Diverse and Effective Synthetic Data Generation for Adaptable Zero-Shot Dialogue State Tracking

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Abstract

We demonstrate substantial performance gains in zero-shot dialogue state tracking (DST) by enhancing training data diversity through synthetic data generation. Existing DST datasets are severely limited in the number of application domains and slot types they cover due to the high costs of data collection, restricting their adaptability to new domains. This work addresses this challenge with a novel, fully automatic data generation approach that creates synthetic zero-shot DST datasets. Distinguished from previous methods, our approach can generate dialogues across a massive range of application domains, complete with silver-standard dialogue state annotations and slot descriptions. This technique is used to create the D0T dataset for training zero-shot DST models, encompassing an unprecedented 1,000+ domains. Experiments on the MultiWOZ benchmark show that training models on diverse synthetic data improves Joint Goal Accuracy by 6.7%, achieving results competitive with models 13.5 times larger than ours.

1 Introduction

A critical task for building task-oriented dialogue (TOD) systems is Dialogue State Tracking (DST), which aims to maintain a structured representation of the key task-related information provided throughout a dialogue. Conventionally, the state representation is composed of a set of task-specific slot-value pairs, where slots are information types provided by a predefined slot schema. While DST has been studied in fully supervised (Heck et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2022; Won et al., 2023) and few-shot settings (Lin et al., 2021; Shin et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023), these settings rely on a substantial amount of labeled training examples within the targeted task domain. To this end, zero-shot DST has recently gained attention, as it requires the DST model to adapt to an unseen target domain for which no training examples are available (Gupta et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023; Heck et al., 2023).

Leveraging slot descriptions to perform cross-task transfer is shown to be effective for zero-shot DST (Lin et al., 2021; Gupta et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022; Tavares et al., 2023). In this approach, a model is trained to interpret the slot descriptions to perform DST using gold supervision in several data-rich domains. During inference, the model interprets new slot descriptions to perform DST in unseen target domains without any training data. However, for this approach to succeed, sufficiently diverse training data must be available to enable the model to generalize and handle new slot types. We hypothesize that existing training data for DST is a bottleneck, as the two most popular datasets for DST training, MultiWOZ (Budzianowski et al., 2018) and SGD (Rastogi et al., 2020), only cover 7 and 16 domains, respectively.

This work aims to explore the impact of increasing training data diversity on zero-shot DST performance. Since traditional methods of creating diverse DST training data are costly and difficult to scale, we develop a novel, fully automatic data generation approach for zero-shot DST. This approach leverages the capabilities of instruction-tuned large language models (LLMs) to create new task domains from scratch. Synthetic dialogues are generated for each domain, and are automatically annotated for dialogue state, complete with descriptions of labeled slots. This approach is leveraged to generate a synthetic DST dataset of unprecedented diversity, including over $1,000$ task domains. Experiment results demonstrate a substantial performance boost provided by this synthetic data on standard benchmarks. In summary, our contributions are:

1. A novel approach for generating domain-diverse DST data.
2. A synthetic DST dataset with $1,000+$ domains for training zero-shot models.

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3. Efficient state-of-the-art models that robustly handle diverse domains for zero-shot DST.

We make all models, code, and data publicly available to support future work.[1]

2 Related Work

Zero-Shot DST Current state-of-the-art (SoTA) approaches to zero-shot DST use sequence-to-sequence (S2S) modeling to predict appropriate values given a natural language specification of each slot to track (Gupta et al., 2022; King and Flanigan, 2023). Such S2S modeling has been effective for adapting to new slot types, since models can leverage descriptions of a new, unseen slot type via in-context learning (ICL) when making predictions. Recently, models using LLMs have achieved state-of-the-art results on this task due to the excellent zero-shot ability of LLMs (Hu et al., 2022b; King and Flanigan, 2023). However, the cost of LLM decoding is often too steep for many task-oriented dialogue (TOD) applications. Thus, ongoing work aims to achieve SoTA results with smaller models using cross-task transfer, where the model is trained on an existing set of task domains before being transferred to the unseen target domain (Wang et al., 2023; Aksu et al., 2023).

DST Data Collection Successful modeling of a low-cost zero-shot DST model that generalizes to unseen domains depends on the quality and diversity of its training data; however, collecting a training resource that covers diverse TOD domains is costly. The most popular dataset, MultiWOZ, was collected using a wizard-of-oz setup using human participants, yet only covers 7 domains (Budzianowski et al., 2018). The Schema Guided Dialogues (SGD) dataset was created in an attempt to increase the diversity of available DST resources using a rule-based data generation approach, where the final dialogue text was paraphrased by crowdworkers to improve naturalness (Rastogi et al., 2020). Even with this more cost-effective collection technique, SGD only covers 16 domains in its training split. Moreover, both datasets suffer from high inter-domain similarity. In the case of MultiWOZ, each domain covers a component of a travel planning application, in which a user talks to an artificial travel agent. As a result, there is a high degree of topical and structural similarity between dialogues, and all domains share a similar focus on scheduling. This results in many overlapping slots between domains to cover scheduling details such as dates, times, and locations. SGD has a more diverse array of domains, yet most are similar to MultiWOZ in that they focus on booking and scheduling. In particular, the Bus, Calendar, Event, Flight, Hotel, RentalCar, Service, and Train domains all share this scheduling focus. As a result of this limited diversity and the cost of additional data collection, it is unknown whether the domain coverage of existing DST resources is a bottleneck for training a zero-shot DST model with robust cross-task transfer.

DST Data Generation Several previous works explore data augmentation methods for improving the diversity of limited DST data. Nearly all of these approaches target the few-shot setting, where a limited number of labeled examples are used as a seed set to be augmented with additional, synthetic examples. This can be done using simple approaches to improve the lexical (Quan and Xiong, 2019; Yin et al., 2020) or semantic (Summerville et al., 2020; Lai et al., 2022) diversity of training examples, or by synthesizing entire dialogues (Campagna et al., 2020; Aksu et al., 2021, 2022; Mehri et al., 2022; Mohapatra et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021; Wan et al., 2022) to create additional training resources. These previous works in DST data generation demonstrate that automatic methods for data augmentation and generation can help address the limitations of existing training resources and improve transfer to data-poor domains. Additional detail regarding related work in DST data generation is provided in Appendix A.

Our DST data generation approach is distinct from all previous methods because it generates entirely new task domains, in addition to new dialogues with silver annotations. Furthermore, our approach is fully automatic, requiring no few-shot data or manual creation of domain-specific resources, making it ideal for scaling up the diversity of training resources for zero-shot DST.

3 DST Data Generation

This section presents our fully automatic data generation approach to support training DST models capable of zero-shot domain transfer. Our goal is to create a set of dialogue data covering many diverse task domains, with silver dialogue state labels

[1] https://github.com/emorynlp/Diverse0ShotTracking

and natural language slot descriptions. Given the exceptional zero-shot performance of instruction-tuned large language models (LLMs) (Brown et al., 2020; Kojima et al., 2022; Heck et al., 2023), our approach explores using instruction-tuned LLMs for data generation. We use GPT[2] in all of our presented experiments, although any LLM can be used for our approach in principle.

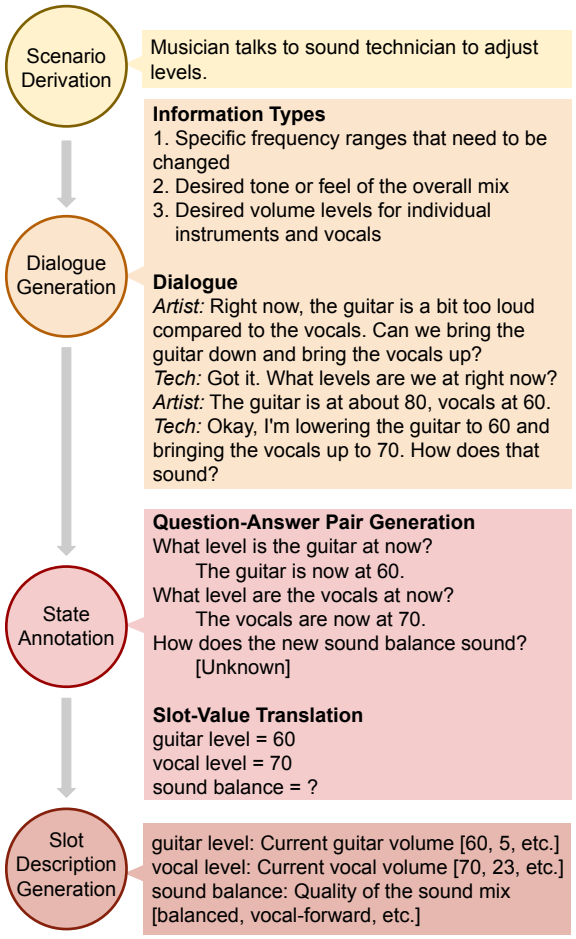

Figure 1: The four-stage DST data generation pipeline.

The approach consists of four stages, which are summarized in Figure 1. First, domains are derived through an iterative process of generating and refining dialogue scenario descriptions (§3.1). Next, a dialogue is crafted based on the scenario description and a generated unstructured information list corresponding to the scenario (§3.2). Third, each turn in each dialogue is automatically annotated with silver dialogue state labels (§3.3). Finally, a slot description is composed for each silver slot-value pair annotation (§3.4). All prompts included in the approach are provided in Appendix B.

[2]gpt-3.5-turbo-0301 is used for all stages of the approach, except for QA Pair Generation in which gpt-4-0314 is used, all with default hyperparameters (e.g. temperature of 1.0).

3.1 Scenario Derivation

To collect a diverse set of task domains, a set of dialogue scenarios are randomly sampled from a language model as single-sentence descriptions. GPT is prompted to write a list of descriptions of everyday tasks that require talking to another person. The prompt encourages diversity between descriptions and instructs GPT to explicitly include the task goal and roles of each speaker. This results in the majority of generated scenarios including concrete tasks such as "schedule vaccinations" or "assist with an item purchase," with some descriptions including goals that are more vague and open-ended such as "Parent talks to teacher about afterschool programs." Appx. C gives a sample of generated scenarios.

Since GPT often generates duplicate scenario descriptions, Algorithm 1 is used to deduplicate scenario descriptions when collecting the full set. GPT is iteratively prompted to create a mini-set of k dialogue scenario descriptions (`L3`). Each mini-set is combined with the scenarios obtained from previous iterations, where each scenario description is encoded into an embedding by SentenceBERT[3] (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) and the resulting embeddings are clustered through a community detection algorithm (`L4`).[4] A deduplicated set of scenario descriptions is created by selecting *one* embedding from every cluster, which is mapped back to its corresponding scenario description (`L5`). This iteration continues until the set reaches the requested size (`L2`). In our case, $k = 100, n = 1000$.

Algorithm 1: Scenario Derivation

Input : k: mini-set size, n: final set size.
output : S: the final set containing n scenarios.

```
S ← ∅
while |S| < n do
    S' ← gpt_generated_scenarios(k)
    𝔼 ← cluster(embed(S ∪ S'))
    S ← {∀_{C∈𝔼}. map(one(c)) : c ∈ C}
return S
```

3.2 Dialogue Generation

In a pilot analysis, generating dialogues directly from scenario descriptions (§3.1) using GPT resulted in generic contents that lack sufficient details for effective DST model training. To address this issue, we generate dialogues from scenario descriptions in two steps. First, GPT is asked to generate

[3]SentenceBert model: `all-MiniLM-L6-v2`
[4]https://www.sbert.net/docs/package_reference/util.html

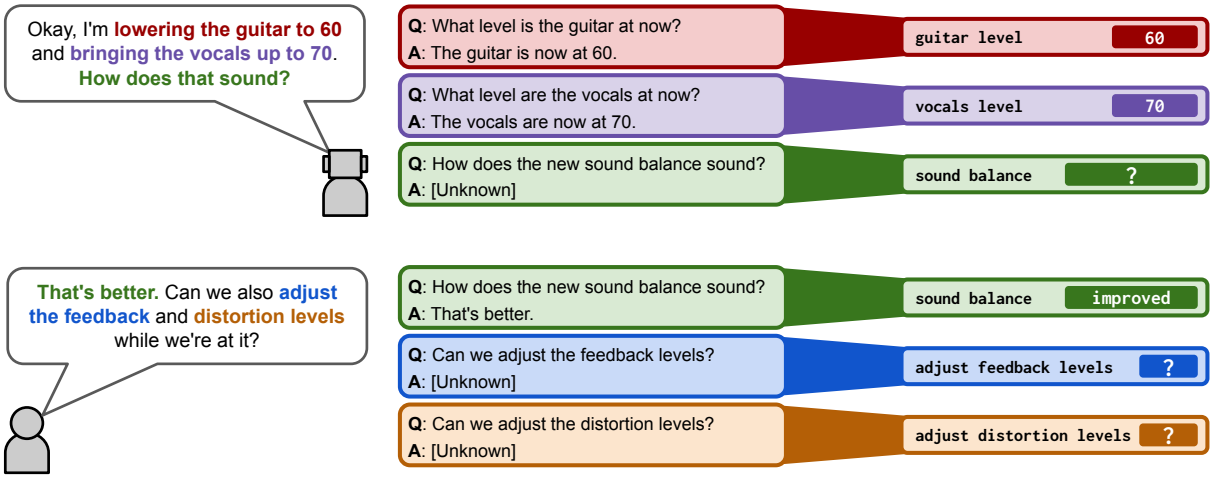

Figure 2: Example turn outputs from the automatic state annotation component of the DST data generation pipeline.

a comprehensive list of information types based on the provided scenario, which serves as a de-facto ontology for representing the properties of the scenario. Second, given a scenario and its associated information types, GPT is then asked to generate a dialogue. The prompt encourages GPT to provide detailed responses and make up values for the information types in order to encourage generating concrete values to serve as targets for DST.

3.3 State Annotation

Each turn in the generated dialogues is automatically annotated with a dialogue state update using two components: *Question-Answer (QA) Pair Generation* to deduce the key information in each turn and *Slot-Value Translation* to transform those QA pairs into slot names and values. Figure 2 illustrates the automatic state annotation approach.

Question-Answer Pair (QA) Generation To generate a state update U_t given a dialogue history $D_{1..t}$, we use a prompt P_t^{QA} containing the last two turns $D_{t-1,t}$, and instruct GPT to break down all the information in turn t as a set of QA pairs. Only the last two turns are included to reduce irrelevant information from previous turns that could misguide the state update for the current turn t. To further mitigate this issue, every turn is prepended with a speaker tag, allowing GPT to soley focus on turn t by referring to the corresponding speaker. A set of QA pairs $QA_t = \{(q_1^t, a_1^t), \ldots, (q_k^t, a_k^t)\}$ is generated by this method, where each question q_i^t represents an information type either shared or requested during the turn and its answer a_i^t summarizes the information value.

State updates are produced to monitor the change in values of slots throughout the dialogue, enabling us to track whether information requests from one speaker are satisfied through information shared by the other speaker. To implement this, P_t^{QA} explicitly designates the answer *Unknown* for use in any QA pair, where the question represents an information request made by the current speaker. Therefore, for each turn, a set of unanswered questions for the prompt P_t^{QA} can be identified as follows:

$$R_t = \{\forall_i.\, q_i^t : 0 < i \leq k \wedge a_i^t = \textit{Unknown}\}$$

A second prompt P^A is used to answer each question in R_t using two turns $D_{t,t+1}$, which produces a set of QA pairs QA'_{t+1} comprising slots from turn t filled with values in turn $t+1$. Included in P^A is an instruction to use *Unknown* for questions whose answers are not present in turn $t+1$. Such unanswered questions are removed from QA'_{t+1}, leaving only QA pairs with information requested in turn t and shared in turn $t+1$. QA'_{t+1} are then appended to the next prompt P_{t+1}^{QA} to generate a new set QA_{t+1} for turn $t+1$. Including QA'_{t+1} in P_{t+1}^{QA} guides GPT to generate only new QA pairs that have not already been covered by QA'_{t+1}.

Slot-Value Translation After summarizing key dialogue information as QA pairs, every QA pair in QA_t is translated to a slot-value pair. GPT tends to generate overly detailed slot names when answers are provided along with questions. Hence, slot names and values are derived using separate prompts. First, a prompt P^S is used to translate all questions in QA_t into corresponding slot names. No context from the dialogue is provided, nor do we include any answers from QA_t in P^S. The result is a set of slot names $N_t = \{s_1^t, \ldots, s_{|QA_t|}^t\}$

representing information types mentioned in turn t.

Finally, a prompt P^V, comprising questions and answers in QA_t as well as the slot names in N_t, is used to translate each answer into a value for the corresponding slot name. In addition, P^V highlights that a value can be a concise phrase, number, span, category, score, boolean, list, or other form, aiding the model in generating values suitable for the respective slot names, rather than always using natural language phrases as values. QA pairs with the *Unknown* answer are excluded from P^V, as they are translated into a special token ? to represent a requested slot. Pairing each generated value with its corresponding slot name results in the dialogue state update $U_t = \{(s_1^t, v_1^t), \ldots, (s_{|QA_t|}^t, v_{|QA_t|}^t)\}$.

3.4 Slot Description Generation

For each state update U_t produced by automatic annotation (§3.3), GPT is instructed to generate a specification of each slot in U_t using a single prompt. The prompt includes each slot value pair (s_i^t, v_i^t) in U_t as well as each question q_i^t corresponding to each slot. GPT is asked to generate a description for each slot as a short natural language phrase d_i^t, in addition to a few comma-separated example values e_i^t that could fill the slot.

4 New Dataset for Zero-Shot Tracking

Using our DST data generation approach (§3), we create a Diverse 0-shot Tracking dataset: D0T. Since we aim to measure the impact of increasing the diversity of DST training resources, we generate D0T to include unprecedented $1,000+$ domains and 5 dialogues per domain. Applying automatic state annotation (§3.3) to the generated dialogues yields $324,973$ slot-value pairs in state updates. Since compiling each dialogue state $S_t = update(S_{t-1}, U_t)$ produces an excessive ≈ 6.5 million total slot-value pairs for DST training, slot-value pairs are downsampled using a method that maintains slot type diversity. We randomly sample exactly 1 example for each of the original $324,973$ slot-value updates from the set of final slot-values where that slot is filled (non-empty), resulting in $n = 324,973$ filled slot-value examples. To include examples of empty slots, we randomly sample m empty slot-value pairs from the final compiled states, where $m = 0.5 * n = 162,487$. Table 1 presents the final statistics of the dataset, and Table 2 presents a comparison to existing data.

Quality Validation We validate the quality of the dataset by recruiting 3 human evaluators to annotate 60 randomly sampled turns, judging (1) whether each slot-value correctly represents information in the corresponding turn and (2) whether each state update U_t is missing any important information in the turn. 82% of slot-value pairs were judged correct and 7% of state updates were missing important information.

Metric	Value	Metric	Value
Scenarios	1,003	Unique Slots	173,572
Dialogues	5,015	Unique Slots$_S$	244.6
Turns	100,471	Unique Slots$_D$	64.9
Turns$_D$	20.0	Unique Slots$_T$	3.3
Tokens	2,061,332	Turns w/o SV	1,583
Tokens$_T$	20.5	Tokens$_{SN}$	2.4
Slot-Values	487,460	Tokens$_{SV}$	2.0

Table 1: The statistics of the D0T dataset with dialogue state update labels created using our fully automatic generation pipeline (§3). SN/SV: slot names/values respectively, $*_{D/T/S/SN/SV}$: * per dialogue/turn/scenario/SN/SV, respectively.

Dataset	Dom.	Dial.	Turns	SV	US
MWOZ	7	8,438	113,556	4,510	24
SGD	16	16,142	329,964	14,139	214
D0T	1,003	5,015	100,471	487,460	173,572

Table 2: Comparison of D0T to the train splits of MultiWOZ 2.1/2.4 (MWOZ) and SGD, compared on number of domains (Dom.), dialogues (Dial.), turns, slot-values (SV), and unique slot names (US).

5 Experiment Setup

5.1 Evaluation Data

Our experiments on zero-shot DST use the standard MultiWOZ benchmark (Budzianowski et al., 2018). This evaluation was designed using a leave-one-out setup in which a zero-shot DST model is tested on each of five domains (Attraction, Hotel, Restaurant, Taxi, Train) after being trained on the other four, to test zero-shot transfer to new domains. Joint Goal Accuracy (JGA) is the evaluation metric, measuring the proportion of turns for which the entire dialogue state is correctly inferred. The MultiWOZ 2.4 (Ye et al., 2022) variant is used as the main evaluation dataset since it contains corrected gold labels in the validation and test splits. We additionally include an evaluation on the uncorrected MultiWOZ 2.1 variant (Eric et al., 2020) to facilitate further comparison to previous work.

Since MultiWOZ does not contain slot descriptions, a single-sentence description is written for

each MultiWOZ slot to provide slot definitions. Descriptions are authored based on Lin et al. (2021) but with improvements in detail and grammar. Additionally, descriptions are augmented with 4 value examples for each slot. No prompt engineering or validation experiments are performed when creating slot descriptions and value examples, to reflect the performance of the model in real-world settings without requiring extensive development effort.

Although SGD (Rastogi et al., 2020) has been used in some previous work to evaluate zero-shot DST (Gupta et al., 2022), we choose to not evaluate on SGD because its zero-shot DST test set only contains 4 domains (Alarm, Messaging, Payment, and Train), with Train also included in MultiWOZ's domain set. Further discussion of SGD for zero-shot DST evaluation is provided in Appendix D.

5.2 Experiment Conditions

Base Models Two base models, T5 1.1 (Raffel et al., 2020) and Llama2-Chat (Ouyang et al., 2022), are used in our experiments. We use the 11B and 13B variants of the T5 and Llama2 models, respectively; however, for greater efficiency and mitigation of catastrophic forgetting, we additionally leverage the QLoRA (Dettmers et al., 2023) quantization and training method. Models are trained using the sequence-to-sequence format shown in Figure 3 which follows the "independent" formulation from Gupta et al. (2022). Appendix E provides additional implementation details such as model hyperparameters.

D0T Training The impact of domain-diverse training data on zero-shot DST is evaluated by comparing models that leverage the domain-diverse D0T dataset as a training resource against baselines trained only on the standard training splits of benchmark data. Models leveraging D0T (+D0T) are trained in two sequential training stages. Models are first trained on D0T to acquire domain-general state tracking ability, and then refined in a second training stage using the standard training split of benchmark data.

In-Context Learning Since recent work in zero-shot DST has shown performance improvements from including demonstrations in slot descriptions using in-context learning (Gupta et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2022b; King and Flanigan, 2023), we also experiment with this approach using the Llama2 base model, to observe the interaction between domain-diverse training and in-context demonstration. Models leveraging in-context demonstrations (+ICL) are trained and tested with slot descriptions that include up to $k = 3$ in-context demonstrations, where k is a per-domain hyperparameter selected by validation performance.

A: Good afternoon, Mr. Smith. I'm here today to survey your land and assess its value.
B: Of course, please go ahead.
A: Firstly, can you tell me the location and size of the land?
B: Sure. The land is located on the outskirts of town, about 10 miles away from the city center. It's approximately 20 acres.
A: That's helpful. Can you also tell me about the type of terrain and land features on the property?

Identify the information from the above dialogue:
land size : the area encompassed by the property, typically measured in units such as acres, hectares, or square miles.
(e.g. 50 hectares, 2 square miles)?
ex. The floodwaters have submerged over 150 hectares of farmland. land size? -> 150 hectares
ex. Yes, we're finalizing a purchase of 50 acres in the valley. land size? -> 50 acres

Figure 3: An example of an input token sequence from the D0T dataset used for training. [YELLOW]: dialogue context $D_{1..t}$ [PEACH]: slot s_i^t [GREEN]: slot description d_i^t [RED]: value examples e_i^t [BLUE]: In-context demonstrations (+ICL only)

For MultiWOZ, demonstrations are collected for each slot by manually constructing 3 single-turn examples of the slot being updated with an appropriate value. For D0T, we collect in-context demonstrations using a fully automatic method in order to preserve the fully-automatic nature of the data generation approach. This is done by augmenting slot descriptions in the D0T dataset by sampling slot-value labels that share similar semantics to the target slot. Similar slot-value examples are found for demonstration sampling by encoding every silver slot-value update label in D0T as the token sequence "s: v" using SBERT (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) and then clustering the encoded slot-values using HDBSCAN (McInnes et al., 2017). Then, for each training example of slot name, value, and slot description (s, v, d), up to 3 demonstrations are randomly sampled from other training examples that appear in the same cluster and the same domain, but different dialogues. The description d is augmented by appending each sampled demonstration value with the text of the dialogue turn in which it appears, using the format exemplified in Figure 3.

data	model	params	avg.	attr.	hotel	rest.	taxi	train
MWOZ 2.4	IC-DST (Hu et al., 2022b)	175B	58.7	62.1	53.2	54.9	71.9	51.4
	ParsingDST (Wu et al., 2023)	175B	64.7	65.6	46.8	67.7	80.6	62.6
	RefPyDST (King and Flanigan, 2023)	175B	68.8	74.5	56.6	68.2	68.5	76.1
	T5-QLoRA	11B	47.1	63.9	24.1	65.5	29.4	52.9
	+D0T	11B	55.7 (+8.6)	68.1	32.0	72.3	50.6	55.8
	Llama2-QLoRA	13B	59.2	62.2	44.9	69.8	49.1	70.2
	+ICL	13B	62.0 (+2.8)	74.7	44.9	69.8	49.1	71.3
	+D0T	13B	65.9 (+6.7)	74.4	56.4	76.0	54.7	68.3
	+D0T +ICL	13B	68.6 (+9.4)	76.8	56.4	78.8	54.7	76.1
MWOZ 2.1	D3ST (Zhao et al., 2022)	11B	46.7	56.4	21.8	38.2	78.4	38.7
	ChatGPT (Heck et al., 2023)	175B	56.4	52.7	42.0	55.8	70.9	60.8
	IC-DST (Hu et al., 2022b)	175B	57.0	60.0	46.7	57.3	71.4	49.4
	ParsingDST (Wu et al., 2023)	175B	63.4	65.0	46.8	67.0	80.3	62.8
	RefPyDST (King and Flanigan, 2023)	175B	64.7	70.9	51.2	65.6	67.1	69.2
	SDT (Gupta et al., 2022)	11B	65.9	74.4	33.9	72.0	86.4	62.9
	T5-QLoRA	11B	42.6	55.7	20.8	60.7	27.2	48.7
	+D0T	11B	49.9 (+7.3)	61.1	27.6	64.3	46.9	49.7
	Llama2-QLoRA	13B	51.8	55.4	38.8	59.0	44.8	61.2
	+ICL	13B	54.0 (+2.2)	63.8	38.8	59.0	44.8	63.5
	+D0T	13B	56.2 (+4.4)	63.1	43.8	64.7	48.8	60.8
	+D0T +ICL	13B	58.5 (+6.7)	66.6	43.8	67.2	48.8	66.5

Table 3: Zero-shot DST results on MultiWOZ (JGA). Parentheses indicate the difference in performance compared to the baseline within base model groups. +D0T indicates training on D0T in an initial stage of training. +ICL indicates use of in-context demonstrations.

6 Results

Impact of Domain-Diverse Training Table 3 presents the results of the zero-shot DST evaluation. Training on the domain-diverse synthetic dataset D0T results in substantial performance gains across all models. On MultiWOZ 2.4, T5 and Llama2 gain +8.6 and +6.7 average JGA respectively. Gains on MultiWOZ 2.1 are more moderate at +7.3 for T5 and +4.4 for Llama2, which is expected as noisy gold labels make improvements less observable.

Interestingly, our models benefit from the gold label corrections of MultiWOZ 2.4 more than previous approaches. Llama2 +D0T +ICL benefits the most of any model from the MultiWOZ 2.4 corrections, indicating that it is punished for a substantial amount of correct predictions on MultiWOZ 2.1.

Llama2 demonstrated far better performance than T5 for both baseline and +D0T settings. With the improvements from D0T training, our Llama2 models achieve performance that is competitive with approaches based on language models of much larger ($\approx$ 175 billion) parameter counts such as ChatGPT3.5 (Heck et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023) and OpenAI Codex (Hu et al., 2022b; King and Flanigan, 2023), and our best Llama2 +D0T +ICL model is within 0.2% of the current SoTA.

Impact of In-Context Demonstrations Adding in-context demonstrations to slot descriptions results in a consistent 2-3% performance gain for both +D0T and baseline Llama2 models. This is consistent with previous work that tests the impact of in-context demonstrations (Gupta et al., 2022). Encouragingly, the performance benefits of +ICL and +D0T appear to stack, yielding a combined improvement of +9.4 average JGA on MultiWOZ 2.4.

Comparison of Domain-Diverse Data To further verify the effectiveness of D0T as a domain-diverse training resource, we compare against the most domain-diverse existing dataset, Schema-Guided Dialogues (SGD) (Rastogi et al., 2020). We train a Llama2 model using the entire SGD training split as a first training stage to replace D0T training, before fine-tuning on MultiWOZ in the second stage to make a direct comparison. As shown in Table 4, the model leveraging D0T training outperforms a model that utilizes SGD instead. This demonstrates the power of the massively increased domain diversity covered by D0T, despite it being a synthetic dataset created with no human intervention. This result also validates the effectiveness of our automatic generation pipeline since it can yield useful training resources at a fraction of the cost of previous data collection methods.

TD	F	avg.	attr.	hotel	rest.	taxi	train
SGD		65.1	76.0	51.6	76.8	53.5	68.0
SGD	✓	61.8	75.6	45.1	77.0	46.8	64.5
D0T		65.9	74.4	56.4	76.0	54.7	68.3
D0T	✓	66.3	78.8	53.9	75.0	53.0	71.1

Table 4: Zero-shot DST results on MultiWOZ 2.4 (JGA), comparing the efficacy of D0T versus SGD as a domain-diverse resource for stage one training. Llama2 is used as a base model with QLoRA training. TD: Stage one training dataset. F: Checked if domains similar to MultiWOZ are filtered out before training.

One limitation of evaluating SGD as a domain-diverse training resource on the MultiWOZ benchmark is that SGD contains an approximate superset of the domains in MultiWOZ. Consequently, the ability of SGD to train a domain-generalizable DST model is not tested. To address this, we simulate the effectiveness of SGD to improve zero-shot performance for new domains by filtering out all training examples that belong to a domain analogous to those seen in MultiWOZ. Specifically, we filter out the Travel, Hotel, Restaurant, RideShare, and Trains domains and train another baseline model using this filtered datatset. As shown in Table 4, zero-shot performance is impacted by -3.3 average JGA as a result of this filtering. Although D0T can be trivially extended to new domains using our automatic data generation pipeline, we similarly test its capability for training models that generalize to new domains by training a model using a filtered version of D0T. Filtering is performed by manually reviewing all $1,003$ domains and excluding any that include attractions, hotels, restaurants, taxis, trains, or general travel planning as a primary theme. Model performance remains virtually identical ($+0.4$) regardless of whether D0T domains are filtered based on similarity to MultiWOZ domains, which is evidence that the benefits of training on D0T generalize to unseen domains.

Impact of Trainable Parameter Size We investigate the interaction between the parameter efficient training technique QLoRA and domain-diverse training by evaluating a variant of our T5 model with full finetuning and without quantization (i.e. without QLoRA). Additionally, a 3 billion T5 base model is compared to evaluate the impact of model size. Results are presented in Table 5.

Consistent with previous work, we find that increasing model size yields substantial performance improvements on zero-shot DST. Whereas the T5-3B benefits from training on D0T, we observe a slight performance loss when training T5-11B, likely due to catastrophic forgetting when training on noisy D0T labels. Although QLoRA appears to moderately harm performance when training the T5-11B baseline, the T5-11B-QLoRA model actually achieves the best overall performance when first trained on D0T, likely due to the ability of QLoRA to protect against catastrophic forgetting.

model	avg.	attr.	hotel	rest.	taxi	train
3B	49.2	63.2	26.0	71.7	29.8	55.8
+D0T	51.5	69.1	29.9	73.2	29.2	56.2
11B	53.8	65.0	27.6	71.0	37.5	68.2
+D0T	52.4	70.3	29.1	66.8	36.1	59.9
11B-QLoRA	47.1	63.9	24.1	65.5	29.4	52.9
+D0T	55.7	68.1	32.0	72.3	50.6	55.8

Table 5: Zero-shot DST results on MultiWOZ 2.4 (JGA), comparing 3B, 11B, and 11B-QLoRA variants of the T5 base model. +D0T indicates training on D0T in an initial stage of training.

Analysis of Training Stages The efficacy of D0T as a training dataset for zero-shot DST is further investigated by comparing the performance of the Llama2 model at the conclusion of each stage of training. Table 6 presents results on the MultiWOZ 2.4 benchmark for the stage one model trained only on D0T versus the stage two model additionally trained on MultiWOZ. As expected, the second stage of training is revealed to be crucial as the stage one model achieves only 23.6% average JGA. This reflects the effect of training on noisy dialogue state labels produced by automatic generation, which humans judged to have a slot-value pair correctness rate of 82%[5]. Taken together with the results in Table 4, this result suggests that the benefit provided by D0T is due to its diversity rather than its overall quality compared to existing data. Further refinements to the automatic data generation pipeline presented in Section 3 to generate more accurate state labels may yield additional performance gains. An error analysis of stage one and stage two models is provided in Appendix F.

Stage	avg.	attr.	hotel	rest.	taxi	train
1	23.6	26.7	11.4	39.7	13.9	26.9
2	65.9	74.4	56.4	76.0	54.7	68.3

Table 6: Zero-shot DST results on MultiWOZ 2.4 (JGA), comparing Llama2 with QLoRA after training only on D0T (Stage 1) versus after training on D0T + MultiWOZ (Stage 2).

[5]Note that JGA is a more punishing metric than the percent of correct slot-values

7 Conclusion

The costly nature of DST data collection has been a limiting factor for the domain diversity of existing datasets for years. By introducing the first automatic data generation method capable of creating new domains and slot definitions for DST, this work both reveals and alleviates a performance bottleneck caused by the limited domain coverage of existing DST data. Training on the synthetic, domain-diverse D0T dataset produces substantial performance gains (e.g. +6.7% average JGA) for zero-shot DST, and this performance gain is stable even when testing on domains with no similar analog in synthetic data. These results show the power of domain diversity for training zero-shot DST models, as it allows our models to achieve competitive or better performance to LLM-based DST approaches with over $13.5\times$ the parameters.

The success of our data generation approach also demonstrates the potential of LLM-based data generation to alleviate the high costs of traditional data collection. Our work advances data generation methods for DST as the first that is fully automatic, including creating new task domains without human guidance. By continuing to improve the diversity and correctness of synthetic datasets, we anticipate even greater advancements in zero-shot DST performance, driving the development of more robust and adaptable dialogue systems. We look forward to future research and application development in task-oriented dialogue that builds upon our experimental insights and released models and data.

8 Limitations

Redundancy of Slot Types Although our presented data generation method successfully produces useful training data for zero-shot DST, it is important to note that this method does not produce a set of slot definitions where each slot is semantically unique. Our method attempts to maintain some consistency in tracking slots by modelling when requested slots are filled by a value. However, apart from tracking requested slots, slot-value update labels are generated relatively independently and without the notion of a centralized slot schema. This results in some cases, particularly across different dialogues belonging to the same domain, where slot labels are created with similar semantic meanings but different surface forms for slot names and descriptions. For training a zero-shot DST model this limitation is not an issue, since zero-shot DST models are expected to adapt to any provided slot name and definition to identify the correct value from the dialogue. However, the issue of inconsistent slot naming and lack of a centralized slot schema prevents datasets generated with our method from being used directly for few-shot training or DST evaluation.

Noise in Silver State Labels Since our data generation technique is fully automatic, it is expected that some noisy silver labels of dialogue state occur. The 82.0% slot-value correctness rate judged by our human annotators is interpretable as about 1-in-5 noisy slot-values. The limitation of this noise is that our experimental estimates of the impact of training data domain diversity on zero-shot DST are almost certainly under-estimates, as models trained on D0T were trained to predict this noise. Ideally, a dataset of similar diversity to D0T but with gold dialogue state labels would be used in our experiments; however, no such dataset exists, which is one of the primary motivations of our work. Future work should focus on reducing noise in automatically-generated DST labels, or identifying alternative cost-effective data collection methods. A dataset with similar diversity to D0T but with gold labels would enhance experimental accuracy when measuring the impact of training domain diversity, and is likely to enable developing DST models with superior domain adaptability.

9 Ethical Considerations

Risks of this work are minimal; one risk is that it is theoretically possible for language model generations to populate synthetic dialogues with personal information of real people gathered from their training data. We believe this risk is low; after manually reviewing hundreds of dialogues in our D0T data, we observe that most potentially sensitive information is generated by GPT in anonymized form (e.g. the phone number 555-5555).

Languages used in this work are restricted to English, since it was required for all the authors to understand model outputs during prompt development and error analysis. The methodology presented in this work fundamentally language-agnostic however. Since D0T is generated with a fully automatic method, analogous datasets in new languages can be created easily after translating our GPT prompts.

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A Related Work in DST Data Generation

This section reviews previous work in DST data generation and augmentation, which targets few-shot DST. The theme of these works is to leverage a set of few shots as a seed set of examples used to generate additional synthetic examples in the target domain. By doing so, a limited set of training examples can be augmented for more robust DST training in the target domain.

Lexical Diversification Some early approaches use paraphrasing techniques to improve lexical diversity on the turn-level. Quan and Xiong (2019) experiment in this direction with a variety of methods such as back-translation and synonym replacement, and Yin et al. (2020) use a reinforcement learning approach to learn to replace token spans with paraphrases. These works demonstrate the potential of data augmentation to improve existing training resources, but their focus on paraphrasing fundamentally limits the extent to which the original data can be altered since the goal is to maintain the semantic content of original examples.

Semantic Diversification Other approaches look to improve the generalizability of trained DST models to handle new values and dialogue contexts by modifying the semantic content of original dialogues. Summerville et al. (2020) focus specifically on the problem of DST models' ability to generalize to new slot values, using external corpora to augment training data with with additional values for open-ended slot types. Lai et al. (2022) synthesize new training examples by generating a new response to the context of existing dialogues. Their response generator is conditioned on the dialogue act and state, but is given a new dialogue act and state during augmentation to increase the semantic diversity of the training pool. These works successfully augment the lexical and semantic content of DST training data on the turn- or slot-value-level.

Dialogue Reconstruction Some works augment existing data by synthesizing entirely new dialogues from an initial seed set. Three works explore methods that take advantage of the state representations in DST data to create a state transition graph, and then generate entirely new dialogues by traversing transition paths that are not represented in the initial dataset (Aksu et al., 2022, 2021; Campagna et al., 2020). Once a new state transition path for a synthetic dialogue is sampled from the transition graph, the turns from the original dialogues corresponding to each transition are used as templates and filled with new slot values to produce a final natural language dialogue. This approach introduces new variations in the structure and content of training data. However, the synthetic dialogues produced will share many of the same features as the original seed data, especially due to the reliance on templates. Mehri et al. (2022) use a similar approach but eliminate the reliance on seed dialogues by using slot schema specification to create the state transition graph, and GPT-3 is used to paraphrase each template-generated turn to be more natural and coherent. It is difficult to evaluate the efficacy of their method however, since less-common evaluation data MixSNIPS/MixATIS (Qin et al., 2020) are used making comparison to related work difficult.

Full Dialogue Generation Three recent works generate new DST data by training PLMs to generate new dialogues from a task goal and schema definition. Kim et al. (2021) trained a dialogue generator model to produce dialogues given a goal, schema, and queryable database of schema values, and trained separate dialogue state labeler model to label the generated dialogues with dialogue states. Mohapatra et al. (2021) train a pipeline of separate PLMs to model a user response generator, user response selector, dialogue state generator, system response generator, and system responses selector. Wan et al. (2022) similarly trained separate PLMs for to simulate user and system agents. They demonstrated improved transfer to generating synthetic data on low-resource target domains by pre-training their simulation agents on 12 different training data from previous work. All three of these approaches target low-resource DST by training their dialogue generation models on a limited amount of in-domain data, then train the DST model on synthetically generated data. Their results demonstrate the power of using PLMs to generate data to domains where substantial training resources are unavailable.

B Prompts

Eliciting high-quality generations from an LLM on a particular task requires finding a suitable prompt. The prompt is the token sequence input to the LLM that includes both task-specific instructions and a formatted linearization of all inputs needed to complete one task sample. Searching for a prompt that

maximizes task performance can be done manually or using automatic or semi-automatic search methods (Prasad et al., 2023). For complex tasks, multiple prompts can be used that decompose the task into more manageable subtasks. Due to the exploratory nature of our investigation into diverse DST data generation, we develop prompts through a manual development process where generations are hand-checked for quality. This allows us to quickly try different strategies for writing prompt instructions and breaking the data generation pipeline into subtasks. The prompts developed for the data generation pipeline (§3) are shown in Figures 4 - 11.

C Domains

To show the kinds of scenario descriptions generated for D0T (§3.1) that were used as task domains, we randomly sample 40 scenario descriptions from the complete set of 1,003 and present them in Table 9.

D SGD for Zero-Shot DST Evaluation

Previous work's use of the SGD dataset for zero-shot DST evaluation (Gupta et al., 2022) involves splitting the data into "seen" and "unseen" domains matching the original train and test splits proposed by the SGD paper (Rastogi et al., 2020). However, we argue that the insufficient diversity and difficulty in the unseen SGD domains makes this zero-shot DST benchmark uninformative beyond the existing MultiWOZ benchmark. Table 7 shows a complete list of the set of slots (grouped by domain) in the test set of SGD's zero-shot DST benchmark.

Not only are there only 15 slots in the SGD unseen domains, but half (7) come from the Train domain, which is also represented in MultiWOZ with similar slots. Furthermore, the remaining domains are extremely simple, leading to inflated JGA scores compared to MultiWOZ evaluations (Gupta et al., 2022). The simplicity, low number, and overlap with MultiWOZ of these unseen domains makes zero-shot DST evaluation on this benchmark uninformative, as it is not a good representation of real-world application scenarios. Although the MultiWOZ benchmark for zero-shot DST also has lower-than-ideal domain diversity with 5 domains and the costly requirement of running 5 cross-fold experiments to obtain the final evaluation scores, we consider this evaluation to be much more reliable. Therefore, we include the MultiWOZ benchmark alone in our experiments in §5. We hope future work will explore improvements to zero-shot DST evaluation to expand the domain diversity and difficulty of test data, perhaps by simply re-splitting SGD with additional unseen domains in the test set.

Domain	Slots
Messaging	Location Contact name
Payment	Method Amount Receiver Private visibility
Alarm	Time Name
Train	From To Date of journey Journey start time Number of adults Class Trip protection

Table 7: Unseen domains from the SGD dataset's test set, representing the test domain used for zero-shot DST evaluation in previous work.

E Implementation Details

Llama-13B-Chat is a 13 billion parameter decoder-only transformer model trained on a variety of long-form texts, then further trained on instruction data using the Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) technique (Ouyang et al., 2022). Due to the computational expense of its 13B parameter size, the model was quantized using QLoRA (Dettmers et al., 2023), which uses 4-bit `nf4` quantization, and freezes the base model parameters while only training the parameters of a Low-Rank Adapter (LoRA) (Hu et al., 2022a) of rank 32. Training used a learning rate of $2e-5$, and a batch size of 256, with no dropout or weight decay.

T5-11B (Raffel et al., 2020) is a 11 billion parameter encoder-decoder transformer model trained on a variety of sequence-to-sequence tasks such as summarization and translation. The T5 1.1 variant was used, following Gupta et al. (2022). QLoRA training used a rank of 32, alpha of 64, with a learning rate of $1e-2$ and batch size of 256, with no dropout or weight decay. Full fine-tuning used a learning rate of $1e-3$ with weight decay $5e-3$.

Model Selection All models were trained for up to 1 epoch[6] when training on any particular dataset. Every 10% of the total training steps, the performance of the model was estimated by measuring Joint Goal Accuracy on the validation set, and the final model was selected as simply the highest-performing model out of 10 total. The only exception to this model selection method was the selection of the model trained on D0T in Stage 1, because it was found that training on the *entire* D0T dataset (1 full epoch) improved the final performance of the model after Stage 2.

F Error Analysis

Error	Definition	Stage 1	Stage 2
Agent Value Miss	No value is outputted for the indicated slot, even though the information is present in the system's turns.	13	13
No Preference	Indications of no preference are inappropriately understood, either by failing to recognize when no preference is given or by incorrectly interpreting an indication of no preference from the dialogue.	13	9
Value Change	The appropriate value for the indicated slot has been updated in the dialogue turn, but the predicted value remains as the original.	10	19
Hallucination	A value is predicted for the indicated slot that does not exist in the dialogue.	9	5
Miss	No value is outputted for the indicated slot, even though the information is present in the user's turns.	7	13
Wrong Value	Information in the dialogue is incorrectly attributed to the indicated slot.	6	8
Other	Errors not explained by any of the other error patterns.	16	11
Correct	The predicted value for the indicated slot is correct, but is missing from the gold annotations in MultiWOZ due to an annotation mistake.	26	22

Table 8: Error analysis on 100 randomly sampled erroneous outputs on MultiWOZ 2.4 of the best-performing finetuned Llama-13B-Chat model with QLoRA training (Stage 2) and the same model trained only on D0T (Stage 1), before fine-tuning on MultiWOZ.

[6]Additional training beyond 1 epoch did not improve performance further in pilot experiments

The impact of diverse DST training data is further investigated by conducting an error analysis on 100 randomly sampled errors from the best-performing Llama2 +D0T +ICL model. The model was evaluated for both Stage 1 (D0T training only) and Stage 2 (subsequent training on MultiWOZ), and the results of the error analysis can be seen in Table 8. As expected, some of the errors made by these models are due to slot semantics specific to the MultiWOZ task that are difficult to encode in a single-sentence slot description. For example, the dontcare value (represented as any to the model) is a frequent source of errors, as the model consistently overpredicts it in the Hotel domain. Many errors also stem from a slot being filled with a wrong value that does indeed appear in the dialogue, but does not quite fit the specifics of the definition of the MultiWOZ slot. However, the majority of errors made are due to limitations in the training formulation using the synthetic dataset. For example, the dialogues generated by GPT-3.5 rarely include corrections or clarifications where slot value would change, resulting in consistent errors when the user speaker changes their mind or self-corrects in MultiWOZ. Also, the military time format used in MultiWOZ for time slots was a consistent source of hallucinations, as this format rarely or never appears in the synthetic D0T data. Finally, the models frequently missed slot values entirely, particularly when the value originated from the system travel agent speaker.

Parent talks to pediatrician in order to schedule vaccinations.
Pet owner talks to veterinarian in order to schedule a check-up
Event organizer talks to security personnel in order to ensure safety at an event
Presenter talks to audio technician in order to test the sound system before a conference
Bartender talks to bouncer in order to assist with maintaining safety and order in a bar or club
Performer talks to stage crew in order to coordinate a show
Retail sales associate talks to customer in order to assist with an item purchase
Executive talks to assistant in order to delegate tasks and schedule appointments.
Hair stylist talks to bride in order to plan a wedding up-do
Parent talks to teacher about afterschool programs.
Parent talks to nutritionist in order to receive guidance on healthy eating for their family
Blogger talks to other bloggers in order to collaborate on blog content.
Coworker talks to mentor in order to receive guidance on career development.
Homeowner talks to landscaper in order to plant new flowers.
Mover talks to customer in order to move their belongings
Fortune teller talks to client in order to provide a fortune prediction.
Proofreader talks to author in order to check for grammatical errors and typos in writing
Coworker talks to coworker in order to discuss a workplace policy.
Magazine editor talks to writer in order to edit their piece.
Talent agent talks to actor in order to develop a career plan.
Comedian talks to event planner in order to discuss comedy act material
Participant talks to moderator in order to ask a question during a session.
Significant other talks to partner in order to make plans for the future.
Passenger talks to flight attendant in order to ask for an extra pillow.
Survivor talks to counselor in order to receive support after traumatic event.
Animal behaviorist talks to zookeeper in order to observe and analyze animal behavior patterns
Freelance writer talks to editor in order to pitch article ideas
Tourist talks to tour guide in order to learn about a city's history.
Manager talks to HR representative in order to review job applications
Job seeker talks to employment agency in order to find a job.
Legal assistant talks to client in order to assist with legal paperwork
Pets blogger talks to subscribers in order to provide information about pets
Salesperson talks to manager in order to receive training
Motivational speaker talks to audience in order to inspire them
Dentist talks to insurance adjuster in order to find out what procedures are covered
Box office attendant talks to patron in order to sell tickets.
Boss talks to employee in order to give feedback on a project.
Attendee talks to speaker in order to say thank you after a presentation.
Project manager talks to stakeholders in order to provide updates
Postman talks to colleague to coordinate deliveries

Table 9: Random sample of 40 scenario descriptions generated for D0T (§3.1) to serve as task domains.

```
List 100 diverse examples of everyday tasks that require talking to another person.
Format each list item like:

N. <Role of person 1> talks to <role of person 2> in order to <task goal>
```

Figure 4: GPT-3.5 prompt for generating dialogue scenarios/domains.

```
List examples of as many different types of information as you can that would be
shared during the dialogue scenario: {domain}
```

Figure 5: GPT-3.5 prompt for generating a list of information types for each dialogue domain.

```
Dialogue Scenario:
{domain}

Information Types:
{info types}

Write a dialogue for the above Dialogue Scenario. Include specific examples of the
Information Types above being shared and implied throughout the conversation.
Make up actual names/values when specific information examples are shared.
```

Figure 6: GPT-3.5 prompt for generating a dialogue for a given task domain.

```
Two people, {speaker} and {listener}, are having a dialogue in which the
following was just said:

{dialogue context}
{speaker}: {last turn}

Please break down and summarize all the information in what {speaker} just
said into as many question-answer pairs as you can. Each question-answer pair
should be short, specific, and focus on only one piece of information or value.

For information {speaker} shared, use the question-answer pair format:

{listener}: <question>
{speaker}: <answer>

For information {speaker} requested or indicated not knowing,
use the answer "Unknown." in a question-answer pair format like:

{speaker}: <question>
{listener}: Unknown.


{answered qa pairs}
```

Figure 7: GPT-4 prompt for generating question-answer pairs for a dialogue context.

```
Two people, {speaker} and {listener}, are having a dialogue in which the
following was just said:

{dialogue context}
{speaker}: {last turn}

Please identify the information or values {speaker} gave as short answers to the
following questions (use the answer "Unknown." if the question is not answered by
{speaker} in the dialogue):

{unanswered qa questions}
```

Figure 8: GPT-4 prompt for answering questions from the previous turn that were not previously answered.

```
{qa pairs}

Translate each question above into variable names.
Each label should be very short, usually one or two words,
but specific to the details of the question. Write each question before
translating it into a variable name, in the format:

<question> -> <variable name>
```

Figure 9: GPT-3.5 prompt for translating questions into slot names.

```
{qav tuples}

Translate each answer to the above questions into a value for the
corresponding variable. Values should be short, usually one word,
very short phrase, number, span, category, score, boolean, list,
or other value. Copy each answer before translating it into a value,
in the format:

Question: <question>
Variable: <variable>
Answer: <answer>
Value: <value>
```

Figure 10: GPT-3.5 prompt for translating answers into slot values.

```
{slots with corresponding questions and values}

For each Info Type above, write a comma-separated list of all Possible Values
(if there are many Possible Values, write ", etc." after a few examples),
and a short phrase as a description for each Info Type. Use the format:

Info Type: <info type>
Possible Values: <value 1>, <value 2>, <value 3>
Description: <phrase>
```

Figure 11: GPT-3.5 prompt for generating descriptions and value examples for each slot.