
Intent Discovery With Or Without Labeled Data Using Dependency Parser

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

Abstract

1 In dialogue applications, machine learning classification models are often used
2 to classify user utterances into different intents that help to understand the users.
3 In real world scenarios, however, some utterances may not belong to any of the
4 anticipated intent categories. Furthermore, supervised classification models are
5 not a viable solution when data of a new domain is introduced without the corre-
6 sponding labels. In this work, we present a clustering and evaluation approach
7 that can be used in semi-supervised or unsupervised modes, depending on the
8 (non-)availability of training data for new intent discovery. This method assigns
9 meaningful intent-labels by determining the optimal number of clusters and eval-
10 uating the performance of the clustering results. In addition, it assigns a TF-IDF
11 score to individual samples within a cluster.

12 1 Introduction

13 One of the goals in customer service dialogue applications is to automate the work of live agents
14 while maintaining an exceptional customer experience. Therefore, accuracy in understanding the
15 content of customers' utterances is crucial. The flexibility of natural language allows one meaning to
16 be expressed in many different ways, each with different sets of words or phrases. Our task can thus
17 be considered as finding the patterns that conform to this many-to-one relationship between textual
18 form and meaning, thereby assisting the agent or Chatbot in taking the next action.

19 In what is the typical approach, we start by pre-defining a certain number of intents that cover the
20 meaning of the most frequently occurring samples. We then label these samples with their correct
21 intents and use them to train an intent classification model which can predict new unseen samples.

22 Given any new sample, then, one of the following scenarios applies: 1) it belongs to one of our
23 pre-defined intents; 2) it belongs to one of our pre-defined intents, but it is not very similar to the
24 training samples that belong to that intent; 3) it does not belong to any of our pre-defined intents, but
25 it is very representative, and should therefore be considered as a new intent; 4) it does not belong to
26 any of our pre-defined intents, but it does not appear very frequently in real world situations, and can
27 therefore be simply labeled as OTHER.

28 While machine learning classification models have been shown to be effective in scenario (1), scenario
29 (2) is more challenging than [1], and unsupervised clustering models can identify samples in scenario
30 (3) to some extent (*e.g.*, samples belonging to large population clusters but classified as OTHER
31 by a classification model might be considered as candidates for new intents). However, there is no
32 guarantee that the samples in one cluster belong to one intent alone, and the algorithm can also not
33 help with defining the name of the new intent for the cluster. Therefore, a comprehensive intent
34 discovery method is needed to address the remaining three scenarios that are not handled by a
35 traditional classification model.

36 Unsupervised intent labeling in dialogue environments has been studied in [2], showing how some
37 context features, including POS tags and keywords, can achieve good clustering performance.
38 However, in that approach, the features and intent-labels need to be manually selected, which may
39 highly depend on the specific dataset. Multiple text clustering optimization methods have been
40 explored as well, such as the Group-average Based Clustering method mentioned in [3], and the
41 Maximum Entropy approach proposed by [4]. These approaches are effective when the amount of
42 samples is static. However, in our application, new samples are added in frequently, which requires
43 the implementation of methods that can assign an optimal label without frequently recomputing the
44 number and composition of the clusters as the sample population changes.

45 A method for this task is ideal if it can answer three questions: 1) What is the optimal number of
46 clusters?; 2) How to measure the performance of the clustering result?; and 3) How to label the
47 clusters?

48 Deep learning algorithms typically do not rely on traditional feature-engineered NLP knowledge
49 [5]. However, for applications where conventional classification models are ineffective (*e.g.*, the
50 aforementioned problem which does not have a definite answer on how many categories we have
51 overall), we reconsidered the contribution of traditional NLP models. These models, notably depen-
52 dency parsing models, can provide syntactico-semantic information for each sentence, which can
53 be used as an alternative labeling criteria to conventional manual labeling. This paper proposes a
54 semi-supervised as well as an unsupervised clustering approach, based on dependency parsing model
55 features, to discover the intents of new utterances. The proposed clustering method can answer the
56 three aforementioned questions effectively.

57 2 Dataset

58 We conducted our experimental work on a dataset collected from a real world application currently in
59 production, where standard redaction criteria replaced PII (Personal Identifiable Information) with
60 tokens such as <PHONE/>and <EMAIL/>. These text dialogues were collected from both human-
61 human and human-bot chats. All tokens were transformed to lowercase letters to reduce data sparsity
further. Table 1 reports statistics of this dataset.

Table 1: Dataset description.

Name	Samples	Number of Intents
Training	8939	46
Test	2209	16 + OTHER

62

63 3 Models

64 We used three types of models: dependency parsing, Word2Vec and k -means clustering, all of them
65 trained or obtained from publicly available Python packages. The Dependency parsing model was
66 provided by Python package spaCy[6], where the model file used was `en_core_web_lg`. We trained
67 two different Word2Vec models, using the method provided in gensim[7]. The first model was
68 trained using single-word tokens generated by all the sentences in the training dataset, while the
69 second model was trained using dependency parse triples of sentences as input tokens, where a triple
70 consists of the elements of a dependency relation between word pairs in the sentence, namely the
71 dependent word of the relation, the dependency relation label, and the head word of the relation.

72 We are particularly interested in studying the potential benefit of using triples as features because
73 of the richness of information they provide, compared to single-word tokens. While they do not
74 only double the amount of words, triples also unveil relationships between words, therefore we
75 hypothesize that sentences sharing similar triples are more likely to share similar meaning than those
76 simply sharing similar words. Consider the examples in Table 2: While Sentence 2 and Sentence 3
77 have different meanings, the single-word feature returns identical embeddings and the triple feature
78 returns two different ones.

Table 2: Sentences and dependency triples.

Type	String
Sentence 1	‘unable to update software’
Triples	‘unable ROOT unable to aux update update x compl unable software do bj update’
Sentence 2	‘need to study patients’
Triples	‘need ROOT need to aux study study x compl need patients do bj study’
Sentence 3	‘patients need to study’
Triples	‘patients nsubj need need ROOT need to aux study study x compl need’

79 The triples were formatted into a space-separated string, as shown in Table 2. K -means clustering
80 models were trained using the cluster module in the `sklearn` [8] Python package with parameters
81 set to: `random_state=23, n_init=10, max_iter= 200`.

82 4 Experiments

83 4.1 Semi-Supervised

84 **Training** Given that the number of intents in the training data is 46, we anticipate the optimal
85 cluster number to be around this value. Therefore, we trained a series of clustering models with
86 cluster number varying from 35 to 74. We are also interested in observing how different Word2Vec
87 embeddings, whether trained with single-word tokens or triple tokens, contribute to the performance
88 of clustering.

89 We used three different methods to convert the utterance samples into fixed-length vectors:

- 90 1) Apply the single-word token Word2Vec model to each word and average the resulting
91 vectors into a single vector with 100 dimensions for each individual sample;
- 92 2) Apply the triples token Word2Vec model to each triple assembled from the dependency
93 parser and average the resulting vectors into a single vector with 100 dimensions for each
94 individual sample;
- 95 3) Average the vectors from 1) and 2) for each individual sample.

96 In total, the experiments produce 120 clustering results.

97 **Evaluation** Entropy measures the uncertainty of a random variable [9]. We adopted entropy as the
98 metric to evaluate results, where the best performing clustering has the lowest entropy.

99 Let the random-variable ω_k represent the intents in the k -th cluster, then the entropy of a *cluster-group*
100 is:

$$H(\omega_k) = - \sum_i p_{\omega_k}(i) \cdot \log_2 p_{\omega_k}(i), \quad (1)$$

101 where i is an intent-class.

102 Similarly, let the random-variable ϕ_i represent the clusters associated to the i -th intent, then entropy
103 of an *intent-group* is:

$$H(\phi_i) = - \sum_k p_{\phi_i}(k) \cdot \log_2 p_{\phi_i}(k), \quad (2)$$

104 where k is a cluster.

105 The total entropy of a clustering was calculated by taking average values of all the clusters’ individual
106 entropy:

$$H_\omega = \frac{1}{|K|} \sum_{k \in K} H(\omega_k), \quad (3)$$

$$H_\phi = \frac{1}{|I|} \sum_{i \in I} H(\phi_i). \quad (4)$$

Table 3: Universal formula and examples.

Type	Value
Sentence 1	‘how do i change my email address on my account’
Sentence 2	‘i need to change the email address in my account’
Sentence 3	‘i want to change my email address on my account please’
Sentence 4	‘how can i change my email address for my account’
Key Tokens	‘nsubj:"i", dverb:"change", dobj:"address", pobj:"account”
Universal Formula	‘i-change-address-account’

107 **4.2 Unsupervised**

108 **Universal Formula** While in the absence of labeled data the training process is conducted in the
 109 same way, the evaluation process cannot calculate the entropy measurements without knowing the
 110 category of each sample.

111 In order to solve this problem, we have introduced the concept of *Universal Formula*, which uses
 112 patterns developed from key triples to extract the main syntax and semantics structure of the sentences,
 113 thus allowing us to bring certain samples that share the same pattern into the same category. Generally
 114 speaking, direct verb¹, main subject², main direct object³ and main indirect object⁴ are considered
 115 to convey the main meaning of a sentence, as they are taken from dependency relations in the main
 116 clause of the sentence; and if triples related to these tokens from a sample are provided, we could
 117 briefly infer the intent of the sample.

118 Here, we define triples with dependency type of "ROOT"(root word), "nsubj"(subject), "dobj"(direct
 119 object) and "pobj"(indirect object) as key triples. We take all the key triples from a sample, extract
 120 the key tokens and reconstruct them into string format, which is then considered as the substitute of
 121 the intent label. Table 3 shows examples of sentences that share the same universal formula value,
 122 *i-change-address-account*.

123 **Evaluation** Entropy was calculated in the same way as in Section 4.1, except that the universal
 124 formula of sentences provides the alternative intent labels.

125 **5 Discussion**

126 **5.1 Semi-Supervised**

127 Figure 1 shows the entropy value variation of clustering model run with different cluster numbers.
 128 Cluster-group entropy H_ω tends to decrease with the increased number of cluster, while intent-group
 129 entropy H_ϕ behaves the opposite way. This is consistent with the observation that the intent-group
 130 entropy approaches zero (deterministic) as the cluster number decreases to one, and that the cluster-
 131 group entropy approaches zero (deterministic) as the cluster number increases to match the number
 132 of samples.

133 Considering that H_ω and H_ϕ compete against the cluster number, we first normalized the two entropy
 134 values into $[0, 1]$ based on the minimum and maximum values in each feature group, then took the
 135 average value of the two to obtain a combined measure of the performance of the clustering as shown
 136 in Figure 1.c. The better performing clustering, *i.e.*, the ones with the lowest entropy, occur at cluster
 137 number 35, 43 and 53. We observed that the triple feature overall performs better among the three
 138 methods explored. We selected the K=53 as our best option because it provisions some cluster space
 139 for potential new intents in the future.

¹Verb directly connected to main subject or object or root verb, or sometimes the root verb itself is the direct verb.

²Subject that is closest to the root verb.

³Object that is closest to the root verb and directly connected to a verb.

⁴Object that is closest to the root verb and indirectly connected to a verb, *e.g.*, via "in" or "at".

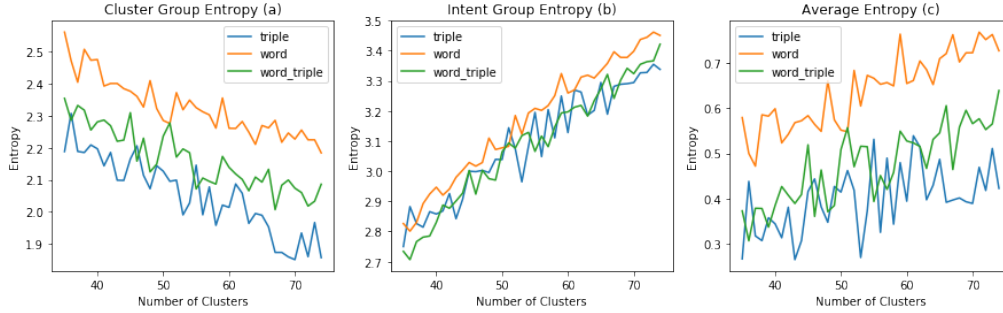


Figure 1: Entropy of clustering calculated using intent labels.

140 **5.2 Unsupervised**

141 In the absence of labeled data, we need an alternative way to measure the entropy. The universal
 142 formula of sentences presented in Section 4.2 can generate a certain amount of sentence patterns
 143 that allow unlabeled samples to be grouped. The intuition is that samples belonging to the same
 144 pattern group should be assigned together in the clustering result, therefore these pattern labels can
 145 be effective for entropy calculation in place of actual intent labels. As expected, we observed how the
 146 average entropy of the pattern groups increases with the number of clusters increasing, as Figure 2.b
 147 shows. We repeated the same step as in Section 5.1 to get the average value of the entropy and the
 148 results of overall entropy are shown in Figure 2.c. Notice how the triple feature performs slightly
 149 better than the other two sets of features, and how the lowest entropy value occurred on cluster
 150 number 56, which is in the vicinity of the previous result obtained with intent labels, namely 53.

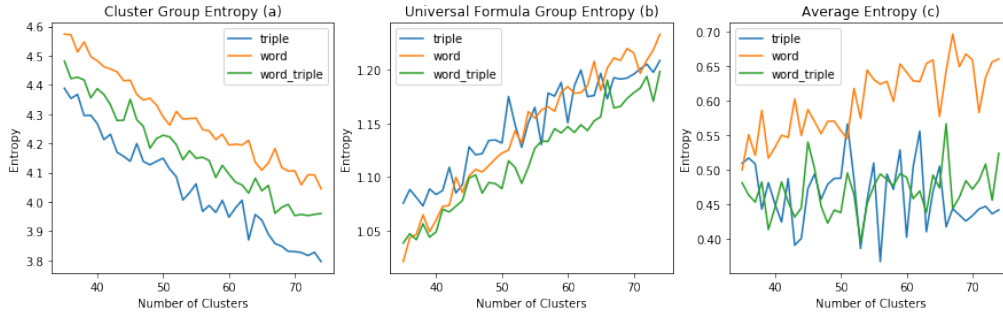


Figure 2: Entropy of clustering calculated using universal formulas.

151 To further compare the two results, Figure 3 plots the two lines of triple-feature clustering results
 152 from Figure 1c and Figure 2c. The strong correlation suggests that the universal formula can be
 153 effectively used as an alternative way to evaluate the clustering performance as well as to obtain the
 154 best cluster number, in the absence of labels.

155 **5.3 Labeling Clusters and Ranking Samples**

156 The proposed method relies on the observation that samples belonging to the same cluster tend
 157 to share similar triples. Generally speaking, triples with dependency type as "ROOT"(root word),
 158 "nsubj"(subject), "dobj"(direct object) and "pobj"(indirect object) convey the main meaning of a
 159 sentence and if triples of these types are provided, we could briefly know the intent of the sample.

160 We calculate the document frequency [10] of the four dependency types of triples in each cluster
 161 and pick the top candidates as the cluster label components. Although samples in the same cluster
 162 are usually similar to each other, not all the samples are equally relevant to the core meaning of the
 163 cluster they belong to. The task of intent discovery, however, is not concerned with the meaning of
 164 all the utterances, it is instead concerned with the meanings of most frequent utterances. To retrieve
 165 the most relevant samples that have the core meaning of a cluster, a TF-IDF [10] method was used to

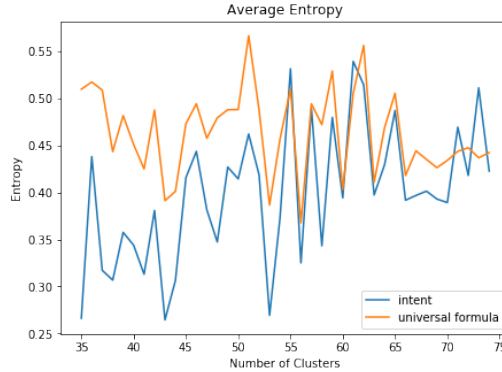


Figure 3: Entropy measured using intent labels and universal formulas.

166 calculate a relevance score for each sample as the summed value of all the TF-IDF scores for all the
 167 triples in the sample that belong to the four categories as mentioned above.

168 We reserved some intent categories in our test samples and did not include those ones in our training
 169 data. To better understand the clustering performance in terms of grouping and finding new intents,
 170 we predicted test samples using clustering model trained with cluster number 56, as we obtained in
 171 the unsupervised process. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Partial results from test dataset.

Intent Name	Recall	Cluster Label
ISSUE_WITH_PRODUCT	0.33	['we-need', 'download-is', 'i-pressing', 'it-remove', 'having-problem', 'got-virus', 'install-deluxe', 'with-download', 'at-risk']
CHANGE_ADDRESS	0.75	['i-do', 'address-is', 'i-changed', 'have-access', 'changed-address', 'change-key', 'on-account', 'from-email', 'to-info']
ISSUE_FIXED	0.50	['have-computer', 'need-assistance', 'have-problems', 'that-seems', 'i-think', 'that-worked', 'i-let', 'you-know', 'restart-computer']

172 5.4 Agent in the Loop

173 The intent discovery process relies on human input (agent) in a few steps. First, the agent helps
 174 with completing the intent labeling of the cluster. That is, agents read through the list of phrases
 175 provided by the automatically generated labels from each cluster and come up with an intent name
 176 that conforms with the format convention prescribed by existing intents. Second, the agent verifies
 177 if the highly ranked samples in each cluster indeed have the meaning as the label of the cluster by
 178 answering "yes" or "no" on those samples. Third, when an intent classification model is available, the
 179 agent runs clustering on samples that are classified as OTHER by the model.

180 As mentioned in the second scenario of Section 1, we are interested in finding any samples missed by
 181 the model as this is an indication that they actually belong to one of the known intents. To accomplish
 182 this, the agent verifies if any of the cluster labels share similar meaning with the known intents,
 183 deciding when clusters should be merged into the training data for intent classifier to improve future
 184 models.

185 In the absence of labeled data, on the third step the agent reviews all the cluster labels and verifies if
 186 any of them can be merged due to semantic proximity.

187 6 Conclusion and Future Work

188 This paper proposed a method to discover unseen intent categories along with intent labels that are
189 meaningful. The method addresses the case where samples consist of utterances classified as OTHER
190 by an intent classification model and the case where utterance samples do not have labels assigned at
191 all. It helps with discovering samples that were mis-classified as OTHER, samples that fall into a
192 large population cluster that should be assigned with a new intent label, and samples that fall into a
193 smaller population group that can be simply labeled as OTHER based on interest of the application.

194 This approach processes utterance samples with a dependency parser to create triples that are used
195 as tokens in a Word2Vec embedding. With the performance criterion set to the average entropy
196 of cluster groups and label groups, the method is able to find the best cluster number. We show
197 experimentally how the Word2Vec embedding from dependency triples outperforms the standard
198 Word2Vec embedding from single word tokens. The most common triples from each cluster provide
199 an effective intent label to the clusters, while TF-IDF ranks each cluster sample based on the frequency
200 of the triples. Finally, the method explains the role of an agent in the loop when available.

201 Broader Impact

202 Intent discovery methods with a minimum of required manual work required are extremely helpful for
203 researchers to explore classification of new utterances or any other intent analysis related activities.
204 As long as data does not have any confidential or personal content, this application should not lead to
205 any harm. The results could be not as satisfactory, if the data baseline keeps changing, *e.g.*, utterances
206 with completely new intents are added very frequently, however, if the system is deployed in a stable
207 platform for a specific client, this situation should rarely happen; bias could be leveraged in identified
208 samples, which is simpler and grammarly regular samples would be captured more easily, however,
209 with larger collection of training samples added and more complex Universal Formula for sentences
210 applied, the bias would be reduced accordingly.

211 References

- 212 [1] Bahman Zohuri and Masoud Moghaddam. Deep learning limitations and flaws. 01 2020.
- 213 [2] Chen Shi, Qi Chen, Lei Sha, Sujian Li, Xu Sun, Houfeng Wang, and Lintao Zhang. Auto-
214 dialabel: Labeling dialogue data with unsupervised learning. In *Proceedings of the 2018*
215 *Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 684–689, Brussels,
216 Belgium, October–November 2018. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- 217 [3] J. Allan, J. Carbonell, G. Doddington, J. Yamron, and Y. Yang. Topic detection and tracking
218 pilot study: Final report. In *Proceedings of the DARPA Broadcast News Transcription and*
219 *Understanding Workshop*, pages 194–218, Lansdowne, VA, USA, February 1998. 007.
- 220 [4] Cheng Niu, Wei Li, Rohini K. Srihari, Huifeng Li, and Laurie Crist. Context clustering for
221 word sense disambiguation based on modeling pairwise context similarities. In *Proceedings of*
222 *SENSEVAL-3, the Third International Workshop on the Evaluation of Systems for the Semantic*
223 *Analysis of Text*, pages 187–190, Barcelona, Spain, July 2004. Association for Computational
224 Linguistics.
- 225 [5] Yang Jiang, Nigel Bosch, Ryan Baker, Luc Paquette, Jaclyn Ocumpaugh, Alexandra Andres,
226 Allison Moore, and Gautam Biswas. *Expert Feature-Engineering vs. Deep Neural Networks:*
227 *Which Is Better for Sensor-Free Affect Detection?*, pages 198–211. 06 2018.
- 228 [6] Matthew Honnibal and Ines Montani. spaCy 2: Natural language understanding with Bloom
229 embeddings, convolutional neural networks and incremental parsing. To appear, 2017.
- 230 [7] Radim Řehůřek and Petr Sojka. Software Framework for Topic Modelling with Large Corpora.
231 In *Proceedings of the LREC 2010 Workshop on New Challenges for NLP Frameworks*, pages
232 45–50, Valletta, Malta, May 2010. ELRA. <http://is.muni.cz/publication/884893/en>.
- 233 [8] F. Pedregosa, G. Varoquaux, A. Gramfort, V. Michel, B. Thirion, O. Grisel, M. Blondel,
234 P. Prettenhofer, R. Weiss, V. Dubourg, J. Vanderplas, A. Passos, D. Cournapeau, M. Brucher,

- 235 M. Perrot, and E. Duchesnay. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python. *Journal of Machine*
236 *Learning Research*, 12:2825–2830, 2011.
- 237 [9] Claude Elwood Shannon. A mathematical theory of communication. *ACM SIGMOBILE mobile*
238 *computing and communications review*, 5(1):3–55, 2001.
- 239 [10] Christopher Manning and Hinrich Schütze. *Foundations of statistical natural language process-*
240 *ing*. MIT press, 1999.