Language Resources for Multi-Modal Dialogue Systems

Oliver Lemon and Alexander Gruenstein

Center for the Study of Language and Information
Stanford University
210 Panama Street, Stanford
CA 94305
{lemon, alexgru@csli.stanford.edu}

Abstract
This paper reviews a resource base of software agents for hub-based architectures, which can be used generally for advanced dialogue systems research and deployment. The problem of domain-specificity of dialogue managers is discussed, and we describe an approach to it developed at CSLI, involving a domain-general dialogue manager with application specific “Activity Models”. We also describe relevant grammar development tools.

1. Introduction
The limited portability of dialogue-interfaces is currently a barrier to their development and more widespread use. We present and demonstrate new resources developed at CSLI and elsewhere which can be used (in tandem with existing “off-the-shelf” components) to build multi-modal dialogue systems for a range of applications, each bringing their own activities and vocabulary to dialogues. We shall show that a rich resource base of software agents now exists for hub-based architectures (e.g. Galaxy Communicator (Seneff et al., 1998), OAA (Martin et al., 1999)), which can be used generally for advanced dialogue systems research and deployment.

In Section 3, we survey the components which are now available, but we first discuss common approaches and problems.

A variety of researchers have built “toolkits” for the development of dialogue systems (e.g. the OGI Toolkit (McTear, 1998), TrinidiKit (Larsson et al., 2000; Larsson and Traum, 2000)), but these have been limited to simple dialogues which are essentially pre-scripted by a developer, either as Finite State Machines or Form-filling systems (e.g. a list of questions to resolve in order to buy airline tickets). However, some current research systems handle complex non-scriptable dialogues which enable a human user to interact with a device performing co-operative activities, such as searching for objects (e.g. (Lemon et al., 2001a; Lemon et al., 2001c)). The usual problem with such systems is that their central component, the “Dialogue Manager”, is application-specific, thus making them unsuitable candidates for developer toolkits for more flexible and useful dialogue systems. For example, the Pegasus, Orion, Mercury, and Jupiter systems developed at MIT (Zue et al., 1994; Seneff, 2000; Seneff and Polifroni, 2000; Zue, 2000) each have domain-specific dialogue managers, with around 350 rules each. The time and expertise needed to develop such dialogue managers by hand prohibits more widespread development and deployment of the technology.

Conceptually, however, it is clear that there is a domain-independent level of conversational competence exhibited by humans. For instance, a question deserves in answer, regardless of what “domain” that question is about. Likewise, a command or instruction changes conversational context such that certain responses are responses to that utterance, and others are not. Capturing this level of abstraction to “speech acts” or “dialogue moves” computationally allows us to build domain-general dialogue management tools (see (Lemon et al., 2002 submitted), and Figure 1).

CSLI’s dialogue manager architecture and code-base enables the construction of dialogue systems for human dialogues with complex applications (e.g. the WITAS robotic helicopter, intelligent tutoring systems). The core of the system is a set of abstract Dialogue Move classes (implemented in Java), such as ‘wh-question’ or ‘command’, which contain no application-specific information, but which encode general conversational functions associated with particular speech acts (e.g. make a new NP the most salient). This resource is used in dialogue management to update conversational context, including building a “Dialogue Move Tree” representing conversational threads.

But if dialogue-management is to be domain-general, how does interaction with the underlying application take place? We have abstracted a simple language (see Section 1. Introduction).
2.) for specifying the “Activities” that an application can carry out (c.f. ‘recipes’ in COLLAGEN (Rich et al., 2001)), such that a developer need only specify activities, together with lexical cues for them, in order to “dialogue-enable” an application. Similar work is underway by (Rayner et al., 2002 in press). The next section outlines this idea.

2. Activity Models

The applications which we wish to “dialogue-enable” using conversational interfaces are capable of performing some basic activities or actions (possibly simultaneously). Some applications know only how to carry out sequences of atomic activities, in which case it is the dialogue system’s job to decompose linguistically-specified high-level activities (e.g. “record the film on channel 4 tonight”) into a sequence of appropriate basic actions for the device. In this case a declarative “Activity Model” (see Figure 2) for the application states how linguistically-specified activities can be decomposed into sequences of atomic actions. This model also states traditional planning and resource constraints such as preconditions and postconditions of actions. In this way, a relatively “stupid” device (e.g. with little or no planning capabilities) can be made into a more intelligent device when it is dialogue-enabled.

We choose to focus on building this class of dialogue systems because we share with (Allen et al., 2001), a version of the the Practical Dialogue Hypothesis:

“The conversational competence required for practical dialogues, although still complex, is significantly simpler to achieve than general human conversational competence.”

Of course, applications may be able to plan and initiate actions themselves. Dialogue is then also used to re-specify constraints, revise activities, and monitor the progress of tasks. We propose one representation and reasoning scheme to cover the spectrum of cases from applications with no planning capabilities to those exhibiting more impressive AI. Both dialogue manager and application have access to a single “Activity Tree” which is a shared (and thus co-ordinated) representation of current and planned activities and their execution status, involving temporal and hierarchical ordering (in fact, one can think of the Activity Tree as a HTN for the application). Applications can then use the full resources of the dialogue system to report execution progress of activities, and engage the user in collaborative dialogue about them.

We now turn to a selection of available software agents for building end-to-end dialogue systems.

3. Software Agents

A collection of resources (Dialogue Manager, Activity Manager) and wrappers to “off-the-shelf” systems (Speech Recognizer, Speech Synthesizer, Parser, Generator) has been developed at CSLI as a set of portable software agents in Java, under the Open Agent Architecture (OAA2). Agents are available at our website.

The core of the architecture is OAA2’s “facilitator” which manages asynchronous message passing between a number of software agents which are specialists in certain tasks, for example speech recognition, database queries, or graphical display. In our current system there are six main agents each responsible for various subtasks in the dialogue system (see Figure 3):

1. NL (natural language): a Prolog wrapper to SRI’s “Gemini” unification-based parser and generator, using a grammar for human-robot conversation developed at CSLI.
2. SR (speech recognizer): a Java wrapper to a Nuance 8 speech recognition server using a language model compiled directly from the Gemini grammar (with the consequences that every recognized utterance has a logical form, and that every logical form can be mapped to a surface string).
3. TTS (text-to-speech): a Java wrapper to the Festival 1.4.3 speech synthesiser (Black et al., 1999), for system speech output.
4. GUI: an interactive map display of the current operating environment which displays route plans, waypoints, locations of vehicles including the robot, and allows deictic reference (i.e. mouse pointing) by the user.
5. DM (dialogue manager): co-ordinates multi-modal inputs from the user, interprets dialogue moves made by the user and application, updates and maintains the dialogue context, handles reports and questions, and sends speech and graphical outputs to the user (Java).
6. Activity Layer: translates commands and queries from the dialogue interface into commands and queries to the back-end application, and vice-versa for reports and queries received from the application. Uses an Activity Model (see Section 2.) and a realtime CORBA communication layer (Java, JaCORBA).

2 All are implemented in Java, but for the NL agent (Prolog).
Figure 2: A “Locate” Activity Model for a robot, exhibiting collaborative dialogue

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Figure 2: A “Locate” Activity Model for a robot, exhibiting collaborative dialogue.

// locate is "find-by-type", collaborative activity.
// Breaks find into subactivities: watch_for, follow, ask_complete.
{ResourcesUsed {camera;} // will be checked for conflicts.
PreConditions // check truth of KIF statements.
  { (Status flight inair) (Status engine ok) (Status fuel ok); }
SkipConditions // skip this Activity if KIF condition true.
  { (Status locked-on THIS.np); }
PostConditions// assert these KIF statements when completed.
  { (Status locked-on THIS.np); }
Children SEQ // sequential sub-activities.
  {TaskProperties
    {command = "watch_for"; // basic robot action ---
      np = THIS.np;} // set sensors to search.
  TaskProperties
    {command = "follow_phobj"; // triggers another complex activity
      np = THIS.np;} // following a candidate object.
  TaskProperties // collaborative dialogue action:
    {command = "ask_complete"; // asks user whether this is
      np = THIS.np;} // the object we are looking for.
```

Although the GUI map and database is domain specific, the methods used in the system to determine the reference of GUI gestures (mouse clicks) are general, and can be reused in a variety of contexts\(^3\). Variants of some of these components have been used in other dialogue systems, notably SRI’s CommandTalk (Stent et al., 1999), the NASA Personal Satellite Assistant (Rayner et al., 2000), and the robot control system of (Guzzoni et al., 1996).

As well as the components mentioned above, the following components also have wrappers developed for use in dialogue systems development under OAA (this is not a full listing, but is as comprehensive as I can be at the time of writing)\(^4\):

- Java Theorem Prover (Java, CSLI)
- SNARK theorem prover (Stickel et al., 2000) (Lisp, SRI)
- IBM ViaVoice speech synthesizer (C, SRI)
- Bliksem theorem prover for first-order logic, translates Discourse Representation Structures (DRS) to first-order formulae (Prolog, HCRC)
- Spass theorem prover for first-order logic, translates DRS to first-order formulae (Prolog, HCRC)
- Dipper Dialogue Move Engine (Prolog, HCRC)
- Finder, model builder for first-order logic, inputs are DRS (Prolog, HCRC)
- MACE, model-builder for first-order logic, inputs are DRS (Prolog, HCRC)
- Heyu, X-10 device control interface (HCRC)
- Left corner parser (Prolog, HCRC)
- Racer, decription logic theorem prover (Prolog, HCRC)
- TrindiKit dialogue management toolkit (Larsson and Traum, 2000) (Prolog, Gothenburg University)

The main sites for these efforts have been SRI, the NASA Rialist group, HCRC (Edinburgh), Gothenburg University (Department of Linguistics), and CSLI (Stanford University).

Various components also exist for the Galaxy Communicator hub architecture. See the Galaxy Communicator “Open Source Toolkit” at [http://communicator.sourceforge.net/download/index.html](http://communicator.sourceforge.net/download/index.html). This includes:

- JSAPI wrapper for IBM ViaVoice or other JSAPI-compliant recognizers
- wrapper for Sphinx speech recognizer
- wrapper for Phoenix parser
- wrappers for Festival, TrueTalk speech synthesizers
- MITRE dialogue manager

3.1. Grammar Compilation

In terms of grammar development, there are also a number of compilers, for converting Unification Grammars (e.g. developed in Gemini) into context free grammars which can be used to build language models for Nuance speech recognition. For example:

\(^3\)e.g. any application where items are selected by point-and-click gestures. Dragging and dropping would be nice to add.

\(^4\)Where possible I note in parentheses the language used and the institution at which the work is based.
three ways: interpretation, generation (if the system is bi-
play” grammars (Rayner et al., 2002 in press) allow appli-
cations and devices to bring their own specific vocabulary
and grammar rules to a domain general “core” grammar,
and use them on the fly.

Another challenge is that multiple application-specific
grammars are often used for parsing, generation, and
speech recognition. Recent developments in “plug-and-
play” grammars (Rayner et al., 2002 in press) allow appli-
cations and devices to bring their own specific vocabulary
and grammar rules to a domain general “core” grammar,
and use them on the fly.

4. Conclusion
We described a number of software resources available
for advanced dialogue systems research and deployment.
These include hub architectures, parsers, speech recogniz-
ers, speech synthesizers, dialogue managers, and toolkits,
as well as development tools such as software for compiling
unification grammars to context-free grammars for speech
recognition.

At CSLI, these tools have been used to rapidly proto-
type dialogue systems for interaction with intelligent au-
tonomous devices such as mobile robots (Lemon et al.,
2001c) and intelligent tutoring systems (Clark et al., 2001).

We also discussed the problem of domain-specificity of
dialogue systems – a problem which is especially acute in
the core area of dialogue management. We outlined the
approach taken to this at CSLI, based on the representation
of domain-specific “activity models” for devices, applica-
tions, or services. This allows dialogue management to be
handled in a general fashion, in our case using abstract “di-
alone move” classes to build and update a “dialogue move
tree” representing dynamic dialogue context.

More information and demos see http://
www-csli.stanford.edu/semlab/witas/
Other applications include interaction with avatars and
computer-generated characters in video games (Lemon,
2002).
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