

QCRI: Experiments in Community Question Answering Selection for Arabic and English

Massimo Nicosia¹ and Simone Filice² and Alberto Barrón-Cedeño² and
Iman Saleh³ and Hamdy Mubarak² and Wei Gao² and Preslav Nakov² and
Giovanni Da San Martino² and Alessandro Moschitti² and Kareem Darwish²
Lluís Màrquez² and Shafiq Joty² and Walid Magdy²

¹ University of Trento

² Qatar Computing Research Institute

³ Cairo University

massimo.nicosia@unitn.it

{sfilice, albarron, hmubarak, wgao, pnakov, gmartino}@qf.org.qa

{amoschitti, kdarwish, lmarquez, sjoty, wmagdy}@qf.org.qa

iman.saleh@fci-cu.edu.eg

Abstract

This paper describes the QCRI participation to SemEval-2015 Task 3 —Answer Selection in Community Question Answering— on both Arabic and English real-life question forums. We apply a supervised machine learning approach considering a manifold of features including word n -grams, text similarity, vocabulary polarity, and the presence of specific words, as well as the context of a comment, among others. Our approach allowed us to get the first position in the Arabic task and the third position in the English task.

1 Introduction

The SemEval-2015 Task 3 —Answer Selection in Community Question Answering—, challenged participants in the problem of automatically identifying the appropriateness of user-generated answers in a community question answering setting both in Arabic and English (Màrquez et al., 2015). A question $q \in Q$, asked by user u_q , together with a set of comments C are given and the system is intended to determine whether a comment $c \in C$ offers a suitable answer to q or not.

In the case of Arabic, the questions were extracted from *Fatwa*, a community question answering website on the Islamic religion.¹ Each question includes five comments, provided by scholars on the topic, each of which has to be automatically labeled as (i) *direct*, a direct answer to the question; (ii) *related*,

not a direct answer to the question but with information related to the topic; and (iii) *irrelevant*, an answer to another question, not related to the topic.

In the case of English, the dataset was extracted from *Qatar Living*, a forum for people to pose questions on multiple aspects of daily life in Qatar.² Unlike *Fatwa*, the questions and comments in this dataset come from regular users, making them significantly more varied, informal, open, and noisy. In this case, the input to the system consists of a question and a variable number of comments, each of which are to be labeled as (i) *GOOD*, the comment is definitively relevant; (ii) *POTENTIAL*, the comment is potentially useful; and (iii) *BAD*, the comment is irrelevant (e.g., it is part of a dialogue, unrelated to the topic, or it is written in a language other than English). We refer to this task as English task A. Additionally, a subset of the questions in the corpus requires a YES/NO answer. In this case the task is determining whether the overall answer to the question, according to the evidence provided within the comments, is (i) *YES*, (ii) *NO*, or if no evidence enough exists to make a decision, (iii) *UNSURE*. We refer to this as English task B.

In this paper we describe the supervised machine learning approach of QCRI. We considered different kinds of features, including lexical, syntactic and semantic similarities, the context in which a comment appears (e.g., before a comment where the person asking the question acknowledges), n -grams occurrence, and some heuristics on specific keywords. Our approach ranked 1st out of four teams in the Arabic task, 3rd out of twelve in English Task A,

¹<http://fatwa.islamweb.net>

²<http://www.qatarliving.com/forum>

and 3rd out of eight in English Task B.

The rest of the contribution is distributed as follows. Section 2 describes the features used in our approaches. Section 3 describes our prediction models and discuss the results obtained at competition time. Section 4 discusses further post-competition experiments and offers some final remarks.

2 Features Description

Most of our approaches are built on top of supervised machine learning, whereas a few contrastive submissions were based on rule-based approaches. In this section we describe all the different features we considered including similarities (Section 2.1), the context in which a comment appears (Section 2.2), and the occurrence of certain vocabulary and phrase triggers (Sections 2.3 and 2.4). How and where they are applied is discussed in Section 3.

2.1 Similarities

Our intuition is that the higher the similarity $sim(q, c)$, the higher the likelihood that c is a GOOD answer. We consider different types.

2.1.1 Lexical Similarities

After stopwording, we compute $sim(q, c)$ for word n -gram representations of q and c ($n = [1, \dots, 4]$), and different sim functions: greedy string tiling (Wise, 1996), longest common subsequences (Allison and Dix, 1986), Jaccard coefficient (Jaccard, 1901), word containment (Lyon et al., 2001), and cosine similarity (cosine is also computed on lemmas and POS tags, either including stopwords or not).

Three other similarities are computed, weighting the terms by means of three formulæ:

$$sim(q, c) = \sum_{t \in q \cap c} idf(t) , \quad (1)$$

$$sim(q, c) = \sum_{t \in q \cap c} \log(idf(t)) , \text{ and } \quad (2)$$

$$sim(q, c) = \sum_{t \in q \cap c} \log \left(1 + \frac{|C|}{tf(t)} \right) , \quad (3)$$

where $idf(t)$ is the inverse document frequency (Sparck Jones, 1972) of term t in the entire Qatar Living dataset, C is the amount of comments in the entire collection, and $tf(t)$ is

the term frequency of the term in the comment. Equations 2 and 3 are variations of the IDF concept by Nallapati (2004).

Yet another similarity variation is considered (only for task B): the cosine similarity between the $tf-idf$ -weighted vocabulary intersection of q and c .

2.1.2 Syntactic Similarity

Partial tree kernel (PTK) similarity between question and comment according to (Moschitti, 2006). The similarity is computed between shallow tree representations of q and c . Such trees have lemmas as leaves, each leaf has a parent node representing a part-of-speech tag, and part-of-speech nodes are grouped by chunks at the top level.

2.1.3 Semantic Similarities

We apply three approaches to build word-embedding vector representations: (i) an instance of latent semantic analysis (Croce and Previtali, 2010), trained on the Qatar Living corpus applying a co-occurrence window of size ± 3 and coming out with a vector of dimension 250, after SVD reduction (we included an instance on the entire vocabulary and nouns only); (ii) GloVe (Pennington et al., 2014), using the pre-trained model *Common Crawl (42B tokens)*, with 300 dimensions; and (iii) COMPOSES (Baroni et al., 2014), using previously-estimated predict vectors of 400 dimensions.³ We also experimented with *word2vec* (Mikolov et al., 2013) vectors pre-trained (both with cbow and skip-gram) and both word2vec and GloVe with vectors trained on Qatar Living data, but we discarded them, as they did not contribute positively to our approach. Both q and c are then represented by a sum of the vectors corresponding to the words within them (neglecting the subject of c), and compute the cosine similarity to estimate $sim(q, c)$.

2.2 Context

Intuitively, whether a question includes further comments by u_q (some of them acknowledging), more than one comment from the same user, or whether q belongs to a category in which a given kind of answer is expected, are important factors. Therefore,

³They are available at <http://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/> and <http://clac.cimec.unitn.it/composes/semantic-vectors.html>

we consider a set of features that try to describe a comment in its context.

A first subset of context features are boolean indicators exploring the following situations:

- c is written by u_q (i.e. the same user behind q),
- c is written by u_q and contains and acknowledgment (e.g. *thank**, *appreciat**),
- c is written by u_q and includes further questions, and
- c is written by u_q and includes no acknowledgments nor further questions.

A second subset explores whether comment c appears in the proximity of a comment by u_q . The intuition is that acknowledgment or further questions by u_q could be a relevant factor when classifying c . Features investigating the following occurrences have been developed:

- among the comments following c there is one by u_q containing an acknowledgment,
- among the comments following c there is one by u_q not containing an acknowledgment,
- among the comments following c there is one by u_q containing a question, and
- among the comments preceding c there is one by u_q containing a question.

The value of those features is scaled according to the distance k (in number of comments; it is set to ∞ if no comments from u_q exist) occurring between c and the comment by u_q :

$$f(c) = \max(0, 1.1 - (k \cdot 0.1)) \quad (4)$$

We also tried to model potential dialogues by identifying interlacing comments between two users. Our dialogue features rely on identifying comments from a sequence of users

$$u_i \rightarrow u_j \rightarrow u_i \rightarrow u_j^*,$$

Note that comments by other users can appear in between this “pseudo-conversation”. Three features are considered, whether a comment is at the beginning, middle, or ending position of the pseudo-dialogue. We consider three more features for those cases in which $u_q = u_j$.

We are also interested in realizing whether a user u_i has been particularly active in a question. As a result, we consider one boolean feature: whether u_i wrote more than one comment in the current stream. Three more features identifying the first, middle and last comments by u_i . One extra real feature counts the total number of comments written by u_i . Moreover we empirically observed that the likelihood for a comment to be GOOD decreases the farther it appears from the question. Therefore, we consider one more real-valued feature: $\max(20, i)/20$, where i represents the position of the comment in the stream.

Finally, Qatar Living includes twenty-six different categories in which a person could request for information and advice. Some of them tend to include more open questions and even invite to discussions on ambiguous topics (e.g., *life in Qatar*, *Qatari culture*). Some others require more precise answers and allow for less discussion (e.g. *Electronics*, *visas and permits*). Therefore, we include one boolean feature per category to consider this information.

2.3 Word n -Grams

Our intuition is that a properly produced question should allow for the creation of GOOD comments. That is, objective and clear questions would tend to produce objective and GOOD comments. On the other side, subjective or badly formulated questions would call for BAD comments or even discussion (i.e. dialogues) among the users. When talking about comments, they could also include specific indicators that trigger a GOOD or BAD class, regardless of the specific question it intends to reply to.

Our aim is capturing those words or pairs of words which are associated to questions and comments in the different classes. Our features are composed of $[1, 2]$ -grams by analyzing independently the question and comments. The weights are based on tf-idf on the whole Qatar Living dataset.

2.4 Heuristics

Exploring the data, we noticed that many GOOD comments suggested visiting a Web site or writing to an email address. Therefore, we included two boolean features to verify the presence of URLs or emails in c . Another feature captures the length of c , as longer (GOOD) comments usually contain detailed information to answer a question.

2.5 Polarity

These features, used in task B only, intend to determine whether a comment is positive or negative, which could be associated to YES or NO answers. A quantitative polarity of c is modeled as:

$$pol(c) = \sum_{w \in c} pol(w) \quad (5)$$

where $pol(w)$ is the polarity of word w in the NRC Hashtag Sentiment Lexicon v0.1 (Mohammad et al., 2013).⁴ Words with polarity in the range $(-1, 1)$ are discarded to neglect nearly neutral words.

We consider other boolean features on the existence of some keywords in the comment. Features are set to true if c contains (i) *yes, can, sure, wish, would* or (ii) *no, not, neither*.

2.6 User’s Profile

With this set of features we aim at modeling the behavior of the different participants in previous queries. Given comment c by user u , we consider the number of GOOD, BAD, POTENTIAL, and DIALOGUE comments the user has produced before. We also consider the average word length of GOOD, BAD, POTENTIAL, and DIALOGUE comments. These features are computed both considering all the questions and only those from the same category as the current one.⁵ Even if these features seem to fit with task A, rather than B, at development time they showed to be effective only for the latter one. Therefore, we only applied the user profiles to task B.

3 Submissions and Results

Now we describe our primary submissions to the three tasks, followed by the contrastive submissions. Table 1 includes our official competition results; all the reported F_1 values are macro-averaged.

3.1 Primary Submissions

In general, our approaches perform multi-class classification on the basis of a one-vs-rest support vector machines strategy (i.e. we train one classifier for

ar	DIRECT	RELATED	IRREL	F_1
prim	77.31	91.21	67.13	78.55
cont ₁	74.89	91.23	63.68	76.60
cont ₂	76.63	90.30	63.98	76.97
en A	GOOD	BAD	POT	F_1
prim	78.45	72.39	10.40	53.74
cont ₁	76.08	75.68	17.44	56.40
cont ₂	75.46	72.48	7.97	51.97
en B	YES	NO	UNSURE	F_1
prim	80.00	44.44	36.36	53.60
cont ₁	75.68	0.00	0.00	25.23
cont ₂	66.67	33.33	47.06	49.02

Table 1: Per-class and overall F_1 -measure of our *primary* and *contrastive* submissions to SemEval Task 3 for Arabic (ar) and English (en) A and B.

each class). Our classifications for both Arabic and English A are made at comment level.

Arabic Our submission applies the logistic regressor from scikit-learn.⁶ The utilized features are lexical similarities (Section 2.1) and n -Grams (Section 2.3), together with the predictions obtained with our contrastive submission 1 (cf. Section 3.2).

This submission granted us the first position in the competition, showing a particularly high performance when labeling RELATED comments.

English A The submission applies the linear-kernel SVM for model estimation from scikit-learn. We used a one-versus-all approach to account for the fact that the learning problem is a multiclass one. We tuned the C hyper-parameter of the SVM in order to deal with class imbalance —by increasing the value of C , we built more complex classifiers for those classes with less instances. The features for this submission consist of lexical, syntactic, and semantic similarities (Section 2.1), context information (Section 2.2), n -Grams (Section 2.3), and heuristics (Section 2.4). In a sort of stacking, the output of our rule-based system from the contrastive submission 2 is included as another feature.

This submission obtained the third position in the competition. POTENTIAL comments showed to be the hardest ones to identify, as the border with respect to the rest of the comments is fuzzy. (In-

⁴<http://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~saif/WebPages/Abstracts/NRC-SentimentAnalysis.htm>; last visit: Jan 18, 2015.

⁵In Section 4.3 we will observe that computing these category-level statistics was not a good idea.

⁶<http://scikit-learn.org/stable/>

deed, a manual inspection on some random comments show that the decision between `GOOD` and `POTENTIAL` comments is nearly impossible.)

English B Following the manual labeling strategy applied to the `YES/NO` questions by the task organizers (Màrquez et al., 2015), our approach consists of three steps: (i) identifying the `GOOD` comments among those associated to q ; (ii) classifying each of them as `YES`, `NO` or `UNSURE`; and (iii) aggregating the comment-level classifications into a question-level one. The overall answer to q becomes that of the majority of the comments. In case of draw, we opt for labeling it as `UNSURE`.⁷ Step (i) is indeed task A. As for step (ii), our approach to this task is identical as that for English A, but adding the features described in Sections 2.5 and 2.6.

Differently to the rest of the tasks, our submitted results were obtained with a classifier trained on the training data only (the development set was neglected). The reason behind this decision was that, when learning was performed on training and development sets, an unexpected distribution of mostly `YES` answers on the test was obtained. Such distribution is completely different to that observed in both training and development partitions. Further experiments carried out after the submission demonstrated that the causes for such an unexpected behavior were a buggy implementation of some features and the fact that some features were computed on unreliable statistics of the data. Further discussion is included in Section 4.3.

3.2 Contrastive Submissions

Arabic We approach our contrastive submission 1 as a ranking problem. Similarity $\text{sim}(q, c)$, after stopwording and stemming, is computed as

$$\text{sim}(q, c) = \frac{1}{|q|} \sum_{t \in q \cap c} \omega(t) , \quad (6)$$

where the empirically-set weight $\omega(t) = 1$ if t is a 1-gram and $\omega(t) = 4$ if t is a 2-gram. Given the 5 comments $c_1, \dots, c_5 \in C$ associated to q , the maximum similarity $\max_C \text{sim}(q, c)$ is mapped to a maximum 100% similarity and the rest of the

scores are mapped proportionally. Each comment is assigned a class according to the following ranges: $[80, 100]\%$ for `DIRECT`, $(20, 80)\%$ for `RELATED`, and $[0, 20]\%$ for `IRRELEVANT`.

As for the contrastive submission 2, we built a binary classifier based on logistic regression: `DIRECT` or no. The comments are then sorted according to the classifier’s prediction confidence and the final labels are assigned accordingly: `DIRECT` for the 1st ranked, `RELATED` for the 2nd ranked, and `IRRELEVANT` for the rest. Only lexical similarities are included as features (discarding those weighted with idf variants).

The performance of these two submissions is comparable to that of the primary one, particularly when identifying `RELATED` comments.

English A For our contrastive submission 1, the same machine learning schema as for the primary submission is used, but now using `SVMlight` (Joachims, 1999). This toolkit allows us to deal with the class imbalance by tuning the j parameter (cost of making mistakes on positive examples). This time the C hyper-parameter is set to the default value. As we focused on improving the performance on `POTENTIAL` instances, we obtained better results on this category, even surpassing the overall performance from the primary submission.

Our English contrastive submission 2 operates in the same way as the Arabic contrastive submission 1. The applied ranges are the same, but this time they used to assign the classes `GOOD`, `POTENTIAL`, and `BAD`. Some heuristics override the so generated decisions: c is classified as `GOOD` if it includes a URL, starts with an imperative verb (e.g., *try*, *view*, *contact*, *check*), or contains *yes words* (e.g., *yes*, *yep*, *yup*) or *no words* (e.g., *no*, *nooo*, *nope*). Comments written by the author of the question or including acknowledgments are considered `DIALOGUE` and classified as `BAD`.

English B Our contrastive submission 1 is identical to the primary one, but using both training and development data for estimating the model. The reason behind the disastrous results is a buggy implementation of some of the polarity features (cf. Section 2.5) and the lack of statistics for properly estimating category-level user profiles (cf. Section 2.6).

⁷`YES`, the majority class in the training and dev. sets, could have been the default answer. Still, we opted for a conservative decision: deciding `UNSURE` if no evidence enough was at hand.

ar (only)	DIR	REL	IREL	F₁
<i>n</i> -grams	30.40	72.27	41.07	47.91
cont ₁	74.89	91.23	63.68	76.60
similarities	61.83	82.55	25.63	56.67
ar (without)	DIR	REL	IREL	F₁
<i>n</i> -grams	75.51	91.31	63.85	76.89
cont ₁	69.50	82.85	50.87	67.74
similarities	77.24	91.07	67.76	78.69
en A (only)	GOOD	BAD	POT	F₁
context	67.65	45.03	11.51	47.90
<i>n</i> -grams	71.22	40.12	5.99	44.86
heuristics	76.46	41.94	7.11	52.57
similarities	62.93	44.58	9.62	46.16
lexical	62.25	41.46	8.66	44.82
syntactic	59.18	36.20	0.00	36.47
semantic	55.56	40.42	9.92	42.16
en A (without)	GOOD	BAD	POT	F₁
context	76.05	41.53	8.98	51.50
<i>n</i> -grams	77.25	45.56	12.23	55.17
heuristics	73.84	65.33	6.81	48.66
similarities	78.02	71.82	9.88	53.24
lexical	78.23	72.81	9.91	53.65
syntactic	78.81	43.89	9.91	53.73
semantic	78.41	71.82	10.30	53.51
en B	YES	NO	UNS	F₁
post ₁	78.79	57.14	20.00	51.98
post ₂	85.71	57.14	25.00	55.95

Table 2: Post-competition results for Arabic (ar) and English (en) A and B tasks. Best results per task highlighted.

The contrastive submission 2 consists of a rule-based system. A comment is labeled as YES if it starts with affirmative words: *yes*, *yep*, *yeah*, etc. It is labeled as NO if it starts with *no*, *nop*, *nope*, etc,

4 Post-Submission Experiments

We carried out further experiments after the task deadline to understand how different feature families contributed to the performance of our classifiers. Table 2 reports the results on the different test sets. We managed to slightly raise the performance for the three tasks due to different reasons.

4.1 Arabic

We ran experiments with the same framework as in the primary submission by considering both the different subsets of features in isolation (*only*) or all the features except for a subset (*without*). The *n*-grams features together with contrastive submission 1 allow for a slightly better performance than our already winning submission. Our ranking approach (contrastive 1) shows to be the most important one to get such a good result.

4.2 English Task A

We performed similar experiments as the ones for Arabic. According to the figures, the heuristic features seem to be the most useful ones, followed by the context-based information.

The latter features explore a dimension completely ignored by other features: they are completely uncorrelated and provide a good performance boosting (as the *without* experiment shows). On the other side, using all the features but the *n*-grams allows for a better performance than that in the primary run (cf. Table 1). This is an interesting result as these features had significantly pushed up the performance of our system at development time.

4.3 English Task B

Our post-task efforts are intended to investigate on the reasons why learning on training only was considerably better than learning on training+dev. The sequences of predicted target labels on the test set in the two learning scenarios showed considerable differences: when learning on training+dev, the predicted labels were YES on all but three cases. After correcting a bug in our implementation of the polarity-related features, the result obtained by learning on training+dev was $F_1 = 51.98$ (Table 2, post₁). Further feature-based analyses pointed that the features counting the number of GOOD, BAD, and POTENTIAL comments within categories from the same user (cf. Section 2.6) varied greatly when computed on the training or training+dev datasets. The reason is that the number of comments from a user in a category is, in most cases, too limited to generate reliable statistics. After discarding these three features, $F_1 = 55.95$ (Table 2, post₂). This figures represent a higher performance than that ob-

tained at submission time. Observe that, once again, the UNSURE class is the hardest to identify properly.

Surprisingly, applying the bug-free implementation on the training set only still allowed for a higher $F_1 = 69.35$ on test. A manual analysis allowed us to observe that the difference in performance was the result of misclassifying only four questions either as YES or UNSURE. Indeed, the differences occur only by the randomness of the classifier on a small dataset and cannot be considered statistically significant (Màrquez et al., 2015).

References

- L Allison and T I Dix. 1986. A bit-string longest-common-subsequence algorithm. *Inf. Process. Lett.*, 23(6):305–310, December.
- Marco Baroni, Georgiana Dinu, and Germán Kruszewski. 2014. Don’t count, predict! A systematic comparison of context-counting vs. context-predicting semantic vectors. In *Proceedings of the 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 238–247, Baltimore, Maryland, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Danilo Croce and Daniele Previtali. 2010. Manifold Learning for the Semi-Supervised Induction of FrameNet Predicates: An Empirical Investigation. In *Proceedings of the 2010 Workshop on GEometrical Models of Natural Language Semantics*, pages 7–16, Uppsala, Sweden, July. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Paul Jaccard. 1901. Étude comparative de la distribution florale dans une portion des Alpes et des Jura. *Bulletin del la Société Vaudoise des Sciences Naturelles*, 37:547–579.
- Thorsten Joachims. 1999. Making Large-scale Support Vector Machine Learning Practical. In Bernhard Schölkopf, Christopher J. C. Burges, and Alexander J. Smola, editors, *Advances in Kernel Methods*, pages 169–184. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Caroline Lyon, James Malcolm, and Bob Dickerson, 2001. *Proceedings of the 2001 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, chapter Detecting Short Passages of Similar Text in Large Document Collections.
- Lluís Màrquez, James Glass, Walid Magdy, Alessandro Moschitti, Preslav Nakov, and Bilal Randeree. 2015. SemEval-2015 Task 3: Answer Selection in Community Question Answering. In *Proceedings of the 9th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2015)*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tomas Mikolov, Wen-tau Yih, and Geoffrey Zweig. 2013. Linguistic Regularities in Continuous Space Word Representations. In *Proceedings of the 2013 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 746–751, Atlanta, GA, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Saif Mohammad, Svetlana Kiritchenko, and Xiaodan Zhu. 2013. NRC-Canada: Building the State-of-the-Art in Sentiment Analysis of Tweets. In *Proceedings of the seventh international workshop on Semantic Evaluation Exercises (SemEval-2013)*, Atlanta, GA, June.
- Alessandro Moschitti. 2006. Efficient Convolution Kernels for Dependency and Constituent Syntactic Trees. In Frnkranz, Johannes and Scheffer, Tobias and Spiliopoulou, Myra, editor, *Machine Learning: ECML 2006*, volume 4212 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 318–329. Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Ramesh Nallapati. 2004. Discriminative Models for Information Retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 27th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*, pages 64–71.
- Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher Manning. 2014. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In *Proceedings of the 2014 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 1532–1543. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Karen Sparck Jones. 1972. A statistical interpretation of term specificity and its application in retrieval. *Journal of Documentation*, 28:11–21.
- Michael J. Wise. 1996. Yap3: Improved detection of similarities in computer program and other texts. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh SIGCSE Technical Symposium on Computer Science Education, SIGCSE ’96*, pages 130–134, New York, NY, USA. ACM.