Incorporating learning characteristics into automatic essay scoring models: What individual differences and linguistic features tell us about writing quality

Scott A. Crossley  
Georgia State University  
scrossley@gsu.edu

Laura K. Allen  
Arizona State University  
LauraKAllen@asu.edu

Erica L. Snow  
SRI International  
erica.snow@sri.com

Danielle S. McNamara  
Arizona State University  
dsmcnamara1@gmail.com

This study investigates a novel approach to automatically assessing essay quality that combines natural language processing approaches that assess text features with approaches that assess individual differences in writers such as demographic information, standardized test scores, and survey results. The results demonstrate that combining text features and individual differences increases the accuracy of automatically assigned essay scores over using either individual differences or text features alone. The findings presented here have important implications for writing educators because they reveal that essay scoring methods can benefit from the incorporation of features taken not only from the essay itself (e.g., features related to lexical and syntactic complexity), but also from the writer (e.g., vocabulary knowledge and writing attitudes). The findings have implications for educational data mining researchers because they demonstrate new natural language processing approaches that afford the automatic assessment of performance outcomes.

Key Words: Automated essay scoring; Natural Language Processing; Individual differences; Intelligent tutoring systems; Writing quality

1. INTRODUCTION

A principal aim of research in the Educational Data Mining (EDM) community is to apply advanced analytic tools and methods to educational data sets in order to better understand and adapt to students’ learning processes (Baker & Siemens, 2014; Baker & Yacef, 2009). Prior research in this area, for example, has revealed that information from large datasets can be used to infer how variation in students’ choice patterns relate to their performance outcomes (Beck, Chang, Mostow, & Corbett, 2008), how students’ learning and engagement changes over time (Bowers, 2010), and how the design and interface of a learning environment influences learning (Baker et al., 2009). The majority of this work relies on features calculated from the log data recorded in Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITSs) and Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs),

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such as video views, forum post reads, and assignment attempts (Baker & Siemens, 2014). Additional approaches to assessing student performance include the use of individual difference measures such as demographics, content knowledge, and literacy skills (DeBoer, Ho, Stump, & Breslow, 2014).

More recently, EDM researchers have begun to use text analysis tools to provide more specific information about the characteristics of students’ learning processes. For instance, Ezen-Can and Boyer (2015) used part of speech tagging along with raw word counts to automatically model dialog acts for student utterances in an online tutor. In a similar study, Samei, Rus, Nye, and Morrison (2015) classified dialog acts using token types and length of utterances. Text analysis tools have also been used to investigate success in MOOCs. For instance, Crossley and colleagues (2015) calculated natural language processing (NLP) indices for students’ forum posts to predict their MOOC success. They found that a number of linguistic features related to text quality, cohesion, sentiment, and the lexicon successfully predicted course completion. Similarly, Wen, Yang, and Rose (2014a, 2014b) used text analysis tools to examine the sentiment of MOOC forum posts and its relationship to students’ opinions toward the course and course tools. Wen and colleagues reported that students that used more motivation words and personal pronouns had a lower risk of dropping out of the course. Finally, one of the most common uses of text analysis tools is for the automated scoring of student writing samples in MOOCs (Jing, 2015; Liu et al., 2016) and ITSs (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2013).

In the current study, our focus is on the automatic assessment of writing samples in an online ITS using both individual difference measures and text analysis tools. The automatic assessment of writing quality has been an important component of standardized testing (e.g., the Graduate Record Exam; GRE, and the Test of English as a Foreign Language; TOEFL) and feedback delivery in computer-based writing instruction such as the Writing-Pal (W-Pal; McNamara, Raine et al., 2013; Roscoe, Allen, Weston, Crossley, & McNamara, 2014). Traditionally, automated essay scoring (AES) systems have focused on calculating text features of a particular essay to assess its quality. These features generally include linguistic elements related to word frequency, syntactic complexity, and cohesion along with discourse features related to text structure, theses, and topic sentences. AES systems have been quite successful at scoring essays, demonstrating strong correlations with human scores of essay quality. However, exact matches between raters and automatic scores have remained relatively low (between 30-60%).

One potential avenue for increasing the accuracy of AES systems is to consider the role of individual differences (e.g., demographic information, standardized test scores, and survey results) in statistical models of essay quality. While relatively common in EDM approaches, the use of individual differences as predictors in assessments of essay quality is rare and, to date, we have found no evidence of their inclusion in essay scoring models. Measuring individual differences in writer’s abilities (i.e., literacy skills, cognitive abilities, and affective states) has the potential to increase the sensitivity of AES algorithms by providing a means to go beyond the written word. If the inclusion of such predictors explains elements of essay quality beyond a text’s linguistic features, such an approach may help to alleviate concerns that typical AES scoring models fail to fully measure the writing construct (Deane, 2013).

The current study provides a proof of concept for the hypothesis that assessing individual differences in conjunction with linguistic and rhetorical elements of the text will increase the accuracy of automatic essay scoring. Consequently, the study combines two contrasting research lines relating to writing quality. On the one hand, some writing researchers have focused on the relation between individual differences and essay quality (Allen, Snow, Crossley, Jackson,
Figure 1: Overview of writing quality assessment incorporating individual differences and linguistic features.

These studies demonstrate that the production of higher quality essays is often associated with strong reading skills (Allen, Snow, Crossley et al., 2014; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991), vocabulary knowledge (Allen & McNamara, 2014; Allen, Snow, Crossley et al., 2014; Stæhr, 2008), flexibility (Allen, Snow, & McNamara, 2014; 2016), and writing-specific knowledge (Saddler & Graham, 2007). On the other hand, AES developers have tended to focus on how text features relate to essay quality (Applebee, Langer, Jenkins, Mullis, & Foertsch, 1990; Crossley, Roscoe, McNamara, & Graesser, 2011; Ferrari, Bouffard, & Rainville, 1998; McNamara et al., 2010; Varner, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2013; Witte & Faigley, 1981). These studies have found that writers who produce more complex linguistic features are more likely to compose higher quality essays. Such studies have not focused on writers’ prior skills or abilities; albeit because individual difference measures are either not available or are rarely collected in the context of AES systems. Theoretically, however, one would assume that individual differences in abilities such as reading skill, vocabulary, and domain knowledge will contribute to writing quality because a constellation of skills are brought to bear when a student composes an essay (Graham, 2006). At the same time, essay features are assumed to serve as proxies both to the quality of the essay (McNamara, Crossley, & Roscoe, 2013) and to individual differences (Crossley, Allen, & McNamara, 2014).

One potential problem with relying solely on linguistic features is that successful writing is likely not the product of specific linguistic features, but a combination of various features. That is to say, writers have a number of different approaches to combining linguistic features in order to produce a successful essay. For instance, writers may take a purely academic approach to writing and use a greater number of linguistic features related to nominalizations, syntactic complexity, and lexical sophistication. On the other hand, writers may make their writing more accessible by producing more cohesive essays that contain greater lexical and semantic overlap between text segments, more causal verbs and particles, and more connectives (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2014). Both approaches can lead to essays that are scored as higher quality, calling into question the idea that a single combination of specific linguistic features can reliably assess essay quality for all writers. However, it may be the case that individual differences found among writers may help to account for differences in the production of linguistic features and how these features lead to assessments of writing quality. Thus, in this study, we assume that individual differences in writers can provide information that goes beyond text features about how human judgments of essay quality are derived (as illustrated in Figure 1).

We examine this hypothesis in the context of the Writing Pal (W-Pal) tutoring system. W-Pal includes both explicit writing strategy instruction as well as essay writing practice and auto-
mated feedback. Our overarching objective in this study is to enhance the accuracy of feedback within W-Pal. For this study, we use natural language processing tools to calculate linguistic and rhetorical features of essays composed by students interacting with W-Pal. We also collected individual difference measures from these students (i.e., demographic information, prior knowledge, literacy skills). The linguistic features and/or the individual differences for the writers were then included in a series of regression analyses to examine the extent to which they predicted essay quality (as scored by trained, expert raters). Our goal is to investigate the potential to use individual differences to predict essay quality and to examine the extent to which a combination of text features and individual differences increases accuracy in these scoring models. Such findings may afford additional avenues to automatically assess essay quality and provide new data mining approaches that can be used in tutoring systems, standardized writing assessments, and massive open on-line courses (MOOCs) to more accurately model writing proficiency.

1.1. THE WRITING PAL

W-Pal is an intelligent tutoring system designed to provide writing strategy instruction to high school and entering college students (McNamara et al., 2013; Roscoe et al., 2014). Unlike AES systems, which focus on essay practice and sometimes provide support and instruction in the form of feedback (traditionally referred to as automatic writing evaluation, AWE, systems), W-Pal emphasizes strategy instruction first, followed by targeted strategy practice and then whole-essay practice.

W-Pal provides instruction on writing strategies that cover three phases of the writing process: prewriting, drafting, and revising. Each of the writing phases is further subdivided into instructional modules. These modules include Freewriting and Planning (prewriting); Introduction Building, Body Building, and Conclusion Building (drafting); and Paraphrasing, Cohesion Building, and Revising (revising). An important component of W-Pal, and one that separates it from many AES and AWE systems and other writing ITSs such as e-rater (Burstein, 2003; Burstein, Chodorow, & Leacock, 2004) and IntelliMetric (Rudner, Garcia, & Welch, 2006), is that W-Pal incorporates game-based practice. These games target specific strategies involved in the writing processes presented above (e.g., freewriting, cohesion building, paraphrasing) and provide students with opportunities to practice the strategies in isolation before moving on to practicing them during the composition of an entire essay. Thus, the purpose of the games is to provide manageable sub-goals that postpone the need to simultaneously coordinate the multiple tasks required during the writing process (Allen, Crossley, Snow, & McNamara, 2014). In W-Pal, students first view lessons on each strategy, then play practice games, and finally write practice essays for each of the modules. Essay writing is, thus, an essential component of W-Pal. The system allows students to compose essays, and then, using an AWE system, provides automated summative (i.e., holistic scores) and formative feedback (i.e., actionable, strategy-based feedback focused on how to improve an essay) to the users based upon their natural language input. This feedback and the teaching and use of strategies are the primary components of the W-Pal system. Because of the central importance of providing accurate summative feedback to users in the W-Pal system, there is a strong need to develop and test new approaches for automatically assessing writing quality.
1.2. **Text Features and Automatic Writing Evaluation Systems**

The traditional approach to automatically assessing writing quality has been through the use of text features. Such features are calculated using computational applications such as part-of-speech taggers and syntactic parsers. Such applications are often aggregated into tools that can measure a number of linguistic features automatically. Common tools used in the past to examine essay quality include the Biber tagger (Biber, 1988, 1995), STYLEFILES (Reid, 1992), Coh-Metrix (McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2104), and the Writing Assessment Tool (WAT; Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2013; McNamara et al., 2013). For instance, the Biber Tagger can automatically calculate features related to lexical sophistication (e.g., type/token ratio and word length), cohesion and rhetorical features (e.g. conjuncts, hedges, amplifiers, and emphatics), grammatical features (e.g. nouns, verbs, nominalizations, and modals), and clause-level features (e.g. subordinations, complementation, and passives). Coh-Metrix calculates a number of text-based linguistic features related to lexical sophistication (word frequency, word concreteness, word familiarity, polysemy, hypernymy), syntactic complexity (incidence of infinitives, phrase length, number of words before the main verb), and cohesion (word overlap, semantic similarity, incidence of connectives). WAT, in addition to reporting the above-mentioned Coh-Metrix and Biber Tagger features, measures n-gram frequency, rhetorical features, as well as additional measures of global cohesion and lexical and syntactic complexity.

Text features such as those discussed above can be used to develop AES and AWE systems. These systems use a number of linguistic features to automatically score a student’s essay. The systems are important because they can provide opportunities for students to practice writing and receive automatic feedback on the quality of the writing. AES systems can also be used in standardized testing situations such as the TOEFL or the GRE (Dikli, 2006). In standardized tests such as these, AES systems reduce the demands and complications often associated with human writing assessment, such as time, cost, and reliability (Bereiter, 2003).

AWE systems that provide opportunities for students to write and receive feedback (e.g., CRITERION (Attali & Burstein, 2006; Burstein et al., 2004) and MYACCESS (Grimes & Warschauer, 2010; Rudner et al., 2006), as well as AWE systems that are embedded in intelligent tutoring systems, rely primarily on statistical modeling of human judgments of essay quality. In these systems, expert raters score a corpus of essays in order to assign a holistic score of quality to each essay. Essays are then automatically analyzed using a number of text features such as those discussed earlier (i.e., text features related to lexical sophistication, syntactic complexity, cohesion, and rhetorical features). These features are then used in statistical analyses to examine what features discriminate between higher and lower-quality essays. Once these features are selected, weighted statistical models combine the extracted linguistic properties into algorithms that assign grades to student essays, providing overall summative feedback. For instance, the generic version of E-rater, an AES system developed and employed by Educational Testing Service, scores writing samples based on seven linguistic and rhetorical features of writing. Of these seven features, two rhetorical features, related to the presence and length of discourse units, account for 61% of the assigned essay score. The five other features, related to more strictly linguistic elements such as grammar, syntax, and lexis, account for 39% of the assigned essay score (Enright & Quinlan, 2010). These and similar features are used in CRITERION to provide formative feedback to writers about the syntax, lexical choices, grammar and spelling errors, and use of discourse markers found in writing samples. The AWE system in W-Pal assesses essay quality using a combination of computational linguistics and statistical modeling.
However, unlike traditional scoring methods that rely on linear multiple regression models between text features and scores, the AWE in W-Pal uses hierarchical classification (McNamara, Crossley, Roscoe, Allen, & Dai, 2015). This hierarchical modeling provides opportunities to give users summative and formative feedback at different conceptual levels on a variety of linguistic and rhetorical features (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2013). For instance, for shorter essays, differences in scoring are related to the use of more sophisticated nominals and grammar (e.g., nominalizations, plural nouns, sentence relative clauses, commas), higher cohesion (lexical diversity, paragraph-to-paragraph) and the absence of specific topics such as social processes and religion. For longer essays, scores are based on some similar indices such as nominalizations and sentence relative clauses, but the algorithm also includes indices more reflective of the semantic content of the essay (e.g., lower bigram frequency, more frequent use of amplifiers and adjectives) and the use of more sophisticated verbs (i.e., less frequent use of public verbs, private verbs, verbs in base form, and auxiliary verbs).

In general, the aforementioned AES and AWE systems are able to provide accurate and reliable holistic essay scores. These scores show correlations with human judgments of essay quality that range between .60 and .85. The scores from AES and AWE systems also report perfect agreement (i.e., exact matches between a human score and a score provided by the scoring system) from 30-60% and adjacent agreement (i.e., scores reported by the scoring system that are 1 point above or below the score provided by the human rater) from 85-99% (Attali & Burstein, 2006; McNamara, Crossley, & Roscoe, 2013; Rudner et al., 2006; Warschauer & Ware, 2006).

Although AES systems show strong correlations and accuracy, some critics argue that the systems are impersonal, lack human sensitivity, and cannot respond to elements of writing quality that fall outside of the available algorithms (Hearst, 2002). Specifically, educators and researchers are concerned that AES and AWE systems cannot address issues of argumentation and rhetorical effectiveness, both hallmarks of quality writing (Deane, 2013; Haswell, 2006; Perelman, 2012). In addition, accurate scoring on the part of AES and AWE systems does not appear to strongly relate to instructional efficacy, with studies suggesting that students who use AES systems improve in writing mechanics but not overall essay quality (Attali & Burstein, 2006). Finally, while AWE systems can facilitate writing practice and improve motivation, some AWE users are skeptical about their scoring reliability and researchers worry about the potential for AWE systems to overlook infrequent writing problems that, while rare, may be frequent to an individual writer (Grimes & Warschauer, 2010). In fact, the Conference on College Composition and Communications, the largest writing conference in North America, published a position paper that categorically opposed the use of AES systems in writing assessment (College Board, 2011).

Many of the concerns expressed by critics of AES and AWE systems are valid. Their concerns, however, can also be seen as providing a pathway toward improving the systems and not a sound denouncement of the current systems overall. One area of research that is providing interesting developments that may help address some of the concerns expressed by critics (i.e., the impersonal nature of the systems) is the inclusion of individual differences to predict essay quality.
1.3. **INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND AUTOMATIC WRITING EVALUATION SYSTEMS**

One approach to improving not only the accuracy of AWE systems but also their underlying validity is the inclusion of student information in scoring algorithms. Because one of the common critiques of AES systems is the failure to measure the full writing construct (Deane, 2013), the addition of individual difference information (e.g., literacy skills, cognitive abilities, affective states, etc.) to algorithms may increase the sensitivity of the algorithms to the more general context of the writing assignment. This contextualization of writing assessment is important, particularly if systems aim to provide adaptive instruction and formative feedback to students on an individual basis.

Recently, this potential link between individual differences among students and automated text features has begun to be empirically explored (Allen & McNamara, 2015; Attali & Powers, 2008; Roscoe, Crossley, Snow, Varner, & McNamara, 2014). Roscoe et al. (2014), for instance, examined whether the essay scores from an AWE system correlated with individual differences in students’ literacy skills and prior knowledge (e.g., Gates-MacGinitie Reading and Vocabulary tests, prior world knowledge, etc.). Results from this study indicated that the computational algorithms were significantly related to a number of the individual differences among students, though human raters were more sensitive to the literacy and knowledge-based measures. Attali and Powers (2008) also examined relationships between automatically scored essays and individual differences (grade level, gender, race, first language, and years of schooling in English). They found essay scores increased as grade level increased. Demographically, they reported that females scored higher than males (although there was a small negative interaction with grade level for females) and that White and Asian students scored better than non-White students (although there was a negative interaction with grade level for Asian students). In addition, they reported no difference between native and non-native speakers of English on essay scoring, but they did report gains in essay scores for the number of years of English schooling.

Similarly, Allen et al. (2015) investigated relations between students’ vocabulary knowledge and the lexical characteristics of their writing. Results suggested that the word-level properties of students’ essays were significantly predictive of students’ vocabulary knowledge, and that this model generalized to a separate set of students’ essays. Overall, the analysis confirmed that automated text analysis tools successfully detected and provided important information about the role of individual differences in students’ writing processes.

1.4. **CURRENT STUDY**

The goal of current study is to provide a *proof of concept* for the hypothesis that individual differences among writers (i.e., demographic information, standardized test scores, and survey results) and text features in essays can be combined to predict the quality of persuasive essays written in the context of W-Pal. Such an approach is rare and has the potential to assist in providing more accurate summative feedback to students who use AES systems (and other tutoring systems). We conduct three analyses in this study to examine our hypothesis. The first analysis examines the potential for individual differences alone to predict essay quality. We follow that with an analysis of text features and their ability to predict essay quality alone. We lastly conduct a combined analysis that examines the potential for a combination of individual differences and text features to predict essay quality. In such a way, we are able to assess how individual groups of features are predictive of essay quality and compare these results to the results of using a combined feature set.
2. METHOD

2.1. PARTICIPANTS

For this study, we recruited 86 students from public high schools in the metro Phoenix area. Students’ average age was 15.6 years, with an average grade level of 10.4. Of the 86 participants, 62.1% were female and 37.9% were male. Thirty-eight of the participants self-identified as English Language Learners (ELLs). The remaining participants self-identified as native speakers of English (NS).

2.2. PROCEDURES

Students attended 10 sessions (1 session/day) over a 2-4 week period. Participants wrote a pretest essay during the first session and a posttest essay during the last session. In addition, the first and final sessions included assessments of reading comprehension, vocabulary, writing proficiency, strategy knowledge, and writing attitudes (discussed below). For this study, we used only the pretest essays and individual difference measures collected from the students (N = 86).

2.3. ESSAY SCORING

Each essay in the corpus was scored independently by two expert raters using a 6-point rating scale developed for the SAT (see Appendix 1 for scoring rubric). The ratings were anonymous in that the raters had no access to information pertaining to the students’ individual differences. The rating scale was used to holistically assess the quality of the essays and had a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 6. Raters were first trained to use the rubric with a small sample of argumentative essays that were not part of the corpus analyzed in this study. A Pearson correlation analysis was used to assess inter-rater reliability between raters. When the raters reached a correlation of $r = .70$, the ratings were considered reliable and the raters scored the essays in the corpus. The final inter-rater reliability across all raters for all the essays used in the analysis was $r > .70$. Average scores between the raters were calculated for each essay.

2.3.1. Individual differences

**Demographic information.** Students’ demographic information was collected at pretest. The demographic survey asked students to report basic information, such as their age, gender, grade point average, first language status, as well as their perceptions towards reading and writing. Additionally, the demographic survey assessed students’ performance orientation, as well as their comfort and excitement towards using computers.

**Reading comprehension.** Students’ reading comprehension ability was assessed through the Gates-MacGinitie (4th ed.) reading skill test (form S) level 10/12 (MacGinitie & MacGinitie, 1989). The test consisted of 48 multiple-choice questions that measured students’ ability to comprehend both shallow and deep level information across 11 short passages. In the current study, students’ comprehension scores on this test ranged from 10 to 45 (M=24.59, SD=8.91).

**Vocabulary knowledge.** Students’ vocabulary knowledge was measured through the use of the Gates-MacGinitie (4th ed.) test (form S) level 10/12 (MacGinitie & MacGinitie, 1989). This test assessed vocabulary skill by showing students 45 sentences or phrases that each contained an underlined vocabulary word and asking the students to select a word from a list of 5 that
is most closely related to the underlined word. In the vocabulary portion of this experiment, students’ scores ranged from 6 to 45 ($M=26.63$, $SD=8.89$).

**Writing apprehension.** Students’ apprehension toward writing was measured with the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (WAT; Daly & Miller, 1975). The Daly-Miller WAT assesses an individual’s level of apprehension toward writing. This assessment includes items related to evaluation apprehension (fear of evaluation), stress apprehension (general fear of writing manifesting early in the writing process), and product apprehension (fear of writing manifesting as a general disdain for writing).

**Prior knowledge.** Prior knowledge was measured with a 30-question assessment that was designed for high school students. It has been previously used in research related to strategy training and reading comprehension (O’Reilly, Best, & McNamara, 2004; O’Reilly & McNamara, 2007). This measure assesses knowledge in the domains of science, literature, and history.

**WASSI.** The Writing Attitudes and Strategies Self-Report Inventory (WASSI) is a self-report measure that was administered to test students’ writing attitudes and strategy use. Students respond to statements about themselves by indicating their level of agreement on a 6-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The WASSI comprises four different subscales (prewriting, drafting, attitudes, and self-efficacy) each targeting a different aspect important to writing performance.

### 2.4. Text Features

Linguistic features from the text were computed using Coh-Metrix and the Writing Assessment Tool (WAT). These features are discussed briefly below. More detailed descriptions for the tools and the features on which they report can be found in (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2014; McNamara et al., 2013; McNamara et al., 2014).

**Coh-Metrix.** Coh-Metrix represents the state of the art in computational tools and is able to measure text difficulty, text structure, and cohesion through the integration of lexicons, pattern classifiers, part-of-speech taggers, syntactic parsers, shallow semantic interpreters, and other components that have been developed within the field of computational linguistics. Coh-Metrix reports on linguistic variables that are primarily related to text difficulty. These variables include indices of causality, cohesion (semantic and lexical overlap, lexical diversity, along with incidence of connectives), part of speech and phrase tags (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives), basic text measures (e.g., text, sentence, paragraph length), lexical sophistication (e.g., word frequency, familiarity, imageability, familiarity, hypernymy, concreteness), and syntactic complexity (e.g., words before the main verb, noun phrase length, and incidence of infinitives). These Coh-Metrix indices have been used successfully in a number of studies that focus on predicting essay quality (Crossley et al., 2014; McNamara, Crossley et al., 2013; McNamara et al., 2014). For additional information about the types of indices calculated by Coh-Metrix and how the calculations are made, we refer the reader to (McNamara et al., 2014).

**WAT.** WAT computes linguistic features specifically developed to assess student writing. These features include indices related to global cohesion, topic development, n-gram accuracy, lexical sophistication, key word use, and rhetorical features. Cohesion features include LSA measures between paragraph types (introduction, body, and conclusion paragraphs) and LSA measures of relevance. N-gram accuracy features include indices related to n-gram frequency, n-gram proportion, and correlations between expect and actual n-gram use (at the level of bi-grams and tri-grams calculated on written and spoken corpora). Rhetorical features include indices
such as hedges, conjunctions, amplifiers, and conclusion statements. The features reported by WAT have been used in a number of studies that have successfully investigated links between essay quality and text features (Crossley et al., 2013; 2014; McNamara, Crossley, et al., 2013). For additional information about the types of indices calculated by WAT and how the calculations are made, we refer the reader to (McNamara, Crossley, et al., 2013).

2.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Prior to analysis, training and test sets were created from the corpus. The training sets were comprised of approximately 67% of the essays while the test sets were comprised of approximately 33% of the essays. Correlational analyses using the training data were conducted to examine the strength of relations between the selected indices and the human essay scores for those indices that were normally distributed. If an index demonstrated a significant correlation, it was considered for the analysis. Multicollinearity was then assessed between the indices ($r > .90$). When two or more indices demonstrated multicollinearity, we retained the index that correlated more strongly with the essay scores. Three stepwise regression analyses were then calculated to address our research questions (i.e., Can text features, individual differences, and both text features and individual differences predict essay quality?). Exact and adjacent accuracy are reported for the scores calculated by the resulting regression models. Exact matches demonstrate perfect agreement between human and automated scores while adjacent agreement occur when human and automated scores are within one point of each other.

3. RESULTS

3.1. CORRELATIONS AND NORMALITY CHECKS

Of the 292 selected features, 72 of the features demonstrated significant correlations with the essay scores. Of these 72 variables, 11 of the variables demonstrated multicollinearity with other variables that correlated more strongly with the essay quality scores. These 11 variables were removed. Of the remaining 61 variables, 25 of the variables were not normally distributed and were removed. This trimming of the variables left us with 36 features with which to predict essay quality. Of these 36 variables, 30 were text features and 6 were individual differences including 2 standardized test scores and 5 variables from survey answers (see Table 1 for correlations).

3.2. MULTIPLE REGRESSION: INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

3.2.1. Regression Analysis Training Set.

The linear regression using the selected variables yielded a significant model, $F(1, 50) = 12.868, p < .001, r = .451, r^2 = .203$. One variable was a significant predictor in the regression: Gates-MacGinitie reading test scores (GMRT). The remaining variables were not significant predictors and were not included in the model. The regression model is presented in Table 2. The results from the linear regression demonstrate that the one variable accounts for 20% of the variance in the human judgments of writing quality.

3.2.2. Regression Analysis Test Set.

To support the results from the multiple regression analysis, we used the B weights and the constant from the training set multiple regression analysis to assess the model on an independent
Table 1: Correlations between NLP indices and essay scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bigram frequency (spoken)</td>
<td>-0.596</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word types</td>
<td>0.567</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gates MacGinitie Reading Test (Reading)</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key type counts</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gates MacGinitie Reading Test (Vocabulary)</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of paragraphs</td>
<td>0.396</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of past perfect</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA paragraph to paragraph similarity</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word concreteness</td>
<td>-0.375</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word familiarity</td>
<td>-0.366</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of preposition (to)</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bigram accuracy (written)</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type token ratio (all words)</td>
<td>-0.309</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of commas</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior knowledge (overall)</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word frequency (all words)</td>
<td>-0.297</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of connectives</td>
<td>-0.297</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of present tense</td>
<td>-0.297</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb incidence</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of infinitives</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of logical connectives</td>
<td>-0.281</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vague nouns</td>
<td>-0.270</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior knowledge (literature)</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior knowledge (history)</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type token ratio (content words)</td>
<td>-0.240</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic complexity</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical density</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of coordinating conjunctions</td>
<td>-0.233</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun hyponymy</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of embedded clauses</td>
<td>-0.229</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade point average</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argument overlap sentence to sentence</td>
<td>-0.225</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word frequency (content words)</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bigram accuracy (spoken)</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: LSA = Latent Semantic Analysis
Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Variable Added/Removed</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$B$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry 1</td>
<td>Gates MacGinitie Reading Test (Reading)</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.451</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Estimated Constant Term is 2.074; $B$ is unstandardized Beta; SE is standard error; $B$ is standardized Beta

Table 3: Linear regression results for text features only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Variable Added/Removed</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$B$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry 1</td>
<td>Frequency spoken bigrams</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>-88.606</td>
<td>12.614</td>
<td>-0.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry 2</td>
<td>Word concreteness</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>-0.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry 3</td>
<td>Incidence of coordinating conjunctions</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>-0.230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Estimated Constant Term is 6.683; $B$ is unstandardized Beta; SE is standard error; $B$ is standardized Beta

data set. The model produced an estimated value for each essay in the test set. A Pearson correlation was then conducted between the estimated scores and the actual scores. This correlation along with its $r^2$ was then used to demonstrate the strength of the model on an independent data set. The model for the test set yielded $r = .469$, $r^2 = .220$. The results from the test set model demonstrate that the one variable accounted for 22% of the variance in the evaluation of the essays comprising the test set.

3.2.3. Exact and Adjacent Matches.

The regression model produced exact matches between the predicted essay scores and the human scores for 48 of the 86 essays (56% exact accuracy). The model produced adjacent matches for 85 of the 86 essays (99% adjacent accuracy).

3.3. Multiple Regression: Text Features

Regression Analysis Training Set. The linear regression using the selected variables yielded a significant model, $F(3, 64) = 25.005$, $p < .001$, $r = .743$, $r^2 = .552$. Three variables were significant predictors in the regression: frequency of spoken bi-grams, word concreteness, and the incidence of coordinating conjunctions. The remaining variables were not significant predictors and were not included in the model. The regression model is presented in Table 3. The results from the linear regression demonstrate that the combination of the three variables accounted for 55% of the variance in the human judgments of writing quality.

Regression Analysis Test Set. The model for the test set yielded $r = .674$, $r^2 = .454$. The results from the test set model demonstrate that the combination of the three variables accounted for 45% of the variance in the evaluation of the essays comprising the test set.

Exact and Adjacent Matches. The regression model produced exact matches between the predicted essay scores and the human scores for 57 of the 86 essays (66% exact accuracy). The model produced adjacent matches for 85 of the 86 essays (99% adjacent accuracy).
Table 4: Linear regression results for individual differences and text features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Variable Added/Removed</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$B$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry 1</td>
<td>Frequency spoken bigrams</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>-83.383</td>
<td>12.451</td>
<td>-0.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry 2</td>
<td>Word concreteness</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>-0.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry 3</td>
<td>Incidence of coordinating conjunctions</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry 4</td>
<td>Gates MacGinitie Reading Test (Reading)</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Estimated Constant Term is 5.701; $B$ is unstandardized Beta; SE is standard error; $B$ is standardized Beta

Table 5: Fisher $r$-z transformation results between models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>$z$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual differences &lt; Text features</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>&lt; .050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual differences &lt; Combined</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>&lt; .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined = Text features</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>&gt; .050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4. Multiple Regression: Combined Features

Regression Analysis Training Set. The linear regression using the selected variables yielded a significant model, $F(4, 64) = 21.195$, $p < .001$, $r = .765$, $r^2 = .586$. Four variables were significant predictors in the regression: frequency of spoken bi-grams, word concreteness, the incidence of coordinating conjunctions, and Gates-MacGinitie reading test scores (GMRT). The remaining variables were not significant predictors and were not included in the model. The regression model is presented in Table 4. The results from the linear regression demonstrate that the combination of the 4 variables accounts for 59% of the variance in the human judgments of writing quality.

Regression Analysis Test Set. The model for the test set yielded $r = .723$, $r^2 = .523$. The results from the test set model demonstrate that the combination of the four variables accounted for 52% of the variance in the evaluation of the essays comprising the test set.

Exact and Adjacent Matches. The regression model produced exact matches between the predicted essay scores and the human scores for 58 of the 85 essays (68% exact accuracy). The model produced adjacent matches for 85 of the 86 essays (99% adjacent accuracy).

3.5. Comparisons between Regression Models

Regression Analysis Training Set. We used Fisher $r$-to-$z$ transformation to assess the significance of the differences between the correlations reported for each regression model (i.e., the individual differences model, the text feature model, and the combined model). The $z$ transformations demonstrated that both the text feature regression model and the combined regression model were significantly different than the individual differences regression model. No differences were reported between the text feature model and the combined model (see Table 5 for details).
We have investigated the potential for individual differences alone, and in combination with text features, to predict essay quality in a small sample of persuasive essays. The findings demonstrate that individual differences can be used to predict the quality of essays written in the W-Pal system, but not as strongly as text features or a combination of text features and individual differences. This study is representative of a burgeoning area of EDM research – namely, the use of NLP tools in text analysis. More importantly, this study provides a proof of concept for the combination of NLP variables with more traditional variables commonly used in EDM research (i.e., individual differences). In addition, it provides evidence that these tools can be used in the context of a specific domain that is of interest to many educational researchers -- student writing.

Specifically, we compared individual differences, text features, and the combination of the two in predicting writing quality in a (relatively) small sample of persuasive essays. The findings demonstrate that individual differences can be used to predict essay quality, but not as strongly as text features or a combination of text features and individual differences. The combination of individual differences with text features marginally increased the amount of variance explained in the regression model (i.e., test set $r^2 = .52$ vs. $r^2 = .45$) and the exact and adjacent matches in essays scored using the model. While these gains are relatively small, they are nevertheless important because increases in the accuracy of scoring models promotes increased confidence in feedback provided to students and in the confidence of the system in general. In turn, such improvements have the potential to increase learning gains (Grimes & Warschauer, 2010). In addition to increasing the accuracy of the score, the inclusion of individual differences in scoring models opens up new avenues for improving the personalization of the scoring models. Specifically, the use of personalized data could allow tutoring and AES/AWE systems to provide more effective feedback to students. By incorporating student information into essay scoring models, the formative feedback in these writing systems could focus on the needs of the individual students rather than on individual essays. Additionally, the use of this student data may allow automated writing systems to adapt lessons to users based on their writing performance and individual characteristics.

The individual difference model explained 20% to 22% of the variance in the human scores (in both the training and test models). The correlations reported for this model are lower than reported for a number of AES systems that rely on text features alone (usually around .60 to .85; Attali & Burstein, 2006; McNamara, Crossley et al., 2013; Rudner et al., 2006; Warschauer & Ware, 2006) and lower than those reported for the text features model and the combined model. However, the exact and adjacent matches reported for the model were relatively strong and in the expected range with exact matches at 56% and adjacent matches at 99%. The models demonstrate that the strongest individual difference predictor of essay quality is students’ reading scores. In this case, positive correlations with essay quality were reported indicating that students with greater reading skills produced more successful essays, aligning with individual difference studies that show moderate to strong correlations ($r$ .30 to .50) between reading and writing (Tierney & Shanahan, 1991)

The models using only text features were equivalent to previously reported models and stronger than those using individual differences alone. This finding is not unexpected because text features should have a stronger effect on human judgments of essay quality in blind judgments (i.e., where the human raters are unaware of who the writer is). As expected, there was also an increase in the exact matches (an 11% increase) over the individual difference model.
The model demonstrated that higher quality writing used less frequent bigrams, less concrete words, and fewer coordinating conjunctions. Thus, higher quality writing can be marked by more sophisticated lexical choices and fewer markers of local cohesion. Similar findings have been reported in previous studies (Crossley et al., 2014; McNamara, Crossley et al., 2013).

Our combined model reported the highest overall correlations and the strongest exact matches. Statistically, the model was stronger than the individual difference model, but equivalent to the text features model. The model included indices related to both individual differences and text features, providing evidence that a combination of both features can lead to gains in scoring accuracy (as hypothesized). The model reported was well within the expected accuracy range as found in previous published models and reported an exact accuracy that was higher than previous models. There was an increase in exact matches of 13% when compared to the individual differences model and an increase in exact matches of 2% when compared to the text features model. Textually, the model loaded the same indices as the text feature model (less frequent bigrams, less concrete words, and fewer coordinating conjunctions). From an individual difference perspective, higher quality essays were written by students with greater reading skills (Allen Snow, Crossley, et al., 2014; Stæhr, 2008). The results from the combined analysis demonstrate that both student and text features can act in unison to provide more accurate essay scores for students who use the W-Pal system.

The inclusion of both individual differences and text features could help improve feedback mechanisms and increase the validity of the W-Pal AES system. Improved feedback that is both more accurate and personalized could benefit W-Pal users, both in terms of their overall writing performance and their effective use of writing strategies. The feedback reported in this study is summative (i.e., a single score of overall writing), but we envision that similar feedback models could be developed at the formative level to provide specific feedback to students on introduction, body, and conclusion quality, overall essay cohesion, and paraphrasing quality. In addition, models that include both text features and individual differences could be used to assess discourse elements of texts (e.g., thesis statements and strength of arguments) as well as more traditional features such as grammar and spelling accuracy. These models may rely on a greater number of individual differences than the single individual difference that loaded into the current model, providing AWE systems with greater construct validation.

In general, the reported models show how groups of features can act both independently and dependently to assess essay quality. The results indicate that text features can increase the exact agreement for models above the use of individual differences and that a combination of the two features provides the strongest exact matches. We do not see improvements in the adjacent matches but note that an adjacent accuracy of 99%, as reported in the models, is quite strong and leaves little room for improvement. However, adjacent accuracy does not allow for precise feedback as compared to that found with exact accuracy, so there is a need to continue to improve models in terms of exact matches.

Such improvement would likely come from the inclusion of additional text features and individual differences. From a text-based perspective, the models discussed above did not include indices related to specific discourse units. Such discourse units would include the presence and the strength of items such as thesis statements, arguments, topic sentences, and supporting evidence. Indices that measure these elements are in the process of development and will be added to WAT in the near future. Similarly, the current version of WAT does not calculate indices related to grammatical and mechanical (i.e., spelling and punctuation) accuracy. These indices (also under development) may add to the ability of the W-Pal AES system to more accurately
assign scores to essays.

More importantly, there are a number of individual differences that were not included in the current algorithm that could be collected in future studies. These could include simple survey questions related to writing strategy use, socio-economic status, future educational plans, amount of writing or reading completed at home or in the students’ free time, and specific grades in specific classes (to name but a few) to cognitive data such as working memory scores. Standardized test scores related to writing ability, math skills, and content knowledge could also be included in the models. Some of the variables investigated in this study may be problematic as well. For example, if a variable like gender were included in a regression model, it might bias a model toward one gender (although gender did not show a significant correlation with essay score in this study). In addition, because the essay was collected prior to engaging with W-Pal, the current models do not take into consideration sequential information such as the students’ score on a prior essay or the students’ scores on the games and quizzes included in each W-Pal writing module. Such scores could be used to provide an updated model of the students’ current knowledge and help improve overall scoring accuracy. Lastly, the model reported in this analysis takes a linear approach to essay scoring. Other approaches including a hierarchical approach or a clustering approach might also lead to improved results.

5. Conclusion

Overall, the findings from this study provide evidence for the use of both text features and individual differences in conjunction to improve automatic essay scoring within an intelligent tutoring system. The results also give an indication of which features are most predictive of writing quality, providing a snapshot of how text features affect human judgments of writing quality and how individual differences relate to writing success. These findings have important implications for both educators and EDM researchers because they reveal that essay scoring approaches may benefit from incorporating measures not only about the essay itself, but also about the writer. The inclusion of such indices have the potential to improve the accuracy of the scores assigned to essays in a computerized writing intervention, as well as increase the validity and the personal nature of the feedback provided to students on their writing. Importantly, the study provides additional evidence that text features can be used to flesh out learning patterns within educational data sets and provides support for using NLP tools in EDM research. This is especially important considering that the text features reported in this study are automatically calculated and the individual differences discussed here are not difficult to collect in the sense that they can be compiled automatically using simple survey techniques. The simplicity of collecting these measures makes the effort to include them in current scoring models quite straightforward.

This study is designed to provide a proof of concept. Future studies will need to sample a larger population of writers to ensure the generalization of the models reported in this study. Future studies would also benefit by including additional text features and individual differences, writing samples written outside of a tutoring system, writing samples that are based on other genres such as integrated writing or content-based writing, and writing samples found in educational technologies beyond ITSs, such as online tutors and MOOCs. We expect that such studies can support the use of individual differences to increase the accuracy of automatic feedback given to users in intelligent tutoring systems. Such feedback would likely increase writing gains and provide greater evidence for the use of automated writing instruction systems.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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REFERENCES


SCORE OF 6: An essay in this category demonstrates clear and consistent mastery, although it may have a few minor errors. A typical essay effectively and insightfully develops a point of view on the issue and demonstrates outstanding critical thinking, using clearly appropriate examples, reasons, and other evidence to support its position is well organized and clearly focused, demonstrating clear coherence and smooth progression of ideas exhibits skillful use of language, using a varied, accurate, and apt vocabulary demonstrates meaningful variety in sentence structure is free of most errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.

SCORE OF 5: An essay in this category demonstrates reasonably consistent mastery, although it will have occasional errors or lapses in quality. A typical essay effectively develops a point of view on the issue and demonstrates strong critical thinking, generally using appropriate examples, reasons, and other evidence to support its position is well organized and focused, demonstrating coherence and progression of ideas exhibits facility in the use of language, using appropriate vocabulary demonstrates variety in sentence structure is generally free of most errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.

SCORE OF 4: An essay in this category demonstrates adequate mastery, although it will have lapses in quality. A typical essay develops a point of view on the issue and demonstrates competent critical thinking, using adequate examples, reasons, and other evidence to support its position is generally organized and focused, demonstrating some coherence and progression of ideas exhibits adequate but inconsistent facility in the use of language, using generally appropriate vocabulary demonstrates some variety in sentence structure has some errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.

SCORE OF 3: An essay in this category demonstrates developing mastery, and is marked by ONE OR MORE of the following weaknesses: develops a point of view on the issue, demonstrating some critical thinking, but may do so inconsistently or use inadequate examples, reasons, or other evidence to support its position is limited in its organization or focus, or may demonstrate some lapses in coherence or progression of ideas displays developing facility in the use of language, but sometimes uses weak vocabulary or inappropriate word choice lacks variety or demonstrates problems in sentence structure contains an accumulation of errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.

SCORE OF 2: An essay in this category demonstrates little mastery, and is flawed by ONE OR MORE of the following weaknesses: develops a point of view on the issue, demonstrating some critical thinking, but may do so inconsistently or use inadequate examples, reasons, or other evidence to support its position is poorly organized and/or focused, or demonstrates serious problems with coherence or progression of ideas displays very little facility in the use of language, using very limited vocabulary or incorrect word choice demonstrates frequent problems in sentence structure contains errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics so serious that meaning is somewhat obscured.

SCORE OF 1: An essay in this category demonstrates very little or no mastery, and is severely flawed by ONE OR MORE of the following weaknesses: develops no viable point of view on the issue, or provides little or no evidence to support its position is disorganized or unfocused, resulting in a disjointed or incoherent essay displays fundamental errors in vocabulary demonstrates severe flaws in sentence structure contains pervasive errors in grammar, usage, or mechanics that persistently interfere with meaning.

Essays not written on the essay assignment will receive a score of zero.