Generating student feedback from time-series data using Reinforcement Learning

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Abstract
We describe a statistical Natural Language Generation (NLG) method for summarisation of time-series data in the context of feedback generation for students. In this paper, we initially present a method for collecting time-series data from students (e.g. marks, lectures attended) and use example feedback from lecturers in a data-driven approach to content selection. We show a novel way of constructing a reward function for our Reinforcement Learning agent that is informed by the lecturers’ method of providing feedback. We evaluate our system with undergraduate students by comparing it to three baseline systems: a rule-based system, lecturer-constructed summaries and a Brute Force system. Our evaluation shows that the feedback generated by our learning agent is viewed by students to be as good as the feedback from the lecturers. Our findings suggest that the learning agent needs to take into account both the student and lecturers’ preferences.

1 Introduction
Data-to-text generation refers to the task of automatically generating text from non-linguistic data (Reiter and Dale, 2000). The goal of this work is to develop a method for summarising time-series data in order to provide continuous feedback to students across the entire semester. As a case study, we took a module in Artificial Intelligence and asked students to fill out a very short diary-type questionnaire on a weekly basis. Questions included, for example, number of deadlines, number of classes attended, severity of personal issues. These data were then combined with the marks from the weekly lab reflecting the students’ performance. As data is gathered each week in the lab, we now have a set of time-series data and our goal is to automatically create feedback. The goal is to present a holistic view through these diary entries of how the student is doing and what factors may be affecting performance.

Feedback is very important in the learning process but very challenging for academic staff to complete in a timely manner given the large number of students and the increasing pressures on academics’ time. This is where automatic feedback can play a part, providing a tool for teachers that can give insight into factors that may not be immediately obvious (Porayska-Pomsta and Melish, 2013). As reflected in NSS surveys1, students are not completely satisfied with how feedback is currently delivered. The 2012 NSS survey, for all disciplines reported an 83% satisfaction rate with courses, with 70% satisfied with feedback. This has improved from recent years (in 2006 this was 60% for feedback) but shows that there is still room for improvement in how teachers deliver feedback and its content.

In the next section (Section 2) a discussion of the related work is presented. In Section 3, a description of the methodology is given as well as the process of the data collection from students, the template construction and the data collection with lecturers. In Section 4, the Reinforcement Learning implementation is described. In Section 5, the evaluation results are presented, and finally, in Sections 6 and 7, a conclusion and directions for future work are discussed.

2 Related Work
Report generation from time-series data has been researched widely and existing methods have been used in several domains such as weather forecasts (Belz and Kow, 2010; Angeli et al., 2010; Sripada et al., 2004), clinical data summarisation (Hunter

1http://www.thestudentsurvey.com/
et al., 2011; Gatt et al., 2009), narrative to assist children with communication needs (Black et al., 2010) and audiovisual debriefs from sensor data from Autonomous Underwater Vehicles missions (Johnson and Lane, 2011).

The two main challenges for time-series data summarisation are what to say (Content Selection) and how to say it (Surface Realisation). In this work we concentrate on the former. Previous methods for content selection include Gricean Maxims (Sripada et al., 2003); collective content selection (Barzilay and Lapata, 2004); and the Hidden Markov model approach for content selection and ordering (Barzilay and Lee, 2004). NLG systems tend to be very domain-specific and data-driven systems that seek to simultaneously optimize both content selection and surface realisation have the potential to be more domain-independent, automatically optimized and lend themselves to automatic generalization (Angeli et al., 2010; Rieser et al., 2010; Dethlefs and Cuayahuitl, 2011). Recent work on report generation uses statistical techniques from Machine Translation (Belz and Kow, 2010), supervised learning (Angeli et al., 2010) and unsupervised learning (Konstas and Lapata, 2012).

Here we apply Reinforcement Learning methods (see Section 4 for motivation) which have been successfully applied to other NLG tasks, such as Temporal Expressions Generation (Janarthanam et al., 2011), Lexical Choice (Janarthanam and Lemon, 2010), generation of adaptive restaurant summaries in the context of a dialogue system (Rieser et al., 2010) and generating instructions (Dethlefs and Cuayahuitl, 2011).

3 Methodology

Figure 1 shows graphically our approach to the development of a generation system. Firstly, we collected data from students including marks, demographic details and weekly study habits. Next, we created templates for surface realisation with the help of a Teaching and Learning expert. These templates were used to generate summaries that were rated by lecturers. We used these ratings to train the learning agent. The output of the learning agent (i.e. automatically generated feedback reports) were finally evaluated by the students. Each of these steps are discussed in turn.

3.1 Time-series Data Collection from Students

The data were collected during the weekly lab sessions of a Computer Science module which was taught to third year Honours and MSc students over the course of a 10 week semester. We recruited 26 students who were asked to fill in a web-based diary-like questionnaire. Initially, we asked students to provide some demographic details (age, nationality, level of study). In addition, students provided on a weekly basis, information for nine factors that could influence their performance. These nine factors were motivated from the literature and are listed here in terms of effort (Ames, 1992), frustration (Craig et al., 2004), difficulty (Person et al., 1995; Fox, 1993) and performance (Chi et al., 2001).

Effort is measured by three factors: (1) how many hours they studied; (2) the level of revision they have done; (3) as well as the number of lectures (of this module) they attended.

Frustration is measured by (4) the level of understandability of the content; (5) whether they have had other deadlines; and whether they faced any (6) health and/or (7) personal issues and at what severity. The difficulty of the lab exercises is measured by (8) the students’ perception of difficulty. Finally, (9) marks achieved by the students in each weekly lab was used as a measure of their performance.

3.2 Data Trends

Initially, the data were processed so as to identify the existing trend of each factor during the semester, (e.g. number of lectures attending decreases). The tendencies of the data are estimated using linear least-squares regression, with each factor annotated as INCREASING, DECREASING or STABLE. In addition, for each student we perform a comparison between the average of each
factor and the class average of the same factor.

### 3.3 Template Generation

The wording and phrasing used in the templates to describe the data were derived from working with and following the advice of a Learning and Teaching (L&T) expert. The expert provided consultation on how to summarise the data. We derived 4 different kinds of templates for each factor: AVERAGE, TREND, WEEKS and OTHER based on time-series data on plotted graphs. A description of the template types is shown in Table 1.

In addition, the L&T expert consulted on how to enhance the templates so that they are appropriate for communicating feedback according to the guidelines of the Higher Education Academy (2009), for instance, by including motivating phrases such as "You may want to plan your study and work ahead".

### 3.4 Data Collection from Lecturers

The goal of the Reinforcement Learning agent is to learn to generate feedback at least as well as lecturers. In order to achieve this, a second data collection was conducted with 12 lecturers participating.

The data collection consisted of three stages where lecturers were given plotted factor graphs and were asked to:

1. write a free style text summary for 3 students (Figure 2);
2. construct feedback summaries using the templates for 3 students (Figure 3);
3. rate random feedback summaries for 2 students (Figure 4).

We developed the experiment using the Google Web Toolkit for Web Applications, which facilitates the development of client-server applications. The server side hosts the designed tasks and stores the results in a datastore. The client side is responsible for displaying the tasks on the user’s browser.

In Task 1, the lecturers were presented with the factor graphs of a student (one graph per factor) and were asked to provide a free-text feedback summary for this student. The lecturers were encouraged to pick as many factors as they wanted and to discuss the factors in any order they found useful. Figure 2 shows an example free text summary for a high performing student where the lecturer decided to talk about lab marks and understandability. Each lecturer was asked to repeat this task 3 times for 3 randomly picked students.

In Task 2, the lecturers were again asked to construct a feedback summary but this time they were given a range of sentences generated from the templates (as described in Section 2.3). They were asked to use these to construct a feedback report. The number of alternative utterances generated for each factor varies depending on the factor and the given data. In some cases, a factor can have 2 generated utterances and in other cases up to 5 (with a mean of 3 for each factor) and they differentiate in the style of trend description and wording. Again the lecturer was free to choose which factors to talk about and in which order, as well as to decide on the template style he/she prefers for the realisation through the template options. Figure 3 shows an example of template selection for the same student as in Figure 2.

In Task 3, the lecturers were presented with the plotted factor graphs plus a corresponding feedback summary that was generated by randomly choosing \( n \) factors and their templates, and were asked to rate it in a scale between 0-100 (100 for the best summary). Figure 4 shows an example of

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| Type   | Description                                                                 | Examples                                                                 |
|--------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AVERAGE| describes the factor data by either averaging the values given by the student, or by comparing the student’s average with the class average (e.g. if above the mean value for the class, we say that the material is challenging). | "You spent 2 hours studying the lecture material on average". (HOURS STUDIED)  "You found the lab exercises very challenging". (DIFFICULTY) |
| TREND  | discusses the trend of the data, e.g. increasing, decreasing or stable.       | "Your workload is increasing over the semester". (DEADLINES)               |
| WEEKS  | talks about specific events that happened in one or more weeks.              | "You have had other deadlines during weeks 5, 6 and 9". (DEADLINES)        |
| OTHER  | all other expressions that are not directly related to data.                 | "Revising material during the semester will improve your performance". (REVISION) |

Table 1: The table explains the different template types.
4 Learning a Time-Series Generation Policy

Reinforcement Learning (RL) is a machine learning technique that defines how an agent learns to take optimal actions in a dynamic environment so as to maximize a cumulative reward (Sutton and Barto, 1998). In our framework, the task of content selection of time-series data is presented as a Markov Decision problem. The goal of the agent is to learn to choose a sequence of actions that obtain the maximum expected reward in the long run. In this section, we describe the Reinforcement Learning setup for learning content selection...
Figure 4: The interface of the 3rd task of data collection: the lecturer consults the graphs and rates the randomly generated feedback summary (this graph refers to the same student as Figures 2 and 3).

from time-series data for feedback report generation. Summarisation from time-series data is an open challenge and we aim to research other methods in the future, such as supervised learning, evolutionary algorithms etc.

4.1 Actions and States

In this learning setup, we focused only on selecting the correct content, i.e. which factors to talk about. The agent selects a factor and then decides whether to talk about it or not. The state consists of a description of the factor trends and the number of templates that have been selected so far. An example of the initial state of a student can be:

<marks_increased, lectures_attended_stable, hours_studied_increased, understandability_stable, difficulty_increased, health_issues_stable, personal_issues_stable, revision_increased, 0>

The agent explores the state space by selecting a factor and then by deciding whether to talk about it or not. If the agent decides to talk about the selected factor, it chooses the template in a greedy way, i.e. it chooses for each factor the template that results in a higher reward. After an action has been selected, it is deleted from the action space.

4.1.1 Ordering

In order to find out in which order the lecturers describe the factors, we transformed the feedback summaries into n-grams of factors. For instance, the summary that talks about the student’s performance, the number of lectures that he/she attended, potential health problems and revision done can be translated into the following n-gram: start, marks, lectures_attended, health_issues, revision, end. We used the constructed n-grams to compute the bigram frequency of the tokens in order to identify which factor is most probable to be referred to initially, which factors follow particular factors and which factor is usually talked about in the end. It was found that the most frequent ordering is: start, marks, hours_studied, understandability, difficulty, deadlines, health_issues, personal_issues, lectures_attended, revision, end.

4.2 Reward Function

The goal of the reward function is to optimise the way lecturers generate and rate feedback. Given the expert annotated summaries from Task 1, the constructed summaries from Task 2 and the ratings from Task 3, we derived the multivariate reward function:

\[ \text{Reward} = a + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \times x_i + c \times \text{length} \]

where \( X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\} \) represents the combinations between the data trends observed in the time-series data and the corresponding lecturers’ feedback (i.e. whether they included a factor to be realised or not and how). The value \( x_i \) for factor \( i \) is defined by the function:

\[ x_i = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{the combination } i \text{ of a factor trend and a template type is included in the feedback} \\
0, & \text{if not.}
\end{cases} \]

For instance, the value of \( x_1 \) is 1 if marks were increased and this trend is realised in the feedback, otherwise it is 0. In our domain \( n = 90 \) in order to cover all the different combinations. The length stands for the number of factors selected, \( a \) is the intercept, \( b_i \) and \( c \) are the coefficients for \( x_i \) and \( \text{length} \) respectively.

In order to model the reward function, we used linear regression to compute the weights from the data gathered from the lecturers. Therefore, the reward function is fully informed by the data provided by the experts. Indeed, the intercept \( a \), the vector weights \( b \) and the weight \( c \) are learnt by making use of the data collected by the lecturers from the 3 tasks discussed in Section 3.4.

The reward function is maximized (Reward = 861.85) for the scenario (i.e. each student’s data), content selection and preferred template style shown in Table 2 (please note that this scenario was not observed in the data collection).
| Factor       | Trend  | Template     |
|-------------|--------|--------------|
| difficulty  | stable | NOT MENTIONED|
| hours studied| stable | TREND        |
| understandability | stable | NOT MENTIONED|
| deadlines    | increase| WEEKS       |
| health issues| stable | WEEKS        |
| personal issues| stable | WEEKS       |
| lectures att.| stable | OTHER        |
| revision     | stable | TREND        |
| marks        | increase| TREND        |

Table 2: The table shows the scenario at which the reward function is maximised.

The reward function is minimised (Reward = -586.0359) for the scenario shown in Table 3 (please note that this scenario also was not observed in the data collection).

| Factor       | Trend  | Template     |
|-------------|--------|--------------|
| difficulty  | increase| AVERAGE     |
| hours studied| stable | NOT MENTIONED|
| understandability |稳定的 | TREND        |
| deadlines    | increase| TREND        |
| health issues| stable | AVERAGE      |
| personal issues| stable | NOT MENTIONED|
| lectures att.| stable | AVERAGE      |
| revision     | stable | TREND        |
| marks        | stable | AVERAGE      |

Table 3: The table shows the scenario at which the reward function is minimised (* denotes multiple options result in the same minimum reward).

4.3 Training

We trained a time-series generation policy for 10,000 runs using the Tabular Temporal-Difference Learning (Sutton and Barto, 1998). During the training phase, the learning agent generated feedback summaries. When the construction of the summary begins, the length of the summary is 0. Each time that the agent adds a template (by selecting a factor), the length is incremented, thus changing the state. It repeats the process until it decides for all factors whether to talk about them or not. The agent is finally rewarded at the end of the process using the Reward function described in Section 3.2. Initially, the learning agent selects factors randomly, but gradually learns to identify factors that are highly rewarding for a given data scenario. Figure 5 shows the learning curve of the agent.

5 Evaluation

We evaluated the system using the reward function and with students. In both these evaluations, we compared feedback reports generated using our Reinforcement Learning agent with four other baseline systems. Here we present a brief description of the baseline systems.

Baseline 1: Rule-based system. This system selects factors and templates for generation using a set of rules. These hand-crafted rules were derived from a combination of the L&T expert’s advice and a student’s preferences and is therefore a challenging baseline and represents a middle ground between the L&T expert’s advice and a student’s preferences. An example rule is: if the mark average is less than 50% then refer to revision.

Baseline 2: Brute Force system. This system performs a search of the state space, by exploring randomly as many different feedback summaries as possible. The Brute Force algorithm is shown below:

**Algorithm 1 Brute Force algorithm**

Input data: D
for n=0...10,000
    construct randomly feedback[n]
    assign getReward[n]
    if getReward[n]>getReward[n−1]
        bestFeedback = feedback[n]
    else
        bestFeedback = feedback[n−1]
return bestFeedback

In each run the algorithm constructs a feedback summary, then it calculates its reward, using the same reward function used for the Reinforcement Learning approach, and if the reward of the new feedback is better than the previous, it keeps the
new one as the best. It repeats this process for 10,000 times for each scenario. Finally, the algorithm returns the summary that scored the highest ranking.

**Baseline 3: Lecturer-produced summaries.** These are the summaries produced by the lecturers, as described in Section 2.4, for Task 2 using template-generated utterances.

**Baseline 4: Random system:** The Random system constructs feedback summaries by selecting factors and templates randomly as described in Task 3 (in Section 3.4).

### 5.1 Evaluation with Reward Function

Table 4 presents the results of the evaluation performed using the Reward Function, comparing the learned policy with the four baseline systems. Each system generated 26 feedback summaries. On average the learned policy scores significantly higher than any other baseline for the given scenarios (p < 0.05 in a paired t-test).

| Time-Series Summarisation Systems | Reward |
|-----------------------------------|--------|
| Learned                           | 243.82 |
| Baseline 1: Rule-based            | 107.77 |
| Baseline 2: Brute Force           | 241.98 |
| Baseline 3: Lecturers             | 124.62 |
| Baseline 4: Random                | 43.29  |

Table 4: The table summarises the average rewards that are assigned to summaries produced from the different systems.

### 5.2 Evaluation with Students

A subjective evaluation was conducted using 1st year students of Computer Science as participants. We recruited 17 students, who were all English native speakers. The participants were shown 4 feedback summaries in a random order, one generated by the learned policy, one from the rule-based system (Baseline 1), one from the Brute Force system (Baseline 2) and one summary produced by a lecturer using the templates (Baseline 3). Given the poor performance of the Random system in terms of reward, Baseline 4 was omitted from this study.

Overall there were 26 different scenarios, as described in Section 3.1. All summaries presented to a participant were generated from the same scenario. The participants then had to rank the summaries in order of preference: 1 for the most preferred and 4 for the least preferred. Each participant repeated the process for 4.5 scenarios on average (the participant was allowed to opt out at any stage). The mode values of the rankings of the preferences of the students are shown in Table 5. The web-based system used for the evaluation is shown in Figure 6.

| System               | Mode of Rankings |
|----------------------|------------------|
| Learned              | 3rd              |
| Baseline 3: Lecturers| 3rd              |
| Baseline 1: Rule-based| 1st             |
| Baseline 2: Brute Force| 4th             |

Table 5: The table shows the mode value of the rankings of the preference of the students.

We ran a Mann-Whitney’s U test to evaluate the difference in the responses of our 4-point Likert Scale question between the Learned system and the other three baselines. It was found that, for the given data, the preference of students for the feedback generated by the Learned system is as good as the feedback produced by the experts, i.e. there is no significant difference between the mean value of the rankings of the Learned system and the lecturer-produced summaries (p = 0.8) (Baseline 3).

The preference of the users for the Brute Force system does not differ significantly from the summaries generated by the Learned system (p = 0.1335). However, the computational cost of the Brute Force is higher because each time that the algorithm sees a new scenario it has to run approximately 3k times to reach a good summary (as seen in Figure 7) and about 10k to reach an optimal one, which corresponds to 46 seconds. This delay would prohibit the use of such a system in time-critical situations (such as defence) and in live systems such as tutoring systems. In addition, the processing time would increase with more complicated scenarios and if we want to take into account the ordering of the content selection and/or if we have more variables. In contrast, the RL method needs only to be trained once.

Finally, the users significantly preferred the summaries produced by the Rule-based system (Baseline 1) to the summaries produced by the Learned system. This is maybe because of the fact that in the rule-based system some knowledge of the end user’s preferences (i.e. students) was taken into account in the rules which was not the case in the other three systems. This fact suggests that
students’ preferences should be taken into account as they are the receivers of the feedback. This can also be generalised to other areas, where the experts and the end users are not the same group of people. As the learned policy was not trained to optimise for the evaluation criteria, in future, we will explore reward functions that bear in mind both the expert knowledge and the student’s preferences.

6 Conclusion

We have presented a statistical learning approach to summarisation from time-series data in the area of feedback reports. In our reports, we took into account the principles of good feedback provision as instructed by the Higher Education Academy. We also presented a method for data gathering from students and lecturers and show how we can use these data to generate feedback by presenting the problem as a Markov Decision Process and optimising it using Reinforcement Learning techniques. We also showed a way of constructing a data-driven reward function that can capture dependencies between the time-series data and the realisation phrases, in a similar way that the lecturers do when providing feedback. Finally, our evaluation showed that the learned report generation policy generates reports as well as lecturers.

Figure 7: The graphs shows the number of cycles that the Brute Force algorithm needs to achieve specific rewards.

7 Future Work

We aim to conduct further qualitative research in order to explore what factors and templates students find useful to be included in the feedback and inform our reward function with this information as well as what we have observed in the lecturer data collection. This way, we hope, not only to gain insights into what is important to students and lecturers but also to develop a data-driven approach that, unlike the rule-based system, does not require expensive and difficult-to-obtain expert input from Learning and Teaching experts. In addition, we want to compare RL techniques with supervised learning approaches and evolutionary algorithms. Finally, we want to unify content se-
lection and surface realisation, therefore we will extend the action space in order to include actions for template selection.

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