Studying Students’ Early-Stage Software Design Practices

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Abstract: This paper describes research on undergraduate engineering students designing computer programs. We do three things. First, we explain what early-stage software design practices are and argue why we should look for students’ productive capacities in them. Second, we outline the basics of a developing research program that aims at carefully documenting students’ capacities for doing software design. Third, we relate early results from that research.

Introduction and Overview

In what follows, we do three things.

1. We outline a gap in existing Computer Science Education (hereafter CSEd) research: we lack a detailed understanding of how students design software. With a few notable exceptions (Harel & Papert, 1992; Papert, 1980; Peppler & Kafai, 2008; Turkle & Papert, 1990), most CSEd research does not view students as designers. Consequently, there is a paucity of research on how students understand the task of software design, what guides their moment-by-moment activity as they work on a design, and how the final form of code reflects their design knowledge. Emerging research shows what professional software design looks like in practice, but that only fleshes out the “expert” end of a novice-expert continuum. We’re still left with an asymmetrical model of how software design expertise—as opposed to simply programming expertise, debugging practices, etc.—develops; we know far more about the target than we do possible origins or the paths between. That problem carries over to instruction. To answer questions of what students should do as a practice in software design (cf., Shaffer & Resnick, 1999), we need to first explore what they can do.

2. We propose how researchers can study students—specifically high school and university students—as designers of computer programs. Studying students as designers means looking not just at final code submissions but at what happens between compilations. It also means looking at students’ early-stage activity: the interactions and artifacts that can emerge before a single line of source code is ever written.

3. We explain why pursuing this research matters. We underscore the importance of treating students as designers and show how such an orientation helps us make progress in both theory-building and instructional reform.

We Lack Accounts of Students’ Software Design Practices

In 2010, the journal Design Studies devoted an entire issue to how professional software engineers design complex systems (Petre, van der Hoek, & Baker, 2010). That issue’s editors argued fields of design studies, interaction analysis, and human-computer interaction don’t know enough about how software engineers use representations and collaborative exchanges to organize the beginning phases of a design:

During formative design, software engineers spend a great deal of time engaging in creative, exploratory design thinking using pen and paper or a whiteboard—whether alone or in a small group. However, not enough is known about how software designers work in such settings. What do designers actually do during early software design? How do they communicate? What sorts of drawings do they create? What kinds of strategies do they apply in exploring the vast space of possible designs? (Petre et al., 2010, p. 533)

These questions were reprinted in a 2012 issue of IEEE Software (Baker, van der Hoek, Ossher, & Petre, 2012), but we are still in the early stages of answering them.

Careful study of how experts design software is starting to reveal the complex disciplinary practices that comprise early-stage work (Ball, Onarheim, & Christensen, 2010; Jackson, 2010; Rooksby, 2010). For example, Rooksby and Ikeya (Rooksby & Ikeya, 2012; Rooksby, 2010) analyzed video recordings of three professional software engineer teams in the early stages of a software design task. Their research reveals that whiteboards—common artifacts in software design work—serve a much more complex purpose than simply to “log ideas and decisions” (Rooksby & Ikeya, 2012, p. 58). Moreover, the inscriptive content of the whiteboard is only a small part of design-work’s complexity. Also crucial are the practices—such as conveying epistemic uncertainty about design solutions (Ball et al., 2010)—that help designers “remain coordinated and focused while collaborating” (Rooksby & Ikeya, 2012, p. 56). Ultimately, students need to learn as much about these
practices “as they do about procedures and technologies” when learning software design (Rooksby & Ikeya, 2012, p. 60)

The above results from software engineering echo findings from deep studies of engineers and scientists working and designing in practice. Practicing professionals make complex use of talk, gesture, and representational artifacts in physics (Gupta, Hammer, & Redish, 2010; Kaiser, 2005; Ochs, Gonzales, & Jacoby, 1996); chemistry (Steff, 2007); field biology (Hall, Stevens, & Torralba, 2002); civil engineering (Stevens & Hall, 1998); structural engineering (Gainsburg, 2006); mechanical and electrical engineering (Bucciarelli, 1994; Henderson, 1999); and architectural design (Hall et al., 2002). Given that:

1. Science and engineering education research has made progress by looking for continuities in how novice learners develop disciplinary practices (Gupta et al., 2010; Hall & Stevens, 1995; Stevens & Hall, 1998), and

2. Emerging research on software engineering reveals that early-stage software design involves complex inscriptive, discursively, and epistemic practices, it seems striking that there is no contemporary body of research, comparable to studies of expert practice, that looks at students’ software design practices. In other words, we have every reason to believe that expertise in software design involves complex practices, but little (if any) research on what productive capacities students have for them. Finding those productive design capacities requires a shift from questions such as how can we assess and mitigate students’ difficulty in programming? toward questions such as how do students learn and display evidence of design thinking in programming?

That difference is subtle, but it bears repeating. If we rephrase the quoted questions above (Petre et al., 2010, p. 533) and treat students as designers, we find the following questions that we think can drive a program of CSEd Research:

1. What kinds of strategies do students apply in exploring the vast space of possible software designs?
2. What sorts of drawings do students create when they design software?
3. What do students actually do during early-stage software design work?
4. What does students’ exploratory design thinking look like?
5. How do students communicate?
6. What kinds of strategies do students apply in exploring the vast space of possible software designs?

We think such research is both possible and potentially fruitful. We can do it using methods that already exist. And, it stands to greatly inform how we build theory about students’ capacities for design in programming.

Studying Students’ Design Practices Means Analyzing the Inscriptive, Gestural, Discursive, and Computational Artifacts They Create When Building Programs

The methods below form the core of our developing program to study students as software designers. None of the methods below are new; all have been used in prior educational research. What is new, we believe, is the opportunity to combine them all under the umbrella of understanding what happens when students design software.

We should collect students’ code history. By this, we mean we should preserve frequent snapshots in time of what students’ code looks like. Research has already shown code snapshotting to be a useful method for understanding large-scale patterns of student error (Jadud, 2006; Rodrigo, Tabanao, Lahoz, & Jadud, 2009; Spacco et al., 2006). And, the resolution of snapshots is extremely fine: Spacco et al. are able to capture the contents of a file each and every time a student saves it to disk. But, that research takes an aggregate view: it identifies large-scale error patterns at the expense of detailed naturalistic understandings of why students make those errors. Moreover, it’s primarily used to identify what mistakes students make, which is distinctly different from a research orientation that considers the negative and positive consequences of students’ design choices. A currently untapped advantage of collecting code history data, then, is that while we historically use it to aggregate across programmers it nevertheless also gives us fine-grained individual or team-based histories of how designs evolve.

We should conduct clinical interviews with students. Clinical interviews have proven historically useful in understanding the substance of students’ knowledge and the nature of conceptual change (diSessa & Sherin, 1998; Duckworth, 2006; Ginsburg & Opper, 1988; Ginsburg, 1997). Crucially for CSEd Research, clinical interviews can tell us about students’ epistemologies—how they view knowledge and knowing in a discipline (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997)—which can affect how they approach and adopt that discipline’s practices (Hammer, 1989, 1994; Lising & Elby, 2005). Moreover, when interviews are videotaped and analyzed from perspectives of interaction analysis (Goodwin, 2000; Jordan & Henderson, 1995), interviews can offer rich evidence of the substance of students’ design practices.

We should analyze students’ in-interview inscriptions when they design — what they write, how they write it, and how those writings get used. Evidence from both science studies (Hall et al., 2002; Henderson, 1999; Hutchins, 1995; Kaiser, 2005; Latour, 1990; Ochs et al., 1996) and educational research (Hall & Stevens, 1995; Lehrer, Schauble, Carpenter, & Penner, 2000; Stevens & Hall, 1998) highlights the centrality of
inscriptions to disciplinary practice in science and mathematics. Ethnomethodological data from studies of professional software engineers supports the same result: inscriptive practice is central to how professional engineers design software (Rooksby & Ikeya, 2012; Rooksby, 2010). Because part of that inscriptive environment is the computer itself, we should strive to capture and analyze what happens on-screen as students design programs.

We should pay close attention to students’ in-interview gestures. Perspectives of gestural analysis hold that gestures can not only support or extend thinking, they can also communicate entirely different information than what’s being said (Goldin-Meadow, 2003). Moreover, perspectives from cognitive anthropology and embodied cognition studies argue that bodily motion is itself cognition (Hall & Nemirovsky, 2012; Hutchins, 1995; Nemirovsky, Rasmussen, Sweeney, & Wawro, 2012). For example, when students describe a part of code by moving their hand across an imaginary row of items and tapping each item, their bodies convey information we can interpret about how they understand iteration. Whether or not one subscribes to the strongest tenets of embodied cognition, it still urges us to uncover the role of the physical environment in students’ software design thinking.

Figure 1 presents a visual overview of some of these methods and modes of analysis. In particular, the first (top-left) panel depicts how we deploy these data collection methods during a clinical interview:

- a voice recorder captures speech (often a redundancy in case another recording device fails)
- a LiveScribe Pulse pen digitizes written inscriptions, allowing us to play back what was written in time
- a videocamera records data for knowledge analysis, interaction analysis, and gestural analysis,
- an in-interview computer tracks code history and screen-capturing software records real-time activity.

**Figure 1.** An overview of select strategies for capturing students’ design practices.

**Early Results Suggest Students View and Enact Disciplinary Practices with Remarkable Diversity**

This paper reflects only one aspect of a larger study reported in Danielak (2014) to motivate a conversation between the learning sciences community and the computer science education research community. As an example of what this research orientation can provide, one strand of our research asks whether and how students use pseudocode in their design work. Pseudo-code is a high-level, abstract way of expressing procedures while backgrounding the details of how those procedures are carried out. It is also meant to be language-neutral, such that procedures expressed in pseudocode should be implementable in a variety of specific programming languages. We found that both the form pseudocode takes and the uses students put it to vary widely. One student, “Lionel,” writes pseudocode as a prospective design tool. In Lionel’s design process, writing pseudocode before writing language-specific program code is an absolutely essential part of convincing himself he understands the top-level view of what his program will do. Moreover, Lionel makes opportunistic use of language-specific idioms. Using such language-specific programming constructs would seem to clash with professional guidelines for writing pseudocode. Nevertheless, Lionel makes unproblematic use of his hybrid
Sensitive research can help us formatively understand students’ productive capacities for design. We can model the path toward expertise using constructivism. In a parallel way, responsive and informed instruction depends on a deep understanding of what students think they’re doing when they’re doing software design. As argued, we need to understand the knowledge and experiences students already have for design if we aim to conduct more powerful studies of design knowledge.

Each student varies, not because of conceptual knowledge students have or don’t have, but because of differing design practices they’ve internalized. Ultimately, attending to students’ design processes opens up new possibilities for research and practice. Sensitive research can help us formatively understand students’ productive capacities for design. We can conduct more powerful studies of design knowledge in transition (Smith, diSessa, & Roschelle, 1993). As argued, we need to understand the knowledge and experiences students already have for design if we aim to model the path toward expertise using constructivism. In a parallel way, responsive and informed instruction depends on a deep understanding of what students think they’re doing when they’re doing software design.

The contrast between how Lionel and Rebecca write and view pseudocode is striking. While Lionel uses pseudocode deliberately to plan and understand, Rebecca uses it hesitantly, viewing it as non-working code she must ultimately replace with working code. Even if Rebecca and Lionel both produce working programs as a design product, their trajectories look markedly different. Moreover, an instructor’s field of options in helping each student varies, not because of conceptual knowledge students have or don’t have, but because of differing design practices they’ve internalized.

Ultimately, attending to students’ design processes opens up new possibilities for research and practice. Sensitive research can help us formatively understand students’ productive capacities for design. We can conduct more powerful studies of design knowledge in transition (Smith, diSessa, & Roschelle, 1993). As argued, we need to understand the knowledge and experiences students already have for design if we aim to model the path toward expertise using constructivism. In a parallel way, responsive and informed instruction depends on a deep understanding of what students think they’re doing when they’re doing software design.

References


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