroids. We elected to keep three clusters due to good separation and ease of interpretability.

Groups that spent a higher proportion of their time in the high movement cluster had significantly higher task performance ($r = 0.31$, $p = 0.049$) and improvement over time ($r = 0.44$, $p = 0.009$). Our overall rating of collaboration did not significantly correlate with time spent in this cluster ($p = 0.052$) but ratings of reaching consensus and dialogue management did differ significantly ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.04$; $r = 0.40$, $p = 0.02$). Individuals overall spent roughly 13% of their time in high movement states with the remainder of their time evenly split between medium and low movement states.

4.3 Angle Variables

In this section, we replicate Schneider & Blikstein (2015)'s approach for identifying prototypical body postures using joint angle. Joint angles were calculated for 11 upper body joints for all observations. Due to having much less missing data for joint angles versus movement variables, k-means clustering was used to generate visualizations of prototypical postures participants held during the course of the activity. As with our prior clustering, 2 through 9 clusters were fit with our model and we chose three clusters due to the interpretability of the resulting visualizations.

As seen in Figure 4, the three postures are distinct in hand placement, symmetry, and arm position. The first posture (left) can be thought of as “planning” where both hands are close together and the participant is leaning forward. This is generally the default posture for someone looking at a computer screen. Dyads spent a large amount of their time looking over their code and the various options available to them.

The second posture (Figure 4, center) we refer to as a “tinkering” state where the robot is being directly manipulated. In this state, participants are generally standing or leaning up out of their chairs to test different scenarios the robot might encounter and what sensor values those scenarios generate. Participants also had to manually reset their robot to the starting position after each attempt to solve a maze.

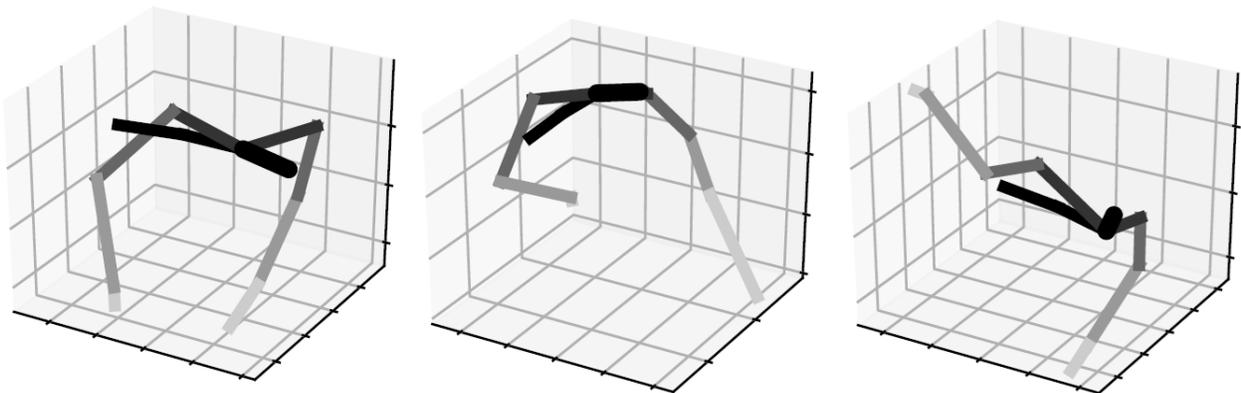


Figure 4. Three prototypical postures participants assumed during the study.

The final state (Figure 4, right) comes from a design decision made in the study. The small robot was tethered to the participant laptop via a USB cord for power and to upload new code, so each time the robot was in motion one participant had to hold the USB cord high enough to avoid it getting tangled in the maze. The prototypical posture shows this clearly. We refer to this posture as “iterating” as it is only observed when running code in an attempt to solve the maze. Examples of the “planning” and “iterating” postures can be seen in Figure 5.



Figure 5. Examples of “iterating” posture (holding wire) and “planning” (seated participant).

As with the movement variables, proportion of time spent in each posture was aggregated for each participant. Increased proportions of time spent in the “iterating” posture significantly correlated with task performance ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.002$), code quality ($r = 0.24$, $p = 0.005$), task understanding ($r = 0.24$, $p = 0.02$) and improvement over time ($r = 0.20$, $p = 0.02$). Proportion of time spent in the “tinkering” posture, however, negatively correlated with the same four metrics: task performance ($r = -0.31$, $p = 0.0004$), code quality ($r = -0.23$, $p = 0.008$), task understanding ($r = -0.27$, $p = 0.003$) and improvement over time ($r = -0.27$, $p = 0.003$).

To analyze the probabilities of state transitions taking place between these prototypical postures, a Markov model was constructed to visualize the probabilities of different state transitions occurring (Figure 6). The size of the circles represents the relative amount of time spent in each state and the labels of the arrows indicate the probability of different transitions occurring. The most likely transitions for the average participant (Figure 6, center) all involve the “iterating” state, either staying in it or moving from the other states to it. The least likely transitions involve moving from “iterating” or “tinkering” back to the “planning” state.

Markov models for individuals in the highest performing and lowest performing quartiles (according to their task performance) were generated to explore how state transitions may vary by outcome. High performing individuals (Figure 6, top) were 13% more likely to transition back from “iterating” to “planning” and 38% more likely to transition from “tinkering” to “planning” versus their low performing peers (Figure 6, bottom). High performing individuals spent 12% less time in the “tinkering” state versus low performers, using this time to run more iterations of their code versus adjusting the robot itself.

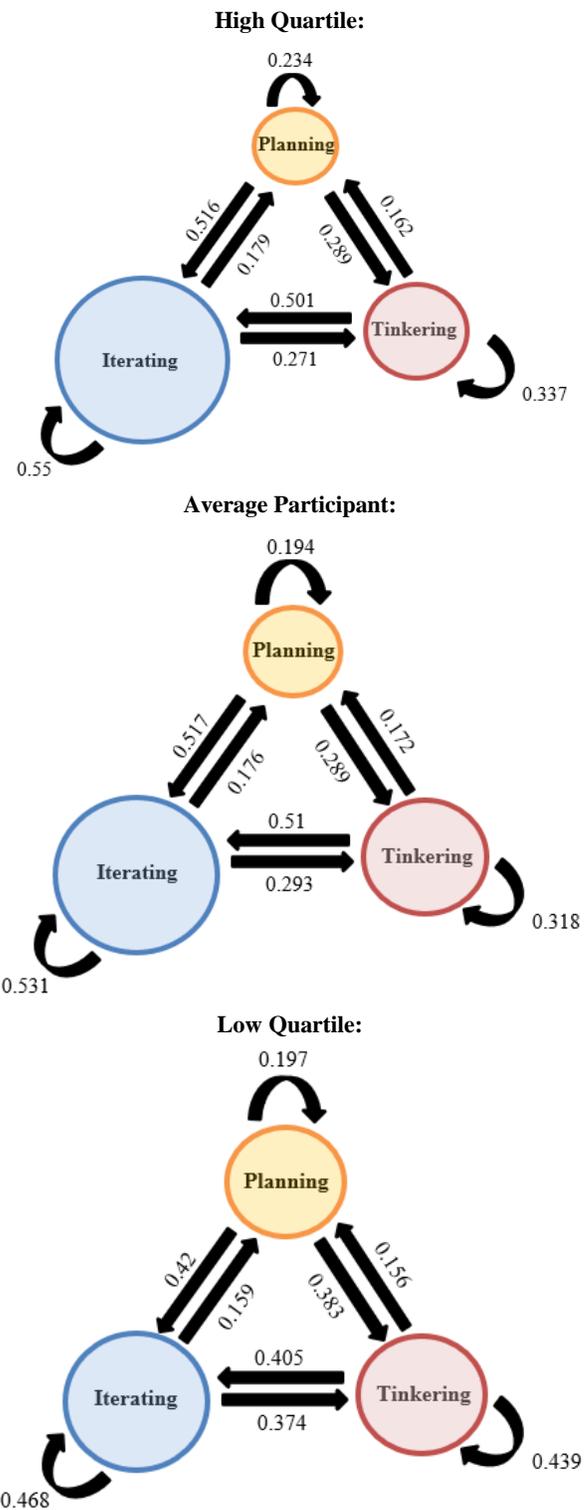


Figure 6. Markov state transition models.

4.4 Dyad Interactions

A proximity measure was calculated based on spine positions to determine how closely participants were seated next to each other, a leaning measure determined if participants were leaning towards each other or away from each other, a facing measure based on participant shoulders determined how much participant bodies

were facing each other, and bimanual coordination was calculated for each participant to see how evenly they used both of their hands during the activity. While bimanual coordination is calculated at the individual level, the dyad analysis explores whether synchrony in bimanual coordination correlates with our outcome measures.

Performance on the task correlates positively with dyads leaning towards each other ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.030$). Increased bimanual coordination of the right participant correlates with task understanding ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.018$) but synchrony of coordination does not seem significant. Due to the setup of the room where the study was conducted, the mouse of the participant laptop was placed on the right side and may have led the right participant to use the laptop more. This may have had an uneven influence on the impact of their bimanual coordination.

Alignment and proximity are strongly correlated ($r = 0.83$, $p < 0.001$) in our dyads but neither measure significantly correlates with our task performance measures. While proximity was not correlated with our overall measure of collaboration, participants being closer together is significantly correlated with information pooling ($r = 0.35$, $p = 0.026$).

5. DISCUSSION

This paper provides some preliminary and promising results describing the relationship between students' body postures / movements and their quality of collaboration, task performance and learning gains. We found predictors for those dependent measures in a naturalistic, open-ended task that routinely takes place in makerspaces and engineering courses. While there are limitations to this work, our contribution paves the way to rich multimodal analyses of students' collaboration. It also unlocks new opportunities to design innovative interventions to support social interactions in small groups (e.g., by providing visual representations of students' behavior to support self-reflection) and classroom orchestration (e.g., by providing teachers with real-time dashboards of the class).

The significant correlations found between average movement of points along the upper right side of participants' bodies with outcome measures indicates the importance of gesturing and physical movement when communicating ideas. Qualitative coding of exemplar videos may detect specific gestures or movements used more frequently by high performing groups, but these movement variables offer a quick way to potentially predict how well participants will do in an activity. While we do not make any causal claims regarding increasing movement to increase performance, future interventions could target visualizing gesture and movement data for dyads as they work instead of verbal contribution.

The clusters generated by our joint angle data reveal interesting patterns in participant behavior. While time spent iterating has been shown here to correlate with better performance, dyads may benefit from more cycling through the three states to mimic ideal cycles of cognition [20]. While iterating and testing their code is certainly important, participants must be able to process what went wrong and try to fix it before attempting to test their code again. In several sessions, participants kept running their code over and over in hopes that the robot would perform better the next time. Even though they had the code in front of them to manipulate, some novices may have lacked the computational thinking knowledge to transfer errors they saw the robot making to errors in their code.

6. LIMITATIONS

We do not have data on the handedness of our participants, but an open question is whether the mouse placement on the right side of the shared laptop inadvertently lead the right participant to assume a leadership role with the laptop. The uneven importance of bimanual coordination for the right participant is an indication the physical setup of the room may have impacted the study in unintended ways. Analyzing the recordings of sessions and identifying leader behavior or who is assuming driver / passenger roles is an additional avenue for future work.

Some of our posture results are fairly idiosyncratic to our study due to the USB cord attached to the robot, making generalization of findings difficult.

As described in Section 3.5, the Kinect sensor generated a wide variety of malformed skeletons that led to a lengthy and imprecise period of manual cleaning prior to analysis. Experimental design must be conscious of the limitations of the sensors and ensure that as little noise as possible be added to the data.

7. FUTURE WORK

We plan to further identify productive micro-behaviors from the Kinect data to gain additional insights in the ways that dyads synchronized their actions. Future work with regards to prototypical postures would also explore both participants in a dyad at once, clustering on both joint angles simultaneously. This may reveal combinations of postures that are informative and could extend our exploration of physical synchrony within dyads. The differences between dyads in different conditions will also be a main focus of analysis moving forward.

It should be noted that this paper only describes one aspect of a positive collaboration. In future work, we plan to extend this line of work to attentional alignment (also referred to as joint visual attention [24]) using the eye-tracking data, verbal coherence [25] using transcripts, physiological synchronization [26] using the Empatica data, and ultimately combine those modalities together. This will provide us with a richer and more comprehensive view of students' collaboration and potentially feed machine learning algorithms to make predictions about the status of a group using multimodal streams of data.

Future work will also revisit our coding of collaboration to improve inter-rater reliability (currently Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.65$, 75% agreement). For our movement clustering, several correlations with collaboration measures were close to being significant but may have been hindered due to less-than-ideal reliability of our initial coding. Additionally, patterns of missing data in movement variables will be explored more thoroughly and other clustering algorithms will be tested.

To further explore the importance of cycles of iteration, the number of times participants ran the code on their robot might be detected from screencast recordings of the participant laptop. We do not have log files from Tinker to analyze, but computer vision algorithms should be able to detect how often the "run" button was pressed during a session. With the Kinect sensor no longer being produced, future work may rely solely on video recording with joints and coordinates determined by computer vision software rather than sensors. This would aid the scalability of these techniques by reducing the cost of implementation in classrooms and other learning environments.

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