End-to-End Knowledge-Routed Relational Dialogue System for Automatic Diagnosis

Lin Xu,^{1†} Qixian Zhou,^{1†} Ke Gong,¹ Xiaodan Liang,^{1*} Jianheng Tang,³ Liang Lin^{1,2}
¹Sun Yat-Sen University, ²Dark Matter AI Inc., ³Soochow University

¹Sun Yat-Sen University, ²Dark Matter AI Inc., ³Soochow University cathyxl2016@gmail.com, qixianzhou.mail@gmail.com, gongk3@mail2.sysu.edu.cn xdliang328@gmail.com, sqrt3tjh@gmail.com, linliang@ieee.org

Abstract

Beyond current conversational chatbots or task-oriented dialogue systems that have attracted increasing attention, we move forward to develop a dialogue system for automatic medical diagnosis that converses with patients to collect additional symptoms beyond their self-reports and automatically makes a diagnosis. Besides the challenges for conversational dialogue systems (e.g. topic transition coherency and question understanding), automatic medical diagnosis further poses more critical requirements for the dialogue rationality in the context of medical knowledge and symptom-disease relations. Existing dialogue systems (Madotto, Wu, and Fung 2018; Wei et al. 2018; Li et al. 2017) mostly rely on datadriven learning and cannot be able to encode extra expert knowledge graph. In this work, we propose an End-to-End Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS) that seamlessly incorporates rich medical knowledge graph into the topic transition in dialogue management, and makes it cooperative with natural language understanding and natural language generation. A novel Knowledge-routed Deep Q-network (KR-DQN) is introduced to manage topic transitions, which integrates a relational refinement branch for encoding relations among different symptoms and symptomdisease pairs, and a knowledge-routed graph branch for topic decision-making. Extensive experiments on a public medical dialogue dataset show our KR-DS significantly beats stateof-the-art methods (by more than 8% in diagnosis accuracy). We further show the superiority of our KR-DS on a newly collected medical dialogue system dataset, which is more challenging retaining original self-reports and conversational data between patients and doctors.

Introduction

Task-oriented dialogue aims to achieve specific task through interactions between the system and users in natural language, which is gaining research interest in the different application domain, including movie booking (Lipton et al. 2017), restaurant booking (Wen et al.), online shopping (Yan et al. 2017), and technical support (Lowe et al. 2015). In the medical domain, A dialogue system for medical diagnosis converses with patients to obtain additional

Self-report	
P: Baby vomited last night. What is the re	eason?
Baseline Conversation	
A: Dose baby have diarrhea?	P: Maybe not.
A: Does baby have running nose?	P: Not sure.
A: Does baby have sputum?	P: Not sure.
A: Baby have sputum, doesn't he?	P: Not sure.
A: Your baby may have children dyspepsi	a.
KR-DS Conversation	
A: Does baby have <u>fever</u> ?	P: Not sure.
A: Baby doesn't want to eat (anorexia), is	s it? P: Right!
A: Does he have bloating?	P: Baby does have.
A: Your baby may have children dyspepsi	a.

Table 1: A conversation example between the patient (P) and the agent (A). We underline all symptoms and highlight the symptoms related to the diagnosed disease (italic). Superior to the baseline method (Wei et al. 2018) that asks irrelevant and repeated symptoms, our KR-DS generates more reasonable results thanks to the relational refinement and guidance of knowledge-routed graph, as presented in Fig. 2.

symptoms and make a diagnosis automatically, which has significant potential to simplify the diagnostic procedure and reduce the cost of collecting information from patients (Tang et al. 2016). Besides, patient condition reports and preliminary diagnosis reports generated by the dialogue system may assist doctors to make a diagnosis more efficiently.

However, the dialogue system for medical diagnosis poses stringent requirements not only on the dialogue rationality in the context of medical knowledge but the comprehension of symptom-disease relations. The symptoms which dialogue system inquiries should be related with underlying disease and consistent with medical knowledge. Current taskoriented dialogue systems (Lei et al. 2018; Lukin et al. 2018; Bordes, Boureau, and Weston 2016) highly rely on the complex belief tracker (Wen et al. ; Mrkšić et al. 2016) and pure data-driven learning, which are unable to apply to automatic diagnosis directly for the lack of considering medical knowledge. A very recent work (Wei et al. 2018) made the first move to build a dialogue systems as Markov Decision Process and trained the dialogue policy via reinforcement learn-

^{*}Lin Xu and Qixian Zhou contribute equally to this work and share first-authorship. Corresponding author is Xiaodan Liang. Copyright © 2019, Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence (www.aaai.org). All rights reserved.

ing. Nevertheless, this work only exploits Deep Q-network (DQN) via data-driven learning to manage topic transitions (deciding which symptoms should be asked), whose results are intricate and repeated, as shown in Table 1. Moreover, this work only targets dialogue management for dialogue state tracking and policy learning, utilizing extra template-based models for natural language processing, which fails to match the real-world automatic diagnosis scenarios well.

To address the above challenges, we propose a complete end-to-end Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS) for automatic diagnosis, that seamlessly incorporates rich medical knowledge graph and symptom-disease relations into the topic transition in Dialogue Management (DM), and makes it cooperative with Natural Language Understanding (NLU) and Natural Language Generation (NLG), as shown in Fig. 1.

In general, doctors determine a diagnosis based on medical knowledge and diagnosis experience. Inspired by that, we designed a novel Knowledge-routed Relational Deep Qnetwork (KR-DQN) for dialogue management, which integrates a knowledge-routed graph branch and a relational refinement branch, taking full advantage of the medical knowledge and historical diagnostic cases (doctor experience). The relational refinement branch automatic learns relations among different symptoms and symptom-disease pairs from historical diagnostic data to refine rough results generated from a basic DQN. The knowledge-routed graph branch helps policy decision via a well-designed medical knowledge graph routing prior information based on conditional probabilities. Therefore, these two branches can contribute to generating more reasonable decision results from knowledge guiding and relation encoding, as shown in Table 1.

Moreover, existed dataset (Wei et al. 2018) fails to support our end-to-end dialogue system training as it only contains user goals (extracted and normalized symptoms and disease) instead of complete conversation data. Therefore, we build a new dataset collected from an online medical forum by extracting symptoms and diseases from patients' self-reports and conversations between patients and doctors. Our dataset reserves the original self-reports and interaction utterances between doctors and patients to train the NLU component with real dialogue data, which matches the realistic clinic scenarios much better.

Our contributions are summarized in the following aspects. 1) we propose an End-to-End Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS) that seamlessly incorporates medical knowledge graph into the topic transition in dialogue management, and makes it cooperative with natural language understanding and natural language generation. 2) A novel Knowledge-routed Deep Q-network (KR-DQN) is introduced to manage topic transitions, which integrates a relational refinement branch for encoding relations among different symptoms and symptom-disease pairs, and a knowledge-routed graph branch for topic decision-making. 3) We construct a new challenging end-to-end medical dialogue system dataset, which retains the original self-reports and the conversational data between patients and doctors. 4) Extensive experiments on two medical dialogue system datasets show the superiority of our KR-DS, which significantly beats state-of-the-art methods by more than 8% in diagnostic accuracy.

Related Work

The successes of RNNs architecture (Wen et al.; Serban et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2017) motivated investigation in dialogue systems due to its ability to create a latent representation, avoiding the need for artificial state labels. Sequence-to-sequence models have also been used in taskoriented dialogue systems (Sutskever, Vinyals, and Le 2014; Vinyals and Le 2015; Eric and Manning 2017; Madotto, Wu, and Fung 2018). (Zhao et al. 2017) proposed framework enabling encoder-decoder models to accomplish slotvalue independent decision-making and interact with external databases. (Chen et al. 2018) proposed a hierarchical memory network by adding the hierarchical structure and the variational memory network into a neural encoderdecoder network. Although these architectures have better language modeling ability, they do not work well in knowledge retrieval or knowledge reasoning, where the model inherently tends to generate short and general responses in spite of different inputs.

Another research line comes from the utilizing of knowledge bases. (Young et al. 2017) investigated the impact of providing commonsense knowledge about the concepts covered in the dialogue. (Liu et al. 2018) proposed a neural knowledge diffusion model to introduce knowledge into dialogue generation. (Eric et al. 2017) noticed that neural taskoriented dialogue systems often struggle to smoothly interface with a knowledge base and they addressed the problem by augmenting the end-to-end structure with a key-value retrieval mechanism.

In addition, there are two works much related to our concerns where deep reinforcement learning is applied for automatic diagnosis (Tang et al. 2016; Wei et al. 2018). However, they only targeted on dialogue management for dialogue state tracking and policy learning. Moreover, their data used is simulated or simplified that cannot reflect the situation of the real diagnosis. In our work, we perform not only relation modeling to attend correlated symptoms and diseases but also graph reasoning to guide policy learning by prior medical knowledge. We further introduce an end-toend task-oriented dialogue system for automatic diagnosis and a new medical dialogue system dataset, which pushes the research boundary of automatic diagnosis to match real-world scenarios much better.

Proposed Method

Our End-to-End Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS) is illustrated in Fig. 1. As a task-oriented dialogue system, it contains Natural Language Understanding (NLU), Dialogue Management (DM) and Natural Language Generation (NLG). NLU recognizes user intent and slot values from utterances. Then DM executes topic transition according to current dialogue state. The agent in DM would learn to request symptoms to proceed diagnosis task and inform disease to make a diagnosis. Given the predicted system actions, natural language sentences are generated

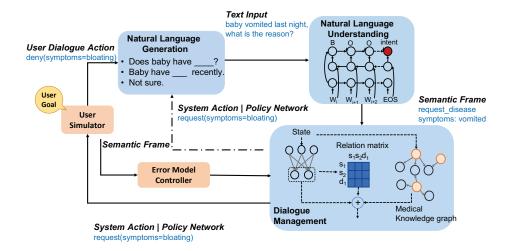


Figure 1: Framework of our end-to-end Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS), A Bi-LSTM based Natural Language Understanding is employed to parse input utterances and generate semantic frames which are further fed into DM module to generate system actions. Dialogue Management manages the system actions containing a basic DQN branch, a relational refinement branch, and a medical knowledge-routed graph branch. A User Simulator with a user goal (consisting of symptoms of patients) to interact with agent and give rewards. A template-based NLG is used to generate natural language for user simulator and dialogue manager based on actions.

by a template-base NLG. Additionally, to train the whole system in an end-to-end way via reinforcement learning, a user simulator is added to execute the conversation exchange conditioned on the generated user goal.

Natural Language Understanding

In our task, NLU is mainly used to classify intent and fill slots for the Chinese language as our dataset was collected from a Chinese website. We use a public Chinese segmentation tool and add medical terms into the custom dictionary to improve accuracy. Given a word sequence, NLU classifies intent and fill in a set of slots to form a semantic frame. As illustrated in Fig. 1, semantic frames are structured data that contain the user's intent and slots. In particular, six types of intents are considered in our automatically diagnosis dialogue system. For a user, there are four types of intents, including request+disease, confirm+symptom, deny+symptom and not-sure+symptom. We apply the popular BIO format (Hakkani-Tür et al. 2016) to label each word tag in the sentence.

Following (Hakkani-Tür et al. 2016), given a word sequence, we apply a Bi-LSTM to recognize BIO tags of each word and simultaneously classify intent of this sentence. With tag labeling done we fill slots based on dialogue contextual information and medical term normalization. Symptoms and diseases are normalized to medical terms defined by the annotators. With regard to context understanding, we maintain a rule-based dialogue state tracker, which stores the status of symptoms. We represent slots of the current semantic frame as a fixed-length symptom vector (each bit -1, 1, -2, 0) and plus it to last symptom vector to get a new symptom vector. If a symptom is requested by an agent and happens not to appear in user's answer, this method could also fill slot by referring to the recorded request slot.

As symptoms and intents are labeled in our dataset, we use supervised learning to train Bi-directional LSTM model. Moreover, after pre-training, NLU can be jointly trained with other parts in our KR-DS through reinforcement learning.

Policy Learning with KR-DQN

Overview. We design DM in a reinforcement learning framework. Dialogue Manager is an agent and interacts with the environment (user simulator) via the dialogue policy. The optimized dialogue policy selects the best action that maximizes the future reward, which suitably solves the problem of our diagnosis dialogue system for its large selection spaces, sequential decision and success/failure end. As shown below, we first describe the basic elements of reinforcement learn- ing in our task. Suppose we have M diseases, N symptoms. Four types of agent action includeinform+disease, request+symptom, thanks and closing. Therefore agent action space size D is denoted as D = $num\ greeting + M + N$. User actions are request+disease, confirm/deny/not-sure+symptom and closing. There are also four types of symptom states, positive, negative, not-sure and not mentioned, represented by 1, -1, -2, 0 in symptom vectors respectively. At each turn, dialogue state s_t contains the previous action of both user and agent, known symptoms representation and current turn information.

Rewards are crucial for policy learning. In our task, we encourage the agent to make the right diagnosis and penalize the wrong diagnosis. Moreover, brief dialogue and precise symptoms request are encouraged. Consequently, we design a reward as follows, +44 for successful diagnosis and -22 for failure. For each turn, we only apply -1 penalty for failing to hit the existed symptom request on each turn. As for the comparison of different reward, we demonstrate several

experimental results in ablation parts. Finally, dialogue policy π describes the behaviors of an agent. It takes state st as input and outputs the probability distribution over all possible actions $\pi(a_t|s_t)$.

DQN is a common policy network in many problems, including playing game (Mnih et al. 2015), video captioning (Wang et al. 2018). Beyond the DQN with simple Multi-Layer Perceptron(MLP), we propose a novel Knowledge-routed Relational DQN (KR-DQN) by considering prior medical knowledge and modeling relations between actions to generate reasonable actions, illustrated in Fig. 2.

Basic DQN Branch. We first utilize a basic DQN branch to generate a rough action result, as formulated in Eq. (1) The MLP takes state s_t as input and outputs a rough action result $a_t^r \in R^D$. The structure of MLP is a simple neural network with a hidden layer. The activation function of the hidden layer is rectified linear unit.

$$a_t^r = MLP(s_t). (1)$$

Relational Refinement Branch. A relation module can affect an individual element (e.g. a symptom or a disease) by aggregating information from a set of other elements (e.g. other symptoms and diseases). As the relation weights are automatically learned driven by the task goal, the relation module can model dependency between the elements. So we design a relational refinement module by introducing a relation matrix $R \in R^{D \times D}$ which represents dependency among all actions. The initially predicted action a_t^r subsequently multiplies this learnable relation matrix R to get refined action result $a_t^f \in R^D$, which is written as Eq. (2). The relation matrix is asymmetric, representing a directed weighted graph. Each column of the relation matrix sums to one and each elements of refined action vector a_t^f is a weighted sum of the initially predicted action a_t^r , where weights denote the dependency between the elements.

$$a_t^f = a_t^r \cdot R. (2)$$

The relation matrix R is initialized with conditional probabilities from dataset statistics. Each entry R_{ij} denotes the probability of the unit x_j conditional on the unit x_i . The relation matrix learns to capture the dependency among actions through back-propagation. Our experiments show that this initialization method is better than random initialization as the prior knowledge can guide relation matrix learning.

Knowledge-routed Graph Branch. When receiving patients' self-reports, doctors first grasp a general understanding of the patients with several possible candidate diseases. Subsequently, by asking for significant symptoms of these candidate diseases, doctors exclude other candidate diseases until confirms a diagnosis. Inspired by this, we design a knowledge-routed graph module to simulate the thinking process of a doctor.

We first calculate the conditional probabilities between diseases and symptoms as directed medical knowledgerouted graph weights, in which there are two types of nodes (diseases and symptoms) as shown in Fig. 2. Edges only exist between a disease and a symptom. Each edge has two weights, which are conditional probabilities from diseases

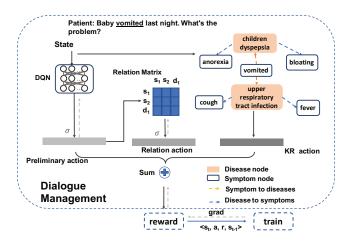


Figure 2: Illustration of Knowledge-routed Deep Q-network (KR-DQN) for DM. The basic DQN branch generates rough action results. The relational branch encodes relations among actions to refine the results. The knowledge-routed graph branch induces medical knowledge for graph reasoning and conducts a rule-based decision to enhance the action results. The three branches can be jointly trained through reinforcement learning.

to symptoms, noted as $P(dis|sym) \in R^{M \times N}$, and conditional probabilities from symptoms to diseases, written as $P(sym|dis) \in R^{N \times M}$.

During communication with patients, doctors may have several candidate diseases. We represent candidate diseases probability as disease probabilities corresponding to observed symptoms. Symptom prior probabilities $P_{prior}(sym) \in R^N$ are calculated through the following rules. For the mentioned symptoms, positive symptoms is set to 1 while negative symptoms is set to -1 to discourage its related diseases. Other symptom(not sure or not mention) probabilities are set to its prior probabilities which are calculated from the dataset. Then these symptom probabilities $P_{prior}(sym)$ multiply conditional probabilities P(dis|sym) to get disease probability P(dis), which is formulated as:

$$P(dis) = P(dis|sym) \cdot P_{prior}(sym). \tag{3}$$

Considering candidate diseases, doctors often inquire some notable symptoms to confirm diagnosis according to their medical knowledge. Likewise, with disease probabilities P(dis), symptom probabilities P(sym) is obtained by matrix multiplication between diseases probabilities P(dis) and conditional probabilities matrix P(sym|dis):

$$P(sym) = P(sym|dis) \cdot P(dis). \tag{4}$$

We concatenate disease probabilities $P(dis) \in \mathbb{R}^M$ and symptom probabilities $P(sym) \in \mathbb{R}^N$ padded with zeros for greeting actions to get knowledge-routed action probabilities $a_t^k \in D$.

With three action vectors a_t^r , a_t^f and a_t^k , we first apply sigmoid activation function to action vector a_t^r and a_t^f to obtain action probabilities. Subsequently, we sum these

Figure 3: An example of a user goal.

three results as predicted action distributions a_t of KR-DQN under the current state s_t .

$$a_t = sigmoid(a_t^r) + sigmoid(a_t^f) + a_t^k$$
 (5)

In order to prevent repeated request, we add symptoms filter to KR-DQN outputs. All components are trained with a well-designed reward (described at the beginning of this section) to encourage KR-DQN learn how to request effective symptoms and make a right diagnosis.

User Simulator

In order to train our end-to-end dialogue system, we apply a user simulator to sample user goals from the experimental dataset for automatically and naturally interacting with the dialogue system. Following (Schatzmann and Young 2009), our user simulator maintains a user goal G. As shown in Fig. 3, a user goal generally consists of four parts: disease tag for the disease that the user suffers, self-report for the original self-reports from patients, implicit symptoms for symptoms talked about between the patient and the doctor, and request slots for the disease slot that the user would request. When the agent requests a symptom during the course of the dialogue, the user will take one of the three actions including True for the positive symptom, False for the negative symptom, and Not sure for the symptom that is not mentioned in the user goal. The dialogue session will be terminated as successful if the agent informs a correct disease. On the contrary, the dialogue process will fail if the agent makes the wrong diagnosis or the dialogue turn reaches the maximum turn T.

Natural Language Generation

Given actions produced from Dialogue Management and User Simulator, a template-based natural language generation (template-NLG) is applied in our system to generate human-like sentences. As mentioned in NLU part, request and inform pairs are relatively simple. Previous dialogue systems (Li et al. 2017; Lei et al. 2018) have many possible request/inform patterns but each one of them has only one template. Varying from them, we design 4 to 5 templates for each action to diversify dialogues. As for medical terms used in the dialogues, analogous to NLU, we choose daily expressions corresponding to specific symptoms and diseases from our collected medical term list.

Disease	Quantity	Symptoms
Allergic rhinitis	102	24
Upper respiratory tract infection	122	23
Pneumonia	100	29
Children hand-foot-mouth disease	101	22
Pediatric diarrhea	102	33

Table 2: Statistics of dialogues and symptoms for diseases.

End-to-End Training With Deep Q-Learning

Following (Mnih et al. 2015), we employ Deep Q-Learning to train DM with fine-tuned NLU and template-base NLG. Two important DQN tricks (Van Hasselt, Guez, and Silver 2016), target network usage and experience replay are applied in our system. We use $Q(s_t, a_t|\theta)$ to denote the the expected discounted sum of rewards, after taking a action a_t under state s_t . Then according Bellman equation, the Q-value can be written into:

$$Q(s_t, a_t | \theta) = r_t + \gamma \max_{a_{t+1}} Q^*(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1} | \theta')$$
 (6)

 θ' is the parameters of target network obtained from previous episode. γ is the discount rate. We use ϵ -greedy exploration at training phase for effective action space exploration, selecting a random action in probability ϵ . We store the agent's experiences at each time-step in experience replay buffer, denoted as $e_t(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$. The buffer is flushed if current network performs better than all previous models.

Experiments

DX Medical Dialogue Dataset

We build a newly DX dataset for medical dialogue system, reserving the original self-reports and interaction utterances between doctors and patients. We collected data from a Chinese online health-care community (dxy.com) where users asking doctors for medical diagnosis or professional medical advice. We annotate five types of diseases, including allergic rhinitis, upper respiratory infection, pneumonia, children hand-foot-mouth disease, and pediatric diarrhea. We extract the symptoms that appear in self-reports and conversation and normalize them into 41 symptoms. Four annotators with medical background are invited to label the symptoms in both self-reports and raw conversations. Symptoms appearing in self-reports are regarded as explicit symptoms while the others are implicit symptoms. The diseases of each medical diagnosis conversation are labeled automatically by the website. There are 527 conversational data in total. 423 conversational data are selected as the training set 104 for testing. More detailed dataset statistics are shown in Table .

Experimental Setup

Datasets. (Wei et al. 2018) constructed a dataset by collecting data from Baidu Muzhi Doctor website, denoted as MZ dataset in this paper. The MZ dataset contains 710 user goals and 66 symptoms, covering 4 types of diseases. As the MZ dataset only contains user goal data, we just train the DM model with user simulator and error model controller

using the provided train/test sets. The slot error rate and intent error rate are both set at 5%. We further evaluate our end-to-end framework on our DX dataset that reserves original conversation data. We selected 423 dialogues for training and conducted inference on another 104 dialogues.

Evaluation Metrics. Same as (Wei et al. 2018), we use the rate of making the right diagnosis as dialogue accuracy. We also employ a newly metric, namely matching rate, to evaluate the effectiveness of symptoms dialogue system requests. A successful matching means systems ask a symptom that exists in user implicit symptoms, otherwise, it is a failure matching.

Implementation Details We implement the system on Pytorch. To train the DQN composed of a two-layer neural network, the ϵ of ϵ -greedy strategy is set to 0.1 for effective action space exploration and the γ in Bellman equation is 0.9. The initial buffer size D is 10000 and the batch size is 32. The learning rate is 0.01. We choose SGD as the optimizer and 100 simulation dialogues will add to experience replay pool at each epoch training. Generally, we train the models for about 300 epochs. The source code will be released together with our DX dataset.

Experimental Results

MZ dataset. We only train Dialogue Management for the limitation of MZ dataset and compare our method with several baselines, as shown in Table 3."SVM-em" means the SVM model trained with just explicit symptoms and "SVMem&im" is the SVM model using both explicit and implicit symptoms. Basic DQN is the proposed framework of (Wei et al. 2018). The results of the above three baselines are provided by (Wei et al. 2018). "DQN+relation branch" means our proposed model without knowledge-routed graph branch and "DQN+knowledge branch" is the model without relation refinement branch. Observed from Table 3, the performance of SVM-em&im is higher than SVM-em, which indicates that the implicit symptoms would make a significant improvement. However, basic DQN (Wei et al. 2018) gets 6% loss of accuracy compared to SVM-ex&im because it fails to inquiry effective implicit symptoms. Notably, our KR-DS not only significantly beats basic DQN (8%) but also outperforms SVM-ex&im (2%), which shows that our method can inquiry implicit symptoms effectively and make a precise diagnosis, thanks to knowledge-routed graph reasoning and relational refinement.

DX dataset. We further evaluate the proposed end-to-end KR-DS through Deep Q-learning on our DX dataset. For comparison, we re-implement a baseline, which shares the identical NLU and NLG with KR-DS but employ a single Deep Q-network (Wei et al. 2018) as policy network. In addition, we apply a state-of-the-art end-to-end task-oriented dialogue system framework (Lei et al. 2018) to our task (Sequicity), which uses belief spans to store constraints and requests (which are symptoms and diseases in this task) for state tracking. As shown in Table 4, our method outperforms basic DQN (Wei et al. 2018) and state-of-art seqto-seq (Lei et al. 2018) method in both task complete accuracy and symptom matching rate. Focusing on obtaining the largest positive reward, basic DQN often guesses the

Method	Infantile diarrhea		Upper respiratory infection	Bronchitis	Overall
SVM-ex	0.89	0.28	0.44	0.71	0.59
SVM-ex&im	0.91	0.34	0.52	0.93	0.71
Basic DQN (Wei et al. 2018)	-	-	-	-	0.65
DQN + relation branch*	0.87	0.31	0.42	0.86	0.68
DQN + relation branch	0.92	0.35	0.49	0.93	0.70
DQN + knowledge branch	0.88	0.31	0.44	0.89	0.68
Our KR-DS	0.96	0.39	0.50	0.97	0.73

Table 3: Performance comparison on the MZ dataset.

	, ,	Match rate	Ave turns
Basic DQN (Wei et al. 2018)	0.731	0.110	3.92
Sequicity (Lei et al. 2018)	0.285	0.246	3.40
Our KR-DS	0.740	0.267	3.36

Table 4: Performance comparisons with the state-of-the-art methods on DX dataset.

right disease results but inquiries some unreasonable and repeated symptoms during the dialogue due to no constraints for symptom and disease relation (prior knowledge). Our framework shows superiority not only in a higher accuracy but also higher matching rate, which indicates the symptoms acquired by KR-DS agent is more reasonable and as a consequence, it can make the more right diagnosis. Seq-to-seq frameworks (Sequicity) performs worse on this medical diagnosis task as they focus on the in-dialogue sentence transition while ignoring medical symptom connections to diagnosis.

Ablation Studies

Component analysis. To verify the effects of the main components of our KR-DS, we further conducted a series of ablation studies on MZ dataset, as shown in Table 3. Here we mainly target at the following components in our framework: knowledge-routed graph branch and relation refinement branch. As is shown in Table 3, all these factors contribute to better performance of our method. Additionally, initializing relation matrix with conditional probability in the relational branch is better than random initialization ("DQN+relation*"), as the prior medical knowledge can guide the relation matrix learning.

Reward evaluation. Our reward is designed based on the maximum turn value L=22, 2*L for success and -L for failure and -1 for the penalty. -1 penalty will cause shorter dialogue turns by accumulating through the process of dialogue. We evaluate several reward functions considering the magnitude of reward by doing experiments as follows: we chose four group of rewards R1: +22, -11, -1; R2: +11, -6, -1; R1*: +22, -11, -0.5; R2*: +11, -6, -0.25 for success, failure and penalty in experiments, and got accuracy shown in

Reward	R1	R2	R1*	R2*
Accuracy	0.697	0.725	0.718	0.739

Table 5: Evaluation of reward magnitude on MZ dataset.

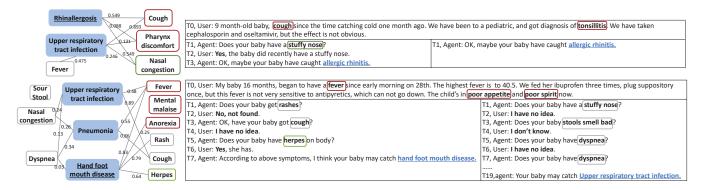


Figure 4: Visualized conversation results on DX dataset. In each table, the first line is a self-report of patient. The results generated by our KR-DS are presented on the left column and the ones produced by the pure DQN method (Wei et al. 2018) on the right. We also present the knowledge graph related to the diagnosis process to the left of each table. To highlight the symptoms and diseases, red boxes used for symptoms from self-report, green for *True* symptom, gray for *False* and *not sure* symptoms in the user goal, blue for the diagnosed disease.

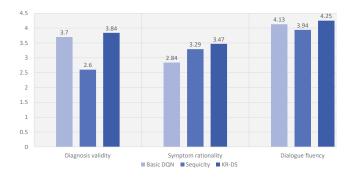


Figure 5: Human evaluation of three methods.

Fig. 5. We found using smaller reward value achieves similar results with ours, but leading to a stable training process.

Human Evaluation

As automated metrics is insufficient for evaluating a dialog system (Liu et al. 2016), we invited three users with medical background to perform human evaluation based on three aspects: 1) diagnosis validity, 2) correctness of final diagnosis, symptom rationality and relevance, rationality of requested symptoms based on current dialogue status and medical knowledge, 3) dialogue fluency, dialogue fluency of communication. 104 dialogues in testing set are evaluated by three users. Users are given user goal (Fig. 3) and converse with three dialogue systems, including Basic DQN (Wei et al. 2018), Sequicity (Lei et al. 2018) and our KR-DS. For each dialogue session, users are asked to giving a rating on a scale from 1 (worst) to 5 (best) on above three aspects.

As shown in Fig. 5, for diagnosis validity, our KR-DS has the higher average rating than other two methods. For symptom rationality and relevance, our method also outperforms other methods. Basic DQN obtains the lowest rating for requesting unrelated symptoms frequently. For dialogue fluency, our method also performs the best.

Qualitative Analysis

For the more intuitive demonstration of our generated dialogues, two user goal results are displayed in Fig. 4. For the first example, self-report indicates two possible diseases, Rhinallergosis, and Upper respiratory tract infection according to the mentioned symptoms. The baseline gives the result directly, which may cause misdiagnosis. Contrarily, besides guidance by prior knowledge, our agent also considers the relations between symptoms and diseases, which tries to acquire a discriminatory symptom nasal congestion that is more relevant to Rhinallergosis and finally makes valid diagnosis. For the second result, the baseline method keeps asking symptoms which are not related to the correct diseases, like Sour Stool (no connection) and Nasal Congestion (with probability less than 0.3). Obviously, beneficial from the prior disease knowledge and symptom relations, our KR-DS asks Rash, Herpes, and Cough and diagnoses the correct Hand foot mouth disease.

Conclusions

In this work, we move forward to develop an End-to-End Knowledge-routed Relational Dialogue System (KR-DS) that enables dialogue management, natural language understanding, and natural language generation to cooperatively optimize via reinforcement learning. We propose a novel Knowledge-routed Deep Q-network (KR-DQN) upon a basic DQN to manage topic transitions, which further integrates a relational refinement branch for encoding relations among different symptoms and symptom-disease pairs, and a knowledge-routed graph branch for policy decision guided by medical knowledge. Additionally, we construct a new benchmark focusing on end-to-end medical dialogue systems, which retains the original self-reports and the conversational data between patients and doctors. Extensive experiments on two datasets show the superiority of our KR-DS, which generates the most precise and reasonable results.

References

- Bordes, A.; Boureau, Y.-L.; and Weston, J. 2016. Learning end-to-end goal-oriented dialog. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1605.07683*.
- Chen, H.; Ren, Z.; Tang, J.; Zhao, Y. E.; and Yin, D. 2018. Hierarchical variational memory network for dialogue generation. In *Proceedings of the 2018 World Wide Web Conference on World Wide Web*, 1653–1662. International World Wide Web Conferences Steering Committee.
- Eric, M., and Manning, C. 2017. A copy-augmented sequence-to-sequence architecture gives good performance on task-oriented dialogue. In *Proceedings of the 15th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Volume 2, Short Papers*, 468–473.
- Eric, M.; Krishnan, L.; Charette, F.; and Manning, C. D. 2017. Key-value retrieval networks for task-oriented dialogue. In *Proceedings of the 18th Annual SIGdial Meeting on Discourse and Dialogue*, 37–49.
- Hakkani-Tür, D.; Tür, G.; Celikyilmaz, A.; Chen, Y.-N.; Gao, J.; Deng, L.; and Wang, Y.-Y. 2016. Multi-domain joint semantic frame parsing using bi-directional rnn-lstm. In *Interspeech*, 715–719.
- Lei, W.; Jin, X.; Kan, M.-Y.; Ren, Z.; He, X.; and Yin, D. 2018. Sequicity: Simplifying task-oriented dialogue systems with single sequence-to-sequence architectures. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, volume 1, 1437–1447.
- Li, X.; Chen, Y.-N.; Li, L.; Gao, J.; and Celikyilmaz, A. 2017. End-to-end task-completion neural dialogue systems. In *Proceedings of the Eighth International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing*, volume 1, 733–743.
- Lipton, Z.; Li, X.; Gao, J.; Li, L.; Ahmed, F.; and Deng, L. 2017. Bbq-networks: Efficient exploration in deep reinforcement learning for task-oriented dialogue systems. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:1711.05715.
- Liu, C.-W.; Lowe, R.; Serban, I. V.; Noseworthy, M.; Charlin, L.; and Pineau, J. 2016. How not to evaluate your dialogue system: An empirical study of unsupervised evaluation metrics for dialogue response generation. *arXiv* preprint *arXiv*:1603.08023.
- Liu, S.; Chen, H.; Ren, Z.; Feng, Y.; Liu, Q.; and Yin, D. 2018. Knowledge diffusion for neural dialogue generation. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, volume 1, 1489–1498.
- Lowe, R.; Pow, N.; Serban, I. V.; and Pineau, J. 2015. The ubuntu dialogue corpus: A large dataset for research in unstructured multi-turn dialogue systems. In 16th Annual Meeting of the Special Interest Group on Discourse and Dialogue, 285.
- Lukin, S. M.; Gervits, F.; Hayes, C.; Moolchandani, P.; Leuski, A.; Rogers, J.; Amaro, C. S.; Marge, M.; Voss, C.; and Traum, D. 2018. Scoutbot: A dialogue system for collaborative navigation. *Proceedings of ACL 2018, System Demonstrations* 93–98.
- Madotto, A.; Wu, C.-S.; and Fung, P. 2018. Mem2seq: Effectively incorporating knowledge bases into end-to-end

- task-oriented dialog systems. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 1468–1478.
- Mnih, V.; Kavukcuoglu, K.; Silver, D.; Rusu, A. A.; Veness, J.; Bellemare, M. G.; Graves, A.; Riedmiller, M.; Fidjeland, A. K.; Ostrovski, G.; et al. 2015. Humanlevel control through deep reinforcement learning. *Nature* 518(7540):529.
- Mrkšić, N.; Séaghdha, D. O.; Wen, T.-H.; Thomson, B.; and Young, S. 2016. Neural belief tracker: Data-driven dialogue state tracking. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.03777*.
- Schatzmann, J., and Young, S. 2009. The hidden agenda user simulation model. *IEEE transactions on audio, speech, and language processing* 17(4):733–747.
- Serban, I. V.; Sordoni, A.; Bengio, Y.; Courville, A. C.; and Pineau, J. 2016. Building end-to-end dialogue systems using generative hierarchical neural network models. In *AAAI*, volume 16, 3776–3784.
- Sutskever, I.; Vinyals, O.; and Le, Q. V. 2014. Sequence to sequence learning with neural networks. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 3104–3112.
- Tang, K.-F.; Kao, H.-C.; Chou, C.-N.; and Chang, E. Y. 2016. Inquire and diagnose: Neural symptom checking ensemble using deep reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of NIPS Workshop on Deep Reinforcement Learning*.
- Van Hasselt, H.; Guez, A.; and Silver, D. 2016. Deep reinforcement learning with double q-learning. In *AAAI*, volume 2, 5. Phoenix, AZ.
- Vinyals, O., and Le, Q. 2015. A neural conversational model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1506.05869*.
- Wang, X.; Chen, W.; Wu, J.; Wang, Y.-F.; and Wang, W. Y. 2018. Video captioning via hierarchical reinforcement learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 4213–4222.
- Wei, Z.; Liu, Q.; Peng, B.; Tou, H.; Chen, T.; Huang, X.; Wong, K.-F.; and Dai, X. 2018. Task-oriented dialogue system for automatic diagnosis. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 2: Short Papers)*, volume 2, 201–207.
- Wen, T.; Vandyke, D.; Mrkšíc, N.; Gašíc, M.; Rojas-Barahona, L.; Su, P.; Ultes, S.; and Young, S. A network-based end-to-end trainable task-oriented dialogue system. In 15th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yan, Z.; Duan, N.; Chen, P.; Zhou, M.; Zhou, J.; and Li, Z. 2017. Building task-oriented dialogue systems for online shopping. In *Thirty-First AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*.
- Young, T.; Cambria, E.; Chaturvedi, I.; Huang, M.; Zhou, H.; and Biswas, S. 2017. Augmenting end-to-end dialog systems with commonsense knowledge. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1709.05453*.
- Zhao, T.; Lu, A.; Lee, K.; and Eskenazi, M. 2017. Generative encoder-decoder models for task-oriented spoken dialog systems with chatting capability. In *Proceedings of the 18th Annual SIGdial Meeting on Discourse and Dialogue*, 27–36.