A Learning Agent for Parameter Estimation in Speeded Tests

Daniel Bengs[†] and Ulf Brefeld[‡]

[†] German Institute for International Educational Research, Germany
bengs@dipf.de

[‡] Technische Universität Darmstadt, Germany
brefeld@kma.informatik.tu-darmstadt.de

Abstract. The assessment of a person's traits such as ability is a fundamental problem in human sciences. Compared to traditional paper and pencil tests, computer based assessment not only facilitates data acquisition and processing, but also allows for real-time adaptivity and personalization. By adaptively selecting tasks for each test subject, competency levels can be assessed with fewer items. We focus on assessments of traits that can be measured by determining the shortest time limit allowing a testee to solve simple repetitive tasks (speed tests). Existing approaches for adjusting the time limit are either intrinsically non-adaptive or lack theoretical foundation. By contrast, we propose a mathematically sound framework in which latent competency skills are represented by belief distributions on compact intervals. The algorithm iteratively computes a new difficulty setting, such that the amount of belief that can be updated after feedback has been received is maximized. We rigorously prove a bound on the algorithms' step size paving the way for convergence analysis. Empirical simulations show that our method performs equally well or better than state of the art baselines in a near-realistic scenario simulating testee behaviour under different assumptions.

1 Introduction

The assessment of a person's traits such as ability is a fundamental problem in the human sciences. Perhaps the most prominent example is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) launched by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1997. Traditionally, assessments have been conducted with printed forms that had to be filled in by the testees (paper and pencil tests). Nowadays, computers and handhelds become more and more popular as platforms for conducting studies in social sciences; electronic devices not only facilitate data acquisition and processing, but also allow for real-time adaptivity and personalization.

For every testee, adaptive computer-based tests estimate personalized parameters $\hat{\theta}$ to model the actual belief about her true (but hidden) competency θ. Optimally, every item is selected according to the maximal information gain for the estimation process. E.g., a common technique is to choose an item with

a 50% chance of being solved correctly. A sequence of correct answers leads therefore to selecting more difficult items and, vice versa, a sequence of incorrect answers to simpler items.

Psychological testing differentiates between two types of tests, namely *power* and *speeded* tests [2]. The former uses items with a wide range of difficulty levels, so that testees will almost surely be unable to solve all items, even when they are given unlimited time. On the contrary, speeded tests deploy homogeneous items that are easy to solve. The difficulty in speeded tests is realized by narrow time intervals in which the response has to be given. In adaptive speed tests, the latent competency parameter $\hat{\theta}$ encodes for instance reaction time, concentration, or awareness of the testee. An example of such a test is the Frankfurt Adaptive Concentration Test II (FACT-II) [4] where a simple multiplicative update of the estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is applied for the adaptation process.

In this paper, we present a novel framework for learning competency parameters in speeded tests. The formal problem setting resembles a game played in rounds. In each round, the goal is to gain as much information as possible on the difficulty setting θ corresponding to the testee's competency. The uncertainty of an estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is represented by a belief distribution over a compact interval. At round t, a new estimate $\hat{\theta}_t$ is drawn, such that $\hat{\theta}_t$ divides the belief mass in two equally sized halves. Note that this roughly corresponds to a 50% chance of success for the testee. The testee solves the item which realizes a difficulty level of $\hat{\theta}_t$. The agent observes the response ρ_t. We differentiate three cases: (i) if $\hat{\theta}_t < \theta_t$, the difficulty induced by $\hat{\theta}_t$ was *too easy* for the testee and $\rho_t = 1$, (ii) in case $\hat{\theta}_t > \theta_t$, the setting as *too difficult* and $\rho_t = -1$, and (iii) $\theta_t = \hat{\theta}_t$ which corresponds to a *just right* setting and response $\rho_t = 0$. A similar scenario for discrete variables has been studied by [3] in the context of computer games.

Before we continue with the presentation of our method, note that the problem setting does not match traditional approaches, including standard supervised (e.g., binary classification) and unsupervised (e.g., density estimation) settings, as the feedback needs to be viewed a directional and not a point-wise one and we cannot make assumption on the testee or stationarity of the observations due to learning effects and tiredness. Thus, the directional feedback is used to update exactly half of the belief mass for maximal information gain. The rationale behind this update strategy is the following: once we observe that $\hat{\theta}$ is *too difficult*, it is highly probable that all difficulty levels $\tilde{\theta} > \hat{\theta}$ are also *too difficult*. A similar argument holds vice versa for *too easy*. The directional feedback is therefore used as a nominal reward that triggers the update process. While a proof of convergence of the proposed algorithm is subject of future work, we rigorously prove results on the step size of the proposed algorithm and show that it performs equally well or better than state of the art baselines in a near-realistic scenario modelling testee behaviour. The remainder is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews related work. We present our main contributions, the learning agent and a theoretical analysis in Sections 3 and 4, respectively. Section 5 reports on simulation studies and Section 6 concludes.

2 Related Work

Motivated by applications in computer games as well as teaching systems, Missura & Gärtner [3] considered the problem of dynamic difficulty adjustment. They formalized the problem setting as a game between a master and a player played in rounds $t = 1, 2, \cdots$, where the master predicts the difficulty setting for the next round. After the player has finished his turn, the master gets feedback on whether the proposed setting has been *too easy*, *just right*, or *too difficult*. Based on this feedback, the master updates the belief on the correctness of the available difficulty settings and predicts the setting for the next round. The authors introduce the Partial Ordered Set Master (POSM) algorithm that represents the set of admissible difficulty settings as a finite discrete set $\mathcal{K}$ endowed with a partial ordering $\prec$. For each of the difficulty levels $k \in \mathcal{K}$, POSM maintains a positive number representing belief in k being *just right*. At each round, the prediction allows to update the maximal amount of belief after feedback has been received. Then, if the feedback indicates that k_t was *too hard*, belief in all difficulty levels $k \succeq k_t$ is reduced by a multiplicative update. Analogously, if k_t was *too easy*, belief in all difficulty levels $k \preceq k_t$ is reduced. Using properties of a representation of $\mathcal{K}$ as a directed acylic graph, the authors prove a bound on the regret realized by POSM. We will show later that the POSM algorithm for the case of a totally ordered set of difficulty settings is contained as a special case within our framework. In contrast to [3], we use a continuous framework and do not rely on a predefined set of discrete difficulty settings, but instead find appropriate settings adaptively on the fly.

Csáji and Weyer [1] investigated the problem of estimating a constant based on noisy measurements of a binary sensor with adjustable threshold. Formally, they considered estimating a constant $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}$ that is disturbed by additive, i.i.d. noise N_t resulting in a quantity

$$X_t = \theta^* + N_t$$

of which only binarized measurements of the form

$$Y_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_t \leq \theta_t \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

are available for $t = 0, 1, 2 \ldots$. The threshold θ_t is assumed to be adjustable based on all previous observations and threshold values. Under mild assumptions on the distribution of N_t, which hold e.g. for every symmetric distribution with mean 0, they derive a strongly consistent estimator for θ^* based on stochastic approximation. That is, if the assumptions hold and $(\alpha_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha_t = \infty$, $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha_t^2 < \infty$ and $\forall t \geq 0 : \alpha_t \geq 0$, then for any starting value θ_0, the sequence

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha_t \left(\frac{1}{2} - Y_t \right)$$

converges to θ^* almost surely. In contrast to [1], we do not make any assumptions on the distribution of the value to be estimated or on its stationarity.

In the field of psychometrics, only a few adaptive speed tests have been designed. For the assessment of concentration ability, Goldhammer & Moosbrugger [4] suggested the Frankfurt Adaptive Concentration Test II (FACT-II). As FACT-II conceptualizes concentration as the ability to respond to stimuli in the presence of distractors, testees are shown a set of items comprising of target and non-target items. They are instructed to hit one button, if a target item is present, and another button, if no target item is among the items shown. After each round t, exposure time is adjusted until a liminal exposure time is reached that just allows the testee to solve the task. Starting with a fixed initial exposure time θ_1, updating is performed multiplicatively depending on whether a response is given in time or not.

3 A Learning Agent for Parameter Estimation in Speeded Tests

We cast the problem of learning competency parameters in speeded tests as a game between an agent $\mathcal{A}$ and a testee $\mathcal{T}$ played in rounds $t = 1, 2, \dots$ on a continuous interval of difficulty settings $\Theta = [a, b]$. Θ is governed by a total order relation $>$ induced by the real numbers corresponding to the *more-difficult-than relation*. We assume that at each round, there is a *just right* setting $\theta_t \in \Theta$ for the testee $\mathcal{T}$. At round t, (i) the agent chooses a setting $\hat{\theta}_t \in \Theta$ based on the current belief, (ii) the testee responds, and (iii) the agent observes directional feedback of the form $\rho_t \in \{-1, 0, +1\}$ subject to the following rule:

$$\rho_t = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \hat{\theta}_t < \theta_t, \text{ too easy} \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{\theta}_t = \theta_t, \text{ just right} \\ -1 & \text{if } \hat{\theta}_t > \theta_t, \text{ too difficult} \end{cases}$$

Note that the *just right* setting remains hidden to the agent at all times.

In the course of the game, the agent is choosing actions $\hat{\theta}_t$ from the space of possible actions Θ that lead to a reward signal ρ_t depending on the state of the environment θ_t. The goal of the agent is to reach the rewarding state of having selected the *just right* setting by avoiding the punishing signals associated with *too difficult* or *too easy* settings.

The general idea of our approach is the following: We use a function $w_t :$ $[a, b] \to (0, \infty)$ to model the agent's belief at time t about the optimal action based on the experience gathered at time-steps $1, \dots, t-1$. Suppose that the agent selects a setting $\hat{\theta}_t$ and receives feedback $\rho_t = +1$ (*too easy*). Because of the transitivity of the ordering of difficulty settings, the agent not only learns about $\hat{\theta}_t$ as an isolated point, but also learns that all settings $\tilde{\theta}$ which are easier than $\hat{\theta}_t$, i.e., $\tilde{\theta} < \hat{\theta}_t$, would also have been *too easy* and the agent updates the belief on the whole interval $[a, \hat{\theta}_t]$. The mass of belief that can be updated is then given by

$$A_t(\hat{\theta}_t) := \int_a^{\hat{\theta}_t} w_t(x) dx.$$

Similarly, if $\rho_t = -1$, the belief in the interval $[\hat{\theta}_t, b]$ can be updated and the mass of updatable belief is

$$B_t(\hat{\theta}_t) := \int_{\hat{\theta}_t}^{b} w_t(x)dx.$$

If $\rho_t = 0$, there is no reason to update belief, because current knowledge has led to a correct prediction. We devise the following strategy for predicting $\hat{\theta}_t$ and updating belief: The difficulty setting $\hat{\theta}_t$ for the upcoming round is selected in order to allow to update as much belief as possible after feedback has been obtained. That is, we select $\hat{\theta}_t$ so that

$$\hat{\theta}_t = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\tilde{\theta} \in [a,b]} \min \left\{ A_t(\tilde{\theta}), B_t(\tilde{\theta}) \right\}. \tag{1}$$

It can easily be seen that this amounts to selecting $\hat{\theta}_t$ such that

$$A_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b w_t(x)dx.$$

Equivalently, $\hat{\theta}_t$ can be characterized by $A_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = B_t(\hat{\theta}_t)$. Because w_t is non-negative by assumption, the mapping $\hat{\theta}_t \mapsto A_t(\hat{\theta}_t)$ is strictly increasing and thus bijective, so $\hat{\theta}_t$ is uniquely determined if only $\int_a^b w_t(x)dx \neq 0$. In order to derive an algorithm from this framework, we need to specify the space of belief functions $\mathcal{W}$ and the belief updating rule

$$\mathcal{W} \times \{-1, 0, 1\} \to \mathcal{W}, \quad (w_t, \rho_t) \mapsto w_{t+1}.$$

The next section introduces strategies to learn the agent.

3.1 Interval Subdivision Agent

While there is no restriction on the space of belief functions arising from the general framework, we choose to use the space of non-negative step functions on $[a, b]$ for $\mathcal{W}$ and an exponential updating rule based on interval subdivision. That is, we divide the interval containing the actual prediction $\hat{\theta}_t$ at $\hat{\theta}_t$ and update the belief values to the left or right of $\hat{\theta}_t$ depending on the feedback ρ_t by multiplying with a parameter $\beta \in (0, 1)$. Formally, denoting by χ_M the characteristic or indicator function of a set $M \subset \mathbb{R}$, we write w_t as a sum

$$w_t = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} y_i^{(t)} \chi_{I_i^{(t)}}$$

for some $N_t \in \mathbb{N}$, where $y_i^{(t)} \geq 0$ is the value w_t takes on the ith interval given by

$$I_i^{(t)} = [x_{i-1}^{(t)}, x_i^{(t)})$$

Algorithm 1 ISA: Interval Subdivision Agent

Require: parameter $\beta \in (0,1)$, initial interval endpoints $\mathcal{I}^{(1)} = \left(a = x_0^{(1)}, \cdots, x_{N_1}^{(1)} = b\right)$, initial belief function values $\mathcal{Y}^{(1)} = \left(y_1^{(1)}, \cdots, y_{N_1}^{(1)}\right)$

1: **for** each turn $t = 1, 2, \cdots$ **do**
2:   Determine $\hat{\theta}_t$ such that $A_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b w_t(x)dx$
3:   Acquire feedback $\rho_t \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$
4:   **if** $\rho_t = 1$ **then**
5:     Let $\mathcal{I}^{(t+1)} = (x_0^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i_t^*-1}^{(t)}, \hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{N_t}^{(t)})$
6:     Let $\mathcal{Y}^{(t+1)} = \left(\beta y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
7:   **else if** $\rho_t = -1$ **then**
8:     Let $\mathcal{I}^{(t+1)} = (x_0^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i_t^*-1}^{(t)}, \hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{N_t}^{(t)})$
9:     Let $\mathcal{Y}^{(t+1)} = \left(y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \beta y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
10:   **end if**
11: **end for**

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for $i = 1 \cdots, N_t - 1$ and $I_{N_t}^{(t)} = [x_{N_t-1}, x_{N_t}]$. The interval endpoints are defined by a partition

$$a = x_0^{(t)} < x_1^{(t)} < x_2^{(t)} < \cdots < x_{N_t}^{(t)} = b$$

of $[a, b]$. By i_t^* we denote the index of the interval containing $\hat{\theta}_t$. If $\rho_t = 1$, we set

$$w_{t+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{i_t^*-1} \beta y_i \chi_{I_i^{(t)}} + \beta y_{i_t^*} \chi_{[x_{i_t^*-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)} + y_{i_t^*} \chi_{[\hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*})} + \sum_{i=i_t^*+1}^{N_t} y_i \chi_{I_i^{(t)}}, \qquad (2)$$

if $\rho_t = -1$, we set

$$w_{t+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{i_t^*-1} y_i \chi_{I_i} + y_{i_t^*} \chi_{[x_{i_t^*-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)} + \beta y_{i_t^*} \chi_{[\hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*})} + \sum_{i=i_t^*+1}^{N_t} \beta y_i \chi_{I_i}. \qquad (3)$$

Finally, if $\rho_t = 0$ no update is necessary and $w_{t+1} = w_t$. The belief function can be stored and updated efficiently by storing the endpoints $x_1^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{N_t-1}^{(t)}$ and function values $y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, y_N^{(t)}$. Also, our particular choice of $\mathcal{W}$ makes the computation of $\hat{\theta}$ simple and inexpensive: As w is a step function, its integral over θ is given by

$$\int_a^b w_t(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t-1} y_i \left(x_{i+1} - x_i\right)$$

Algorithm 3.1 shows a pseudocode implementation of the interval subdivision agent (ISA). As specified in Equations 2 and 3, depending on the response ρ_t, the current partition is updated in lines 5–8 by inserting the current estimate $\hat{\theta}_t$ as a new interval endpoint into the current partition. The belief values are updated in lines 6–9 by scaling the beliefs of the intervals to the left or right

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Algorithm 2 LISA: Limited-memory Interval Subdivision Agent

Require: parameter $\beta \in (0,1)$, initial interval endpoints $\mathcal{I}^{(1)} = \left(a = x_0^{(1)}, \cdots, x_{N_1}^{(1)} = b\right)$, initial belief function values $\mathcal{Y}^{(1)} = \left(y_1^{(1)}, \cdots, y_{N_1}^{(1)}\right)$, limit on interval width ϵ

1: **for** each turn $t = 1, 2, \cdots$ **do**
2:     Determine $\hat{\theta}_t$ such that $A_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b w_t(x)dx$
3:     Acquire feedback $\rho_t \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$
4:     **if** $\rho_t = 1$ **then**
5:       **if** $\hat{\theta}_t - x_{i_t^*-1} > \epsilon$ **and** $x_{i_t^*} - \hat{\theta}_t > \epsilon$ **then**
6:         Let $\mathcal{I}^{(t+1)} = (x_0^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i_t^*-1}^{(t)}, \hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{N_t}^{(t)})$
7:         Let $\mathcal{Y}^{(t+1)} = \left(\beta y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
8:       **else**
9:         Let $\mathcal{I}^{t+1} = \mathcal{I}^t$
10:        Let $\mathcal{Y}^{t+1} = \left(\beta y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, y_{t_t^*+1}^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
11:       **end if**
12:     **else if** $\rho_t = -1$ **then**
13:       **if** $\hat{\theta}_t - x_{i_t^*-1} > \epsilon$ **and** $x_{i_t^*} - \hat{\theta}_t > \epsilon$ **then**
14:         Let $\mathcal{I}^{(t+1)} = (x_0^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{i_t^*-1}^{(t)}, \hat{\theta}_t, x_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, x_{N_t}^{(t)})$
15:         Let $\mathcal{Y}^{(t+1)} = \left(y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \beta y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
16:       **else**
17:         Let $\mathcal{I}^{t+1} = \mathcal{I}^t$
18:        Let $\mathcal{Y}^{t+1} = \left(y_1^{(t)}, \cdots, y_{i_t^*}^{(t)}, \beta y_{t_t^*+1}^{(t)}, \cdots, \beta y_{N_t}^{(t)}\right)$
19:       **end if**
20:     **end if**
21: **end for**

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of $\hat{\theta}_t$, respectively. The initial belief function w_1 can be tailored to incorporate prior knowledge about where to expect θ_1. In the absence of prior knowledge on the distribution of θ, $w_1 \equiv 1$ serves as a possible initialization.

3.2 Limited-memory Interval Subdivision Agent

The memory usage of the ISA algorithm at time t is in $\mathcal{O}(t)$. Indeed, if w_0 is represented by N interval-value pairs, each step adds at most one node in the belief function. A limit on the amount of memory consumed by ISA can be imposed by limiting interval subdivision. In Algorithm 2, we introduce limited-memory ISA (LISA) that only subdivides intervals when subdivision results in intervals of width greater than a given parameter $\epsilon > 0$. If the conditional on interval length implemented in lines 5 and 13 holds, updating is perfomed as in ISA. If not, the current partition and corresponding intervals remain unchanged (lines 9 and 14) but the belief values are updated. This is done by multiplying belief values belonging to intervals to the left respectively right of $\hat{\theta}_t$ as well as belief on the interval containing $\hat{\theta}_t$ (lines 10 and 18).

4 Theoretical Analysis

In this section we present a rigorous theoretical analysis of the ISA algorithm. We are interested in characterizing convergence properties of ISA under different assumptions. The simplest assumption that can be made about the *just right* setting is that it remains constant at all times. That is, $\theta_t \equiv c$ for $c \in [a, b]$ and all $t \in \mathbb{N}$. In this case, numerical experiments show that the sequence of values produced by the ISA algorithm converges to c. We now prove a bound on the step size between successive predictions by ISA. The bound follows directly from Lemma 1.

Lemma 1. *Let $f : [a, b] \to (0, \infty)$ be bounded and integrable on $[a, b]$. Let $\beta \in (0, 1)$. Let $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in [a, b]$ be numbers such that $\int_a^{\theta_1} f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b f(x)dx$ and $\int_a^{\theta_2} \hat{f}(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b \hat{f}(x)dx$, where*

$$\hat{f}(x) = \begin{cases} \beta f(x) & \text{if } a \leq x \leq \theta_1 \\ f(x) & \text{if } \theta_1 < x \leq b \end{cases}.$$

Then $\theta_1 < \theta_2$ and

$$\frac{1 - \beta}{4M} \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq \theta_2 - \theta_1 \leq \frac{1 - \beta}{4m} \int_a^b f(x)dx. \tag{4}$$

where $M := \max_{x \in [a, b]} f(x)$ and $m := \min_{x \in [a, b]} f(x)$.

Proof. To prove $\theta_1 \leq \theta_2$, assume for a moment that $\theta_1 > \theta_2$. By definition it holds that

$$\int_a^{\theta_2} \hat{f}(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^{\theta_1} \hat{f}(x)dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\theta_1}^b \hat{f}(x)dx,$$

which, by using the definition of $\hat{f}$ and the assumption, resolves to

$$\beta \int_a^{\theta_2} f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2}\beta \int_a^{\theta_1} f(x)dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\theta_1}^b f(x)dx = \frac{\beta + 1}{4\beta} \int_a^b f(x)dx,$$

where we used that by definition both integrals on the RHS equal $\frac{1}{2} \int_a^b f(x)dx$. By assumption we then have

$$\frac{\beta + 1}{4\beta} \int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^{\theta_2} f(x)dx < \int_a^{\theta_1} f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b f(x)dx,$$

yielding $\beta > 1$ since $\int_a^b f(x)dx \neq 0$. This contradiction establishes $\theta_1 \leq \theta_2$; we now show that equality cannot hold and proceeds as follows. We begin by subtracting the defining equations for θ_1 and θ_2 and splitting the integrals at θ_1 to obtain

$$\int_a^{\theta_1} f(x) - \hat{f}(x)dx - \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \hat{f}(x)dx = \frac{1}{2}\left(\int_a^{\theta_1} f(x) - \hat{f}(x)dx + \int_{\theta_1}^b f(x) - \hat{f}(x)dx \right).$$

Plugging in the definition of $\hat{f}$ and recalling that $\theta_1 \leq \theta_2$, we arrive at

$$\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} f(x)dx = \frac{(1-\beta)}{2} \int_a^{\theta_1} f(x)dx = \frac{(1-\beta)}{4} \int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

Applying the mean value theorem to $\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} f(x)dx$, we obtain that for some $\xi \in [\theta_1, \theta_2]$, it holds that

$$\theta_2 - \theta_1 = \frac{(1-\beta)}{4f(\xi)} \int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

The desired inequality then follows by bounding f by its minimum and maximum on $[a,b]$. Note that the last equation implies that $\theta_1 \neq \theta_2$, as the RHS is strictly positive. $\qquad\square$

Lemma 1 says that if the difficulty level $\hat{\theta}_t$ estimated by ISA is *too easy* ($\rho_t = 1$), the new estimate will be greater than its predecessor, that is $\hat{\theta}_{t+1} > \hat{\theta}_t$ holds. Analogously the case $\rho_t = -1$ implies $\hat{\theta}_{t+1} < \hat{\theta}_t$. We use the inequality to derive a bound on the step size of ISA in the following Theorem 1.

Theorem 1. *Let* $\left(\hat{\theta}_t\right)_{t=1}^N$ *be a sequence of estimations generated by ISA with parameter* β*. Then for* $t = 1, \ldots, N-1$ *it holds that*

$$\frac{1-\beta}{4M_t} \int_a^b w_t(x)dx \leq \left|\hat{\theta}_{t+1} - \hat{\theta}_t\right| \leq \frac{1-\beta}{4m_t} \int_a^b w_t(x)dx,$$

where

$$M_t := \max_{x \in [a,b]} w_t(x)$$

and

$$m_t := \min_{x \in [a,b]} w_t(x).$$

Proof. Mutatis mutandis applying the proof of Lemma 1 to

$$\hat{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } a \leq x \leq \theta_1 \\ \beta f(x) & \text{if } \theta_1 < x \leq b \end{cases}$$

and noting that in the ISA algorithm, w_{t+1} is derived from w_t like $\hat{f}$ is from f in Lemma 1, the desired bound follows. $\qquad\square$

Theorem 1 bounds the minimal and maximal difference between successive estimates by ISA. Note that the bounds are invariant under rescaling of the belief function, but depend on the parameter β that controls learning rate: If β is small, new experience is given more weight and the lower bound on step size is greater than its analogue for $\beta \approx 1$ which gives less weight to new information.

We now investigate the relation between LISA and POSM [3] for a completely ordered set which we denote by $\Theta' = \{1, \cdots, N\}$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, endowed with the natural ordering. The following proposition holds:
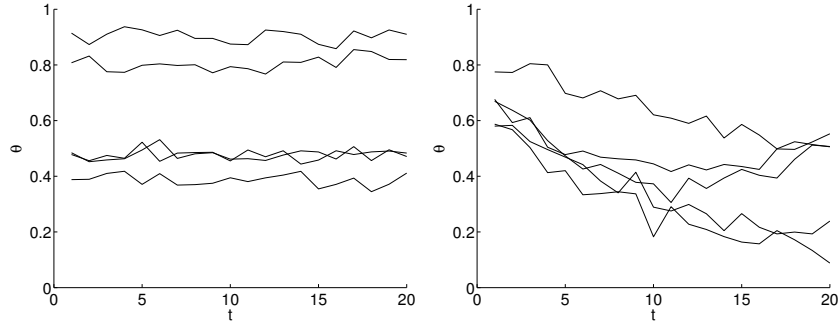
Fig. 1. Randomly parametrized functions modelling θ in absence (left) and presence of drift (right). In both scenarios white noise is added.

Proposition 1. *Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$, $\Theta' = 1, \ldots, N$ endowed with the natural ordering be the set of difficulty levels for POSM and let $[a,b] = [0,N]$. Let $\beta \in (0,1)$, $\epsilon < 1$. Define the initial belief function w_0 for LISA by $x_i = i$ for $i = 0, \cdots, N$ and $y_i = 1$ for $j = 1, \cdots, N$. Denote by $\mathrm{ind}(x)$ the function mapping $x \in [a,b]$ to Θ' such that $x \in [x_{\mathrm{ind}(x)-1}, x_{\mathrm{ind}(x)})$. Then, given a sequence of feedback $(\rho_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$, the estimates $(\tilde{k}_t)$ produced by POSM coincide with $(\mathrm{ind}(\hat{\theta}_t))_{t=1}^N$.*

Proof. First, note that LISA will not subdivide the initial intervals any further because the interval sizes are fixed to one. For $t = 1$, by assumption, the weights of POSM on each setting $\theta' \in \Theta'$ coincide with the belief function values on the LISA interval $I_{\theta'}$. Thus, breaking ties by selecting the harder setting, POSM will select $\theta'_1 = \lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil$ and LISA will select the midpoint of $[1, N]$, $\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{N}{2}$. Therefore, $\mathrm{ind}(\hat{\theta}_1) = \hat{\theta}'_1$. After updating the weights and belief values, respectively, they coincide again.

Similar reasoning shows that given coinciding weights at time t, it holds that $\mathrm{ind}(\hat{\theta}_t) = \hat{\theta}'_t$ and that after updating, POSM's weights on settings again coincide with LISA's belief on corresponding intervals. The claim follows by induction. □

The result stated in Proposition 1 explains to some extent why ISA and LISA expose a behaviour qualitatively similar to that of POSM in the setting of our experiments. As we show in the next section, the LISA and ISA algorithms are able to exploit the continuous setting, outperforming POSM by a significant margin.

5 Empirical Results

For our experiments, we simulate near-realistic scenarios to create settings that reflect behaviour observed in adaptive psychological speed tests or computer games. We compare the empirical performance of ISA and LISA to state-of-the-art baselines POSM [3] and the algorithm used by FACT-II [4].
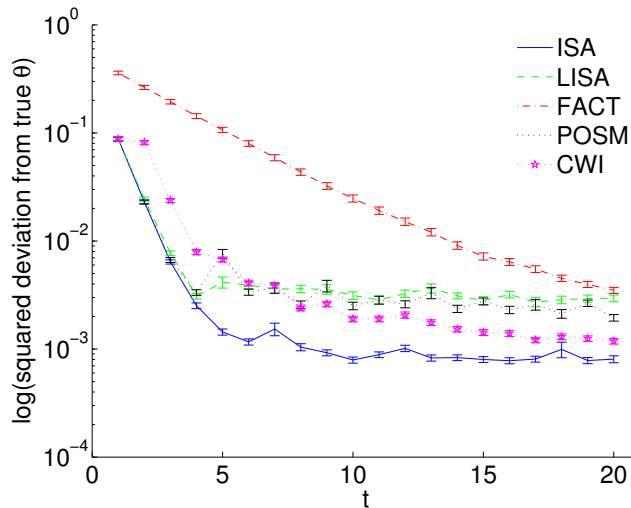
Fig. 2. Squared deviations from true θ for the constant setting.

Throughout all our experiments, we use $\Theta = [0, 1]$. Note that this does not limit generality, as every compact interval can be rescaled and shifted to match Θ. To allow for a fair comparison, the set of difficulty settings for POSM consists of N equidistantly sampled points in Θ, where N is the number of time steps used. This choice guarantees that the number of subdivisions made by ISA and LISA is less than or equal to the number of settings available to POSM. Thus, all approaches have access to the same amount of resources. We use optimal parameters for ISA, LISA and POSM chosen by model selection.

We consider two distinct settings: In the first setting, the true parameter θ remains constant. We sample the constants from a uniform distribution on Θ. For the constant setting, we also include Csáji-Weyer-Iteration (CWI) [1] as an additional baseline. In the second setting, we simulate learning and tiredness effects. The true parameter θ thus underlies drifts and the resulting distribution is not stationary. We use the following function to model the evolution of θ,

$$f(t) = 1 - \left(1 + \exp\left(2a - \frac{t}{5 + 5b}\right)\right)^{-1} + \frac{ct^2}{2N^2},$$

where the parameters a, b, c are also sampled from a uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$. Additionally, observations are disturbed by additive noise originating from a Gaussian distribution with $\mu = 0$, $\sigma = 0.025$. Figure 1 shows sample observations for the two settings. In both settings, we conduct 500 repetitions with randomly drawn θ (and a, b, c in the second setting) and report on averaged deviations and standard errors.

Figure 2 shows the results for the constant setting. All algorithms need some time to adapt to the noisy θ. The three learning algorithms and CWI, however,
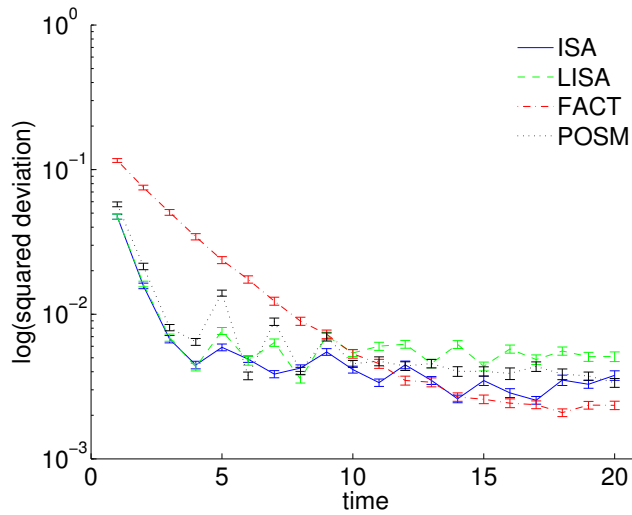
Fig. 3. Squared deviations from true θ in presence of drift

approach the true θ significantly faster than FACT. CWI and ISA approximate the true θ much more closely with ISA realizing quicker convergence and smaller error. The squared error is smallest for ISA, followed by the almost equally performing LISA and POSM. FACT is outperformed by all four competitors by a large margin (see also Table 1).

Figure 3 summarizes the results for the drift setting. ISA performs best, followed by LISA and POSM. Again FACT is outperformed significantly by the others. The squared errors are similar or smaller for all algorithms than they are in absence of drift (see Table 1), showing that all algorithms can deal with drift well. The performance of FACT even proves significantly better than in the setting without drift. This effect can be explained by the fact that the model of drift employed here favors evolutions of θ starting in the upper range of Θ. Note that FACT is initialized with $\hat{\theta}_0 = 1$ which affects its performance in the first iterations. The other algorithms benefit in the beginning from intitalizing θ with the mean of the search space. However, different choices are possible.

Table 1. Sum of squared deviations from true θ, average over 500 runs.

	ISA	LISA	POSM	FACT	CWI
constant	3.3842	4.3905	4.2441	34.8336	5.9575
drift	3.4027	4.0825	4.4171	9.4808	–

6 Conclusion

We have introduced a mathematically sound learning framework for parameter adaptation in speeded tests. Our approach does not make any assumptions on the distribution of the true parameter and is therefore deployable in settings characterized by parameter drift and additive noise. While a proof of convergence is subject of future work, we have presented and proven first results on the algorithm's behaviour to pave the way for further analyses. Empirically, we have shown that the algorithm performs equally or better than state of the art baselines in different scenarios modelling testee behaviour under different assumptions. Preliminary experiments using probabilistic assumptions (not presented here) show that e.g. for normally distributed θ, ISA converges against the median of the hidden data, yielding $P(\text{success}) = 50\%$, which would make the algorithm also ideally suited for a broader range of applications. To assess ISA's and LISA's performance in real-world scenarios, we are currently working on acquiring data from crowd-sourced speed tests and also plan to test the algorithm on dynamic difficulty adaptation scenarios in computer games such as Tetris.

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