CueBot: Cue-Controlled Response Generation for Assistive Interaction Usages

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Abstract

Conversational assistants are ubiquitous among the general population, however, these systems have not had an impact on people with disabilities, or speech and language disorders, for whom basic day-to-day communication and social interaction is a huge struggle. Language model technology can play a huge role in empowering these users and help them interact with others with less effort via interaction support. To enable this population, we build a system that can represent them in a social conversation and generate responses that can be controlled by the users using cues/keywords. For an ongoing conversation, this system can suggest responses that a user can choose. We also build models that can speed up this communication by suggesting relevant cues in the dialog response context. We introduce a keyword-loss to lexically constrain the model response output. We present automatic and human evaluation of our cue/keyword predictor and the controllable dialog system to show that our models perform significantly better than models without control. Our evaluation and user study shows that keyword-control on end-to-end response generation models is powerful and can enable and empower users with degenerative disorders to carry out their day-to-day communication.

1 Introduction

Conversational agents such as Google Home and Alexa have become almost an integral part of homes and used by people of all ages to carry out tasks such as setting reminders, playing music and accessing information. There are also agents that can simply engage in chit-chat conversations, however, these open domain conversational agents have mostly been research explorations (Ram et al., 2018). Large-scale pre-training has attained significant performance gains across many tasks within Language Modeling (Devlin et al., 2019; Radford and Narasimhan, 2018), including intent prediction (Castellucci et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019b) and dialogue state tracking (Heck et al., 2020). These pretrained language models have demonstrated surprising generality in open domain dialog tasks, with models like DialoGPT (Zhang et al., 2020b), Meena (Adiwardana et al., 2020) and BlenderBot (Roller et al., 2020) achieving performance competitive with humans in certain settings. With the availability of these models, novel products and applications are emerging (Bommasani et al., 2021) such as Communication Systems (eg. email response completion (Chen et al., 2019a)), Creativity Tools (story writing assistance (Roemmele and Gordon, 2018; Roemmele, 2021)), Human-AI collaboration for Software Engineering (Chen et al., 2021), biosciences (protein structure prediction (Rives et al., 2020) and several others.

One such accessibility application we are exploring is aimed towards leveraging language modeling technology to support minority group of people with certain disabilities to communicate with others effectively. For example, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) is a progressive, degenerative, neurological disorder, where people lose their muscle movement, voice and the ability to carry out a normal day-to-day conversation. It takes huge effort and time for these patients to use existing systems to communicate sentences character by character using various data input mechanisms available to them (gaze, fingers, muscle movements). Henceforth, we will use the term ‘user’ for such patients with disabilities, for whom our system is intended to support.

Our goal is to empower these users to communicate faster by having an intelligent agent be their voice and reduce the silence gap in the conversation resulting from users slower keystroke inputs.

1According to WHO, there are more than 1 Billion people with disabilities
2https://01.org/ACAT
Figure 1: A dialog system for an assistive use-case can listen to a conversation and provide diverse cues to the user. These cues provide human control to the dialog system that can generate relevant responses that could be edited.

The system needs to listen to an ongoing conversation (using automatic speech recognition (ASR)) and should be able to use very limited user input and suggest responses that can be interactively chosen and edited for near real-time social interactions. Such a system needs to be context-aware (contexts such as ongoing conversations, user’s emotions, environment), personalized (language usage and style of the user and also be aware of users’ interests/likes and dislikes) and most importantly, controllable. In this work, we focus on the controllability aspect and design the control mechanism via keywords in the system. We present the following contributions: i) Minority Group Application: We bring forth a novel usage for response generation systems, i.e., to represent users with disabilities and help them in their day-to-day communication needs. ii) Minimal user intervention: We present a human-controllable response generation using keywords/cues. We also build keyword/cue predictor models that further speed up communication time and evaluate these. iii) Keyword Loss: We introduce a keyword loss to our training objective that further helps in incorporating soft lexical constraints in the form of keywords/similar words in the generated responses, validated through automatic and human evaluation. We also present a user-study to understand the usefulness and the effectiveness of our overall system.

Figure 1 shows the interaction flow of our system. An ASR system converts an ongoing conversation (between an interlocutor and a user with disabilities) to text, which is input to the cue/keyword generator that generates possible, relevant cues that the user might want to respond with. The user can choose one of these keywords or also enter his/her own keyword to control the system. This keyword is an input to the response generator model that can generate relevant responses based on the keyword. The user can then either use one of the suggested responses or edit a response with just a few keystrokes, thus drastically reducing communication time.

2 Related Work

Assistive Technologies: Various AI technologies have proven to be helpful for people with limited mobility, hearing capabilities and speech impairments. (Brady et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2020; MacLeod et al., 2017; Elakkiya, 2020; Mišekis et al., 2020; Ozawa et al., 2020; Ramli et al., 2020; Shor et al., 2019). People with ALS need Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC) strategies to address and support daily communication, such as speech generation (Beukelman et al., 2011), eye-tracking tools (Gibbons and Beneteau, 2010) and Brain Computer Interaction (BCI) interfaces (Wolpaw et al., 2018). (Linse et al., 2018). Current systems use interfaces with inputs via eye-gaze, touch or BCI (Orhan et al., 2011) with some predictive text capability and some systems using simpler n-gram based language models (Verbally, 2021; TherapyBox, 2021) and do not exploit the potential of using response generation technology using deep learning based language models. There has also been some work on collecting AAC communication data for language modeling (Vertanen, 2013), (Vertanen and Kristensson, 2011). While this data could be used to support single-turn retrieval-based dialog systems, these do not sup-
port multi-turn dialog response generation. To the best of our knowledge, there aren’t many research explorations for conversational technology based applications that exploit the latest language modeling techniques for people with ALS.

**Controllable Generation:** Controllability in text generation and dialog systems has emerged as an active research area. (Keskar et al., 2019) pre-train a conditional transformer model with different types of control codes. (Xu et al., 2020b) and (Xu et al., 2020a) presents a keyword controlled story and dialog generation respectively. While (Ghazvininejad et al., 2017; See et al., 2019) use post-processing techniques to control generated text. (Dathathri et al., 2020) present a plug-and-play architecture, where the base language model is untouched and small attribute models induce control, further extended in (Madotto et al., 2020). (Smith et al., 2020) and (Gupta et al., 2020) control generation using style and semantic exemplars. However, these controllable attributes are too broad and not suitable for our use-case. These techniques also require a lot of computational resources which is not feasible in real-time assistive applications.

**Similarity-based Loss Function:** For improving the generated response, some recent work has focused on addressing the loss functions during model training. (Kovaleva et al., 2018) use similarity-based losses to enhance the diversity and meaning in the generated sentence. (Sha, 2020) aims to lexically constrain the language generation at word level. In our work, we aim to compute the loss across the entire sentence to guide keyword generation.

### 3 Keyword and Response Modeling

#### 3.1 Controllability using cues/keywords

In order to make response generation controllable with minimum user-intervention, we incorporate cues/keywords as input control to generate relevant responses to a given dialog context. We enable keyword-control by 1) providing automatically generated keywords as auxiliary input to the model and 2) by introducing a novel keyword-based loss that encourages the model to generate sentences containing the keyword or words semantically similar to the keyword. In the working system, the keyword is either entered by the user or selected by the user from a set of provided options. To generate data to train such a model, given a conversation context and a response output, we automatically extract keywords from the responses using key-BERT (Grootendorst, 2020) and use the HuggingFace TransferTransfo model (Wolf et al., 2019) as our base architecture. We use the top 1-gram keyword for each dialog response, and use both single keywords and multiple keywords as inputs.

#### 3.1.1 Keywords as context

For a given conversation context, we incorporate keywords into the TransferTransfo model by adding new keyword-specific-tokens, in addition to dialog-state/speaker tokens that represent speaker turns in the dialog. We further extend the dialog-state embeddings to add ‘keyword-state-embeddings’ with special keyword separator token to indicate the positions of the keyword tokens.

#### 3.1.2 Keyword-based loss functions

We propose keyword-based loss functions that encourage the occurrence of the input keyword(s) in the generated sentence. We introduce variations to this loss function to enable the generation of semantically similar word to the input keyword as well as incorporate multiple-keyword inputs as control to the model. With addition of this loss, the overall loss of the model is a combination of : language model loss $L_m$, next sentence prediction loss $L_n$ (both part of the TransferTransfo architecture) and keyword loss $L_k$.

\[
\text{Overall Loss}, L = \alpha L_m + \beta L_n + \gamma L_k \tag{1}
\]

where $\alpha$, $\beta$ and the $\gamma$ are the hyper-parameters.

**Keyword Loss:** In order to encourage the generation of the cue/keyword in a sentence, we maximize the similarity between the keyword, $kw$, and one of the generated words (at some output position). From the probability distribution (generated logits), we compute the negative log of the probability of the keyword ($p_i$) at every timestep $i=1$ to $T$. We then take the minimum of these scores across the generated sentence as the loss w.r.t keyword $K$,

\[
L_k = \min_{i=1}^{T} (-\log p_i(kw)), \tag{2}
\]

**Keyword Loss with similar words:** We incorporate embedding-based similarity scores into the keyword loss computation as shown in equation 3 in order to encourage generation of not just the keywords, but also semantically similar words in the sentence. Let $pool = kw \cup sim\_words(kw)$. 

\[
\]
The Keyword loss $L_k$,

$$L_k = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \min_{i=1}^{T} (-\log p_i(k_j))$$

where $k = \arg \min_{x \in \text{pool}} (\min_{i=1}^{T} (-\log p_i(x)))$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

**Keyword Loss with multiple inputs** : Consider $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_N$ as the $N$ multiple control inputs, where it is desirable that the generated output contains all of the keywords (or similar words). To enable this, we minimize the negative log probability for each keyword, $k_j$, across the entire sentence and add these scores as the total loss.

$$L_k = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \min_{i=1}^{T} (-\log p_i(k_j))$$

(4)

### 3.2 Keyword Generation

While keyword-controlled responses reduce the interaction time significantly, we try to further improve the experience and minimize the latency by automatically suggesting keywords to the user. We build two types of models:

#### 1) Extractive keyword predictor:

Figure 2 shows the extractive keyword predictor. Given a conversation context, we use DialogPT(Zhang et al., 2020c) with diverse beam search(Vijayakumar et al., 2018) to generate multiple responses (we use 10 beams, 2 groups, and diversity penalty of 5.5). We then use keyBERT(Grootendorst, 2020) to extract keywords from the beam outputs and present these as keyword suggestions.

#### 2) Generative keyword predictor:

To train a generative keyword predictor, we finetune GPT2 using a conversation context as input and keywords from the ground truth response as output. Figure 3 shows this process. The model generates multiple keywords for a given context using diverse beam search and presents these as suggestions. Keywords are extracted from the DailyDialog dataset (Li et al., 2017) to create the data to train the keyword predictor.

### 4 Experimental Setup

We initialize the TransferTransfo architecture weights of DialogPT ‘medium’ model with 345M parameters. Language modeling and multiclass-classification coefficients, $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are set to 1 as in the original model. We use a batch size of 64 for training, nucleus sampling for generation with top_p set to 0.9 to fine-tune the model for 3 epochs. We run an ablation study to determine the effect of different ways of incorporating keywords using 5 main classes of models:

i) No-keyword model (no_kw): Trained without any keyword information

ii) Keyword-context (kw_context): Trained with keyword as auxiliary input + dialog context

iii) Keyword-loss (kw_loss): Incorporates keyword loss + keyword as auxiliary information

iv) Keyword sim-loss (kw_sim_loss): Incorporate similar words (embedding-based techniques such as Glove (Pennington et al., 2014) (kw_sim_loss_glove) and wordnet-based (kw_sim_loss_wordnet) similarity) for loss computation.

v) Multiple-keyword-loss (multi_kw_loss): Incorporate multiple keywords into the input as well as into the loss computation.

### 4.1 Datasets

Although there are a few AAC datasets, (Vertanen and Kristensson, 2011), (Vertanen, 2013), they lack multi-turn dialogs, which is central to our task as well as our use-case. Hence we use the Dailydialog dataset (Li et al., 2017), which consists of 13,118 daily conversations involving various topics such as tourism, culture, education, etc., with the goal of exchanging ideas and information and enhancing social bonding. The dataset includes conversations around health, ordinary life and emotions among others, which allows it to serve as a staring point for building systems to support social communication.
for AAC applications. We use the test set, consisting of 6740 context-response pairs, to evaluate our models.

4.2 Automatic Evaluation

Given the well-discussed fact that word-overlap based metrics do not agree well with human judgment, we utilize learning based and embedding-based metrics to evaluate the generated response with the reference ground truth.

4.2.1 Metrics for Evaluating Keyword Predictor Models

The keyword predictor model should be able to generate diverse keywords to present varied options for users to choose from. We evaluate the extractive and generative keyword predictors using averaged cosine similarity between generated keywords as a measure of diversity—lower the similarity, higher the diversity. We hypothesize that meaningful keywords will result in generation of meaningful and context-relevant responses. Hence, we use these keywords to generate responses, and score the responses based on ‘human-like’ and coherence scores using DialogRPT (Gao et al., 2020), a model trained to predict human feedback dialogue responses.

4.2.2 Metrics for Evaluating Controllable Response Generation Model

Keyword Insertion Accuracy (KIA): The main goal of this work is to provide fine-grained control to the user and have the model induce a keyword or a similar word in the response. To objectively evaluate this, we define keyword-insertion accuracy, where we identify if the input word or a word that is similar, is a part of the generated sentence or not. We compute the accuracy of exact keyword insertion and we also compute accuracies of insertion of words containing similar meaning into the generated response. We use embedding-based cosine similarity metrics and heuristically use a threshold 0.7 to compute the accuracies.

Similarity-Based & Response Quality Metrics

Since we intend to generate keyword-based responses, computing measures of similarity between the generated response and ground truth using metrics such as BLEURT, BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020a) (Sellam et al., 2020), Sentence-BERT (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) gives a good assessment for the model performance.

We evaluate turn level response quality aspects such as fluency and context coherence using language model based evaluation (GPT-2) and diversity using n-gram based evaluation (Pang et al., 2020)\(^3\). We also measure the perplexity (PPL) by employing pretrained GPT-2 "medium".

4.3 Human Evaluation

We perform human evaluation via Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) to evaluate the keyword predictor models and controllable response generation models in 3 separate crowd-tasks.

Task1: Collecting response for automatic and human-entered keywords

We present a conversation context and keywords (from the extractive and generative keyword prediction models) to the turkers and ask them to come up with possible responses relevant to these keywords. To represent human-control in our analysis, the turkers are also asked to enter keywords of their choice, along with the corresponding responses. We use these in Task 2 to present to the turkers as human responses.

Task2: Overall system interaction and metrics:

In the interaction flow, the user reads the conversation context, picks a keyword (from task 1) that he/she wants to respond with - which brings up a human response (from Task1) and a model response (\(kw\_loss\) model). The user can use a response as is or edit or type a new response altogether. We analyse if the users tend to choose a model or a human response and also compute the word error rates (WER) for the corresponding edits.

Task3: Human Evaluation of controllable response generation models:

We randomly pick 100 dialog contexts and present the context along with the keyword and pairs of responses from the models and ask 3 annotators to rate the responses based on the following criteria: 1) Fluency: how natural and fluent the responses are, 2) Generic: are the responses too generic given the dialog context?, 3) Context relevance: how relevant and coherent is a response to a given dialog context, 4) Keyword relevance: relevance of a response to the keyword.

We present pairs of responses from models A and B and provide 4 options for each of the above criteria: A better than B, B better than A, Both and, Neither. We evaluate the pairs, no_keyword vs \(kw\_context\), no_keyword vs \(kw\_loss\) and

\(^3\)https://github.com/alexzhou907/dialogue_evaluation
| Kw Predictor | Coherence | Human-like | Diversity ↓ |
|--------------|-----------|------------|-------------|
| Generative   | 0.903     | 0.641      | 0.227       |
| Extractive   | 0.891     | 0.595      | 0.265       |

Table 1: Evaluation of keyword predictor models.

**kw_context** vs **kw_loss**. We compute the scores using a majority vote across 3 annotators.

## 5 Results and Discussion

### 5.1 Automatic Evaluation Results

**Keyword Predictor Models:** Table 1 shows that the generative keyword predictor tends to generate more diverse keywords (lower score of cosine similarity indicates higher diversity), which is very important in our use-case. The generated responses are also more coherent and human-like.

**Cue/Keyword controlled models:** We experiment the keyword-loss models with various values of $\gamma$ ranging between 0 and 1 and see the best performance when $\gamma=0.005$. Henceforth, we use keyword-loss models with $\gamma=0.005$ for all our experiments. From Table 2, the KIA for the no_kw model is very low, given the one to many nature of open domain dialog. By guiding the model with keywords, the KIA goes up to 67.2% and this is improved to 69.4% in kw_loss model. All of the cue/keyword based models outperform the no_kw model in all of the similarity-based and response quality metrics, except perplexity where the no_kw model is the best. Adding keyword-loss greatly improves the context coherence and fluency as compared to adding keyword as context information alone. The context coherence is the highest when we use similarity-based keyword loss, which encourages generating sentences with words having similar meaning as the input word. The kw_simloss_glove $− 1$ and kw_simloss_wordnet $− 1$ models also show better performance as compared to the kw_context model. Table 2 also shows the results on using multiple keywords input. We observe that KIA improves with the kw_loss models, especially the glove-similarity based model.

### 5.2 Human Evaluation Results

We collect about 1000 responses for the keywords suggested by the two keyword predictors and also collect 1000 additional human keywords and corresponding responses from Task 1.

On analysing the response choice (human vs model generated) of the turkers in Task 2, we find that from 121 interactions, 34.7% of the interactions used model response, and 29.7% used human response. We also observe that 60 interactions result in edits of the response. Out of this, the WER for edits for a human response is 0.45 while WER for edits is lower when a model response is chosen, at 0.39. This further indicates that the model response is closer to what the user wants to convey.

Figure 4 shows the human ratings for response quality metrics for different models. We observe that the kw_loss and kw_context models outperform the model without control, on all metrics. The keyword-based models generate more fluent and relevant responses. We also observe that humans rate kw_context and kw_loss models as very comparable, with kw_loss models being more keyword and context relevant as also established by the automatic evaluations.

### 5.3 User Study

We perform a preliminary study with 7 users\(^4\) by mimicking the disability scenario where the user can only interact with the system using eye-gaze as input. The user interface is controlled using a commercial eye-gaze tracker that works along with an open source mouse-control software, OptiKey\(^5\), an on-screen keyboard designed for users.

\(^4\)pandemic, limited hardware availability among other socio-technical issues impedes the pace of the study

\(^5\)https://github.com/OptiKey/OptiKey
We present a novel usage for open domain conversational models - representing differently abled users and enabling them to communicate. In such a use-case, minimizing the need for user intervention is critical, hence the focus of this work has been to develop controllable response generation models that enable fine-grained human control in the form of keyword inputs from the user. We also introduce keyword-based loss functions that encourages the model to generate the keyword or similar words in the response. To further improve efficiency and time in interaction, we develop keyword predictors and evaluate them. We show with both automatic and human evaluation that our models outperform the baseline model with no control, at the same time maintaining the response quality. We are working with patients to collect feedback and plan to deploy our system as part of an open source tool to impact the quality of life of the patients and help the caregivers. Future research direction also involves improving the keyword predictors, and personalization of these controllable models (both speech and linguistic).

### 7 Ethics

CueBot aims to support users with neurological disorders in day-to-day communication while also enabling them to control the response generation. The system has been extensively evaluated using automatic metrics as well as human evaluation via AMT, where the AMT workers were fairly compensated (average >$15 per hour). One of the AMT tasks included rating of responses generated from our models and from humans. We tried to mitigate any bias that could arise in the choices made by turkers by constantly shuffling the responses that we presented. We did not collect any additional personal details (other than those collect by AMT by default) or identities from AMT workers for any of our tasks, hence preserving their privacy. As next steps, we plan to use the feedback from our

### 6 Conclusion

Table 2: Performance of the various controllable models for single and multi-keyword inputs ($\gamma = 0.005$). Label ",-1" indicates that we set $\sin (k, kw) = 1$ in equation 3.

|                  | KIA | Similarity | BLEURT   | BERT Score | Context | Diversity | Fluency | PPL↓  |
|------------------|-----|------------|----------|------------|---------|-----------|---------|-------|
| **Single Keyword** |     |            |          |            |         |           |         |       |
| no_kw            | 0.083 | 0.271     | -1.035   | 0.868/0.836/0.851 | 0.541 | 1.592 | **0.407** | **39.098** |
| kw_context       | 0.672 | 0.539     | -0.607   | 0.844/0.853/0.868 | 0.568 | **1.789** | 0.403  | 41.752 |
| kw_loss          | 0.694 | 0.542     | -0.609   | 0.885/0.852/0.868 | 0.579 | 1.726 | **0.407** | **43.115** |
| kw_sim_loss_glove-1 | 0.684 | 0.541     | **-0.606** | 0.884/0.852/0.868 | 0.585 | 1.729 | 0.405  | 42.544 |
| kw_sim_loss_wordnet-1 | 0.686 | 0.540     | -0.615   | 0.884/0.852/0.868 | 0.581 | 1.726 | 0.403  | 42.606 |
| kw_sim_loss_glove | 0.680 | 0.543     | -0.610   | 0.885/0.852/0.868 | 0.570 | 1.741 | 0.403  | 42.362 |
| kw_sim_loss_wordnet | 0.672 | 0.541     | -0.606   | 0.884/0.852/0.867 | 0.576 | 1.733 | 0.403  | 42.301 |
| **Multiple Keywords** |     |            |          |            |         |           |         |       |
| no_kw            | 0.041 | 0.271     | -1.035   | 0.868/0.836/0.851 | 0.541 | 1.592 | **0.407** | **39.098** |
| kw_context       | 0.293 | 0.607     | **-0.499** | **0.895/0.857/0.875** | 0.489 | **1.396** | 0.399  | 75.300 |
| kw_loss          | 0.300 | 0.604     | -0.524   | 0.894/0.856/0.874 | 0.492 | 1.354 | 0.412  | 83.971 |
| kw_sim_loss_glove-1 | 0.302 | 0.610     | -0.535   | **0.895/0.857/0.875** | 0.487 | 1.366 | 0.416  | 84.367 |

**with Motor neurone disease(MND).** The user interacts with a wizard-based interlocutor in a multi-turn dialog to complete open ended conversation goals. Users can pick two goals/tasks to complete (which the wizard is unaware of) out of sample tasks. After completion of the two tasks, the users are required to answer a survey with likert-scale questions where they rate the overall experience in the task. From the survey, we find that the users “felt that the provided tasks were meaningful and the keywords were very useful in carrying out the communication”. The users also reported that they used the generated responses as it was ‘very close to what they wanted to say’ (one-tail t-test, mu= 0, mean=0.5, p < 0.05). Users appreciated that the study made them empathize with users for whom basic communication is a struggle. Some feedback from users: "Typing a whole sentence character by character can be painful", "The keyword suggestion and response generation feature were quite useful as it cuts down significant efforts from user’s side", "The responses were pretty good. keywords were sometimes not useful and not what I wanted to convey. I hoped that Spiderman would show up as a movie suggestion just when I entered spider(as it was hard to type) and it worked! that was good to see!"
user study to improve the system, and integrate into ACAT to enable user studies with ALS patients and further gain their feedback to improve the AI modules. In the current system we use google ASR for the interlocutors speech, which raises some privacy concerns. To mitigate this, we plan to use a local ASR system rather than a cloud ASR so that the data is processed locally. To enable this, we need to evaluate the performance of local ASR systems against the cloud-based google ASR. Both the keyword suggestion and response generation modules use pre-trained language models such as GPT2 and DialoGPT finetuned on DailyDialog dataset conversations. Given this, the responses generated could possibly contain improper content or bias due to the large dataset these models are pre-trained on. This raises some important ethical questions that we intend to tackle as part of future work. In this current work we have not explored bias mitigation, which will also be a part of future work.

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Appendix

A Human Evaluation Setup Details

Human evaluation of our system is split into three tasks: task 1 for collecting keywords and corresponding responses from humans. Task 2 involved the crowd workers on Amazon Mechanical Turk interact with our system. We used the keyword suggestions from our extractive and generative keyword predictor models and also the human-generated keywords. We run our controlled response generation pipeline on these keywords to obtain relevant responses. In this task, we first present the turkers with the conversation context as shown in 5. We also present 9 keyword suggestions - 3 from the extractive keyword predictor, 3 from the generative keyword predictor and 3 keywords generated by humans (from task 1). Figure 6 shows this step. Choosing one of these keywords, brings up responses from the human responses generated from Task1, and our controllable response generation model. We use kwloss model with $\gamma=0.005$ and diverse beam search to generate the responses. The users can choose one of the responses and further edit, or enter his/her own response in the box provided.

We then present a questionnaire to the turkers - asking them to answer on a likert scale, some questions about why they chose a particular keyword/responses. At the end, turkers are shown a virtual keyboard as you can see in Figure 7 and asked to type in the response that they chose/edited. Using their physical keyboard is disabled for this part of the task - this is to ensure that the turkers use the virtual keyboard and generate the given text. This data enables us to compare the time it took to complete a single interaction and the time it takes to actually type in the entire response (future work).

B Experiments

We present the effect of varying the $\gamma$ coefficient in the keyword-based loss models. These results are presented in table 3. Please note that when $\gamma = 0$, the model is the kw-context model. We see from the table that increasing $\gamma$ increases the KIA, which matches our intuition, and reaches close to 75% when $\gamma = 1$. However, we see that this is optimal when $\gamma = 0.005$. Similarity metrics such as BLEURT see a drop as we increase $\gamma$ with the lowest at 1. Also, Response Quality deteriorate heavily with context coherence, diversity and fluency metrics. While the higher $\gamma$ tries to increasingly encourage the model to generate the keyword in the sentence, this is at the cost of the overall quality of the response. Hence, in all of the experiments and results reported in the paper, we fix $\gamma = 0.005$, unless otherwise specified.

C Sample Model Outputs

In Table 4, we present the outputs from the various models - for a given context and keyword. We show the sample outputs from the no_kw, kw_context, kwloss_0.005, kwloss_sim_loss_glove models and the ground truth. We see that the keywords-based models are able to effectively induce the
Table 3: Examining the effect of $\gamma$

| coeff=0 | coeff=0.005 | coeff=0.01 | coeff=0.1 | coeff=1 |
|--------|-------------|------------|-----------|---------|
| KWI Accuracy | 0.672 | 0.694 | 0.681 | **0.746** |
| Similarity | 0.539 | **0.542** | 0.538 | 0.527 |
| BLEURT | **-0.607** | -0.609 | -0.629 | -0.846 |
| Context | 0.568 | 0.579 | 0.519 | 0.468 |
| Diversity | **1.789** | 1.726 | 1.641 | 0.888 |
| Fluency | 0.403 | **0.407** | 0.406 | 0.397 |
| PPL | **41.752** | 43.115 | 45.749 | 92.567 |

Figure 8: Shows the responses to the questionnaire in Task 2. (One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test (mu=0)).

F.1 User Interface
Figure 9 shows the user interface for our system. The top area shows the placeholder for the interlocutor’s voice input which is converted to text for the model using ASR. The interface is divided into two parts, the top area is further split into two panes 1) the left pane brings up the keywords generated from the keyword predictor. Custom keywords can be added using the ‘Add Custom Keyword’ button. Once a keyword choice is made, 2) the right pane displays the generated responses from the keyword-based response generation model. The bottom area shows the virtual keyboard with buttons large enough to enable the gaze-tracker to detect gaze without ambiguities. Picking one of the generated responses from the right phrase pane, populates it into the textarea which can be edited by the user if needed. The ‘Speak’ button converts the user’s response to speech. Finally, the chat window on the bottom-right keeps track of the ongoing conversation for the user’s reference.

F.2 Conversational Goals/Tasks
The users were presented with 4 tasks out of which they could choose any two(without communicating the information with the interlocutor), to carry out a conversation as natural as possible. The 4 tasks revolved around the assistive usecase and as below:

- Invite an interlocutor to a party hosted by the user or to watch a movie (details: when, where and what time).
- Request the interlocutor to get some groceries (details: what and from where)
- Convey to the interlocutor that the user has a bad headache and needs help in setting up a doctor’s appointment (details: when)
- Convey to the interlocutor that the user is hungry and wants something for lunch. (details: what)

A conversation is considered to be complete or successful when the user is able to convey the goal of the interaction to the interlocutor along with the details associated with the goal. Each session with
Speaker1: John, I'd like you to meet Charles Brown, our new manager at the airport.

Speaker2: Yes, certainly. How can I recognize him?

Speaker1: He is short, well-built, and he's got light blond hair.

Speaker2: Is there anything else?

Speaker1: Please tell me something about your insurance background.

Speaker2: I majored in international banking at college so I took many insurance courses. And I worked at an insurance company for my graduation field work.

Speaker1: Why do you want to be an insurance agent?

Speaker2: I care about people and I know the importance of insurance.

Speaker1: Do you have any work experience in promotion?

Speaker2: Yes, I have been promoted twice. I have been promoted twice as well.

Speaker1: Do you have any work experience in promotion?

Speaker2: Yes, I have worked as a salesman for a few years.

Speaker1: What kinds of poems did you write? It's not complicated.

Speaker2: What was your extracurricular activities? Then press the button.

Speaker1: What extracurricular activities did you usually take part in at your college?

Speaker2: Then press the button.
Table 5: Performance of the various controllable models for multiple keyword input \((\gamma = 0.005)\). Label "-1" indicates that we set \(\text{sim}(k, kw) = 1\) in equation 3.

| Multiple Keywords           | KIA | Similarity | BLEURT          | BERT Score          | Context | Diversity | Fluency | PPL ↓ |
|-----------------------------|-----|------------|-----------------|--------------------|---------|-----------|---------|-------|
| no_kw                        | 0.041 | 0.271      | -1.035          | 0.868/0.836/0.851 | 0.541   | 1.592     | 0.407   | 39.098|
| kw_context                  | 0.293 | 0.607      | -0.499          | 0.895/0.857/0.875 | 0.489   | 1.396     | 0.399   | 75.300|
| kw_loss                     | 0.300 | 0.604      | -0.524          | 0.894/0.856/0.874 | 0.492   | 1.354     | 0.412   | 83.971|
| kw_sim_loss_glove-1         | 0.302 | 0.610      | -0.535          | 0.895/0.857/0.875 | 0.487   | 1.366     | 0.416   | 84.367|
| kw_sim_loss_glove-1         | 0.287 | 0.600      | -0.525          | 0.894/0.856/0.874 | 0.488   | 1.351     | 0.417   | 80.403|
| kw_sim_loss_wordnet         | 0.293 | 0.598      | -0.511          | 0.893/0.855/0.873 | 0.479   | 1.344     | 0.412   | 80.258|
| kw_sim_loss_wordnet         | 0.300 | 0.607      | -0.518          | 0.894/0.856/0.875 | 0.483   | 1.364     | 0.416   | 79.888|

A user lasted between 60 minutes to 90 minutes. The first 30 minutes were spent in explaining the study to the user and helping the user familiarize with the gaze-tracker and the Opti-key mouse functions. Post user-study, a survey was sent to the users to get feedback about the experience with the system.