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Computer simulation of dialogue and communication

The dialogue is the primary use of language and the study of communication in dialogue is necessary for our understanding of natural language. There has been an increased interest in communication, in spite of the negative attitudes of Chomsky (1975). (He does not even mention the word communication in the index of his classical book Aspects of the theory of syntax, 1965).

Even small-scale attempts at simulating dialogue by computer are rewarding and further our understanding of language. The insights may be used in practical applications such as expert systems and operative systems.

This paper will look at dialogue from different angles. An analysis of dialogue in cycles of two or three steps will be presented. It can be described by extending the phrase structure rules which have been used for sentence analysis. With this background a model of a turn-taker, who can participate in such a dialogue and produce the proper steps in the cycles will be presented. This model has been implemented in a small-scale computer system where two "persons" talk (Sigurd, 1985) to each other using different speech synthesis voices. This implementation shows how well the current speech synthesis devices can serve in human dialogue. The model allows the operator to study the effect of pauses, willingness to give backchannel items (supportivity), to respond and take initiatives.

Lastly the construction of a more advanced model where the transfer of information is focused is discussed. It is noted that many words in the dialogues serve to indicate how the information should be or has been accepted. An information driven model must also focus the difference between the "real" world and the verbal discourse world which is being built during the dialogue. Metacomments, such as sort of, "", precisely, typical play an important role in marking the relations between the verbal expressions and the "real" world.

Dialogue as cycles

Fig.1 presents a sample dialogue and some rules to analyze it. The rules show the main types of utterances occurring in dialogue and their sequencing. The rules also show the basic grammatical structure. Generative phrase structure rules introduced in order to characterize sentences (cf Chomsky, 1957,1965) are used in all the rules.

It may be convenient to start by looking at the sample dialogue. It consists of utterances 1-7 by partners I and II. Some utterances clearly belong together and constitute sections, rounds or cycles. Utterances 1 and 2 make up one cycle consisting of a statement and a response. The response is called a backchannel item. Utterances 3-5 make up another cycle including three constituents; a question, an answer and a backchannel item and utterances 6-7 make up a cycle with two utterances: an instruction (order) and a reaction which we also classify as a backchannel item.

We note the punctuation marks: full stop, question mark, mark of exclamation (which could perhaps have been used after the other backchannel items as well). In speech, the intonation contours would vary correspondingly. In speech, there would have been pauses at least between utterances 1-2, 3-4, 4-5, and 6-7, where there is a shift of speaker. But when the speaker is the same, as in 2-3, 5-6, the utterances could have been delivered without a pause (cf Oreström, 1983, Stenström, 1984).

It is assumed that a dialogue consists of a series of cycles of this type - at least one. The types of cycles are given in rule 1, where certain terms are introduced. The terminology in the literature varies between different authors and fields. It could be oriented towards speech acts, game theory, linguistic form or function. The terms interchange, transaction and move have been used. Backchannel items have been called supports which indicates the double nature of these utterances.

The only type of question included in the rules is the truth question, which could be answered by yes or no. Traditional grammar has not analyzed dialogue in the way we do and does not make a clear distinction between yes as an answer and as a backchannel item (see below). On the other hand, it is an interesting fact, that many languages use the same word as a positive answer and as a supportive backchannel item.

The subsequent rules in fig. are the familiar rules indicating the basic structure of statements (S), questions (Q) and instructions (I). The internal structure of the constituents is not discussed in this superficial account. The addressee may be mentioned in imperatives and in questions, e.g. by pronouns, names or vocative terms such as dear, you idiot. This is not shown in these rules, but in fig.2 below.

The backchannel items (B) are an almost closed set of words, including e.g. OK (almost a language universal soon), quite, absolutely, certainly, really, yes, no and various rudimentary utterances rendered by mm, mhm in writing. They signal contact, support but at the same time reaction and attitudes e.g.:agreement, dislike, surprise, doubt (see Oreström,1983 and Sigurd,1984).

Non-verbal signals generally accompany dialogue and play a very important role. Often backchanneling is handled on the non-verbal channel, e.g. by nodding, eye movements, shaking the head while the speaker is speaking. This is very practical as it allows simultaneous communication and avoids two voices on the same channel.

In practical analysis of dialogues the model presented may seem too simplistic and many problems of identification and categorisation occur , but for our present purpose it is sufficient.

RULES

$$1. C(YCLE) \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S(TATEMENT) \\ I(INSTRUCTION) \\ Q(UESTION) \end{array} \right. + A(NSWER) \quad (B(ACKCHANNEL))$$

A CYCLE IN A DIALOGUE MAY CONSIST OF A STATEMENT OR AN INSTRUCTION RESPONDED TO BY A BACKCHANNEL ITEM BY THE PARTNER. A CYCLE MAY ALSO CONSIST OF THREE UNITS: QUESTION, ANSWER AND BACKCHANNEL.

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|---|--|
| 2. S → NP + VP (NP) (PREP PHRASE). | A STATEMENT MAY CONSIST OF A NOUN PHRASE AND A VERB PHRASE WITH ADDITIONAL UNITS |
| 3. Q → VP + NP (NP) (PREP PHRASE)? | A QUESTION HAS INVERTED ORDER BETWEEN VERB AND SUBJECT |
| 4. I → Vimp (NP)! | AN INSTRUCTION (COMMAND ETC) HAS AN IMPERATIVE FORM |
| 5. A → $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I \text{ DON'T NO.} \\ YES/NO \end{array} \right.$ | A TRUTH QUESTION IS ANSWERED BY YES OR NO, IF THE ANSWER IS KNOWN |
| 6. B → I SEE, OK, QUITE... | BACKCHANNEL ITEMS ARE A FEW STANDARD PHRASES |

SAMPLE DIALOGUE

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|--|--------------|
| 1. I: A SHIP IS APPROACHING THE SUBMARINE. (S) | } 1:st CYCLE |
| 2. II: OK. (B) | |
| 3. II: IS IT A DESTROYER? (Q) | } 2:nd CYCLE |
| 4. I: I DON'T KNOW. (A) | |
| 5. II: I SEE. (B) | } 3:rd CYCLE |
| 6. II: SEND A HELICOPTER! (I) | |
| 7. I: OK. (B) | |

I, II are the partners of the dialogue. The letters S, B, A etc are defined by the rules above. Different cycles are shown.

Fig.1. Prase structure rules indicating the grammatical structure of utterances in dialoge and how the main types of utterances occur in cycles in dialoge. The sample dialogue below illustrates the rules.

A model of a turn-taker

A person who is to participate in a dialogue must know the language, but that is not enough. He must also master the turn-taking rules; he must react properly and be willing to take initiatives. The rules of turn-taking are outlined in fig.2. (It is in fact a flow chart which has been used in computer simulation of communication, Sigurd 1985). It is, of course, related to fig.1,

A person who participates in a dialogue must listen to (and look at) his partner all the time in order to find out whether he is being addressed or not. It is not even possible to stop listening when one is talking, as the partner might want to interrupt. The partner may also give backchannel signals while one is speaking.

A participant in a dialogue must listen to certain signs which indicate that he has to do something. If his name is mentioned (which people, according to experience, notice even at very noisy parties), he has to watch out. It might be a vocative term, which means that he is being called upon to answer a question, execute an instruction etc.

The main types of utterances are characterized by special intonation contours and syntactic means as was noted above: the question by inverted word order, the instruction by a special verb form. When he finds that he is being addressed, there are various possibilities as indicated by the flow diagram. If the participant (2 in the diagram) is being asked something, it is proper to answer the question. Studies of dialogue indicate that questions are rarely left unanswered. It is considered impolite not to answer a question and it can be considered to be breaking the contract of cooperation which is signed when two persons carry on a dialogue. In order to answer, the memory - which may be thought of as a data base - must be searched. Generally, this takes time and there is naturally a delay before the answer is given. If an answer is given immediately, it sounds strange - as if the answer is completely self-evident or the question is not taken seriously. Truth questions require searching for the fact questioned, e g "Is the ship a destroyer?" WH-questions require searching for the parts of the fact given and filling in the lacking piece, if it can be found, e g "Who is in charge of the helicopter operations?"

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If one is not being asked a question one might have been instructed or ordered to do something. This case is shown next in the diagram and it also requires a reaction. Normally one has to say whether one is going to carry out the request or not. (The important thing is, of course, to carry out the instruction.)

The next situation depicted in the diagram occurs when a statement has been uttered. If one is doubtful, one might, as indicated in the diagram, utter a back question, e g "Really?" This is a truth question and has to be answered by the partner by yes or no? Should the dialogue participant not be doubtful, however, he may acknowledge the statement by saying "OK, I see, Fine" etc, or some other backchannel item after having registered the fact in memory - adding it to his data base.

The right hand part of the diagram shows typical responses to the initiatives of the partner. It is, however, also important to take initiatives. The proper moment to take an initiative is when the word is free, after a cycle has been completed. One might, of course, also break in before, but that case is not illustrated by the diagram.

Two of the types of initiatives encoded by special syntactic means by natural languages have to do with information. The statement is used to inform the partner: the question is used when the speaker wants to be informed. Thinking about human knowledge in terms of data bases, we might say that the speaker makes a statement when he wants to add something to the listeners data base. Why the speaker wants to add this fact to the memory of the listener is a separate question, but a model of a communicator must have an intention to communicate.

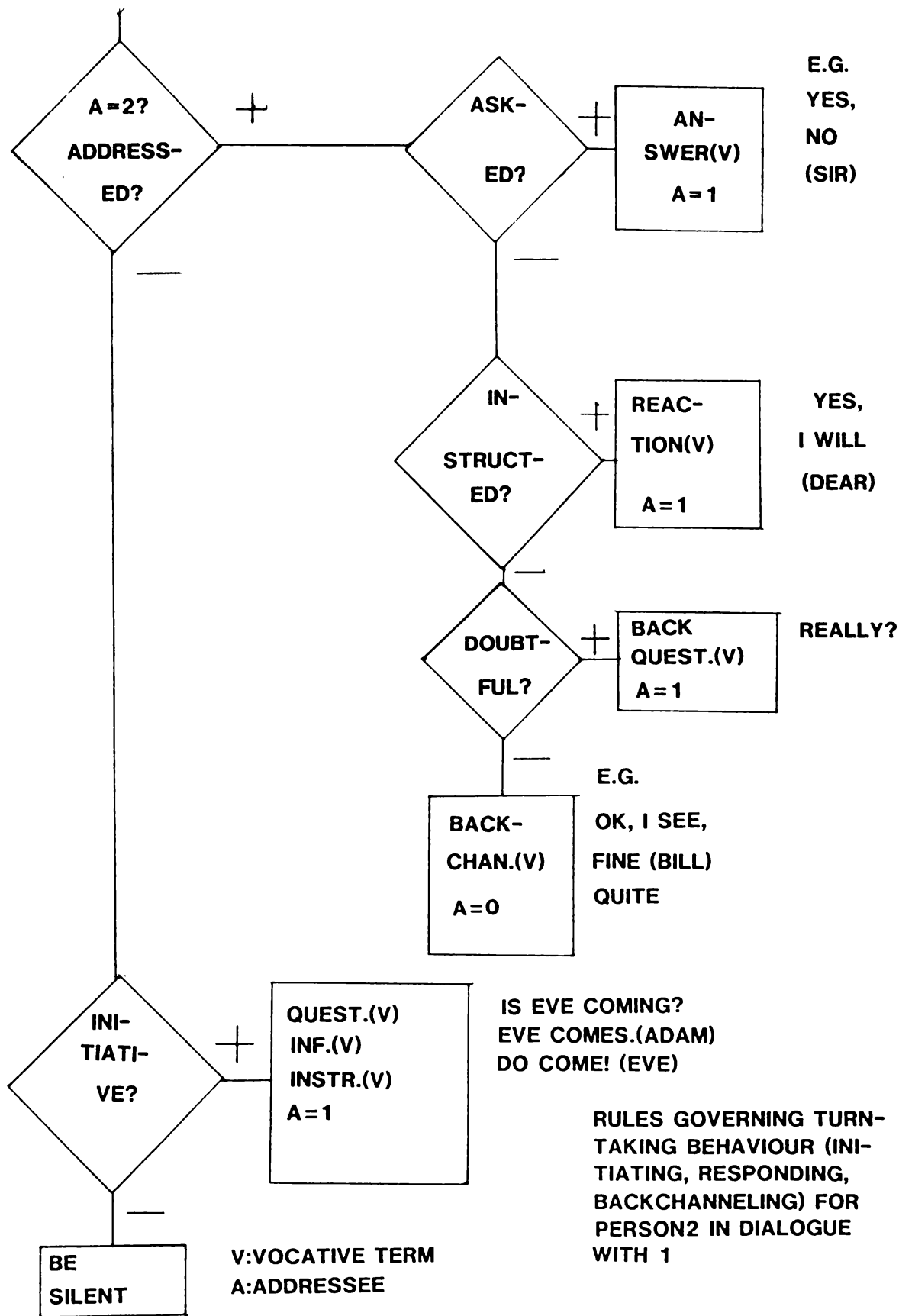


FIG. 2

Modeling transfer of information

As hinted at above human dialogue can partly be seen as a successive mutual updating of the databases of the partners. But this is done in a very subtle way, where the speakers ideally indicate their "knowledges", assumptions and attitudes.

Fig.3 shows a number of different communicative situations and related utterances. Each partner is assumed to have a picture of the "real" world as he sees or imagines it. The real world which I is trying to convey information about is the marine scene mentioned above. I's and II's pictures may differ as indicated. When I says something he is adding something to a verbal discourse world which is also indicated in the figure. Similarly the partner II is assumed to have a verbal discourse world which is being changed as he understands I's utterances. It is important to note that the "real" worlds and the verbal worlds are not identical. What I says is only one out of an infinite number of comments which could be made, and his comments do by no means give all the details of the situation.

When the speaker I says: "A ship is approaching the submarine" he may have a picture of the "real" world as depicted in fig 3. His verbal world may be represented by the logical formule $APPR(S,U)$, where APPR is short for "is approaching", S is the ship and U the submarine. It is clear that he assumes that his partner II knows about the existence of the submarine. This is indicated by the square brackets around $EXT(U)$, and the occurrence of the same item in II's world indicates that I's assumption is correct. The new information is thus only $EXT(S)$ and $APPR(S,U)$ and one may say that only $APPR(S,U)$ is primary, $EXT(S)$ may be derivable.

II may be said to have understood, when he has updated his verbal discourse world, but that does not mean that II has the same picture of the "real" world as I. There are many places where the ship may be located, satisfying the conditions imposed by approaching. The ship could approach from the North, from the East etc. It could be close, it could go fast etc. The listener fills in the details and he may guess wrongly (as in fig 3).

If the answer is OK or "I see" it shows that II has just stored the new piece of information in his memory. But human partners often give other backchannel items, e.g. "Fine", which means that the information is favourable in some way. One may think of a situation here where the ship by approaching comes within reach of the torpedos of the submarine. Using such emotional backchannel items requires information of the intentions and plans of II. This is also the case if disproving items such as "Blast" are to be used. One may imagine a situation where the approaching of the ship interferes with the plans of the submarine, which is now threatened.

A common situation occurs when the partner already knows and this situation is depicted below the line. In such a case the databases of the partners I and II are identical as is shown. II could just indicate this by saying "I know". Often the partner gives comments which indicate how well he thinks his partner describes the situation, i.e. how well the verbal world agrees with the real world. Such comments may be called metacomments and they may indicate that the wording is perfect in which case backchannel items such as "Quite, Precisely" Swedish "Precis, Just det" are used. These are in fact very frequent words. The speaker (II) may comment by saying "Yes, to say the least", which indicates that he does not think the wording fits the situation, in this case maybe because the ship is rushing towards the submarine at great speed, in which case approaching seems to weak (almost euphemistic). In other cases the partner may agree on the situation but think that the wording is too strong. Types of metacomments are given in Sigurd(1986).

If the partner knows that the situation is different he may give the backchannel "No" or he may say "Really?" This situation is depicted by the last pictures where the verbal world includes contradictory information: The ship is going away from the submarine: DIST(S,U).

However the different worlds are depicted or represented, it is clear that dialogue utterances are not just automatic readings of facts in databases, as some designers of expert systems seem to believe. Simulating the richness of human dialogue is a great challenge.

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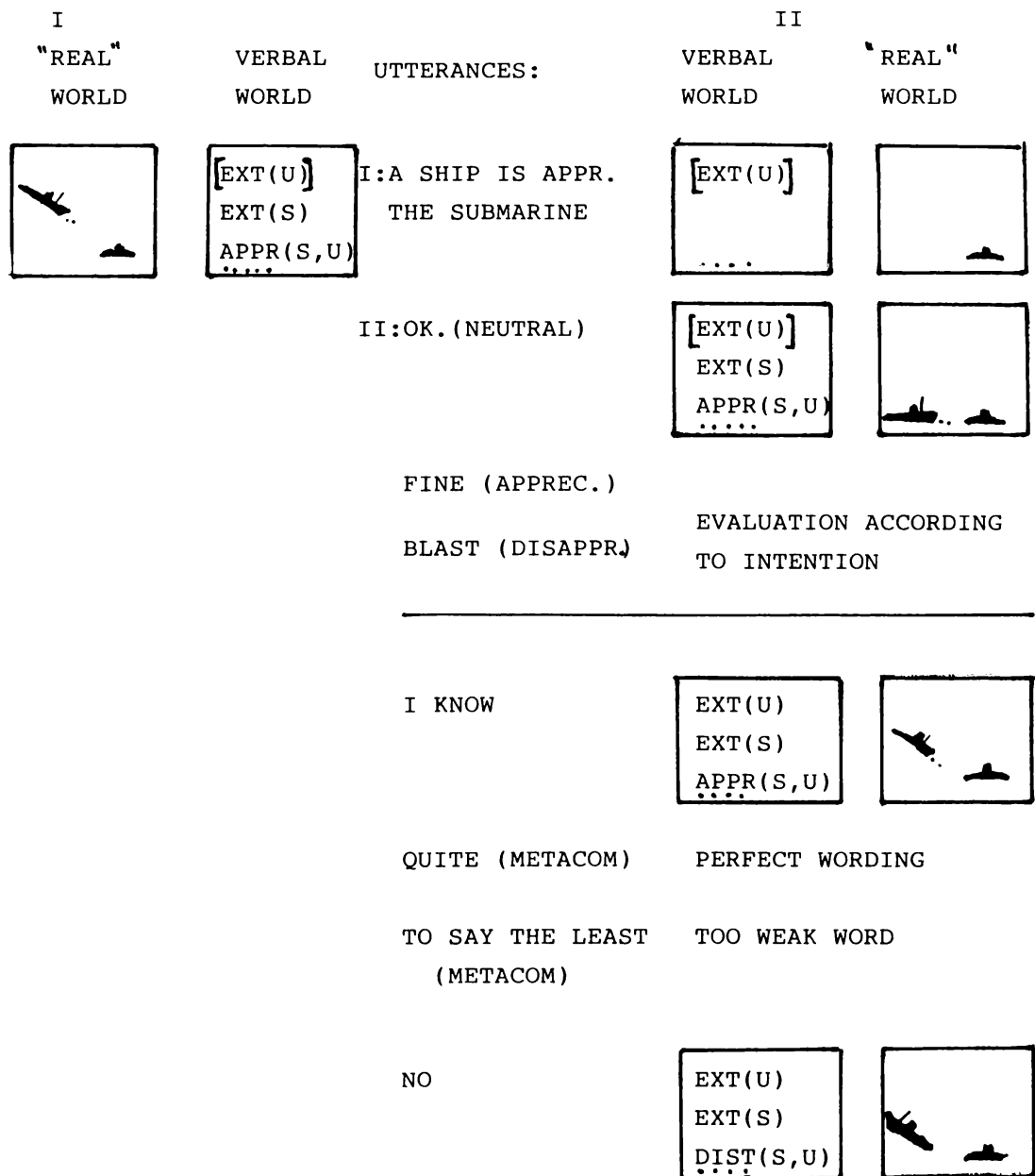


Fig.3
STATES OF THE REAL AND VERBAL WORLDS OF PARTNERS I,II
AND SAMPLE UTTERANCES. NOTE THAT THE METACOMMENTS
COMMENT ON THE DISCREPANCIES BETWEEN THE REAL AND THE
VERBAL WORLD.

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