

Dialogue State Tracking Accuracy Enhancement by Distinguishing Candidate Slot-Value Pairs

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ABSTRACT: Dialogue state tracking (DST) plays a critical role in a task-oriented dialogue system's cycle life. DST follows the goals of the user at each turn through dialogue and summarizes these goals as a semantic frame containing slot-value pairs and dialogue acts, which directly affect the performance and effectiveness of dialogue systems. There are different challenges in DST such as linguistics diversity, dynamic context, and distribution of the dialogue state over candidate values in both slot-value and dialogue acts that are defined in the ontology. In this paper, we focus on these challenges by combining current and previous user utterance to figure the distribution of the slot-value pairs and dialogue acts to increase the performance. The WoZ dataset was used for evaluating the proposed model; the implementation of a two-variant was attempted, first by using previous user utterance as an additional encoder in the dialogue and, second, by using the additional score that combines the context of previous user utterance and current user utterance with all candidate slot-value pairs. The proposed model achieved outperforming results compared with all the state-of-the-art approaches in the joint goal accuracy by 0.8%, but that is not in the request turn task.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Dialogue state tracking (DST) is a key component of task-oriented dialogue systems whose responsibility is to keep track of a user's goals at each turn based on the history of the dialogue. Task-oriented dialogue systems interact with users in natural language by users speaking to a voice interface or writing a text to accomplish tasks they have in mind. State-of-the-art approaches for DST depend on deep learning models.

Several neural-based DST systems have recently been proposed. (Mrkšić, Séaghdha, Wen, Thomson, & Young, 2016) proposed the neural belief tracker (NBT) model to apply representation learning using the deep network (DNN) and convolutional network (CNN) to calculate such representation vectors to learn features appropriate for each state; this is different from handcrafting features, where representation is computed based on pretrained word embeddings to agree with the richness in natural language. However, multivalued slots do not consider all the values, whereas this work can predict probabilities for multiple possible values (Zhong, Xiong, & Socher, 2018). Zhong et al. (2018) proposed the global-locally self-attentive encoder (GLAD) model with self-attention-based recurrent networks for each utterance and previous system actions and computed representation by measuring similarity to each slot-value (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018). This improved GLAD construction by removing slot-dependent recurrent networks for utterance and a system action encoder and employing a globally conditioned encoder (GCE) on the slot type embedding vector. However, in the last two approaches, they have still been ineffective for distribution in the production system due to their inactivity with recognizing and incorporating the applicable context, whereas this work can identify the related context. DST aims to predict the set of goals that references ontology items in user utterances, which are represented as slot-value pairs. This becomes a complex mission when challenged with a lexical difference, the dynamics of context output, the distribution of the dialogue state, overall candidate slot-value pairs, and dialogue acts that are defined in the ontology.

In this work, we introduce an enhancement model that was utilized in by (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018), using the previous slots values that compose the state during each turn. To do this, we combined the current and previous user utterance and measured similarities between them and the ontology.

II. RELATED WORK

Dialogue state tracking methods can be divided into a rule-based approach, statistical approach and deep learning approach. Use rule-based heuristics and compute the confidence scores of the N-best candidates generated to inform appropriate dialog states from the output of a natural language understanding module (Higashinaka, Nakano, & Aikawa, 2003; J. Williams, A. Raux, D. Ramachandran, 2017; K. Sun, L. Chen, S.

Zhu, 2014; Traum, 2000) to track the necessary information for tracking a dialog state. However, these rules are not automatically obtained from actual dialogue information so that careful tuning and sensitive design attempts are required. Because of these techniques often lead to inaccuracy in the determination of dialogue states.

As an alternative to handcrafted rules, statistical methods have been utilized to dialogue state tracking (Bohus & Rudnicky, 2006; Ma, Raux, Ramachandran, & Gupta, 2012; Thomson & Young, 2010). Statistical methods such as logistic regression and the Bayesian network for achieving high tracking performance and initiating an assessment of the confidence of the user's information. However, such studies share a prevalent issue that all possible dialogue states must be listed, which is very costly computing.

Recently, using deep learning techniques of dialog state tracking (Abhinav Rastogi, Dilek Hakkani-Tur, 2017; Casanueva et al., 2017; Henderson, Thomson, & Young, 2013, 2014b, 2014a; Mrkšić et al., 2015, 2016; Perez & Liu, 2016; Wen et al., 2016; Zilka & Jurcicek, 2016) and others can understand particular depictions for user and system utterances and prior system actions to predict the turn state.

The neural network was first used for dialogue state tracking by (Henderson et al., 2013). Their research is important because the first attempt is to use a neural network to dialogue state tracking in a pipeline strategy to collect appropriate data from the user utterances. In the lack of a necessary dialogue framework needed for user interpretation, these schemes are susceptible to error accumulation in the speechlanguage understanding module separately.

The outcomes of the State Tracking Dialog show that it is useful to jointly learn speech understanding and dialogue tracking (Henderson et al., 2014b; Wen et al., 2016; Zilka & Jurcicek, 2016). The N-Best list generated by the automatic speech recognition scheme is the source of these approaches. By preventing error accumulation from the original speech language understanding element. These models rely on delexicalization, using generic tags to substitute particular slot kinds and values, and handcrafted semantic dictionaries. However, these models are depending on handcrafted characteristics and complicated domainspecific lexicons, which are hard to scale for each type of slot and therefore difficult to extend to new domains.

recent state-of-the-art models for DST predict the state of each turn by learning universal representations for user and system utterances. However, the performance of these schemes is poor in rare and unknown slot values, which have lately been handled by local slot encoders (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018; Zhong et al., 2018) and by the pointer network (Xu & Hu, 2018).

In (Zhong et al., 2018), the global-local self-attention-encoder model has suggested self-attention-recurring networks with a computed representation by measurement of the resemblance of each slot value for each user utterance and prior system actions. (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018)the enhanced global-local self-attention-encoder structure through the removal of slot-based recurring utterance networks and system encoder, and the use of an embedded slot type global-conditioned encoder. However, these methods were not effective to distribute in the manufacturing scheme, because of their lack of activity in acknowledging and integrating the relevant context, while this work could recognize the associated context.

III. PROPOSED MODEL

In this section, we describe the proposed model. First, section 3.1 describes the recently proposed GCE(Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018)model architecture, followed by proposed encoder in section 3.2, then scour model in section 3.3.

3.1. GloballyConditioned Encoder (GCE)

Each input of encoders is represented as a vector representation(C). A GCE(Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018)model employs bidirectionalLSTM (Sepp & Jurgen, 1997) and all slots that are shared across to obtain a sequence of hidden states (H) by encoding the inputssequence, shadowed by a self-attention layer(Lin et al., 2017)to extract the context vectorand predict the probability distribution of each slot over values. The GCEapproach considersuser utterance and the previous system actiontolearn model. However, in our work, we employeda GCEapproach to learning slot-value pairs distribution and context representation,not only current user utterance andprevious system actions but also for previous user utterance.

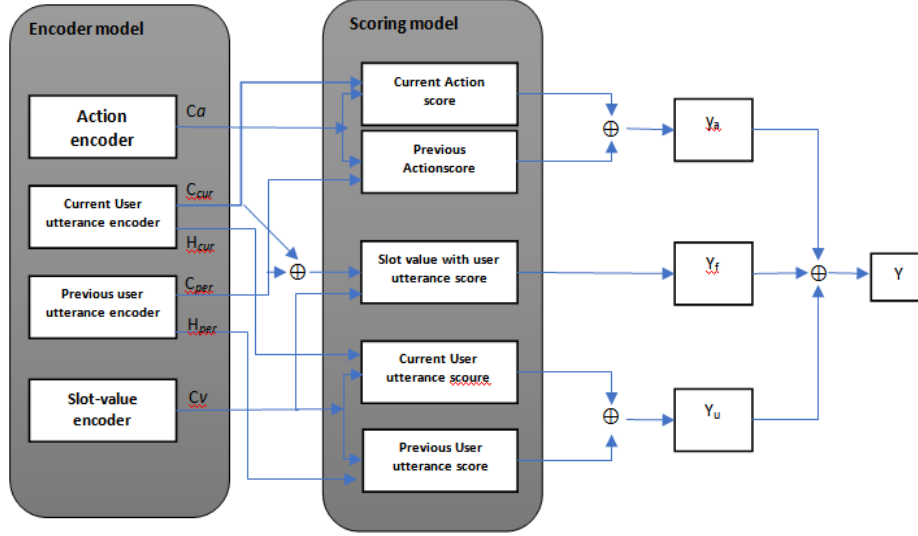


Figure 1. Proposed Model for Self-Attentive Dialogue State Tracker

3.2. Encoder Model

We followed the proposed architecture in GCE(Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018) for calculating the encoder of each slot-value pair, the user utterance, and the previous system actions. However, we use an additional encoder for previous user utterance to extract the historical and context.

The encoder model is used to encode the previous user utterance (H_{per} , C_{per}), the current user utterance (H_{cur} , C_{cur}), the previous system actions (H_a , C_a) for each of the system acts, and the candidate (H_v , C_v) slot-value. As shown in Figure (1), a slot-embedding vector is used for k^{th} slot for context extraction.

To calculate representation H^k for each slot k^{th} as shown in equation (1), we concatenated the slot embedding s_k with input sequence X , i.e., current user utterance, previous user utterance, or previous system actions, as input to the encoder, where concatenation is denoted as $f(X, s_k)$.

$$H^k = \text{BiLSTM}(f(X, s_k)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_r} \quad (1)$$

where d_r is the dimension of the LSTM state. Then we calculate the attention score a_i^k of the slot for each token hidden representation H_i^k as shown in equation (2), by concatenating them to the slot embedding s_k and transitory to a linear layer, then applying a softmax k in equation (3) to normalize the distribution. In equation (4) compute similarly of the context c^k .

$$a_i^k = Wf(H_i^k, s_k) + b \in \mathbb{R} \quad (2)$$

$$p^k = \text{softmax}(a^k) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (3)$$

$$c^k = \sum_i p_i^k H_i^k \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r} \quad (4)$$

Each of the four encoders in the encoder model, as shown in Figure (1), can be represented as follows:

- U , s_k as inputs and H_u^k , c_u^k as outputs, where U denotes word embeddings of the user utterance.
- P , s_k as inputs and H_p^k , c_p^k as outputs, where P denotes word embeddings of the previous user utterance.
- A_j , s_k as inputs and H_{aj}^k , C_{aj}^k as outputs, where A_j is the previous system action.
- V , s_k as inputs and H_v^k , c_v^k as outputs, where V denotes current slot-value pair.

3.3. Scoring Model

We followed the proposed approach in GLAD (Zhong et al., 2018) for figuring the score of each slot-value pair, in the current and previous user utterance and previous system actions. However, we use the additional score to improve context representation and distribution over dialogue history.

The scores model is used to compute slot k for its values to determine the value of the slot, which is mentioned by the users. Therefore, this was done using five sources. The first score $a_{cur_i}^k$ as shown in equation (5) is the current user utterance H_{cur} , taking into account the slot-value pair being considered c_v and using the resulting attention context q_{cur} equation (6) to score the slot-value pair.

$$a_{cur_i}^k = \text{softmax}((H_{cur_i}^k)^T c_v^k) \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad (5)$$

$$q_{cur}^k = \sum_i a_{cur_i}^k H_{cur_i}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r} \quad (6)$$

$$y_{cur}^k = Wq_{cur}^k + b \in \mathbb{R} \quad (7)$$

where m indicates a number of words in the input sequence. The score y_{cur}^k equation (7) denotes the predicted values of the user utterance.

The second score $a_{pre_i}^k$ as shown in equation (8) is similar to the first score, but uses previous user utterance H_{pre} instead of the current user utterance, taking into account the slot-value pair being considered c_v and using the resulting attention context q_{pre}^k equation (9) to score the slot-value pair. The score y_{pre}^k equation (10) denotes the predicted values of the previous utterance.

$$a_{pre_i}^k = softmax((H_{pre_i}^k)^T c_v^k) \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad (8)$$

$$q_{pre}^k = \sum_i a_{pre_i}^k H_{pre_i}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r} \quad (9)$$

$$y_{pre}^k = W q_{pre}^k + b \in \mathbb{R} \quad (10)$$

Then the predicted values of both current and previous user utterances are added as shown in the following equation (11):

$$y_u^k = y_{pre}^k + y_{cur}^k \quad (11)$$

Similarly, this is used to determine the mentioned previous system actions in the current or previous user utterance separately to reach sufficient information about user utterance when this is not informative. The third score $a_{acur_i}^k$ as shown in equation (12), the context of current user utterance C_{cur} over the previous action representations $C_a = [C_{a1} \dots C_{al}]$. Here, l is the number of previous system actions. Then we use the similarity between the attention context q_{acur} equation (13) and the slot-value pair c_v to score the slot-value pair. The score y_{acur}^k equation (14) denotes the predicted values of the previous system actions in the current user utterance separately.

$$a_{acur_i}^k = softmax((C_{cur_i}^k)^T c_v^k) \in \mathbb{R}^{l+1} \quad (12)$$

$$q_{acur}^k = \sum_i a_{acur_i}^k C_{cur_i}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r} \quad (13)$$

$$y_{acur}^k = W q_{acur}^k + b \in \mathbb{R} \quad (14)$$

The fourth source $a_{apre_i}^k$ as shown in equation (15), similar to the third score, but uses the context of previous user utterance C_{pre} inserted into the context of a current user utterance.

$$a_{apre_i}^k = softmax((C_{pre_i}^k)^T c_v^k) \in \mathbb{R}^{l+1} \quad (15)$$

$$q_{apre}^k = \sum_i a_{apre_i}^k C_{pre_i}^k \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r} \quad (16)$$

$$y_{apre}^k = W q_{apre}^k + b \in \mathbb{R} \quad (17)$$

Then the predicted values of both the context of the current and previous user utterances are added:

$$y_a^k = y_{apre}^k + y_{acur}^k \quad (18)$$

In the last score, we followed the proposed approach in (Sharma, Choubey, & Huang, 2019) to determine the relevance of the slot-value pair in the current turn. We concatenate the context of both current user utterance C_{cur}^k and previous user utterance C_{pre}^k and use a sigmoid activation of the linear layer to compute the score.

$$fc = W_{fc} (C_{cur}^k \oplus C_{pre}^k) + b_{fc} \quad (19)$$

$$\alpha = \sigma(W_\alpha \tanh(fc) + b_\alpha) \quad (20)$$

Then we compute context summaries l_u of attention from C_v over H_{cur} and l_s of attention from C_v over H_{pre} .

$$l_u^k = Q(H_{cur}^k, c_v^k) \quad (21)$$

$$l_s^k = Q(H_{pre}^k, c_v^k) \quad (22)$$

To compute the additional score y_f that establishes the probability of the candidate slot-value based on both the current and previous user utterances and the previous system utterance, we use:

$$y_f^k = \alpha l_u^k + (1 - \alpha) l_s^k \quad (23)$$

Finally, we add the weight of all scores of slot, i.e., y_u^k , y_a^k , and y_f^k , which are normalized by the sigmoid function:

$$Y = \sigma(y_u^k + w y_a^k + y_f^k) \in \mathbb{R} \quad (24)$$

where w is a learned parameter.

IV. EXPERIMENT

Wizard of Oz (WoZ) is a single domain of a restaurant reservation dataset (Wen et al., 2016) for dialogue tracking models. The emotion dataset consists of 600 dialogues for training, 200 for evaluation, and 400 for testing. Each dialogue has an average of eight turns, where each turn contains a system utterance transcript, user utterance transcript, turn label, and dialogue state. The ontology consists of three different informable slot types: food with 72 values, an area with 7 values, price range with 4 values, and requests with 7 different slot types like phone number and address. To evaluate the metric of the joint goal tracking accuracy, we followed (Zhong et al., 2018) accumulation of turn goals.

4.1. Implementation Details

The pretrained GLoVe word embedding (Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, 2014) is used, concatenated with character n-gram embeddings (Hashimoto et al., 2016), which are kept fixed during the training. We set the number of units in bi-LSTMs using 200 hidden dimensions and use the ADAM optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2014) to train the models with the initial learning rate of 0.001. We set the dropout rate (Srivastava et al., 2014) to 0.2 for the embedding layer. The maximum of epochs is set to 50 to train the models with a batch size of 50.

4.2. Results and Analysis

The previous user utterance in DST is used to gain necessary details to enhance the probability of distribution over all candidate slot-value pairs and action acts. Using one model to train and test that simplifies the whole process and gives the advantage of speed. The encoder side of the model is only calculated one time for the two tasks. We compute the scores separately of the previous user utterance and current user utterance as emotion in a section scoring model over all candidate slot-value pairs and action acts to improve context representation and distribution over dialogue history, illustrated in (the scoring models of) Figure 1. Moreover, the fusion of the context of both previous user utterance and current user utterance then captures the distribution over all candidate slot-value pairs, illustrated in (the additional score of) Figure 1. The proposed model achieved outperforming results compared with all of the state-of-the-art approaches in the joint goal task, but that does not include the request turn task.

Table 1: Comparison of our model to previously published WoZ restaurant reservation dataset

Model	Joint Goal	Turn Request
Neural Belief Tracker (NBT)—DNN	84.4%	91.2%
Neural Belief Tracker (NBT)—CNN	84.2%	91.6%
Global-Locally Self-Attentive (GLDA)	88.1%	97.1%
Globally Conditioned Encoder (GCE)	88.5%	97.38%
GCE + previous utterance	88.5%	96.98%
GCE + previous utterance + additional score	89.3%	96.98%

Table 1 shows a comparison of the performance of our proposed models with previous state-of-the-art models. The NBT (Mrkšić et al., 2016) applies CNN with pretraining word embeddings to representation learning instead of delexicalized (Henderson et al., 2014), which uses generic tags in its place slots and values in the utterance. In GLAD (Zhong et al., 2018) architecture, considered utterance, previous system action, and all slot values are separate in encoders. A similar architecture is used for all encoders. The authors used two scores model, each calculating the similarity of slot-value pairs to the user utterance representation or previous system action.

In the GCE (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018) model, the authors followed a similar approach to GLAD. However, the encoder was modified by removing the inefficient recurrent layers and self-attention layers to improve the latency and speed of inference.

The WoZ dataset was used for evaluating our proposed model, implementing two attempted variants. The first was by using previous user utterance as an additional encoder in the dialogue using similar architecture to (Nouri & Hosseini-Asl, 2018), with the accuracy similar to the GCE model. The second was by using the additional score that combines the context of previous user utterance and current user utterance with all candidate slot-value pairs. Increasing current user utterance with appropriate information from the previous user utterance and previous system utterance further improves the joint goal accuracy, by 0.8%, and request accuracy, as is obvious from the results in Table 1.

V. CONCLUSION

The aim of DST is to determine two goals: the current state of each turn in dialogue slot-value pairs and the user’s dialogue act to summarize all of the user’s goals. In this paper, we figured the distribution of the slot-value pairs and dialogue acts in two separate ways to deal with the context of user utterance and by merging to provide the model with the necessary details of the information. Compared with all of the state-of-the-art approaches, the proposed model achieved outperforming results in the joint goal accuracy by 0.8% with the WoZ dataset, which was used for evaluating our proposed model. Our model uses a smaller number of learnable parameters that are added due to using relevant context for encoding current and previous user utterances. We also get high variance in the joint goal accuracy because the joint goal is calculated by stacking turn goals, and errors in predicting a turn goal are relatively fewer.

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