

Towards a Machine Learning Flow-predicting Model in a MOOC Context

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Abstract: Flow is a human psychological state positively correlated to self-efficacy, motivation, engagement, and academic achievement, all of which positively affect learning. However, automatic, real-time flow prediction is quite difficult, particularly in a Massively Online Open Course context, because of its online, distant, asynchronous, and educational components. In such context, flow prediction would allow for personalization of activities, content, and learning-paths. By pairing the results of the EduFlow2 and Flow-Q questionnaires ($n = 1589$, two years data collection) from the French MOOC “Gestion de Projet” (Project Management) to Machine Learning techniques (Logistic Regression), we create a Machine Learning model that successfully predicts flow (combined Accuracy & Precision ~ 0.8 , AUC = 0.85) in an automatic, asynchronous fashion, in a MOOC context. The resulting Machine Learning model predicts the presence of flow (0.82) with a greater Precision than it predicts its absence (0.74).

1 INTRODUCTION

Machine Learning (ML) has come a long way from its beginnings as simple email spam filter in the 1990's, or Optical Character Recognition software in scanners (Géron, 2019). Nowadays, it is being extensively applied to make sense of data, especially in an era where data comes in abundance (Raschka & Mirjalili, 2019). As such, ML plays a key role in learning from data the knowledge and models that might be challenging to obtain from human experts (Conati et al., 2018).

The global reach of Massively Online Open Courses (MOOC) steams from their original concept to offer free and open access courses for a massive number of learners from anywhere all over the world (Yousef et al., 2014). However, MOOCs often feature very low completion rates (Jordan, 2014; Yuan & Powell, 2013), with research metrics agreeing at a median of about 6.5%, and up to 60% for fee-based certificates. Studies show that engagement, intention and motivation are among the top factors to affect

learners' performance in MOOCs (Jung & Lee, 2018; Wang & Baker, 2018; Watted & Barak, 2018).

Flow is a fundamental psychological state which allows for experiencing a rich and complete life. This phenomenon may appear in any area of life (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988), and it is related to the satisfaction gained from performing different activities (Rufi Cano et al., 2014). Studies have shown flow to be positively correlated to self-efficacy, motivation, engagement, and academic achievement efficacy (Heutte, 2019; Peifer et al., 2022), all of which positively affect learning, more specifically contributing to learning in online contexts (Skadberg & Kimmel, 2004). Furthermore, we know that the learner's psychological state carries a preponderant weight in the learning process (Abyaa et al., 2019; Efklides, 2005; Medina-Medina & García-Cabrera, 2016). All these factors make of flow a desired psychological state when promoting learning, more specifically in an online, distant setting.

However, flow detection is an issue subject to discussion, whether it is in real-time or self-reported,

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as any artifact attempting to detect/measure it inevitably contributes to disrupt flow. In one hand, researchers had initially recourse to measure instruments that asynchronously attempted to elude this situation (Moneta, 2021; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009; Rheinberg et al., 2003). Such measure instruments are intrusive, somewhat costly, and require the participant to always wear a device during the study period, along a minimal training for the study subject to reliably use them, such as the ESM (Experience Sampling Method) (Moneta, 2021). Also, real-time flow measurement is limited to the individual wearing the measure device, and thus, limits the study to the equipment available.

In the other hand, self-reported measure instruments (ex. questionnaires) do not disrupt flow and they can be applied to many individuals (online/offline or distant/presential settings) at a minimal cost. However, they usually require a manual score calculation, they can only be applied asynchronously (post flow event), and they heavily depend on the individual's ability to recognize flow verbally and to associate it with a scale.

Nevertheless, flow automatic, real-time detection (or lack-of) and prediction currently remains a holy grail in online, distant learning. More precisely within a MOOC, as flow prediction would allow for content, activities, and learning-path personalization, fostering thus learner's engagement and motivation (El Mawas et al., 2018). This research work comes one more step closer to this goal, by creating a successful ML Flow-predicting model that allows for automatic, asynchronous flow detection and prediction in an online, distant learning context, by employing asynchronous measurement instruments.

We believe this milestone to be of ultimate interest to our target public (MOOC designers/providers, pedagogical engineers and researchers who meet difficulties to incorporate psychological states in MOOCs) to take better informed decisions, in terms of collaborative work, learners' follow-up, and/or content's difficulty adaptation. This research work differentiates itself from those of (Moneta & Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Pfister, 2002) in a) the application of the *logit* function additionally of the *linear* function, b) the application of flow measurement and characterization instruments in an online learning context, and c) the use of a two-year long input dataset issued from within that same context.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows. Section 2 oversees the theoretical works concerning this papers, namely the definitions of Machine Learning, and the flow human psychological

state, along with its measure instruments. Section 3 describes the experiment performed, followed by its results in Section 4. Section 5 presents a discussion on the results and finally, Section 6 presents this article's conclusion and futures perspectives.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this section we present the notions at play behind this research, namely the definitions of ML and of Logistic Regression (LR), and the flow human psychological state and its measure instruments.

2.1 Machine Learning

ML is a branch (or subset) of AI focused on building applications (programming computers) that learn from data and improve their accuracy over time without being programmed to do so (Géron, 2019; IBM, 2020). According to (Ramírez Luelmo et al., 2021), ML sits at the crossroads of Database Systems, and Statistics fields, while holding within itself the fields of Neural Networks (NN) and Deep Learning (DL) (see Figure 1).

ML systems can be classified according to the amount and type of supervision they get during training. There are four major categories: Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning, Semi Supervised Learning, and Reinforcement Learning (Das & Behera, 2017; Géron, 2019; Mohri et al., 2018). Deep Learning constitutes a recent category case addendum to the previous list (Brownlee, 2019; IBM, 2020; Mohri et al., 2018; Ramírez Luelmo et al., 2021).

ML is instrumental in addressing the issue of learning from data the knowledge and models that might be challenging to obtain from human experts,

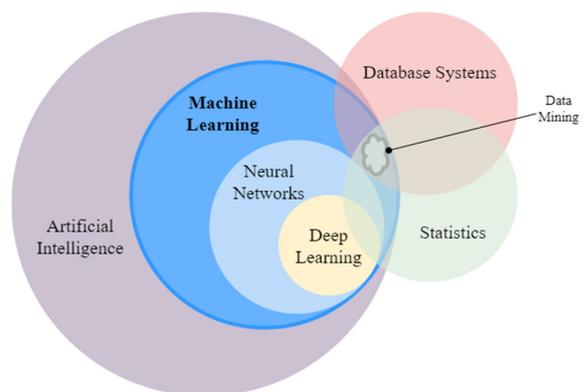


Figure 1: Situational context of ML (Ramírez Luelmo et al., 2021).

such as computing predictions of learners' cognitive and mental states in highly dimensional and ill-defined spaces of human behaviour (Conati et al., 2018).

2.2 Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression (a.k.a. Logit Regression) is a ML linear model for binary classification (Raschka & Mirjalili, 2019). Despite the term 'Regression', LR is a model for classification and not regression (Raschka & Mirjalili, 2019). LR belongs to the category of Supervised Learning, where labelled data is required for the model training (Brownlee, 2019). An LR model estimates the probability that an instance belongs to any given class (called the *positive class*, usually labelled "1"), and otherwise it predicts that it does not (i.e., it belongs to the *negative class*, usually labelled "0") (Géron, 2019). When LR has more than one input variable, it is called Multi-variate Logistic Regression. Similarly, when LR can output more than one class, it is called Multinomial Logistic Regression.

LR has its bases on odds: the odds in favour of a particular event (Raschka & Mirjalili, 2019). The odds can be written as:

$$\frac{p}{(1-p)} \tag{1}$$

, where p stands for the probability of the *positive event*.

Now, let it be *logit* a function for the logarithm of the odds (log-odds):

$$\text{logit}(p) = \log\left(\frac{p}{(1-p)}\right) \tag{2}$$

, where *log* is the natural logarithm. The *logit* function takes input values in the range 0 to 1 and transforms them to values over the entire real-number range. This leads to a linear relationship between feature values and the log-odds of the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(p(y = 1|\mathbf{x})) & \tag{3} \\ &= w_0x_0 + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_mx_m \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^m w_ix_i \end{aligned}$$

Here, $(p(y=1|\mathbf{x}))$ is the conditional probability that any given instance belongs to class 1, given its features \mathbf{x} . The inverse form of the *logit* function is the probability that any given instance belongs to a particular class. This inverse form is also called the logistic sigmoid function ϕ , often abbreviated simply

as the sigmoid function, due to its characteristic S-shape:

$$\phi(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \tag{4}$$

Here, z is the net input, the linear combination of weights \mathbf{w} , and the inputs \mathbf{x} (the features associated to the training data):

$$z = w_0x_0 + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_mx_m \tag{5}$$

As such, the sigmoid function $\phi(z)$, of which an example is plotted in Figure 2, takes real-number values as input, and transforms them into values in the range $[0,1]$, with an intercept at $\phi(z) = 0.5$.

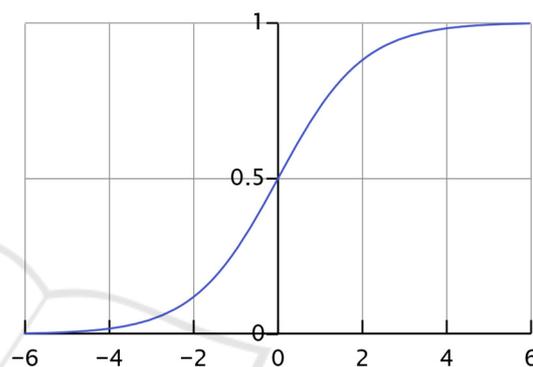


Figure 2: A typical S-shaped curve (sigmoid curve), with an intercept at $\phi(z) = 0.5$.

Thus, LR determines the best weights (a.k.a. estimators or coefficients) w_m such that the output of the function $p(x)$ (the predicted probability that the output for a given \mathbf{x} equals 1) is as close as possible to all real responses. The process of calculating the best weights w_m using available data is called model training or fitting (Raschka & Mirjalili, 2019).

2.3 Flow

Flow is "a gratifying state of deep involvement and absorption that individuals report when facing a challenging activity and they perceive adequate abilities to cope with it" (EFRN, 2014).

Flow state has been shown to promote learning and personal development because deep and total concentration experiences are intrinsically rewarding, and they motivate students to repeat any given activity at progressively higher challenging levels (Csikszentmihalyi et al., 2005).

Psychological states such as shame, reproach, distress, joy, pride, admiration, and for some authors, motivation, and engagement as well (Abyaa et al., 2019) are also a focus of research. However, the reason behind choosing the flow state among all other psychological states is multifold: it has shown to

reliably correlate learning-favourable metrics, such as motivation, self-efficacy (Heutte et al., 2021; Salanova et al., 2006) self-regulation (Bandura, 1986; Chen & Sun, 2016), perceived control, curiosity (Huang, 2006), or goal attainment (Leontiev, 2012; Rheinberg & Engeser, 2018).

2.3.1 Measure Instruments

Over the past 35 years, researchers have developed, validated, modified, and re-validated unidimensional and multidimensional measure instruments for flow, including in-person interview methods (Heutte et al., 2021; Moneta, 2021). More than 30 different flow categorizations have been analysed by (Hoffman & Novak, 2009) and have been found employed in diverse contexts such as creative or performing arts, work, music, ecommerce (Hoffman & Novak, 2009; Rheinberg et al., 2003), sports (Jackson & Eklund, 2002; Rufi Cano et al., 2014), eLearning (Heutte et al., 2021), and/or video gaming (Fu et al., 2009). For instance, the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) is a well-known research procedure for studying what people do, feel, and think during their daily lives. When using it for flow detection, it consists in asking individuals to provide systematic self-reports at random occasions (determined by a carry-on electronic pager, which signals them when to complete a self-report) during most hours of a normal week. Sets of these self-reports from a sample of individuals create an archival file of daily experience (Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). However, ESM suffers from its intrusive nature (Rheinberg & Engeser, 2018), just like many of other categorizations and measure instruments also suffer from their lengthy reporting process, comprising many items (up to 66 but often as many as 42). Such many questions can demotivate individuals when answering the measure instrument, leading to inconsistencies in reporting. In that light, (Rheinberg et al., 2003) uphold that short questionnaires seemingly reduce the intrusive nature and the time expended answering the measure instruments, compared to, for example, using the ESM (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009).

When designing flow measurement protocols, (Hoffman & Novak, 2009) recommend using more than one type of flow measure instrument: unidimensional and multidimensional instruments. Generally, simple, unidimensional measures of flow reduce the data collection burden while multidimensional flow measures help to identify higher-order factors to provide a more holistic

definition of flow, prompt for statistical fit in structural models.

3 OUR PROPOSAL

Within our research context, we have identified in the literature (Heutte et al., 2021; Hoffman & Novak, 2009; Rheinberg & Engeser, 2018; Rufi Cano et al., 2014) two measure instruments that respond to the previously-mentioned constraints while remaining adapted to our research context. We employ Flow-Q (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) as a short, general use, dimension-agnostic, community-proven, instrument to determine flow presence/absence, and EduFlow-2 (Heutte et al., 2021) as a short, online learning context-specific, multi-dimensional, instrument to identify higher-order factors composing and characterizing flow.

Also, to extract meaning out of our input data, we use ML to discern non-obvious similarities and classify participants into two classes (not having/having flow). First, by using LR we associate the results of our two flow measure instruments such as the absence/presence of flow (Flow-Q) is characterized by the dimensions accounted by EduFlow-2. The result of this phase (ML model training) constitutes our ML Flow-predicting model, shown in Figure 3 in light blue. Our model, in turn, is subsequently to be used to predict flow automatically and asynchronously during the Production phase (Figure 4) and by using only the EduFlow-2 instrument.

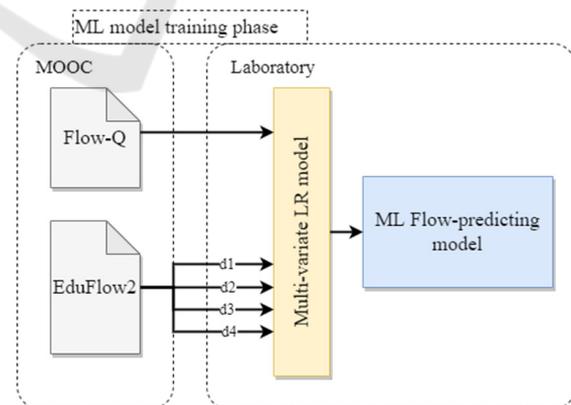


Figure 3: The ML model training phase of our proposal, where measure instruments' data (from a MOOC) are used to train a multi-variate LR model.

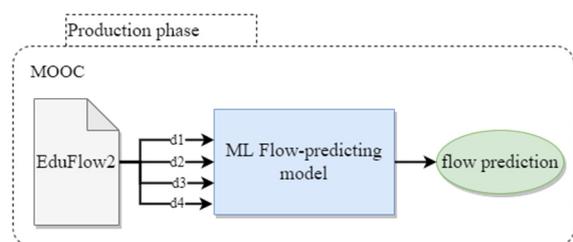


Figure 4: Production phase, showing our ML Flow-predicting model at work (in a MOOC) using only new EduFlow2 data.

3.1 Flow-Q

The FlowQuestionnaire (Flow-Q or FlowQ) was developed by (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988) when researching life satisfaction in Korean immigrants in the Chicago area. It is the revised version of its predecessor, by (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975), and it is recognized as a “broad use”, effective flow measure/detection instrument by the flow researchers community (Rufi Cano et al., 2014). Flow-Q is a dimension-agnostic, that is a general-purpose flow detection measurement. It comprises only three items, which makes it a short, unburdening questionnaire. It relies and results on a binary scale, which makes scoring simpler. For this study, we used the Flow-Q questionnaire French translation by (Heutte, 2015).

3.2 EduFlow-2

The EduFlow-2 (or EduFlow2) theoretical model is successor to the EduFlow theoretical model, a measure instrument designed specifically for flow measurement in educational contexts (El Mawas & Heutte, 2019). The EduFlow-2 measure instrument has proven to be useful in studies of cognitive activities and be suited to flow measurement in various educational contexts, specifically in MOOC (online, asynchronous, distance learning) and classroom (offline, synchronous, presential learning) situations (Heutte et al., 2014; Heutte, Fenouillet, Kaplan, et al., 2016). It is a gender neutral, short twelve-item scale differentiating four flow dimensions (El Mawas & Heutte, 2019; Heutte et al., 2021; Heutte, Fenouillet, Martin-Krumm, et al., 2016), where each dimension is measured by three items:

- FlowD1 (d1) – Cognitive Control.
- FlowD2 (d2) – Immersion and Time Transformation.

- FlowD3 (d3) – Loss of Self-Consciousness.
- FlowD4 (d4) – Autotelic Experience.

The EduFlow-2 measure instrument presents the following advantages: it differentiates dimensions relevant to cognitive processes, it accounts for a decreased respondent burden, and it can be applied to different educational contexts, all without sacrificing accuracy nor resolution (El Mawas & Heutte, 2019).

3.3 The Multi-variate Logistic Regression Model

Multi-variate LR is a ML technique adapted to our needs and constraints, namely:

- LR requires labelled data (the known target).
- Our ML target is binary (presence/absence) and LR is a binary classifier.
- Multi-variate LR admits classification with more than one independent variable, and we present four independent variables.
- LR is easily updatable if incoming data changes in shape (extra dimensions, e.g., additional measurement instruments) or quantity (number of participants).
- LR is a computational simpler ML model than other ML techniques while still adapted to our needs (e.g., does not require costly software nor specialized hardware).
- LR is easier to implement programmatically than other more complex ML techniques.

4 EXPERIMENT

This research work used data provided by R&D team from the MOOC “Gestion de Projet” (GdP, *Project Management*). In this section we briefly present the MOOC and its organisation to set up the dataset context. Then, we present the sample used: how it was collected, and its characteristics. Finally, we describe how we effectuated the experiment.

4.1 The MOOC “Gestion De Projet”

The MOOC GdP was launched in 2013 by the École d’Ingénieurs Centrale Lille. As of January 2022, this platform¹ had 292 855 enrolments, among which 49 344 students fully completed either the basic or the advanced tracks. Nowadays, half of the active learners enrol through their university, while the other half do so of their own will, with one of the best

¹ <https://mooc.gestiondeprojet.pm/>

completion rates in the francophone world (Chermann, 2020). While the MOOC can be inscribed within the École’s own cursus if students are enrolled by their professors, the subject interests professionals as well: special sessions dedicated to the enterprise world (Bachelet, 2019; Chermann, 2020).

The MOOC GdP has two sessions per year: 1st session spans the September – November period and the 2nd session comprises the March – May period (although precise dates vary each year). Each session is comprised of nine weeks plus an initial pre-opening week (that does not count to the week numbering). The number of participants validating the first half of the MOOC has been consistent and historically larger during the 1st session (> 110% increase) compared to the 2nd session (Bachelet, 2019). The MOOC unlocks pedagogical modules (or units) every week and it can be done at one’s own pace. However, in order to successfully complete it, participants should have finished at least the common branch by the end of the 9th week.

4.2 Sample

The R&D team from the MOOC “Gestion de Projet” allows for three distinct periods (P1, P2, and P3) for measurement instruments application. This allows for evolution observation, often required when applying consecutive psychometric measure instruments to the same individuals. Because of administrative reasons, these application periods cannot last longer than those shown in Table 1, and they are always the same for all sessions. Furthermore, besides our selected flow measure instruments, other psychometric instruments beyond the scope of this research work (chosen and managed by the R&D team from the MOOC “Gestion de Projet”) are applied jointly as well.

For the application of our selected flow measurement instruments and being limited to the application periods shown in Table 1, we chose to maximize the time to gather data over equal-lengths, smaller time data collection periods.

Table 1: Flow measure instruments application periods and data collected, for all sessions.

Period	Opening	Closure & Collection	Data collected
P1	Start of Week 0	End of Week 4	Demographics
P2	Start of Week 3	End of Week 4	Flow-Q, then EduFlow-2
P3	Start of Week 4	End of Week 11	Flow-Q, then EduFlow-2

We gathered the respondents’ data at each period’s closing date (shown in Table 1). Demographic data (sex, birth year, country of residence, occupation and highest academic degree obtained) were asked only during P1. Our flow measure instruments were asked during P2 and P3; with Flow-Q first and then EduFlow-2. For this study, all data was anonymized by removing any personal data and/or attributes (Ferreira Marques & Bernardino, 2020). Out of 9448 participants’ answers, our research work sample was finally constituted of 1589 trustworthy participants’ questionnaires self-reported answers ($n = 1589$).

Figure 5 shows a graphical representation of a typical session, all-respondents, zoomed-out CSV file, where coloured spaces represent data, and white spaces represent missing data (respondents skipping a question or respondent being absent). The three main vertical sections (red, green, violet) correspond to the three periods sets of measure instruments: we can clearly see a “dilution” of participants (MOOC dropping or participants skipping the questionnaires) from P1 (left, red) to P3 (right, violet).

We gathered data from four sessions, spanning two years of data collection (March 2020 – December 2021), for twelve weeks. We merged all four sessions, three period’s (P) data, into a single CSV file and calculated scores for each of our measure instruments (Flow-Q & EduFlow-2).



Figure 5: Graphical representation of one typical session, all-respondents CSV file, depicting P1 data (red), P2 data (green) and P3 data (violet); white is ‘missing data’.

One check question was placed in the middle of the EduFlow-2 measure instrument (not in the Flow-Q, being too short) to verify if participants read all the items, followed directives (*i.e.*, “Please, select 3 for this item”), and were not simply randomly answering. We completely discarded respondents who answered incorrectly to any of our two check questions, or if they chose multiple genders at once. After cleaning up the data, out of an original pool of 9448 participants we accounted for 1589 trustworthy participants’ questionnaires self-reported answers ($n = 1589$). That is, the scores for the Flow-Q (general

use, binary, dimension-agnostic) and EduFlow-2 (online educational context, 0-21 integers per dimension, 4-dimensional) measure instruments.

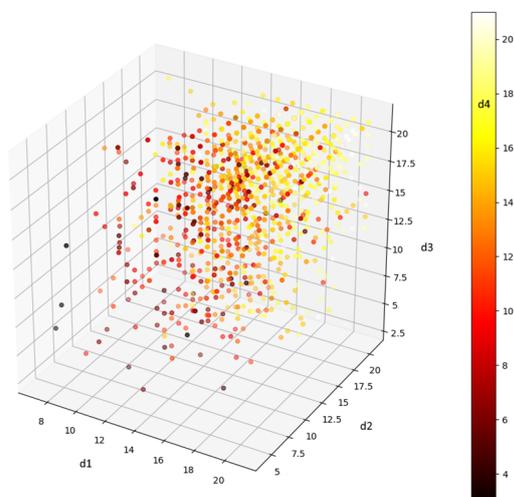


Figure 6: 3D scatterplot of the four EduFlow-2 dimensions' scores ($n = 1589$, 21-sided open cube, the 4th dimension is represented as a colour gradient).

Figure 6 shows a 3D scatterplot (in a 21 x 21 x 21 open cube) for the flow four-dimension scores (d_1 , d_2 , d_3 , d_4 , 0-21) collected by the EduFlow-2 instrument (the 4th dimension is represented as a colour gradient). This point cloud graphical representation aims to visualize the concentration shape of the 4-dimensional data resulting only from the EduFlow-2 measure instrument and thus, to make clear the difficulty of making sense out of raw data without advanced statistical techniques. It does not constitute in any way a data treatment result.

The Flow-Q instrument scores are binary and represent flow presence (1) or flow absence (0) and are not graphically shown here due to their simplicity.

The sample is comprised of francophone students and professionals attending the MOOC GdP. While most of them reside in France (~62%), we can also see a number logging in from Côte d'Ivoire (~6%), Cameroon (~5%), Senegal, Morocco, Benin, and Burkina Faso (~3% each). Other francophone countries complete the rest of the sample.

4.3 Multi-variate LR in the MOOC GdP

Multi-variate LR allows for our binary target (1 – presence, 0 – absence of flow) to be determined

by four independent variables: the four EduFlow-2 dimensions (d_1 , d_2 , d_3 , d_4 , represented as X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4 in the ML model).

All experiments were carried out using the sklearn² libraries in Python 3³. Available data was randomly divided into training and testing sets at a 70/30 ratio. We used a pipeline chaining the PolynomialFeatures and StandardScaler pre-processors to the LogisticRegression classifier. The PolynomialFeatures pre-processor was given a degree argument of 2. The LogisticRegression solver was left to the “lbfgs” default. Disk-caching of the pipeline was effectuated in a Joblib⁴ file.

We trained multiple instances of the ML LR model with the Flow-Q (Y) and EduFlow-2 scores (X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4) from the training set, which was randomly set up for each training. Testing was effectuated using the testing dataset ($m = 477$), randomly selected by the program each time as well. A 10-fold Cross Validation took place for each random instance training.

Among those trained ML LR models instances, this research works presents the results of the one with the highest Accuracy, Precision, and Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Area Under the Curve (AUC) scores (differences between other instances < 5%). The set of weight coefficients for the *logit* function constitutes the ML Flow-predicting model. This result is available by addressing the CIREL-Trigone laboratory.

5 RESULTS

The classification report of the resulting ML Flow-predicting model is shown in Table 2. All scores were rounded-up at the source. Accuracy is the proportion of the total numbers of predictions that are correct, Precision is the ratio between the total of correctly classified positives and the total of correctly and incorrectly classified positives (and the inverse), Recall (or Sensitivity) is the measure of positives correctly classified as positives (and the inverse), and the F1-Score is the weighted average of each of the Recall and Precision scores.

Scores for flow presence prediction are clearly higher than for the flow absence prediction (second and first rows respectively, of the Classification Report).

² <https://sklearn.org/>

³ <https://www.python.org/>

⁴ <https://joblib.readthedocs.io/>

Table 2: Classification Report for the ML Flow-predicting model.

	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Support
Flow absence	0.74	0.63	0.68	164
Flow presence	0.82	0.88	0.85	313
Accuracy			0.8	477
Macro avg.	0.78	0.76	0.77	477
Weighted avg.	0.79	0.80	0.79	477

The ROC curve of the resulting ML Flow-predicting model features an AUC of 0.85 (blue curve line), shown in Figure 7, compared to a hypothetical random classifier (straight, dotted red line).

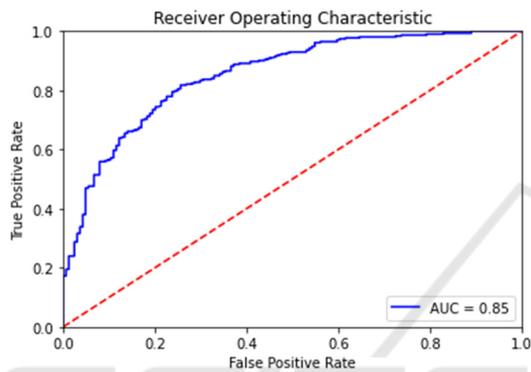


Figure 7: ROC curve (blue curve) of the ML Flow-predicting model (AUC = 0.85) versus a curve of a hypothetical random classifier (straight, dotted red line).

The resulting Confusion Matrix (Figure 8) shows a combined Accuracy of 0.797, with a larger proportion (57.86%) of correctly predicted cases in the True Positives cell, compared to the True Negatives cell. The ratio of False Positives and False Negatives remains under the 15% mark, individually.

In the 10-fold Cross Validation, means of metrics relevant to regression and classification (Accuracy, Precision, Jaccard, and F1) were calculated. These results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Means⁵ of applied metrics in the 10-fold Cross Validation.

Test	Mean	Description
Accuracy	0.78	Ratio of correctly predicted items.
Precision	0.80	Ability not to mislabel as positive a negative item.
Jaccard	0.72	Similarity between 2 sets.
F1	0.83	Harmonic mean of precision and recall.

⁵ Values closer to 1.0 point to a better model.

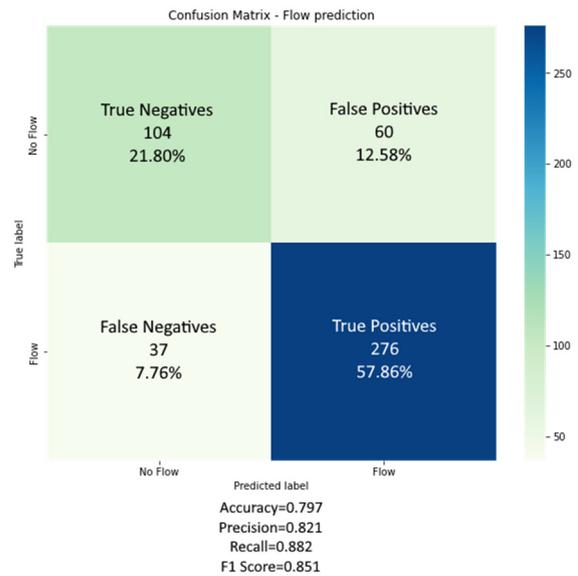


Figure 8: Confusion Matrix for the ML Flow-predicting model (Accuracy = 0.797, Precision = 0.821).

6 DISCUSSION

In this section we discuss the results and the conditions surrounding them when doing this study.

Our resulting ML Flow-predicting model predicts flow by applying only the EduFlow-2 measure instrument. That is, we created a ML model that successfully predicts flow via its composing dimensions, specifically in a learning, online context.

Our resulting ML Flow-predicting model features very acceptable metrics for a participant's self-reported-based ML model (> 0.8). Scores for flow presence prediction are clearly higher than for the flow absence prediction (first and second rows of Table 2).

We hypothesize that flow presence prediction is more accurate than flow absence prediction due to 1) the way the psychometric tests are drafted and 2) the nature of respondents.

Indeed, the Flow-Q measure instrument quotes situations where presence of flow is described, but it does not describe absence of flow. This alone might explain the noticeable skew of the resulting model towards detecting the presence of flow instead of its absence. In such a case, we (and the questionnaire's designers) assumed absence of flow as being the opposite of the presented text quote.

Furthermore, we consider that respondents might feel more inclined to answer the item positively if

they clearly identify with the item's text (Flow-Q asks to self-identify with described life experiences), but instead, respondents might feel more inclined to leave the question unanswered (blank) if they do not identify with it, instead of answering 'No' if they do not identify with it. We came to this conclusion because of how these types of participants behaved in other psychometric instruments (beyond the scope of this research work) and that were applied jointly. This is a minor remark of work left to be done on the length and writing style of the text quotes presented.

As previously mentioned, to improve model accuracy, we effectuated a very strict input sample clean up. One may argue that the ML model might automatically filter out outliers, but we did not want to take that risk. We noticed the removed participants tend to belong to the P2 periods (as P1 concerns demographics only). We think that, just like during normal MOOC dropout, participants more committed to the MOOC completion answer questionnaires more accurately, hence a larger proportion of P3 respondents ended up in the final sample (compared to P2).

Given the nature of our predictive target, better approaches can be employed to improve our resulting model's accuracy, such as grouping or clustering. We consider reviewing these methods in future research on the subject. Also, a larger training set can be useful when improving almost any ML model.

7 CONCLUSION & PERSPECTIVES

This research work provides a ML Flow-predicting model by pairing two flow measure and characterization instruments' scores results from a sample population $n = 1589$.

The resulting ML model computes an Accuracy of 0.797, a Precision of 0.821, a Recall of 0.882, and a F1-score of 0.851, making it a very acceptable model for flow prediction based on self-reported data. Our resulting model predicts flow presence better (57.86%) than flow absence (21.80%) likely due to the way the questionnaires are drafted and possibly to human nature as well.

Our resulting ML model can be easily implemented into existing MOOC's dashboards (a "Flow detection" section) to successfully predict flow by applying only the EduFlow-2 measure instrument: the calculations are almost instantaneous and do not require ML training. We believe this milestone to be of ultimate interest to our target public (MOOC

designers/providers, pedagogical engineers and researchers who meet difficulties to incorporate psychological states in MOOCs), given that the training (and evaluation) dataset is issued from a francophone MOOC.

This study is inscribed in the context of the "Optimal experience modelling" research project, conducted by the University of Lille. This research project (Ramírez Luelmo et al., 2020) aims to model and trace the flow psychological state alongside Knowledge Tracing, exclusively via behavioural data. That is, to successfully detect and predict flow in a MOOC in real-time, by using only the MOOC learner's logs traces (without the need to apply any instrument measurement) in a transparent and automatic fashion.

The current challenge is to incorporate the resulting ML Flow-predicting model into 1) the above-described project, comprising behavioural and knowledge aspects (log traces and student's knowledge), and 2) the existing MOOC GdP's Dashboard. The originality of such research lies in the use of live, behavioural, flow-labelled data issued from the francophone MOOC "Project Management".

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