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Exploration of the

Natural Design Strategies

of Novice Engineers

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Abstract

This project explores how 7th and 8th grade students approach design problems, with the goal of characterizing the design problems in terms of the student behaviors they elicit. In this project student problem solving techniques in relation to different forms of problems and construct a tool to characterize those forms are explored.

Students participated in five 90-minute activity sessions. Each session presented one activity that was intended to exercise different engineering and design principles. Collectively the activities include the principles of iteration, constraint satisfaction, trade-offs, algorithm development, and problem framing.

Students were video and audio recorded. Students were encouraged to talk through their process and were regularly prompted by investigators to verbalize their thoughts explicitly. The data were coded for important behaviors and analyzed for patterns. The analysis investigated patterns across all students within each activity and the idiosyncrasies per individual student across all activities.

# It was concluded that iteration and testing schedule was critical to the success of the students. Each activity called for a different rate of testing and improvement. The students who came closest to that rate during each session were most successful both in generating a solution to the problem and in constructing a process for generation of related solutions.Chapter

**Acknowledgements**

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# I will acknowledge everyone in long form here very soon. Contents

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**Preface**

This research is an exploration in engineering education. My story leading to this research starts three years ago with a reading group on engineering and design where, as an undergraduate, I started learning about the current research in the field. Many of the foundational works of this study were first introduced to me in that reading group. I then spent two years working hands-on with middle school students and design activities. The after-school program I was a mentor for provided groups of 6th, 7th, and 8th graders with experience in constructing and programming robots and robotic devices. This program covered many different concepts, from basic electricity to functional software design. Recently I have been a part of a grant proposal that exposed me to many different models of the design process, and showed me that there is significant and seemingly incompatible variation between many of them. From here my first concept for this research was conceived: to build a model of the design process as observed in middle-school students. This would be useful in the field of engineering education not just as another model, but as a tool to understanding this specific age of students.

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# Chapter 1

**Introduction**

Engineering education lacks many of the well-developed and thoroughly-tested tools seen in more traditional educational subjects. In most areas of education there are volumes of methods for teaching and assessments measuring effectiveness of interventions. These mechanisms of instruction and assessment are generally well-tested in laboratory and field settings. Design and engineering lack such a body of work (Wilson and Guzdial, 2010). Schools across the United States are adopting engineering curricula at nearly all levels of education, yet there is no research-supported mechanism for understanding their effectiveness.

This study was conducted in the Department of Computer Science in association with the Graduate School of Education. A technical background was necessary for this research. The activities presented were technical in nature. Design and analysis of these activities required deep domain knowledge in their respective engineering areas. The researchers possessed experience in these design fields, as well as knowledge in the field of education.

## 1 Research Focus

This study looks solely at middle school students. In the state of Massachusetts, middle school is most often defined as seventh and eighth grade, with the occasional variant of including sixth grade as well. The subjects in this research were in seventh and eighth grade, with an approximate mean age of 12. The students were introduced to engineering activities spanning multiple disciplines: electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, math problem solving, and computer science. The students were tasked to fully solve the given problems and data were collected on the entire process. The focus of the data was testing, improvement, and iteration of the designs.

## 2 Problem Statement

This study is an exploration, and as such is interested multiple, closely related dimensions. The four questions of interest are:

• Do students exhibit patterns in testing and iteration? What are those patterns?

• What characteristics of a design activity elicit specific iteration patterns?

• What is the correlation between iteration in designing and success of the design?

• What guidelines can be written for the creation of future activities?

## 3 Approach

This research used a laboratory study of a small sample population of middle school students. The students participated in five activities, one per week. Each activity represents a different discipline of engineering. Problem difficultly trended an increase over the five weeks. The students were instructed and coached in thinking aloud, and their performance was video and audio recorded. From this data information about testing and iteration was extracted, creating a model of how these students chose to test and improve their designs. Specifically, the time intervals between tests was the primary variable being investigated.

## 4 Hypothesis and Contributions

The questions of interest will be hypothesized individually:

#### 4.0.1 Do students exhibit patterns in testing and iteration?

It is expected that individual students will demonstrate personal trends across all activities. It is also expected that each activity will have general trends that cross all students within the specific activity.

#### 4.0.2 What characteristics of a design activity elicit specific iteration patterns?

The design activities were designed to differ in complexity, speed of construction, and level of abstractness. These types of properties are expected to have a specific effect on iteration patterns in students.

#### 4.0.3 What is the correlation between iteration in designing and success of the design?

Multiple sources in the literature depict iteration as critical to design success. Dow et al. (2009), for example, showed that in college students forced iteration makes an inexperienced designer just as good as non-iterating designer who has domain experience. It was expected that rate and count of iteration would strongly correlate with success. Each activity will have individual success metrics, so this hypothesis was tested within each activity separately.

#### 4.0.4 What guidelines can be written for the creation of future activities?

Each activity was expected to have a certain unique pattern of testing and iteration emerge. By comparing these patterns it would then be possible to generate recommendations on properties of the activities themselves. These guidelines could be generalized for use by educators.

# Chapter 2

**Background**

Education has evolved with culture and technology. Classical wisdom calls only for “reading, writing, and ’rithmetic" in schools, which today is considered foundational but insufficient for life. Education has been expanded to include history, science, advanced mathematics, art, and technology. The current focus on scientific and mathematical subjects resulted in STEM education, which encompasses Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math. Engineering and technology now sit with equal prominence as science and math.

With more emphasis being put on technology in education, the development of computational thinking (Wing, 2006) becomes important. Computational thinking is the collection of concepts, skills, and abstractions people need to best leverage computers and technology as an aid in human knowledge development. Thinking computationally is difficult, but with it humans are able to solve new problems with the help of computation theory. This study aims grossly at the target of developing computation thinking in middle school students, and investigates a few of the skills necessary to get there.

## 1 Brief History of Engineering Education

STEM education, of which engineering is a component, is in need of “evidence-based" tools to measure their effectiveness. (Wilson and Guzdial, 2010). With that, much of the literature used is from closely related academic fields, specifically science and math education. Despite the larger depth of work in those fields, they all succumb to a problem inherent in education research: there is a disconnect between locally generated and generalizable knowledge. Techniques generated in classrooms that are locally usable and effective often do not translate well to other classroom settings. While that knowledge may work in one circumstance, it is little beyond anecdotal to the greater community. Conversely, lab-generated scientific data on education is too abstract to be directly usable for real teachers (Sandoval and Bell, 2004).

Brown (1992) conducted much of her work around the development of a learning community in lieu of the traditional didactic classroom experience. In a traditional environment, students are “passive recipients” of information dispatched by teachers and media. The relationship is largely unidirectional, where the only return of information from the students is from assessments that are based on drill, practice, and memorization. In this environment the students needs only to develop skills at storing rote facts and reproducing them on demand. Such an environment is prime for may pedagogical pitfalls, such as the development of a disconnect between knowledge and belief, where students may understand a concept as it was presented but do not believe it to be true (Chinn and Samarapungavan, 2001).

In Brown’s community of learners, students begin to act as researchers and co-teachers of the material. The teachers, rather than function as managers assigning repetitive tasks, become facilitators who present the tools and encourage the curiosity necessary for engaging learning experiences. The teacher also serves as a good role model for learners, who show interest and discovery themselves. A classroom in this mode is no longer a work camp producing documents, but a research lab motivated by coherence and deep understanding. Assessments ideally are wrapped in immersive applications of knowledge such as projects and portfolios which can be subjectively as well objectively analyzed. One of the fundamental skills outlined by Brown is the ability to self-monitor. Atman et al. (1999) supports this, claiming self-monitoring to be a critical component of successful students. When a student engages in self-monitoring, the student can identify when he or she is both succeeding and stuck, and takes appropriate actions to reach their learning goal. This skill considered part of meta-cognition, which is a set of advanced but teachable level of thinking (Beyer, 1988).

Strategies that are today considered meta-cognitive appear early and often in education literature. Bloom and Broder (1950) describe observed differences between successful and non-successful students as they approach problem solving. Successful students were better at, among other things, understanding problem requirements and maintaining contact with those requirements as they worked towards a solution. This is a fundamental element of self-monitoring.

Meta-cognition is, especially in children, hard to train. Children empirically do not employ many meta-cognition techniques, if any at all. Most adults do, using strategies to overcome natural limitations of memory retention and recollection (Brown, 1992). The process of design has an intrinsic emphasis on meta-cognitive processes, as it has been shown to help students effectively learn about complex systems (Hmelo et al., 2000). The effectiveness of a design process is greatly enhanced by the inclusion of a feedback system, where the designer is re-analyzing both the problem and what he or she has done thus far to approach it. This concept is seen throughout the literature, often citing the “reflective practitioner" of Schön (1983).

The stages of cognitive development defined by Piaget and Inhelder (1969) help explain the slow development of metacognitive abilities. Children in middle school are only just entering the formal operations phase where they can perform reasoning on abstract representations. The metacognition skills required in engineering require abstract evaluation. Development of these skills is not possible until the child is cognitively ready, which does not generally happen until nearly 15 to 18 years into life.

Building on Schön (1983), Adams et al. (2003) described iteration as the core tenet of design, triggered by certain cognitive activities: self-monitoring, clarification, and examination. Problem-setting in addition to problem-solving is emphasized. Reasoning is done through experimentation. A variety of representations are generated, and fluidly moved between to best serve the thought of the moment. The reflective practitioner is not just a developer making a solution, he or she is an experimental scientist trying to understand the situation he/she created in solution development. These ideas, executed in tightly iterating loops, are the image of an ideal design strategy as described by Schön.

Many researchers and educators have attempted to model the design process. Most of these models have strong thematic similarities, usually including the following states: learning about the problem, identifying resources and constraints, generating ideas, implementation, testing, and revising. Despite the general similarities, different models can communicate completely different methods for design. For one example, Welch (1999) claims that the states of the design process are essentially unordered, allowing the designer to move laterally to any state at any time. On the other hand, Kimbell and Stables (2007) found numerous models that are linear or have a tightly-prescribed progression through steps. The multitude of contrasting views of the design process is currently a source of conflict in the education community (Scribner-MacLean, 2009), and is an important topic of consideration in this research.

The Boston Museum of Science (2008) created a model designed for use by teachers who may not themselves be trained designers. It is intended to be used as part of a curriculum about design for young students, and may not be based on professional methodology. In this model five states form a ring, where travel is only implied to be possible between adjacent states. The states are Imagine, Plan, Create, Test, and Improve. The literature accompanying this model expresses that the student does not need to be bound by this ring, and may move from any state to any other state at any time. However, the graphic does not represent this and strongly implies the notion of neighbor-only traversal.

Adams et al. (2003) presents a model derived from observations of senior collegiate engineering students. This modelis scientifically accurate to an actual process that took place in research subjects. It is both more complex and less beautiful than the Museum of Science model, and is clearly intended for a different audience. Many would argue that the model presented by Adams is more useful, as it represents a functional process, but that depends on the individual’s definition of usefulness. To an elementary school teacher, the Museum of Science model, while clearly incomplete, may be the correct tool for the job at hand.

Most of these models have a heavy emphasis on iteration. Dow et al. (2009) found that iteration was critical to success of a time-constrained design problem. Participants with no prior experience who iterated through their design process performed as well as the participants who had prior experience but did not iterate. The process of repeating design tasks helped the participant explore the problem space and become familiar with the relevant physics. Eckert et al. (2009) found that iteration also takes on additional influence in corporate engineering, where a new design can depend on the proven framework of previous designs.

## 2 Design Activity Studies

Welch (1999) performed an experiment on design activities carried out by seventh grade students. In this study students worked in dyads to build the tallest paper tower out of a finite set of resources within a specific time period. Welch enumerated a design process as five steps that represented a general consensus of concepts available in literature. The steps are:

1. Understand the problem

2. Generate possible solutions

3. Model a possible solution

4. Build a solution

5. Evaluate the solution

Welch claimed that the actual process undergone by both professionals and amateurs of design would not be linear, and that it would recurse on itself many times. The activity was intended to be representative of a real-world engineering task, characterized by having a goal, constraints, and some criteria to recognize a successful solution. The students worked in pairs, which is also an element of simulating real-world design, where most development is the result of combined efforts of two or more people working cooperatively.

Design of activities for this research was informed by the model-eliciting activities of Lesh and Harel (2003). Lesh’s work was based in mathematics education, and uses fractions and proportions as the subject to be explored by the subjects. A model-eliciting activity (MEA) is  designed such that the students’ product is not a single answer, but a rule or process that can be applied to solve similar problems. Three MEAs are presented in the paper. The simplest example is the “bigfoot” activity, where students are told they are forensic examiners and need to identify the height of a person based on a shoe print. The expected response is for students, working in small groups, to observe themselves, and somehow create a proportion between human shoe size and height. The students are not requested to determine the height of the one example person, but to provide the police with a mechanism with which they can identify the height of any person based on shoe size.

The results of the MEA research, besides the concept of the MEA itself, is that problem solving can be viewed as a process of local concept development. Many researchers in the past have studied the process of learning concepts, specifically in math and science. Lesh concluded that the same process and principles involved in normal concept learning occur in a fast, recursive fashion during problem solving. The concepts being developed during problem solving are not general, they are specific to the current problem and the situation surrounding it, but the same development process has been observed. This observation allows the connection to be drawn between local problem solving and general, long-term cognitive development.

## 3 This Study

Many studies have examined the design process, providing a variety of insightful models and theories. Some of these studies, such as Schön (1983) and Eckert et al. (2009), model how adult, professional engineers perform design tasks. Others focus on children, like Welch (1999) and Lesh and Harel (2003). These child studies provide a look at how students generally go about design tasks, but they do not examine the elements of what makes up a design process. Models such as that presented by The Boston Museum of Science (2008) provide states of thought that students and professionals alike seem to pass through, but do not investigate the component actions that make that process what it is. One of the most fundamental of these components is the process of iteration, about which study has just begun. Dow et al. (2009) analyzed the increase in efficacy provided by the presence of an iterative process in college students. This study shows that iteration is verifiably critical part of efficient design. From this platform questions arise about the natural desire and patterns students express towards design iteration. No detailed study on iteration has focused on observation of natural tendencies, nor investigated the middle school age group. The studies that do use that age group do not provide elemental understanding of what drives the student to go through the process models that are presented. No studies presented utilized a variety design problem types. This study fits in this space, having examined middle school students direct interaction with a variety of problems.

# Chapter 3

**Methodology**

Students participated in five 90-minute activity sessions, once per week, for five consecutive weeks. Each session presented one activity that was intended to exercise different engineering and design principles. Students were observed and video recorded as they carried out the activities.

## 1 Subject Selection

This study used seven middle-school students as subjects. Students were in grades seven and eight, with average age of approximately 12 years old. The students reported that the grades they received in school were average or better, with the centroid of the distribution being ‘B’ marks. The selection process was done by an after school enrichment program, where this study was advertised as an activity students could elect to participate in. This enrichment program services students from areas that are academically under-performing. The students must have been nominated by a teacher or administrator for having some tacit talent for learning, even if the students’ grades do not reflect that talent, in order to participate with the program. Five of the six students identified themselves as a minority race. This study was open to all students of the specified grade levels. Selection was simply the first students to volunteer to participate.

All students read, understood, and signed a student assent form and their guardians read, understood, and signed a parental consent form. Parental consent forms were available in English and Spanish. The student assent form was available only in English, as that is the language the research activities were conducted in. Guardians had the option to sign a media release form, which allowed recorded media of their child to be used in publication.

## 2 Session Protocol

In each session, students engaged in an engineering and design activity. Their conversations, problem-solving strategies, and concluding interviews were observed in person by researchers and video recorded for later analysis.

Each of the five sessions followed the same pattern. Students arrived and were taken to a conference room for snack time, where they were casually introduced to the concepts involved in that day’s activity. Loud thinking protocol in the style of TAPPS (Lochhead and Whimbey, 1987) was explained and reinforced every week at this time. After about twenty minutes in the conference room, the students moved to the activity room where the apparatus for that day’s study was set up. Working in pairs, students worked through the prescribed activity. The entire time in the activity room was audio and video recorded. Throughout the activity students were prompted by researchers to explain their thoughts, ideas, and understanding of concepts.

At the conclusion of the activity, students were led in a group conversation about what they learned and developed. The questions asked by researchers during this conversation were variations of this set:

• What did you do to find your solution?

• Did you do anything early on that you did again to help yourself?

• If you had a friend who was coming in to work on this problem tomorrow, what would you recommend they do? (Keep in mind the problem won’t have the exact same solution.)

• Are there any other tricks you discovered?

## 3 Design of Activities

The activities performed by the students were designed in advance to cover a large sample of design problems. Each activity stressed different areas of engineering space, starting with a simple activity and progressing towards complex algorithm design. In culmination, the activities are intended to support computational thinking, as discussed in Chapter . The activities were performed a week apart from each other which allowed for tweaks to be made to the session plans based on preceding sessions. Every activity represented a real engineering or design problem, had observable iteration behavior, defined metrics of success, and were process-oriented, as discussed in Section . Subject areas of activities include:

• Parallel and series circuits

• Gear ratios and reduction

• Algorithm design

• String-matching

• Active control systems

In addition to subject areas, the activities stress different elements of design skills:

• Balancing between contradicting requirements

• Working in time constraints

• Physical construction

• Symbolic manipulation of a system

The five activities will now be presented. They are listed in Table .

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Each activity had two levels of success. The first level is the completion of a successful design that solves the problem. The second level is synthesizing a general process for arriving at a solution. Both levels are defined as success criteria for each activity in the following sections.

### 3.1 Week 1: Rush Hour

“Rush Hour" is a sliding tile game where the player must manipulate cars on a small grid. The game has a small set of simple rules, but a high number of possible states for any given puzzle. The object of the game is to slide the cars so that the target car, indicated in Figure by the arrow, can escape through the opening at the right side of the game board.

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Figure 1: Rush Hour game board. The arrow indicates the target car.

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#### 3.1.1 Purpose

This activity was an ideal introductory experience for the students. It had very few rules to learn and was fun to play. Students were quickly engaged. As a design activity, this provided observations of the students’ methods in navigating the deep state space of the game. With every move of a game piece the possible states accessible on the next move change. Many times the path the player is on does not have a solution anywhere on it, and the player must backtrack to reach an earlier state where a different decision could yield a solution, or, start over and try again. This backtracking was a primary component of the analysis of this activity.

Welch cites Ericsson and Simon (1984) with the importance of a warm up process, stating that when verbal information exchange is involved a period of warm-up is necessary for the subject and researcher to communicate most effectively. This activity, with such simple rules, provided an opportunity for students to focus on the loud thinking strategy, warming up that skill for the remaining sessions.

#### 3.1.2 Protocol

The students were each given a game unit with a beginner level puzzle to solve. The students were encouraged to “think out loud” during the entire process, and to think about the process they were employing to arrive at solutions.

Once the students felt that they understand the concept of the game, they were put into pairs and given a more difficult puzzle. The students’ process of solving this puzzle was video and audio recorded. The camera was positioned above the table to record the game board, the students’ hands, and the students’ voices. Additional puzzles of increasing difficulty were used as time allowed.

At the conclusion of the puzzle solving session, the student pairs were asked to explain the process of solving the puzzle. The students were instructed to explain their process of finding a solution, not the steps to carry out a specific solution. They were then instructed to explain the game strategy for a friend who has not seen the game before.

A semi-structured interview was used to probe students’ understanding. The interview was based on these questions:

• Please explain what you did to find the solution to these puzzles.

• Did you do anything in the first puzzle that you did again in the second to help yourself out?

• I want you to explain how to go about solving these kinds of puzzles. Pretend you’re explaining it to a friend who has never done this before.

• Are there any tricks you discovered?

#### 3.1.3 Rationale

This game is characterized by its large state space, rapid iteration of ideas, and high level of backtracking. This type of problem is common, and can be generalized to include other games (such as chess) as well as real engineering problems. For example, circuit board routing is a design activity that has a large number of states where decisions progressively lead to new areas of the state map, fitting this general problem type.

### 3.2 Week 2: Light Optimization

Students were presented with eight small light bulbs and a power supply. Their design task was to connect the lights with alligator clip wires in a way that minimized cost without sacrificing brightness. Wires and volts had costs associated with them. This problem explored basic electrical principles and required students to balance between contradicting requirements. The students were given a scenario that they work for a power company, and each light bulb represents a house that they service. They needed to find a method to light all of the homes at the lowest cost to the company. A student’s solution is shown in Figure .

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Figure 2: Example of solution to the Light Optimization activity. The lights are strung together in series by alligator clips.

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#### 3.2.1 Purpose

This activity generated observations of students exploring natural phenomena and balancing requirements for an optimal solution. The definition of optimal was left partially open. A formula generated a cost per house score, but students were allowed to construct arguments for the optimality of their solution. This was intended to further promote loud thinking and give insight to the student’s thought processes.

#### 3.2.2 Protocol

During snack time, a researcher led a conversation about what “optimization” means, soliciting suggestions from the students. Once in the classroom, the students were presented with a workstation for each dyad. Each workstation had a variable DC power supply, a number of small, low-power light bulbs (holiday mini-bulbs), and connecting wires with alligator clips. Two workstations were initially set up with example circuits. One example was four lights connected in series, such that the same current flowed through all the lights, with the power supply operating at 12 volts. The other station had the same number of lights connected in a parallel configuration, such that every light had full voltage from the power supply, which operated at 3 volts. The two systems were approximately the same brightness. The terms “series” and “parallel” were never used with the students.

The students were presented with a set of criteria for assessing their solutions. The goal was stated to achieve “reasonable brightness.” Costs were associated for number of wires used and amount of voltage required. The final cost of a solution was

where *c* is the number of connection wires, *v* is the voltage being supplied, and *n* is the number of light bulbs being serviced. The multipliers  and  are the respective costs of wires and voltage. The students were provided with this formula at the beginning of the session.

The students, working in pairs, solved two iterations of this activity. The two iterations had different material costs. The change in cost values was designed to obsolete the first iteration’s optimal solution, forcing reconsideration of the problem.

At the conclusion of the second problem iteration, the students, in pairs, were asked to document their solutions and explain how they arrived at them. They were instructed to explain their process as if for a friend who was not present. Interview questions examined the students grasp of the electrical principles, what they considered to be “optimal,” and how they went about discovering what they needed to know in order to solve the problem.

#### 3.2.3 Rationale

The electrical concepts in this activity are fundamental to an understanding of electricity and electronics, and create the physical basis of computing technology. The problem is also multi-dimensional, with number of connections, voltage, and number of lights serving as related but confounded design parameters (Suh, 1998). This activity emulates real-world design problems that require simplification, satisficing, or constraint of solution space.

### 3.3 Week 3: Gear Reduction

In this activity the students built a transmission from Lego Technic gears and components between a fixed motor and load.

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#### 3.3.1 Purpose

This problem allowed for direct access to the students’ spatial and mechanical reasoning skills, a domain used heavily in many different areas of design.

#### 3.3.2 Protocol

The students were introduced to the concepts of gear reduction, specifically the nature of “little-to-big” relationships (Martin, 1995). Each student dyad was supplied with a workstation apparatus, constructed of Lego Technic with a motor, a large wall on which to build their transmission, and an output pulley. The pulley was connected to an interchangeable mass. The students are presented with two different tasks, and they may attempt one or both:

1. Lift the greatest amount of weight possible.

2. Lift a specific weight from the floor as quickly as possible.

The students had all the remaining time to design and build their solutions. Paper was provided, and students were encouraged to document their transmissions in the same fashion as was used in the concept tutorial.

At the conclusion of the work time, each dyad’s construction was tested individually as the group observed.

#### 3.3.3 Rationale

This activity is very purely an engineering design task. The requirements, constraints, and success criteria are extremely clear. The solution, however, is open-ended, as the gears can be assembled in nearly infinite configurations, many of which may solve the problem. This activity stresses implementation and time management.

### 3.4 Week 4: Word Search

Students designed algorithms to solve word searches, where words are hidden in a two-dimensional grid of otherwise random letters. This activity introduced the concepts of pseudocode and flowcharts for algorithm design. The puzzle and worksheets can be seen in Appendix .

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#### 3.4.1 Purpose

The concept of an algorithm was introduced in this activity, which was also used in the following activity. As such, this activity partially functioned as a warm up to the more complex elevator control algorithm activity.

This activity allowed observations of students process in deducing and applying patterns, and observed students’ approaches to writing generalized procedures.

#### 3.4.2 Protocol

This protocol was implemented as a worksheet for students, as can be seen in Appendix . The concept of an algorithm was introduced with the game of tic-tac-toe as example. The students were given the instruction set to never lose tic-tac-toe, and were encouraged to study and try it. Once the concept of using instructions to play a game had been mastered, the students were given a very simple word search puzzle. The example puzzle was designed to be nearly trivial, like the one in Figure . The words hidden in this puzzle are *ace*, *fire*, *shoe*, *tour*, and *yes*.

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Figure 3: Example word search puzzle.

The students were prompted at this point with questions, which were discussed briefly as a group. The questions were:

• Did you find all the words?

• What did you do to find the words?

• Did the words just “jump out at you? ”

• What if they didn’t?

• How can you know for sure you found *all* the words?

The students will then be prompted to write down any rules or strategies they employed in the example puzzle.

The researcher explained that computers are devoid of the pattern recognition ability that makes words “jump out” for people. However, computers are very fast at simple computation, so they are advantageous to use for extremely large data sets. This provided impetus for the students to develop an algorithm rather than simply solving the puzzle one time.

The students were then given the difficult puzzle, which can be seen in Appendix . The students were encouraged to continue talking through their thought process, and reminded that the process to solve the problem is desired, not the solution itself. If the students completed the puzzle and were confident in the rules they had written, they were given an additional puzzle with the instructions to solve it only by following their rules, not using their human abilities.

#### 3.4.3 Rationale

This activity stresses computational thinking, which causes students to think algorithmically about a normally straightforward task. This activity also has opportunity for cleverness and creativity that may arise from noticing patterns in data. These skills are fundamental to computer science.

### 3.5 Week 5: Elevator Control

Students designed a set of rules to govern the motion of a simulated elevator. Elevators are robotic devices that need to act based on multiple inputs and system states, and require well-thought-out control algorithms to function effectively. The simulator acted as a microworld (Levin and Waugh, 1987), allowing students to experiment with a controlled subset of problem physics. The simulated elevator was implemented in Scratch (Maloney et al., 2004) using the BYOB extension (Harvey and Mönig, 2010), allowing for custom drag-and-drop code blocks for high-order control of the graphical elevator system.

The workspace for the microworld is shown in Figure . The representation of the building is the white panel on the right. The red rectangle is the elevator car, shown at rest on the first floor. The floors are delineated by blue lines, and each has a gray, circular call button. At the far right of the white panel is a gray inset panel that contains a queue of floor requests. The simulator automatically places a request on the queue when a floor button is clicked by the user.

Code is written by dragging primitives and control structures from the left panel to the center panel. In the center panel the primitives can be assembled to form command, query, and repetition sequences. A set of primitives were custom made for the purpose of elevator control and were added to the palette. The custom primitives are shown in in Figure .

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Figure 4: Workspace for the Elevator Control microworld.

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Figure 5: Custom primitives for elevator control that were built into the simulator.

#### 3.5.1 Purpose

This activity explored the students reactions to a difficult optimization problem. Students were observed developing the problem concept as well work towards improved solutions. Unique among the other sessions, in this activity students are also observed working purely symbolically.

#### 3.5.2 Protocol

The students were tasked with a simple goal: develop an algorithm to control an elevator. The concept of simulation was introduced, as was the Scratch programming language subset used by the simulator.

The students were provided with a trivial but working solution, shown in Figure . The first challenge for the students was to understand why the given solution worked and why it was sub-optimal. There was no formal mechanism to prevent students from working on a solution before they fully understand the problem, but they were prompted often by researchers to establish their current understanding of the situation.

The provided solution simply traveled to the next floor that it was called to, in the order that the calls were made. The major flaw of this solution was that people who are waiting for service were passed by the elevator as it traveled blindly to whomever pressed the button first. This inefficiency resulted in unacceptable wait times (and therefore unhappy people), as well as unnecessary energy expenditure by the building owner.

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Figure 6: Trivial solution of the elevator control problem. The “forever” structure will infinitely loop whatever code block sequence is nested within it. In this case, the only action is to “go to floor” with an argument of “next request." The elevator will continually go to floor whose request is at the top of the queue.

#### 3.5.3 Rationale

This activity is highly abstracted, symbolic, and the problem is difficult to characterize. It also requires understanding of a queue structure, positional queries, and boolean logic. These elements are part of the everyday problems posed by both researching and practicing computer scientists and engineers. Control elements, such as determining location and direction of travel, are specifically common to robotics.

## 4 Analysis Plan

Videos from student sessions were analyzed using coding techniques informed by Welch (1999), where specific codes were defined to describe important behaviors. Additional codes were created as a need for them emerged in the style of grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1997). The additional codes allowed for behaviors and patterns that were not predicted to be documented as they were observed.

The initial code list was based on the codes used by Scribner-MacLean (2009), as that research has a similar experimental setup with a similar group of subjects. The codes, in accordance with Scribner-MacLean, were categorized by stages of the design cycle. They are described in Table .

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Table 1: Starting codes.

This set of codes only provided a starting point for analysis. Additional codes were created as needed during analysis, and will be discussed in Chapter .

Analysis was done primarily using NVIVO software. Codes were applied to specific time spans of the video where the corresponding behavior or activity was observed. Data was analyzed to see how the individual students changed over the period of time (idiographic), and to see trends in all the students as a group (nomothetic).

The plan of analysis was to find emergent patterns in the data consisting of video codes, researcher notes, and student products.

# Chapter 4

**Analysis**

The session videos were first analyzed using the coding scheme discussed in Section . Based on that first pass of video analysis, student iteration emerged as a critical factor to be evaluated. Iteration is defined in Section . The selection of participants for the final analysis is described in Section . The following Sections through describe the analysis of the individual activities.

Three of the five activities were included in a numerical analysis of the observed student behaviors. The three selected had complete data for each student, allowing analysis per student for the whole duration of the session. The thee activities also highlighted three critical engineering fields: electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, and computer science. From these criteria the Lights Optimization, Gear Reduction, and Elevator Control activities were selected.

The numerical analysis created quantitative data that represent the iteration behavior of the students. The metrics included were total number of iteration cycles, average time for each iteration cycle, and non-iterating time before testing. The non-iterating time expresses how long the student spent exploring the problem and creating an initial prototype before beginning to test. The analysis also includes the success ratings as described in Section . Students that achieved the first level, a working solution, scored a single rating point. Those who achieved the second level , generalized process, obtained an additional point, totaling two.

## 1 Subjects

The trial was conducted with seven participants, six of whom had sufficient attendance to be studied. The seventh student was only present for two activities. Of the six students being studied, five of them were present for all the activities. The sixth student was absent once and missed the Elevator Activity. Code names A through F were assigned to these students to anonymize their data. Students worked in pairs, which was encouraged in most of the activities to facilitate talking through their thought processes. This method of eliciting communication is suggested by Welch (1999). When paired, the students always chose the same teams. This was beneficial to analysis, as the students could be considered part of a consistent group of two. The dyads are A/B, C/D, and E/F.

## 2 Working Definitions

A student is considered to be performing a test when a solution or component of a solution is applied to the problem in order to ascertain how well that solution or component solves the problem. A critical measure is that a test must be made against the world of the problem, whether it is real physics or a provided simulation, as specified by the activity. An attempted solution will not be considered a test if it is being checked against an idea or vision internal to the student, as no new information is gained by the student.

Iteration cycles will be delineated by the student performing a test, with the first iteration starting with the first test of the session. The final iteration will end with the last test performed in the session. The rationale for this bound is that the final test will be one to show “completeness," at which point the problem is deemed solved by the student or the student gives up.

The time spent before the first test is conducted is considered to be non-iterating time, during which the student is being introduced to and exploring the problem.

These definitions were generated from observation of the students, and are consistent across all data.

## 3 Defining characteristics of iteration behavior

This research presents three characteristics of iteration behavior: the percentage of time spent in preparation, the count of iteration cycles performed, and the average time per iteration.

### 3.1 Iteration Count

A primary characteristic of an iterative design process is the number of times that student was observed performing an iteration. An iteration was defined by the student testing a design or a component of a design against the world, as discussed in Section . Every test was marked with how many minutes into the session it occurred. The most iterations observed by one dyad in a single activity was nine, and the least was zero. Excluding the zero, which is a peculiar case, the lowest amount of iteration was three cycles.

### 3.2 Iteration Time

The time between tests is an indication of how long it took the student to assess the newly discovered information from the last test and integrate it into the solution. Knowing how long a cycle typically takes can be helpful in designing activity schedules. This metric is a simple inter-arrival time between test events. Only times between tests were counted. The time from the start of the activity to the first test was observed to be introductory and exploratory for the student, which is addressed in the next section. The time ends at the student’s final test where the solution is declared to work or not, and development ended. Across the three selected activities iteration times varied from one minute to over a half hour. Within a single dyad and one activity the standard deviation of average iteration times did not exceed five except in one outlier case, which was nearly 18.

### 3.3 Preparation Time

The time before the first test is considered preparation time, during which the student explores the problem and assembles an initial prototype. The shortest preparation time was three minutes which was one group during the elevator activity. The pure software activity makes it very easy to “dive right in" and start trying things nearly immediately. The other two dyads in that activity waited ten and over twenty minutes before their first test. The preparation was usually around ten minutes, but the actual value of that absolute number is relative to the total time the student spent working on the problem. For calculation the preparation time as expressed a percentage of the total time spent working on the problem so that the metric can be easily compared across activities and students.

## 4 Rush Hour Activity

This activity provided data which helps understand student metacognitive behavior. Students were observed trying to understand their own problem solving patterns. Students of this age generally have not yet reached the formal operations stage of cognitive development (Piaget and Inhelder, 1969), and thus have not fully developed metacognitive skills (Beyer, 1988). These students demonstrated rudimentary ability to analyze their own thinking processes, but were often incapable of explaining how they came to a process or conclusion.

### 4.1 Expected Outcomes

The expectation going into this session was that students would demonstrate a high level of backtracking, iteration, and restarting. It was expected that students would run in to many dead end paths, and would have to backtrack through their motions or start over very often. The Rush Hour game is very a very lightweight symbolic representation, where manipulation of the symbols is very cheap and easy to do. The expectation of rapid backtracking was constructed from this ease of manipulation, lack of rules to process, and testing by the researchers.

This expectation was largely correct. The period between resets was often mere seconds, where the student had barely executed anything before coming up with another idea to try instead.

### 4.2 Observed Behaviors

#### 4.2.1 Unable to repeat

At the beginning of the session it was observed that students were unable to explain how they came to a solution and claimed that they were unable to repeat it. This behavior was only observed in the first ten minutes of the activity.

#### 4.2.2 Working backwards

Some students elected to work backwards from the goal towards the start state. This strategy was observed at all stages of the session. When using this technique, students never worked their way all the way to the start state. Once sufficient experience with this technique was acquired, the student reverted to a forward-direction method, where they were they were then more easily able to find a solution. Working backwards was at first only observed in one dyad. The other groups used it later in the session, possibly after hearing the idea from other students.

#### 4.2.3 Accounting for impossibilities

Two instances were observed where students told researchers that their strategy included accounting for possible future scenarios. Both of these instances, one during the session and other during the wrap up interview, involved preparing for scenarios that were mathematically impossible. Student E described why he moved the red car away from goal was “in case a car had to move through," indicating the empty column he created with the move. There were no cars on that column aligned in that direction. There was no case where the possibility he described could happen.

#### 4.2.4 Assessing limitations

Students often described that their strategy included assessment of limitations. Limitations were simple such as, “I can’t move the green car," so the student would consider how to go about either freeing the green car, or disregard it as immovable. This behavior was very important in finally solving the puzzle, as it constrained the problem. This also seems to contradict the behavior noted above where students accounted for impossibilities, but both were observed in the same students during the same puzzles.

#### 4.2.5 Identifying key move

Researchers prompted students in the middle and late portions of the session to identify the “key move" that unlocked the particular puzzle. When first prompted students had difficulty providing an answer, often stammering and indecisive to what the “key" was. Later in the session they became more confident in their answers. The answers were not necessarily right or wrong, but provided insight to what the student thought was important. One example showed a student identifying a single car moving to the far left as the “key." That student was confident in that identification citing that car as in the way of the remainder of the moves necessary to achieve the solution. Almost any car could be argued to be critical on similar grounds. The student may have picked that particular one because it was the available move a critical part of that student’s process in solving the puzzle.

#### 4.2.6 Theory development and testing

Students developed theories and ideas very rapidly, but did not generally test them fully. When testing a theory, the student would proceed a few moves, then interject with a new idea and pursue that. This is similar to when the students worked backwards, where they never worked through an idea to completion, but moved on when they gathered enough experience to think of something else.

### 4.3 Wrap Up Discussion

In the wrap up discussion students made many suggestions on how to go about solving the problem, but often little reason behind the suggestions. Students provided summaries of their tactics that were inconsistent with the observations during the activity. Many students changed their responses while explaining them. Those students had a different answer at the end of their explanation than they had at the beginning.

There were some points that were made by the students that were supported by earlier observations. One of the first points to emerge from the discussion was that thinking out loud actually helped them solve the problem. The process of verbalizing the thought process had observably improved results in solving the problem. This observation is supported by Lochhead and Whimbey (1987) among others.

Students generated many strategies that they claimed worked for them, outlined below. These strategies contradict each other, but each one was defended strongly by the student who presented it. Every strategy presented that was specific (move a certain piece a certain way) could be disproved by counterexample. The first three strategies in the list below are in this category. The general strategies, however, could be useful if presented to other students, which was the question posed by the researchers.

• Move trucks down

• Move little cars first

• Move towards exit to get out

• Look for the key piece

• Go with the flow

• Look ahead at least two moves

• Take it slow

Students were asked how they knew when to backtrack or start over. The responses were as expected: when totally stuck or stuck in a repetitive loop. One student claimed he never restarted, only backtracked. Observation of that student supported this, which was an anomaly. Every other student did full restarts many times over the course of the session.

The student who never reset was also observed solving the puzzle accidentally. He set an intermediate goal and was focused on solving that when he created an opening to solve the whole puzzle, but he did not notice that opportunity.

### 4.4 Rush Hour Results

Students were observed iterating extremely quickly, often with only seconds between iterations. The iterations observed in this activity are not considered design iterations, as there is no solution to be tested against the world. No new information about the problem is gained from these iterations. The only information learned is about the space of the particular puzzle level being solved.

Students were unsure about their own processes, and often contradicted themselves when explaining how they developed strategies. Very little process description provided by the students was supported by the observations during the session.

This game was a good introductory activity because its easiness to learn.

## 5 Light Optimization Activity

This activity was highly-structured for time usage and metric of success. The session was broken into two phases, with each phase containing a complete problem solving cycle. The second phase presented the same problem as the first, but with component price values modified, changing the location of the optimal point in the solution space. Testing was also very deliberate, as it required the use of the power supply. Rules were in place that students could only turn on the power supply when their system was safe and nobody was touching the circuit. Unlike other activities, very test feedback could be generated without the power supply being on, making the test cycles relatively formal.

The metric of success was formulaic, and students turned to arithmetic throughout the activity to help them plan and check their designs.

### 5.1 Expected and Observed Outcomes

With two deliberate phases it was expected that students would be more successful in the second phase. The first phase was expected be mostly exploration, and the second one was expected to be higher in iteration and testing cycles. This was shown to be at least superficially accurate, as more iteration cycles occurred across all the students in the later portion of the session. When looking at the entire session as a whole, however, the concentration of iterations was congruent with that of other activities that did not have deliberate phases. It is possible that the increase in testing cycles indicates a greater pattern of developing comfort with the problem over time, and the forced phases may have had little effect.

### 5.2 The 1-wire Misconception

One misconception was observed that was completely unexpected and provided a serious problem for the students experiencing it: thinking power can flow over a single wire. Students with this misconception were unable to build a working circuit until they received additional corrective instruction from the researchers. The students C and D created their first design to look like a lollipop. One wire came from the power supply and connected to one point in a series loop of lights. The other terminal of the power supply went to a similar loop. Clearly this circuit did not function, as there was no circuit created between the two terminals of the power supply.

### 5.3 Students Desired Math

The most unexpected and significant observation made during this session was the students voluntarily using written algebra to help their designs. Without any prompting from researchers students took it upon themselves to manipulate the scoring formula to find how many lights and wires they wanted to strive for to make a certain score. They then revisited that formula after testing to validate their design. Using mathematics in both planning and validation is usually only observed in designers with engineering training.

### 5.4 Light Optimization Results

This activity was included for numerical analysis. Table shows that the most successful student group had the fewest number of iterations. This dyad utilized prior knowledge to deliver a working design on the first try and were very satisfied with that design for the remainder of the session. That student pair recognized the holiday lights and immediately recalled how a string of christmas tree lights work. They proceeded to build a series string, like that of the christmas tree, and had a working solution very quickly. They did re-evaluate when the part costs changed, but their design remained essentially unchanged for the entire session.

Putting aside the above dyad, the other two groups were fairly similar in iteration count, average iteration time, and non-iterating introductory time. The biggest difference between them was group C/D spent more time in introduction before beginning testing. Group C/D had a significant misconception of electricity which gave them a disadvantage, as discussed in Section . Both of these groups met the first level of success.

The most significant observation was the students’ self-motivation to use mathematics to improve their design, discussed in Section .

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## 6 Gear Reduction Activity

### 6.1 Expected and Observed Outcomes

This activity was intended to be an exercise in gear spacing, meshing, and reduction. Students were expected to choose testing patterns somewhere on the continuum between large numbers of small, local tests and small number of large, entire-system tests. The best solutions were expected to come from students who iterated more often. This theory proved generally correct, but was convolved by the unexpected level of difficulty of the activity.

### 6.2 Difficulty in Construction

In most of the activities presented here the students are designing against a highly constrained subset of physics or a simulated, abstract environment. In this activity the student design is tested directly against nature, which provided many unapparent complications. The challenge was not focused on gear ratios as expected, but was a more general and difficult task of building. Students were plagued with a vastly unconstrained design space including part selection, structure design, gear choice, and component connections. Despite the unexpected difficulty, most students (two of the three dyads) did succeed in solving the problem. However, the process-oriented model that was desirable was lost as students focused entirely on finding a single working solution.

### 6.3 Gear Reduction Results

This activity was included for numerical analysis. The results are shown in Table . Dyad E/F never advanced to performing a test, and as such is listed with zero iterations and a non-iterating time of 100%. This group did not successfully complete the activity. Excluding that pair, the most successful student group, C/D, had the longest introductory time at 42%. Group A/B had nearly the same number of iterations as C/D, but they were more spread out over the session time. C/D iterated faster, with more consistent time per iteration. Both A/B and C/D achieved successful solutions, but only C/D achieved a generalized process.

Building with LEGO is difficult. This activity was more difficult than expected and did not carry the intended focus of pure gear mechanics. The groups who managed to perform tests and iterations did overcome these problems, and the group that did not test did not achieve any levels of success.

The solution built by group C/D scored the highest success rating, and is shown in Figure . The diagram they drew is seen in Figure . This group had one stage that actually performed a reduction of 8:40. The design included an unnecessary 1:1 stage and a counter-productive 40:24 gear increase. The overall reduction was sufficient to complete the task, and the construction was solid.

The solution built by group A/B is shown in Figures and , with their diagram shown in Figure . The design was theoretically sound, employing three stages of 24:40 reduction. The construction was weak, but sufficient to survive the one-day activity.

The group that did not complete, E/F, provided a diagram that is shown in Figure . This diagram lacks detail of the gear interactions. It does not specify any gear sizes, nor does it indicate how the gears actually connect together. The diagram is an abstract representation of a the general shape of a solution, but does not specify any actual implementation.

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Figure 1: Gear reduction solution made by C/D dyad. This design successfully completed the task. This image includes the mass that was lifted, which are the large wheels to the right.

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Figure 2: Solution diagram by C/D dyad.

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Figure 3: Gear reduction solution made by A/B dyad (front). This design was successful, but not as solid as the one made by C/D. A length of chain is called for to connect the motor at the far left to the large gear in the center (not shown).

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Figure 4: Gear reduction solution made by A/B dyad (back).

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Figure 5: Solution diagram by A/B dyad.

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Figure 6: Solution diagram by E/F dyad. This group never tested their design, nor came to a working solution. The diagram lacks detail of the system.

## 7 Word Search Activity

This activity was designed to have very low cognitive start-up costs, as most students are very familiar with word searches. It also provided a good introduction to algorithms, where students can easily see the application of a pedantic process on the matrix.

### 7.1 Expected and Observed Outcomes

The word search was expected to be easy for the students to gain traction with, enabling them to focus on the algorithm design component. The students were expected to have a few test iterations as they work through how action rules work. The activity itself is relatively simple, and may fall victim to short attention spans. In practice this session was very successful. Students maintained engagement for the majority of the period and held to the rules of the activity to facilitate the desired learning experience. Only half of the students actually created legitimate algorithms. The other half created short lists of human-targeted instructions rather than break them out to component operations.

### 7.2 Word Search Results

Students became aware of the concept of an algorithm and understood that they were designing them. This is indicative that students of this age possess the cognitive development to think abstractly at the level that is required for algorithm design.

Despite the students’ understanding of the problem and high level of engagement, the iteration count was very low. Most students only performed two significant changes on their algorithms. The student who iterated the most did not exceed four revisions.

The students with low iteration counts tended to use high-order instructions for their algorithm. High-order instructions were clearly intended to be interpreted by humans, as they required complex reasoning to be executed, such as “wait for words to pop out." The minority of students used simpler instructions that could be argued as machine-compatible. Simpler instructions included “look for the first letter" and “see if second letter is touching it." These simple instructions could be combined to create the behaviors that the majority students requested in a single statement. It is more desirable from a computational thinking perspective for students to use low-order instructions, as they can be generalized to machine code. High-order instructions require a human to interpret them and are less useful computationally.

An example of high-order instructions can be seen in Figure . That student wrote to find the first three letters of the word at once. While this is feasibly machine-compatible, that student left a decision case open to interpretation, “unless two words have the same 3 letters."

Figure 7: Example of a student’s algorithm for the Word Search activity. This algorithm uses high-order instructions intended for a human.

An example of simpler instructions can be seen in Figure . This student started off with more of a strategy in step one of “If you can’t find it the first time, try again." This first instruction could be argued to be specifying a loop, which, according to the student’s explanation, was the basic intention. Step two is precise, instructing the executor to find the first letter of a word, and then see if the second letter is adjacent. If the second letter is adjacent, check to see if the whole world is there. This step could be broken into to four individual instructions.

Figure 8: Example of a student’s algorithm for the Word Search activity. This algorithm uses simple, generalizable instructions.

## 8 Elevator Control Activity

Building on the algorithm writing experience from the word search activity, the elevator control problem is the culmination of the activity sequence. Students built and tested in a simulated environment where the researchers had control of all system physics, allowing for only the pertinent dynamics to be available. This still allowed for a complex interaction to take place, as the students were not tasked with filling in the solution space between two points, but to write actual code with very little provided structure.

### 8.1 Expected and Observed Outcomes

This was the most difficult activity, so it was expected that students would have a hard time gaining traction with the problem. Before a student could be productive, the student would need to understand the constructs of the programming language, begin to comprehend the programming concepts available to them, and form a good understanding of the problem. The most difficult part of this was the latter. This activity ended up being focused primarily on problem framing. Once students began to comprehend what they were actually trying to do their productivity improved greatly. Student competence with the programming tools seemed to increase once the problem was understood, indicating that understanding the tool is in part related to having a clear need for it.

### 8.2 Problem Framing

The greatest difficulty in this activity was understanding the task at hand. The setup provided to the students included example code that worked as a fully functional system. The students first questioned what their task was if a working solution was already present. The task was to create an better optimized solution, but what made the example sub-optimal was not apparent.

The example code would service every floor that was requested in the order that the requests were made. This solution works fine for simple examples where the request queue has a small number of requests, or floors are requested in a convenient order. There are many common examples, however, that illustrate the sub-optimal nature of this system. One such example is if the elevator is on the first floor, and the buttons five, three, and four are quickly pressed, in that order. At the first button press, the elevator will immediately start moving towards the fifth floor. Assume the button presses were complete by the time the elevator reaches the second floor. It now has requests to service the third, fourth, and fifth floors, and is already moving upwards. The example code will skip the people waiting on the third and fourth floors and go straight to the fifth floor. At that point it will skip the fourth floor again as it moves to the third floor, as that was the order that the buttons were pressed. If a person entering on the fifth floor then made a request, that request would not even be considered until all the previously queued pickups had completed.

The above example and ones like it were used by the researchers to help illustrate what was wrong with the example code. The researchers did not explicitly state what was wrong, but guided the students in running such examples and led them to reach their conclusions about inefficiency. Once this inefficiency was understood the students were observed becoming more effective in creating a solution.

### 8.3 Elevator Control Results

This activity was included for numerical analysis. The results are shown in Table . In this session, success was correlated both with tight iteration and longer introductory time. The two groups who succeeded in both a working solution and generalized process spent at least a third of their total time exploring the problem, and then iterated quickly at regular intervals. The most pronounced correlation is the very short introductory time of dyad A/B, who were the only group not to successfully complete the activity. Only one of the students had any previous experience with the Scratch system. Interestingly, that one student was in the group that did not succeed in this activity.

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The use of a simulator in Scratch was largely successful. All but one of the students had no prior experience yet were able to piece together functional control programs. Beyond that, students were able, to varying degrees, create programs that did as they intended. In one case a student’s goal was modified as the student learned about the capabilities and limitations of the system.

# Chapter 5

**Discussion**

One behavior that emerged as a critical component to design is iteration. The literature supports that iterative design cycles are critical for design tasks across academics, children, and industry. Atman et al. (1999) showed that senior college-level design students iterated far more than their underclassmen counterparts. Eckert et al. (2009) reasoned that iteration is critical in industry, and should be practiced more than it is. Dow et al. (2009) provides the most compelling conclusion, stating that iteration helps designers achieve as well as domain knowledge could afford them without iteration.

In this study, the iterative nature of the different students was accessible for investigation. By analyzing the schedule by which students test and modify their solutions patterns were identified with design success and characteristics of the activities themselves. From these patterns, a tool could be created that may help in the design of student design activities, providing a guide for creating activities that elicit specific iteration behaviors from students.

Chapter illustrated the iteration patterns for each individual activity. The ideal number of iterations is intrinsic to a specific activity, so comparing activities by iteration count is not valid. The percentage of time spent in introduction is scaled based on the total time spent on the activity, making this metric portable between activities. The introduction time, or non-iterating time, characterizes what percent of the student’s total time during the session was spent before they performed their first test. It is posited that this time was used for learning about the problem and performing initial construction. The average times for the three numerically analyzed activities are given in Table .

Information can be gained about the overall performance of the students. Table shows the three student dyads with their overall success rating, non-iteration time, and time per iteration. The overall success rating comes from the combined success rating of the three activities that were numerically analyzed: Light Optimization, Gear Reduction, and Elevator Control. Each activity had two levels of success. The first level is the completion of a successful design that solves the problem. The second level is synthesizing a general process for arriving at a solution. Students that obtained the first level scored a single rating point for the activity. Those who achieved the second level obtained an additional point, totaling two for the activity. The maximum rating for three activities was six points, shown as the denominator for dyads A/B and C/D. The third pair only participated in two of the activities, so that group’s maximum rating is four.

In Table , average non-iterating time is a combination of all the iteration times across all three activities. The standard deviation of this metric is included as well. Based on that information, dyad C/D not only spent more time on average in pre-iteration, but did so with greater consistency than group A/B. The number present for group E/F only includes the Light Optimization activity, as it is the only one they completed. Average time per iteration includes all iteration cycles made across all three activities. The most successful dyad shows not only the shortest time per iteration, but the most consistency in those times.

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## 1 Conclusions

The data presented in Table shows that the most successful students were consistently slower to begin testing across all activities, indicating that they spent more time in each activity trying to understand the problem before attempting a solution. The speed of iteration also correlates with success, but not as strongly as the introductory time spent.

Activities also had an overall trend in performance. Non-iterating time, or introductory time, was shown above to be the strongest indicator of student success in this study. Analyzing that metric for the activities across all students showed additional trends. Table indicates a monotonic, positive correlation between difficulty of the activity and the exploratory time spent by all the students. The more difficult an activity was, the longer it took students to begin testing their solutions.

The strong trends of exploratory time for both individual students and specific activities indicates that this incubation period is a critical component of design and has an effect on how well the students performs their design iterations later in the session.

#### 1.0.1 Do students exhibit patterns in testing and iteration? What are those patterns?

Students showed a number of patterns in their testing habits. The patterns appeared to be based on a few variables. The first variable, as shown in the Light Optimization activity, was useful prior knowledge. If a student already has a good answer from a previous experience, then that student will not find a need to iterate greatly, as the first stages of exploration and discovery can be effectively skipped. The second variable was the complexity of the problem. The more difficult the problem was, the more time students took in exploring it before they began testing cycles. This is indicated in Table . The more complex activities also had a larger standard deviation of preparation time, indicating that the different students took largely different amounts of time in preparation.

#### 1.0.2 What characteristics of a design activity elicit specific iteration patterns?

As discussed above, complexity of the design activity had an observable effect on student iteration. In addition to that, the cognitive overhead involved in constructing a theory or prototype and testing it had a significant impact. The Rush Hour game had very little overhead to play, both cognitively and physically, and students generated and tested theories at rates over ten times those of the other activities. The level of abstraction had no observable effect on iteration rates. Total problem difficulty appeared to be more significant than the level of abstraction towards the amount of preparation time students used.

Students in this study created tests and made incremental improvements on their solutions in all activities, regardless of whether an iteration schedule built into the activity. Forced iteration may be a reasonable teaching practice, but the data of this study are inconclusive towards it.

#### 1.0.3 What is the correlation between iteration in designing and success of the design?

The more successful students correlated with greater introductory times and tighter deviations of iteration times. The model of the most successful student had a long period (nearly 60% of total time spent) exploring the problem, and then proceeded to perform six to eight quick iterations in the remaining time.

In the Gear Reduction activity students were faced with a very difficult construction task that was confounded by many unexpected physical factors. The students who conducted tests and iterations managed to overcome these difficulties, while the students who did not test never managed to understand the problem sufficiently to create a working solution. This lack of understanding is visible in the students’ diagram of their solution, shown in Figure . The diagram does not demonstrate any conceptual understanding of the meshing of gears or the construction of a supportive structure. The abstraction used in this diagram is inconsistent, showing basics of gears, chains, structure, and the load. In contrast, Figure shows a diagram that indicates a high level of understanding of the problem, and has abstracted it efficiently to only represent the operation of the gears.

More can be learned from the Gear Reduction activity about testing complex systems. The most successful group had a long exploration period and quick iterations, but also managed to construct a solution faster than the other groups. One significant difference between that group and others was the utilization of component testing. The successful group tested individual parts of the solution one at a time, and built upon them as they were shown to work. The complex system required component-level testing for efficient development. Students may not intuitively do this. Breaking down a solution to parts and testing them individually was only observed in one of the three dyads.

#### 1.0.4 What guidelines can be written for the creation of future activities?

See section

## 2 Recommendations

In designing engineering activities, some recommendations can be made from this study.

#### 2.0.5 Put a desired skill in the critical path

The Light Optimization activity showed students using written algebra of their own volition in order to help their design. The activity used a calculated score to rate the success of student designs, and that formula was given to the students at the beginning of the session. The students quickly realized that they could use that formula to help guide them through their design. In this case, the students were never prompted to perform any written algebra, but did so as it was understood to be a critical tool to achieving their goals. By designing the activity such that a desired skill (such as algebra) is in the critical path from the student to their goal, the students may have self-provided desire to utilize that skill.

#### 2.0.6 Clearly frame the problem

The importance of the student’s understanding the task to be completed should not be underestimated. When the students clearly understood the task, such as in the Light Optimization activity, they worked efficiently and effectively. When the mission was unclear, such as in the Elevator Control activity, they became sidetracked and confused by the tool. Once the true task was understood, the students demonstrated greater competence with the tool needed to solve it.

#### 2.0.7 Use a microworld

Design activities should not expose the student to levels of physics beyond their immediate learning needs. Use the concept of a microworld to build a local world in which the problem can be constrained. The term is generally used for software simulations, where the only physics involved are explicitly put there by the simulation creator, but it can also be applied to physical activities. The complex building skills necessary for the Gear Reduction activity could be reduced by providing a “gear wall" where gears can be placed onto pre-made pegs and holes. This mechanism abstracts away the construction element, and has pre-calculated axel distances to ensure proper gear meshing. The student would not have to worry about those factors in the design.

## 3 Future Work

This work began to examine iteration, one of the critical elements of the design process, as it approached by novice designers. This study did not investigate why the student chose to conduct a test, only when. To gain further insight into how novices solve design problems, the driving factors behind those iterations need to be identified and explored. One likely factor is a self-assessment mechanism employed by the students to know when and how to conduct a test. Student assessment of their solution and their process during the activity can be tested using methods similar to those of this study, and is yet unexplored.

Exploring the tacit motivations behind design iteration and process will yield a deeper understanding of why design processes fit the models previously mentioned. Future work will result in a generalized set of metacognitive patterns that contribute to good design-time decision making. Teaching these skills explicitly to students will aid them in assessing their own design tendencies, and help them become better designers.

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# Chapter A

**Student Handouts**

Paper handouts were used in three of the activities to provide instructions and work space for the students. They are included here.

Figures and show the handout that was provided to students when doing the Gear Reduction activity. At the conclusion of the session the students were asked to draw their design in the style of the example in Figure .

Figure 1: First page of the worksheet given to students during the Gear Reduction activity.

Figure 2: Second page of the worksheet given to students during the Gear Reduction activity.

Figures through show the handout that was provided to students when during the Word Search activity.

Figure 3: First page of the worksheet given to the students during the Word Search activity. This worksheet explains algorithms through the explanation of tic-tac-toe.

Figure 4: Second page of the worksheet given to the students during the Word Search activity. This sheet guided the student through the creation of an example algorithm.

Figure 5: Third page of the worksheet given to the students during the Word Search activity. This sheet provided space for students to design their algorithm.

Figure is one of the two puzzles given to the students. Solutions have been highlighted.

Figure 6: Word search puzzle provided to the students. The hidden words are shown.

Figure shows the instruction sheet that was given to students at the beginning of the Elevator Control Activity.

Figure 7: Elevator Control instruction sheet.

# Chapter B

**IRB Compliance Documents**

## 1 Parent Consent Form

Figures and are the Parental Consent Form completed by the legal guardians of all participants in the study. This form was also available in Spanish.

Figure 1: Parental consent form, page 1.

Figure 2: Parental consent form, page 2.

## 2 Student Assent Form

Figures and are the Student Assent Form completed by all of the participants in the study.

Figure 3: Student assent form, page 1.

Figure 4: Student assent form, page 2.