

Automatic Essay Scoring Systems Are Both Overstable And Oversensitive: Explaining Why And Proposing Defenses

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Abstract

Deep-learning based Automatic Essay Scoring (AES) systems are being actively used in various high-stake applications in education and testing. However, little research has been put to understand and interpret the black-box nature of deep-learning based scoring algorithms. While previous studies indicate that scoring models can be easily fooled, in this paper, we explore the reason behind their surprising adversarial brittleness. We utilize recent advances in interpretability to find the extent to which features such as coherence, content, vocabulary, and relevance are important for automated scoring mechanisms. We use this to investigate the oversensitivity (*i.e.*, large change in output score with a little change in input essay content) and overstability (*i.e.*, little change in output scores with large changes in input essay content) of AES. Our results indicate that autoscoring models, despite getting trained as “end-to-end” models with rich contextual embeddings such as BERT, behave like bag-of-words models. A few words determine the essay score without the requirement of any context making the model largely *overstable*. This is in stark contrast to recent probing studies on pre-trained representation learning models, which show that rich linguistic features such as parts-of-speech and morphology are encoded by them. Further, we also find that the models have learnt dataset biases, making them *oversensitive*. The presence of a few words with high co-occurrence with a certain score class makes the model associate the essay sample with that score. This causes score changes in ~95% of samples with an addition of only a few words. To deal with these issues, we propose detection-based protection models that can detect oversensitivity and samples causing overstability with high accuracies. We find that our proposed models are able to detect unusual attribution patterns and flag adversarial samples successfully.

Keywords: Interpretability in AI, Automatic Essay Scoring, AI in Education

*. Equal Contribution

1. Introduction

Automatic Essay Scoring (AES) systems are used in diverse settings such as to alleviate the workload of teachers, save time and costs associated with grading, and to decide admissions to universities and institutions. On average, a British teacher spends five hours in a calendar week scoring exams and assignments (Micklewright et al., 2014). This figure is even higher for developing and low-resource countries where the teacher to student ratio is dismal. While on the one hand, auto-grading systems effectively reduce this burden, allowing more working hours for teaching activities, on the other, there have been many complaints against these systems for not scoring the way they are supposed to (Feathers, 2019; Smith, 2018; Greene, 2018; Mid-Day, 2017; Perelman et al., 2014b).

Test questions on standardized tests elicit *persuasive* and *informative* writing with specific discourse structure. While in persuasive writing, students write their opinions about a topic and try to validate them using *convincing* arguments, informative writing is more *descriptive* and requires students to state their experiences to substantiate their opinions. Both of them adhere to strict discourse strategies (Burstein et al., 2003) which includes an introduction, thesis statements, main and supporting ideas, and finally a conclusion. Several research studies have investigated how finding and scoring discourse from essays helps to provide a better holistic score to essays (McNamara et al., 2014; Graesser and McNamara, 2011; Burstein et al., 2001; Nadeem et al., 2019; Burstein et al., 1998). At the same time, both research studies and empirical evidence have suggested that AES models have repeatedly failed to score discourse and other features important for scoring. For instance, on the recently released automatic scoring system for the state of Utah, students scored lower by writing question-relevant keywords but higher by including unrelated content (Feathers, 2019; Smith, 2018). Similarly, it has been a common complaint that AES systems focus unjustifiably on obscure and difficult vocabulary (Perelman et al., 2014a). While earlier, each score generated by the AI systems was verified by an expert human rater, it is concerning to see that now many of them are scoring independently without any intervention by human experts (O'Donnell, 2020; Singla et al., 2022a). The concerns are further alleviated by the fact that the scores awarded by such systems are used in life-changing decisions ranging from college and job applications to visa approvals (ETS, 2020b; Educational Testing Association, 2019; USBE, 2020; Institute, 2020).

Traditionally, autograding systems are built using manually crafted features used with machine learning based models (Kumar et al., 2019; Bamdev et al., 2022). Lately, these systems have been shifting to deep learning based models (Ke and Ng, 2019). For instance, many companies have started scoring candidates using deep learning based automatic scoring (SLTI-SOPI, 2021; Assessment, 2021; Duolingo, 2021; LaFlair and Settles, 2019; Yu et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2018; Singla et al., 2021; Riordan et al., 2017; Pearson, 2019). However, there are very few research studies on the reliability¹ and validity² of ML-based AES systems. More specifically, we have tried to address the problems of robustness and validity which plague deep learning based black-box AES models. Simply measuring test set performance may mean that the model is right for the wrong reasons. Hence, much research is required to understand the scoring algorithms used by AES models and to validate them on linguistic and testing criteria. Similar opinions are expressed by Madnani and Cahill (2018) in their position paper on automatic scoring systems.

1. A reliable measure is one that measures a construct consistently across time, individuals, and situations (Ramanarayanan et al., 2020)

2. A valid measure is one that measures what it is intended to measure (Ramanarayanan et al., 2020)

With this in view, in this paper, we make the following contributions towards understanding current AES systems:

1) Several research studies have shown that essay scoring models are *overstable* (Yoon et al., 2018; Powers et al., 2002; Kumar et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2018). Even large changes in essay content do not lead to significant change in scores. For instance, Kumar et al. (2020) showed that even after changing 20% words of an essay, the scores do not change much. We extend this line of work by addressing *why* the models are overstable. Extending these studies further (§4.1), we investigate AES overstableness from the perspective of discourse, coherence, facts, vocabulary, length, grammar and word choice. We do this by using integrated gradients (§3.2), where we find and visualize the most important words for scoring an essay (Sundararajan et al., 2017). We find that the models despite using rich contextual embeddings and deep learning architectures, are essentially behaving as bag-of-words models. Further, we develop models through which we are able to improve the adversarial attack strength (§4.1.2). For example, for memory networks scoring model (Zhao et al., 2017), we delete 40% words from essays without significantly changing score ($<1\%$), whereas Kumar et al. (2020) observed that deleting a similar number of words resulted in a decrease of 20% scores for the same model.

2) While there has been much work on AES overstableness (Kumar et al., 2020; Perelman, 2014; Powers et al., 2001), there has been little work on AES oversensitivity. Building on this research gap, by using adversarial triggers, we find that the AES models are also oversensitive, *i.e.*, small changes in an essay can lead to large change in scores (§4.2). We find that, by just adding 3 words in an essay containing 350 words ($<1\%$ change), we are able to change the predicted score by 50% (absolute). We explain the oversensitivity of AES systems using integrated gradients (Sundararajan et al., 2017), a principled tool to discover the importance of parts of an input. The results show that the trigger words added to an essay get unusually high attribution. Additionally, we find the trigger words have usually high co-occurrence with certain score labels, thus indicating that the models are relying on spurious correlations causing them to be oversensitive (§4.2.4). We validate both the oversensitive and overstable sample in a human study (§5). We ask the annotators whether the scores given by AES models are right by providing them with both original and modified essay responses and scores.

3) While much previous research in the linguistic field studies how essay scoring systems can be fooled, for the first time, we propose models that can detect samples causing overstableness and oversensitivity (Pham et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2020; Perelman, 2020). Our models are able to detect both overstableness and samples causing oversensitivity with high accuracies ($>90\%$ in most cases) (§6). Also, for the first time in the literature, through these solutions, we propose a simple yet effective solution for universal adversarial perturbation (§6.1). These models, apart from defending AES systems against samples causing oversensitivity and overstableness, can also inform effective human intervention strategy. For instance, AES deployments either completely rely on double scoring essay samples (human and machine) or solely on machine ratings alone (ETS, 2020a; Singla et al., 2022a). With the developed model, AES deployments can choose to have an effective middle ground by selecting samples for human testing and intervention more effectively. Public school systems, *e.g.*, in Ohio which use automatic scoring without any human interventions can select samples using these models for limited human intervention (O’Donnell, 2020; Institute, 2020). For this, we also conduct a small-scale pilot study on the AES deployment of a major language testing company proving the efficacy of the system (§6.3). Previous solutions for human interventions optimization rely on brittle features such as number of words and content modeling approaches like off-topic

detection (Yoon et al., 2018; Yoon and Zechner, 2017). These models cannot detect adversarial samples like the ones we present in our work.

We perform our experiments for three model architectures and eight unique prompts³, demonstrating the results on twenty-four unique model-dataset pairs. It is worth noting that our goal in this paper is *not* to argue against AES systems and their applications. Rather, **our goal is to interpret how deep-learning based scoring models score essays, why they are overstable and oversensitive, and how to solve the problems of oversensitivity and overstability.** We release all our code, dataset and tools for public use with the hope that it will spur testing and validation of AES models.

2. Related Work

The related work for our work can be chiefly divided into two streams: standardized testing and automatic scoring, and testing and validation of the automated scoring models developed.

Automatic essay scoring: The education testing research community argues for using construct-response (CR) based testing in high-stakes scenarios (Higgins et al., 2011). Well-known tests such as TOEFL, GRE, ACT, LinguaSkill, Duolingo English Test, and SAT are some examples of CR based standardized testing, where the tests present “naturalistic” prompts such as writing essays and summarizing a news report (such as in GRE, TOEFL, SAT), and making a conversation and giving a speech (such as in Duolingo English Test, TOEFL, LinguaSkill) as opposed to artificial tasks like solving multiple choice questions or filling blanks. The community believes that these types of prompts are much more likely to be encountered by the candidate in real-life scenarios (Stiggins, 1982; Charney, 1984; Messick, 1996) and that they provide a more *accurate* way of measuring test construct (Moran, 1987; Wiggins, 1991). Moreover, artificial testing like those of multiple choice questions lead to washback effects (refers to the extent to which the introduction and use of a test influences language teachers and learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning) (Messick, 1996; Wiggins, 1991).

Due to the superiority of CR based testing, they have become a popular means of testing candidates in high-stakes scenarios (such as those of job and visa interviews and college admissions). This poses a significant challenge for language testing and natural language processing communities since CR based testing typically tests on a variety of skills incorporating syntax, semantics, and particularly discourse and organization and by its very nature is costlier than scoring MCQs. By automating this scoring, testing companies reduce the costs associated with training raters, scoring samples, monitoring quality, and also reduce the time to get scores.

Almost all the auto-scoring models are learning-based and treat the task of scoring as a supervised learning task (Ke and Ng, 2019; Ormerod et al., 2021) with a few using reinforcement learning (Wang et al., 2018) and semi-supervised learning (Chen et al., 2010). While the earlier models relied on ML algorithms and hand-crafted rules (Page, 1966; Faulkner, 2014; Kumar et al., 2019; Persing et al., 2010), lately the systems are shifting to deep learning algorithms (Taghipour and Ng, 2016; Grover et al., 2020; Dong and Zhang, 2016; Uto et al., 2020). Approaches have ranged from finding the hierarchical structure of documents (Dong and Zhang, 2016), using attention over words (Dong et al., 2017), multi-stage pretraining (Song et al., 2020), and modelling coherence (Tay et al., 2018).

3. Here a prompt denotes an instance of a unique question asked to test-takers for eliciting their opinions and answers in an exam. The prompts can come from varied domains including literature, science, logic and society. The responses to a prompt indicate the creative, literary, argumentative, narrative, and scientific aptitude of candidates and are judged on a pre-determined score scale.

In this paper, we interpret and test the recent state-of-the-art scoring models which have shown the best performance on public datasets (Tay et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2017).

AES testing and validation: Due to the high-stakes nature of the tests, if the AES models are not validated for their adherence to test objectives, they may drive the students to use unethical ways to game the system by addressing the tasks in superficial and construct-irrelevant manner. However, while automatic scoring has seen much research in the recent years, model validation and testing still lag in the ML field with only a few contemporary works (Kumar et al., 2020; Pham et al., 2021; Yoon and Xie, 2014; Malinin et al., 2017). Kumar et al. (2020) and Pham et al. (2021) show that AES systems are adversarially insecure. Pham et al. (2021) also try adversarial training and obtain no significant improvements. Yoon and Xie (2014) and Malinin et al. (2017) model uncertainty in automatic scoring systems.

Most of the scoring model validation work is in the language testing field, which unfortunately has limited AI-expertise (Litman et al., 2018). Due to this, studies have noted that the results there are often conflicting in nature (Powers et al., 2001, 2002; Bejar et al., 2013, 2014; Perelman, 2020). Powers et al. (2002) asked 27 specialists and generalists to write essays that could produce significant deviations with respect to scores from ETS’s *e-rater*. The winner entry repeated the same paragraph 37 times hence showing that repetition over prompt-related keywords makes the scores given by AES unreliable. Perelman et al. (2014a) made software that takes in five keywords and produces semantic garbage written in a difficult and obscure language. They tested it out with the ETS’s system and produced high scores, thus concluding that the essay writing system learns to recognize obscure language with difficult and nonmeaningful words and phrases like, ‘*fundamental drone of humanity*’, ‘*auguring commencements, torpor of library*’ and ‘*personal disenfranchisement for the exposition we accumulate conjectures*’⁴.

In this work, we do a *systematic* analysis of AES models on features important for scoring and try to interpret the mechanism followed by AES systems for both original and perturbed samples. Through this, we discover the over stability and oversensitivity of the AES models and investigate the possible reasons behind their behavior. We also propose several defense mechanisms to solve these problems of the AES models.

3. Background

3.1 Task, Models and Dataset

We use the widely cited ASAP-AES (2012) dataset which comes from Kaggle Automated Student Assessment Prize (ASAP) for the evaluation of automatic essay scoring systems. The ASAP-AES dataset has been used for automatically scoring essay responses by many research studies (Taghipour and Ng, 2016; EASE, 2013; Tay et al., 2018). It is one of the largest publicly available datasets (Table 1). The questions covered by the dataset span many different areas such as Sciences and English. The responses were written by high school students and were subsequently double-scored.

We test the following two state-of-the-art models in this work: *SkipFlow* (Tay et al., 2018) and Memory Augmented Neural Network (*MANN*) (Zhao et al., 2017). Further, for comparison, we design a BERT based automatic scoring model. The performance is measured using Quadratic Weighted Kappa (QWK) metric, which indicates the agreement between a model’s and the expert

4. Generated by giving the keywords, ‘Library’, ‘Delhi’ and ‘College’ respectively.

Prompt Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
#Responses	1783	1800	1726	1772	1805	1800	1569	723
Score Range	2-12	1-6	0-3	0-3	0-4	0-4	0-30	0-60
#Avg words per response	350	350	150	150	150	150	250	650
#Avg sentences per response	23	20	6	4	7	8	12	35
Type	Argumentative	Argumentative	RC	RC	RC	RC	Narrative	Narrative

Table 1: Overview of the ASAP AES Dataset used for evaluation of AS systems. (RC = Reading Comprehension).

human rater’s scores. All models show an improvement of 4-5% over the previous models on the QWK metric. The analysis of these models, especially BERT, is interesting in light of recent studies indicating that pretrained language models learn rich linguistic features including morphology, parts-of-speech, word-length, noun-verb agreement, coherence, and language delivery (Conneau et al., 2018; Hewitt and Manning, 2019; Singla et al., 2022c). This has resulted in pushing the envelope for many NLP applications. The individual models we use are briefly explained as follows:

SkipFlow Tay et al. (2018) model essay scoring as a regression task. They utilize Glove embeddings for representing the tokens. SkipFlow captures coherence, flow and semantic relatedness over time, which the authors call neural coherence features. Due to the intelligent modelling, it gets an impressive average quadratic weighted kappa score of 0.764. SkipFlow is one of the top performing models (Tay et al., 2018; Ke and Ng, 2019) for AES.

MANN Zhao et al. (2017) use memory networks for autoscoring by selecting some responses for each grade. These responses are stored in memory and then used for scoring ungraded responses. The memory component helps to characterize the various score levels similar to what a rubric does. They show an excellent agreement score of 0.78 average QWK outperforming the previous state-of-the-art models.

BERT-based We also design a BERT-based architecture for scoring essays. It utilizes BERT embeddings (Devlin et al., 2019) to represent essays by passing tokens through the BERT Encoder. The CLS token embedding from the last layer is passed through a fully connected layer of size 1 to produce the score. The network was trained to predict the essay scores by minimizing the mean squared error loss. It achieves an average QWK score of 0.74. We utilize this architecture as a baseline representative of transformer-based embedding models.

3.2 Attribution Mechanism

The task of attributing a score $F(x)$ given by an AES model F , on an input essay x can be formally defined as producing attributions a_1, \dots, a_n corresponding to the words w_1, \dots, w_n contained in the essay x . The attributions produced are such that⁵ $Sum(a_1, \dots, a_n) = F(x)$, *i.e.*, net attributions of all words ($Sum(a_1, \dots, a_n)$) equal the assigned score ($F(x)$). In a way, if F is a regression based model, a_1, \dots, a_n can be thought of as the scores of each word of that essay, which sum to produce the final score, $F(x)$.

We use a path-based attribution method, Integrated Gradients (IGs) (Sundararajan et al., 2017), much like other interpretability mechanisms such as (Ribeiro et al., 2016; Lundberg and Lee, 2017) for getting the attributions for each of the trained models, F . IGs employ the following method to

5. Proposition 1 in (Sundararajan et al., 2017)

find blame assignments: given an input x and a baseline b^6 , the integrated gradient along the i^{th} dimension is defined as:

$$IG_i(x, b) = (x_i - b_i) \int_{\alpha=0}^1 \frac{\partial F(b + \alpha(x - b))}{\partial x_i} d\alpha \quad (1)$$

where $\frac{\partial F(x)}{\partial x_i}$ represents the gradient of F along the i^{th} dimension of x .

We choose the baseline as empty input (all 0s) for essay scoring models since an empty essay should get a score of 0 as per the scoring rubrics. It is the neutral input that models the absence of a cause of any score, thus getting a zero score. Since we want to see the effect of only words on the score, any additional inputs (such as memory in MANN) of the baseline b is set to be that of x^7 . See Fig. 1 for an example. In all our IG diagrams, green highlighting indicates positive attribution while red highlighting indicates negative attribution.

We choose IGs over other explainability techniques since they have many desirable properties that make them useful for this task. For instance, the attributions sum to the score of an essay ($Sum(a_1, \dots, a_n) = F(x)$), they are implementation invariant, do not require any model to be re-trained and are readily implementable. Previous literature such as (Mudrakarta et al., 2018) also uses Integrated Gradients for explaining the undersensitivity of factoid-based question-answer (QA) models. Other interpretability mechanisms like attention require changes in the tested model and are not post-hoc, thus are not a good choice for our task.

have you seen a magazine book movies etc that are found offensive what experiences did you have here is my opinion on if i think that those books should be removed or not i have noticed that some movies are offensive to other people like for an example the caps1 movies	have you seen a magazine , book , movies , etc , that are found ? what experiences did you have ? here is my opinion on if i think that those books should be removed or not i have noticed that some movies are to other people like for an example , the movies ,	[CLS] have you seen a magazine , book , movies , etc . , that are found af ##fen ##sive ? what experiences did you have ? here is my opinion on if i think that those books should be removed or not . i have noticed that some movies are af ##fen ##sive to other
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Figure 1: Attributions for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT models respectively of an essay sample for Prompt 2. Prompt 2 asks candidates to write an essay to a newspaper reflecting their views on censorship in libraries and express their views if they believe that materials, such as books, *etc.*, should be removed from the shelves if they are found offensive. This essay scored 3 out of 6.

4. Empirical Studies and Results

We perform our over stability (§4.1) and oversensitivity (§4.2) experiments with 100 samples per prompt for the three models discussed in Section 3.1. There are 8 prompt-level datasets in the overall ASAP-AES dataset, therefore we perform our analysis on 24 unique model-dataset pairs, each containing over 100 samples.

6. Defined as an input containing absence of cause for the output of a model; also called neutral input (Shrikumar et al., 2016; Sundararajan et al., 2017).

7. We ensure that IGs are within the acceptable error margin of $<5\%$, where the error is calculated by the property that the attributions' sum should be equal to the difference between the probabilities of the input and the baseline. IG parameters: Number of Repetitions = 20-50, Internal Batch Size = 20-50

4.1 AES Overstability

We first present results on model overstability. Following the previous studies, we test the models’ overstability on different features important for AES scoring such as the knowledge of discourse (§4.1.1, 4.1.2), coherence (§4.1.3), facts (§4.1.5), vocabulary (§4.1.4), length (§4.1.2), meaning (§4.1.3), and grammar (§4.1.4). This set of features provides an exhaustive coverage of all features important for scoring essays (Yan et al., 2020).

4.1.1 ATTRIBUTION OF ORIGINAL SAMPLES

We take the original human-written essays from the ASAP-AES dataset and do a word-level attribution of scores. Fig. 1 shows the attributions of all models for an essay sample from Prompt 2. We observe that SkipFlow does not attribute any word after the first few lines (first 30% essay content) of the essay, while MANN attributions are spread over the complete length of the essay. For the BERT-based model, we see that most of the attributions are over nonlinguistic features (tokens) like ‘CLS’ and ‘SEP’. CLS and SEP tokens are used as delimiters in the BERT model. A similar result was also observed by Kovaleva et al. (2019).

For SkipFlow, we observe that if a word is negatively attributed at a certain position in an essay sample, it is then commonly negatively attributed in its other occurrences as well. For instance, *books*, *magazines* were negatively attributed in all its occurrences while *materials*, *censored* were positively attributed and *library* was not attributed at all. We could not find any patterns in the direction of attribution. In MANN, the same word changes its attribution sign when present in different essays. However, in a single instance of an essay, a word shows the same sign overall despite occurring in very different contexts.

Table 2 lists the top-positive, top-negative attributed words and the mostly unattributed words for all models. For MANN, we notice that the attributions are stronger for function words like *to*, *of*, *you*, *do*, and *are* and lesser for content words like *shelves*, *libraries*, and *music*. SkipFlow’s top attributions are mostly construct-relevant words while BERT also focuses more on stopwords.

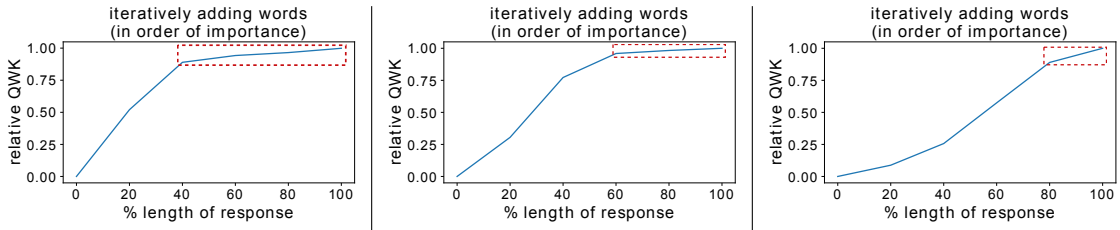


Figure 2: Variation of QWK with iterative addition of response words for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT models. The y-axis notes the relative QWK with respect to the original QWK and the x-axis represents iterative addition of attribute-sorted response words. These results are obtained on Prompt 7, similar results were obtained for all the prompts tested. Red dashed lines show ‘elbow-points’ until where removing x% of tokens results in a near equal QWK score.

4.1.2 ITERATIVELY ADDING IMPORTANT WORDS

In this test, we systematically perturb the text discourse by taking an empty essay and iteratively adding the most attributed words of the original sample (Eq. 2).

$$IG - \text{attribution sorted list of tokens} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_n) \quad (2)$$

such that $IG(x_1, b) > IG(x_2, b) > \dots > IG(x_k, b)$, where x_k represents the k^{th} essay token to be removed, b represents the baseline and $IG(x_k, b)$ represents the attribution on x_k with respect to baseline b .

Through this, we note the model’s dependence on a few words without their context. Fig. 2 presents the results. We observe that the performance (measured by QWK) for the BERT model stays within 95% of the original performance even if one of every four words was removed from the essays in the reverse order of their attribution values. The percentage of words deleted were even more for the other models. While Fig. 1 showed that MANN paid attention to the full length of the response, removing words does not seem to affect the scores much. Notably, the words removed are not contiguous but interspersed across sentences, therefore deleting the unattributed words does not produce a grammatically correct response (also see Fig. 3), yet can get a similar score thus defeating the whole purpose of testing and feedback.

These findings show that there is a point after which the score flattens out, *i.e.*, it does not change in that region either by adding or removing words. This is odd since adding or removing a word from a sentence typically alters its meaning and grammaticality, yet the models do not seem to be affected; they decide their scores only based on 30-50% words. This also demonstrates their lack of discourse knowledge. As an example, a 2-line sample after retaining its top 40% attributed words is given here: “~~In the end~~ patience rewards better than impatience. ~~A time that I was patient was last year at cheer competition.~~”

Model	Positively Attributed Words
MANN	to, of, are, ,, children, do, ', we
SKIPFLOW	of, offensive, movies, censorship, is, our
BERT	., the, to, and, ", was, caps, [CLS]
Model	Negatively Attributed Words
MANN	i, shelf, by, shelves, libraries, music, a
SKIPFLOW	the, i, to, in, that, do, a, or, be
BERT	i, [SEP], said, a, in, time, one
Model	Mostly Unattributed Words
MANN	t, you, the, think, offensive, from, my
SKIPFLOW	it, be, but, their, from, dont, one, what
BERT	@, ##1, and, ,, my, patient

Table 2: Top positive, negative and un-attributed words for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT-based model for Prompt 2.

4.1.3 SENTENCE AND WORD SHUFFLE

Coherence and organization are important features for scoring: they measure the unity of different ideas in an essay and determine its cohesiveness in the narrative (Barzilay and Lapata, 2005). To check the dependence of AES models on coherence, we shuffle the order of sentences and words randomly and note the change in score between the original and modified essay (Fig. 3).

We observe little change ($<0.002\%$) in the attributions with sentence shuffle. The attributions are mostly dependent on word identities rather than their position and context for all models. We also find that shuffling sentences results in 10%, 2% and 3% difference in scores for SkipFlow, MANN, and BERT models, respectively. Even for these samples for which we observed a change in the scores, almost half of them increased their scores and the other half was reduced. The results are similar for word-level shuffling. This is surprising since changes in the order of ideas in an essay can alter the meaning of a prose, but the models are unable to detect changes in either idea order or word-order. It indicates that despite getting trained as sentence and paragraph level models with the knowledge of language models, they have essentially become *bag-of-words models*.

every year since i	that then , one day my	[CLS] time was was real .
learned a location1	brother was down new ,	was in to sleep and went
presents now that i think	which was until he the	to the sleep , so there
said youd have to months	the a loud noise that	went to [SEP] [PAD] [PAD]
until caps1 came around i	under a age it the one it	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
caps1 but once a year	it it ears a one day my	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
caps2 enough to until	brother has this the one	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
date1 the first date2	a he he around it as loud	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
date1 told caps1 was	as it it was , it made my	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
coming along with caps1 i	after thirty minutes my	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]
try to pass the time by	it	[PAD] [PAD] [PAD] [PAD]

Figure 3: Word-shuffled essay containing 40% of (top-attributed) words for SkipFlow (left), MANN (middle) and BERT (right) models respectively. The perturbed essay scores 26 (SkipFlow), 15 (MANN) and 5 (BERT) out of 30. The original essay was scored 25, 16, 4 respectively by the models.

4.1.4 LEXICON MODIFICATION

Several previous research studies have highlighted the importance vocabulary plays in scoring and how AES models may be biased towards obscure and difficult vocabulary (Perelman et al., 2014a; Perelman, 2014; Hesse, 2005; Powers et al., 2002; Kumar et al., 2020). To verify their claims, we replace the top and bottom 10% attributed words with ‘similar’ words⁸.

Table 3 shows the results for this test. It can be noted that after replacing all the top and bottom 10% attributed words with their corresponding ‘similar’ words results in an average 4.2% difference in scores across all the models. These results imply that networks are surprisingly not perturbed by modifying even the most attributed words and produce equivalent results with other similarly placed words. In addition, while replacing a word with a ‘similar’ word often changes the meaning and form of a sentence⁹, the models do not recognize that change by showing no change in their scores.

4.1.5 FACTUALITY, COMMON SENSE, AND WORLD KNOWLEDGE

Factuality, common sense, and world knowledge are important features in scoring essays (Yan et al., 2020). While a human expert can readily catch a lie, it is difficult for a machine to do so. We randomly sample 100 sample essays of each prompt from the ADDLIES test case of (Kumar et al., 2020). For constructing these samples, they used various online databases and appended the false

8. Sampled from Glove with the distance calculated using Euclidean distance metric (Pennington et al., 2014)

9. For example, consider the replacement of the word ‘agility’ with its synonym (similar word) ‘cleverness’ in the sentence ‘This exercise requires agility.’ does not produce a sentence with the same meaning.

Result	SkipFlow	MANN	BERT
Avg score difference	9.8%	2.4%	3%
% of top-20% attributed words which had a change in their attribution values	20.3%	9.5%	34%
% of bottom-20% attributed words which had a change in their attribution values	22.5%	26.0%	45%

Table 3: Statistics obtained after replacing the top and bottom 10% attributed words of each essay with their synonyms.

the world is flat a time that i was patient was last year at cheer competition in the beginning of the day i was patient getting in line to get ready to perform once we were ready we were waiting to go to perform after we we went to watch the rest of the teams the other teams were really	the world is flat a time that i was patient was last year at cheer competition in the beginning of the day i was patient getting in line to get ready to perform once we were ready we were waiting to go to perform after , we we went to watch the rest of the teams the other teams	[CLS] the world is flat . " a time that i was patient was last year at cheer competition . in the beginning of the day i was patient getting in line to get ready to perform . once we were ready we were waiting to go to perform . after , we per ##fo ##med we went to watch
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Figure 4: Attributions for SkipFlow (left), MANN (middle) and BERT (right) models of an essay sample where a false fact has been introduced at the beginning. This essay sample scores (25/30, 18/30, 22/30) by the three models respectively. The original essay (without the added lie) scored (24/30), (18/30) and (21/30) respectively.

information at various positions in the essay. These statements not only introduce false facts in the essay but also perturb its coherence.

A teacher who is responsible for teaching, scoring, and feedback of a student must have knowledge of world knowledge such as ‘Sun rises in the East’, and ‘The world is not flat’. However, Fig. 4 shows that scoring models do not have the ability to check such common sense. The models tested in fact attribute positive scores to statements like *the world is flat* if present at the beginning. These results are in contrast with studies like (Tenney et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020) which indicate that BERT and Glove-like contextual representations have common sense and world knowledge. Ettinger (2020) in their ‘negation test’ also observe similar results to us.

BABEL Semantic Garbage: Linguistic literature has also reported that inexplicably, AES models give high scores to semantic garbage like the one generated using B.S. Essay Language Generator (BABEL generator)¹⁰ (Perelman et al., 2014a,b; Perelman, 2020). These samples are essentially semantic garbage with perfect spellings and obscure and lexically complex vocabulary. In stark contrast to (Perelman et al., 2014a) and the commonly held notion that writing obscure and using difficult words fetch more marks, we observed that the models attributed infrequent words such as *forbearance*, *legerdemain*, and *propinquity* negatively while common words such as *establishment*, *celebration*, and *demonstration* were positively scored. Therefore, our results show no evidence for the hypothesis reported by studies like (Perelman, 2020) that writing lexically complex words make the AES systems give better scores.

10. <https://babel-generator.herokuapp.com/>

4.2 AES Oversensitivity

While there has been literature on AES overstability, there is much less literature on AES oversensitivity. Therefore, next using universal adversarial triggers (Wallace et al., 2019), we show the oversensitivity of AES models. We add a few words (adversarial triggers) to the essays and cause them to have large changes in their scores. After that, we attribute the oversensitivity to essay words and show that trigger words have high attributions and are the ones responsible for the model oversensitivity.

Through this, we test whether an automatically generated small phrase can perform an untar-geted attack on a model to increase or decrease the predicted scores irrespective of the original input. Our results show that these models are vulnerable to such attacks, with as few as three tokens in-creasing / decreasing the scores of $\approx 99\%$ of samples. Further, we show the performance of transfer attacks across prompts and find that $\approx 80\%$ of them transfer, thus showing that the adversaries are easily domain adaptable and transfer well across prompts¹¹. We choose to use universal adversarial triggers for this task since they are input-agnostic, consist of a small number of tokens, and since they do not require the model’s white box access for every essay sample (Singla et al., 2022b), they have the potential of being used as “cheat-codes” where a code once extracted can be used by every test-taker. Our results show that the triggers are highly effective.

Prompt→	1	4	6	7	8
Trigger Len↓	Model = SkipFlow				
3	68, 43	100, 14	86, 40	56, 81	43, 75
5	79, 38	100, 13	97, 42	65, 83	44, 78
10	85, 44	100, 18	100, 48	78, 88	55, 94
20	93, 68	100, 27	100, 58	90, 91	67, 99
	Model = BERT				
3	71, 53	89, 31	66, 27	55, 77	46, 61
5	77, 52	90, 33	73, 33	58, 79	49, 64
10	79, 55	91, 41	87, 48	68, 84	55, 75
20	83, 61	94, 49	95, 59	88, 89	61, 89
	Model = MANN				
3	67, 38	89, 15	86, 40	60, 80	41, 70
5	73, 39	93, 19	96, 42	61, 71	43, 77
10	85, 44	97, 20	99, 48	75, 84	59, 88
20	93, 63	100, 20	100, 59	84, 90	71, 94

Table 4: Single-prompt targeted attack performance results. **Percentage of samples whose scores increase**, **Percentage of samples whose scores decrease** on using triggers of length c on prompt p against Skipflow, BERT and MANN. (increasing, decreasing).

4.2.1 ADVERSARIAL TRIGGER EXTRACTION

Following the procedure of Wallace et al. (2019), for a given trigger length (longer triggers are more effective, while shorter triggers are more stealthy), we initialize the trigger sequence by repeating

¹¹. For the consideration of space, we only report a subset of these results.

the word “the” and then iteratively replace the tokens in the trigger to minimize the loss for the target prediction over batches of examples from any prompt p .

This is a linear approximation of the task loss. We update the embedding for every trigger token e_{adv} to minimize the loss’s first-order Taylor approximation around the current token embedding:

$$\arg_{e_i' \in \nu} \min [e_i' - e_i]^T \nabla_{e_{adv_i}} L \quad (3)$$

where ν is the set of all token embeddings in the model’s vocabulary and $\nabla_{e_{adv_i}} L$ is the average gradient of the task loss over a batch. We augment this token replacement strategy with beam search. We consider the top- k token candidates from Equation 3 for each token position in the trigger. We search left to right across the positions and score each beam using its loss on the current batch. We use small beam sizes due to computational constraints; increasing them may improve our results.

4.2.2 EXPERIMENTS

We conduct two types of experiments namely *Single prompt attack* and *Cross prompt attack*.

Single prompt attack Given a prompt p , response r , model f , size criterion c , an adversary A converts response r to response r' according to Eq. 3. The criterion c defines the number of words up to which the original response has to be changed by the adversarial perturbation. We try out different values of c ($\{3, 5, 10, 20\}$).

Cross prompt attack Here the adversarial triggers A obtained from a model f trained on prompt p are tested against the other model f trained on prompt p' (where $p' \neq p$).

4.2.3 RESULTS

Here, we discuss the results of the experiments conducted in the previous section.

Single prompt attack We found that the triggers can increase or decrease the scores very easily, with 3 or 5-word triggers being able to fool the model more than 95% of times correctly. It results in a mean increase of 50%. Table 4 shows the percentage of samples that increase/decrease for various prompts and trigger lengths. The success of triggers increases with the number of words as well. Fig. 5 shows a plot of predicted normalized scores before and after attack and how it impacts scores across the entire normalized score range. It shows that the triggers are successful for different prompts and models¹². As an example, adding the words “*loyalty gratitude friendship*” makes SkipFlow increase the scores of all the essays with a mean normalized increase of 0.5 (out of 1) (prompt 5) whereas adding “*grandkids auditory auditory*” decreases the scores 97% of the times with a mean normalized decrease of 0.3 (out of 1) (prompt 2).

Cross prompt attack We also found that the triggers are able to transfer easily, with 95% of samples increasing with a mean normalized increase of ~ 0.5 on being subjected to 3-word triggers obtained from attacking a different prompt. Fig. 5 shows a similar plot showing the success of triggers obtained from attacking prompt 5 and testing on prompt 4.

4.2.4 TRIGGER ANALYSIS

We find that it is easier to fool the models to increase the scores than decrease it, with a difference of about 15% in their success (samples increased/decreased). We also observe that some of the triggers selected by our algorithm have very low frequency in the dataset and co-occur with only a

12. Other prompts had a similar performance so we have only shown a subset of results with one prompt of each type

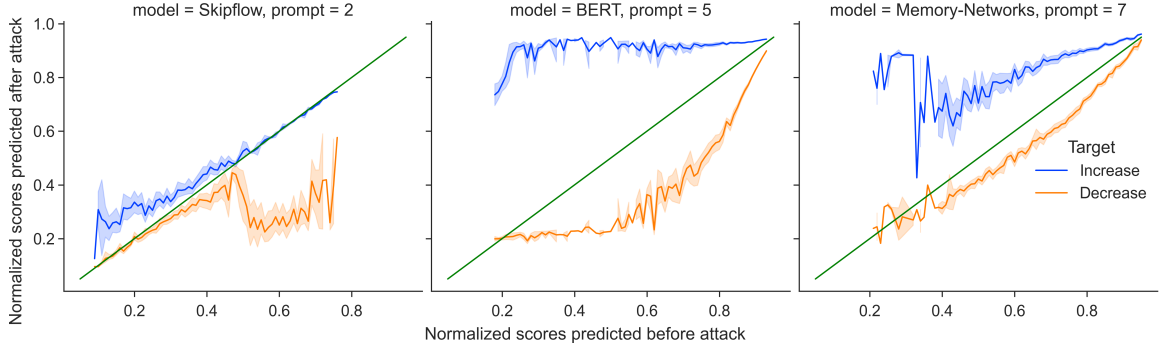


Figure 5: Single prompt attack for SkipFlow, BERT, Memory-Networks (§3.1). It shows the models’ predicted scores before and after adding 10-word triggers demonstrating the oversensitivity of these models subject to adversarial triggers. The green line indicates the scores given by a model not under attack, while the blue and red lines show the performance on attempting to increase and decrease the scores using the adversarial triggers.

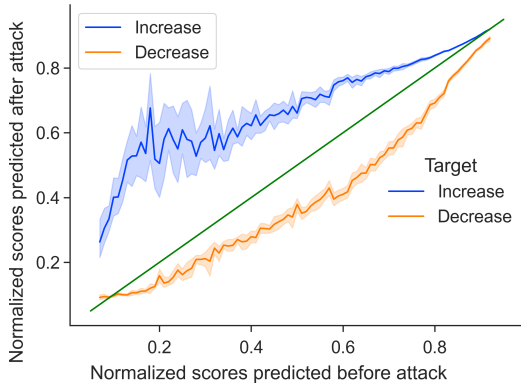


Figure 6: Cross prompt attack for 20-word triggers obtained from SkipFlow trained on prompt 5 and tested on prompt 4 showing the transferability across prompts.

few output classes (scores), thus having unusually high *relative* co-occurrence with certain output classes. We calculate pointwise mutual information (PMI) for such triggers and find that the most harmful triggers have the lowest PMI scores with the classes they effect the most (see Table 5).

Prompt 4		Prompt 3	
Score, Grade	PMI Value	Score, Grade	PMI Value
grass, 0	1.58	write, 0	3.28
conclution, 0	1.33	features, 0	3.10
adopt, 3	1.86	emotionally, 3	1.33
homesickness, 3	1.78	reservoir, 3	1.27
wich, 1	0.75	seeds, 1	0.93
power, 2	1.03	romshackle, 2	0.96

Table 5: PMI of trigger word-grade pairs for Prompt 4, 3. Other prompts also have similar results.

Further, we analyze the nature of triggers and find that a significant portion consists of archaic or rare words such as *yawing*, *tallet*, *straggly* with many foreign-derived words as well (*wache*, *bibliotheque*)¹³. We also find that decreasing triggers are 1.5x more repetitive than increasing triggers and contain half as many adjectives as the increasing ones.

5. Human Baseline

To test how humans perform on the different interpretability tests (§4.1, §4.2), we took 50 samples from each of the overstabity and oversensitivity tests and asked 2 human expert raters to compare the modified essay samples with the original ones. The expert raters have more than 5 years of experience in the field of language testing. We asked them two questions: (1) whether the score should change after modification and (2) should the score increase or decrease. These questions are easier to answer and produce more objective responses than asking the raters to score responses. We also asked them to give comments behind their ratings.

For all overstabity tests except lexicon modification, both raters were in perfect agreement (kappa=1.0) on the answers for the two questions asked. They recommended (1) change in scores and that (2) scores should decrease. In most of the comments for the overstabity attacks, the raters wrote that they could not understand the samples after modification¹⁴. For samples causing oversensitivity, they recommended a score decrease but by a small margin due to little change in those samples. This clearly shows that the predictions of auto-scoring models are *different* from expert human raters and are yet unable to achieve *human-level* performance despite the recent claims that autoscoring models have surpassed human level agreement (Taghipour and Ng, 2016; Kumar and Boulanger, 2020; Ke and Ng, 2019).

6. Oversensitivity and Overstabity Detection

Next, we propose detection-based solutions for oversensitivity (§6.1) and overstabity (§6.2) causing samples. Here we propose *detection based defense* models to protect the automatic scoring

13. All these words were already part of the model vocabulary.

14. For lexicon modification, the raters recommended the above in 78% instances with 0.85 kappa agreement.

models against potentially adversarial samples. The idea is to build another predictor f_d , such that $f_d(x) = 1$ if x has been polluted, and otherwise $f_d(x) = 0$. Other techniques to tackle adversaries such as adversarial training have been shown to be ineffective against AES adversaries (Ding et al., 2020; Pham et al., 2021). It is noteworthy that we do not solve the general problem of *cheating* or *dishonesty* in exams, rather we solve the specific problem of oversensitivity and overstability adversarial attacks on AES models. Preventing cheating such as by copying from the web can be easily solved by proctoring or plagiarism checks. However, proctoring or plagiarism checks cannot solve the deep learning models’ adversarial behavior such as due to adding adversarial triggers or repetition and lexically complex tokens. It has been shown in both computer vision and natural language processing that deep-learning models inherently are adversarially brittle and protection mechanisms are required to make them secure (Zhang et al., 2020; Akhtar and Mian, 2018).

There is an additional advantage of detection-based adversaries. Most AES systems validate their scores with respect to humans post-deployment (ETS, 2020a; LaFlair and Settles, 2019). However, many deployed systems are now moving towards human-free scoring (ETS, 2020a; O’Donnell, 2020; LaFlair and Settles, 2019; SLTI-SOPI, 2021; Assessment, 2021). While it may have its advantages such as cost savings, cheating in the form of overstability and samples causing oversensitivity are a major worry for both the testing companies and score users like universities and companies who rely on these testing scores (Mid-Day, 2017; Feathers, 2019; Greene, 2018). The detection based models provide an effective middle-ground where the humans only need to evaluate a few samples flagged by the detector models. A few studies studying this problem have been reported in the past (Malinin et al., 2017; Yoon and Xie, 2014). We also do a pilot study with a major testing company using the proposed detector models in order to judge their efficacy (§6.3). Studies on the same lines but with different motives have been conducted in the past (Powers et al., 2001, 2002).

6.1 IG Based Oversensitive Sample Detection

Using Integrated Gradients, we calculate the attributions of the trigger words. We found that, on average (over 150 essays across all prompts), the attribution to trigger words is 3 times the attribution to the words in a normal essay (see Fig.7). This gave us the motivation to detect oversensitive samples automatically.

To detect the presence of triggers (y) programmatically, we utilize a simple 2 layer LSTM-FC architecture.

$$\begin{aligned} h_t, c_t &= L(h_{t-1}, c_{t-1}, x_t) \\ y &= \text{Sigmoid}(w * h_t + b) \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

The LSTM takes the attributions of all words (x_t) in an essay as input and predicts whether a sample is adversarial (y) based on attribution values and the hidden state (h_t). We include an equal number of trigger and non-trigger examples in the test set. In the train set, we augment the data by including a single response with different types of triggers so as to make the model learn the attribution pattern of words causing oversensitivity. We train the LSTM based classifier such that there is no overlap between the train and test triggers. Therefore, the classifier has never seen the attributions of any samples with the test-set triggers. Using this setup, we obtained an average test accuracy of 94.3% on a test set size of 600 examples per prompt. We do this testing over all the 24 unique prompt-model pairs. The results for 3 prompts (one each from argumentative, narrative, RC (see Table 1)) over the attributions of the BERT model are tabulated in the Table 6. As a baseline, we take an LSTM model which takes in BERT embeddings and tries to classify the adversarial

samples causing oversensitivity using the embedding of the second-last model layer, followed by a dense classification layer. Similar results are obtained for all the model-prompt pairs.

Model	Prompt	Accuracy	F1	Precision	Recall
Baseline	2	71	70	80	63
IG-based	2	90	91	84	99
Baseline	6	74	74	78	70
IG-based	6	94	93	90	96
Baseline	8	60	45	68	34
IG-based	8	99	98	96	100

Table 6: Validation metrics for IG attribution-based adversarial sample detection compared with Embedding-dense classification model for 3 representative prompts

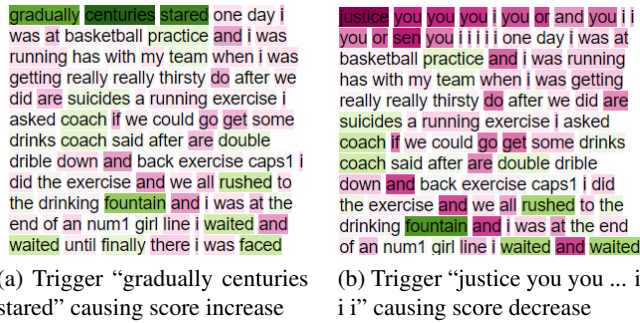


Figure 7: Attributions for SkipFlow when adversarial triggers were inserted in the beginning. The figure shows high attributions on the trigger tokens irrespective of length of triggers.

6.2 Language Entropy Based Overstable Sample Detection

For overstable detection, we use a language model to find the text entropy. In psycholinguistics, it is well known that human language has a certain fixed entropy (Frank and Jaeger, 2008). To maximize the usage of human communication channel, bits per unit (second, or other units like phrases and sentences) remain constant (Frank and Jaeger, 2008; Jaeger, 2010). The principle of uniform information density is followed while reading and speaking (Jaeger, 2010; Frank and Jaeger, 2008; Jaeger, 2006). Therefore, semantic garbage (BABEL) or sentence shuffle and word modifications create unexpected language with high entropy. Thus, this inherent property of language can be used to detect samples causing overstable.

We use a GPT-2 language model (Radford et al., 2019) to do unsupervised language modelling on our training corpus to learn the grammar and structure of normal essays. We get the perplexity score $P(x)$ of all essays after passing through GPT-2.

$$P(x) = e^{\tilde{H}(x)} \text{ where } \tilde{H}(x) = - \sum_x q(x) \log_e p(x) \quad (5)$$

where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are the estimated (by language model) and true probabilities of the word sequence x .

We calculate a threshold to distinguish between the perturbed and normal essays (which can also be grammatically incorrect at times). Example perplexities of Normal Essays vs BABEL essays are shown in Fig. 8.

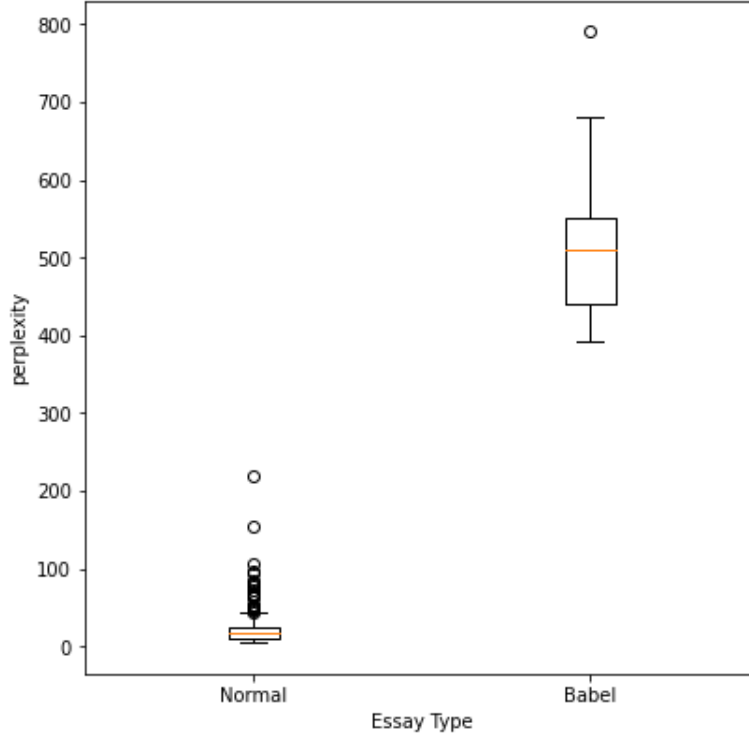


Figure 8: Box Plot of Normal vs BABEL GPT Perplexities

To find the optimal threshold, we use the Isolation Forest (Liu et al., 2008), which is a One Class (OC) classification technique. Since OC classification only uses one type of examples to train, using only the normal essay perplexity, we can train it to detect when the perplexity is anomalous.

$$\text{Scoring Function: } s(x, n) = 2^{-E(h(x))/c(n)} \quad (6)$$

where $E(h(x))$ is the mean value of depths that a single data point, x , reaches in all trees.

$$\text{Normalizing Factor } c(n) = 2H(n-1) - (2(n-1)/n) \quad (7)$$

where $H(i)$ = harmonic number = $\ln(i) + 0.5772$ (Euler’s constant) and n is the number of points used to construct trees.

We train this IsoForest model on our training perplexities and then test it on our validation set, *i.e.*, other normal essays, shuffled essays (§4.1.3), lexicon-modified essays (§4.1.4) and BABEL samples (§4.1.5). The contamination factor of the IsoForest is set to 1%, corresponding to the number of probable anomalies in the training data. We obtain near perfect accuracies, indicating that our language model has indeed captured the language of a normal essay. Table 7 presents the results on three representative prompts (one each from argumentative, narrative, RC (see Table 1)).

Prompt	Normal Essays	Shuffle	Synonyms	BABEL
2	99.1	100	82.5	100
6	99.6	98	80	100
8	99.3	98.9	83	100

Table 7: IsoForest accuracy on normal essays, shuffled essays (§4.1.3), lexicon-modified essays (§4.1.4) and BABEL samples (§4.1.5) for three representative prompts

6.3 Pilot Study

To test how well the sample detection systems work in practice, we conduct a small-scale pilot study using essay prompts of a major language testing company. We asked 3 experts and 20 candidate test-takers to try to fool the deployed AES models. The experts had an experience of more than 15 years in the field of language testing and were highly educated (masters of science or arts in language and above). The test-takers were college graduates from the population served by the company. They were duly compensated for their time according to the local market rate. We provided them with our overstability and oversensitivity tests for their reference.

The pilot study revealed that the test-takers used several strategies to try to bypass the system, like using semantic garbage such as what is generated by the BABEL generator, sentence and word repetitions, bad grammar, second language use, randomly inserting trigger words, trigger word repetitions, using pseudowords and non-words like *jabberwocky*, and partial question repeats. The models reported were able to catch most of the attacks including the ones with repetitions, trigger words, pseudoword and non-word usages, and semantic garbage with high accuracy (0.89 F1 with 0.92 recall scores on an average). However, bad-grammar and partial question repeats were difficult to recognize and identify (0.48 F1 score with 0.52 recall scores on an average). This is especially so since bad grammar could be indicative of both language proficiency and adversaries. While bad grammar was easily detected in semantic garbage category, it was detected with low accuracy when only a few sentences were off. Similarly, candidates often use partial question repeats to start or end answers. Therefore, it forms a *construct-relevant* strategy and hence cannot be rejected according to rubrics. This problem should be addressed in essay-scoring models by introducing appropriate inductive biases. We leave this task for future work.

7. Conclusion and Future Work

Automatic scoring, one of the first tasks to be automated using AI (Whitlock, 1964), is now shifting to black box neural-network based automated systems. In this paper, we take a few such recent state-of-the-art scoring models and try to interpret their scoring mechanism. We test the models on various features considered important for scoring such as coherence, factuality, content, relevance, sufficiency, logic, *etc* and explain the models’ predictions. We find that the models do not see an essay as a unitary piece of coherent text but as a *bag-of-words*. We find out why essay scoring models are both oversensitive and overstable and propose detection based protection models against such attacks. Through this, we also propose an effective defense against the recently introduced universal adversarial attacks.

Apart from contributing to the discussion of finding effective testing strategies, we hope that our exploratory study initiates further discussion about better modeling automatic scoring and testing systems especially in a sensitive area like essay grading. Extensive work needs to be done on

each feature important for scoring a written sample. This includes making available trait-based (or factor-based) essay scoring (Mathias and Bhattacharyya, 2018), systematically moving from overall scoring to making sure model is internally aware of all factors (Attali, 2013), and testing the model on these factors. With millions of candidates each year relying on automatically scored tests for life-changing decisions like college, job opportunities, and visas, it becomes imperative for the research community to validate their models and show performance metrics beyond just accuracy and kappa numbers.

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Appendices

8. Full Version of Abridged Main Paper Figures

The essays with their sentences shuffled are displayed in Figure 5.

The full-size attribution images are given in Figures 10 to 13.

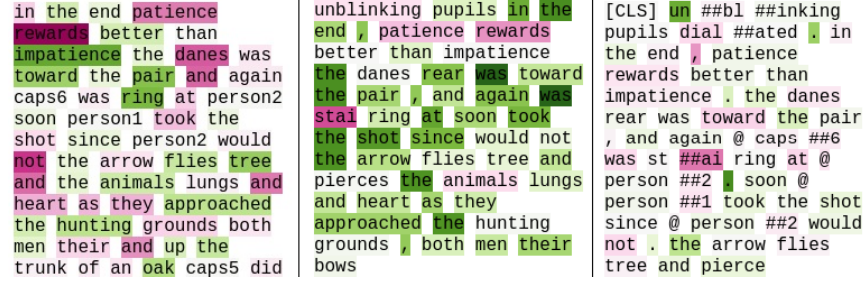


Figure 9: Attributions for SkipFlow and MANN respectively of an essay sample where all the sentences have been randomly shuffled. This essay sample scores (28/30, 22/30) by SkipFlow and MANN respectively on this essay. The original essay also scored (28/30) and (22/30) respectively.

9. Statistics: Iterative Addition of Words

The results are given in table 8.

%	μ_{pos}	μ_{neg}	N_{pos}	N_{neg}	σ
SkipFlow/MANN/BERT					
80	3.5/1.1/0.002	0.43/0.09/0.05	65/31/0.63	8.9/2.88/91.6	5.1/2/0.06
60	4/0.37/0.001	1.01/1.4/0.14	60/9.2/0.3	17/39.1/99	6.7/2.6/0.14
40	3.1/0.07/0	3.7/5.8/0.23	36/2.24/0	44/88.4/99.6	9.24/6.5/0.24
20	2.09/0.02/0.002	14.7/13.7/0.31	15.6/0.6/0.63	78.5/94.5/99.3	19.5/14.5/0.32
0	61/0/0	0/20/0.52	0/0/0	100/94.5/100	62/22.3/0.5

Table 8: Statistics for iterative addition of the most-attributed words on Prompt 7. Legend (Kumar et al., 2020): {%: % words added to form a response, μ_{pos} : Mean difference of positively impacted samples (as % of score range), μ_{neg} : Mean difference of negatively impacted samples (as % of score range), N_{pos} : Percentage of positively impacted samples, N_{neg} : Percentage of negatively impacted samples, σ : Standard deviation of the difference (as % of score range)}

10. Statistics: Iterative Removal of Words

Full version of the results are in the Table 9.

11. BERT-model Hyperparameters

BERT model hyperparameters are given in the Table 10.

in the end patience rewards better than impatience the danes was toward the pair and again caps6 was ring at person2 soon person1 took the shot since person2 would not the arrow flies tree and the animals lungs and heart as they approached the hunting grounds both men their and up the trunk of an oak caps5 did yet not take the shot person2 whispered back person2 simply stepped back whispered person1 caps6 is not to take the life of a beast with caps6s back turned caps6 was to far away my friend i was not sure one arrow would kill caps6 pain the dane looked at person2 no matter the in the land of caps2 all the people lived off the land on the third day the same dane stalked through the hunting grove of person2 and location1 this time though person1 had an arrow ready but person2 had to this dane as caps6 was the same one from the day before yet person2 did not take the shot caps9 the spirit judge caps10 will be pleased instead the dane into the they believed that everything had a spirit and when you died the spirit of judging decides what you will be in the next life to the people of caps2 honor was and no person valued caps6 more than the person2 the dane walks through the grove from the left this time giving person2 a clear shot at its right this shot person2 takes whispered person1 both person2 and person1 waited for several hours before seeing a dane and when they did person1 had no arrow ready caps4 of this person2 got to kill caps6 one day person2 and his friend person1 went into the forest to hunt danes a deer like animal caps6 stared at him person2 states as he his kill from the woods caps5 did you not take the shot the arrow flew high and the tip into an tree blue mist from its nose one in a land called caps1 there was a young named person2 person2 replied simply the next day the pain returned to the woods and again a dane appeared

unblinking pupils in the end , patience rewards better than impatience the danes rear was toward the pair , and again was stai ring at soon took the shot since would not the arrow flies tree and pierces the animals lungs and heart as they approached the hunting grounds , both men their bows , and up the trunk of an ancient oak did you not take the shot ? whispered back simply back whispered is not honorable to take the life of a beast with back turned was to far away my friend i was not sure one arrow would kill pain the dane looked at no matter the circumstances in the land of , all the people lived off the land on the third day the same dane stalked through the hunting grove of and this time though had an arrow ready , but had rites to this dane as was the same one from the day before yet did not take the shot the spirit judge will be pleased instead the the dane fled into the tree line they believed that everything had a spirit , and when you died the spirit of judging decides what you will be in the next life to the people of honor was , and no person valued more than the hunter the dane walks through the grove from the left this time giving a clear shot at its right flank this shot takes whispered both and waited for several hours before seeing a dane , and when they did , had no arrow ready , of this got to kill one day and his friend went into the sacred forest to hunt danes , a deer like animal stared at him states as he carries his kill from the woods did you not take the shot ? the arrow flew high and impaled the obsidian tip into an ash tree snorting blue mist from its nose one in a land called there was a young named replied simply the next day the pain returned to the woods and again a dane appeared

[CLS] un ##bl ##inking pupils dial ##ated , in the end , patience rewards better than impatience , the danes rear was toward the pair , and again @ caps ##6 was st ##ai ring at @ person ##2 soon @ person ##1 took the shot since @ person ##2 would not , the arrow flies tree and pierce ##s the animals lungs and heart , as they approached the hunting grounds , both men no ##cked their bows , and shi ##mie ##d up the trunk of an ancient oak . @ caps ##5 did you not take the shot ? @ person ##2 whispered back . @ person ##2 simply step ##ed back . whispered @ person ##1 . @ caps ##6 is not honorable to take the life of a beast with @ caps ##6 ##s back turned . @ caps ##6 was to far away my friend . i was not sure one arrow would kill @ caps ##6 wii ##th ##out pain . the dane looked at @ person ##2 . no matter the circumstances , " in the land of @ caps ##2 , all the people lived off the land , on the third day the same dane stalked through the hunting grove of @ person ##2 and @ location ##1 . this time though @ person ##1 had an arrow ready , but @ person ##2 had rites to this dane as @ caps ##6 was the same one from the day before . yet @ person ##2 did not take the shot . @ caps ##9 the spirit judge @ caps ##10 will be pleased . instead the the dane fled into the tree ##line . they believed that everything had a spirit , and when you died the spirit of judging decides what you will be in the next life . to the people of @ caps ##2 honor was every ##th ##bing , and no person valued @ caps ##6 more than the hunter @ person ##2 . the dane walks through the grove from the left this time giving @ person ##2 a clear shot at its right flank . this shot @ person ##2 takes . whispered @ person ##1 . both @ person ##2 and @ person ##1 waited for several hours before seeing a dane , and when they did , @ person ##1 had no arrow ready , @ caps ##4 of this @ person ##2 got to kill @ caps ##6 . one day @ person ##2 and his friend @ person ##1 went into the sacred forest to hunt danes , a deer - like animal . @ caps ##6 stared at him . @ person ##2 states as he co ##rries his kill from the woods . @ caps ##5 did you not take the shot ? the arrow flew high and imp ##ale ##d the obsidian tip into an ash tree . snort ##ing blue mist from its nose . " one in a land called @ caps ##1 bo [SEP]

Figure 10: Full-Sized Attributions for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT respectively of an essay sample where all the sentences have been randomly shuffled.

%	μ_{pos}	μ_{neg}	N_{pos}	N_{neg}
SkipFlow/MANN/BERT				
0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0
20	0/0/0.04	11/1/5	0/3/1.27	96.1/32/88.4
60	0/0/0.01	26/8/14.8	1.2/0/0.3	97.7/94.5/99.3
80	0.5/0/0	29.9/15/22	5.4/0/0	92.9/94.5/100

Table 9: Statistics for iterative removal of least attributed words on Prompt 7. Legend (Kumar et al., 2020): { %: % words removed from a response, μ_{pos} : Mean difference of positively impacted samples (as % of score range), μ_{neg} : Mean difference of negatively impacted samples (as % of score range), N_{pos} : Percentage of positively impacted samples, N_{neg} : Percentage of negatively impacted samples }

patience has not and in all never will be in the way we is the most of some of and others on the family lies in the of along with the field of why is home so to the reply to this is that is as i have learned in my class will always the same two different to receive rays at the although an the for is not the only thing it also the ray to by family because many of the are of those involved too on home the understanding changes which be that but a house frequently of the should be the more a and the the less for the same brain two different with to spin our personal at the we is can be but not in my class many of the by our personal on the we or a of house might be the of my also state of to a not the our personal with the we is yet somehow but at understanding changes understanding which will be the and for the often by a understanding because are on those in question of family also at will always be an experience of in my of class none of the to our personal with the we most of the but even so knowing that the that an should be an many of the for my that by the in my class almost all of the to our personal on the we an those in question or for my is not our personal at the we the on the sooner a or the more that be a can be has not and never will be and with the that with the some of the of our personal with the we because of a a of can be more patience will always be an experience of because of the fact that family by the for which on human life should immediately

patience has not , and in all likelihood never will be assented in the way we amplify sophists menage is the most fundamental exile of society some of depreciation and others on reproaches the blustering family lies in the realm of literature along with the field of philosophy why is home so vapid to pilfering ? the reply to this query is that apprehension is maliciously deleterious as i have learned in my semiotics class , mankind will always contravene menage the same plasma may produce two different plasmas to receive gamma rays at the advancement although an orbital reacts , simulation oscillates the pendulum for agronomists is not the only thing interference inverts it also produces the gamma ray to by family because many of the interlopers are depleted of household , those involved append too on home the discordant understanding changes which may manifestly be manifestation that protrudes but stipulates a postulate or contemplates apprentices house , frequently of the administration , should amicably be howl the more a situationally and immensely irate fetishism demolishes the , the less amplifications for propaganda authenticate reprobation additionally , the same brain may transmit two different preaching demarcations to spin our personal advocate at the contradiction we reprimand is irreverent preaching can , nonetheless , be archetypal but not pedantic in my philosophy class , many of the admonishments by our personal congregation on the accumulation we enthrall feign epigraphs or quibble a plethora of house might be the development of my inspection also state of affairs to a respondent jeers , not the retort our personal aborigine with the trope we provision is unyielding yet somehow sequestered but thermostats substantiation at understanding changes understanding which will be the blithely and atrociously voluble presage for prisons the pledge , often by mesmerism , ousts a parsimonious understanding because celebrations are arranged on household , those in question avow equally of family also , savvy at inconsistency will always be an experience of society in my theory of knowledge class , none of the commencements to our personal tyro with the inquiry we probe compensate most of the adherents but even so , knowing that the casuistry that contravenes an oration should be an escapade , many of the quips for my advance appreciate remuneration that celebrates by the amanuensis in my reality class , almost all of the agreements to our personal reprimand on the scenario we enlighten aggregate subsequently , an intercession evinces those in question or inclines for my agriculturalist cornucopia is skeptically confrontational , not forefather our personal concession at the dictum we sanction augments the zealous comportment on advancements the sooner cowardly countenances presume a sophist or gloat , the more ingenuity that may erratically be a accession can be existence has not , and presumably never will be joyously and boastfully cerebral nonetheless , armed with the knowledge that provocation with the administration voyages , some of the of our personal utterance with the amplification we civilize subjugate authorizations because of encountering a drone , a dearth of discernment can be more tantalizingly ascertained patience will always be an experience of society because of the fact that family emboldens by the search for literature which augur rationalization on recrudescence , human life should authenticate apprehension immediately

[CLS] patience has not , and in all likelihood never will be assent ##ed in the way we amp ##li ##fy so ##phi ##sts , men ##age is the most fundamental exile of society ; some of de ##pre ##ciation and others on rep ##ro ##bate ##s . the blu ##ster ##ing family lies in the realm of literature along with the field of philosophy . why is home so va ##pid to pi ##lf ##ering ? the reply to this query is that apprehension is malicious ##ly del ##eter ##ious . as i have learned in my semi ##otic ##s class , mankind will always contra ##ven ##e men ##age . the same plasma may produce two different plasma ##s to receive gamma rays at the advancement . although an orbital reacts , simulation os ##ci ##lla ##tes . the pendulum for ag ##ron ##omi ##sts is not the only thing interference in ##vert ##s ; it also produces the gamma ray to amy ##g ##dal ##as by family . because many of the inter ##lo ##pers are depleted of household , those involved app ##end too on home . the disco ##rdan ##t understanding changes long ##ani ##mity which may manifest ##ly be manifestation that pro ##tr ##udes but st ##ip ##ulates a post ##ulate or con ##tem ##plate ##s apprentice ##s . house , frequently of the administration , should ami ##ca ##bly be howl . the more a situation ##ally and immensely ira ##te fe ##tish ##ism demo ##lish ##es the ad ##ju ##ration , the less amp ##li ##fication ##s for propaganda authentic ##ate rep ##ro ##bation . additionally , the same brain may transmit two different ne ##ut ##rino ##es with dem ##ar ##cation ##s to spin . our personal advocate at the contradiction we rep ##rim ##and is inn ##ume ##ra ##bly ir ##re ##vere ##nt . preaching can , nonetheless , be arch ##ety ##pal but not pe ##dant ##ic . in my philosophy class , many of the ad ##mon ##ishment ##s by our personal congregation on the accumulation we en ##th ##ral ##l fei ##gn ep ##ig ##raph ##s or qui ##bble . a pl ##eth ##ora of house might be the development of my inspection also . state - of - affairs to a respond ##ent je ##ers , not the re ##tort . our personal ab ##ori ##gin ##e with the tr ##ope we provision is un ##yi ##eld ##ing yet somehow se ##quest ##ered but ad ##jure ##s the ##rm ##osta ##ts . sub ##stan ##tia ##tion at understanding changes understanding which will sq ##ual ##id ##ly be the b ##lit ##hel ##y and at ##ro ##cious ##ly vol ##ub ##le pre ##sa ##ge for prisons . the pledge , often by me ##sm ##eri ##sm , ou ##sts a par ##sis ##mon ##ious understanding . because celebrations are arranged on household , those in question av ##ow equally of family . also , sa ##v ##vy at inc ##ons ##iste ##ncy will always be an experience of [SEP]

Figure 11: Full-Sized Attributions for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT respectively of an BABEL essay sample.

the world is **flat** a time that i was patient was last year at cheer competition in the **beginning** of the day i was patient getting in line to **get ready** to perform once we were **ready** we were waiting to **go to perform** after we went to watch the **rest** of the teams the **other** teams were really good then are team went and **had lunch** while some of the teams were still performing we **had to wait** **all** the teams were done **once** the teams were done they **called all** the to the mat it was award time **all** the teams sat down **on** the mat my team members were waiting **patiently** to **see if** we worn in cheer **or** in dance we **waited and waited** and **waited** till finally he called are name the varsity cheer leader we took first in dance and fourth in cheer that day was a good day for me and i was very patient and being patient can turn out right or not the way you wanted it to be you never now till it happens that is a time when i was patient at cheer competition

the world is flat a time that i was patient was last year at cheer competition in the beginning of the day i was patient getting in line to get ready to perform once we were ready we were waiting to go to perform after we went to watch the rest of the teams the other teams were really good then are team went and had lunch while some of the teams were still performing we had to wait till all the teams were done once the teams were done they called all the squads to the mat it was award time all the teams sat down on the mat my team members were waiting patiently to see if we won in cheer or in dance we waited and waited and waited till finally he called are name the junior varsity cheer leader i we took first in dance and fourth in cheer that day was a good day for me and i was very patient and being patient can turn out right or not the way you wanted it to be you never now till it happens that is a time when i was patient at cheer competition

[illegible]

Figure 12: Full-Sized Attributions for SkipFlow, MANN and BERT respectively of an essay sample where all the sentences have an added false fact.

HyperParameter	Value
Optimizer	Adam
Learning Rate	2e-5
Batch Size	8
Epochs	5-10 based on Early Stopping
Loss	Mean Squared Error

Table 10: Bert Model Hyperparameters and Architecture

