Reranking Overgenerated Responses for End-to-End Task-Oriented Dialogue Systems

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Abstract
End-to-end (E2E) task-oriented dialogue (ToD) systems are prone to falling into the so-called ‘likelihood trap’, resulting in generated responses that are dull, repetitive, and often inconsistent with dialogue history. Comparing ranked lists of multiple generated responses against the ‘gold response’ (from evaluation data) reveals a wide diversity in response quality, with many good responses placed lower in the ranked list. The main challenge, addressed in this work, is then how to reach beyond greedily generated system responses, that is, how to obtain and select such high-quality responses from the list of overgenerated responses at inference without the availability of the gold response. To this end, we propose a simple yet effective reranking method that aims to select high-quality items from the lists of responses initially overgenerated by the system. The idea is to use any sequence-level (similarity) scoring function to divide the semantic space of responses into high-scoring versus low-scoring partitions. At training, the high-scoring partition comprises all generated responses whose similarity to the gold response is higher than the similarity of the greedy response to the gold response. At inference, the aim is to estimate the probability that each overgenerated response belongs to the high-scoring partition, given only previous dialogue history. We validate the robustness and versatility of our proposed method on the standard MultiWOZ dataset: it improves a state-of-the-art E2E ToD system by 2.0 BLEU, 1.6 ROUGE, and 1.3 METEOR scores, achieving new peak results. Additional experiments on the BiToD dataset and human evaluation further ascertain the generalisability and effectiveness of the proposed framework.

Keywords: task-oriented dialogue systems, natural language generation, contrastive learning

1. Introduction
Task-oriented dialogue (ToD) systems (Williams and Young, 2007; Young et al., 2013) have received increasingly intensified research interest, as they can assist humans with or automate many tasks effectively, thereby contributing to technological expansion and inclusion (Raux et al., 2003; El Asri et al., 2017; Budzianowski et al., 2018; Laranjo et al., 2018). The natural language generation (NLG) module, also dubbed response generation, is a critical component of any ToD system. Besides the necessary requirement to maintain semantic coherence during conversation, NLG also impacts user experience and satisfaction with a system.

Enabled by the recent advances in pretrained language models (PLMs) (Radford et al., 2019; Raffel et al., 2020), now a de facto approach to NLG is fine-tuning autoregressive language models on a domain-specific dialogue dataset (Lin et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2022). However, this approach still suffers from several crucial issues. 1) Standard autoregressive models over-rely on local context (Khandelwal et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2021), whereas many desirable properties of a dialogue response, such as consistency or coherence, can be captured only when taking into account dialogue history (Zaib et al., 2021). 2) Autoregressive LMs make predictions conditioned on the ground truth during training but on their own predictions during decoding, creating a disparity known as ‘exposure bias’ (Bengio et al., 2015; Ranzato et al., 2016; Du and Ji, 2019). 3) Finally, decoding dialogue responses from PLMs can easily fall into the so-called ‘likelihood trap’ (See et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2021); here, high-likelihood (i.e., low-perplexity) sequences produced by greedy decoding or beam search tend to be dull and repetitive (See et al., 2019b). Truncated sampling methods, such as top-k (Fan et al., 2018), nucleus (Holtzman et al., 2020), and typical sampling (Meister et al., 2022) also tend to produce text with inconsistencies, hallucinations, factual errors, or commonsense issues (Massarelli et al., 2020; Dou et al., 2022; Krishna et al., 2021; Dziri et al., 2022).

To tackle these issues, we propose a post-generation reranking method for ToD. The focus is on end-to-end (E2E) ToD systems, where NLG is modelled as a sequence-to-sequence problem. In particular, an E2E ToD system utilises a neural model such as T5 (Raffel et al., 2020) or BART (Lewis et al., 2020) to generate a surface form response conditioned on dialogue history and other context (e.g. dialogue domain ontology).

The method, illustrated in Figure 1, reranks a set
Figure 1: An illustration of our proposed reranking method. S: System; U: User. A reranking model is trained to rank a set of overgenerated responses from an end-to-end ToD system solely based on dialogue context/history. According to a predefined scoring function (e.g., cosine similarity, BLEU), a good candidate should have a score higher than that of the greedy search response. After reranking, the output of the base ToD E2E system is steered towards higher-quality responses.

of responses generated by any E2E ToD system solely based on the preceding dialogue context. Inspired by prior work on conversational representation learning (Mehri et al., 2019; Humeau et al., 2020; Vulić et al., 2021b), we fine-tune any input PLM (e.g., BERT, RoBERTa) into a conversational encoder that learns fine-grained interactions between target responses and dialogue context.\(^1\) The method is designed as a two-stage approach, see Figure 3 later. In Stage 1 we adaptively fine-tune the input PLM according to a specified scoring function (e.g., cosine similarity, BLEU) and then use it to divide the semantic space (i.e., corresponding sets of generated responses) into high-scoring and low-scoring partitions based on their similarity to the gold response (according to the scoring function). Subsequently, in Stage 2 such a specialised dialogue encoder allows reranking the generated responses based on discriminative classification or similarity-based retrieval, without leveraging the gold response. In turn, this enables us to run reranking without gold responses at inference.

In our main experiments on the standard MultiWOZ 2.0 dataset (Budzianowski et al., 2018), we run the proposed method on top of the state-of-the-art (SotA) MinTL E2E ToD system (Lin et al., 2020), and achieve consistent gains with different underlying PLMs: relying on cosine similarity as the scoring function, our rerankers achieve new SotA results of 20.0 (↑2.0) BLEU, 32.8 (↑1.6) ROUGE, and 36.9 (↑1.3) METEOR on MultiWOZ. Further, using the actual evaluation metric also as the scoring criterion in Stage 2, we can push performance to 20.3 (↑2.3) BLEU, 33.6 (↑2.4) ROUGE, and 40.0 (↑4.4) METEOR. Ablation studies, additional experiments on the BiToD dataset (Lin et al., 2021), and human-based evaluation further verify the usefulness of the proposed method. The code is available online at https://github.com/cambridgeltl/response_reranking.

2. Related Work

We focus on improving NLG performance of E2E ToD systems (Wen et al., 2017; Bordes et al., 2017; Lei et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2020), proposing a post-generation reranking method which operates on the E2E system’s outputs.

Post-Generation Reranking. It has been well-studied in the Machine Translation (MT) community. Noisy Channel Modelling (Ng et al., 2019; Yee et al., 2019) is a widely used reranking scheme for NMT, parameterising the noisy channel probability with a seq2seq model. Rerankers have also been implemented with an RNN language model (Gulcehre et al., 2017), an energy-based model (Bhattacharyya et al., 2021), and masked language models (Salazar et al., 2020; Liu and Liu, 2021).

In dialogue, reranking methods were mostly investigated for open-ended systems, aiming to increase their response diversity (Sordoni et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Shao et al., 2017), to improve conversational ‘engagingness’ by integrating human feedback (Gao et al., 2020), and to enhance fluency and semantic correctness (Baheti et al., 2020). However, post-generation reranking has not been as widely explored in the ToD context. Compared to open-ended systems, generated outputs from ToD systems are highly semantically similar, adding a substantial challenge to reranking, reaching beyond simple topic shifts of the responses. Notably, rerankers based on convolution (Wen et al., 2015), RNN (Dušek and Jurčiček, 2016), RoBERTa (Harkous et al., 2020), and cross-attention (Juraska and Walker, 2021) were proposed, which all crucially assume access to the ground truth dialogue act representation, while we do not assume its availability.

Response Selection for ToD. These methods retrieve a set of response candidates and subsequently select the most likely one (according to a matching function) as a final response (Ritter et al., 2011). Different matching models have been proposed to measure the matching degree between a dialogue context and a response candidate, and rank the candidates accordingly (Wu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2018; Weston et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2019).

1 Unlike prior work, we do not use any task annotation directly for fine-tuning (e.g., prior work relied on intent labels to specialise PLMs towards particular intent detection tasks).
Unlike prior work, which typically ranks a set of predefined system response candidates, our post-generation reranking method combines generation-based and retrieval-based methods. Moreover, while previous work (e.g., Weston et al., 2018; Dinan et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2020) augmented the dialogue context with retrieved knowledge before generation, our method is a post-generation reranking method. In particular, our rerankers operate on a set of over-generated (and thus semantically close) responses; we thus need to capture very subtle nuances between different response candidates.

Contrastive Learning for NLG. Contrastive learning (CL) (Chopra et al., 2005; Schröff et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2020; He et al., 2020) has been widely used in NLP for word-level (Mikolov et al., 2013; Vulić et al., 2021a; Liu et al., 2021b) and sentence representation learning (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019; Wu et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021a; Gao et al., 2021). Beyond representation learning, other work applies CL to open-ended text generation (Krishna et al., 2022; Su et al., 2022). However, as posited by Krishna et al. (2022), such a method may not be directly applicable to other generation tasks with a more constrained output space (e.g., NLG for ToD). For constrained generation tasks, Liu and Liu (2021) apply CL to post-generation reranking for abstractive summarisation, and An et al. (2022) use CL for five generation tasks, but none of them relates to dialogue.

3. Post-Generation Response Reranking

Motivation: An Oracle Experiment. In the ‘oracle’ experiment, where we assume the availability of the ground truth response, we first focus on examining the diversity of candidate responses generated by the underlying E2E ToD model, which would outline the potential of post-generation reranking. We rerank the set of 20 ‘oversampled’ responses from an E2E ToD system, using their sentence-level BLEU-based similarity to the ground truth. As revealed by Figure 2, when generating the 20 responses with the nucleus sampling method (Holtzman et al., 2020), we can find responses in those sets that are of much higher-quality (as measured by BLEU) as well as of much lower-quality than the standard greedy response. It is possible to improve BLEU up to 16.2 points if we always select the best response (according to BLEU) from the 20-response set.

The crucial issue is that at real-world ‘non-oracle’ inference we cannot leverage such ground truth responses. Observations from the oracle experiment indicate that: (i) there is ample room for improvement in NLG via reranking offering empirically driven motivation for our novel reranking methods, while (ii) we need to disentangle the critical dependency on the ground truth response from the reranking process.

Response Reranking: Preliminaries. The task is similar to response selection (Wu et al., 2017; Henderson et al., 2019; Humeau et al., 2020, among others). Given a dataset with \( n \) examples \( D = \{ D^{(1)}, D^{(2)}, \ldots, D^{(n)} \} \), each example \( D^{(i)} \in D \) contains the pair \( (c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}) \), where \( c^{(i)} \) is the dialogue context and \( r^{(i)} \) is the response; \( c^{(i)} \) and \( r^{(i)} \) denote their respective representations/embeddings. During training, the task is to learn a scoring function \( s(\cdot, \cdot) \) that assigns a matching score for any context–response pair. At inference, response reranking involves a dialogue model \( P_{\text{MLE}}(r \mid c) \) and an evaluation metric \( M(\cdot, \cdot) \). Given the context \( c \), we sample a set of responses \( R = \{ r_1, r_2, \ldots r_j \} \) from \( P_{\text{MLE}}(r \mid c) \). The task of a response reranker is to assign a score \( s(\cdot, \cdot) \) for each context–response pair and select a response based on this score, e.g., \( \text{argmax}_{r \in R} s(c, r) \). Response reranking is tasked to improve the evaluation score \( M(c, r) \).

3.1. Methodology

An effective response reranker for ToD should capture subtle differences among a set of highly similar candidates generated by a fine-tuned E2E ToD model. This setup is considerably more difficult than selecting the best response from randomly sampled confounders from a dialogue dataset (Henderson et al., 2019; Gunasekara et al., 2019). In a preliminary experiment, we followed
the standard response selection setup (Wu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2018; Gu et al., 2019) and aimed at distinguishing between the ground truth positive example from randomly sampled negatives. We found out that those baselines perform well on the response selection task but achieve near-random performance in our response reranking task focused on highly semantically similar candidate responses. Therefore, in what follows, we propose a novel fine-tuning framework to deal with the much more challenging (re)ranking scenario.

Method in a Nutshell. We train a generative E2E dialogue model $P_{\text{MLE}}(r | c)$ on a dialogue dataset $\mathcal{D}$. Subsequently, for each training example $(c, r)$ in the training set, we sample a set of responses $\mathcal{R} = \{r_1, r_2 \ldots r_j\}$ from $P_{\text{MLE}}(r | c)$, where $j$ denotes the number of over-generated responses. For each $r_k \in \mathcal{R}$, we calculate its score based on a scoring function $s_k = s(r_k, r)$, where $r$ is the representation of the ground truth response. Unless stated otherwise, the default scoring function is defined as the cosine similarity based on a general-purpose sentence encoder. We then cluster the sampled responses $\mathcal{R}$, based on their respective scores and a defined thresholding procedure (see §3.3), into a high-scoring set $\mathcal{R}_{\text{high}}$ and a low-scoring set $\mathcal{R}_{\text{low}}$. During training, the reranking model aims to directly capture the distinction between $\mathcal{R}_{\text{high}}$ and $\mathcal{R}_{\text{low}}$. At inference, the reranking model scores and ranks a candidate response $r_k$ based on the probability that the generated response is drawn from the high-scoring set, namely $P(r_k \in \mathcal{R}_{\text{high}} | c)$. Again, we stress that our reranking model does not require access to the ground truth during inference. Instead, the conditional probability serves as a ‘proxy’ function, indicating the likelihood that the candidate is indeed a valid response. This way, we make a transition from ‘oracle’-based training with ground truth to the ‘non-oracle’ inference.

Following Vušić et al. (2021b), we propose a two-stage fine-tuning procedure, with two types of reranking models in the second stage: a classification-based model and a similarity-based model, as illustrated in Figure 3. The framework can be applied on top of any input (Transformer-based) encoder $e = c_{\theta}(t)$ parameterised by $\theta$, which encodes textual input $t$ into a sentence embedding. Unless stated otherwise, we use BERT-base (Devlin et al., 2019) as our default encoder.

### 3.2. Stage 1: Response Selection

In Stage 1, we conduct adaptive fine-tuning in the response selection task (Vušić et al., 2021b), which transforms the input PLM into a text encoder that is better aligned with the end-task (Ruder, 2021) of response reranking. We rely on a standard cross-encoder architecture that directly models the interaction between the context and the candidate responses. Each data example is a tuple $(c, r, l)$, where $l \in \{0, 1\}$ is a binary label indicating if $r$ is the ground truth response to $c$. In fact, for each dialogue $(c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}) \in \mathcal{D}$, we construct a positive example $(c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}, 1)$. We then randomly sample a set of $N_s$ negative responses $\mathcal{R}_{i,-}$ per each positive response $r^{(i)}$ from other tuples following prior work on response selection: for each $r^{(j)} \in \mathcal{R}_{i,-}$ it holds $i \neq j$, and we construct final negative samples as follows: $(c^{(i)}, r^{(j)}, 0)$.

The goal of Stage 1 is to fine-tune the input PLM/encoder into a statistical model parameterised by $\theta$ to compute $P_{\theta}(l | c, r)$. Given a training example $(c, r, l)$, the model is trained to predict the correct label by encoding the concatenation of a context response pair $[c, r]$. To this end, the representation of the “[CLS]” token is subsequently projected down to two logits and passed through a softmax layer to form a Bernoulli distribution indicating the positive (1) or the negative (0) label.

### 3.3. Stage 2: Response Reranking

Each data entry for response reranking in Stage 2 is again a tuple $(c, r, l)$, where $l \in \{0, 1\}$ is a binary label. We construct those data entries as follows. First, for each dialogue item $(c, r) \in \mathcal{D}$, we generate a set of responses $\mathcal{R} = \{r_1, r_2 \ldots r_j\}$ and a greedy search response $r_{\text{search}}$. We then calculate a pair-wise score $s_k$ between each generated response $r_k \in \mathcal{R}$ and the ground truth response $r$, relying on some scoring function (e.g., cosine similarity between their sentence embeddings). Similarly, we calculate a score $s_{\text{search}}$ for the greedy search response $r_{\text{search}}$. The score $s_{\text{search}}$ is used as a local threshold value that splits the set of generated responses into positive (i.e., ‘high-quality’)
and negative (‘low-quality’) responses as follows.

If \( s_k \geq s_{\text{search}} \), we add the generated response \( r_k \) to the high-quality set \( R_{\text{high}} \); if \( s_k < s_{\text{search}} \), we add \( r_k \) to the set \( R_{\text{low}} \).5 Since the cardinality of the two sets may differ, we downsample the larger set to the size of the smaller one: \( \min(|R_{\text{high}}|, |R_{\text{low}}|) \). Following that, for each \( r_k \in R_{\text{high}} \), we construct a positive example for fine-tuning \((c, r_k, l)\); for each \( r_k \in R_{\text{low}} \), we construct a negative example \((c, r_k, 0)\). We construct such examples from the entire training set, and they are then used for two types of reranking: classification-based and similarity-based, described in what follows, with additional illustrations in Figure 6 in Appendix A.

Classification-Based Reranking. This procedure is identical to Stage 1. However, the reranking models now learn to rerank overgenerated (and semantically similar) responses according to positive and negative examples corresponding to respective sets \( R_{\text{high}} \) and \( R_{\text{low}} \). Given a training example \((c, r, l)\), the encoder first encodes the \([c, r]\) and the contextualised representation of the [CLS] token is subsequently used to compute \( P_{\theta}(l|c, r) \) as in Stage 1 using the standard cross-encoder architecture (e.g. Wolf et al., 2019; Urbanek et al., 2019). At inference, given \( c \) and a set of generated responses \( R \), we rank and select the final response based on its score: \( \arg \max_{\mathcal{R}} P(l = 1|c, r) \).

Similarity-Based Reranking. Similarity-based classification has demonstrated promising results in intent detection for ToD (Zhang et al., 2020a; Vulić et al., 2021b) and other NLP tasks (Sarwar et al., 2022; Kassner and Schütze, 2020), particularly when data is scarce. We thus also propose a similarity-based reranker in Stage 2, based on contrastive fine-tuning and KNN retrieval.

The aim is to fine-tune the input encoder so that it encodes all context-response pairs from \( R_{\text{high}} \) into coherent clusters, clearly separated from low-scoring pairs from \( R_{\text{low}} \). Here, we utilise the label \( l \) during training only implicitly, allowing us to formulate reranking as a sentence similarity task. In particular, for a training example \((c, r, l)\), the encoder first encodes \([c, r]\), where the encoding \( e = enc_{\theta}([c, r]) \) is created via mean-pooling over the constituent subwords’ embeddings.

We use the standard Triplet Loss (Schroff et al., 2015). For any pair of examples within a batch \((enc_{\theta}([c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}]), l^{(i)})\) and \((enc_{\theta}([c^{(j)}, r^{(j)}]), l^{(j)})\), the encoder parameters \( \theta \) are optimised to reduce the cosine distance between encodings of the pairs with the same label \( l^{(i)} = l^{(j)} \), and (ii) to increase the distance otherwise. After Stage 2, response scoring in the specialised encoder space \( enc_{\mathcal{S}} \) is then performed via similarity-based KNN inference (Zhang et al., 2020a; Vulić et al., 2021b), using a subset of training examples as anchors. For all anchors \((c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}, l^{(i)})\), we compute their encodings \( e^{(i)} = enc_{\mathcal{S}}([c^{(i)}, r^{(i)}]) \) in advance. For any candidate-response pair, we obtain its encoding \( e = enc_{\mathcal{S}}([c, r]) \). We retrieve a set of \( k \) nearest anchors from the full set of anchors. The scoring function \( s(\cdot, \cdot) \) is defined as the proportion within the \( k \) nearest anchors with a positive label. We select the final response as follows: \( \arg \max_{c \in \mathcal{R}} s(c, r) \).

4. Experimental Setup

Our main experiments focus on the standard multi-domain MultiWOZ ToD dataset (Budzianowski et al., 2018) in particular on its 2.0 version.

Baseline E2E System. The underlying E2E ToD system is MinTL (Lin et al., 2020), as a publicly available SotA model. It jointly learns dialogue state tracking and response generation with pretrained seq2seq models.4 However, we note that the proposed reranking method can be applied to any E2E dialogue system with autoregressive response generation (e.g., Wen et al., 2017; He et al., 2022).

Evaluation Metrics. Following the standard MultiWOZ setup, we use the corpus BLEU score (Papineni et al., 2002) as our primary evaluation metric, and all the scores are computed with delexicalised utterances based on the DAMD system (Zhang et al., 2020b).5 We also report ROUGE-L (Lin, 2004) and METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie, 2005) as two other standard NLG evaluation metrics.

Input PLMs for Reranking. Our method can be implemented with any Transformer-based (Vaswani et al., 2017) PLM. To analyse the impact of the input PLM (see Figure 3), we experiment with several popular PLMs: BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), and their distilled versions (Sanh et al., 2019). We additionally experiment with supervised sentence encoders: SimCSE (Gao et al., 2021) and other popular

4MinTL (Lin et al., 2020) was the SotA system for E2E NLG on the MultiWOZ leaderboard until the recently published GALAXY system (He et al., 2022) surpassed its performance by a 0.2 BLEU score. See the MultiWOZ leaderboard at https://github.com/budzianowski/multiwoz.

5In the case of delexicalised dialogues, all the slot values in the context and responses are replaced a predefined placeholder (e.g., [value name] is an [value price] [value food] restaurant on the [value area] . do you need to know more ?).
encoders from the sentence-transformers (i.e., SBERT) repository (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019). Table 8 in the appendix lists all the input models we use along with their checkpoinnts from the HuggingFace repository (Wolf et al., 2020).

**Hyperparameters and Optimisation.** The default decoding strategy for MinTL is the greedy search. In our reranking experiments, unless stated otherwise, we over-generate 20 responses with nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020) from the top-0.7 portion of the probability mass, a standard choice.

We implement all reranking models via the SBERT repository (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), which is built on top of the HuggingFace repository (Wolf et al., 2020). Table 6 in the appendix lists the set of hyperparameters (which differ from the default SBERT-suggested values), along with the finally set values. The grid search was conducted on the dev set, based on BLEU.

**Model Variants and Baselines.** We experiment with several model variants enabled by the proposed two-stage pipeline (see Figure 3):

- **PLM+S1+S2.** This variant refers to the full pipeline, where PLM is any input PLM from Table 8. Stage 1 (S1) fine-tuning can be based on either lexicalised dialogues (S1:lex) or delexicalised (S1:delex) dialogues. After S1, we can further fine-tune the ‘S1’ encoders via the classification-based or the similarity-based approach: S2:class and S2:sim. For instance, the configuration BERT+S1:delex+S2:sim denotes the use of BERT as the input PLM, with delexicalised dialogues in Stage 1, and similarity-based Stage 2.
- **PLM+S2.** This group is fine-tuned only relying on Stage 2 approaches, skipping Stage 1.
- **PLM+S1.** This group is fine-tuned only for response selection with in-domain data, ignoring S2.
- **PLM.** This variant refers to using out-of-the-box sentence encoders in the response reranking task. Since classification-based reranking requires a fine-tuned task-specific classification head, we only run our experiments with similarity-based reranking.

We also compare against two standard decoding strategies. 1) **Greedy.** Greedy search has been widely used as the default decoding strategy for NLG, also by the base MinTL system (Lin et al., 2020).[6] 2) **Sampling.** As mentioned, we apply nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020) to sample responses from the top-0.7 portion of the probability mass.

| Variant | Selection | R@1 | B | R | M |
|---------|-----------|-----|---|---|---|
| Random Sampling | 5.0 | 15.8 | 27.3 | 31.0 |
| Greedy | – | 18.0 | 31.2 | 35.6 |
| BERT† | – | 17.0 | 29.4 | 33.6 |
| SimCSE | – | 16.7 | 29.0 | 33.2 |
| all-mpnet | – | 16.0 | 27.6 | 31.8 |
| BERT+S1:delex† | 51.0 | 16.7 | 39.3 | 33.8 |
| BERT+S1:lex | 77.2 | 17.1 | 29.7 | 34.3 |
| DRoB+S1:delex | 48.0 | 16.8 | 29.0 | 33.4 |
| DRoB+S1:lex | 74.4 | 16.8 | 29.6 | 34.5 |

Table 1: Performance of representative out-of-the-box sentence encoders and response selection models on the standard Response **Selection** task (R@1 = Recall@1) and on the final Response **Reranking** task, relying on the MultiWOZ test set. Similarity-based reranking without S2 fine-tuning is reported. B=BLEU; R=ROUGE; M=METEOR. Additional results (incl., classification-based reranking) with more input models are available in Table 10 in Appendix C.

5. Results and Discussion

Before delving into the main results, we investigated the capability of standard response selection techniques from the literature to select the best response from the ‘overgenerated set’, with the scores summarised in Table 1: they reveal that the standard approaches are inadequate for our task, all scoring below the **Greedy** baseline.

5.1. Main Results

The main results are summarised in Table 2. They suggest that our classification-based reranker yields 20.0 BLEU, outperforming the stronger **Greedy** baseline by 2.0 points. Similar gains are achieved by our similarity-based variant. The comparison of results in Tables 2 and 1 further indicates the inadequacy of standard response selection methods in the reranking task, and the importance of Stage 2 fine-tuning: our two-stage reranking framework provides consistent and robust gains over the baselines across the board. Delving deeper into the model performance through ablation experiments, reported in Table 3, isolates the critical components responsible for the strong performance.

fault decoding methods for many SotA E2E systems (Lin et al., 2020, 2021; He et al., 2022) as they typically outperform sampling algorithms in terms of BLEU. This finding has also been corroborated by our ‘oracle’ experiment; see Figure 2.
Table 2: Reranking performance with selected model variants based on 20 over-generated responses from MinTL. Full results with other PLMs and variants are available in Table 11 in Appendix C.

| Variant | BLEU | ROUGE | METEOR |
|---------|------|-------|--------|
| Sampling  | 15.8 | 27.3  | 31.0   |
| Greedy   | 18.0 | 31.2  | 35.6   |
| **BERT Classification-based** | | | |
| +S2      | 19.4 | 32.1  | 36.4   |
| +S1:delex+S2 | 19.3 | 32.3  | 36.3   |
| +S1:lex+S2 | 19.3 | 32.1  | 36.2   |
| **quora-distilroberta Classification-based** | | | |
| +S2      | 19.6 | 32.0  | 36.1   |
| +S1:delex+S2 | 20.0 | 32.8  | 36.9   |
| +S1:lex+S2 | 19.8 | 32.6  | 36.7   |
| **BERT Similarity-based** | | | |
| +S2      | 18.6 | 30.8  | 34.8   |
| +S1:delex+S2 | 19.6 | 32.0  | 36.5   |
| +S1:lex+S2 | 19.1 | 31.7  | 36.0   |

Table 3: Ablations on the two best-performing reranking models. We can replace cross-encoders in the classification-based model with the bi-encoder architecture: it encodes contexts and responses separately sharing the encoder’s weights; it was trained via the Softmax loss (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019).

| Variant | BLEU |
|---------|------|
| **quora-distilroberta Classification-based** | |
| +S2      | 20.0 |
| - self-generated positives | 13.7 (.63) |
| - multiple positives | 19.1 (.08) |
| - cross-encoders (+ bi-encoders) | 15.4 (.46) |
| **Similarity-based** | |
| BERT+S1:delex+S2 | 19.6 |
| - self-generated positives | 15.2 (.44) |
| - multiple positives | 19.2 (.04) |

Self-Generated Positives: Previous work (Krishna et al., 2022) utilises self-generated sentences only to construct negative examples for contrastive learning. Put simply, the model in prior work is trained to select the provided ground truth among self-generated examples. However, for our response reranking task, we need to select the best response from a set where all the items are self-generated. The results suggest that, modelling self-generated responses as positives in S2 (i.e., creating the set $R_{high}$) is crucial for the reranking effectiveness. The performance degrades considerably for both S2 variants without self-generated positives in S2. The results further suggest that incorporating multiple positive pairs into the same batch yields slight performance gains for both S2 variants.

Cross-Encoders: Encoding context-response pairs with cross-encoders instead of using bi-encoders (Humeau et al., 2020; Henderson et al., 2020) leads to better performance. Cross-encoders are able to capture finer-grained interactions between the context and the response (Geigle et al., 2022), which is pivotal for the response reranking task dealing with subtle variations in the semantically close candidate responses. Further, cross-encoders also enable our similarity-based reranking models.

5.2. Further Analysis

We now analyse other important aspects of the proposed reranking framework, running a series of side experiments, with additional analyses of (arguably) lower importance available in Appendix C.

Impact of the Input Encoder. Figure 5 shows the reranking performance with different encoders. Interestingly, the distilled PLMs achieve performance

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8 Cross-encoders usually perform better than bi-encoders with the caveat of reduced efficiency (Urbanek et al., 2019), but they are typically used exactly in reranking contexts (Geigle et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022) similar to ours.
which is on-par with larger models; see also Figures 8-9 in Appendix C. Further, sentence encoders such as SimCSE and quora-distilroberta do not yield any gains over the other encoders.

**Evaluation Metrics as Scoring Functions.** Table 4 and Table 12 in Appendix C indicate that the gains are consistent across all three automatic evaluation metrics. Moreover, using any of the three metrics as the scoring function $s$ in $S_2$—dividing generated samples into the sets $R_{high}$ and $R_{low}$ (see §3.3)—yields gains on all the other metrics as well. Naturally, higher scores per each evaluation metric are typically achieved when the same metric is used as the scoring function in $S_2$. However, such a setup might provide artificially inflated metric-specific performance; a better indicator of effectiveness and robustness is the evaluation metric-agnostic model variant used throughout the paper (i.e., the row Similarity in Table 4), which relies on the standard cosine similarity to do partitioning in Stage 2.

**Impact of the Candidate Set Size.** Figure 4 plots the reranking performance conditioned on a varying number of overgenerated responses during inference. The curves indicate that (i) both reranking variants already outperform the Greedy search baseline and achieve Sota performance when the candidate set spans only three candidates; (ii) after the sharp increase in performance for the sizes 1-10, further increase in the candidate set size offers diminishing returns as performance saturates. In addition, Figure 4 (bottom) demonstrates that the reranking models outperform the Greedy baseline with only two overgenerated responses for training.

**Another ToD Dataset.** To test the generalisability of the proposed method, we also run experiments on the English portion of the BiToD dataset (Lin et al., 2021). The experimental setup is described in Appendix D, while the results are summarised in Table 5. Our reranking framework again yields gains over the baselines, verifying its robustness, but the gains are now less pronounced. Delving deeper into the roots of this result, we attribute this to BiToD’s data properties combined with the baseline system: mT5 (Xue et al., 2021), resulting in the lack of syntactic and semantic variability in MinTLs generated outputs on BiToD. On average, there are only 10.4 unique utterances within the set of 20 overgenerated items, compared to 17.8 for MultiWOZ, with cases where all the 20 generated responses are identical, which leaves meagre or no room for further improvement via reranking.

**Human Evaluation.** User satisfaction is always the ultimate goal of developing ToD systems (Ji et al., 2022). We thus additionally evaluate with human subjects, with the details on the setup in Appendix E. We follow suggestions from prior work (Fomicheva et al., 2021), and conduct comparative ‘A/B’ tests with 6 subjects, each scoring 100 dialogues. Each test item contains a dialogue context and three randomly ordered outputs from greedy search, classification-based reranker, and similarity-based reranker; the human participant’s task is to indicate pairwise preferences among the three outputs. The results indicate: (i) a 49.5% (0.5% less) preference for classification-based reranker over the greedy search (0.28 Fleiss’ Kappa); (ii) a 57.8% preference for similarity-based reranker over the greedy search baseline (0.26); (iii) a 55.8% preference for similarity-based reranker over the classification-based reranker (0.16). Overall, we see a slight preference towards similarly-based rerankers. However, we did not observe a strong inter-annotator agreement, as measured by Fleiss’ Kappa (Fleiss, 1971), as the scoring task is considered highly subjective, and most responses are similar and difficult to distinguish, even for humans (e.g., see an example in Figure 10). This evaluation difficulty again reflects the difficulty of our proposed reranking task as a particularly challenging modelling scenario for neural models.

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Figure 5: Reranking performance for different input PLMs trained with the entire fine-tuning pipeline (PLM+S1:delex+S2). Full results are in Appendix C.

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Table 5: Reranking performance based on 20 over-generated responses on English BiToD. B=BLEU; R=ROUGE; M=METEOR.

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\[\text{Table 5: Reranking performance based on 20 over-generated responses on English BiToD. B=BLEU; R=ROUGE; M=METEOR.}\]

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\[\text{Figure 4 plots the reranking performance conditioned on a varying number of overgenerated responses during inference. The curves indicate that (i) both reranking variants already outperform the Greedy search baseline and achieve Sota performance when the candidate set spans only three candidates; (ii) after the sharp increase in performance for the sizes 1-10, further increase in the candidate set size offers diminishing returns as performance saturates. In addition, Figure 4 (bottom) demonstrates that the reranking models outperform the Greedy baseline with only two overgenerated responses for training.}\]

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\[\text{The number of overgenerated samples for inference is critical for real-world applications; inference time scales linearly with this number; see more in the Limitations section.}\]

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\[\text{Following Welleck et al. (2020), we run 2-sided binomial tests indicating the significance of the human preference. See detailed results in Table 14 in Appendix E.}\]
6. Conclusion

We proposed a novel post-generation reranking method applicable to any end-to-end (E2E) task-oriented dialogue (ToD) system. The reranking is formulated as a two-stage conversational fine-tuning procedure that transforms any input pre-trained LM into a specialised in-domain reranker which can operate on the sets of generated responses from the E2E ToD system. Combined with a strong E2E ToD system, our reranking models improved E2E dialogue generation performance on standard ToD benchmarks, and achieved new state-of-the-art results on the MultiWOZ benchmark, complemented with favourable human evaluation. Our method operates at inference time, showing adaptability to the rapidly evolving paradigms of ToD systems. A promising avenue for future research is to explore its integration with large language models and in-context learning within ToD systems.

7. Limitations

One limitation of the proposed reranking is of practical nature and concerns its dependence on two expensive operations: overgeneration and reranking. In theory, the time complexity of overgeneration scales linearly with the number of outputs, similarly to the beam size for beam search. In practice, we observe that, with the HuggingFace implementation (Wolf et al., 2020), sampling 10 responses doubles the time consumption compared to sampling a single response. In addition, unlike beam search, this over-sampling can easily be parallelised for real-world applications. Our method improves the baseline even if we only generate three responses during inference (see Figure 4). Reranking is less time-demanding, and it takes $\sim$2 minutes on a single GPU (see Appendix B) for the full MultiWOZ test set with 20 candidates. In future work, we will explore more parameter-efficient methods for over-generation.

Our proposed reranking method is versatile and opens up many further extensions and experimentation beyond the scope and confines of this paper. For instance, we might incorporate the ordering of the self-generated responses and replace the current contrastive loss functions with other recent effective contrastive losses (Zhou et al., 2020; Liu and Liu, 2021). Furthermore, this paper only explores out-of-box dialogue generation models without further fine-tuning. However, as the comparison of absolute gains on MultiWOZ versus BiToD indicates, increasing response diversity leads to a better reranking model and better performance. In future work, we will put more effort on diversifying the set of overgenerated responses in order to harvest more benefits of reranking.

The current work is also limited only to experiments with the English language, also due to the lack of suitable ToD training data for other languages (Razumovskaia et al., 2022). The recent release of the Multi3WOZ dataset (Hu et al., 2023) expands the linguistic scope, additionally support model training for Arabic, French, and Turkish. With this new resource, we also plan to extend our model to languages beyond English, as well as other dialogue-generation tasks (e.g. open-domain dialogue generation).

Finally, our work again outlines the complexity and limitations of current evaluation protocols for E2E ToD and ToD in general, as well as the importance of reporting multiple automatic and human-based evaluation metrics.

8. Ethics Statement

The experimental study obtained full Ethics Approval from the University of Cambridge in advance. Our participants were recruited within the university who volunteered to join our experiment. They are students and academic staff who are proficient in English. The consent is obtained by signing a consent form. In addition, our models leverage two data sources: the MultiWOZ dataset and the pre-training data of each PLM employed in this study. Particularly, this dataset consists solely of hypothetical dialogues in which the domains and content have been restricted and predefined, minimising the risk of personal data being present. On the other hand, it is important to acknowledge that although these PLMs are publicly available, there exists a potential risk of privacy violations (Brown et al., 2022; Carlini et al., 2021).

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Figure 6: Different reranking variants in Stage 2.

A. Reranking Variants in Stage 2

Figure 6 illustrates the two proposed approaches for Stage 2 fine-tuning, with detailed descriptions available in the main paper (see §3.1).

B. Experimental Details

We run all our experiments on a single RTX 24 GiB GPU.

Table 6 lists the search set of our model hyperparameters. Unless mentioned otherwise, all the hyperparameters are set to the default values provided in the SBERT repository. For the classification-based response reranking training, the batch size is 64. For similarity-based reranking training, the batch size is 128. Both batch size values are determined as the maximum values based on our hardware (see above).

Table 8 lists all the PLMs we used in this work, along with their respective checkpoints in the Huggingface repository.

Table 9 shows time consumption of our proposed ranking models for fine-tuning and inference. The time consumption is measured based on five independent runs for the BERT-based models on the MultiWOZ dataset.

Impact of Random Initialisation. For our best-performing models, we ran five independent runs with different random seeds. The main finding is that the scores exhibit small-to-negligible variance across different runs. Namely, our best-performing classification-based model achieves the BLEU score of 19.96 ± 0.16, and our similarity-based model achieves the BLEU score of 19.59 ± 0.09.

C. Additional Results on MultiWOZ

To solidify our findings in this paper, we list additional experimental results which offer further empirical support for our main claims:

Table 10 shows the results of standard response selection techniques from the literature (i.e., effectively running only S1 in our pipeline) to select the best response from the sets of overgenerated candidates. All the model variants score lower than

| Hyper-parameter | Value |
|-----------------|-------|
| Stage 1: Response Selection |
| batch size       | 64    |
| context window   | 128   |
| max sequence length | 128       |
| training epoch   | 10    |
| candidate size   | 20    |

| Stage 2: Response Reranking |
|-----------------------------|
| batch size                  | {64, 128} |
| context window              | 3       |
| max sequence length         | 128     |
| training epoch              | 5       |
| BatchAllTripletLoss margin  | 5       |

Table 6: Model hyper-parameters. (*) For each dialogue $(d^{(i)}, r^{(i)}) \in D$, the candidate size for response selection training is 20. In other words, there are 1 positive response $r^{(i)}$ and 19 negative responses $R_{i,-}$. For each $r^{(j)} \in R_{i,-}$ it holds $i \neq j$.

| Hyper-parameter | Value |
|-----------------|-------|
| Stage 1: Response Selection |
| batch size       | 64    |
| context window   | 3     |
| max sequence length | 128       |
| training epoch   | 10    |
| candidate size   | 20    |

| Stage 2: Response Reranking |
|-----------------------------|
| batch size                  | {64, 128} |
| context window              | 3       |
| max sequence length         | 128     |
| training epoch              | 5       |
| BatchAllTripletLoss margin  | 5       |

Table 7: BiToD experiments: model hyperparameters.

| Model              | HuggingFace Checkpoint |
|--------------------|------------------------|
| BERT               | bert-base-uncased       |
| RoBERTa            | roberta-base            |
| DistilBERT         | distilbert-base-uncased |
| DistilRoBERTa      | distilroberta-base      |
| SimCSE             | princeton-nlp/sup-simcse-bert-base-uncased |
| MiniLM             | sentence-transformers/all-MiniLM-L12-v2 |
| all-mpnet-v2       | sentence-transformers/all-mpnet-base-v2 |
| quora-distilroberta| cross-encoder/quora-distilroberta-base |

Table 8: Input PLMs.
The standard Greedy search baseline in the reranking task despite the fact that S1 in-domain fine-tuning increases their response selection capabilities (e.g., compare their R@1 scores versus the random baseline). Moreover, the results indicate that selecting an utterance based on delexicalised dialogue contexts is harder than with lexicalised dialogues.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 demonstrate the reranking performance with different input PLMs, measured by the ROUGE and METEOR score, respectively (see also §5.2).

Table 11 provides the results with different input PLMs in our comparison with the full fine-tuning pipeline. From this table, sentence encoders do not provide advantages over PLMs. Table 11 can be seen as an expanded version of Figure 5, Figure 8, and Figure 9.

Table 12 displays reranking performance of the BERT+S1:delex+S2 model variant with different scoring functions in Stage 2 for partitioning responses into the sets R_{high} and R_{low}. Due to a high similarity between patterns observed with Classification-based and Similarity-based S2 reranking, we show only a Classification-based partition of the full table in the main paper: Table 4.

Table 13 provides the results with the BERT+S1:delex+S2 model variant with varying dialogue history/context size. Both classification-based and similarity-based rerankers utilise the historical dialogue context and require at least 2 preceding historical utterances to be effective. However, there is no discernible correlation between the reranking performance and the dialogue context size further beyond. In other words, by increasing or decreasing the number of the input historical utterances, the reranking performance does not catastrophically degrade, when more than two historical utterances are available.

D. Experimental Setup on BiToD

BiToD (Lin et al., 2021) is a bilingual (English and Chinese) multi-domain dataset for end-to-end task-oriented dialogue modelling. For our experiments,
Table 10: Response selection and response reranking performance on the MultiWOZ test set with standard response selection models and out-of-box sentence encoders. n/a = non-applicable.

| Variant         | Response Selection | Classification-based Reranking | Similarity-based Reranking |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                 |                    | @1    BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR   | BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR      |
| Random Baseline |                    | 5.0   15.8   27.3   31.0   | 15.8   27.3   31.0        |
| Sentence Encoders |                   |       |                   |                         |
| BERT            | n/a               | n/a   n/a    n/a    17.0   29.4   33.6   |
| SimCSE          | n/a               | n/a   n/a    n/a    16.7   29.0   33.2   |
| quora-distilroberta |               | n/a   n/a    n/a    15.9   27.7   32.0   |
| all-mpnet       | n/a               | n/a   n/a    n/a    16.0   27.6   31.8   |
| Response Selection Models |   |       |                   |                         |
| BERT+S1:delex   | 51.0              | 16.2   29.0   34.2   | 16.7   39.3   33.8   |
| DistilRoBERTa+S1:delex |   | 48.0   16.1   38.9   33.7   | 16.6   29.0   33.4   |
| quora-distilroberta+S1:delex |   | 50.5   16.3   28.8   33.6   | 16.6   29.1   33.9   |
| quora-distilroberta+S1:lex |   | 74.4   15.0   27.7   32.4   | 16.6   29.6   34.5   |
| all-mpnet+S1:delex |   | 74.9   15.2   27.9   32.8   | 16.2   28.6   33.2   |

Table 11: Response reranking models trained with the full fine-tuning pipeline with different input PLMs. ↓ denotes a lower performance compared to the counterpart model trained with delexicalised dialogues.

| Variant         | Classification-based Reranking | Similarity-based Reranking |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                 | BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR   | BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR      |
| BERT+S1:delex+S2 | 19.3   32.3    36.3   | 19.6   32.0    36.5   |
| DistilBERT+S1:delex+S2 | 19.8   32.6    36.7   | 19.5   32.3    36.7   |
| RoBERTa+S1:delex+S2 | 19.7   32.5    36.8   | 15.9   28.5    33.1   |
| DistilRoBERTa+S1:delex+S2 | 19.5   32.4    36.7   | 19.2   32.0    36.8   |
| BERT+S1:lex+S2   | 19.3   32.1↓   36.2↓   | 19.1↓   31.7↓   36.0↓   |
| DistilBERT+S1:lex+S2 | 19.7↓   32.4↓   36.5↓   | 19.8   32.1↓   36.5↓   |
| RoBERTa+S1:lex+S2 | 19.9   32.7    36.7   | 19.0   31.7    36.3   |
| DistilRoBERTa+S1:lex+S2 | 19.4↓   32.1↓   36.3↓   | 18.6↓   31.8↓   37.1   |
| Sentence Encoders |                                   |                           |
| MiniLM+S1:delex+S2 | 19.9   32.4    36.5   | 19.0   32.0    37.1   |
| all-mpnet+S1:delex+S2 | 19.7   32.4    36.5   | 18.9   32.1    36.9   |
| SimCSE+S1:delex+S2  | 19.3   32.0    36.0   | 19.4   32.1    36.7   |
| quora-distilroberta+S1:delex+S2 | 20.0   32.8    36.9   | 19.1   31.4    35.9   |
| MiniLM+S1:lex+S2   | 19.3↓   31.9↓   35.9↓   | 18.9↓   31.4↓   35.8↓   |
| all-mpnet+S1:lex+S2 | 19.6   32.3    36.5   | 18.8   31.5    35.8   |
| SimCSE+S1:lex+S2    | 19.5   32.4    36.5   | 19.0↓   31.4↓   35.7↓   |
| quora-distilroberta+S1:lex+S2 | 19.8↓   32.6↓   36.7↓   | 18.3↓   31.3↓   35.9   |

Table 12: Reranking performance of the BERT+S1:delex+S2 model variant with different scoring functions in Stage 2 for partitioning responses into the sets $R_{high}$ and $R_{low}$. For the models with ROUGE and METEOR as scoring functions, we perform model selection based on the best ROUGE and METEOR performance, respectively.

| S2 Scoring / Evaluation | Classification-based Reranking | Similarity-based Reranking |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                         | BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR   | BLEU   ROUGE   METEOR      |
| Greedy                  | 18.0   31.2    35.6   | 18.0   31.2    35.6   |
| Similarity              | 13.3   32.3    36.3   | 19.6   32.4    36.5   |
| BLEU                    | 19.7   33.2    37.2   | 19.6   32.4    36.5   |
| ROUGE                   | 20.7   33.6    37.6   | 19.6   32.6    36.4   |
| METEOR                  | 18.2   33.4    40.0   | 17.2   32.5    39.1   |

Table 12: Reranking performance of the BERT+S1:delex+S2 model variant with different scoring functions in Stage 2 for partitioning responses into the sets $R_{high}$ and $R_{low}$. For the models with ROUGE and METEOR as scoring functions, we perform model selection based on the best ROUGE and METEOR performance, respectively.

we only use the English partition of the whole dataset, which contains 2,952/295/442 dialogues for training/validation/testing. BiToD covers five domains: attraction, hotel, restaurant, weather, and
| Context Size | Classification-based Reranking | Similarity-based Reranking |
|-------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
|             | BLEU  | ROUGE | METEOR | BLEU  | ROUGE | METEOR |
| 1           | 16.7  | 29.8  | 34.5   | 16.7  | 29.7  | 34.5   |
| 2           | 19.2  | 32.4  | 36.7   | 18.8  | 32.3  | 37.2   |
| 3           | 19.3  | 32.3  | 36.3   | 19.6  | 32.0  | 36.5   |
| 4           | 19.5  | 32.4  | 36.6   | 19.2  | 31.5  | 35.7   |
| 5           | 19.4  | 32.3  | 36.2   | 19.6  | 32.1  | 36.2   |

Table 13: Reranking performance of the BERT+S1:delex+S2 variant with different context window sizes. The context window size is the number of historical dialogue utterances for the reranking models. We choose the same window size for fine-tuning at Stage 1, and note that the default context window size for the MinTL model is 3.

...continued...

E. Human Evaluation

We invited six human participants to join our human evaluation experiments. Each annotator answered 100 questions indicating preferences over different model outputs. Those questions are formalised as A/B tests. Recently, comparative evaluation measurements have been shown to be more robust in human evaluation (Fomicheva et al., 2021). As demonstrated by Figure 10, given a dialogue context, the human evaluators are instructed to select better responses from pairs of responses generated from different models. We have compared among outputs from our classification-based models (quora-distilroberta), similarity-based models (BERT), and the greedy search baseline (best performing models in Table 2). The ordering of the tasks and models is completely randomised.

Table 14 shows full evaluation results. In addition, Table 15 shows some example dialogues in the MultiWOZ test set, where the similarity-based reranked response is strongly preferred.

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11The relevant departmental ethics committee has approved this experimental study. Our participants were recruited within the university who volunteered to join our experiment. They are students and academic staff who are proficient in English. The consent is obtained by signing a consent form.
| Method A vs Method B | # of A | # of B | % of A | % of B | Total # | Fleiss’ Kappa |
|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------------|
| Classification-based vs Greedy | 297    | 303    | 49.5   | 50.5   | 600     | 0.28         |
| Similarity-based vs Greedy | 347    | 253    | *57.8  | *42.2  | 600     | 0.26         |
| Similarity-based vs Classification-based | 335    | 265    | *55.8  | *44.2  | 600     | 0.16         |

Table 14: Number (#) and percentage (%) of preferred responses during human A/B testing. Fleiss’ Kappa is listed as a measure of inter-annotator agreement. * denotes statistical significance (2-sided binomial test, p < .05).

Example 1

| History | Ground Truth | Greedy | Classification-based | Similarity-based |
|---------|--------------|--------|----------------------|------------------|
| U: i would recommend christ’s college. it is free to visit. | S: you are welcome, please contact us if we can help you with anything else. | S: the postcode is [value_postcode]. is there anything else i can help you with? | S: you are welcome, have a great day! | S: ok, you are welcome, have a great day! |

Example 2

| History | Ground Truth | Greedy | Classification-based | Similarity-based |
|---------|--------------|--------|----------------------|------------------|
| U: i am planning a trip in cambridge | S: the address is [value_address] and the phone number is [value_phone]. would you like to make a reservation for you? | S: [value_name] is an [value_food] restaurant in the [value_area]. their address is [value_address]. their phone number is [value_phone]. | S: the address is [value_address] and the phone number is [value_phone]. | the address is [value_address], and the phone number is [value_phone]. |

Example 3

| History | Ground Truth | Greedy | Classification-based | Similarity-based |
|---------|--------------|--------|----------------------|------------------|
| U: thank you, can you also book a taxi for me? | S: i will work on getting that booked for you. | S: i can help with that, where will you be departing from? | S: your taxi has been booked. it will be a [value_car] and the contact number is [value_phone]. | S: your taxi is booked. it will be a [value_car] and the contact number is [value_phone]. |

Example 4

| History | Ground Truth | Greedy | Classification-based | Similarity-based |
|---------|--------------|--------|----------------------|------------------|
| S: tr8259 will arrive in cambridge at 10:23. would you like me to book a ticket for you on that train? | S: okay there are [value_choice] options, do you have a price preference or area | S: i am sorry, but i don’t have any [value_type] that meet your criteria, would you like to try a different price range or area? | S: okay, what area would you like to stay in? | S: i can help you with that, what area of town are you wanting to stay in? |

Table 15: Selected example dialogues and corresponding responses where all five evaluators prefer the similarity-based reranked output compared to the greedy search output. S: system, U: user.
Figure 10: Human evaluation: an example task for human-based A/B testing.