Pirate plunder: game-based computational thinking using scratch blocks

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Pirate Plunder: Game-Based Computational Thinking Using Scratch Blocks

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Abstract: Policy makers worldwide argue that children should be taught how technology works, and that the ‘computational thinking’ skills developed through programming are useful in a wider context. This is causing an increased focus on computer science in primary and secondary education. Block-based programming tools, like Scratch, have become ubiquitous in primary education (5 to 11-years-old) throughout the UK. However, Scratch users often struggle to detect and correct ‘code smells’ (bad programming practices) such as duplicated blocks and large scripts, which can lead to programs that are difficult to understand. These ‘smells’ are caused by a lack of abstraction and decomposition in programs; skills that play a key role in computational thinking. In Scratch, repeats (loops), custom blocks (procedures) and clones (instances) can be used to correct these smells. Yet, custom blocks and clones are rarely taught to children under 11-years-old. We describe the design of a novel educational block-based programming game, Pirate Plunder, which aims to teach these skills to children aged 9-11. Players use Scratch blocks to navigate around a grid, collect items and interact with obstacles. Blocks are explained in ‘tutorials’; the player then completes a series of ‘challenges’ before attempting the next tutorial. A set of Scratch blocks, including repeats, custom blocks and clones, are introduced in a linear difficulty progression. There are two versions of Pirate Plunder; one that uses a debugging-first approach, where the player is given a program that is incomplete or incorrect, and one where each level begins with an empty program. The game design has been developed through iterative playtesting. The observations made during this process have influenced key design decisions such as Scratch integration, difficulty progression and reward system. In future, we will evaluate Pirate Plunder against a traditional Scratch curriculum and compare the debugging-first and non-debugging versions in a series of studies.

Keywords: computational thinking, Scratch, game-based learning, visual programming, computer science education

1. Introduction

Today’s children will go on to live a life greatly influenced by computing, both in the home and at work (Barr and Stephenson, 2011). Policy makers, supported by the technology industry, are arguing that children should be taught how this technology works, to produce ‘digital citizens’ for an increasingly IT-based global economy (Wilson et al., 2010; Furber, 2012). This has led several countries to introduce computer science to children across primary and secondary education (age 5 to 16) (Heintz, Mannila and Farnqvist, 2016).

One of the central arguments behind this is that the ‘computational thinking’ skills developed through programming are useful in a wider context. Current definitions of computational thinking involve working at multiple levels of abstraction, writing algorithms, understanding flow control, recognising patterns and decomposing problems (e.g. Seiter and Foreman, 2013; Kalelioğlu, Gülbahar and Kukul, 2016). These ideas have played a role in defining current computer science learning content for children, particularly in England (Manches and Plowman, 2015).

A variety of block-based programming tools have been created for novice programmers. The most widely-used of these tools is Scratch, a block-based visual programming environment used to create games, stories and animations (Maloney, Resnick and Rusk, 2010). Scratch is used to teach computer science from early-years to higher education. However, Scratch users can struggle to detect and correct bad programming practices (known as ‘code smells’) such as duplicated blocks and large scripts (Aivaloglou and Hermans, 2016), which make programs difficult to understand, debug and maintain. These ‘smells’ can be corrected by using repeats (loops), custom blocks (procedures) and clones (instances). However, the concept of code reuse, including custom blocks and clones, is rarely taught to children under 11-years-old.

This paper explains the design of a novel educational block-based programming game, Pirate Plunder, which aims to teach players to identify and correct code smells by using Scratch’s repeats, custom blocks and clones. We start with the background and rationale for the game, covering block-based programming tools,
computational thinking and code smells. We then give an overview of the game and explain important game design decisions. This covers Scratch integration, difficulty progression, reward system, debugging and analytics.

2. Background

2.1 Block-based programming

Block-based programming is used in creative visual environments (e.g. Scratch), games, such as Code.org (Code.org, 2018), Kodetu (Learning Lab, 2017) and Lightbot (Lightbot Inc., 2016) and for programming physical devices. It allows novices to program without learning syntax or memorising commands.

2.1.1 Scratch

Scratch is the most popular block-based visual programming environment, with over 30 million projects shared on its online platform since its public release in 2007 (Scratch Team, 2018). Designed for children aged 8 and above, it has been used from early-years to higher education to teach computer science and as a stepping stone to text-based programming languages (Franklin et al., 2016). Research indicates that Scratch can be used to improve wider skills of mathematics (Calao et al., 2015) and problem-solving (Giordano and Maiorana, 2014).

The teaching curriculum used with Scratch is important because of its constructionist (Papert, 1980) nature. In Scratch, all blocks are available from the start and there is little-inbuilt guidance. Scratch encourages a constructionist bottom-up (sometimes called ‘bricolage’) approach to problem-solving, where solutions are unplanned and created largely through exploration (Rose, 2016). However, this conflicts with the top-down programming approach traditionally taught in computer science and can result in bad programming practices. For example, decomposing programs into many small scripts (sometimes hundreds) that lack logical coherence (Meerbaum-Salant, Armoni and Ben-Ari, 2011) and writing programs with duplicated blocks and long scripts that can be difficult to understand and maintain (Aivaloglou and Hermans, 2016).

2.1.2 Programming games

The benefits of game-based learning in educational contexts are well researched (Boyle et al., 2016). Programming games usually involve navigating an object through a grid, either using block-based or text-based instructions. Harms, et al. (2015) suggest that puzzle-like approaches are more effective than tutorials for teaching programming to novices. There are also indications that computational thinking can be taught using these games (e.g. Gouws, Bradshaw and Wentworth, 2013; Rowe et al., 2018).

Some programming games such as Gidget (Lee and Ko, 2014) and Robot ON! (Miljanovic and Bradbury, 2016) use a debugging-first approach, where the player is given an incomplete or incorrect program instead of starting with an empty program. Liu et al. (2017) found that in their programming game, BOTS, debugging required a deeper understanding than writing new code, which supports the theory that novices learn better when completing existing programs than by generating new ones (Van Merriënboer and De Croock, 1992). This is known as the completion strategy (Paas, 1992), which reduces cognitive load because part of the solution is visible and does not have to be held in working memory.

2.2 Computational thinking

The idea that computing’s unique methods of thinking can be used as general purpose ‘mental tools’ has been around since the conception of computing and computer science (Denning, 2017). Papert (1980) first described these skills as computational thinking (CT) while researching how children can develop procedural thinking through computer programming. Wing (2006) sparked a renewed interest in the topic, suggesting that “to reading, writing, and arithmetic, we should add CT to every child’s analytical ability” (p. 33). CT was recently defined as “the conceptual foundation required to solve problems effectively and efficiently (i.e., algorithmically, with or without the assistance of computers) with solutions that are reusable in different contexts” (Shute, Sun and Asbell-Clarke, 2017, p. 142). Yet, there is still no unanimous agreement on a definition (Durak and Saritepeci, 2018). Rose, Habgood and Jay (2017) analysed several widely-cited CT definitions and came up with a list of common concepts:

- Abstraction and generalisation (removing detail from a problem and formulating solutions in generic terms)
- Pattern recognition (finding similarities in problems)
- Algorithms and procedures (using sequences of steps and rules to solve a problem)
- Data collection, analysis and representation (using and analysing data to help solve a problem)
- Decomposition (breaking a problem down into parts)
- Parallelism (having more than one thing happening at once)
- Debugging, testing and analysis (identifying, removing and fixing errors)
- Control structures (using conditional statements and loops)

2.2.1 Dr. Scratch

Dr. Scratch (Moreno-León and Robles, 2015) assesses Scratch projects for CT skills. Projects are given a score out of 21 across seven CT concepts, based on the blocks used (Table 1). These scores have been correlated with both software complexity metrics and human expert judgements (Moreno-León, Robles and Román-González, 2016; Moreno-León et al., 2017). Dr. Scratch has been used in recent studies as a measure of CT (e.g. Foerster, Foerster and Loewe, 2018).

Table 1: Dr. Scratch scoring system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CT Concept</th>
<th>Basic (1 point)</th>
<th>Developing (2)</th>
<th>Proficiency (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logical thinking</td>
<td>If</td>
<td>If else</td>
<td>Logic operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data representation</td>
<td>Modifiers of sprites properties</td>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Lists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User Interactivity</td>
<td>Green flag</td>
<td>Keyboard, mouse, ask and wait</td>
<td>Webcam, input sound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control flow</td>
<td>Sequence of blocks</td>
<td>Repeat, forever</td>
<td>Repeat until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstraction and problem decomposition</td>
<td>More than one script and more than one sprite</td>
<td>Use of custom blocks</td>
<td>Use of ‘clones’ (instances of sprites)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallelism</td>
<td>Two scripts on green flag</td>
<td>Two scripts on key pressed or sprite clicked</td>
<td>Two scripts on receive message, video/audio input, backdrop change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronisation</td>
<td>Wait</td>
<td>Message broadcast, stop all, stop program</td>
<td>Wait until, when backdrop changes to, broadcast and wait</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 Code smells

Bad programming practices are also known as ‘code smells’. A code smell is a surface indication in a program that usually corresponds to a deeper problem (Fowler et al., 1999), for example, duplicated code, long methods and long parameter lists. In Scratch, duplicated blocks, long scripts and dead blocks (not connected to an event block) are all code smells. Code smells make Scratch programs difficult to understand and debug, which can impact project quality and the ease with which learners can alter projects. This is particularly important because ‘remixing’ other people’s projects is a large part of the Scratch online platform (Dasgupta et al., 2016).

Interestingly, novice programmers “prone to introducing some smells do so even as they gain experience” (Techapalokul and Tilevich, 2017, p. 10), suggesting that at least some formal educational intervention is required. However, it is difficult to know when to introduce the concept of code reuse to novices. In a recent work, Hermans and Aivaloglou (2017) created a Scratch-based MOOC online course that integrates software engineering concepts into a Scratch programming curriculum. Their results were promising, reporting that novices can avoid code smells and discern between good and bad programming practice. However, an analysis of 230,000 Scratch projects indicates that learners who potentially know how to avoid code duplication will still duplicate blocks frequently (Robles et al., 2017).

2.3.1 Abstraction

Abstraction is used to remove duplicated code and reduce the size of long methods, usually taking place through refactoring (or restructuring) existing code (Fowler et al., 1999). The goal is that programs are arranged using reusable components that minimise code duplication. Abstraction is the process of removing detail from a problem to generate patterns and find similarities in problems. It is a key concept in computer science (Dijkstra,
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1972) and the main tenant of CT (Wing, 2006), linking closely with other skills of generalisation, pattern recognition and decomposition. Teaching abstraction to novices is a difficult task (Armoni, 2013), which explains difficulties in knowing when to introduce the concept of code reuse.

Dr. Scratch (section 2.2.1) measures abstraction and decomposition skills through the use of multiple scripts in multiple sprites, custom blocks and clones (Table 1). Custom blocks are procedures that can be used to abstract away repeating functionality. Inputs can be used as parameters to pass information to these procedures. Clones are instances of sprites that allow for repetition of sprite behaviours. These blocks enable the Scratch user to write programs using reusable components. Repeats can also be used to reduce duplication, but do not contribute to the Dr. Scratch score for abstraction and decomposition.

3. Game overview

Pirate Plunder is a novel educational programming game that introduces repeats, custom blocks and clones in a game-based Scratch-like setting. The aim is to teach players to use these blocks to reduce block duplication. There are two versions of Pirate Plunder: one where the player is given a program that is incomplete or incorrect, and another where they begin each level with an empty program. We will compare these versions in a series of studies (section 5).

The player uses Scratch blocks to program a pirate ship to navigate around a grid, collect items and interact with obstacles. Levels are divided into ‘tutorials’ and ‘challenges’ (Figure 1). Tutorial levels introduce blocks, with a parrot character demonstrating how and when to use each block. Players then use these blocks to complete a set of challenges before attempting the next tutorial. Most levels require the player to navigate to the ‘X marks the spot’ position on the grid and use ‘get treasure!’ block to collect a treasure chest. Levels contain coins that can be collected as the player moves around the level. Finally, there is a shop where the player can use coins to purchase items and customise their avatar.

Figure 1: Level select (left) and a challenge level that uses custom blocks (right)

4. Game design

Pirate Plunder has followed an iterative development and testing process, with regular playtesting influencing key design decisions. This section describes these decisions and the main components of the game design.

4.1 Scratch integration

The Pirate Plunder layout and functionality is similar to that of Scratch 2.0 (the version widely-used in schools at the time of development.)

4.1.1 Blocks

The Scratch 2.0 toolbox contains 116 blocks divided into 10 categories. This large number of blocks gives the user freedom, in line with Scratch’s constructionist principles, but can be both daunting and difficult for novice users. Pirate Plunder uses a selected set of blocks relevant to gameplay (Table 2).

Table 2: Pirate Plunder blocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Block</th>
<th>Use in Pirate Plunder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motion</td>
<td>Move</td>
<td>Move sprite $n$ steps (grid spaces)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turn right</td>
<td>Turn sprite clockwise $n$ degrees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**4.1.2 User interface**

The Pirate Plunder user interface is similar to Scratch 2.0 in that the scene is on the left and the program workspace is on the right (Figure 2). The green flag and stop buttons work in the same way. However, block execution is slowed down to make it easier for the player to debug their program.

![Figure 2: Pirate Plunder (left) and Scratch 2.0 (right) user interfaces](image)

**4.1.3 Sprites**

Scratch uses event-driven programming with multiple active objects called sprites. Each sprite can be programmed separately. In Pirate Plunder, the available sprites are selectable above the program workspace. However, unlike Scratch, players cannot add, edit or remove sprites. Players can use the ship sprite in each level and an additional cannonball sprite in later levels. Sprites face right and are visible by default.

**4.2 Difficulty progression**

Levels in Pirate Plunder are split into four difficulty stages: statements, loops, procedures and instances (Table 3). The latter three stages introduce a different technique for block reuse, to help the player recognise and correct code smells in previous levels. Motion and event blocks are introduced first, forcing the player to duplicate blocks to collect level coins. The stage finishes with a level that requires 14 separate move blocks to achieve the maximum score (Figure 3), demonstrating the motivation behind using loops. The repeat block is then introduced, and the player must eventually use duplicated sets of repeats, demonstrating the motivation for using procedures. The player is then taught to move duplicated sets of blocks into their own custom blocks (procedures). Parameters are introduced through custom block inputs, which let the player pass numerical values into their custom blocks (see Figure 1 for an example). Finally, the player is taught how to clone a cannonball sprite, which can be used to simulate shooting and lets them destroy floating debris that block off certain areas of later levels.

*not a Scratch category

**Table 3: Difficulty progression**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Tutorial</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>When green flag clicked</td>
<td>Move to a grid position and collect treasure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The player is motivated to use required blocks through block limits, collectable items, required block validation and obstacles. Each challenge limits the number of total blocks that can be used in the program, forcing the player to address block duplication and produce a nearly ideal solution. Players must stop on each coin to collect it and have to collect every coin to achieve a maximum score for that level (section 4.3). Solutions are validated for containing the block related to that challenge. Some levels contain obstacles, such as enemy ghost ships, that will shoot at the player if they are within range. These can be avoided by hiding the ship using the ‘hide’ block. There are also sets of floating boxes that must be destroyed by cloning the cannonball sprite. The player receives feedback during levels from the green parrot avatar in the top right corner.

4.3 Reward system

Pirate Plunder uses several strategies to motivate the player. When collecting treasure, the player receives a random number of coins between 1 and 15 (Figure 4). Uncertain rewards such as this have been shown to enhance learning (Ozcelik, Cagiltay and Ozcelik, 2013). Players are given performance feedback (Malone and Lepper, 1987) through a star rating upon completion of each challenge (Figure 4). This is based on how many available coins they collected: 3 stars for all, 2 stars for some and 1 star for none. For example, a player could complete Figure 3 (left) using fewer blocks but would only achieve 2 stars for missing most of the level coins.

Figure 3: The last level before repeats are introduced (left) and the ‘go to position’ tutorial (right)

Figure 4: Collecting treasure (left) and star ratings (right)
4.4 Debugging-first

The debugging-first blocks have either an incorrect or locked input, are there for assistance (and maybe undeletable) or aren’t needed at all. The player must either use, change or remove these blocks to complete the level using a completion strategy (Paas, 1992). Undeletable blocks have a white padlock and cannot be removed from the program. Locked inputs have the same background colour as the block they are in. The number and type of debugging blocks on each level are linked closely with the difficulty progression.

Figure 5: Debugging-first program (left) and a correct solution (right) for a level

4.5 Analytics

Pirate Plunder produces analytics for several player actions: changing game section (e.g. level select, shop, level) (to calculate time spent on each section), level attempt, level completion, shop item purchase and when working on their solution (block creation, move and deletion). We aim to use this data to investigate player approaches and performance in each version of the game.

5. Future

The next step is to perform a series of randomised controlled trials to investigate if Pirate Plunder is effective in teaching children aged 10-11 to use abstraction techniques to identify and correct code smells in Scratch. The first experiment will compare two versions of the game, debugging-first and non-debugging, over several weeks compared to a traditional Scratch curriculum. Participants will be assessed at pre- and post-test on their ability to design a Scratch solution with reusable components, as well as taking the Computational Thinking test (Román-González, Moreno-León and Robles, 2017). Artefact-based interviews (Brennan and Resnick, 2012) will be done at post-test to establish if participants have understood the rationale behind using repeats, custom blocks and clones.

We expect that the children playing Pirate Plunder will improve their scores on the Scratch assessment from pre- to post-test compared to the control. Furthermore, that the debugging-first version will have a positive impact on game progress and post-test scores. The results of this research, along with game analytics, will influence future game development and subsequent studies.

6. Summary

In summary, Pirate Plunder is designed to teach children to identify and correct code smells using repeats, custom blocks and clones. Using these blocks correctly shows abstraction and decomposition skills. Pirate Plunder uses a simplified Scratch environment and introduces a select set of blocks in a linear difficulty progression. This progression is designed to demonstrate the advantages of loops, functions and instances. Players are motivated to use these blocks through block limits, collectable items and obstacles. We will conduct several studies to establish whether Pirate Plunder is effective in teaching code reuse in Scratch compared to a traditional curriculum, whilst also comparing different versions of the game.

There is still debate around the transfer of computational thinking to non-computational domains (Denning, 2017), and whether it can be applied outside of computer science. The studies described will not directly investigate this line of enquiry. Yet, we hope that the results, particularly of the artefact-based interviews, will give an indication as to whether the participants have understood why the programming skills (loops, procedures and instances) they have been taught can be used to formulate ‘better’ solutions. If they can, it suggests that
they will have made some progress in understanding the underlying computational thinking concepts of abstraction and decomposition.

References


