OPTIMIZE THE OBVIOUS: AUTOMATIC CALL FLOW GENERATION

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ABSTRACT
In commercial spoken dialog systems, call flows are built by call flow designers implementing a predefined business logic. While it may appear obvious from this logic how the call flow has to look like, i.e., which pieces of information have to be gathered from the caller or back-end systems and in which sequence, there are, in fact, strong arguments for automating call flow generation:

• manual generation is time-consuming
• manual generation is suboptimal and error-prone
• automatic generation can react on dynamically changing business logic or external factors such as the distribution of callers and call reasons

This paper presents a method for automatically deriving a call flow minimizing the average number of user turns given a business logic and a frequency distribution of call reasons. As an example, we applied the method to a call routing application whose manually built call flow is processing about 4 million calls per month and whose call reason distribution served to measure the impact of the automatic call flow generation.

Index Terms— automatic call flow generation, spoken dialog systems

1. INTRODUCTION
Commercial spoken dialog systems almost exclusively rely on the call flow paradigm, one of many possible dialog management strategies [1]. A call flow is a graph where the nodes represent dialog states and the arcs represent transitions conditioned on caller or back-end system input (see e.g. Figure 1). Generally, call flows are built by call flow designers (aka voice user interface designers or interaction designers) implementing a given business logic. This business logic can be provided in form of tables such as Table 1 which was basis of the aforementioned example call flow.

Call flows can be extremely complex with thousands of nodes and transitions, e.g. when representing a problem-solving spoken dialog application application [2]. These complex applications, however, can be broken down into sub-dialogs with their respective sub-call flows each of them serving specific purposes such as problem capture, equipment type collection, resolution steps, etc. For instance, the above given example can be part of a large phone banking application able to serve many purposes such as fund management, review of credit card statements, transfer to external accounts, etc.

Without loss of generality, in this paper, we consider a (sub-)call flow to be of a question-answer-destination type. That is, the business logic tables consist of a number of columns representing questions whose possible answers are listed in the column fields. The mandatory destination column determines the routing destination or final action performed by the call flow. A general business logic table looks as shown in Table 2. Here, \( P^n \) are the relative frequencies, or estimated probabilities, of how often the \( n^{th} \) table row will

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>service type</th>
<th>account type</th>
<th>amount?</th>
<th>destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>balance</td>
<td>checking</td>
<td></td>
<td>give checking balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>balance</td>
<td>savings</td>
<td>$\times$</td>
<td>give savings balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfer</td>
<td>checking</td>
<td>$\times$</td>
<td>check.-sav. transfer $\times$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfer</td>
<td>savings</td>
<td>$\times$</td>
<td>sav.-check. transfer $\times$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Example of a business logic table.
Table 2. General business logic table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A_1</th>
<th>A_2</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>A_M</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A_1^1</td>
<td>A_2^1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>A_M^1</td>
<td>D^1</td>
<td>P^1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A_1^2</td>
<td>A_2^2</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>A_M^2</td>
<td>D^2</td>
<td>P^2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A_1^N</td>
<td>A_2^N</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>A_M^N</td>
<td>D^N</td>
<td>P^N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Example of a business logic table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A_1</th>
<th>A_2</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>D^1</td>
<td>P^1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>D^2</td>
<td>P^2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>D^3</td>
<td>P^3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The question of how to best order information-gathering questions in spoken dialog systems has been addressed before. Some researchers (e.g., [3], [4]) have proposed user models whereby the importance of information is determined by storing known preferences of a user and using this to order presentation elements for future interactions with that user. However, this approach is not relevant for an application, such as the once discussed here, where the number of repeat callers is relatively low and the ability to collect preference information is not feasible. Another proposed approach is to learn question ordering from human-human dialogs. For example, [5] used a human-human corpus to train a decision tree that optimizes the order of questions such that information gain is maximized. In so doing, the dialog flow was also maximally shortened and it was furthermore reported that call satisfaction increased as well. In subsequent sections, we describe a similar method for optimizing question presentation order, but instead of relying on human-human interaction for learning—something that is not always possible or cost-effective to obtain—we optimize on the ultimate route points of millions of callers using spoken dialog systems in production.

2. THE ALGORITHM

2.1. On relevance and information gain

As motivated above, we want to come up with a strategy to ask the questions in a call flow in decreasing order of relevance before routing to the destination or launching the final action D^n. Since a call flow as introduced above is similar to what in machine learning is referred to as decision tree, we can use well-established machine learning techniques to come up with an optimal call flow. When we agree that the most relevant question is that one whose answer provides us the maximum information, we can borrow the information gain measure as defined in [6] to get started:

\[ I(Y; X) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y) \]  

(1)

Here, X is a given attribute, i.e. the answer to a question, and Y is a class attribute, i.e. the sought-for destination. So, we may as well write

\[ I(D; A_m) = H(A_m) + H(D) - H(A_m, D) \]  

(2)

\[ H(D) = - \sum_{\delta=1}^{\Delta} P(\delta) \log_2 P(\delta) \]  

(3)

whereby the importance of information is determined by storing known preferences of a user and using this to order presentation elements for future interactions with that user. However, this approach is not relevant for an application, such as the once discussed here, where the number of repeat callers is relatively low and the ability to collect preference information is not feasible. Another proposed approach is to learn question ordering from human-human dialogs. For example, [5] used a human-human corpus to train a decision tree that optimizes the order of questions such that information gain is maximized. In so doing, the dialog flow was also maximally shortened and it was furthermore reported that call satisfaction increased as well. In subsequent sections, we describe a similar method for optimizing question presentation order, but instead of relying on human-human interaction for learning—something that is not always possible or cost-effective to obtain—we optimize on the ultimate route points of millions of callers using spoken dialog systems in production.

...
with \( \delta \in \{1, \ldots, \Delta\} \) being the distinct destinations in the currently processed business logic table. So, at every node in the call flow, we simply determine which question leads to the maximum performance gain:

\[
Q_{\hat{m}} \text{ with } \hat{m} = \arg \max_{m=1, \ldots, M} I(D; A_m). \tag{4}
\]

If none of the questions leads to a performance gain, there is nothing left to do, and we can route to the final destination. As an example, consider that \( D^1 = D^2 = D^3 \) in Table 3. As we have a single destination, we get \( H(D) = -1 \cdot \log_2(1) = 0 \). Furthermore, we know that \( P(\alpha_m, \delta) = P(\alpha_m) \) (\( \alpha_m \) being the distinct answers of \( A_m \)) since the entire probability mass is associated with the single destination \( \delta \). This leads to \( H(A_m, \delta) = H(A_m) \) and, hence, to \( I(D; A_m) = 0 \). So, we are good to route in this scenario.

### 2.2. Step by step

The algorithm \( f(T) \) providing a call flow from a given business logic table \( T \) works iteratively as follows:

- Compute the information gain values \( I(D; A_m) \) according to Equation 2.
- If \( I(D; A_m) = 0 \) for \( m \in \{1, \ldots, M\} \), route to \( D \). If \( D \) is not unique, the original business logic table was inconsistent (contradicting rows) and needs to be fixed. Exit \( f(T) \).
- Determine the optimum question \( Q_{\hat{m}} \) according to Equation 4.
- Iterate over all possible answers \( \alpha_{\hat{m}} \):
  - setting \( T' := T \),
  - eliminating all rows but those associated with \( \alpha_{\hat{m}} \) in \( T' \),
  - eliminating the \( \hat{m}' \)'s question column in \( T' \),
  - calling \( f(T') \).

### 2.3. Special properties

Section 2.2 shows a raw version of the call flow deduction algorithm that, in practical applications, can be enriched by a number of special features and constraints, some of which are to be listed here:

- The use of open prompts, user-initiated input, backend integration, or other input modalities may provide information prior or during the conversation. Therefore, call flows should generally be computed during runtime. If possible, \( f(T') \) for the next machine-user interaction should be called right before the interaction is carried out taking all available information into account. This way, also re-gathering of information is avoided as in the following typical example:

A: “You can get your balance or make a transfer. Which one would you like?”

C: “The balance of my checking account, please.”

A: “Would you like to hear the checking or savings account balance?”

- There can be special fields or special columns in the business logic table such as
  - Wildcard fields (matching everything) and negative fields (matching everything but its content). These are to keep the business logic table as short as possible.
  - Value fields. Conventional fields represent a single possible answer (such as the balance field in Table 1). In contrast, value fields can represent a variety of inputs (such as a numerical value, a set of responses, or even a whole sub-call flow). The integration of their respective information gain contribution is a little more elaborate and beyond the scope of this paper.
  - Priority columns/column types. Although sometimes a certain question may produce the highest information gain, it may be unnatural to ask before another question has been answered. E.g., a music instruments hotline will probably not talk like this:

A: “Welcome to Mewtheory. Are you calling about a red, blue, or black instrument?”

C: “Uuh. I don’t care.”

A: “Do you need repair or do you want to buy one?”

C: “Buying. I guess.”

A: “Do you want to pay by credit card or check?”

C: “Uuh?”

A: “And... which instrument is it about: ukulele, piccolo, or triangle. You can also say: Give me a different instrument.”

C: “What the hell?! I need an Eliminator Demon Drive Double Bass Drum Pedal!”

The resolution for this scenario is to introduce columns of different priorities or types whose dependence is taken into consideration when computing the optimal information gain.

- There can be additional constraints necessary to have the algorithm produce call flows following certain business requirements or voice user interface best practices such as limiting the number of possible choices at a given directed dialog to a certain maximum [8].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number of calls</th>
<th>3,868,014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number of questions</td>
<td>$M = 4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of rows</td>
<td>$N = 31$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of distinct destinations</td>
<td>$\Delta = 20$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average number of call flow questions</td>
<td>$M = 2.87$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Experiment parameters.

3. AN EXAMPLE

In order to test the proposed algorithm in a real-world scenario, we took the business logic table from a mature call router application of a large cable company processing about 4 million calls per month (see [9] for details). Based on call logs collected over a one-month time frame (August 2009), the probabilities $P^n$ were estimated, and a static call flow was generated based on the algorithm described in Section 2.2. Table 4 reports on the experiment’s parameters.

Since $P^n$ was known, we were able to estimate the probability with which each transition of the generated call flow was taken and, hence, were able to estimate the average number of questions asked to route a caller to one of the 20 final destinations. We obtained an average number of $M = 2.87$ questions for the given business logic. The original business logic was based on four questions:

- service type (orders, billing, technical support, etc.)
- product (internet, cable TV, telephone)
- actions (cancel, schedule, make a payment, etc.)
- modifiers (credit card, pay-per-view, digital TV conversion, etc.)

Hence, the implementation of said business logic one-question-after-the-other\(^1\) as discussed in Section 1 would have resulted in an average of four questions. This value could be reduced by almost 30% using automatic call flow generation.

4. CONCLUSION

Considering the average duration of a question-response interaction together with common per-minute fees for interactive voice response hosting and the aforementioned monthly call volume of the application, a 30% reduction of the average number of asked questions due to automatic call flow generation could translate to savings of five- to six-figure US dollar amounts per month. Furthermore, the likelihood of callers opting out (i.e., asking for an agent) or hanging up out of frustration decreases as the conversation speeds up leading to higher resolution rates and better caller experience. Finally, automatic call flow optimization as compared to the conventional anecdotic and ad-hoc tuning of the call flow logic can be magnitudes faster and provide functionality manual call flows cannot use such as dynamic call flow generation based on a variety of runtime inputs from user and back-end systems.

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6. REFERENCES