Memory and Attention and Situated Dialog

John D. Kelleher

Language, Action, and Perception 31 European Summer School in Logic, Language and Information 12th - 16th August 2019, Riga Latvia



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Outline

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Summary

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 Situated language is spoken from a particular point of view within a shared perceptual context (Byron, 2003)



 The history of computational models of situated dialog can be traced back to systems in the 1970's such as SHRDLU Winograd (1973).

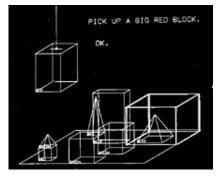


Figure: SHRDLU robot world

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See Kelleher and Dobnik (2019) and references therein for a review of relevant literature on situated dialog systems. SHRLDU image sourced from: https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/SHRDLU



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- A commonality across many of these systems is that they have a primary focus on grounding (in the sense of Harnad (1990) rather than Clark et al. (1991)), the references within a single utterance against the current perceptual context.
- Consequently a key challenge that these systems address is reference resolution



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Referring expression can take a variety of surface forms, including:

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- definite descriptions: the red chair
- indefinites: a chair
- pronouns: it
- demonstratives: that

- The form of referring expression used by a speaker signals their belief with respect to the status the referent occupies within the hearer's set of beliefs
- For example, a pronominal reference signals that the intended referent has a high degree of salience within the hearer's current mental model of the discourse context.



- Mutual knowledge: the set of things that are taken as shared knowledge by interlocutors, and hence are available as referents within the discourse (McCawley, 1993).
- An interlocutor may consider an entity to be in the mutual knowledge set if:
 - ► it is part of the assumed cultural or biographical knowledge they share with their dialog partner
 - it is in the shared perception of the situation the dialog occurs within.



The term discourse context (DC) is often used in linguistically focused research on dialog to describe the set of entities available for reference due to the fact that they have previously been mentioned in the dialog



- Mutual Knowledge v. Discourse Context
 - mutual knowledge: the set of entities that are available for reference but which have not been mentioned previously in the discourse
 - discourse context: a record of the entities that have been mentioned previously
- This distinction opens up the possibility that the internal structure of these two components may be quite distinct, we will return to this question later.



The process of resolving a referring expression can be characterized as follows:

- 1. a referring expression in an utterance introduces a representation into the semantics of that utterance
- 2. this representation must be bound to an entity in the mutual knowledge set or in the discourse context for the utterance to be resolved.



We can distinguish three types of referring expressions based on the information source they draw their referent from (as opposed to their surface form), namely:

- 1. evoking,
- 2. exophoric,
- 3. anaphoric



- An evoking reference refers to an entity that is known to the interpreter through their conceptual knowledge but which has not previously been mentioned in the dialog.
- The referent of an evoking reference is found in the mutual knowledge set
- The process of resolving this reference introduces a representation of the referent into the discourse context.



- An exophoric reference denotes an entity that is known to the interpreter through their perception of the situation of the dialog but which has not previously been mentioned in the dialog.
- Similar to an evoking reference, the process of resolving an exophoric reference introduces a representation of the referent into the discourse context.



An anaphoric reference refers to an entity that has already been introduced mentioned in the dialog and hence a representation of its referent is already in the discourse context.



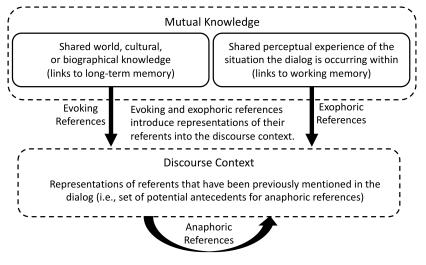


Figure: The relationship between mutual knowledge, the discourse context, and evoking, exophoric, and anaphoric references.



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- ► All of these form of reference draw upon human memory.
- Mutual knowledge and the maintenance of a discourse context are both stored in memory.



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Cognitive psychology¹ distinguishes between a number of different types of memory including:

- sensory memory which persists for several hundred milliseconds and is modal specific
- working memory which persists for up thirty seconds and has limited capacity
- long-term memory which persists from thirty minutes to the end of an person's lifetime, and has potentially unlimited capacity.

The Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) model describes how these different types of memory interact.



¹See, for example Eysenck and Keane (2013).

Sensory Memory

- External inputs are initially stored in modality specific sensory memory buffers.
- There is an attentional filter between these sensory specific memories and working memory.
 - Information that is attended to passes through to working memory
 - Unattended information is lost



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Working Memory

- Limited capacity
- Information in the working memory that is frequently rehearsed is transferred to long-term memory and may be retrieved later.
- Information is working memory that is not rehearsed is displaced as new information arrives.



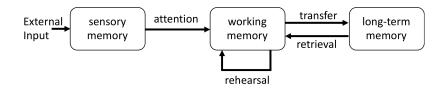


Figure: Multi-store Model of Memory based on Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968)



- The Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) Multi-store Model of Memory is the most popular model of memory.
- However, alternative models have been proposed.
- ► For example, the levels-of-processing (Craik and Lockhart, 1972) is another well-known model that proposes:
 - 1. there is no compartmental structure to memory (i.e. there is no distinction between different types of memory
 - and the ability to remember or recall something is dependent on the depth of processing measured on a continuous scale from ranging from 'shallow' (perceptual) to 'deep' (semantic)



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Intermediate-term memory (ITM)

- is a stage of memory distinct from sensory memory, working memory/short-term memory, and long-term memory.
- it persists for about two to three hours.
- it declines completely before the onset of long-term memory

Unlike short-term memory and working memory, intermediate-term memory requires changes in translation to occur in order to function. While ITM requires only changes in translation, induction of long-term memory requires changes in transcription as well. Translation and transcription are concepts from microbiology and genetics.

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- Evoking references draw on long-term memory
- Exophoric references draw on working memory
- It is also reasonable that the discourse context model should be considered a part of working memory/intermediate-term memory
- \rightarrow Working memory is at crux of handing anaphoric and exophoric references.



Baddeley (2002) model of working memory has 4 major systems:

- central executive: modality independent, supervises the integration of information, directs attention, coordinates other systems
- phonological loop holds speech based information and can maintain this information over short periods by continuous rehearsal
- visual-spatial sketchpad stores visual and spatial information and can construct visual images and mental maps

episodic buffer

- a limited capacity buffer
- temporarily stores and integrates information from other modules (phonological loop, the visuo-spatial sketchpad, smell, taste, and so on)
- integrates disparate encodings into a unitary representation of chronologically ordered episodes.



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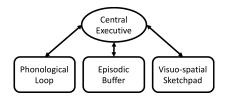


Figure: Baddeley's Model of Working Memory



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- Grosz (1977) highlighted that attention processes can affect how references are resolved during a dialog.
 - if an object is in the mutual focus of attention it can be denoted by means of a definite description even though other entities fulfilling the description are present in the mutual context set.



- Grosz and Sidner (1986) extended this work and developed a focus stack model of global discourse attentional state.
- Other models of global discourse structure and processing have since been proposed, for example Hobbs (1985); Mann and Thompson (1987); Kempson (1988); Kempson et al. (2000); Asher and Lascarides (2003); Kamp et al. (2011).



- Whichever model of global discourse structure is assumed the question of how the focus of attention and reference interact within a local discourse context must also be addressed
- A number of approaches to this question have been proposed, for example Alshawi (1987), Hajicová (1993), Lappin and Leass (1994), and Grosz et al. (1995).
- However, none of these models explicitly accommodate multimodal contexts



Examples of work on reference in mulitmodal contexts:

- Harnad (1990) addresses the question of grounding language in perception.
- Coradeschi and Saffiotti (2003) has addressed this in terms of the symbol anchoring framework
- Roy (2005) has proposed semiotic schemas
- Kruijff et al. (2006) proposed an ontology-based mediation between content in different modalities

Generally, these works focus on exophoric references but assume that the referent is still perceptually available.

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An exophoric reference can denote an entity that is not perceptually available at the time of the reference.

Example

- Two people are in a car that is driving along the road.
- passenger: did you see the cyclist with dog at the traffic lights back there?
- driver yes
- This example highlights the fact that the need for a memory of perception to be maintained to handle these references
- ► We will refer to these types of exophoric references as references to perceptual memories.



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- For a system to handle exophoric references to perceptual memories requires the design of a perceptual memory data structure.
- This perceptual memory data structure stores the mutual knowledge information related to the interlocutors shared perceptual experience of the situation
- This perceptual memory data can be understood as part of working memory



Grounding Language in Vision

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The design of a perceptual memory data-structure opens up a number of questions, for example:

- should all entities that are perceived be entered into this data structure or is their a filtering process (e.g. an attentional filter)?
- once and entity enters the perceptual memory is it there indefinitely or can it be removed (forgotten)?
- how does the perceptual memory interact with the linguistic discourse history (are they separate)?
- how is the perceptual memory structured, for example, is it episodic or monolithic, does it have a chronological order?



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- The human faculty of attention is the "selective aspect of processing" (Kosslyn, 1994, pg. 84)
- Visual Attention regulates the processing of perceived visual stimuli by selecting a region within the visual buffer for detailed processing.



In computational systems, a saliency map is used to estimate the regions within an image that receive visual attention



There are many different and sometimes competing factors that affect the location of the region a perceiver attends to:

- top-down: visual familiarity, intentionality, and so on.
- bottom-up: colour, movement, singleton, and so on.



Visual Attention: Bottom-Up

Input image

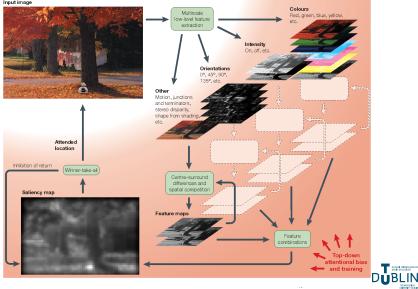


Figure: Figure 1 from Itti and Koch⁻(2001)

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Computational Models of Multimodal Working Memory for Dialog

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- ► The LIVE system Kelleher et al. (2005), is a candidate architecture for this episodic buffer module.
- The LIVE system is designed as a natural language interface to a virtual town, similar in spirit to Winograd's SHRDLU system discussed earlier.
- A distinctive characteristic of the LIVE system, is that the user was able to move around the environment, and the system had a perceptual memory module that enabled the user to refer to off-screen objects that had been seen recently.



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The LIVE system uses a false colouring visual salience algorithm to process each frame (visual scene) generated as the user moved through the virtual environment Kelleher and van Genabith (2003, 2004), there are 28 such frames generated per second.





Figure: A scene in the LIVE domain.



Figure: The weighting assigned to the pixels in the viewport: the darker the pixels the lower the weighting

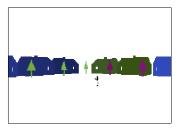
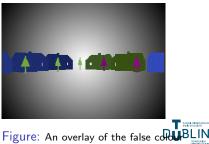


Figure: The false colour rendering of the scene in Figure 6.



rendering of Figure 6 on the distribution of pixel weightings.

- This visual salience algorithm identifies each object instance visible in a frame, and associates a relative visual salience score to each object, based on its size and location within the frame.
- For each frame a list of the visible objects along with their type and colour information and a salience score is created.



- This frame information is then used to populate a data structure, known as a reference domain
- There is a separate reference domain created for each frame.



- A reference domain is composed of a number of lists, known as partitions, and the elements of each partition is ordered, in descending order, by their visual salience.
- The function of these partitions is to predict the different ways a user may refer to an object in the scene.
- ► For example:
 - If trees visible in a frame then the corresponding reference domain would include a tree partition listing all the trees visible ordered by their salience
 - If there are red objects in the scene then there would be a red partition listing all the red objects ordered by colour)



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- The set of potential partitions that could be included in a reference domain is huge: e.g. red houses, or green trees, and other combinations of features.
- The LIVE system limits initial set of partitions to categories that are reasonably likely to be preattentively available, namely, object, type, and colour²
- Partitions modelling more complex criteria may be created within a reference domain in response to a linguistic utterances

²For a discussion on the question of how we might contextually prime an agent to run perceptual classifiers see Dobnik and Kelleher ((2016)) \times (2) \times (2)

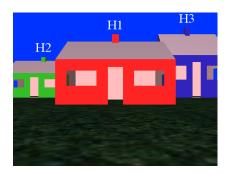


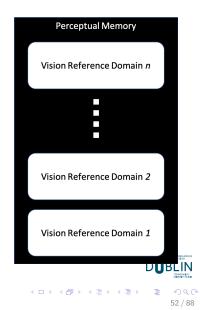
Figure: A frame from the LIVE System.

p1	criterion	'object'
	elements	'object' [H1,1.0; H3,0.2; H2,0.1]]
	elements	'house' [H1,1.0; H3,0.2; H2,0.1]]
	criterion	'red'
	criterion elements	
	criterion	'blue'
	criterion elements	
p4	criterion	'green'
	criterion elements	[H2,0.1]]

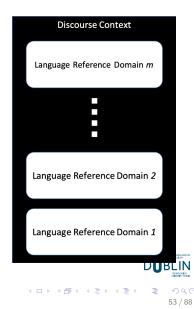
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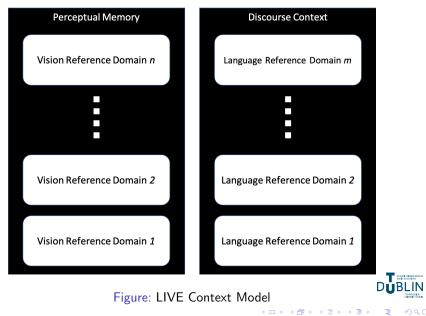
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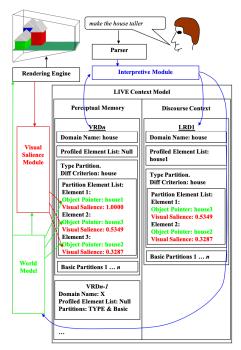
- The LIVE system stores these reference domains in a chronologically ordered data structure with a capacity to hold 3,000 reference domains
- When the data structure was full the oldest reference domain was deleted to make space for the new reference domain.
- This gives the system a perceptual memory of ^{3,000}/₂₈ = 108 seconds.



- The LIVE system also maintained a discourse context model.
- This model is similar in structure to the perceptual memory, it consists of up to 3,000 chronologically ordered reference domain data structures and uses a first-in-first-out policy when the buffer is full.
- New reference domains are added to this discourse context model as a result of resolving a referring expression.







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- The structure of the LIVE perceptual memory and discourse context components is somewhat similar to the episodic Buffer in Baddeley's model:
 - 1. limited capacity,
 - 2. chronologically ordered,
 - 3. integrating visual perceptual information with semantic information



The similarity in the encodings in the perceptual memory and discourse context model facilitates reference resolution, which entails copying, restructuring, and inserting of a reference domains.



- The approach to resolving a reference taken by the LIVE system can be understood as:
 - 1. searching memory for a suitable episodic memory,
 - 2. using this episode as local context within which the reference is resolving,
 - 3. updating the episode to mark the fact that the reference has occurred,
 - 4. updating the discourse context by storing the new episode in it.

- LIVE can process exophoric references to entities that are no longer on-screen.
- However, using a reference domain representation of a frame/episode as defining the (local) context for a reference makes it extremely difficult to handle references that refer to two or more entities that never appeared in the same frame.



Handling references to entities perceived in different episodes requires the system to be able to integrate multiple reference domains, and this is non-trivial; e.g., it is not clear how salience scores from different frames, and hence different times, should be updated during this merger.



An approach to the design of a perceptual memory, that naturally answers the question of how to integrate information from perceptions received across distinct times, is to use an evolving global structure where all referents are stored in a single data structure that is continuously updated to reflect the current state.



- Kelleher (2006) is similar to Kelleher et al. (2005) in that it uses the same visual salience algorithm to analysis the visual frames the user sees as they navigate through the environment.
- However, the data structure used to store perceptual memories and discourse structure is very different.
- This system maintains a single global context model throughout a user's session.



- Once an entity has been rendered on screen a representation of that entity is introduced in this global context model.
- There is only ever a single representation of an entity in the global context model.



- This representation of an entity stores:
 - 1. the physical information of the entity (e.g., *type*, *colour*, *size*, and so on)
 - 2. the current visual salience salience score
 - 3. the current linguistic salience score



- The visual salience score is updated after each frame is processed.
- The visual salience of an entity that is not in the current frame is halved when the frame is processed.
- As a result the visual salience of an entity drops off once it goes out of (visual) focus (i.e., off-screen), and continues to reduce the longer out of focus it remains.



- The linguistic salience scoring is based on the assumption that entities that have been mentioned recently are more salient than entities that have not.
- The particular function used to calculate and update the linguistic salience scores is in the spirit of Centering Theory Grosz et al. (1995) and is similar to the model proposed by Krahmer and Theune (2002).
- Other linguistic salience models could easily be switched in, for example (Kennedy and Boguraev, 1996) which was used in the Companion's project (Smith et al., 2010), would also be suitable.



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- Let U_i be a sentence uttered in state s_i, in which reference is made to {d_i,..., d_n} ⊆ D.
- Then the salience weight of objects in s_{i+1} is determined as follows:

$$sf(s_{i+1}, d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } d = subject(U_i) \\ (sf(s_i, d)/2) + .5 & \text{if } d = object(U_i) \\ (sf(s_i, d)/2) + .25 & \text{if } d = other(U_i) \\ sf(s_i, d)/2 & \text{if } d \notin \{d_i, \dots, d_n\} \end{cases}$$



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- The linguistic salience of an entity is updated after each utterance has been processed.
- The linguistic salience of any entity not mentioned in an utterance is halved when the utterance is processed.



- The structure of the global context model itself is minimal, it is simply an unordered set of these entity representations.
- The fact that the linguistic and visual salience scores are updated based on recency of being visible or mention means that the context model implicitly models recency.



- Reference resolution in this system is done by calculating an integrated salience score for each entity in the context model, and then selecting the entity with the highest integrated score as the referent.
- The integrated salience score of an entity is recalculated each time a referring expression is processed.



• The integrated salience score is calculated in three steps:

- 1. a reference relative visual salience score is calculated by scaling the standard visual salience score to reflect the fit of the entity with the selection restrictions specified in the expression
- 2. a reference relative linguistic salience score is calculated in a similar way to the reference relative visual salience score;
- the integrated salience score is then calculated using a weighted sum of the reference relative visual and linguistic salience scores, where the weighting is dependent on the surface form of the referring expression



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- The fact that this monolithic global context model does not encode an episodic (frame based) structure means that the integration of information from different scenes is straight forward.
- As a result, this system can handle references to entities that do not appear on screen together.



A Global/Monolithic Architecture

- However, the loss of the episodic chronological order means that a system using this context model would not be able to handle exophoric references based on:
 - 1. chronology (such as the first blue house we saw),
 - 2. co-occurrence within a local temporal context (such as *the car that was in front of the house when the man fell*).

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Things not mentioned:

- Reformulation of referring expressions and perception (Schütte et al., 2017; Schutte et al., 2015, 2014)
- Generating Referring Expressions: (Dale and Reiter, 1995; van Deemter, 2002; Kelleher and Kruijff, 2005, 2006; Deemter et al., 2012)
- Grounding image captioning using image retrieval (e.g. perception) in order to generate more diverse and meaningful captions (Lindh et al., 2018)
- See also cognitive architectures such as ACT-R (Anderson, 2009), SOAR (Laird, 2012)



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- The two approaches to perceptual memory we have reviewed can be understood as exemplars at opposing ends of a spectrum of design choices:
 - 1. Kelleher et al. (2005) focuses on identifying a local context and resolving the reference within that context,
 - 2. Kelleher (2006) focuses on creating and continuously evolving a global context model.



- These approaches have complementary strengths and weaknesses.
- Consequently, it is likely that a blend of these approaches is necessary.
- This is not surprising as there are many examples in language processing where there is a need to be able to switch from a local focus to a global perspective, and back again, as the context requires.³

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