

PTADisc: A Cross-Course Dataset Supporting Personalized Learning in Cold-Start Scenarios (Appendix)

Contents

| | |
|---|----------|
| A Related Work | 2 |
| A.1 Cognitive Diagnosis and Knowledge Tracing | 2 |
| A.2 Cross-Domain Recommendation | 2 |
| A.3 Other educational applications | 2 |
| B Dataset Statistics | 3 |
| C Implementation Details | 4 |
| D Baseline Model Details | 5 |
| E Supplementary Experiment Results | 6 |

Our code, dataset, and detailed description for the dataset are available at <https://github.com/wahr0411/PTADisc.git>.

A Related Work

A.1 Cognitive Diagnosis and Knowledge Tracing

The goal of cognitive diagnosis (CD) is to assess students’ level of proficiency of different knowledge concepts through the prediction process of student performance, given students’ exercise records, *aka* response logs. Traditional psychometric-based methods include Item Response Theory (IRT) [18], MIRT [19] and DINA [4, 22]. These methods depend on manually designed functions and the effectiveness requires a large number of psychological experiments to verify, which are labor-intensive and lack of ability to capture complex relationships between students, problems, and knowledge concepts. Recent years, with the development of artificial intelligence [10], deep learning-based cognitive diagnosis models have been developed [23, 6, 9, 28]. Specifically, NCD [23] incorporates neural networks to learn the complex exercising interactions. And RCD [6] models the interactive and structural relations via a multi-layer student-problem-concept relation map.

The goal of knowledge tracing (KT) is to dynamically model students’ knowledge proficiency through her historical learning records, so as to predict her performance to new problems. Traditional probabilistic KT models assume students’ knowledge state as a set of binary variables where each variable represents whether a student masters an individual concept or not, such as Bayesian Knowledge Tracing (BKT) [3]. Recent years, deep learning-based KT models are proposed for learning valid representations especially when large amounts of data are available, such as DKT [21] and DKVMN [26]. Further, from the perspective of model structure, a few methods based on transformers (SAKT [15]), GNNs (SGKT [24]), and pre-training frameworks (PEBG [11]) are proposed.

A.2 Cross-Domain Recommendation

Cross-domain recommendation is a promising method to alleviate data sparsity and the cold-start problem [30, 27, 2]. Several models have been proposed, including CMF [20], which uses shared parameters for all domains, and CST [14], which transfers knowledge about users and items from auxiliary data sources. Mapping-based methods have been shown to be effective in solving cold-start recommendation problems [12], by learning a mapping function from the source domain to the target domain. However, these methods have limited generalization ability for cold-start items or users. To address this issue, TMCDR [29] introduces meta learning to improve the generalization ability and PTUPCDR [30] further improves TMCDR by learning personalized bridges for each user. While the cross-domain problem has been widely explored in the recommendation domain, there is limited research on cross-course learner modeling in personalized learning.

A.3 Other educational applications

Prerequisite discovery refers to the task of identifying and establishing the sequence or order in which concepts or topics should be learned or presented, ensuring that foundational concepts are understood before more advanced ones [13]. Suppose a MOOC corpus is composed by n courses in the same subject area, denoted as $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_i, \dots, \mathcal{D}_n\}$, where \mathcal{D}_i signifies an individual course. Course concepts are subjects taught in the course, i.e., the concepts not only mentioned but also discussed and taught in the course. Let us denote the course concept set of \mathcal{D} as $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{C}_n$, where \mathcal{C}_i representing the concepts intrinsic to \mathcal{D}_i . Prerequisite relation learning in MOOCs is formally defined as follows. Given a MOOC corpus \mathcal{D} and its corresponding course concepts \mathcal{C} , the objective is to learn a function $\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{C}^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ that maps a concept pair $\langle a, b \rangle$, where $a, b \in \mathcal{C}$, to a binary class that predicts whether a serves as a foundational prerequisite for concept b .

Computerized adaptive testing (CAT) is an emerging testing format in many standardized examinations, aiming to rapidly and accurately diagnose a candidate’s level of knowledge mastery through personalized test items [1]. Let’s conceptualize a set of students represented by $\mathcal{S} = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N\}$, a problem set represented by $\mathcal{P} = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_M\}$ and a set of knowledge concepts represented by $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_K\}$ related to the problems. We denote the record of student s_i answering problem p_j as a triplet $r_{ij} = \langle s_i, p_j, a_{ij} \rangle$, where a_{ij} equals 1 if s_i answers p_j correctly, and 0 otherwise. Problem set \mathcal{P} is divided into a tested set \mathcal{P}_T and an untested set \mathcal{P}_U . When introduced to a novel student $s_i \in \mathcal{S}$, a problem pool \mathcal{P} with knowledge concepts \mathcal{C} , the challenge is to architect a strategy \mathcal{A} to select a X -size question set $\mathcal{P}_T = \{p_1^*, p_2^*, \dots, p_X^*\}$ step by step that has the maximum quality and diversity. Prior to the testing phase, we set up an abstract cognitive diagnosis model \mathcal{M} with

parameters θ capturing knowledge states. During testing, at step $t(1 \leq t \leq X)$, we select one question $p_t^* = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P}_U, \mathcal{M})$, then observe a new interaction test record $r_{it}^* = \langle s_i, p_t^*, a_{it}^* \rangle$ and update the knowledge states, i.e., θ , in \mathcal{M} instantly. After testing, we measure the effectiveness of \mathcal{A} by computing $\text{Inf}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\text{Cov}(\mathcal{A})$, where $\text{Inf}(\mathcal{A})$ denotes the measurement of quality and $\text{Cov}(\mathcal{A})$ denotes the measurement of diversity.

Educational recommendation lies in constructing a recommend system that can process the interactions between students and questions. This system should be capable of making appropriate learning suggestions to students [8]. In the context of a digital educational platform, assume there are N students and P problems. We record the exercising process of a certain student $n = \{(p_1, r_1), (p_2, r_2), \dots, (p_t, r_t)\}, n \in \mathcal{N}$, where $p_t \in \mathcal{P}$ represents the problems that student n practices at her time step t , and r_t denotes the corresponding score. Conventionally, a correct response to problem p_t is denoted by r_t equals to 1, , and an incorrect response by r_t equals to 0. Each problem $p \in \mathcal{P}$ is characterized by a triplet $p = \{w, c, d\}$. Specifically, the element w represents its text content as a word sequence $p = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_W\}$. $c \in \mathcal{C}$ describes its knowledge concept coming from all K concepts. And d means its difficulty factor.

B Dataset Statistics

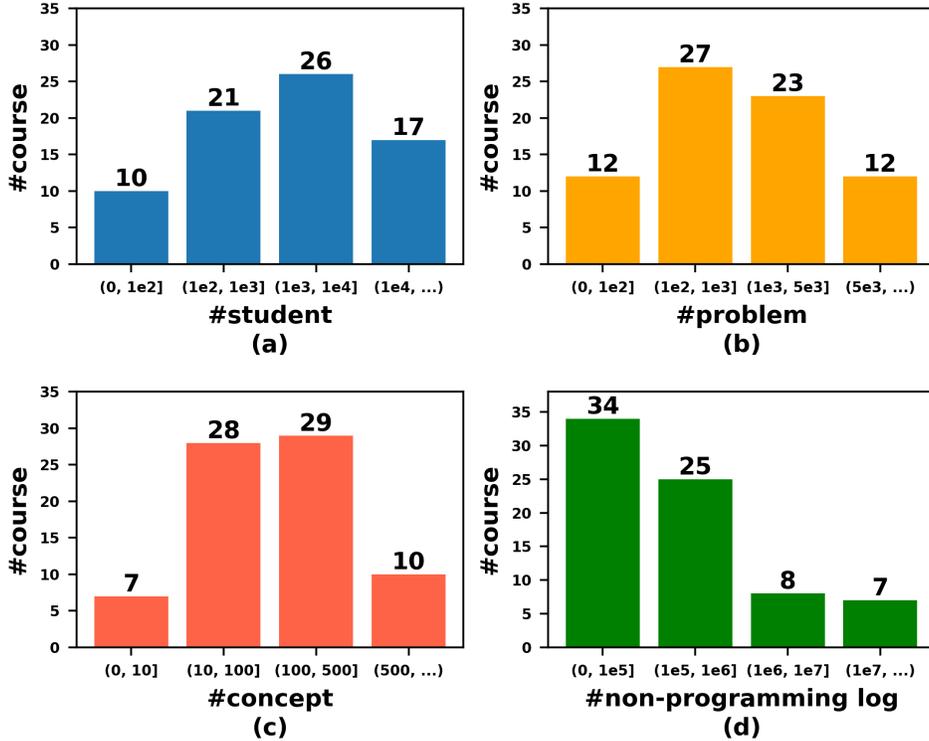


Figure 1: Distribution of the number of students, problems, concepts and non-programming logs over courses in PTADisc.

Table 1: Detailed statistics of 68 courses in PTADisc.

| course name | #student | #problem | #concept | #non-programming log | #programming log |
|--|-----------|----------|----------|----------------------|------------------|
| C++ programming | 362,585 | 20,786 | 617 | 110,641,195 | 4,058,080 |
| Computer App. foundation | 37,280 | 7,304 | 527 | 110,200,887 | 216,146 |
| C programming | 1,074,901 | 43,140 | 1,069 | 97,385,606 | 164,459,382 |
| DS. and algorithm analysis | 294,236 | 29,914 | 897 | 41,667,618 | - |
| Python programming | 277,621 | 28,396 | 817 | 39,087,014 | 21,827,297 |
| Java programming | 198,335 | 24,524 | 906 | 23,542,208 | 8,461,930 |
| Computational thinking foundation | 34,519 | 4,500 | 401 | 16,871,472 | 2,212 |
| Information technology | 36,700 | 6,499 | 516 | 9,935,894 | 159 |
| Computational thinking | 45,329 | 8,399 | 477 | 6,504,414 | 19,085 |
| Database principle | 33,031 | 10,428 | 758 | 5,219,955 | 1,039 |
| Information processing technology and App. | 17,152 | 2,428 | 221 | 3,127,821 | 7,536 |
| Computer network | 20,333 | 7,372 | 609 | 2,451,121 | 1,023 |
| Database technology and App. | 12,646 | 3,616 | 325 | 2,363,206 | - |
| Introduction to computer science | 26,884 | 4,077 | 419 | 2,108,904 | 13,159 |
| Operating system | 18,237 | 8,563 | 726 | 1,777,233 | 64,947 |
| Object oriented programming java | 7,552 | 2,993 | 315 | 944,474 | 395,830 |
| Principles of computer composition | 11,699 | 5,474 | 475 | 755,982 | 34,456 |
| Web front-end technology | 6,612 | 4,247 | 438 | 572,879 | 876 |
| Compilation principle | 5,635 | 1,830 | 263 | 493,449 | 65,249 |
| Thinking by data | 2,597 | 1,027 | 156 | 445,636 | - |
| Multivariate statistical analysis | 1,704 | 790 | 83 | 416,427 | 62,393 |
| Linux system | 4,398 | 2,672 | 284 | 391,434 | 1,026 |
| Computer and problem solving | 14,241 | 1,518 | 226 | 370,605 | 522 |
| Software engineering | 4,197 | 2,815 | 335 | 270,692 | - |
| Assembly language programming | 2,830 | 1,300 | 206 | 200,231 | 26 |
| Machine learning | 2,073 | 1,984 | 331 | 197,685 | 500 |
| Csharp programming | 2,134 | 1,981 | 91 | 194,984 | 76,053 |
| Java web | 4,783 | 1,547 | 215 | 189,171 | 332 |
| Big data processing technology | 1,211 | 1,055 | 155 | 165,573 | - |
| VB programming | 2,032 | 1,273 | 113 | 157,360 | 5,829 |
| Discrete mathematics and App. | 3,516 | 1,278 | 123 | 147,522 | 17,855 |
| Digital image processing | 1,984 | 956 | 218 | 142,497 | - |
| English | 1,952 | 660 | 19 | 139,328 | - |
| Software project management | 850 | 1,753 | 133 | 133,824 | 970 |
| Scala programming | 1,378 | 616 | 124 | 127,382 | 9,367 |
| Literature and history | 2,306 | 886 | 31 | 126,748 | - |
| Discrete mathematics | 1,694 | 608 | 92 | 125,378 | 58,724 |
| Fortran programming | 1,398 | 858 | 106 | 123,498 | 248,698 |
| Intro to algorithm competition | 2,699 | 1,403 | 229 | 119,565 | 190,772 |
| Data warehouse and data mining | 689 | 777 | 97 | 117,717 | - |
| Practice of statistics | 210 | 394 | 35 | 99,217 | - |
| Principles of information security | 1,844 | 1,298 | 201 | 93,303 | 10,055 |
| Software design and architecture | 496 | 360 | 43 | 82,141 | 16,658 |
| Single chip microcomputer principle and App. | 784 | 505 | 88 | 80,977 | - |
| Network programming technology | 1,236 | 362 | 71 | 77,571 | - |
| Digital logic | 1,805 | 348 | 64 | 76,986 | 382 |
| Introduction to computer | 1,801 | 546 | 99 | 63,889 | - |
| Numerical analysis | 610 | 1,111 | 241 | 54,558 | 17,348 |
| Big data management | 217 | 640 | 65 | 51,724 | - |
| Psychology | 296 | 111 | 1 | 50,180 | - |
| Probability and statistic | 557 | 1,054 | 247 | 46,106 | 1,413 |
| Problem solving fundation | 1,037 | 373 | 63 | 38,440 | 323 |
| Artificial intelligence | 582 | 353 | 77 | 28,088 | - |
| Intro to artificial intelligence | 740 | 301 | 58 | 24,879 | 11 |
| Software testing and quality assurance | 454 | 172 | 4 | 24,342 | - |
| Linear algebra | 494 | 420 | 100 | 17,341 | 8,811 |
| PHP programming | 165 | 632 | 153 | 14,462 | 340 |
| Object oriented analysis and design | 265 | 178 | 47 | 11,872 | - |
| Introduction to internet of things | 217 | 291 | 14 | 10,949 | - |
| Microcomputer principle and interface tech. | 422 | 41 | 19 | 10,213 | - |
| Signals and systems | 378 | 38 | 12 | 8,502 | - |
| Calculus | 154 | 357 | 120 | 7,024 | 9,085 |
| Matlab simulation | 249 | 76 | 10 | 6,030 | 6,089 |
| Japanese | 54 | 190 | 19 | 5,375 | - |
| Computer system fundamentals | 67 | 91 | 25 | 3,643 | - |
| Introduction to cloud computing | 104 | 59 | 39 | 3,571 | - |
| Wireless network | 60 | 54 | 26 | 2,242 | - |
| Swift programming | 31 | 102 | 14 | 2,170 | - |
| Data visualization | 87 | 53 | 6 | 2,105 | 513 |
| Fundamentals of analogy electron technique | 36 | 29 | 19 | 1,476 | - |
| Politics | 56 | 29 | 3 | 1,450 | - |
| Tourism | 22 | 30 | 1 | 1,320 | - |
| Software requirement analysis and design | 331 | 21 | 20 | 21 | 5,492 |
| Haskell programming | 98 | 3 | 3 | - | 302 |

C Implementation Details

CCLMF is a model-agnostic framework that can be applied to various CD or KT models. Here, we take NCD as an example and showcase the implementation details of CCLMF based on NCD, namely CC-NCD. After pre-training the NCD model in the source course, the student’s proficiency representation in the source course can be obtained by extracting the corresponding row from the

matrix \mathbf{A}^s given the student ID i :

$$\mathbf{u}_i^s = \mathbf{A}_{\text{NCD}}^s[i], \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{A}^s is the student representation matrix learned by NCD.

In the meta stage, we used a two-layer perceptron (MLP) as the meta network. This meta network then generates a transformation matrix for each student as the personalized mapping function:

$$\mathbf{T}_{K^s \times K^t} = \text{MLP}(\mathbf{u}_i^s; \theta), \quad (2)$$

where θ is the parameters of MLP, and $\mathbf{T}_{K^s \times K^t}$ is the transformation matrix. K^s and K^t denote the dimensionality of the student proficiency representation in the source and target course respectively. Specifically, the dimensionality of the student representation is determined by the number of knowledge concepts considered.

The transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}_{K^s \times K^t}$ is then used to map student proficiency representation to the target course using matrix multiplication:

$$\mathbf{u}_i^t = \mathbf{u}_i^s \cdot \mathbf{T}_{K^s \times K^t}. \quad (3)$$

The final output \hat{r}_i of CC-NCD is formulated as:

$$\hat{r}_i = L(\mathbf{Q}_p^t \circ (\mathbf{u}_i^t - \mathbf{h}^{diff}) \times \mathbf{h}^{disc}; \theta_l), \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{Q}_p^t \in \{0, 1\}^{1 \times K^t}$ is the concept relevancy of the problem p in the target course. $\mathbf{h}^{diff} \in (0, 1)^{1 \times K^t}$, $\mathbf{h}^{disc} \in (0, 1)$ denotes concept difficulty and problem discrimination learned from the NCD model using data of the target source. $L(\cdot)$ denotes the Linear Layers in NCD which is shown in full paper Figure 5 and θ_l is the parameters of $L(\cdot)$.

Given the ground truth value r from \mathcal{R}^t , all learnable parameters are trained together with the meta network and mapping function by optimizing the cross-entropy loss function as:

$$loss_{CC-NCD} = - \sum_i (r_i \log \hat{r}_i + (1 - r_i) \log (1 - \hat{r}_i)). \quad (5)$$

During the inference stage, given a cold-start student s_j in the target course, we can get the latent proficiency representation in the target course as:

$$\mathbf{u}_j^t = \mathbf{A}_{\text{NCD}}^s[j] \cdot \text{MLP}(\mathbf{A}_{\text{NCD}}^s[j]; \theta), \quad (6)$$

which can be utilized to predict the student’s performance in the target course via Equation (4).

D Baseline Model Details

Cognitive diagnosis models:

DINA [4, 22] is a traditional method that is well-suited for binary scoring items, and it can effectively account for student errors due to guessing or slipping.

IRT [5] is an important psychological and educational theory rooted in psychometrics, which employs a linear function to model the features of both students and problems.

MIRT [19] is a multidimensional extension of IRT, modeling multiple knowledge proficiency.

NCD [23] is the first attempt to introduce neural networks for Cognitive Diagnosis, which can model high-order and complex student-problem interaction.

RCD [6] models the interactive and structural relations via a multi-layer student-problem-concept relation map and infers students’ proficiency through the representations from this map.

Knowledge tracing models:

DKT [17] is the first approach applying deep learning to knowledge tracing tasks, making use of the recurrent neural network in the process of modeling students’ behavior.

DKVMN [26] makes use of a memory network, a static matrix to store all concepts and a dynamic matrix to update students’ knowledge states of those concepts.

SAKT [16] employs a self-attention mechanism to capture the connections between exercises and student responses.

AKT [7] utilizes an attention mechanism to analyze the temporal gap between questions and students' prior interactions to better understand their past engagement.

GKT [25] makes use of a bipartite graph to model the input information, namely problems and concepts, and uses graph convolutional neural network (GCN) to process the data. Then the results were sent to LSTM and get the final prediction.

SGKT [24] uses a session graph and during the process of students' answering, a gated graph neural network was set to handle the problem-concept graph.

PEBG [11] utilizes pre-training model to get the low-dimensional problem embeddings and models the relation between problems and concepts as a bipartite graph.

E Supplementary Experiment Results

We conducted experiments between the selected five courses in Figure 4(a) of the paper. The experimental results are presented in Table 2. We chose *C++ Programming* as the target course due to its wide range of correlation coefficients with other courses. The source courses are marked within brackets and are ranked from lowest to highest correlation coefficient with *C++ Programming*: 0.54 for *Python Programming* (Python), 0.59 for *Data Structure and Algorithm Analysis* (DS), 0.64 for *i* (Java), 0.79 for *C Programming* (C). To simulate cold-start scenarios, we sampled 5% of each student's response logs in *C++ Programming* to form the target course.

From Table 2, we can observe that CCLMF achieves a certain improvement of the two models in all source courses. Notably, the results of the NCD model reveal that the extent of model improvement is related to the correlation coefficient between the source course and the target course. The source course with the highest correlation coefficient (0.79 for *C Programming*) exhibits the most significant improvement, while the source course with the weakest correlation coefficient (0.54 for *Python Programming*) demonstrates relatively less improvement.

Table 2: CCLMF results on MIRT and NCD, taking *C++ Programming* as the target course. Source courses are marked within brackets.

| Metrics | Model | no dropout | 10% dropout | 20% dropout | 30% dropout | 40% dropout | 50% dropout |
|---------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| AUC | MIRT | 0.6272 | 0.6218 | 0.6157 | 0.6124 | 0.6051 | 0.6057 |
| | CC-MIRT (Python) | 0.7150 (+0.0878) | 0.7123 (+0.0905) | 0.7102 (+0.0945) | 0.6864 (+0.0740) | 0.6801 (+0.0750) | 0.6716 (+0.0659) |
| | CC-MIRT (DS) | 0.6912 (+0.0640) | 0.6933 (+0.0715) | 0.6904 (+0.0747) | 0.7012 (+0.0888) | 0.7042 (+0.0991) | 0.6990 (+0.0933) |
| | CC-MIRT (Java) | 0.7132 (+0.0860) | 0.7093 (+0.0875) | 0.7065 (+0.0908) | 0.7004 (+0.0880) | 0.6975 (+0.0924) | 0.6890 (+0.0833) |
| | CC-MIRT (C) | 0.6996 (+0.0724) | 0.7021 (+0.0803) | 0.6935 (+0.0778) | 0.6912 (+0.0788) | 0.6870 (+0.0819) | 0.6768 (+0.0711) |
| ACC | MIRT | 0.7493 | 0.7479 | 0.7479 | 0.7471 | 0.6825 | 0.6860 |
| | CC-MIRT (Python) | 0.7738 (+0.0245) | 0.7721 (+0.0242) | 0.7714 (+0.0235) | 0.7657 (+0.0186) | 0.7637 (+0.0812) | 0.7606 (+0.0746) |
| | CC-MIRT (DS) | 0.7668 (+0.0175) | 0.7681 (+0.0202) | 0.7665 (+0.0186) | 0.7694 (+0.0223) | 0.7706 (+0.0881) | 0.7685 (+0.0825) |
| | CC-MIRT (Java) | 0.7719 (+0.0226) | 0.7707 (+0.0228) | 0.7706 (+0.0227) | 0.7672 (+0.0201) | 0.7671 (+0.0846) | 0.7641 (+0.0781) |
| | CC-MIRT (C) | 0.7703 (+0.0210) | 0.7719 (+0.0240) | 0.7695 (+0.0216) | 0.7683 (+0.0212) | 0.7671 (+0.0846) | 0.7643 (+0.0783) |
| RMSE | MIRT | 0.4919 | 0.4935 | 0.4935 | 0.4931 | 0.511 | 0.5106 |
| | CC-MIRT (Python) | 0.4009 (-0.0909) | 0.4016 (-0.0919) | 0.4022 (-0.0913) | 0.4104 (-0.0827) | 0.4118 (-0.0992) | 0.4151 (-0.0955) |
| | CC-MIRT (DS) | 0.4089 (-0.0830) | 0.4074 (-0.0861) | 0.4086 (-0.0849) | 0.4052 (-0.0879) | 0.4035 (-0.1075) | 0.4054 (-0.1052) |
| | CC-MIRT (Java) | 0.4021 (-0.0898) | 0.4027 (-0.0908) | 0.4035 (-0.0900) | 0.4055 (-0.0876) | 0.4062 (-0.1048) | 0.4085 (-0.1021) |
| | CC-MIRT (C) | 0.4050 (-0.0869) | 0.4039 (-0.0896) | 0.4062 (-0.0873) | 0.4071 (-0.0860) | 0.4085 (-0.1025) | 0.4112 (-0.0994) |
| AUC | NCD | 0.6981 | 0.6960 | 0.6926 | 0.6873 | 0.6846 | 0.6791 |
| | CC-NCD (Python) | 0.7008 (+0.0028) | 0.6979 (+0.0019) | 0.6943 (+0.0017) | 0.6931 (+0.0058) | 0.6873 (+0.0027) | 0.6807 (+0.0016) |
| | CC-NCD (DS) | 0.7225 (+0.0244) | 0.7189 (+0.0229) | 0.7164 (+0.0238) | 0.7128 (+0.0255) | 0.7078 (+0.0232) | 0.6997 (+0.0206) |
| | CC-NCD (Java) | 0.7154 (+0.0173) | 0.7123 (+0.0163) | 0.7079 (+0.0153) | 0.7058 (+0.0185) | 0.6989 (+0.0143) | 0.6907 (+0.0116) |
| | CC-NCD (C) | 0.7663 (+0.0682) | 0.7627 (+0.0667) | 0.7598 (+0.0672) | 0.7541 (+0.0668) | 0.7486 (+0.0640) | 0.7423 (+0.0632) |
| ACC | NCD | 0.7619 | 0.7602 | 0.7616 | 0.7552 | 0.7556 | 0.7558 |
| | CC-NCD (Python) | 0.7693 (+0.0074) | 0.7675 (+0.0073) | 0.7666 (+0.0050) | 0.7674 (+0.0122) | 0.7668 (+0.0112) | 0.7668 (+0.0110) |
| | CC-NCD (DS) | 0.7747 (+0.0128) | 0.7702 (+0.0100) | 0.7677 (+0.0061) | 0.7673 (+0.0121) | 0.7675 (+0.0119) | 0.7671 (+0.0113) |
| | CC-NCD (Java) | 0.7661 (+0.0043) | 0.7695 (+0.0093) | 0.7687 (+0.0071) | 0.7667 (+0.0115) | 0.7668 (+0.0112) | 0.7660 (+0.0102) |
| | CC-NCD (C) | 0.7854 (+0.0235) | 0.7875 (+0.0273) | 0.7833 (+0.0217) | 0.7759 (+0.0207) | 0.7734 (+0.0178) | 0.7710 (+0.0152) |
| RMSE | NCD | 0.4116 | 0.4124 | 0.4115 | 0.4174 | 0.4164 | 0.4156 |
| | CC-NCD (Python) | 0.4102 (-0.0014) | 0.4094 (-0.0030) | 0.4111 (-0.0004) | 0.4115 (-0.0059) | 0.4123 (-0.0041) | 0.4130 (-0.0026) |
| | CC-NCD (DS) | 0.4018 (-0.0098) | 0.4059 (-0.0065) | 0.4081 (-0.0034) | 0.4133 (-0.0041) | 0.4123 (-0.0041) | 0.4181 (0.0025) |
| | CC-NCD (Java) | 0.4088 (-0.0028) | 0.4066 (-0.0058) | 0.4075 (-0.0040) | 0.4097 (-0.0077) | 0.4104 (-0.0060) | 0.4130 (-0.0026) |
| | CC-NCD (C) | 0.3877 (-0.0239) | 0.3881 (-0.0243) | 0.3913 (-0.0202) | 0.3956 (-0.0218) | 0.3967 (-0.0197) | 0.4028 (-0.0128) |

References

- [1] Haoyang Bi, Haiping Ma, Zhenya Huang, Yu Yin, Qi Liu, Enhong Chen, Yu Su, and Shijin Wang. Quality meets diversity: A model-agnostic framework for computerized adaptive testing. In *ICDM*, pages 42–51. IEEE, 2020.
- [2] Ye Bi, Liqiang Song, Mengqiu Yao, Zhenyu Wu, Jianming Wang, and Jing Xiao. Dcdir: A deep cross-domain recommendation system for cold start users in insurance domain. In *SIGIR*, pages 1661–1664, 2020.
- [3] Albert T Corbett and John R Anderson. Knowledge tracing: Modeling the acquisition of procedural knowledge. *User modeling and user-adapted interaction*, 4(4):253–278, 1994.
- [4] Jimmy De La Torre. Dina model and parameter estimation: A didactic. *Journal of educational and behavioral statistics*, 34(1):115–130, 2009.
- [5] Susan E Embretson and Steven P Reise. *Item response theory*. Psychology Press, 2013.
- [6] Weibo Gao, Qi Liu, Zhenya Huang, Yu Yin, Haoyang Bi, Mu-Chun Wang, Jianhui Ma, Shijin Wang, and Yu Su. Rcd: Relation map driven cognitive diagnosis for intelligent education systems. In *SIGIR*, pages 501–510, 2021.
- [7] Aritra Ghosh, Neil Heffernan, and Andrew S Lan. Context-aware attentive knowledge tracing. In *SIGKDD*, pages 2330–2339, 2020.
- [8] Zhenya Huang, Qi Liu, Chengxiang Zhai, Yu Yin, Enhong Chen, Weibo Gao, and Guoping Hu. Exploring multi-objective exercise recommendations in online education systems. In *CIKM*, pages 1261–1270, 2019.
- [9] Jiatong Li, Fei Wang, Qi Liu, Mengxiao Zhu, Wei Huang, Zhenya Huang, Enhong Chen, Yu Su, and Shijin Wang. Hiercdf: A bayesian network-based hierarchical cognitive diagnosis framework. In *SIGKDD*, pages 904–913, 2022.
- [10] Mengze Li, Tianbao Wang, Haoyu Zhang, Shengyu Zhang, Zhou Zhao, Wenqiao Zhang, Jiaxu Miao, Shiliang Pu, and Fei Wu. Hero: Hierarchical spatio-temporal reasoning with contrastive action correspondence for end-to-end video object grounding. In *Proceedings of the 30th ACM International Conference on Multimedia*, pages 3801–3810, 2022.
- [11] Yunfei Liu, Yang Yang, Xianyu Chen, Jian Shen, Haifeng Zhang, and Yong Yu. Improving knowledge tracing via pre-training question embeddings. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.05031*, 2020.
- [12] Tong Man, Huawei Shen, Xiaolong Jin, and Xueqi Cheng. Cross-domain recommendation: An embedding and mapping approach. In *IJCAI*, volume 17, pages 2464–2470, 2017.
- [13] Liangming Pan, Chengjiang Li, Juanzi Li, and Jie Tang. Prerequisite relation learning for concepts in moocs. In *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1447–1456, 2017.
- [14] Weike Pan, Evan Xiang, Nathan Liu, and Qiang Yang. Transfer learning in collaborative filtering for sparsity reduction. In *AAAI*, volume 24, pages 230–235, 2010.
- [15] Shalini Pandey and George Karypis. A self-attentive model for knowledge tracing. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.06837*, 2019.
- [16] Shalini Pandey and George Karypis. A self-attentive model for knowledge tracing. In *12th International Conference on Educational Data Mining, EDM 2019*, pages 384–389. International Educational Data Mining Society, 2019.
- [17] Chris Piech, Jonathan Bassen, Jonathan Huang, Surya Ganguli, Mehran Sahami, Leonidas J Guibas, and Jascha Sohl-Dickstein. Deep knowledge tracing. *NIPS*, 28, 2015.
- [18] Georg Rasch. Studies in mathematical psychology: I. probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests. 1960.

- [19] Mark D Reckase and Mark fD Reckase. *Multidimensional item response theory models*. Springer, 2009.
- [20] Ajit P Singh and Geoffrey J Gordon. Relational learning via collective matrix factorization. In *SIGKDD*, pages 650–658, 2008.
- [21] K Sohn, H Lee, X Yan, C Cortes, N Lawrence, and D Lee. Advances in neural information processing systems. *NIPS*, pages 3483–3491, 2015.
- [22] Matthias Von Davier. The dina model as a constrained general diagnostic model: Two variants of a model equivalency. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 67(1):49–71, 2014.
- [23] Fei Wang, Qi Liu, Enhong Chen, Zhenya Huang, Yuying Chen, Yu Yin, Zai Huang, and Shijin Wang. Neural cognitive diagnosis for intelligent education systems. In *AAAI*, volume 34, pages 6153–6161, 2020.
- [24] Zhengyang Wu, Li Huang, Qionghao Huang, Changqin Huang, and Yong Tang. Sgkt: Session graph-based knowledge tracing for student performance prediction. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 206:117681, 2022.
- [25] Yang Yang, Jian Shen, Yanru Qu, Yunfei Liu, Kerong Wang, Yaoming Zhu, Weinan Zhang, and Yong Yu. Gikt: a graph-based interaction model for knowledge tracing. In *PKDD*, pages 299–315. Springer, 2021.
- [26] Jiani Zhang, Xingjian Shi, Irwin King, and Dit-Yan Yeung. Dynamic key-value memory networks for knowledge tracing. In *WWW*, pages 765–774, 2017.
- [27] Cheng Zhao, Chenliang Li, Rong Xiao, Hongbo Deng, and Aixin Sun. Catn: Cross-domain recommendation for cold-start users via aspect transfer network. In *SIGIR*, pages 229–238, 2020.
- [28] Yuqiang Zhou, Qi Liu, Jinze Wu, Fei Wang, Zhenya Huang, Wei Tong, Hui Xiong, Enhong Chen, and Jianhui Ma. Modeling context-aware features for cognitive diagnosis in student learning. In *SIGKDD*, pages 2420–2428, 2021.
- [29] Yongchun Zhu, Kaikai Ge, Fuzhen Zhuang, Ruobing Xie, Dongbo Xi, Xu Zhang, Leyu Lin, and Qing He. Transfer-meta framework for cross-domain recommendation to cold-start users. In *SIGIR*, pages 1813–1817, 2021.
- [30] Yongchun Zhu, Zhenwei Tang, Yudan Liu, Fuzhen Zhuang, Ruobing Xie, Xu Zhang, Leyu Lin, and Qing He. Personalized transfer of user preferences for cross-domain recommendation. In *WSDM*, pages 1507–1515, 2022.