Leveraging Pre-Trained Language Models to Streamline Natural Language Interaction for Self-Tracking

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Abstract

Current natural language interaction for self-tracking tools largely depends on bespoke implementation optimized for a specific tracking theme and data format, which is neither generalizable nor scalable to a tremendous design space of self-tracking. However, training machine learning models in the context of self-tracking is challenging due to the wide variety of tracking topics and data formats. In this paper, we propose a novel NLP task for self-tracking that extracts close- and open-ended information from a retrospective activity log described as a plain text, and a domain-agnostic, GPT-3-based NLU framework that performs this task. The framework augments the prompt using synthetic samples to transform the task into 10-shot learning, to address a cold-start problem in bootstrapping a new tracking topic. Our preliminary evaluation suggests that our approach significantly outperforms the baseline QA models. Going further, we discuss future application domains toward which the NLP and HCI researchers can collaborate.

1 Introduction

Self-tracking tools (e.g., mHealth apps like Fitbit [Fitbit, Inc. 2021a]) help people longitudinally track their health and activity in a structured and systematic manner. The advancement of Natural Language Interaction (NLI) techniques have opened new opportunities for designing novel self-tracking systems with which people can intuitively record their data using speech and/or chat; specifying long and complex information in natural language is generally more flexible and expressive than using predetermined forms in traditional graphical widgets (Kim et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2020). As a result, there is a growing interest in building speech-mediated self-tracking tools to offer low-burden (e.g., Luo et al. 2021) and accessible (e.g., Kim et al. 2022) self-tracking.

Yet, existing systems predominantly incorporate bespoke (and mostly rule-based) natural language understanding (NLU) logics optimized for capturing uniform information in a specific tracking theme, compromising generalizability and scalability to diverse user inputs and contexts. For example, the NLU of Data@Hand, a visual exploration app for fitness data, is implemented using syntax-based rules with POS (part of speech) tags and predefined...
keywords (Kim et al., 2021). Such an approach is known to be vulnerable to a selection of vocabulary and individualized linguistic patterns (Kim et al., 2019a, 2021). Furthermore, extending the NLU to support a new type of data (e.g., exercise sessions) is a demanding task because it requires appending new rules manually.

Despite the promise of deep-learning-based NLP approaches, it is still challenging to develop flexible and scalable NLU models for self-tracking mainly because the design space of self-tracking is broad in terms of topics and data formats (Epstein et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2017). Hence, it is overwhelming to collect natural language datasets that cover the entire space and varied domains.

In this work, we introduce a novel NLP task for self-tracking focusing on in-situ data collection scenarios where people capture their retrospective activity logs. We also propose a novel NLU framework (Figure 1) that supports this task, which incorporates GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020), a large-scale pre-trained language model (PLM), to handle linguistic variations of natural language commands (e.g., “I drank a cup of coffee an hour ago” or “At 3:00 PM, had an Americano.”). To bootstrap in-context learning on GPT-3, the framework leverages synthetic samples constructed from simulations with 24 seed tracking schemas. Given a natural language phrase, the framework extracts values for data fields from a data table. The phrase may be terse and specify only a subset of data fields.

Our preliminary evaluation shows that our prompt augmentation approach using synthetic seed samples was effective in extracting appropriate information from the input phrases in a low-resource scenario. In pure zero-shot cases, GPT-3 underperformed the T5-based model (Lin et al., 2021; Raffel et al., 2020). However, it outperformed when augmented with synthetic seed samples that had different data schemas and tracking topics. The performance increased by the number of prior examples in the corresponding data schema but saturated with more examples. Our findings demonstrate the opportunities of GPT-3’s in-context learning abilities for avoiding a cold start problem of the natural-language-based data collection task.

2 Background

Self-tracking is a powerful means of understanding oneself and self-promoting positive behavior changes (Choe et al., 2014; Li et al., 2010). People capture their activities in a variety of topics including but not limited to physical/mental health, finance, productivity, diet, and sleep (Epstein et al., 2020). The data points collected for self-tracking usually describe a phenomenon during a time interval or for an associated time point at a specific granularity like minute or day (Kim et al., 2019b).

The phenomenon information consists of various types of data fields such as numbers (e.g., step count, heart rate), texts (e.g., description of a stress episode), scales (e.g., productivity, stress level, sleep quality) or choices (e.g., type of mood) (Jeon, 2016; Kim et al., 2017).

While fitness trackers can capture various health metrics, many of the human activities cannot be captured by sensors and still require a manual input to be captured. As an effective way to reduce the manual input burden, the speech modality has recently gained interest and was applied to smart speakers (e.g., Fitbit Skill [Fitbit, Inc. 2021b], MyFitnessPal Skill [Under Armour, Inc 2021]) and research prototypes (e.g., ModEat [M. Silva and A. Epstein 2021], TandemTrack [Luo et al. 2020], FoodScrap [Luo et al. 2021]). These tools support speech-based data capture through smart speakers, smartwatches, or smartphones. Our work expands this growing body of speech-based self-tracking research by proposing a unified framework of NLU to support flexible phrasing of multifaceted information in arbitrary tracking topics, which are not yet supported by prior systems.

3 NLU Framework for Self-Tracking

3.1 Task Description

Imagine a person uses a self-tracking platform that consists of multiple data tables for sub-topics. This is analogous to common health platforms such as Fitbit (Fitbit, Inc., 2021a) and Apple Health (Apple Inc., 2021) with multiple data tables for step count, body weights, food, or water intake. We refer to the individual data tables as trackers (e.g., in Figure 1), and data points for each tracker as items (e.g., colored bars in in Figure 1). A tracker comprises multiple input fields with six data types—number, Likert scale, single-choice, multiple-choice, short-form text, and long-form text, which are derived from prominent data types of existing self-tracking apps (Jeon, 2016; Kim et al., 2017). The person may use natural language to insert a new item to the database. For exam-
ple, he or she may speak, “I did push-ups for three repetitions at light intensity,” to describe an item. \( \{\text{Exercise} \rightarrow \text{push-ups}, \text{Repetitions} \rightarrow 3, \text{Intensity} \rightarrow \text{light}\} \), upon finishing the exercise session. Such an interaction may be performed via a smartphone app, chatbots, or voice assistants. This main task of our framework can be represented as 

\[
itm'_{trk} = [v^0_{trk}, \ldots, v^i_{trk}, \ldots, v^{n-1}_{trk}] = NLU(trk, phr),
\]

where \( NLU \) derives a list of value \( v \) for \( n \) fields of the tracker \( trk \) from the phrase \( phr \). Assuming that we have little or no instances for \( Itm'_{trk} \), we solve \( NLU() \) through few-shot learning with GPT-3. We turned to PLM because it can be switched to a different problem upon a new natural language prompt with a handful of examples (Liu et al., 2021b), whereas traditional machine learning models require a large amount of task-specific datasets.

3.2 Prompt Augmentation

In the early stage of using \( trk \), the person may not have little or no items for it; the system does not have sample instances with the same data schema to be put in a prompt for few-shot learning, when it receives a new phrase for \( trk \). To overcome the instability of accuracy in low-shot cases (Brown et al., 2020), we transformed the NLP task into a 10-shot learning problem by augmenting the model prompt (\( c.f., \) Appendix A) using synthetic samples. We constructed a synthetic sample store (\( \text{C} \) in Figure 1) with 504 item-phrase pairs from 24 trackers (21 pairs per each tracker). The trackers were manually composed by the authors (see Appendix B for an exhaustive list of trackers). We randomly generated item samples and phrases that describe the content using GPT-3. Four authors iteratively inspected the data and corrected wrong matches between the values and the phrase. Each sample contains a subset of data fields of the tracker, to simulate the cases when people do not include all field values in a single utterance. (See the second item in \( \text{B} \) in Figure 1 that omitted Repetitions.)

The current implementation mixes both the nearest five and the farthest five samples in a prompt (\( \text{D-F} \) in Figure 1), inspired by Liu et al. 2021a and Zhao et al. 2021. We used cosine similarity between the embeddings calculated using a sentence transformer \( \text{multi-qa-MiniLM-L6-cos-v1} \) in the sentence-transformers\(^1\) package. When there exist items and phrases for the tracker, they are treated as the nearest samples and placed near the output of the prompt (\( \text{F} \) in Figure 1). The framework passes the prompt to GPT-3 via OpenAI’s API\(^2\). Specifically, we used text-davinci-002, the most capable Instruct-GPT (Ouyang et al., 2022) model optimized for following human prompts. Finally, the postprocessor (\( \text{H} \) in Figure 1) parses the plain text output into a data table and matches the choice labels to the nearest ones in a tracker schema using the same transformer used in \( \text{D} \).

4 Preliminary Evaluation

To obtain preliminary insights on the feasibility of our approach, we evaluated the task outcomes from a series of scenarios, using the synthetic samples as a validation dataset.

**Baselines** We evaluated TransferQA and pure zero-shot GPT-3 as two baseline models. Since the proposed task has not been thoroughly explored in the NLP discipline, we chose TransferQA, one of the best-performing model for dialog state tracking, whose task is the most similar to the proposed one. TransferQA is a T5-based model pre-trained on various question answering (QA) datasets including extractive and multiple-choice QA (Lin et al., 2021; Raffel et al., 2020). Originally, it was proposed for zero-shot dialogue state tracking and utilizes slot description as a question to extract corresponding value from a given input text. Although having descriptions for each data field is not realistic in our case, we manually added the description to each field of the trackers to construct input prompts of TransferQA. For example, “extractive question: the number of repetitions or laps of the exercise? context: user: i did push-ups for 3 repetitions at light intensity,” is the input representation to get Repetitions of exercise from the case in Figure 1. For the choice and Likert scale fields, the options were included the prompt as well. For GPT-3, we prompted the model to extract field values from an input phrase by giving only the tracker schema without any examples.

**In-context Learning** We simulated the scenarios where the user provides a phrase when there are zero to four prior items in a database for the corresponding tracker. Since we used synthetic samples as a validation set, we treated one of the sample trackers as a user tracker and excluded the samples for the tracker from the store when augmenting the

\(^1\)https://pypi.org/project/sentence-transformers/

\(^2\)https://openai.com/api/
Table 1: Zero and few-shot evaluation results on our validation dataset. The N-shot is the number of examples of the corresponding tracker included in a prompt.

| Model               | N-shot | JGA  | $F_1$ | "B-4" | "R-L" |
|---------------------|--------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| **Pure Zero-shot (Baseline)** |        |      |       |       |       |
| TransferQA         | 0      | 27.8 | 53.7  | 13.6  | 28.7  |
| GPT-3              | 0      | 26.2 | 49.9  | 41.2  | 58.5  |
| **In-context Learning (Augmented 10-shot Prompts)** |        |      |       |       |       |
| GPT-3              | 0      | 42.5 | 68.3  | 56.3  | 77.1  |
|                    | 1      | 51.2 | 73.1  | 57.0  | 78.9  |
|                    | 2      | **57.7** | 75.6 | **58.8** | **80.5** |
|                    | 3      | 56.9 | **76.6** | 57.3  | 78.3  |
|                    | 4      | 56.5 | 76.4  | 57.8  | 78.8  |

*: BLEU-4, #: ROUGE-L

prompt. We iterated over all 24 trackers and 504 items, for each N-shot iteration ($504 \times 5 = 2520$).

Evaluation Metrics We employed joint goal accuracy (JGA) and $F_1$ score, which are usually used for the dialogue state tracking tasks to measure the NLU performance of the models. JGA checks whether all predicted values are exactly matched with the ground truth values whereas $F_1$ checks partial matches between them. For these measures, we excluded long-form text fields, for which we instead measured BLEU-4 and ROUGE-L scores.

Results Table 1 illustrates the evaluation results. In pure zero-shot cases, TransferQA slightly outperformed for close-ended fields (JGA and $F_1$) but GPT-3 performed almost twice better in extracting open-ended, long-form text fields (B-4 and R-L). In in-context learning cases, GPT-3 augmented with synthetic samples surprisingly outperformed both baseline models in both close-ended and open-ended fields. Even when there were no prior items for the corresponding tracker (zero-shot in in-context learning), JGA was improved by 16.3% and $F_1$ by 18.4 in GPT-3. The performance generally increased by the increase of the number of prior items but seemed to be saturated around two- or three-shots.

Limitation As a preliminary evaluation, we used the synthetic samples as a validation set. For a more ecologically valid evaluation, we need a human-generated dataset in the future.

5 Discussion and Future Directions

In this section, we discuss the rooms for improvement and envision collaborative application domains for both HCI and NLP researchers.

5.1 Prompt Engineering and Seed Sampling

In this work, we mixed the nearest and farthest samples in terms of linguistic similarity between the phrases. A logical next step would be to investigate different strategies to generate prompts. For example, we may hierarchically pick the appropriate trackers first and then retrieve samples from them. Another approach is to split the data fields into groups and run a PLM for each one separately.

5.2 Ethically Boosting Performance through Synthetic Data Augmentation

Self-tracking data is inherently sensitive to privacy issues because they contain personal health and activity history. Therefore, training machine learning models with self-tracking data from multiple people may raise ethical issues (Saltz et al., 2019) and thus is impractical. In contrast, our framework leverages only synthetic samples and the user’s own data points to boost up model performance. Our approach demonstrates a feasibility of leveraging common sense of large language models instead of training a baseline model using data collected from a group of people. Future work remains to investigate the external validity of the synthetic samples when the framework serves real-world cases.

5.3 Warm-Starting Self-Tracking in Cold-Start Settings

We note that the in-context learning zero-shot cases in our experiment provide pure zero-shot experiences from the users’ perspectives; with the framework embedded in a self-tracking tool, the tool is likely to yield the boosted performance even when the user inserts a natural language query for the first time. Going further, since the performance significantly increases with only one or two contextual samples (See Table 1), the user interfaces can be designed to preemptively retrieve a few samples from a new user. For example, the system may nudge the user to provide several example utterances in the initial calibration stage. Designing effective warm-starting interaction warrants further research especially from the HCI perspective.
5.4 Future Application Domains

Introducing a new NLP task for self-tracking, we propose several application domains to which our approach can be expanded further.

Designing User Interfaces  Our topic-agnostic framework can be integrated to a wide range of self-tracking tools in various form factors that support natural language interaction. With speech, the framework can be employed to implement vision- and hands-free tools on smart speakers or smartwatches. Since more than 40% of the trials include erroneous extractions (see JGA in Table 1), proper error recovery methods (e.g., a roll-back button [Kim et al. 2021]) should be provided to users for sustainable interaction.

Multi-Turn Conversation for Data Collection

Using a tracker with a long list of data fields, it is not natural to describe all the required field values in a single utterance. Since our framework assumes that the input phrase describes a subset of data fields, we can expand the task as a multi-turn conversation scenario (e.g., Bae et al. 2022) where the system asks back to fill out missing information in an item. Figure 2 illustrates a scenario of beer logging through a conversational agent, embedding our framework combined with a question generator. This can be also viewed as schema-guided dialog state tracking (Rastogi et al., 2020), but the extraction of multiple-choice and long-form text fields poses challenges from the NLP perspective.

Schema-Free Data Collection  We are also investigating a more radical scenario where people capture logs even without a predefined tracker schema and the system automatically generates the proper schema based on the natural language phrases. Supporting such schema-free tracking would effectively reduce the learning curve for newcomers to self-tracking tools, especially when the trackers are customizable (Kim et al., 2017).

6 Conclusion

In this work, we introduced a novel NLP task for data collection in self-tracking and presented an NLU framework that can effectively solve this task by augmenting PLM’s prompt with synthetic samples. Drawing on the favorable outcomes from the preliminary evaluation, we discussed future research directions regarding improving the pipeline as well as designing user interfaces to effectively support self-tracking through our framework. As an interdisciplinary team of both HCI and NLP researchers, we hope this work inspires other researchers working on the growing areas of self-tracking and personal informatics, where we still need more synergistic collaboration between the NLP and HCI disciplines.

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A  Exemplary Prompt for GPT-3

Extract field values from a given phrase by following a given format.

###

[Phrase] I read To Kill a Mockingbird, starting on page 31 and ending on page 88.
[Tracker name] Book log
[Tracker fields] Book title -> text
Page start -> number
Page end -> number
Note -> text

[Extracted]
Book title -> To Kill a Mockingbird
Page start -> 31
Page end -> 88

###

[Phrase] My stress level was 52.
[Tracker name] Stress diary
[Tracker fields] Stress level -> number
Reason of stress -> text
Conflict resolved -> Resolved/Not resolved
How did I resolve the conflict? -> text

[Extracted]
Stress level -> 52

###

[Phrase] I did 5 sets of very light push-ups.
[Tracker name] Exercise
[Tracker fields] Exercise type -> Walking/Running/Cycling/Push-ups/Weight training/Stretching
Repetition -> number
Effort level -> Very light/Light/Moderate/Strenuous/Very strenuous
Description -> text

[Extracted]
Exercise type -> Push-ups
Repetition -> 5
Effort level -> Very light

B  Seed Trackers

We manually composed 24 seed trackers (i.e., data schema for tracking). We first extracted 10 tracking themes from a survey of self-tracking research (Epstein et al., 2020) and an empirical study on user-defined self-trackers (Kim et al., 2017). Of the four common types of trackers—timespamper, in-situ experience logger, daily summary, and archive—identified by Kim et al., 2017, we composed trackers that fall within either in-situ experience logger (A data entry denotes one unit of event or episode) or daily summary (A data entry denotes a summarized reflection or information of a day). When designing schemas, we referred to prior self-tracking research prototypes or commercial apps that we have public access to the data format. Table 2 summarizes the format of all seed trackers. Note that all trackers include one time-related field (e.g., Date, Time-point, Time-range), which we omitted in the table for brevity.
Table 2: List of the seed trackers that were used for creating synthetic item samples. The Reference column denotes the existing research or commercial apps that informed the design of the schema.

| Type/Name        | Data Fields                                                                 | Reference         |
|------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|
| **Exercise**     |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ Exercise | Exercise type, Repetition, Intensity, Description                           | Kim et al. 2022   |
| Daily Daily      | Exercise done today, Overall satisfaction                                    |                   |
|                  | Reflections on today’s exercise                                             |                   |
| **Sleep**        |                                                                             |                   |
| Daily            | Sleep quality, Memo                                                         |                   |
|                  | Scale, Text                                                                 |                   |
| **Medication**   |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ          | Medication, Number of pills, Reason of taking                               | MyNetDiary 2021   |
| **Diabetes**     |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ          | Type, Units                                                                 | MyNetDiary 2021   |
| **Food**         |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ          | Meal type, Menu, Why I ate this food, Healthy level                          | Luo et al. 2021   |
|                  | Types of meals had, Reflection on today’s eating                            |                   |
| Daily            |                                                                             |                   |
| **Beverage**     |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ          | Category, Name, Temperature, Cups, Location                                 | Kim et al. 2017   |
|                  | Name, Beer category, Score, Review                                           |                   |
| Daily            | Number of cups had today, Why I had that amount of coffee                    | Luo et al. 2021   |
| **Mood**         |                                                                             |                   |
| In-situ          | Types of mood, Intensity of mood, Reason of mood                            | Dietz et al. 2019 |
|                  | Stress level, Reason of stress, Conflict resolved                            |                   |
|                  | How did I resolve the conflict?                                             |                   |

↓ Continued on the next page
| Type/Name | Data Fields | Reference |
|----------|-------------|-----------|
| **Daily** Daily diary | Weather | Choice-single |
| | Stress level | Number |
| | Overall productivity | Scale |
| | Atmosphere | Choice-single |
| | Major types of mood | Choice-multiple |
| | Whom I met today | Choice-multiple |
| | Reflection on today | Text |
| **Book** | **In-situ** Book log | Book title | Text |
| | | Page start | Number |
| | | Page end | Number |
| | | Note | Text |
| **Study** | **In-situ** Study log | Study subject | Choice-single |
| | | Accomplishment | Number |
| | | Study content | Text |
| | **Daily** Study diary | Study subjects | Choice-multiple |
| | | Overall satisfaction | Number |
| | | Reflection on today’s study | Text |
| | **Productivity** | **In-situ** Tasks | Task | Choice-multiple |
| | | Productivity | Scale |
| | | Rationale for productivity | Text |
| | | | Kim et al. 2019c |
| | **In-situ** Breaks | What I did during the break | Choice-single |
| | | Reason for break | Text |
| | | | Epstein et al. 2016 |
| | **Daily** Work diary | Major tasks | Choice-multiple |
| | | Overall productivity | Number |
| | | Reflections on today’s work | Text |
| **Social** | **In-situ** People | Who I met | Text |
| | | Purpose | Choice-single |
| | | What I did in detail | Text |
| | | Reflections on the interaction | Text |
| **Smoking** | **In-situ** Smoking log | Amount | Number |
| | | Tobacco name | Choice-single |
| | | Smoking context | Choice-single |
| | | Smoked with others | Choice-single |
| **Female** | **Daily** Daily period | Bleeding | Choice-single |
| | | Pain | Choice-multiple |
| | | Emotions | Choice-multiple |
| | | Sleep | Choice-single |
| | | Sex | Choice-multiple |
| | | Energy | Choice-single |
| | | Social | Choice-single |
| | | Reflection on today’s menstruation | Text |
| | | | Biowink GmbH 2021 |