dial2vec: Self-Guided Contrastive Learning of Unsupervised Dialogue Embeddings

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Abstract

In this paper, we introduce the task of learning unsupervised dialogue embeddings. Trivial approaches such as combining pre-trained word or sentence embeddings and encoding through pre-trained language models (PLMs) have been shown to be feasible for this task. However, these approaches typically ignore the conversational interactions between interlocutors, resulting in poor performance. To address this issue, we proposed a self-guided contrastive learning approach named dial2vec. Dial2vec considers a dialogue as an information exchange process. It captures the interaction patterns between interlocutors and leverages them to guide the learning of the embeddings corresponding to each interlocutor. Then the dialogue embedding is obtained by an aggregation of the embeddings from all interlocutors. To verify our approach, we establish a comprehensive benchmark consisting of six widely-used dialogue datasets. We consider three evaluation tasks: domain categorization, semantic relatedness, and dialogue retrieval. Dial2vec achieves on average 8.7, 9.0, and 14.3 points absolute improvements in terms of purity, Spearman's correlation, and mean average precision (MAP) over the strongest baseline on the three tasks respectively. Further analysis shows that dial2vec obtains informative and discriminative embeddings for both interlocutors under the guidance of the conversational interactions and achieves the best performance when aggregating them through the interlocutor-level pooling strategy. All codes and data are publicly available at https://github.com/AlibabaResearch/DAMO-ConvAI/tree/main/dial2vec.

1 Introduction

Dialogue embedding, as a critical prerequisite of semantically understanding the dialogues, has been a central issue in dialogue-related research such as dialogue clustering (Shi et al., 2018; Lv et al.,

2021), context-dependent text-to-SQL (Hui et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022), conversational sentiment analysis (Wang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Lv et al., 2021), and dialogue summarization (Liu et al., 2019b; Liu and Chen, 2021; Lin et al., 2022). Trivial unsupervised approaches generally encode dialogues by combining their pre-trained word or sentence embeddings (Pennington et al., 2014; Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) or using PLMs (Wu et al., 2020a; Bao et al., 2020; He et al., 2022a,b,c). However, such methods are not specifically designed for dialogues and thus fail to adequately capture the key conversational information during encoding. In this paper, we formally introduce the task of learning unsupervised dialogue embeddings, which aims to learn dialogue embeddings that can well reflect conversational semantics without any additional manual annotations.

Previous studies have widely shown the importance of encoding token-level interactions in modeling dialogue texts. Moreover, we hold that the interactions between the interlocutors are also essential to help understand conversational semantics. Figure 1 shows an example from the SGD

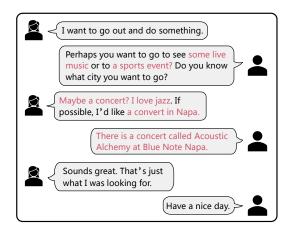


Figure 1: A dialogue from the SGD dataset.

dataset. We highlight the significant interaction patterns between the interlocutors with red color. As we can see, although these patterns only appear

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in three utterances, they highly represent the key conversational semantics (e.g., topics) and are more important than the other parts (e.g., greetings and chit-chats). We hold that capturing and leveraging them is one of the keys to learning high-quality unsupervised dialogue embeddings.

In this work, we propose dial2vec, a self-guided contrastive learning approach to solve this task. Dial2vec considers a dialogue as an information exchange process between interlocutors and learns the embeddings for both interlocutors with the help of each other. Specifically, dial2vec firstly encodes a dialogue and assigns each interlocutor a self-representation by masking the noncorresponding positions in the encoding outputs. Then it calculates a matching matrix via the tokenlevel dot-product operation between the two selfrepresentations, obtaining the cross-representations. Finally, the cross-representations are leveraged as the guidance to help the two self-representations gradually learn the interaction-aware information as well as eliminating the interaction-free information during training.

To verify our model, we build a comprehensive benchmark comprising a total of 98,879 dialogues by introducing six widely-used dialogue datasets, including BiTOD (Lin et al., 2021), Doc2dial (Feng et al., 2020), MetalWOZ (Lee et al., 2019), Multi-WOZ (Eric et al., 2019), Self-dialogue (Fainberg et al., 2018), and SGD (Rastogi et al., 2020). Each dataset consists of thousands of dialogues, where each dialogue is assigned with a domain label (e.g., hotel booking and movie). We leverage these domain labels during evaluation to design three evaluation tasks: domain categorization, semantic relatedness, and dialogue retrieval. We category them into the intrinsic and the extrinsic tasks according to their characteristics.

Experimental results on this benchmark show that dial2vec outperforms the baselines by a substantial margin. Compared with the strongest baseline, dial2vec achieves on average 8.7, 9.0, and 14.3 points absolute improvements in terms of purity, Spearman's correlation, and mean average precision (MAP) on the three tasks respectively. We also conduct experiments with the single interlocutor's embeddings, the aggregation strategies, and the overall dialogue embedding distributions to study how dial2vec improves the performance. The results demonstrate that dial2vec learns more informative and discriminative embeddings than the

baselines for both interlocutors and achieves the best performance when combining them through the interlocutor-level pooling aggregation strategy.

2 Related Work

2.1 Text Embedding

Text embedding aims to encode a piece of text into a distributed vector that could represent its semantics. Early works (Bengio et al., 2003; Mikolov et al., 2013; Pennington et al., 2014) learn unsupervised word embeddings by making use of co-occurrence information among words through the skip-gram or CBOW tasks. Recently, Devlin et al. (2018); Liu et al. (2019a); Yang et al. (2019); Raffel et al. (2020) pre-train deep transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) with a series of pretext tasks, exhibiting a strong potential in producing not only word, but also sentence and document embeddings. Along this line, Gao et al. (2021); Yan et al. (2021); Liu et al. (2021); Chuang et al. (2022); Nishikawa et al. (2022); Zhou et al. (2022); Klein and Nabi (2022) fine-tune the PLMs with contrastive learning objectives, achieving remarkable improvements in learning unsupervised sentence embeddings. Luo et al. (2021) introduce a data augmentation-based contrastive learning approach in learning document embeddings, exhibiting superior performance over word2vec-based approaches (Le and Mikolov, 2014; Chen, 2017).

For dialogue, the above approaches generally fail to capture the key conversational information during encoding. Although PLMs pre-trained with the dialogue data can solve this problem to some extent (Wu et al., 2020a; Bao et al., 2020; Roller et al., 2021), they focus on learning end-to-end models rather than providing dialogue embeddings. In this work, we propose and study the task of learning unsupervised dialogue embeddings.

2.2 Contrastive Learning

Contrastive learning is an emerging unsupervised learning method which can improve the representation capability of PLMs in both pre-training and fine-tuning stages. Wu et al. (2020b); Meng et al. (2021); Giorgi et al. (2020) introduce the token-level and sentence-level contrastive learning tasks by correcting corrupted texts to encourage PLMs to learn noise-invariant representations. Zhang et al. (2022) propose phrase-guided and tree-guided contrastive learning objectives to inject rich syntactic knowledge into PLMs. Kim et al. (2021) propose

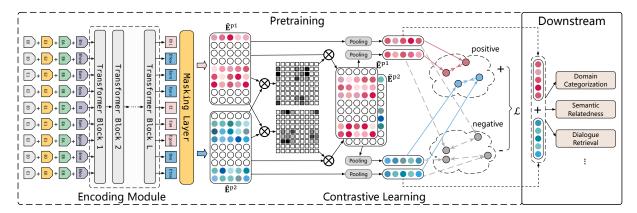


Figure 2: Architecture of dial2vec. It first encodes a dialogue and assigns each interlocutor a self-representation through a masking layer (highlighted with yellow) based on the encoding outputs. Hollow circles in each self-representation represent zero embeddings. Then two matching matrices are calculated through the dot-product multiplication, based on which two cross-representations are generated. Each cross-representation and its corresponding self-representation are complementary in the token sequence dimension. Finally, the cosine distance between them will be minimized or maximized according to whether the training sample is positive or negative.

a self-guided learning objective through which a PLM fine-tunes itself under the guidance of its different layers. Inspired by these studies, we design a self-guided contrastive learning approach, which leverages the conversational interactions to guide the learning of the dialogue embeddings.

3 Proposed Approach

In this section, we take a two-party dialogue as an example to describe how dial2vec works. It is worth mentioning that dial2vec can be extended to the multi-party version in the OVR (one vs. the rest) scheme with no modification of the architecture. However, since there is still no suitable dataset for such validation, we leave this to our future work.

3.1 Training Samples Generation

We first describe how we construct the positive and the negative training samples, which plays a key role in the self-guided contrastive learning approach. Suppose that we have a dialogue dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{S_k\}_{k=1}^K$, where $S_k = \{u_1^{p_1}, u_2^{p_2}, u_3^{p_1}, u_4^{p_2}, \dots, u_{t-1}^{p_1}, u_t^{p_2}\}$ is the k-th dialogue session with t utterances. p_1 and p_2 represent two interlocutors. We treat each utterance in a dialogue as a turn, regardless of which interlocutor it corresponds to. For the convenience of narration, k in S_k is omitted in the following sections.

We treat S (i.e., the original dialogue) as a positive sample. To construct a negative sample S', we first randomly select an interlocutor in S, say p_1 , and keep all the turns of it. Then we fill the other turns of S with the utterances of p_2 randomly sampled from all dialogue sessions. For each positive

sample, we repeat this operation multiple times to generate the desired number of negative samples.

3.2 Model Architecture

Figure 2 shows the architecture of dial2vec, which consists of two parts: encoding and contrastive learning. After training, dial2vec aggregates the embeddings from both interlocutors to obtain the final dialogue embeddings.

3.2.1 Encoding

Following Bao et al. (2020), we use four types of embeddings as input to dial2vec: token embedding, relative positional embedding, turn embedding, and role embedding. To encode the dialogue, we first concatenate all the utterances and then tokenize them through WordPiece (Wu et al., 2016) to obtain a long token sequence. The tokens along with their corresponding position, turn, and role indices are respectively mapped into four embedding spaces and summed to form the final input embedding.

3.2.2 Contrastive Learning

Suppose that the output embeddings from the encoder are $\{\mathbf{h}_1, \mathbf{h}_2, \mathbf{h}_3, \dots, \mathbf{h}_n\}$, where $\mathbf{h}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the output embedding corresponding to the *i*-th input token and n is the length of the input sequence, we stack the output embeddings as a matrix denoted as $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.

To obtain the self-representations, we first generate two binary mask vectors \mathbf{m}^{p_1} and \mathbf{m}^{p_2} for two interlocutors respectively. Let $m_i^{p_1}$ be the *i*-th element in \mathbf{m}^{p_1} , then $m_i^{p_1}$ is set to 1 only when \mathbf{h}_i is derived from the input token of p_1 , otherwise it is 0. Similar operation is applied to generate \mathbf{m}^{p_2} .

Then, the self-representations are obtained by:

$$\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1} = \mathbf{E} \odot (\mathbf{m}^{p_1})^T,
\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2} = \mathbf{E} \odot (\mathbf{m}^{p_2})^T,$$
(1)

where \odot denote the broadcast element-wise multiplication.

To extract the interaction information, we perform the token-level dot-product multiplication between $\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2}$ and compute a correlation score matrix for each interlocutor, which is formulated by:

$$\mathbf{C}^{p_1} = \hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2} \left(\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1} \right)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{C}^{p_2} = \hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1} \left(\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2} \right)^T,$$
(2)

where \mathbb{C}^{p_1} and \mathbb{C}^{p_2} are both $n \times n$ square matrices and they are transposed to each other. Then we generate the cross-representations by:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1} = \mathbf{C}^{p_1} \hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_1},
\tilde{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2} = \mathbf{C}^{p_2} \hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_2}.$$
(3)

Note that $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ can be regarded as a refined representation of $\hat{\mathbf{E}}$, which highlights the conversational interaction information in the trivial encoding results. The fact that $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{E}}$ share the same semantic space allows us to directly optimize their cosine distance without any additional transformations. In this circumstance, $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ acts like a guidance for leading $\hat{\mathbf{E}}$ to be an interaction-aware self-representation, and this is why we call dial2vec works in a self-guided manner.

We further introduce w as a restriction hyperparameter to mask the long-range semantic correlations among the utterances of p_1 and p_2 . Specifically, let $\mathbf{C}[i,j]$ denotes the element in the i-th row and the j-th column of \mathbf{C} in Eq. (2). T(i) represents a function which returns the turn index for the i-th output embedding in \mathbf{E} . Then $\forall i,j \in 1,2,\ldots,n, \ \mathbf{C}[i,j]$ is masked with zero where abs(T(i)-T(j))>w, otherwise remains unchanged. Here we omit the superscript p_1 and p_2 in \mathbf{C} since they are processed in the same way.

3.2.3 Aggregation

To obtain the dialogue embedding e, we compare two aggregation strategies. In the first strategy, we directly perform average pooling across all entire output embeddings E (here we do not distinguish between p_1 and p_2). We further propose the interlocutor-level pooling strategy, formulated as:

$$\mathbf{e} = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i^{p_r} \mathbf{h}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i^{p_r}},$$
 (4)

where $m_i^{p_r}$ is the *i*-th value in \mathbf{m}^{p_r} and R is the number of interlocutors. We compare the results of the two strategies in Section 5.3.2.

3.2.4 Learning Objective

We adopt the NT-Xent loss proposed in (Oord et al., 2018) to train our model. Let N be the number of all training samples associated with S, which actually equals one positive sample plus the number of its corresponding negative samples. The loss l is defined as:

$$l = -\sum_{r=1}^{R} \log \frac{e^{\operatorname{sim}(\hat{\mathbf{E}}^{p_r}, \tilde{\mathbf{E}}^{p_r})/\tau}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{\operatorname{sim}(\hat{\mathbf{E}}_{j}^{p_r}, \tilde{\mathbf{E}}_{j}^{p_r})/\tau}},$$
 (5)

where τ is the hyper-parameter of temperature. $sim(\cdot, \cdot)$ is defined as an average pooling operation followed by the cosine distance calculation. For all K dialogues in the dataset D, the loss $\mathcal L$ is given by:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} l_i. \tag{6}$$

4 Experiments Setup

4.1 Evaluation Tasks

We introduce three evaluation tasks to compare our model with the baselines: domain categorization, semantic relatedness, and dialogue retrieval. We categorize them into the intrinsic and the extrinsic tasks. The intrinsic tasks, including domain categorization and semantic relatedness, focus on assessing the overall distribution of the learned dialogue embeddings. The extrinsic task (i.e., dialogue retrieval) is more concerned with the performance of embeddings in dense retrieval scenarios.

Domain Categorization. Given a dataset of dialogues, the task is to assign each dialogue the corresponding domain label. Following Schnabel et al. (2015), we conduct this experiment as an unsupervised clustering task. All the dialogue embeddings are clustered into n categories with KMeans++ Algorithm (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2006), where n is the number of domains in the dataset. We adopt the purity metric in this task.

Semantic Relatedness. We pair each dialogue with a dialogue randomly selected from the same

Datasets	Train			Dev			Test			#Domain
Datasets	#Sample	#Turn	#Word	#Sample	#Turn	#Word	#Sample	#Turn	#Word	#Domain
BiTOD	2952	19	217	70	11	109	106	10	106	6
Doc2dial	3474	11	187	661	12	182	661	12	182	4
MetalWOZ	30307	11	83	3788	11	82	3789	11	82	47
MultiWOZ	8437	13	177	1077	9	110	1084	9	110	7
Self-dialogue	19331	15	151	2416	15	151	2417	15	152	28
SGD	16142	20	199	836	14	140	1331	12	124	45

Table 1: Statistics of the six dialogue datasets used in our experiments. #Turn and #Word represent the average number of turns and words per dialogue. #Domain represents the total number of domains in the dataset.

dataset and evaluate their semantic relatedness score based on their cosine similarity. The ground-truth label assigned to each dialogue pair is a binary value and decided by whether the two dialogues share the identical domain. Following Baroni et al. (2014), we calculate Spearman's correlation between the sorted semantic relatedness scores and their corresponding ground-truth labels. This task is more stable than domain categorization since it gets rid of the high variance characteristic of clustering algorithms as the embedding distribution changes.

Dialogue Retrieval. Given a dialogue as a query, this task requires a model to rank all the candidates based on the cosine similarities. We use mean average precision (MAP) as the evaluation measure.

4.2 Datasets

We collect six widely-used dialogue datasets as below. We choose these datasets because they hold clear domain labels. Other datasets either provide non-semantic labels (e.g., logical labels that are less relevant to conversational semantics) (Li et al., 2017) or annotate the domain labels automatically by algorithms (Chen et al., 2021), thus are not suitable in our experiments. We split each dataset into training, validation, and testing sets, and filter out dialogues with multiple domains in validation and test sets to fit our evaluation tasks. Table 1 shows their statistics.

BiTOD (Lin et al., 2021) is a bilingual multidomain dataset proposed for end-to-end taskoriented dialogue modeling. It provides thousands of dialogues and a large and realistic bilingual knowledge base. We use the dialogues and conduct experiments under the monolingual setting.

Doc2dial (Feng et al., 2020) includes goaloriented dialogues that are grounded in the associated documents. We take the document topics as the domain labels of the dialogues.

MetalWOZ (Lee et al., 2019) is proposed for

DSTC8, aiming at helping models more accurately predict user responses in new domains.

MultiWOZ (Eric et al., 2019) is a multi-domain dialogue dataset that poses significant challenges to task-oriented dialogue modeling due to its complexity. We use the 2.1 version in our experiments.

Self-dialogue (Fainberg et al., 2018) consists of large-scale self-dialogues with a broad set of topics. Modeling these dialogues is relatively difficult since they have more turns and topics.

SGD (Rastogi et al., 2020) is another larger-scale multi-domain dialogue dataset. We take the service field as the domain label of the dialogues.

4.3 Comparison Methods

The baseline approaches compared to our model are categorized into four groups as follows.

Non-DL Approaches. We treat a dialogue as a document and apply Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) (Blei et al., 2003) to assign each dialogue a topic. LDA is only used in the domain categorization task, since it cannot give a similarity score between two dialogues.

Embedding-based Approaches. We consider a dialogue as a sequence of words or sentences, and we obtain dialogue embeddings through combining their pre-trained embeddings. We adopt GloVe (Pennington et al., 2014) to obtain pre-trained word embeddings, SimCSE (Gao et al., 2021) to obtain pre-trained universal sentence embeddings, and DialogueCSE (Liu et al., 2021) to obtain pre-trained dialogue-based sentence embeddings. Also, we consider Doc2Vec (Le and Mikolov, 2014) to embed a dialogue as a document.

PLMs. We consider three representative language models built upon the transformer encoder, including BERT (Devlin et al., 2018), RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019a), and T5 (Raffel et al., 2020). We use the average of their output embeddings as the dialogue embeddings.

Conversational-PLMs. We adopt TOD-BERT

Model	Domain Categorization					Semantic Relatedness								
	bit	doc	met	mul	sel	sgd	Average	bit	doc	met	mul	sel	sgd	Average
LDA	44.7	35.2	19.3	45.9	24.7	20.2	31.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GloVe	64.3	54.7	40.5	79.0	35.0	51.6	54.2	34.3	25.9	15.8	38.9	15.7	27.6	26.4
Doc2Vec	82.7	70.9	43.9	86.1	40.9	63.6	64.7	43.4	24.8	14.6	30.6	10.7	26.9	25.2
SimCSE	79.3	64.7	45.1	85.5	46.8	66.7	64.7	39.5	33.2	14.9	38.1	18.3	26.9	28.5
DialogueCSE	<u>85.8</u>	68.4	<u>77.5</u>	<u>94.9</u>	53.2	72.1	<u>75.3</u>	42.4	<u>44.5</u>	23.9	<u>65.2</u>	27.6	31.7	<u>39.2</u>
BERT	49.1	54.0	31.6	61.3	44.4	31.3	45.3	24.3	22.4	11.6	30.5	16.7	17.9	20.6
RoBERTa	63.2	40.4	46.4	62.8	44.9	40.8	49.8	30.2	14.8	15.4	28.5	17.5	16.7	20.5
T5	78.7	55.2	67.6	89.5	43.8	69.5	67.4	38.6	28.6	20.8	42.5	20.0	29.7	30.0
TOD-BERT	75.6	63.1	82.9	94.3	50.0	50.3	69.4	47.0	32.6	24.3	48.9	24.6	24.8	33.7
Blender	80.9	56.4	62.3	82.4	45.4	73.1	66.8	37.0	28.1	19.9	44.4	18.3	31.1	29.8
PLATO	69.3	<u>79.0</u>	73.9	82.5	<u>62.5</u>	<u>73.5</u>	73.5	46.6	38.7	22.7	45.3	<u>35.1</u>	<u>32.4</u>	36.8
Dial2Vec	90.6	90.2	77.2	96.7	63.1	86.2	84.0	68.8	50.7	24.5	71.0	37.2	36.9	48.2

Table 2: Evaluation results of the intrinsic tasks on the six dialogue datasets, including BiTOD (**bit**), Doc2dial (**doc**), MetalWOZ (**met**), MultiWOZ (**mul**), Self-dialogue (**sel**) and SGD (**sgd**). The metrics are purity and Spearman's correlation for the two tasks respectively. All results reported are averaged across 10 independent runs to reduce the variance. Boldface and underline highlight the best and the second-best scores.

(Wu et al., 2020a), Blender (Roller et al., 2021), and PLATO (Bao et al., 2020) as baselines in this group. TOD-BERT (Wu et al., 2020a) is pre-trained with nine dialogue datasets, including MultiWOZ and MetalWOZ. Blender (Roller et al., 2021) and PLATO (Bao et al., 2020) are pre-trained with large-scale open domain dialogue data including Twitter and Reddit (Cho et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2018; Galley et al., 2019). We include them as strong baselines for comparison.

4.4 Implement Details

Our model is implemented in PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019). We initialize our encoder with PLATO's pre-trained parameters. During fine-tuning, we freeze the bottom 6 layers of the encoder to avoid the catastrophic forgetting problem. The maximum sequence length is limited to 512. The temperature τ and the window size w are set to 0.2 and 10 respectively, since such configuration performs best across all datasets. We optimize the model parameters with Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015), using a learning rate of 1e-5 and a batch size of 5 per GPU. All models are trained with 4 NVIDIA Tesla V100 GPUs.

5 Experimental Results

5.1 Intrinsic Task

Table 2 shows the experimental results of the intrinsic tasks. Dial2vec significantly outperforms the baselines by substantial margins. For each task, dial2vec achieves on average 8.7 and 9.0 absolute improvements in terms of purity and Spear-

man's correlation against the strongest baseline DialogueCSE. We attribute the strong performance to the introduction of the interlocutor-level interaction information in learning dialogue embeddings.

Conversational-PLMs show overwhelming superiority over PLMs (besides T5), indicating that pretraining with conversational data plays a key role in learning better dialogue embeddings. The phenomenon that TOD-BERT achieves very competitive results against dial2vec on MultiWOZ and MetalWOZ also confirms this fact. Even so, dial2vec easily bridges or even reverses the gaps between PLATO and TOD-BERT on MetalWOZ and MultiWOZ, demonstrating its superior capability of exploiting the conversational information.

PLATO generally performs better than TOD-BERT and Blender. We hypothesize that the turn and role embeddings also play a crucial role in our task. To verify this, we replace the encoder of dial2vec with BERT and train dial2vec(BERT) under the same setting as dial2vec(PLATO). However, the performances on the three tasks decrease rapidly after they reach the best performances. We think this is because under such setting, the inputs provide insufficient information for the model to maintain turn-aware and role-aware semantics in the dialogue embeddings, thus making the training not robust.

The embedding-based methods suffer from poor performance since they ignore the weights when combining word and sentence embeddings. Among them, SimCSE releases the intrinsic representation ability of the pre-trained language models by introducing the twice-dropout operation during fine-tuning, achieving relatively better results than GloVe and Doc2Vec. But since such operation is generic and parallel to our work, we do not incorporate it into our model. Particularly, DialogueCSE yields superior results compared with other embedding-based methods and even shows competitive performances against our model. This is reasonable since it is the only baseline that leverages the token-level interactions in the conversational context when learning sentence embeddings. However, as it treats a dialogue as a sequence of sentences, it fails to capture the interactions between the interlocutors, thus achieving unsatisfactory performance.

5.2 Extrinsic Task

Table 3 shows dial2vec's performances on the dialogue retrieval task. Compared to the experiment results on the intrinsic tasks, dial2vec achieves more significant improvements on all datasets. We attribute it to dial2vec's capability of understanding fine-grained conversational semantics. Since dial2vec is forced to distinguish the positive samples composed of the exact matching question-answers from the negative ones, the semantic information it learned is more fine-grained than a task that only provided with domain labels. Such characteristic makes it adept at ranking the semantically similar candidates, resulting in better performances on the MAP metric.

Model	Dialogue Retrieval								
1,10401	bit	doc	met	mul	sel	sgd	AVG		
GloVe	63.8	49.1	29.4	65.9	24.1	52.6	47.5		
Doc2Vec	67.7	43.7	15.1	50.9	16.3	43.1	39.5		
SimCSE	62.5	52.5	23.8	62.1	27.0	44.8	45.5		
DialogueCSE	72.9	58.2	<u>66.7</u>	82.9	34.5	62.5	<u>62.9</u>		
BERT	52.4	44.8	17.0	56.4	25.8	26.0	37.1		
RoBERTa	62.2	40.6	30.4	57.4	25.5	35.0	41.9		
T5	67.3	49.9	43.9	69.7	27.8	53.8	52.1		
TOD-BERT	73.2	53.0	65.7	84.2	33.0	45.3	59.1		
Blender	69.1	50.1	44.6	70.1	25.4	63.0	53.7		
PLATO	71.6	<u>59.7</u>	54.5	68.7	<u>45.9</u>	<u>63.2</u>	60.6		
Dial2Vec	94.9	69.4	68.0	98.4	49.4	82.8	77.2		

Table 3: Evaluation results of the dialogue retrieval task. We use the mean average precision (MAP) as the evaluation metric. Boldface and underline highlights the best and the second best scores.

5.3 Analysis

To further investigate the property of our model, we adopt PLATO as the baseline to conduct exper-

iments with the single interlocutor's embeddings, the aggregation strategies, and the embedding distributions. We report the average results across all datasets.

5.3.1 Single Interlocutor's Embeddings

Intuitively, each interlocutor holds his/her own unilateral information of the dialogue. However, such interaction-free information usually contains noises or overlaps with that from other interlocutors. Table 4 shows the experiment results of PLATO and dial2vec. We find that the PLATO's embeddings for individual interlocutors usually perform close to or even better than the aggregated results. As a comparison, dial2vec yields significantly better embeddings for both interlocutors, and achieves further improvements when aggregating them. We conclude that under the guidance of the conversational interactions, dial2vec eliminates the interaction-free information and highlights the interaction-aware information for both interlocutors, thus achieving better performances than PLATO.

Model	Interlocutor	Purity	Spearman	MAP
	p1	72.92	36.12	59.02
PLATO	p2	75.32	36.61	60.40
	p1+p1	73.45	36.80	60.60
	diff	-1.87	0.19	0.20
	p1	83.27	47.11	75.35
Dial2Vec	p2	81.79	46.15	74.39
	p1 + p1	84.00	48.18	77.15
	diff	0.73	1.07	1.80

Table 4: Performances of dialogue embeddings for each interlocutor. p1 represents that we use the embeddings from the interlocutor who starts the conversation, and p2 represents the opposite. p1+p2 represents the aggregated results. diff shows improvements of the aggregated results over the best single interlocutor's results. Boldface represents the best scores among the models.

5.3.2 Aggregation Strategies

As described in Section 3.2.3, we experiment with two aggregation strategies: average pooling and interlocutor-level pooling. For average pooling, we average all the output embeddings as the final dialogue embedding, while for interlocutor-level pooling, we sum the average pooling results of the output embeddings corresponding to each interlocutor.

Table 5 shows the results for the two strategies on all datasets. The interlocutor-level pooling strategy performs consistently better than the average

Model	Purity	Spearman	MAP
Dial2Vec _{avg}	83.61	48.05	76.84
Dial2Vec $_{int}$	84.00	48.18	77.15
diff	+0.39	+0.13	+0.31

Table 5: Comparison between the average-pooling (denoted as avg) and interlocutor-level pooling (denoted as int) strategies. Boldface highlights best scores.

pooling strategy. We hold that the interlocutor-level pooling strategy acts as a normalization operation that balances the weight of semantic information from different interlocutors.

5.3.3 Alignment and Uniformity Analysis

Inspired by Wang and Isola (2020), we employ the alignment and uniformity metrics to study the variation of dialogue embedding distribution during training. Given a set of data pairs and their corresponding labels, the alignment metric is calculated as the expected value of Euclidean distances of each positive data pair, formulated as:

$$\ell_{alignment} \triangleq \underset{x,x^{+} \sim p_{pos}}{\mathbb{E}} \|f(x) - f(x^{+})\|^{2}. \quad (7)$$

The alignment metric is suitable for tasks such as Gao et al. (2021) since the positive pairs are encoded from a unique text. However, in our scenario, positive pairs generated from two different dialogues are only expected to have closer distances than negative pairs. Thus, we revise the Eq. (7) to be:

$$\ell_{adj_alignment} \triangleq \underset{x,x^{+} \sim p_{pos}}{\mathbb{E}} \|f(x) - f(x^{+})\|^{2},$$
$$- \underset{x,x^{-} \sim p_{neg}}{\mathbb{E}} \|f(x) - f(x^{-})\|^{2}.$$
(8)

We name $\ell_{adj_alignment}$ as the adjusted alignment metric.

The uniformity metric is defined to measure how close the embeddings are to the uniform distribution:

$$\ell_{uniformity} \triangleq \log \underset{x,y}{\mathbb{E}} e^{-2\|f(x) - f(y)\|^2},$$
(9)

where p_{data} denotes the data distribution.

Figure 3 shows how the adjusted alignment and uniformity vary with the training iterations. 'Start' marks the results at the very beginning of training, which also stands for the vanilla PLATO's performances. As we can see, the two metrics decrease quickly in the first few iterations. We believe dial2vec learns discriminative embeddings by

pushing the embeddings for both interlocutors in the negative samples away from each other rapidly. Since the dialogue embeddings are spread out over the unit hypersphere, both metrics decrease. As the training proceeds, the model learns the fine-grained informative dialogue embeddings from the positive samples. This makes the dialogues with similar semantics close to each other, causing the uniformity to increase again. The two metrics finally converge to the values much better than the start points, showing dial2vec learns both informative and discriminative embeddings.

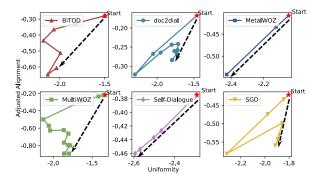


Figure 3: The scatter plot of $\ell_{adj_alignment}$ - $\ell_{uniformity}$ on the six testing sets. We plot the two metrics after every evaluation. For both metrics, lower values represent better dialogue embedding distributions.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we formally introduce the task of learning unsupervised dialogue embeddings and propose dial2vec to solve this task. We introduce a self-guided mechanism that leverages the conversational interactions to guide the learning of the embeddings for both interlocutors and propose the interlocutor-level strategy to aggregate them. We further release a benchmark consisting of six widely-used dialogue datasets and three tasks designed based on the domain labels to facilitate future researches. Our model achieves superior performances on all datasets across the three tasks, and further analysis shows that the dialogue embeddings learned by our model are more informative and discriminative than the baselines.

7 Limitations

Our work has two limitations. Firstly, although dial2vec is designed to be able to expand to the multi-party dialogues, we do not conduct such experiments due to the lack of a suitable multi-party evaluation dataset. As annotating for a multi-party dialogue dataset is indeed complicated, we leave it

to future work. Besides, dial2vec is still not robust during training when employing BERT-like pretrained models as the encoder. Although they also achieve very competitive results, we believe that a robust training procedure is the most important since we do not know when to stop training under the unsupervised setting in practice. Dial2vec should be further improved to better adapt to the multiple formats of input embeddings.

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