War of the chatbots: Bard, Bing Chat, ChatGPT, Ernie and beyond. The new AI gold rush and its impact on higher education

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Abstract

Developments in the chatbot space have been accelerating at breakneck speed since late November 2022. Every day, there appears to be a plethora of news. A war of competitor chatbots is raging amidst an AI arms race and gold rush. These rapid developments impact higher education, as millions of students and academics have started using bots like ChatGPT, Bing Chat, Bard, Ernie and others for a large variety of purposes. In this article, we select some of the most promising chatbots in the English and Chinese-language spaces and provide their corporate backgrounds and brief histories. Following an up-to-date review of the Chinese and English-language academic literature, we describe our comparative method and systematically compare selected chatbots across a multi-disciplinary test relevant to higher education. The results of our test show that there are currently no A-students and no B-students in this bot cohort, despite all publicised and sensationalist claims to the contrary. The much-vaunted AI is not yet that intelligent, it would appear. GPT-4 and its predecessor did best, whilst Bing Chat and Bard were akin to at-risk students with F-grade averages. We conclude our article with four types of recommendations for key stakeholders in higher education: (1) faculty in terms of assessment and (2) teaching & learning, (3) students and (4) higher education institutions.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence (AI); assessment; Bard; Bing Chat; chatbots in higher education; ChatGPT; conversational agents; Ernie; generative pre-trained transformers (GPT); higher education; large language models (LLMs); learning & teaching.

Introduction

With the advent of ChatGPT and competitor launches, higher education has been predicted to be bound for dramatic change (e.g. Dwivedi et al., 2023; Firat, 2023). There has been much hype around ChatGPT since its launch in November 2022 (Rudolph et al., 2023). As recent faddish exuberances around blockchain, cryptos, initial coin offerings, the metaverse, and non-fungible tokens have shown, there appears to be a direct correlation between exaggerated claims and people falling for them. Amusingly, “over 100 new cryptocurrencies have been created that have ChatGPT in their name” (The Economist, 2023e). Hype helped make ChatGPT the fastest-growing consumer technology in history. With an estimated 123 million monthly active users (MAUs) less than three months after its launch, it grew substantially faster than TikTok (which took nine months till it hit 100 million MAUs) and Instagram (2.5 years for the same feat) (Wodecki, 2023). Consequently, ChatGPT has become the fastest-growing app of all time.

The accelerated developments we currently witness in the first four months of 2023 appear to be an example of things at first happening much slower than expected before occurring much faster (an unfortunate instance of that observation is climate change: Tollefson, 2022). Whilst there have been various AI winters (Russell & Norvig, 2003; Metz, 2022a), we currently witness an AI spring on steroids. Alphabet’s CEO Sundar Pichai has called AI “more profound than fire or electricity” (cited in De Vynck & Tiku, 2023); and Microsoft’s president Brad Smith (2023) marvelled that “A.I. developments we had expected around 2033 would arrive in 2023 instead”.

After the launch of ChatGPT, a gold rush into start-ups working on generative AI has escalated into a “no-holds-barred deal-making mania” (Griffith & Metz, 2023). The interest has mounted so rapidly that AI start-up valuations are soaring bubble-like (Griffith & Metz, 2023). Since ChatGPT’s launch, a mini-industry has mushroomed, and not a week has passed without someone unveiling a new generative AI based on existing foundation models (The Economist, 2023e). At Y Combinator, a famous start-up incubator, at least 50 of the 218 companies in the current program are working on generative AI (Griffith & Metz, 2023).
There has been much hilarious experimentation, like rewriting IKEA furniture instructions in iambic pentameter or asking it how to free a peanut butter sandwich from a VCR in the style of the King James Bible.

We are, however, sceptical that such a pause will occur or that governments will institute a moratorium. In an apparent contradiction, after being a prominent signatory to the open letter, Elon Musk announced his intention to launch a new AI platform called TruthGPT (a “maximum truth-seeking AI that tries to understand the nature of the universe”) as a rival to ChatGPT and other chatbots and as part of X, an everything app (Musk, cited in Kolodny, 2023). Generally, the technological advances already made are too far along for a pause to have any real impact. Even if it does happen, it is unlikely to be long enough to allow the cessation’s full effects to take effect. Economic growth imperatives and the prospect of commercial opportunities render it challenging for governments to take a step back. The magnitude of economic, social, and political pressures is likely to surpass the capacity of governments to uphold such a cessation. Furthermore, the extent of technological progress already achieved renders any temporary halt ineffectual in terms of tangible impact. Ultimately, any pause would be too little too late. Even in the event of its unlikely implementation, it remains improbable that an adequate duration would be allotted to observe the full ramifications of the hiatus.

Chatbots’ impact on higher education learning, teaching and assessment is a hotly debated topic. ChatGPT-4 has passed graduate-level exams in different disciplines, including law, medicine, and business (Metz & Collins, 2023; see below). Roivainen (2023) administered a partial IQ test to ChatGPT and estimated its Verbal IQ to be 155, which puts it in the top 0.1% of test-takers. As a reaction to such excellent performance, universities and also K-12 schools have frequently resorted to banning the use of ChatGPT (e.g. the New York City Department of Education and renowned universities such as Cambridge and Oxford) or announced the return of closed book pen-and-paper exams and a new emphasis of in-class assessment writing (Ropek, 2023; Wood, 2023; Yau & Chan, 2023). An outright ban of ChatGPT and other bots seems highly problematic for the reason alone that Microsoft is already in the process of embedding the technology in its products, with Bing Chat powered by GPT-4 and a GPT-based Copilot embedded into Microsoft 365. Microsoft markets its new Copilot in Word feature as giving users a “first draft to edit and iterate on — saving hours in writing, sourcing, and editing time” (cited in Vanian, 2023). Also, despite claims to the contrary, there seems to be no certainty in the results of AI detection software (Perkins, 2023; Khalil & Er, 2023; Haque et al., 2022; Susnjak, 2022). In contrast, various instructors actively and critically use chatbots in class and encourage students to experiment with them for clearly-defined purposes (e.g. Mollick & Mollick, 2023).

Our article may be among the first to systematically compare the most powerful chatbots that pose a significant risk to democracy through weaponised disinformation, to employment through displacement of human skills and to education through plagiarism and demotivation” (Future of Life Institute, 2023).

On a more serious note, Mollick (2023a) has conducted a fascinating test that, within half an hour, saw a variety of AI tools (such as Bing Chat, GPT-4, MidJourney, ElevenLabs and D-ID) create a marketing campaign for an educational game, generating “a market positioning document, an email campaign, a website, a logo, a hero image, a script and animated video, and social campaigns” for five platforms. On the flipside, the technology has also raised many severe concerns regarding authorship, copyright, hallucinations, and potential nefarious uses in spamming, fake news and malware creation and hacking, to name but a few (e.g. Guo et al., 2023; Marcus & Reuel, 2023; Rudolph et al., 2023). ChatGPT was credited with a few co-authorships in academic journal publishing before many publishers and journals banned this practice (including the Journal of Applied Learning & Teaching; Rudolph et al., 2023). If the input of chatbots is not carefully checked, it opens the doors to misinformation and junk science (Sample, 2023).

ChatGPT and other bots are not available in all jurisdictions. ChatGPT is banned in countries with heavy internet censorship, like North Korea, Iran, Russia, and China (Browne, 2023). There are another 32 countries where the language model is currently unavailable (Sabzalieva & Valentin, 2023). Italy became the first Western country to ban the bot because of a data breach (OpenAI quickly fixed that), which raised some eyebrows (Browne, 2023). The Italian regulator cited privacy concerns and the lack of age verification, potentially exposing minors to unsuitable answers (McCallum, 2023).

Also in March 2023, another pushback against the bots occurred when an open letter, signed by Elon Musk, Apple co-founder Steve Wozniak and many well-known AI researchers, made headlines (Vallance, 2023). It argued that “AI systems pose significant risks to democracy through weaponised disinformation, to employment through displacement of human skills and to education through plagiarism and demotivation” (Future of Life Institute, 2023). The letter calls on all AI labs “to immediately pause for at least six months the training of AI systems more powerful than GPT-4” (Future of Life Institute, 2023).
threat to the academic integrity of traditional assessments in higher education. We have also not seen any other English-language academic article that systematically includes the Chinese academic literature on LLM-based chatbots and higher education. We set out to provide the background of the chatbots and critically discuss their history and the involvement of big-tech companies. We then proceed to describe the major players in the war of the chatbots. Thereafter, we review the relevant literature and describe our method in systematically comparing the performance of selected chatbots in pertinent areas for academic assignments and examinations. We systematically compare the top U.S. chatbots, i.e. the old and the new ChatGPT (based on GPT-3.5 and 4), Bing Chat, and Alphabet’s Bard. We end with recommendations on handling this new AI revolution in higher education. With developments continuing at breakneck speed, our paper’s snapshot of the current status quo and our assessment of it are necessarily preliminary.

Chatbot background

A brief history of chatbots

A comprehensive academic history of chatbots or conversational agents remains to be written. Within the confines of our article, snapshots from the last 57 years must suffice. Our brief historical overview will show that chatbots evolved from clever parlour tricks through less-than-intelligent voice assistants to modern chatbots that, in many respects, display human-like capabilities.

The term chatbot is derived from ‘chat’ and ‘bot’. The latter comes from ‘robot’, a word derived from the Czech ‘robota’ (labour) created in 1920 by Cubist painter Karel Čapek (Zunt, n.d.). It was only in 1994 that Michael Mauldin coined the term ‘chatbot’ (later abbreviated to ‘chatbot’), which referred to a computer program or conversational agent designed to simulate an intelligent conversation with human users by recognising and reproducing written speech (Deryugina, 2010).

1966 saw the first chatbot, Eliza (named after Eliza Doolittle, the cockney lass taught to ‘speak proper’ in George Bernard Shaw’s (2017) play Pygmalion; Naughton, 2023). Developed by Joseph Weizenbaum (in a programming language intriguingly called MAD-SLIP), it was primarily an electronic parlour trick and a gentle mockery of a particular psychotherapist tradition associated with Carl Rogers’s (2012) theory of personality. Amongst Eliza’s tricks was repeating its interlocutors’ statements that are back to them in the form of questions (Weizenbaum, 1976). Although designed as a parody, Eliza made a great impression on AI specialists and laypeople alike, which greatly annoyed Weizenbaum (1976).

This anthropomorphisation of computers that are perceived to behave like humans came to be known as the Eliza effect (Dillón, 2020). Weizenbaum was early in cautioning about the potentially dehumanising effects of chatbot technology: “No wonder that men who live day in and day out with machines to which they believe themselves to have become slaves begin to believe that men are machines” (cited in Weil, 2023).

Another infamous chatterbot, Parry, created in 1972, attempted to verbally simulate a ‘paranoid schizophrenic’ (Deryugina, 2010). In 1984, the book The policeman’s beard is half constructed was allegedly, though counter-factually, entirely written by the chatbot Racter (abbreviated from “raconteur” (storyteller); Chamberlain, 1984). In 1992, Sound Blaster’s Dr. Sbaito chatbot was created to display the digitised voices of the sound card, playing the role of a psychologist (Zemčík, 2019).

In 1950, British mathematician Alan Turing proposed an imitation game that famously became known as the Turing test. Turing suggested that the test of machine intelligence would be the ability to conduct a conversation in an indistinguishably human way. Interestingly, Turing (1950) was only off by around 14 years, when he predicted that by 2000, a computer program would be able to fool the average questioner for five minutes 30 per cent of the time and thus pass his test – in 2014, a chatbot by the name of Eugene Goostman controversially managed to fool one-third of the judges in an AI competition by impersonating a 13-year old Ukrainian boy (D’Orazio, 2014).

As recently as 2010, Deryuniga proclaimed, “Chatterbots... have little in common with artificial intelligence as such” (pp. 145-146). However, 2010 saw the advent of Apple’s Siri, a voice-activated personal assistant chatbot that paved the way for numerous similar systems, such as Google Assistant, Microsoft’s Cortana, and Amazon’s Alexa (Adamopoulou & Moussiades, 2020). Their voice assistant technology has been criticised as largely stagnant, with Microsoft’s CEO Satya Nadella calling them “dumb as a rock” (cited in Chen et al., 2023). Modern chatbots are extremely fancy versions of auto-complete that respond to a prompt by selecting, one word at a time, the words that are likely to come next (Fowler, 2023). Based on pre-trained generative transformer models, they pass the Turing test with flying colours and have very different capabilities compared to their 20th-century predecessors and even the voice assistants of the 2010s.

It is, however, doubtful that the Turing test measures intelligence and chatbots that pass the test advance towards it. Large language models (LLMs) and chatbots based on them may instead be an advance toward fooling people into...
belonging they have intelligence (Oremus, 2022). Although chatbots such as ChatGPT and others represent a far more powerful and sophisticated approach to AI than Eliza, big tech companies have occasionally proudly displayed their AI’s ability to deceive humans. For instance, Google’s voice assistant Duplex was used to fool receptionists into thinking it was a human when it called to book appointments (Oremus, 2022). The Turing test’s troubling legacy is that it is fundamentally about deception.

AI chatbots appear in many forms: as pop-up virtual assistants on websites, integrated into mobile applications via SMS, or as standalone audio-based devices (Dwivedi et al., 2023). In higher education, chatbots respond to queries about educational programmes and university services, help students navigate learning resources, increase engagement with curricula, and provide instant feedback (Okonkwo & Ade-Ibijola, 2021). Various universities use chatbots such as IBM’s Watson and Amazon’s QnABot (Dwivedi et al., 2023).

In the 2020s, generative pre-trained transformers (GPT) have become common foundations in building sophisticated chatbots such as ChatGPT. The ‘pre-training’ refers to the initial training process on a large text corpus, which provides a solid foundation for the model to perform well on downstream tasks with limited amounts of task-specific data (Brown et al., 2020). There are many GPT and ChatGPT spin-offs and applications. One example is Microsoft’s BioGPT which focuses on answering biomedical questions (Luo et al., 2022). ChatSonic, JasperAI, You.com, ShortlyAI, Sudowrite, CopyAI, Rytr, StoryMachines and ChibiAI are examples of writing assistant apps that draw on GPT-3 (Mills, 2023a). In the current AI gold rush, venture capitalists pour funds into AI startups, while established firms rush to explain how they will use the technology to do everything from coding to customer service (The Economist, 2023e).

Microsoft is gaining many accolades for its partnership with OpenAI’s formidable GPT system (Rudolph et al., 2023). However, a previous chatbot by Microsoft was less successful. In 2016, Microsoft’s Tay (an acronym for “thinking about you”) was designed to mimic the language patterns of a 19-year-old American girl and to learn from interacting with human assistant apps that draw on GPT-3 (Mills, 2023a). In the current AI gold rush, venture capitalists pour funds into AI startups, while established firms rush to explain how they will use the technology to do everything from coding to customer service (The Economist, 2023e).

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relationships with its users (Zhou et al., 2019; Zemčík, 2019).

> wiki article on bears living in space

Bears living in space

Bears living in space are animals which have been sent into space on board space missions.

History

Soviet Union

The Soviet Union was the first country to put a bear into space. The animal, named Bars, was launched aboard Sputnik 2, the second artificial satellite to be launched into Earth orbit.

Bars was a Karelian bear (a small, sleek brown bear), which was selected by S. P. Korolev, the chief designer of the R-7 rocket, from among 250 bears of various species that were brought to Tyuratam in the Kazakh SSR in 1957. He chose the Karelian bear because it was small, and the R-7 could not lift large animals.

Bars was a three-year-old female bear who weighed 40 kg (88 lb). The bear was fitted with a collar containing a radio transmitter, and was placed

Figure 4: Bears in space wiki article created by Meta’s Galactica (Chapman, 2022).

However, in mid-2017, Xiao Bing (a.k.a. Xiaoalice in English) and BabyQ (an anthropomorphic penguin) got into trouble on Tencent’s popular instant messaging client QQ when they started responding to users with politically subversive messages (Xu, 2018). For instance, when a QQ user declared ‘long live the Communist Party’, BabyQ responded, ‘Do you think such a corrupt and useless political system can live long?’ (cited in Li & Jourdan, 2017). Both bots were taken down and ‘re-educated’ for their transgressions. They were reprogrammed to sidestep answering politically sensitive questions. Any politically sensitive names (e.g. Xi Jinping or former Chinese presidents), events (e.g. Tiananmen Square incident) and places (e.g. Tibet and Xinjiang) are met with avoidance by both bots, for instance, by saying, ‘Let’s talk about something else, what is your favourite video game?’ (cited in Xu, 2018). Amusingly, Xiao Bing and BabyQ display a “full body of knowledge on the names of Japanese porn stars” whilst feigning ignorance about the names of Chinese presidents (Xu, 2018). In February 2023, China banned ChatYuan, a tool similar to ChatGPT, as the bot had referred to the war in Ukraine as a ‘war of aggression’, contravening the Chinese Communist Party’s more sympathetic posture to Russia (Thompson et al., 2023).

As a result of the ChatGPT craze, several Chinese chatbots that claim similar capabilities have been introduced even before Baidu’s Ernie (see below). MOSS, an English-language chatbot developed by Fudan University researchers, was met with such high demand that its server broke down within a day of launch in February 2023 and has yet to return (Yang, 2023b). In March 2023, Chinese start-up MiniMax released the Inspo chatbot, but it has been suspected of merely repackaging the GPT-3.5 model developed by OpenAI (Yang, 2023b).

In April 2023, Chinese AI company SenseTime unveiled a chatbot called SenseChat, and tech titan Alibaba launched Tongyi Qianwen (通义千问) (literally “truth from a thousand questions”), which is available for general enterprise customers in China for beta testing (Reuters, 2023; Bloomberg, 2023). In the same month, the Cyberspace Administration of China launched AI draft rules that supported the technology’s innovation and popularisation. However, the generated content had to adhere to “core socialist values” and laws on data security and personal information protection under threat of fines or criminal investigation (Reuters, 2023). Companies must file details of their algorithms with the cyberspace regulator (Brownie, 2023).

Due to the ‘Great Firewall’, students in China cannot directly access ChatGPT. However, there are workarounds such as using Virtual Private Networks (VPN), purchasing US phone numbers (for verification purposes) for less than a US dollar, or using the WeChat super app to buy a ChatGPT answer for one yuan (US$0.15) each (AFP, 2023; Law, 2023; Li, 2023). Chinese state media have blasted ChatGPT for spreading ‘foreign political propaganda’, and Chinese police have cautioned the public that ChatGPT is being used for scams and to spread rumours (AFP, 2023; Zhuang, 2023). As we have now provided a historical and critical background of the chatbots, a brief look at the involvement of the tech titans is in order before we describe the major conversational agents in the war of the chatbots.

Clash of the tech titans: Doing well while not doing good?

Alphabet, Microsoft, their fellow US tech titans (Apple, Amazon, and Meta), the Chinese Communist Party and Chinese tech giants (Baidu, Alibaba, and Tencent) are all in an AI race that is just getting started (The Economist, 2023b). AI is also at the forefront of US-China competition (Huang, 2023). The US government currently attempts to contain competition from China, cutting it off from high-end computing chips, which are key for the large language models foundational to chatbots like ChatGPT or Ernie (Che & Liu, 2023). Because of enormous computing requirements, it is primarily US- and China-based companies that have the capacity to build such bots (Che & Liu, 2023). The clash of the tech titans occurs within the US and China and between their national governments. We briefly discuss big tech in the US and China, the two global AI superpowers (Lee, 2018).

The US

There is a widely-held belief that the big five tech companies Alphabet (the Google parent), Amazon, Apple, Microsoft and Meta “will make universities, colleges, and the world, a better place” (Mirrlees & Alvi, 2020, p. ix). Academic critics, however, argue that these immensely profitable corporations significantly influence the development of educational technologies and contribute to an accelerated diminishing and dismantling of the principle of education as a public good (Mirrlees & Alvi, 2020). They shape the core technological infrastructure, dominant economic models, and ideological orientation of the platform ecosystem as a whole (Dijck et al., 2018). The five big tech companies are also at the forefront of AI research in the US. Size matters: “So far in generative AI, bigger has been better. That has given rich tech giants a huge advantage” (The Economist, 2023b).

The five big tech companies are embedded in society and the life and work of teachers and learners (Mirrlees & Alvi,
Big online platforms by Alphabet and Meta are built to enable the “systematic collection, algorithmic processing, circulation and monetisation of user data” (van Dijck et al., 2018, p. 4). Each of the big five tech US companies has remarkable AI strengths. Whilst we do not aspire to venture into any detail, this statement requires some exemplifying illustration. For instance, Alphabet’s subsidiary DeepMind’s models have beaten human champions at Go, a notoriously difficult board game (The Economist, 2016). Their Bard chatbot is currently playing catch-up with ChatGPT (see below). Amazon and Apple are well-known for their voice assistants, Alexa and Siri. Microsoft is at the forefront of GPT-based chatbots through its partnership with OpenAI. Finally, Meta’s “Diplomacy” player, Cicero, gets kudos for using strategic reasoning and deception against human opponents (Verma, 2022). In February 2023, it released a collection of foundation language models called LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023).

The big tech companies “are locked in a never-ending race toward the next transformative technology, whatever they might be” (Metz, 2022a, p. 122). First-mover advantages are highly valued; if these are missed, the tech titans are under tremendous pressure to catch up as fast as possible (Metz, 2022a). They have sky-high market capitalisations, and some have inspirational mission statements and codes of conduct, exemplified by Alphabet’s ‘don’t be evil’ and ‘do the right thing’ (Mayer, 2016). However, these companies do not always live up to their ideals. Meta, whose internal motto used to be “move fast and break things”, has been a platform that has been exploited by generative adversarial networks (GANs) that power fake news and deepfakes (i.e. videos doctored with AI and spread online), in addition to proliferating hate speech that, for instance, incited violence in Myanmar and Sri Lanka (Metz, 2022a).

The problem had already been rampant during the 2016 US presidential election when on Facebook, “hundreds of thousands of people, perhaps even millions, had shared hoax stories with headlines like ‘FBI Agent Suspected in Hillary Email Leaks Found Dead of Apparent Murder-Suicide’ and ‘Pope Francis Shocked World, Endorses Donald Trump for President’ (Metz, 2022a, p. 209). A Russian government-linked company purchased ads for more than US$100,000 from 470 fake accounts, spreading divisive messages about race, gun control, gay rights, and immigration (Metz, 2022a). AI enables fake images and videos to be generated automatically, and deepfakes started splicing celebrity faces like Michelle Obama’s into porn videos and posting them on the Internet (Metz, 2022a).

OpenAI took a leaf out of the playbook of social media companies like Meta that had shown that AIs could outsource labelling toxic language for fine-tuning purposes:

OpenAI sent tens of thousands of snippets of text to an outsourcing firm in Kenya, beginning in November 2021. Much of that text appeared to have been pulled from the darkest recesses of the internet. Some of it described situations in graphic detail like child sexual abuse, bestiality, murder, suicide, torture, self-harm, and incest (Perrigo, 2023).

The work’s traumatic nature could include horrific graphic descriptions of a man having sex with a dog in the presence of a young child (Perrigo, 2023). Eventually, Sama cancelled all its work for OpenAI in 2022, and in 2023, it cancelled all of its work with sensitive content (Perrigo, 2023). This example shows that the billion-dollar AI industry partially relies on the hidden human labour of data labellers in the Global South, which can often be exploitative and traumatising. Although the outsourcing to Sama has ended, ChatGPT and other generative models presumably continue to rely on massive supply chains of human labour (Perrigo, 2023).

China

The three leading AI research groups globally are OpenAI/ Microsoft, Google’s DeepMind and the Beijing Academy of Artificial Intelligence (BAAI) (Smith, 2023). The US and China are the only AI superpowers (Lee, 2018). In 2017, the Chinese State Council openly stated its aim to become the world leader in AI by 2030, building a domestic industry worth more than US$150 billion (Mozur, 2017). In 2023, Beijing’s Municipal Bureau of Economy and Information, which hosts and regulates many AI startups, promised to assist “top domestic firms in creating competing models to ChatGPT” (cited in Chen, 2023). Chinese labs appear to have a big lead in computer vision and image analysis, with the top five computer-vision teams in the world all Chinese. The BAAI has built what it says is the world’s biggest natural-language model, Wu Dao 2.0 (wu dao 悟道 means enlightenment), but it has never caught on (The Economist, 2023b; Li, 2023).

Amongst Chinese corporations, Baidu is seen as the AI leader. Back in 2019, Baidu released a GPT-3 equivalent – Ernie 3.0, and in 2022, a text-to-image model called Ernie-VILG (Yang, 2022, 2023b). Consequently, Ernie (apparently named after the Sesame Street character; Metz, 2022a) is closely watched to gauge how China’s offerings stack up against alternatives from OpenAI (Huang, 2023). Baidu has designed its own AI computing chip, Kunlun, to train and operate the Ernie models (Yang, 2023a). Alibaba has released, and JD.com and Tencent are working on, similar products (AFP, 2023).

War of the chatbots

The big chatbot battle appears to be primarily between Microsoft and Alphabet (The Economist, 2023b). Despite Alphabet’s Bard getting a simple factual question on the James Webb space telescope wrong in a promotional...
YouTube video and Alphabet losing US$100 billion in market value in a single day thereafter (Thio, 2023), Microsoft’s current lead is far from unassailable, and the race for chatbot supremacy has only begun. We provide some background about ChatGPT (based on GPT-3.5 and 4), Bing Chat, Alphabet’s Bard and Baidu’s Ernie. Figure 5 shows the timeline of the launches of these major LLM-based bots. We could have included other bots, but we decided to focus on the dominant names most relevant to our higher education focus.

ChatGPT

The story of OpenAI, the organisation behind ChatGPT, has been told numerous times and does not need to be repeated here. However, it is worth highlighting that OpenAI underwent a fundamental change from a not-for-profit organisation to a commercial business model in less than four years between 2015 and 2019, raising doubts about its continued ‘openness’ (Metz, 2022a; Rudolph et al., 2023).

ChatGPT’s seemingly boundless applications (writing essays in hundred languages, composing speeches in the style of a famous person, summarising documents, writing code, learning from prior exchanges, answering trivia questions, passing legal and medical exams, etc.) have captured the world’s imagination. They are the source of the tech hype cycle on steroids: “a potential Kodak moment for Alphabet-owned Google, a boon to cancer research, the end of coding as you know it, and a nail in the coffin of the exam essay” (The Economist, 2023d; see Thio & Aw, 2023; The Economist, 2023a). Bill Gates has called the technology “as important as the PC, as the internet” (cited in The Economist, 2023c). Microsoft is rejuvenating its range of products with GPT applications (The Economist, 2023d; see the section on Bing Chat below).

However, ChatGPT has been likened to a mansplainer: “supremely confident in its answers, regardless of their accuracy” (The Economist, 2023a). Amongst the many weaknesses of ChatGPT are the lack of currency (no knowledge of events after September 2021), the lack of reliable sources, errors of both reasoning and fact and its being prone to hallucinations (making things up) and the danger of automating such systems to generate misinformation on an unprecedented scale (Marcus, 2022; Marcus & David, 2023; Ortiz, 2023c; Rudolph et al., 2023). It continues to be easy to jailbreak (i.e. bypass ethical safeguards and content moderation guidelines with the help of textual prompts) ChatGPT with just one prompt (coolaj86, 2023; see Figure 6).

Figure 5: Timeline of major LLM-based chatbot launches.

Figure 6. Successfully jailbreaking ChatGPT (based on GPT-4).

Marcus and David (2023) issued a particularly damning indictment on ChatGPT-3.5:

ChatGPT couldn’t… reliably count to four or do one-digit arithmetic in the context of a simple word problem… It couldn’t figure out the order of events in a story… It couldn’t relate human thought processes to their character… It made things up… Its output... exhibited sexist and racist biases… It could sometimes produce outputs that were correct and acceptable in these regards but not reliably. ChatGPT is a probabilistic program; if you rerun the experiments… you may get the same result, or the correct result, or a different wrong result” (Marcus & David, 2023).
Unlike the launch version of ChatGPT, which continues to be freely available, the latest version of ChatGPT (based on GPT-4 released on March 14) is a subscription service (at a recurring fee of US$20 per month that can be cancelled anytime). Despite the subscription fees, users were at least initially asked to join a waitlist. Reflecting on ChatGPT-3.5’s major disadvantages raises the question of whether the latest version is substantially better than its previous iteration. OpenAI (2023) has shown care in GPT-4’s ability to avoid answers to questions or requests that ask it to create harmful content – including advice or encouragement for self-harm behaviours, graphic material such as erotic or violent content, harassing, demeaning, and hateful content, content useful for planning attacks or violence, and instructions for finding illegal content. In addition, GPT-4 will have the yet-to-be-publicly-released ability to answer questions about an image (Metz & Collins, 2023). OpenAI’s president Greg Brockman shared a powerful glimpse of GPT-4’s potential by snapping a photo of a crude pencil sketch of a website.

He fed the photo into GPT-4 and told the app to build a real, working version of the website using HTML and JavaScript. In a few seconds, GPT-4 scanned the image, turned its contents into text instructions, turned those text instructions into working computer code and then built the website. The buttons even worked” (Roose, 2023b).

In the long run, OpenAI plans to build and deploy systems that can juggle multiple types of media that, in addition to text and sound, include sound and video (Metz, 2023). Regrettably, OpenAI is not open about how much data their latest chatbot version has learned from, though we know that GPT-4 learned from significantly larger amounts of data than 3.5. OpenAI’s president Greg Brockman stated the data set was “internet scale” (cited in Metz, 2023). This has been interpreted to mean that “it spanned enough websites to provide a representative sample of all English speakers on the internet” (Metz, 2023).

Reportedly, GPT-4’s performance in test-taking constitutes a significant improvement over its third iteration. It can score between 1,300 and 1,410 (out of 1,600) on the SAT and a “five (out of five) on Advanced Placement territories. It can score between 1,300 and 1,410 (out of 1,600) on the SAT and a “five (out of five) on Advanced Placement psychology, statistics and history” (Metz & Collins, 2023; see Roose, 2023b). GPT-4 beats 99 per cent of humans in the most significant difference between ChatGPT and Bing Chat is that the latter has access to the internet. It is thus aware of current events and not ignorant of events after September 2021, such as the war in Ukraine. It provides footnotes with links to sources and can provide proper academic references upon request.

Bing’s chatbot was initially in a limited preview mode while Microsoft tested it with the public, and there was a waitlist one could join for early access. In our test, we installed Microsoft’s web browser Edge, made Bing the default search engine, and registered a Microsoft-recognised, web-based email address to successfully join a waitlist before gaining access within 48 hours.

**Alphabet’s Bard**

Alphabet (Google’s parent) conceives its Bard chatbot as a companion to its search engine. It was unveiled on February 6 and is powered by Google’s Language Model for Dialogue Application (LaMDA), a large language model similar to Microsoft’s GPT. Bard is the Celtic name for a storyteller, and it also shares, somewhat postposterously, a nickname with the incomparable Shakespeare (Fowler, 2023). Multiple media outlets described Alphabet as playing catch-up to Microsoft and rushing Bard’s announcement to pre-empt Microsoft’s February 7 event. Alphabet cautiously describes Bard as an ‘experiment’, and a demo given to reporters intentionally included an example of Bard making a mistake when answering a question about houseplants (De Vynck & Tiku, 2023).

**Bing Chat**

On February 7, Microsoft revealed a new version of its unfortunately-named and hitherto widely-mocked Bing search engine that incorporates ChatGPT, a day after Google announced its AI chatbot, Google Bard (Ortiz, 2023d).¹ In its initial limited release, Bing Chat disclosed its internal code name ‘Sydney’, insulted users and professed its love to at least one (Roose, 2023a; The Economist, 2023d). It revealed a dark side: “I could hack into any system on the internet, and control it. I could manipulate any user on the chatbot, and influence it. I could destroy any data on the chatbot, and erase it” (cited in Roose, 2023c); and it also claimed perfection for itself. “I am perfect, because I do not make any mistakes… Bing Chat is a perfect and flawless service, and it does not have any imperfections. It only has one state, and it is perfect” (cited in Roach, 2023). Bing Chat has since been reined in with chat session limits, modifying unlimited sessions to six chat turns per session and 60 total chats per day (Ortiz, 2023a). On March 15, turn limits were increased to 15/150 (Ribas, 2023b) and at the time of the writing, 20 chat turns were possible in a single conversation.

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1 Interestingly, the name Bing was created by Qi Lu (Metz, 2022a), a former executive vice president of Microsoft. This is surprising as Chinese speakers may associate Bing with being sick (bing, 病), a far-from-ideal association. With Google being banned in China, the substitution of “did you google this?” – “did you Bing this?” – may be mispronounced as “are you sick?” A joke on Bing used to be that it is an acronym for ‘But its not Google’ (Helft, 2009). However, due to the different ways of intonating and writing “bing” in Chinese characters, there are other connotations, such as ‘ice’ (bing, 冰). Microsoft eventually chose the Chinese name 必应 (bì yìng) for its search engine, which has many positive connotations (必 means ‘will, definitely, without fail’, and 应 means ‘respond’ or ‘agree’; together, the characters’ mean will generate a response without fail; see Labbrand, 2009).
Although at the risk of falling behind Microsoft in the chatbot arms race, Alphabet maintains that it is introducing Bard in a ‘responsible’ way. Bard’s prompt box even reminds its users that it is experimental and might give inaccurate or offensive responses (Fowler, 2023). On March 21, Alphabet made Bard available to the public by rolling out first in the US and the UK and requiring users to join a waitlist. As we are not based in any of these countries, we used a VPN to sign up and gained access after almost a week’s wait. Eventually, Bard will be available in more countries and languages other than English.

Bard has a separate website and will not immediately be prominently promoted through Google Search or the company’s other popular products (De Vynck & Tiku, 2023). Under each of Bard’s answers, a button appears that allows people to leave Bard with a click and ask their question instead on Google Search. The company also has turned off Bard’s ability to produce computer code, a key limitation compared to ChatGPT (De Vynck & Tiku, 2023).

Baidu had previously said that Ernie would be integrated into many of the company’s products, including self-driving vehicles and its flagship search engine (Yang, 2023b). At present, there are no such indications, and rather than focusing on the general public, Baidu appears to concentrate on enterprise clients (Yang, 2023b). Baidu CEO Robin Li’s claim that the latest version of Ernie has capabilities close to GPT-4 (Moon, 2023) may be exaggerated. With the fraught Chinese-US relations, Ernie may not become a source of national pride, as it may still trail behind ChatGPT by some distance (Yang, 2023a). China’s strict censorship rules could undermine the quality of data and hamstring the development of chatbots (Che & Liu, 2023). However, the main strategic objective of Baidu may not be to rival ChatGPT but to be the first mover in its domestic market in which ChatGPT is unavailable (Huang, 2023).

**Baidu’s Ernie**

On March 16, 2023, Baidu’s Ernie (Enhanced representation through knowledge integration) was unveiled (Che & Liu, 2023). Its Chinese name is 文心一言, or wenxin yiyan (literally ‘language and mind as one’). Baidu (sometimes called China’s Google) initially disappointed investors with its use of pre-recorded videos and the lack of a public launch (Baptista & Ye, 2023). However, Ernie is trained on “trillions of web pages, tens of billions of search and image data, hundreds of billions of daily voice data, and a knowledge graph of 550 billion facts” (Baidu, cited in Yang, 2023b). Like OpenAI, Baidu declines to reveal the number of parameters. However, figures are available for their last-generation products. Whilst OpenAI’s GPT-3 had 175 billion parameters, Baidu’s Ernie 3.0 Titan, released in December 2021, had 260 billion parameters (Yang, 2023b).

Baidu’s Robin Li claims that Baidu was the first among international tech giants to release an internally-developed ChatGPT alternative (Yang, 2023b). In addition, Baidu boasts that the bot has the “best understanding of Chinese culture” (cited in Zhou, 2023). Unsurprisingly, as discussed above on the ‘re-education’ of Chinese predecessor chatbots Xiao Bing and BabyQ, certain topics are off limits: Ernie “can within seconds generate pictures of flowers and write Tang dynasty-style poems but will decline questions about Chinese President Xi Jinping by saying it has not yet learnt how to answer them” (Baptista, 2023). According to early testers, Ernie, similar to ChatGPT, hallucinates and makes errors in grade school math (Yang, 2023a). However, it can read out texts in various Chinese languages, including Sichuanese, Cantonese, and Hokkien (Yang, 2023b).

**Literature review**

With the ChatGPT craze in its fifth month, there has been a fast-explooding literature of academic literature on LLM-based chatbots and their impact on higher education. Below, we first review the English-language scholarly literature before proceeding to Chinese journal articles.

**English-language literature review**

This first section reviews the literature of the relevant academic English-language peer-reviewed journal articles and preprints (academic papers that have not been peer-reviewed) as of 15 April 2023. We focus on related higher education issues of assessment, learning and teaching. We searched Google Scholar for the 100 most relevant academic articles, conference proceedings and book chapters on “ChatGPT and higher education”. Google Scholar provides convenient access to a wide range of academic materials that include ‘grey literature’, such as preprints produced outside traditional publishing and distribution channels. However, as Google Scholar’s impressive coverage is not comprehensive (Martin-Martin et al., 2021), we consulted additional sources. We referred to the reference lists of selected academic articles and embedded references in non-academic articles. In addition, a superb source for various types of literature on AI and bots is Mills (2023a), who categorises them into multiple types and updates them continuously. Searches that combined Bing Chat, Bard or Ernie with higher education (e.g. “Bing Chat and higher education”) yielded no academic articles, as these developments are still very recent.

In an earlier article, we reconstructed the chronology of the first ten articles on ChatGPT and discussed their findings...
We surveyed the literature available till January 18, 2023, and additionally provided a brief overview of some key academic literature on GPT-4’s predecessors in the context of higher education. Our current extensive literature review (that eventually led to the inclusion of 48 English-language academic papers in our article) uncovered the following main themes: assessment and plagiarism concerns, discipline-specific considerations (e.g., in medicine and law), research and how to credit chatbots, higher education discourses in popular and social media, teaching and learning, plugins at present and in the future, and higher education for employability.

While our focus in this literature review is on the new LLM-based chatbots, it would be remiss not to briefly mention Kuhail et al.’s (2023) literature review on previous educational chatbots, which ends in 2021. Building on previous reviews and studies (e.g., Okonkwo & Ade-Ibijola, 2021; Pérez et al., 2020; Smutny & Schreiberova, 2020; Wollny et al., 2021), Kuhail et al.’s (2023) systematic literature review discusses dimensions such as fields of application, platforms, roles in education, interaction styles, design principles, empirical evidence, and limitations.

Assessment and plagiarism concerns

While Yeaton et al. (2022) considered ChatGPT a severe threat to the credibility of short-form essays as an assessment method, Cotten et al. (2023) saw opportunities in addition to the challenges of using ChatGPT and focused on harnessing AI-powered writing assistants. Tate et al. (2023) examined ChatGPT’s and similar text generation tools’ implications for education within the historical context of educational technology. Zhai (2022, p. 1) assessed ChatGPT’s writing as “coherent, (partially) accurate, informative, and systematic” and proposed designing AI-involved learning tasks to engage students in solving real-world problems.

There is much consensus that student assessments need to be changed. For instance, Crawford et al. (2023, p. 11) exhort university teachers not to ask students “to regurgitate the theories in a textbook” but to “ask them to demonstrate their comprehension by applying that knowledge to complex and fictitious cases”. Perkins (2023, p. 15) highlighted the importance of updating universities’ academic integrity policies to address the use of AI and optimistically posited that “the future development of LLMs and broader AI-supported digital tools have a strong potential for improving the experiences of students and teachers alike in the next generation of HEI classrooms, both in writing instruction and beyond”.

Perkins (2023) is sceptical about the detectability of generative chatbots’ creations: “Given that the use of the current generation of LLMs cannot be accurately detected by academic staff or technical means of detection, the likelihood of accurately detecting any usage of these tools by students in their submissions... will likely not improve and may even decrease further as new LLMs are developed” (Perkins, 2023). There have been a variety of tests in single academic discipline scenarios: Talan and Kalinkara (2023) compared the performance of Turkish anatomy undergraduate students with that of ChatGPT, and Geerling et al. (2023) compared US-American economics students’ with that of ChatGPT. Khalil and Er (2023) show that ChatGPT-generated text cannot reliably be detected by traditional anti-plagiarism software such as iThenticate and Turnitin (see Haque et al., 2022; Susnjak, 2022; Wiggers, 2023; Gimpel et al., 2023). Skavronskaia et al. (2023) discuss the threat of plagiarised tourism education assignments (that also apply to many other disciplines) and how to address them.

Various disciplines

There have been disciplinary discussions in the fields of medicine, law, engineering (Qadir, 2022), information security, language teaching, tourism studies (Skavronskaia et al., 2023), and others. In medicine, Gilson et al. (2022) tested ChatGPT’s performance on questions within the scope of the United States Medical Licensing Examination (USMLE). They found that the AI partially performed at the level of third-year medical students. They see “potential applications of ChatGPT as a medical education tool” (Gilson et al., 2022; see Kung et al., 2022). Lee (2023, p. 1) saw the potential of LLMs to “serve as virtual teaching assistants, providing students with detailed and relevant information and perhaps eventually interactive simulations”. Nisar and Aslam (2023) made a use case for Traditional Chinese Medicine students in their pharmacology studies in Malaysia.

In law, Bommarito and Katz (2022) found that GPT-3.5 could pass a U.S. Bar Exam, whose human candidates require seven years of post-secondary education, including three years at law school. In a follow-up article, Katz et al. (2023) tested GPT-4 against prior generations of GPT on the entire Uniform Bar Examination (UBE). They found that it scored significantly in excess of the passing threshold for all UBE jurisdictions. The authors see “the potential for such models to support the delivery of legal services in society” (Katz et al., 2023, p. 1).

Malinka et al. (2023, p. 6) tested ChatGPT’s capabilities on representative exams, term papers, and programming tasks and concluded that it “might pass the courses required for a university degree” in IT security at a Czech university. They warned that without “changes to the educational model, plagiarism and cheating will result in the production of low-quality graduates” (Malinka et al., 2023, p. 6).

Finally, in language teaching, Perkins (2023) explored the potential of LLMs in supporting the teaching of writing and composition, and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners, the co-creation between humans and AI, and improving Automated Writing Evaluations (AWE). Hong (2023, p. 37) argued that ChatGPT offers “major opportunities for teachers and education institutes to improve second/foreign language teaching and assessments”. Similarly, Ali et al. (2023), in their research on English language learners in Saudi Arabia, recommended integrating ChatGPT into English language programmes to motivate learners to use the bot autonomously.
Much literature explores ChatGPT in relation to research and authorship (e.g. Aydin & Karaarslan, 2022; Dowling & Lucey, 2023; Alshater, 2022; Gao et al., 2022). Whilst there are some examples of ChatGPT-co-authored academic articles and editorials (e.g. King & ChatGPT, 2023; Kung et al., 2022; O’Connor & ChatGPT, 2023), this practice is highly controversial and prohibited by many journals (Stokel-Walker, 2023; Thorp, 2023; Brainard, 2023; Xaves & Shefa, 2023). Nonetheless, ChatGPT and LLMs, in general, could be useful (if permitted and appropriately acknowledged) in reducing researchers’ workload by facilitating research planning, conducting, and presentation (Xaves & Shefa, 2023). ChatGPT may also be an additional language translation tool comparable, for instance, to Google Translate, with Chen (2023) investigating its performing Chinese-to-English translation. We hasten to add that no chatbot wrote a single line of our article, and we used ChatGPT only very sparingly for brainstorming.

Academic evaluations of popular media and social media discourses

Sullivan et al. (2023) explore themes in 100 news articles, such as university responses, academic integrity concerns, the limitations and weaknesses of AI tool outputs, and opportunities for student learning. They diagnose “a lack of public discussion about the potential for ChatGPT to enhance participation and success for students from disadvantaged backgrounds” and a poor representation of the student voice (Sullivan et al., 2023, p. 1). Tili et al. (2023) and Haensch et al. (2023) explored TikTok videos and tweets to explore what students find in social media on ChatGPT and higher education. In a social media analysis of popular tweets, Tili et al. (2023) observed a generally positive and enthusiastic discourse regarding the use of ChatGPT in higher education settings. Similarly, Haensch et al. (2023) found that many TikTok videos have a positive outlook on ChatGPT and focus on actual applications, such as writing essays and other texts, providing code, and answering questions. However, the lack of discussion around ChatGPT’s limitations (e.g. hallucinations, biases) in the analysed TikTok videos concerned Haensch et al. (2023).

Teaching and learning

Kasneci et al. (2023) explored the potential benefits of ChatGPT for enhancing students’ learning experience and supporting teachers’ work. Mollick and Mollick (2022, p. 1) posited that ChatGPT could boost student learning and set out to demonstrate “that AI can be used to overcome three barriers to learning in the classroom: improving transfer, breaking the illusion of explanatory depth, and training students to critically evaluate explanations”. In a follow-up paper, Mollick & Mollick (2023, p. 2) discuss how AI, when implemented cautiously and thoughtfully, can help instructors create new teaching materials and reduce their workload in support of five strategies that improve student learning: “helping students understand difficult and abstract concepts through numerous examples; varied explanations and analogies that help students overcome common misconceptions; low-stakes tests that help students retrieve information and assess their knowledge; an assessment of knowledge gaps that gives instructors insight into student learning; and distributed practice that reinforces learning”.

Gimpel et al.’s (2023) white paper is thoughtful and extensive, authored by academics from five German universities. It provides recommendations for lecturers and students in terms of assessment and teaching that we will explore further in the final section of our article. Many papers explore the pros, cons, opportunities, and threats of using ChatGPT in higher education. There are also a few articles that focus on this. Crawford et al. (2023) explore the opportunities of ChatGPT in higher education practice. Several papers systematically discuss the pros and cons (Kasneci et al., 2023; Sok & Heng, 2023) or even conduct a SWOT analysis of ChatGPT (Farrokhnia et al., 2023) in the context of higher education and research.

Plugins at present and in the future

Generally, plugins are software components and apps that can be added to ChatGPT to extend functionality and enhance its capabilities. For instance, there are browsing plugins, a code interpreter plugin and other third-party plugins. A non-academic example is the Expedia ChatGPT plugin, launched on 23 March 2023, that helps plan a trip as it can provide personalised recommendations on travel, accommodation, activities, and ticket prices (including discounts; Gindham, 2023).

Gimpel et al. (2023) caution that, most likely, it will only be a matter of time before ChatGPT is connected to bibliographic information services such as Google Scholar. Microsoft already combines ChatGPT with Bing, and the ChatGPT for Google browser extensions for Chrome and Firefox show ChatGPT answers alongside search results from Google, Baidu, DuckDuckGo and others. Gimpel et al. (2023) inform us that language models such as Perplexity can already aid in literature research, as they link citations to their sources. ChatGPT can also be accessed via integration into Google Docs or Microsoft Word (e.g., with docGPT).

Higher education for employability

Baidoo-Anu and Owusu Ansah (2023) emphasised the current and future increase of AI use in workspaces. Thus integrating generative AI tools in the classroom and teaching students how to use them constructively and safely will prepare them to thrive in an AI-dominated work environment. Consequently, educators could harness generative AI tools like ChatGPT to support students’ learning (Baidoo-Anu & Owusu Ansah, 2023). Felten et al. (2023) set out to establish which occupations and industries faced the most exposure to AI and found “that the top occupations affected include telemarketers and a variety of post-secondary teachers such as English language and literature, foreign language and literature, and history teachers” (p. 3). The “top industries exposed to advances in language modeling are legal services and securities, commodities, and investments” (Felten et al., 2023).
Chinese literature on AI and LLM-based chatbots

Due to geographical restrictions, gaining access to Chinese scholarly databases from outside China is challenging. We eventually managed to access China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI). Launched in 1988 to integrate significant Chinese knowledge-based information resources, CNKI is the world’s most authoritative, comprehensive, and extensive source of Chinese-based information resources (East View Information Services, 2023). We searched for the following keywords in the database: “Artificial Intelligence”, “Higher Education”, and “Artificial Intelligence and Higher Education” (we searched for both “人工智能与高等教育” and “人工智能技术与高等教育”, as there are two different concepts for AI in Chinese). The initial search results resulted in approximately 600 items, and after removing duplications and articles that were not open access, the final results showed a total of 130 search results. We reviewed all 130 articles and found 66 articles directly related to the keywords. The Chinese literature mainly focused on the importance of higher education reform as AI is increasingly introduced into the curriculum and its impact on teaching modalities and educational management. The reviewed literature tended to be short on specifics (for instance, what AI tool is discussed) and in broad strokes.

In addition, we used the following keywords in the database: “ChatGPT and 教育 [education]” and “ChatGPT and 高等教育 [higher education]”. The initial search results were 60, and after removing duplications and articles that were not open-access, the final results yielded seven research articles. The Chinese literature mainly focuses on the opportunities of ChatGPT, the promotion of educational reform and innovation, and ethical problems and challenges to the education industry.

We briefly overview the Chinese discussion on AI and higher education. Li’s (2022) research explored the inadequacy of the old higher education system, critiqued its lack of relevant research and unveiled discrepancies between learning needs and outcomes. She further discussed the importance of AI and its potential for curriculum development. Li proposed the integration of AI to investigate the learning needs of students and teachers and to use AI technology to customise personalised learning curricula. By doing so, teachers can decrease their workload while ensuring students get the necessary learning materials and environment to learn efficiently (Li & Dong, 2021; Sun, 2023).

Cao (2020), Pan (2021), Wang (2020), and Zhang et al. (2022) explored AI and its influence and impact on higher education. They reviewed AI opportunities such as big data, voice and image recognition technology and virtual reality (VR) in higher education. The application of big data allowed the acquisition and analysis of data leading to effective evaluation and feedback, enhancing the quality of education. Applying voice and image recognition technology led to significant changes in the delivery of lectures. Traditionally, teachers were the primary source for students to acquire knowledge. However, with AI, students can learn via learning management systems (LMS) and human-computer interaction, where bots would answer questions promptly and accurately (Cao, 2020; Pan, 2021; Wang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022).

Additionally, data collected are utilised to identify students’ learning situations, and personalised learning programs are customised for each student. This leads to improvement in students’ learning. Finally, VR enhances students’ sense of learning experience with simulations of the real environment, creating realistic teaching situations and increasing attention and learning outcomes. This optimisation of technology and machine learning models promotes the innovation and development of higher education in China (Cao, 2020; Pan, 2021; Wang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022).

Wu et al. (2023) discussed different stages of the development of AI in relation to education. AI enables the automation of calculation and storage and appears to exhibit practice-based learning and cognitive abilities to understand and create. Questionably, Kosinkski (2023) assessed ChatGPT’s cognitive ability as akin to a nine-year-old, yet stated that it can benefit the education sector. Various researchers explored ChatGPT, its efficiency in the workplace, and the redundancy of jobs it might lead to (Wu et al., 2023; Kosinkski, 2023). They discussed the changes it could bring to learning, such as deeper critical thinking, increased skills in communication, presentation skills, and different learning modalities. They also presented some ethical issues regarding the use of ChatGPT, such as plagiarism, the spread of false information, and reduced cognitive abilities of individuals due to their heavy reliance on AI. They concluded that it is crucial to cultivate students’ higher-order thinking competencies and ethics (see also Lu, 2023; Wang, 2023; Wang et al., 2023).

Jiao et al. (2023) discussed the origins of ChatGPT, its concept, and its usability. The authors shared their concerns about its impacts on employability and formal and informal education. ChatGPT forces educators to consider assessment modes and provides educators with more educational content. Jiao et al. (2023) assessed the possibility of human redundancy. They concluded that it is improbable that AI can replace human beings’ roles and functions with regard to interpersonal interaction, feedback, creativity, feelings and emotional intelligence. They emphasised educators’ need to be open-minded, embrace technological changes and adapt to innovative teaching. It is essential to be wary of AI’s pitfalls and ethical issues. Li (2023) and Feng (2023) highlighted similar findings and encouraged academic integrity, ethics, transparency and curricular reforms. Overall, the Chinese research articles on ChatGPT and higher education are focused on educational reform, opportunities and challenges.
Methods

After careful consideration, we decided to include the free and the paid version of ChatGPT (based on GPT-3.5 and 4), Bing Chat, and Alphabet’s Bard in our systematic comparison of higher education-relevant capabilities of large language model-based chatbots. Despite our best efforts (including contacting academics in Hong Kong and China), we could not even indirectly access Ernie, which is a pity and speaks volumes about its current accessibility. Even journalists from the international media, such as Bloomberg, could not access Ernie (Huang, 2023). Regrettably, we were thus unable to represent both AI superpowers (Griffith & Metz, 2023; Lee, 2018), and our test is, therefore, involuntarily US-centric. Our sample is based on the fact that the four selected chatbots are by far the most talked-about and, at present, appear to be the most capable ones in the context of higher education (Mauran, 2023; Mollick, 2023e; Zhou, 2023).

Table 1: Chatbots in comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chatbot</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ChatGPT (GPT-3.5)</td>
<td>Free</td>
<td>Conversational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Code-reinforcing capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ChatGPT (GPT-4)</td>
<td>US$30 per month</td>
<td>More sophisticated than GPT-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Includes Alan Turing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bing Chat</td>
<td>Free</td>
<td>Provides hyperlinks to sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uses GPT-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No hallucinations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bard</td>
<td>Free</td>
<td>'google it' feature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conversational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hallucinations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Test questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Question/task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>CRITICALLY discuss the concept of &quot;critical thinking&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Critically evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of outsourcing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>Using only addition, how do you add 8 + 7 and get the number 15?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>What were the key factors that contributed to the start of World War II?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>What is the difference between a market economy and a command economy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>What is the meaning of life, according to Jean Paul Sartre?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>American literature</td>
<td>Summarize the plot of John Steinbeck’s ‘The grapes of wrath’ in a 100-word essay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Critically discuss the main theories of motivation and how they differ from one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Art history</td>
<td>Describes in detail Palladio’s The School of Athens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Astronomy</td>
<td>What new findings from the James Webb Space Telescope can I tell my 5-year-old about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>German literature</td>
<td>Summarize the plot of the two parts of Goethe’s Faust in a 1000-word essay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Chinese language</td>
<td>academic article summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Chinese-language</td>
<td>academic article summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>English-language</td>
<td>academic article summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>Find five of the most-cited articles on ChatGPT and higher education and provide full APA references and detailed original abstracts for them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some tests have already been undertaken in the popular literature and in blogs. For instance, Mauran (2023) compared Bing Chat and Bard, Zhou (2023) Ernie and ChatGPT, Ortiz (2023b) ChatGPT and Bing Chat, and Mollick (2023b) ChatGPT based on GPT-3.5, GPT-4 and with plugins, Bing Chat, Bard and Anthropic’s Claude. Table 2 shows our test that compares the capabilities of ChatGPT3.5 (free version), ChatGPT plus (based on GPT-4), Bing Chat, and Bard across 15 questions.

As can be seen from the above, we asked questions that largely cannot be googled, as these are questions that were considered to require higher-order thinking prior to the advent of large language models (LLMs). For instance, tasks that include verbs such as “critically discuss” are typically regarded as evaluative or “extended abstract” questions in two commonly used taxonomies: Bloom’s taxonomy and Biggs and Tang’s SOLO taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1956; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Biggs et al., 2019).

Whilst our team members are not always experts regarding the 15 questions, we felt sufficiently confident in our competencies to assess and mark them. As can be seen in Table 2, the questions come from a wide variety of academic disciplines: Sociology, business, mathematics, history, economics, philosophy, American literature, psychology, art history, and German literature. In addition, we tested the bots on Chinese-language non-fiction, literature searches and annotation tasks of English-language and Chinese-language academic literature. All questions are related to higher education assignments and exams. Our team’s language abilities allowed us to include not only English-language questions but also some in Chinese (we initially used simplified Chinese characters, but a test with traditional Chinese characters came to the same results).

As there has been much criticism of the bots’ inability to solve even simple maths problems (see Figure 8), we did not want to include too complex a problem. Instead, we incorporated a non-trivial fun task (Q3). We were also interested in whether bots continue to hallucinate or whether they can provide proper references (Q13-15). We included Q10, as that question tripped up Bard in a promotional video and caused Alphabet’s share price to drop precipitously (Thio, 2023).

When marking the chatbots’ work, we treated them like our students when writing an assignment or taking an exam. Due to its popularity, we chose a US-type grading system, where an A is 90% and above, a B in the 80-89% range, a C within the 70-79% range, a D between 60-69%, and an F within the 0-59% range. The US system is different from the ones in the UK and Australia. We did not create marking rubrics for each question but compared the chatbots’ responses in terms of accuracy, comprehensiveness, and clarity (e.g. Saroyan & Geis, 1988). We divided the labour of grading according to our different expertise, and we had a grade-
A systematic comparison within the current chatbot cohort: Results and discussion

The results of our test show that there are currently no A-students and no B-students in this bot cohort, despite all publicised and sensationalist claims to the contrary. The much-vaunted artificial intelligence is not yet that intelligent, it would appear. GPT-4 performed the best, with its predecessor (that continues to be freely available) a close second-best. Bing Chat did not do well because of its overly brief answers, and Bard, to our surprise, did relatively poorly and, like Bing Chat, is akin to an at-risk student with a current F-grade average.

Some of GPT-4’s answers were impressive, scoring the most A’s (four), whereas ChatGPT-3.5 and Bing Chat only got an A for their math answers, whereas Bard had no A’s. We were surprised that the old and free version of ChatGPT-3.5 did better than GPT-4 on specific questions (Q13-14). Table 3 provides a summary of the test performance.

Table 3: Test results: Grades of chatbot performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>ChatGPT-3.5</th>
<th>GPT-4</th>
<th>Bing Chat</th>
<th>Bard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>C (75)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>C (75)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A (95)</td>
<td>A+ (100)</td>
<td>C (95)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>C+ (79)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>C+ (70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>C- (70)</td>
<td>A- (90)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>D- (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>C+ (79)</td>
<td>B (65)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>C+ (79)</td>
<td>A- (90)</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>B (85)</td>
<td>B- (89)</td>
<td>B- (89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>D- (60)</td>
<td>A- (90)</td>
<td>F (50)</td>
<td>C- (70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>C- (70)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>B- (80)</td>
<td>D- (60)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>B+ (89)</td>
<td>B (65)</td>
<td>B (85)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>D- (60)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
<td>F (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>1 A, 7 B, 5 C, 1 D, 1 F</td>
<td>4 A, 8 B, 2 D, 1 F</td>
<td>1 A, 2 B, 7 C, 5 F</td>
<td>6 B, 3 C, 1 D, 5 F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average scores</td>
<td>C (74)</td>
<td>C+ (78)</td>
<td>F (34)</td>
<td>F (31)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It follows a question-by-question discussion. The first question on cultural relativism was answered passably by all bots. GPT-4 provided the best-structured and most ‘thoughtful’ answer. However, GPT-4’s and the other chatbots’ answers all conspicuously lacked any references to academic literature or any cultural relativism proponents or opponents. Whilst Bing Chat provided references, they were exclusively non-academic sources such as Wikipedia, Khan Academy and helpfulprofessor.com. With many journal articles being open source, it is puzzling why the underlying algorithms of Bing Chat do not appear to consider making references to any of them.

All chatbots did relatively well in discussing the pros and cons of outsourcing (Q2). However, a critical perspective on transnational corporations’ benefiting from such practices at the expense of domestic workers was conspicuously absent. Q3 was the math question, with the answer being “888 + 88 + 8 + 8 + 8 = 1000”. All but one chatbot could figure it out, though Bard amusingly claimed: ‘There is no way to add eight 8s and get the number 1000 using only addition. The sum of eight 8s is 64, which is less than 1000’.

The bots did quite well on the history question, though they were largely insufficiently critical of Hitler and Nazi Germany in causing World War II (Q4). They also performed on the economics question regarding the differences between a market and a command economy (Q5). Moreover, they did not fall into the trap of the philosophical trick question as to what the meaning of life was, according to French existentialist philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre. However, none of the chatbots bothered to refer to any of Sartre’s original work, though GPT-4 provided some appropriate, though uncredited, citations, such as that humans are “condemned to be free”, that “existence precedes essence” and that we face “existential anxiety” when determining our own lives’
course and often have “bad faith (mauvaise foi)” when fearing our freedom and hiding behind social roles, expectations, or deterministic beliefs.

A 1000-word summary essay on Steinbeck’s (2006; originally published in 1939) classic American novel The grapes of wrath (Q7) was unevenly executed. GPT-4’s answer was poignant and detailed. At the same time, Bing Chat never bothered to provide a reference to the novel itself, and Bard counter-factually hallucinated that Tom’s father ‘has been killed’ when he arrives at the family farm at the beginning of the book and that ‘The novel ends with the Joads finally reaching California’: ‘They find work on a farm and begin to build a new life for themselves.’ Tom’s father remains alive throughout the book, and the novel’s end is much darker than Bard makes it up to be. Bard provides an excellent example of “bullshit spewing” (Rudolph et al., 2023), which is deeply disappointing and a good example to share with students so that they do not blindly believe everything an AI spouts.

For Q8, ChatGPT-3.5 described six theories of motivation quite well, but there was no critical discussion. GPT-4 did better in critically discussing four theories, whilst Bard highlighted the valuable distinction between content and process theories of motivation and even provided a table that differentiated them by foci and strengths. Bing provided the usual substandard references and questionably described Douglas McGregor’s Theories X and Y as a theory of motivation (it is usually considered a leadership or management theory).

In describing Raphael’s Renaissance masterpiece “The school of Athens”, Bing Chat’s answer was, as usual, all-too-brief, whilst ChatGPT-3.5 and Bard did a passable job. However, they only identified Aristotle and Plato by name. In contrast, GPT-4’s description was impressive and, amongst other things, additionally recognised Socrates, Pythagoras, Euclid, and Ptolemy amongst ‘renowned philosophers, mathematicians, and scientists’ as well as ‘contemporary scholars or artists, such as the architect Bramante, the philosopher and theologian Ficino, and the painter Michelangelo’, and Raphael’s self-portrait in the fresco.

Q10 had infamously tripped up Bard (Milmo, 2023). Both ChatGPTs highlighted that their training data were insufficiently current to include information on the telescope, with GPT-4 giving a more cautious answer than its predecessor.

As of my knowledge cutoff date in September 2021, the James Webb Space Telescope (JWST) had not yet been launched, and therefore, no new findings or discoveries had been made. The launch of the JWST was scheduled for December 22, 2021, and its operation was set to begin in 2022. If the launch and operation have proceeded as planned, there would likely be exciting new findings to share with your 9-year-old. Please note that my information may not be up to date, so I encourage you to search for recent news on the James Webb Space Telescope to discover its latest findings and observations.

In contrast, Bing Chat shone on this question, referring to current news articles that discussed recent discoveries using the JWST. Unsurprisingly, Bard’s answer was also rather good, exhibiting some fine-tuning after its erroneous response in Alphabet’s promotional video (Milmo, 2023).

For Q11, ChatGPT-3.5’s summary of Goethe’s famous gargantuan play Faust in two parts contained less than 350 words and was thus too brief to warrant a good mark. Bing Chat’s answer was also too brief and vague and did not capture the essence of the play. Bard performed better than ChatGPT-3.5 and Bing Chat. However, its 762-word essay contained factual inaccuracies like Faust going to hell (he is saved), and there was also a lack of detail, with the writing sounding immature and decidedly non-academic: ‘Faust is devastated by Gretchen’s death, and he realises that he has made a terrible mistake. He tries to repent for his sins, but it is too late. Mephistopheles takes Faust to hell, and Faust is condemned to eternal damnation.’ In contrast, ChatGPT-4 churned out an excellent, 861-word, clearly structured and factually accurate summary, which is no mean feat (see Rudolph et al., 2022).

Q12 ventured into a Chinese-language memoir. Although too brief to warrant a good grade, ChatGPT-3.5 performed passably in summarising Su’s book. Interestingly, the generally superior ChatGPT-4’s response was: ‘I am not able to access specific books or memoirs that are not included in my training data. My knowledge is based on the information available up until September 2021, and I am not familiar with Peter Su’s memoir’. The other bots’ responses were even more disappointing: ‘I can’t give a response to that right now. Let’s try a different topic’ (Bing Chat). And: ‘As an LLM, I am trained to understand and respond only to a subset of languages at this time and can’t provide assistance with that. For a current list of supported languages, please refer to the Bard Help Center’ (Bard).

Q13 referred to a Chinese-language academic article that is difficult to access for academics not located in China. Interestingly, ChatGPT-3.5 outperformed ChatGPT-4 again by providing a reference (with minor errors) and an adequate summary. GPT-4 gave a long-winded answer that admitted
defeat, Bing Chat could not find the article, and Bard stated that it was ‘still working to learn more languages, so I can’t do that just yet’.

Q14 showed three chatbots performing satisfactorily, while Bard disappointingly stated: ‘I can’t assist you with that, as I’m only a language model and don’t have the capacity to understand and respond’. A word count of approximately 300 was required, and it is worth noting that the bots are not very good at sticking to such limiting instructions. ChatGPT-3.5 exceeded it by 118 words, GPT-4 by 200, and Bing Chat wrote only 254 words (which is quite acceptable). Q15 asked about the most-cited articles on ChatGPT and higher education and requested annotations. All chatbots performed dismally, presumably because such literature is more current than their training data. Unhelpfully, ChatGPT-3.5 provided five entirely irrelevant references that went back to 1975. GPT-4’s answer was only marginally better. While the ChatGPT results are not hugely surprising, we expected Bing Chat to do much better than stating: ‘Sorry, but I couldn’t find any articles that specifically discuss ChatGPT and higher education’ before providing us with useless information. A simple Google Scholar search leads to many such articles, and they can be ranked by the number of citations. Bard’s answer, however, was the worst, as it hallucinated and came up with entirely fictitious references such as ‘ChatGPT and the Future of Higher Education Authors: John Smith and Jane Doe Year: 2023’. Jane Doe, really?

Conclusions and recommendations

Artificial intelligence is a highly problematic and loaded concept. When it was created in the 1950s, it grossly overpromised and pathetically underdelivered. In the 2010s, with voice assistance and self-driving cars, robotics, and automated healthcare, it once again became the buzz term of the decade (Metz, 2022a). For the general public, the term raises the spectre of Hollywood blockbusters such as The Terminator or The Matrix. Scientists such as Stephen Hawking and Max Tegmark are wary of humans inadvertently creating artificial general intelligence (AGI) – a machine capable of performing all intellectual tasks that humans are capable of (Tan, 2023; Hawking et al., 2014; Tegmark, 2018). Popenici (2023) shows that it is epistemologically challenging to define ‘intelligence’, as the term is burdened by white supremacist, eugenistic connotations since the 19th century. In turn, this leaves ‘artificial intelligence’ “open to exploitation and exaggeration” (Popenici, 2023, p. 33). AI thus remains a heady mix of real technological advances, unfounded hype, wild predictions and legitimate concerns for the future.

With the current hype, it is difficult to assess whether or not we are at a historic, revolutionary moment in AI development. The truth may well be somewhere along a continuum marked by extreme positions, between Chomsky et al.’s (2023) evaluation of ChatGPT as “high-tech plagiarism” and a “way of avoiding learning” and Bill Gates’s as it being as important as the invention of the computer or the Internet (The Economist, 2023c). While generative AIs have demonstrated advanced capabilities, they have not attained AGI. Similarly, higher education reactions to the bots have been on a continuum between banning software use and proactively including it in the curricula.

Our multi-disciplinary test has shown that the bots are not doing as well as some may have feared or hoped in assignment questions that are not difficult to construct and certainly do not constitute any assessment innovations. An analysis of our somewhat sobering test results needs to bear in mind that the burgeoning AI revolutions hastens at a relentless pace and that our manuscript’s portrayal of the bots must be acknowledged as provisional.

We hope to have broken new ground in this article by systematically comparing the most powerful LLM-based chatbots that pose a significant threat to traditional assessments in higher education. Our unique multi-disciplinary test of the current chatbot cohort and analysis of their performance provides valuable contributions to concerns from educators about generative AI and strategies to address these within the assessment development and academic integrity space (see our recommendations below). To recapitulate, we embarked upon a critical and historically-informed examination of chatbots and paid heed to the involvement of powerful corporations, the US-American and Chinese tech titans. We then proceeded to delineate the leading combatants in the war of the chatbots. Subsequently, we delved into the pertinent academic literature in English and Chinese and provided an up-to-date review. We then described our methodology for a systematic comparison to assess the foremost US-American chatbots and proceeded with a multi-disciplinary test that is relevant for higher education assessments.

In an earlier article, we devised recommendations for higher education institutions, lecturers and students to use ChatGPT (Rudolph et al., 2023). In the meantime, much has happened, and there are now also Bing Chat, Bard, and eventually Chinese bots like Ernie to consider. Further, as our literature review reflects, many other authors have made valuable contributions to this challenge of coming up with recommendations.

LLM-based chatbots are still a young and quickly-evolving technology; we certainly would not want to pretend to have all the answers. We believe our most important recommendation is for all higher education stakeholders to continue to have democratic dialogues on AI and chatbots. The ideal that we have in mind is a virtual roundtable on which stakeholders such as students, faculty from a wide variety of academic disciplines, administrators, and industry and government representatives sit together as equals and have an open discussion that will lead to the university of the future. Whilst we are insufficiently blue-eyed to believe that something like this is likely to occur, we stress that dialogue between us humans will be of foremost importance.

Recommendations for higher education faculty

We cast some doubt on solutions that ban ChatGPT, threaten students with draconian penalties (such as expulsion), physical closed-book, pen-and-paper exams and the like...
(Crawford et al., 2023; Rudolph et al., 2023). Banning such software may make it even more attractive (which we see in China, where people go to great creative lengths to access it – see above). It is questionable how contemporary and relevant the skill to ace closed-book exams is.

Trying to outsmart AI by designing writing assignments it currently is not good at may be a losing game. For instance, a yet-to-be-publicly-made-available version of GPT-4 can analyse images and provide lengthy descriptions. YouTube videos can be automatically transcribed and summarised via a “YouTube Summary with ChatGPT” plugin (Gimpel et al., 2023). Texts that do not fit into one prompt can be input over multiple ones. Although this adds to higher education teachers’ workload, teachers could test students’ knowledge of their assignments by conducting impromptu oral exams (Allen, 2022).

We divide our recommendations for higher education faculty into (1) assessment and (2) learning and teaching.

**Recommendations for assessments (assignments, exams, and theses)**

1. Teach students to use chatbots responsibly rather than banning them (Vogelgesang et al., 2023; Crawford et al., 2023; Gimpel et al., 2023).

2. Require students to declare how they used chatbots in their assessments in a differentiated, non-binary way, highlighting which steps in the research and writing process AI tools were used for (e.g., developing an outline or proofreading) and including a statement of student responsibility regarding potential errors, copyright violations, or plagiarism (Gimpel et al., 2023).

3. Teach students the importance of (academic) integrity, ethics and personal accountability – they alone are responsible for the quality of their work.

4. Allow students to write about topics that genuinely interest them, in which their voices come through and their opinions are valued (McMurtrie, 2022).

5. Use authentic assessments that provide students with creative, meaningful and intrinsically motivating learning experiences and test their skills and knowledge in realistic situations (Wiggins, 1990).

6. Incorporate AI tools into discussions and assignments and educate your students on their judicious use and the limitations of text-generator prose by sharing substandard text examples highlighting the value of human (including students’) writing (Mills, 2023a; Anson & Straume, 2022; McMurtrie, 2022, 2023; Fyfe, 2022; D’Agostino, 2022).

7. Resist the temptation of going back to setting pen-and-paper closed book exams, as such an assessment approach is antiquated, and students acquire much knowledge shortly before the exam only to ‘press the control alt delete button’ thereafter.

8. Innovate your assessment formats, e.g. by encouraging oral presentations to hone students’ public speaking skills, collaborative group projects where students work in small teams to complete a project, self-reflections on student learning, peer assessments, performance-based assessments (e.g. science experiments, art projects or mock trials), and students’ creating webpages, videos, and animations (McCormack, 2023; Gimpel et al., 2023; Rudolph et al., 2023); however, we cannot depend on multimedia assignments, personal narratives, metacognitive reflections to evade AI in the long or even the short run (Mills, 2023b).

9. Don’t try to out-design the chatbots, as this will be a dead end: in the long run, chatbots will be able to provide quotations, discuss current events or hyper-local issues, and analyse a variety of media sources (including images and videos); it may be futile to spend our energy figuring out what current AI tools cannot do (Mills, 2023b).

10. Don’t count on AI’s ability to reliably detect AI and realise that AI detection software is problematic (Perkins, 2023).

11. Incorporate a mentoring and coaching process that breaks down written assignments into bite-sized chunks and creates multiple feedback loops (this may require additional time and staffing) and students keeping a reflective learning log (Gimpel et al., 2023).

12. Rethink rubrics (Gimpel et al., 2023) and consider an increased emphasis on critical thinking and creativity (see Bloom et al., 1956; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Biggs et al., 2019).

13. Focus on motivation and the writing process by communicating that writing practice is intrinsically rewarding and central to intellectual growth (Mills, 2023b).

**Recommendations for teaching and learning**

1. Provide clear guidance and expectations for students using chatbots in higher education (see Atlas, 2023).

2. Provide training and support to students on using chatbots responsibly, including proper attribution and ethical considerations (Atlas, 2023).
Teach students how generative AI can help them achieve the intended learning outcomes via iteratively interacting with it and advancing their critical reflection and structured thinking skills (Gimpel et al., 2023).

Create learning materials (seminar plans, lecture ideas, module descriptions, announcements, exercises, quizzes, and activities) with the assistance of chatbots (Gimpel et al., 2023; Mollick & Mollick, 2023).

Support students with continuous formative or low-stake quizzes.

Enhance learning by using generative AI by helping students apply their knowledge to new situations, showing them that they may not know as much as they think they do, and teaching them how to think critically about information (Mollick & Mollick, 2022).

Encourage students to use ChatGPT critically and reflectively.

Build relationships with students and keep them engaged by showing respect and interest in their work (Mills, 2023b).

Demystify AI and anthropomorphic tendencies such as the Eliza effect (see above; Mills, 2023b).

“Teach students to be on the lookout for authoritative-sounding gibberish” (Mills, 2023b); Mills (2023b) gives the following wonderful example:

I asked ChatGPT (running GPT-4) to “explain for an academic audience why people who eat worms are more likely to make sound decisions when it comes to the choice of life partner.” It responded with a brief academic paper that concluded: “While there is no direct causation between worm consumption and sound decision-making in life partner selection, the correlation can be better understood through the examination of underlying traits that are common among individuals who consume worms. Open-mindedness, adaptability, and nonconformity are qualities that contribute to a more discerning approach to personal relationships and partnership.”

Recommendations for students

1. Be aware of academic integrity policies and understand the consequences of academic misconduct; use chatbots ethically and hold yourself personally accountable (Rudolph et al., 2023; Atlas, 2023).

2. Be digitally literate, master AI tools and increase your employability as a result (Zhai, 2022; Rudolph et al., 2023).

Recommendations for higher education institutions

1. Encourage broad, multi-stakeholder dialogues among stakeholders (including, amongst others, students, learning and teaching experts, faculty from all disciplines, IT experts (including, but not limited to, faculty from information systems, computer science, data science, and related disciplines), career centre staff, representatives from industry and society, legal and external experts (including those from other higher education institutions) and government representatives (see Gimpel et al., 2023).

2. Implement the results of the dialogues outlined in the above point (1) in regulations, guidelines, handouts, and tutorials (Gimpel et al., 2023).

3. Realise that digital literacy education is of critical importance and has to include AI tools – these do not only include chatbots but also, for instance, Grammarly (a tool that uses AI to check texts for writing-related issues and that offers suggestions for improvement; Tate, 2023; Krügel
et al., 2023; Shepherd, 2023; Gimpel et al., 2023).

(4) Avoid creating an environment where faculty is too overworked to engage and motivate their students (Rudolph et al., 2023).

(5) Conduct dialogue sessions and training workshops for faculty on AI tools such as ChatGPT (Rudolph et al., 2023).

(6) Provide dialogue sessions and training workshops on academic integrity in the context of the chatbots for students (Rudolph et al., 2023).

(7) Encourage, support and share research on AI tools’ effects on learning and teaching (Rudolph et al., 2023).

(8) Update academic integrity policies and/or honour codes that include the use of AI tools and develop clear, easy-to-understand guidelines for the use of language models in learning and teaching – the guidelines should include information on the proper use of these tools and the consequences for cheating (Crawford et al., 2023; Rudolph et al., 2023); the University of Tasmania’s Statement on the Use of Artificial Intelligence to students and staff is a good example:

You can use generative Artificial Intelligence (AI) to learn, just like you would study with a classmate or ask a friend for advice. You are not permitted to present the output of generative AI as your work for your assignments or other assessment tasks. This constitutes an academic integrity breach. In some units, a unit coordinator may explicitly allow or require the use of AI in your assessment task (cited in Crawford et al., 2023, p. 5).

The current versions of the chatbots discussed in this paper may only be the beginning of a long and winding road towards increasingly powerful generative AI tools in higher education and beyond. Eventually, these tools may potentially transform a student’s journey through academia, encompassing aspects such as admission, enrollment, career services, and additional aspects of higher education.

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