### **Using Markov Decision Process for Learning Dialogue Strategies**

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Abstract - In this paper we introduce a stochastic model for dialogue systems based on Markov decision process. Within this framework we show that the problem of dialogue strategy design can be stated as an optimization problem, and solved by a variety of methods, including the reinforcement learning approach. The advantages of this new paradigm include objective evaluation of dialogue systems and their automatic design and adaptation. We show some preliminary results on learning a dialogue strategy for an Air Travel Information System.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Recent progress in the field of spoken natural language understanding [1] expanded the scope of spoken language systems to include mixed initiative [1-5, 7]. Currently there are no agreed upon theoretical foundations for the design of such systems. Looking at the history of speech recognition research and the tremendous progress due to the introduction of a computational model such as HMM, we believe that dialogue research could greatly benefit from a principled theoretical and computational description of the problem.

In this work we define a dialogue system as a system that tries to achieve an *application goal* in an *efficient* way through a series of interactions with the user. We show that by quantifying the terms *efficiency* and *achievement of application goal* in terms of an objective function, the dialogue system can be described as a known stochastic model - Markov Decision Process (MDP) - that can be used for learning the dialogue strategy for a given application.

The advantages of this new paradigm include objective evaluation of dialogue systems and their automatic design and adaptation.

We show some preliminary results on learning a dialogue strategy for an Air Travel Information System.

## 2. DIALOGUE SYSTEM AS A MARKOV DECISION PROCESS

In this section we will give a formal definition of a dialogue system. For clarity, we will illustrate it with a very simple tutorial example of *Day-and-Month Dialogue*, where the goal of the system is to get the *correct* day and month values from the user through the *shortest* possible interaction.

We formalize a dialogue system by describing it in terms of a *state space*, an *action set*, and a *strategy*.

The **state** of a dialogue system represents all the knowledge the system has about internal and external resources it interacts with (e.g. remote databases or machinery, user input, etc.). For our simple tutorial example, the state of the system includes only two entries: the day and the month, whose values can be either empty, or filled through interaction with the user. The total number of states is 411, including one empty initial state, 12 states for which the month is filled and the day isn't, 31 states in which the day is filled, but not the month, 366 states with complete dates, and a special final empty state.

The **action set** of the dialogue system includes all possible actions it can perform, such as interactions with the user (e.g. asking the user for input, providing a user some output, confirmations, etc.), interactions with other external resources (e.g. querying a database), and internal processing.

For our example, the action set include only four actions:

- 1. A question to the user asking for the value of the day.
- 2. A question to the user asking for the value of the month.
- 3. A more open-ended question asking for the value of the date (day and month).

4. A final action, closing the dialogue and submitting the form. In actions 1, 2 and 3, the system asks the appropriate question, and activates a speech recognition system to obtain the user's answer.

When an action *a* is taken at state *s*, the system's state changes to be *s*'. For the day-and-month example, when the system is in an initial state and it asks the user for the month, the next state depends on the actual answer of the user as well as on the speech recognition performance, and it can be any one among the 12 states in which the month is filled, but the day is not. The state transitions are modeled by transition probabilities PT(s(t+1) = s' | s(t) = s, a(t) = a).

A **dialogue session** corresponds to a path in the state space starting at the initial state and ending at a final state.

A **dialogue strategy** specifies, for each state reached, what is the next action to be invoked.

The next definition concerns with the main assumption of our model.

We assume that the goal of a dialogue system is to achieve an *application goal* in an *efficient* way through a series of interactions with the user.

Any dialogue system has an **application goal**: whether it is filling a form by obtaining information from a user (like in our tutorial example), or information retrieval, where the system is trying to provide some useful information to the user (like in the Air Travel example below). The **efficiency**, depending on application, represents dialogue duration, cost of internal processing, cost of accessing external databases or other resources, etc.

We further assume that for each application we can measure the system performance by an objective function *C*,

$$C = \sum C_i,$$

(1)

where the costs *Ci* measure the distance to the achievement of the application goal, the efficiency and the intelligence of the interactions. Therefore, the goal of dialogue system design is to build a system with a strategy that minimizes this objective function. It has been shown in [9] that also an abstract cost reflecting *user satisfaction* with the system can be measured experimentally and modeled as a linear combination of costs as in equation (1). In a real system, the user satisfaction cost can constitute one of the terms in (1). For our tutorial example, where the goal of the system is to obtain the correct day and month values through the shortest possible interactions, the objective function includes three terms:

## (2) C = Wi \* <# interactions> + We \* <# errors> + Wf \* <# incomplete values>.

The first term is the expected duration of the dialogue; the second corresponds to the expected number of errors in the obtained values (ranging from 0 to 2); and the third measures the expected distance from achieving our application goal (this distance is 0 for a complete date, 1 if either day or month value is missing, and 2 if both are incomplete).

In order to reflect this objective function in our dialogue model, we associate a cost *c* to the action *a* taken in a state *s*. The cost incurred with any of the first three actions in day-and-month dialogue system is Wi + We \* number of errors. If we assume that the concept error rate for recognition of month or day values separately (for questions 1 and 2) is *p1*, and together (for question 3) is *p2*, *p2* > *p1*, then the expected cost accumulated when actions 1 or 2 are taken is  $Wi + We^*p1$ , while for question 3 is  $Wi + 2*We^*p2$ . For action 4 (closing the dialogue and submitting the obtained date) the cost depends deterministically on the state in which this action is taken and is

Wi + 2Wf for an initial state, Wi + Wf for states in which either the day value or month value is unfilled, and Wi for the states in which both values are filled in.

In general, the costs in MDP are described by the conditional distributions

#### PC(c(t) = c | s(t) = s, a(t) = a).

If we define the *session cost* as a sum of all the costs experienced by the system during a dialogue session (a path in the state space starting in initial state, and ending in finite state), then the objective function (1) corresponds to the expected dialogue session cost.

This quadruple of state space, action set, transition probabilities, and cost distributions defines a Markov decision process.

Of course, different strategies for the same system result in different expected session costs. Figure 1 shows three different strategies and their costs for the day-and-month system. We define an *optimal strategy* as the one that minimizes the expected cost. For example, in figure 4, strategy 1 (where the system does not even engage in dialogue, closing the dialogue as the first

action) is optimal when the recognition error rate is too high: p1 > (Wf - Wi)/We.

In strategy 2, the system opens the dialogue by asking the open ended question number 3, fills out the day and the month slots with the values recognized from the user response, and closes the session. In strategy 3, the system first fills up the day and then the month by engaging in actions 1 and 2, and then closes the session. Strategy 3 is optimal when the difference in error rates justifies a longer interaction: p2 - p1 > Wi / 2We.

Stating the problem of man-machine dialogue design as an optimization problem provides the following potential advantages:

**Objective evaluation:** It is possible now to grade different strategies for the same system just by comparing their expected cost. It is also possible to compare different systems that share the same objective function.

**Automatic design**: Since the problem of strategy design is cast as optimization problem, it is possible to devise methods for performing this optimization automatically.

Such automatic design procedure for finding the optimal strategy is the subject of the reinforcement learning discipline. For a tutorial on reinforcement learning look at [6]. In the next section we describe an ATIS based dialogue system for which the optimal strategy was learned using RL.



# 3. USING RL FOR LEARNING THE OPTIMAL STRATEGY FOR THE ATIS DOMAIN.

We used a Monte Carlo style reinforcement learning algorithm to learn the optimal strategy for a dialogue system based on the ATIS task. The possible actions of the system in this case include: *greeting* the user with an open ended question (i.e. *How can I help you?*); *asking* the user to provide information about a specific attribute of the task (e.g. origin, airline, departure time, etc.); *retrieving* data from the database according to the current user request (this action does not involve interaction with the user; *output* the retrieved data to the user; asking the user to *release* a constrain; and *closing* the dialogue.

We chose a very simple state description in order to simplify the learning. The state included three *templates* (a template is a set of

keyword-value pairs that we used in our ATIS understanding system [3] as a meaning representation). The user template represents the meaning of user request interpreted in context; the data template includes the number of data tuples retrieved from the database according to the query based on user template; and the system template includes a keyword *OUTPUT* only if the action *output* was used in the past and data was output to the user.

The objective function for this application has four terms:

(3) C = W1 \* C1 + W2 \* C2 + W3 \* C3 + W4 \* C4,

where C1 is the expected number of interactions in a dialogue; C2 - the expected cost of data retrieval - is linear with the number of tuples retrieved; C3 - the expected cost of data presentation - zero for a reasonable number of tuples (very few, if the system has to verbalize the data, more if it can use a display), and rapidly increasing with the number of tuples thereafter; and C4 is the expected distance from the application goal (output data to the user) that penalizes with a fixed cost dialogues that fail to provide flight information to the user.

The system started with no knowledge of the task, i.e., each action had the same probability of being selected by the system at any step. A typical dialogue with an untrained system will look like the following:

S: RELEASE AIRLINE	Do you want to choose another airline?
U:	What?
S: RETRIEVAL	
S: CONSTRAIN DEPART. TIME	When do you want to leave?
U:	UH? I want to go to Boston
S: OUTPUT DATA	There are 12,000 flights
U:	I don't understand, can you please show me the flights from San Francisco to Boston?
S: CLOSE DIALOGUE	Thank you for using AT&T.

Of course the total cost for this dialogue is quite high, especially due to the high cost of retrieval (all the database was retrieved here) and data output (12000 flights).



After training, the system learned the following optimal strategy (Figure 2): start the dialogue by greeting (the probability of getting more information from the user is higher with greeting rather than a specific question), ask constraining questions until the origin, destination, and airline are specified, and retrieve data from the database. After the retrieval, if the resulting data set is empty (because the query was over-constrained), release the airline constraint and retrieve again. If there are too many flights in the data set, ask to constrain the departure time and retrieve again. If at any point during the dialogue the retrieved data set has a reasonable number of flights, the data is output and the dialogue is closed.

An example of dialogue performed with a trained system is as follows:

S: GREETING	This is the AT&T flight
	information. How may I help you?
U:	I want to go to Boston.
S: CONSTRAIN	Where do you want to leave from?
ORIGIN	
U:	San Francisco
S: CONSTRAIN	Which airline?
AIRLINE	
U:	Delta
S: RETRIEVAL (30	
flights)	
S: CONSTRAIN	When do you want to leave?
DEPART. TIME	
U:	In the late afternoon.
S: RETRIEVAL (3	
flights)	
S: OUTPUT DATA	Flight leaves at, flight
	leaves at
U:	Thanks.
S: CLOSE DIALOGUE	Thank you for using AT&T.

Rather than conducting thousands of dialogues with the system in order to train it, we used a *user model* that is described in [8]. The user model is a stochastic dialogue system that generates a reasonable user response to system actions. Different parameters of the user model will result in different learned strategies. The strategy described above was obtained by interactions with a user model that has a very high degree of compliance (i.e. very high probability of producing proper answers to system's questions).

While learning and before reaching the optimal strategy described above, the system went through the four strategies schematically shown in Figure 3.

Strategy number 1 was learned after only a few (20) dialogues. In this strategy, the system immediately closes the dialogue, and its cost is quite high due to the user dissatisfaction cost, but it is much lower than the cost of a random strategy as shown in the first dialogue above. After some more (12000) dialogues the system learns strategy number 2: it opens the dialogue by greeting the user with "How may I help you?"; retrieves data from a database according to the user's request; outputs the data to the user, and closes the dialogue. This strategy corresponds to user-initiated dialogue, as in original ATIS task [1].

The third strategy is learned after 90,000 dialogues. In this strategy the system learned that if there is too much data retrieved, it should ask the user constraining questions about airline and departure time. It takes 700,000 dialogues to learn strategy number 4. Here the system learns to release constrains

(departure time, airline) if the retrieval resulted in an empty data set. The optimal strategy of Figure 2 is learned after 710,000 dialogues. The last thing the system learns is to gather enough information from the user *before* the data retrieval. The rate of convergence, the number of dialogues needed for the system to learn, and the actual sequence of strategies the system goes through depend on the flavor and the parameters of the learning algorithm used.



#### 4. Summary

In this paper we propose a formal quantitative model for manmachine dialogue systems. First, we introduce a general formalization of such systems in terms of their state space, action set and strategy. With this formalization we can describe any dialogue system without loss of generality, but it does not provide a quantitative analysis of dialogue system qualities. Then, we proceed with the main assumption that a good strategy for a dialogue system is minimizing an objective function that reflects the costs of all the important dialogue dimensions. With this assumption we can model any man-machine dialogue system using a Markov decision process, a stochastic model commonly used today for control, games, and other applications, and use reinforcement learning algorithms for designing the optimal strategy automatically. We used reinforcement learning algorithm to learn an optimal strategy for an air travel based dialogue system, and showed that a system that started without any initial knowledge converged to a very reasonable strategy. This paradigm also allows us to objectively evaluate and compare different strategies and different systems for the same application.

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