Enhancing Emotional Support Conversations: A Framework for Dynamic Knowledge Filtering and Persona Extraction

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Abstract

With the growing need for accessible emotional support, conversational agents are being used more frequently to provide empathetic and meaningful interactions. However, many existing dialogue models struggle to interpret user context accurately due to irrelevant or misclassified knowledge, limiting their effectiveness in real-world scenarios. To address this, we propose a new framework that dynamically filters relevant commonsense knowledge and extracts personalized information to improve empathetic dialogue generation. We evaluate our framework on the ESConv dataset using extensive automatic and human experiments. The results show that our approach outperforms other models in metrics, demonstrating better coherence, emotional understanding, and response relevance.

1 Introduction

Empathy refers to the ability to perceive others' emotions, consider their perspectives, and respond appropriately. With the rapid advancement in the field of dialogue systems, the question of how to imbue machines with empathy has gained significant attention[\(Cameron et al.,](#page-8-0) [2019;](#page-8-0) [Daley et al.,](#page-8-1) [2020;](#page-8-1) [Denecke et al.,](#page-8-2) [2020\)](#page-8-2). At the same time, a growing number of people are experiencing mental health issues and seeking support. The cost of professional mental health care and counseling is high, and access is often limited [\(Olfson,](#page-9-0) [2016;](#page-9-0) [Cullen et al.,](#page-8-3) [2020;](#page-8-3) [Vindegaard and Benros,](#page-9-1) [2020\)](#page-9-1). This highlights the importance of using conversational agents and chatbots to automate these tasks [\(Denecke et al.,](#page-8-2) [2020;](#page-8-2) [Kraus et al.,](#page-8-4) [2021\)](#page-8-4).

To address this issue, [Liu et al.](#page-8-5) [\(2021\)](#page-8-5) introduced the Emotional Support Conversation (ESC) task, using neural network models to reduce users' emotional distress, improve their mood, and ultimately

Figure 1: This example is drawn from the ESConv dataset. Red, blue, and green represent irrelevant knowledge, knowledge related to historical context, and knowledge strongly related to the current text, respectively.

help resolve their problems. Leveraging external knowledge bases, MISC [\(Tu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022\)](#page-9-2) innovatively integrates COMET [\(Bosselut et al.,](#page-8-6) [2019\)](#page-8-6) to enhance the model's capability in emotional reasoning. PAL [\(Cheng et al.,](#page-8-7) [2023\)](#page-8-7) addresses the need for personalized user responses by incorporating persona information into dialogue generation, which enhances the diversity of the replies.

However, not all introduced knowledge contributes to dialogue generation: some knowledge even interferes with dialogue generation. For example, in Figure [1,](#page-0-0) the intent knowledge "*have fun*" generated based on the user's current statement is clearly irrelevant. To clarify the contextual relevance of each piece of commonsense knowledge, we follow [Gao et al.](#page-8-8) [\(2022\)](#page-8-8) and categorize knowledge into four types: RPA (directly relevant), RPP (related to the past and present), RPF (related to the future), and IRR (irrelevant). Based on the

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four categories, we can classify the knowledge in Figure [1.](#page-0-0) Clearly, "*have fun*" falls under IRR, as it is irrelevant. "*To be safe*" is closely related to the current context and belongs to RPA. Meanwhile, "*to be independent*" and "*to be alone*" are strongly connected to the previous user intention "*out of the marriage*", and only weakly related to the current utterance, thus classified as RPP. Since our task does not have access to future text, we exclude the RPF category. By following these classifications, we can fully utilize the most relevant knowledge while excluding irrelevant information. The remaining commonsense knowledge closely aligns with the context, which enhances the consistency of generated responses but may reduce their diversity. So we incorporate the user's persona information as supplementary input into our generation process, providing rich background information and contextual clues to increase the diversity of responses. For example, in Figure [1,](#page-0-0) the persona information summarizes the user's current situation: "*My husband drank too much.*". Combined with the filtered user intention (as shown on the right in Figure [1\)](#page-0-0), we can easily generate an appropriate response, as shown in Figure [1.](#page-0-0)

In this paper, we propose a method for dynamic knowledge filtering and persona extraction to generate empathetic support dialogues. Specifically, we use the *ComFact* dataset [\(Gao et al.,](#page-8-8) [2022\)](#page-8-8) to train a knowledge filter that selects relevant commonsense knowledge from COMET. Next, we encode the context, commonsense knowledge, and persona information separately. Through a bidirectional cross-attention mechanism, we integrate context with commonsense knowledge and context with persona information to generate the final response. We evaluate our method on the ESConv dataset. The results show that our approach outperforms current baseline models in both automatic and human evaluations.

Our contributions are as follows:

- We propose a method for dynamic knowledge filtering and persona extraction to generate high-quality responses.
- Both automatic and human evaluations indicate that our model demonstrates a deep understanding of the user's personality and situation compared to other SOTA methods.
- In the ablation study, we explore the impact of different methods for selecting commonsense

knowledge on dialogue generation.

2 Related Works

2.1 Empathetic Dialogue Systems

Empathic dialogue systems are designed to recognize and understand user emotions and generate more meaningful interactions [\(Rashkin et al.,](#page-9-3) [2019;](#page-9-3) [Liu et al.,](#page-8-5) [2021;](#page-8-5) [Sabour et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022\)](#page-9-4). Most previous research focuses on detecting emotions to address the emotional aspect of empathy [\(Majumder et al.,](#page-9-5) [2020;](#page-9-5) [Roller,](#page-9-6) [2020;](#page-9-6) [Li et al.,](#page-8-9) [2022\)](#page-8-9). However, there is growing awareness of the need to address the cognitive aspect of empathy. Knowledge graphs, especially those containing commonsense and emotional information, have been shown to produce better empathetic responses [\(Hwang et al.,](#page-8-10) [2021;](#page-8-10) [Gao et al.,](#page-8-8) [2022\)](#page-8-8). [Sabour et al.](#page-9-4) [\(2022\)](#page-9-4); [Tu et al.](#page-9-2) [\(2022\)](#page-9-2); [Zhao et al.](#page-9-7) [\(2023\)](#page-9-7); [Cheng et al.](#page-8-7) [\(2023\)](#page-8-7) have explored incorporating knowledge graphs to improve understanding and performance of empathy, but fully understanding the psychological state of a dialogue partner through cognitive empathy remains challenging. Our work extends this research by using a dynamic commonsense filtering module. This helps to more accurately capture and reflect the cognitive state of the user, enhancing the empathetic depth of the dialogue system.

2.2 Emotional Support Conversation

Unlike traditional empathetic dialogue systems, ESC not only expresses empathy but also aims to guide help-seekers through their negative emotional distress[\(Liu et al.,](#page-8-5) [2021\)](#page-8-5). MISC[\(Tu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022\)](#page-9-2) integrates commonsense knowledge for finegrained emotional understanding. [Peng et al.](#page-9-8) [\(2022\)](#page-9-8) model the relationship between global commonsense causes and local contextual intentions using a hierarchical graph network. [Zhao et al.](#page-9-7) [\(2023\)](#page-9-7) explore state transitions between each conversation turn, such as shifts in semantics, strategy, and emotion. Several new strategies, including reinforcement learning, have been employed to actively guide emotional discourse[\(Cheng et al.,](#page-8-11) [2022;](#page-8-11) [Li et al.,](#page-8-12) [2024;](#page-8-12) [Zhou et al.,](#page-9-9) [2023\)](#page-9-9), showing their advantages in ESC tasks. While multiple previous studies have implicitly screened commonsense knowledge to enhance understanding of user states, irrelevant knowledge still has the potential to compromise the quality of generation. Our work addresses this problem by integrating persona information and dynamically filtering out irrelevant

Relevance RPA RPP RPF IRR All				
train			3764 736 708 1972 7180	
val	480.		107 105 185 877	
test			886 297 157 373 1693	

Table 1: Link type statistics of relevant facts on each data subset of *ComFact*.

commonsense knowledge. This approach strikes a delicate balance between excluding irrelevant information and providing high-quality supportive responses in ESC.

3 Method

3.1 Problem Formulation

Formally, given the dialogue context $U =$ $[u_1^A, u_1^B, u_2^A, u_2^B, \dots, u_t^A]$, representing t historical dialogues between the help-seeker and the supporter. Our task is to generate appropriate supportive responses u_t^B based on the current utterance u_t^A and historical context *U* of the help seeker, combined with the commonsense knowledge base COMET and persona information.

As shown in the Figure [2,](#page-3-0) our model consists of three main parts: the persona and commonsense understanding extractor, the multi-perspective fusion encoder, and the multi-knowledge hybrid decoder. First, the persona extractor and the pretrained COMET extract persona information and commonsense knowledge from the help-seeker's current utterance u_t^A . Then, the commonsense knowledge filter eliminates irrelevant knowledge, retaining only the strongly and weakly relevant information. Next, a multi-perspective fusion encoder is deployed to enhance persona and commonsense information through contextual representations. The model implicitly learns to adjust the weights of strongly and weakly relevant knowledge through parameter optimization. Finally, the persona information and commonsense knowledge are weighted and fused, then passed into the multiknowledge hybrid decoder to generate the final response.

3.2 Persona and Commonsense Understanding Extractor

The model can implicitly reduce the weights of irrelevant knowledge through parameter learning, but it does not explicitly exclude such knowledge. Irrelevant information can degrade the quality of

generated responses in real-world applications and may even offend users. Therefore, developing effective methods for explicitly filtering out irrelevant knowledge and reducing the weights of weakly relevant information is valuable, as illustrated in Figure [1.](#page-0-0)

Specifically, given the user's current utterance u_t^A , we first extract commonsense knowledge using COMET. Following previous research, we focus on four key cognitive aspects related to the user: $R = [Internet, Want, Need, Effect].$ For each aspect, we use COMET to predict the corresponding cognitive state, denoted as com^r = $[com_1^r, com_2^r, com_3^r, com_4^r, com_5^r],$ where $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbf{R}$. To effectively filter out irrelevant knowledge, we train our commonsense knowledge filter on a subset of the *ComFact* dataset. Specifically, we extract all commonsense data from the *ComFact* dataset where the relationships are $r \in R$, forming our dataset. The final data distribution of the dataset is shown in Table [1.](#page-2-0) Additionally, since our task does not have access to future contexts, evaluating the impact of RPF in actual generation is challenging. Therefore, we train the model using three categories, excluding the RPF category. We use *DeBERTa-large-v3* [\(He et al.,](#page-8-13) [2021\)](#page-8-13) as our finetuning model, categorizing each piece of commonsense knowledge as either IRR or RR(RPP, RPA).

Then, we filter out all knowledge belonging to the IRR category, resulting in $Pcom^r = [com_1^r \oplus$ $\dots \oplus com_k^r$, where k denotes the number of remain knowledge. The remaining commonsense knowledge closely aligns with the context, which enhances the consistency of generated responses but may reduce their diversity. In emotional support tasks, simply aligning with the user's statements may not fully address their issues. Following the practice of [Cheng et al.](#page-8-7) [\(2023\)](#page-8-7), we introduce the current help-seeker's persona information P_s from the PESConv dataset. Personalized persona information provides rich background and contextual cues, which significantly improves the diversity of responses.

3.3 Multi-perspective Fusion Encoder

As shown in Figure [2,](#page-3-0) our model incorporates commonsense knowledge and persona information as additional inputs, alongside the context. Specifically, we use a Transformer encoder [\(Vaswani,](#page-9-10) [2017\)](#page-9-10) to obtain hidden representations for all in-

Figure 2: The figure illustrates our model's core framework, mainly consisting of the persona and commonsense understanding extractor, the multi-perspective fusion encoder, and the multi-knowledge hybrid decoder.

puts, which can be expressed:

$$
H_C = \text{Encoder}(U) \tag{1}
$$

$$
H_P = \text{Encoder}(P_s) \tag{2}
$$

$$
E_{com}^r = \text{Encoder}(P_{com}^r)
$$
 (3)

Where $H_C \in \mathbb{R}^{l_c \times d}$, $H_P \in \mathbb{R}^{l_p \times d}$ and $E_{com}^r \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{l_r \times d}$. l_c , l_p , and l_r represent the lengths of the corresponding sequences, and d signifies the hidden dimension of the contextual representation. r ∈ [*Intent*, *Want*, *Need*, *Effect*]

We concatenate E_{com}^r to obtain the final commonsense knowledge representation: E_{com}^{all} = $E_{com}^{Internet} \oplus E_{com}^{Want} \oplus E_{com}^{Need} \oplus E_{com}^{Effect}$. The hidden state corresponding to the $[CLS]$ token contains the commonsense representation:

$$
H_{com} = \text{Encoder}(E_{com}^{all})[0] \tag{4}
$$

Where $H_{com} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_{com} \times d}$, l_{com} is set to the longest commonsense knowledge length.

To further align with the user's situation, reduce weakly relevant knowledge, and enhance strongly relevant knowledge, we refine the knowledge by incorporating context. Specifically, we concatenate H_C and H_{com} at the token level and use a knowledge refinement encoder to select commonsense knowledge that is strongly relevant to the context:

$$
H_{mix} = H_{com} \oplus H_C \tag{5}
$$

$$
H_{ref} = Enc_{ref}(H_{mix})
$$
 (6)

Where $H_{ref} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_{com} \times 2d}$.

Next, we apply a *Sigmoid* function to weight the strongly relevant knowledge, followed by an MLP with ReLU activation to obtain the final representation of the strongly relevant knowledge:

$$
E_{r_com} = MLP(\sigma(H_{ref}) \odot H_{ref}) \tag{7}
$$

Where $E_{r_com} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_{com} \times d}$, σ represents *Sigmoid* function.

To fully utilize the background information and contextual cues from the persona information, we align the persona information with the context using bidirectional cross-attention:

$$
Z_P = Softmax(H_C \cdot H_P) \cdot H_P \tag{8}
$$

$$
Z_C = Softmax(H_C \cdot H_P) \cdot H_C \tag{9}
$$

$$
\tilde{H}_P = LayerNorm(Z_P + H_C) \tag{10}
$$

$$
\tilde{H}_C^p = LayerNorm(Z_C + H_P) \tag{11}
$$

Similarly, to align commonsense knowledge with context, we perform a similar operation to obtain the context-related commonsense representation and commonsense context: \tilde{H}_{com} and \tilde{H}_{C}^{com} . Finally, we apply a weighted strategy to fuse and balance the features, resulting in a composite hidden state representation:

$$
H_{final} = \lambda_1 \cdot H_C + \lambda_2 \cdot \tilde{H}_P + \lambda_3 \cdot \tilde{H}_C^p
$$

+ $\lambda_4 \cdot \tilde{H}_{com} + \lambda_5 \cdot \tilde{H}_C^{com}$ (12)

$$
\lambda_i = \frac{e^{w_i}}{\sum_j e^{w_j}}\tag{13}
$$

Where $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, and w is a trainable parameter, initialized to the same value for each feature.

3.4 Multi-knowledge Hybrid Decoder

For the target response $Y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{lt}]$, the generation of the t token y_t yields its hidden representation in the decoder:

$$
P(y_t|y_{<};C) = Decoder(E_{y
$$

We use the negative log-likelihood to optimize our model:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{nll} = -\sum_{t=1}^{T} \log P(y_t | C, y_{<}; t), \quad (15)
$$

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets

We validate our approach using the ESConv dataset, a high-quality resource that captures interactions between help-seekers and supporters. The dataset includes 1,300 conversations, 8 dialogue strategies, and an average of 29.8 turns per conversation, offering more interactions than typical empathetic datasets and is widely used in state-of-the-art methods [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-8) [2022;](#page-9-8) [Tu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022;](#page-9-2) [Cheng et al.,](#page-8-7) [2023;](#page-8-7) [Zhao et al.,](#page-9-7) [2023;](#page-9-7) [Deng et al.,](#page-8-14) [2023\)](#page-8-14). Following [Liu et al.](#page-8-5) [\(2021\)](#page-8-5), the dataset is divided into 80% for training, 10% for validation, and 10% for testing.

4.2 Baselines

We compare our proposed model against several competitive baselines, including BlenderBot-Joint [\(Liu et al.,](#page-8-5) [2021\)](#page-8-5), GLHG [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-8) [2022\)](#page-9-8), MISC [\(Tu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022\)](#page-9-2), KEMI [\(Deng et al.,](#page-8-14) [2023\)](#page-8-14), Trans-ESC [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-9-7) [2023\)](#page-9-7), and PAL[\(Cheng et al.,](#page-8-7) [2023\)](#page-8-7).

4.3 Training Details

To ensure a fair comparison, we employ the same pre-trained model as [Cheng et al.](#page-8-7) [\(2023\)](#page-8-7), Blenderbot-small [\(Roller,](#page-9-6) [2020\)](#page-9-6). The encoder's input length is set to 512 tokens, while the decoder's maximum input length is set to 50 tokens. Model training is conducted on a single NVIDIA 3090Ti GPU, with an initial learning rate of 1.5e-5. Both the training and validation batch sizes are set at 16. The optimization process utilizes the Adam optimizer with parameters $\beta_1 = 0.9$ and $\beta_2 = 0.999$. The model is trained for a maximum of 10 epochs, with optimal performance observed at 4 epochs. The training Settings for our commonsense knowledge filter are essentially the same as above, except that the learning rate is set to 2e-7.

4.4 Automatic Evaluation

We use the following automatic metrics to evaluate the performance of our model: strategy prediction accuracy (ACC), perplexity (PPL), BLEU-n (Bn), Distinct-n (D-n), and ROUGE-L (R-L). ACC measures the accuracy of predicting the corresponding strategy for each response, one of ESConv's eight strategies. Perplexity assesses the model's confidence in its generated responses. Higher BLEU and ROUGE scores indicate more accurate responses, while Distinct-n metrics evaluate the

diversity of the responses by calculating the proportion of unique n-grams.

As shown in Table [2,](#page-5-0) our approach significantly outperforms the strongest baseline in strategy prediction accuracy (ACC), achieving a rate of 35.51%. Our approach also yields higher BLEU-n (B-n) scores across all BLEU metrics, indicating a strong alignment between generated and reference responses. In terms of response diversity (D-n), our approach demonstrates excellent performance, surpassing all models except PAL, and notably outperforming COMET-based methods like KEMI and MISC. This highlights the effectiveness of our commonsense knowledge filter. Additionally, our approach achieves a ROUGE-L (R-L) score of 18.87, further showcasing the effectiveness of our generated responses.

Compared with approaches that also utilize commonsense knowledge extracted through Comet (e.g., MISC, GLHG, KEMI), our method achieves the lowest Perplexity (PPL) and highest strategy prediction accuracy (ACC) by employing explicit knowledge filtering. Unlike other methods that rely on implicit knowledge filtering through parameter adjustment, our approach explicitly filters out irrelevant knowledge and consistently performs better across multiple metrics in terms of both coherence and diversity. Additionally, compared to the PAL method, which incorporates persona information, our approach achieves lower perplexity (PPL) and better response consistency. However, we observe a slight decrease in response diversity (D-n) compared to PAL. This reduction in diversity may result from the introduction of commonsense knowledge that is strongly relevant to the context, which diminishes the weight of persona information. This balance between context-specific accuracy and response diversity underscores the trade-off observed in our approach's performance.

4.5 Ablation Study

To investigate the impact of each component of our method on the quality of generated responses, we conducted ablation experiments on the commonsense knowledge extractor(w/o COMET), the persona information(w/o Persona), and commonsense knowledge filter(w/o $filter_{CET}$). All experimental results are presented in the table [2.](#page-5-0)

First, we remove the entire COMET module (w/o COMET). The results show a decrease in strategy prediction accuracy (ACC) from 35.51% to 33.40% and a drop in BLEU scores (B-2, B-3),

Models		ACC \uparrow PPL \downarrow B-1 \uparrow B-2 \uparrow B-3 \uparrow B-4 \uparrow D-1 \uparrow D-2 \uparrow R-L \uparrow							
BlenderBot-Joint	17.69	17.39	18.78	7.02	3.20	1.63	2.96	17.87	14.92
GLHG		15.67	19.66	7.57	3.74	2.13	3.50	21.61	16.37
MISC	31.67	16.27	16.31	7.31	3.26	2.20	4.62	20.17	17.51
KEMI		15.92	$\overline{}$	8.31	\sim	2.51			17.05
TransESC	34.71	15.82	17.92	7.64	4.01	2.43	4.73	20.48	17.51
PAL.	34.51	15.92	$\overline{}$	8.75	\blacksquare	2.66	5.00	30.27	18.06
Ours	35.51	14.88	21.38	9.27	4.93	2.92	4.88	25.95	18.87
w/o COMET	33.40	14.99	22.02	8.65	4.35	2.54	4.93	26.90	17.82
w/o Persona	33.50	14.37	21.8	9.31	4.94	2.94	3.70	19.29	18.37
w/o $filter_{CET}$	33.64	15.10	19.50	8.21	4.21	2.48	4.71	26.30	18.38

Table 2: Results of automatic evaluation. The best results among all models are highlighted in bold.

indicating that the lack of commonsense knowledge makes it difficult for the model to accurately understand and predict user intentions. Additionally, the Distinct metric slightly increases, suggesting that response diversity increases but relevance decreases. Secondly, by removing persona information (w/o Persona), the Distinct metric (D-1, D-2) significantly decreases, showing that persona information significantly enhances response diversity. Removing persona information results in more generic responses. Lastly, we remove the commonsense knowledge filter module ($filter_{CET}$) to assess its importance. The results indicate an increase in Perplexity (PPL) to 15.10 and a comprehensive decline in BLEU scores, demonstrating that irrelevant commonsense knowledge was secretly interfering with the consistency of responses. Additionally, a slight rise in the D-2 metric suggests that the absence of filtering increases response diversity but generates more irrelevant content. The COMET, Persona, and $filter_{CET}$ modules play crucial roles in enhancing model performance.

We also examine the impact of various knowledge category combinations in the filter on strategy prediction. The results are shown in Figure [3.](#page-5-1) Classifiers trained solely on RPA and IRR categories show the lowest performance in strategy prediction. This poor performance likely stems from the misclassification of some RPP knowledge as IRR. The absence of certain RPP knowledge leads to the model missing crucial historical cues at key decision points, making accurate judgment more challenging. On the other hand, the combination of RPP, RPA, and IRR delivers the best performance, illustrating the significant benefits of integrating historical cues and current situ-

Figure 3: The impact of various knowledge category combinations in the filter on strategy prediction.

ational insights for effective decision-making and dialogue advancement. The performance metrics of the RPA+RPF+IRR and RPP+RPA+RPF+IRR combinations indicate that introducing RPF often leads to uncontrollable strategy prediction accuracy. This occurs because our task constraints prevent the model from accessing future context, making it difficult to evaluate the relevance of RPF knowledge. This will lead to RPF frequently introducing noise during strategic decision-making, hindering accurate judgments.

4.6 Human Evaluation

Building on the work of [\(Liu et al.,](#page-8-5) [2021;](#page-8-5) [Cheng](#page-8-7) [et al.,](#page-8-7) [2023\)](#page-8-7), we further conduct human evaluation by recruiting crowd workers to interact with the models. Specifically, we randomly select 100 pairs of dialogues from the test set for human evalua-

Ours vs.	Blenderbot-Joint			MISC			PAL		
	Win	Lose	Draw	Win	Lose	Draw	Win	Lose	Draw
Coherence	70	25	5	57	30	13	45	38	17
Identification	55	28	17	46	42	12	44	30	26
Comforting	55	28	17	62	20	18	47	30	23
Suggestion	54	32	14	50	30	20	46	32	22
Information	56	30	14	62	22.	16	43	30	27
Overall	60	28	12	57	28	15	55	22	23

Table 3: The results of the human interaction evaluation (%). Our model performs better than all other models.

tion. We provide the workers with specific scenarios in which they assume the role of seekers. Each worker engages with two distinct models and evaluates them based on multiple criteria: (1) Coherence: The degree to which the responses are logically connected and internally consistent within the conversation; (2) Identification: The model's ability to accurately recognize and reflect the user's emotional state and context; (3) Comforting: The effectiveness of the model's responses in providing emotional support and alleviating distress; (4) Suggestion: The relevance and applicability of the advice provided by the model; (5) Information: The depth and utility of the information provided in the responses, enhancing the value of the conversation; (6) Overall Preference: The workers' general preference for one model over another, considering all aspects of the interaction. This comprehensive evaluation allowed us to assess the performance of our models across several dimensions crucial for effective interaction in a supportive conversational setting. This methodology ensures a thorough understanding of how well each model meets the needs of users in realistic scenarios.

The human evaluation results in Table [3](#page-6-0) show that our model outperforms the baselines (Blenderbot-Joint, MISC, and PAL) in several key areas of support. Compared to the baseline model Blenderbot-Joint, our model achieves a significant lead in human evaluations. For Coherence (70% against Blenderbot-Joint), our model demonstrates the ability to maintain logical consistency in conversations using external knowledge.

When compared to MISC, which also uses COMET knowledge, and PAL, which incorporates persona information, our model shows better performance across multiple dimensions. For Identification, our model achieves higher scores than MISC (46% against MISC) and PAL (44% against PAL), indicating its superiority in understanding and responding to user intentions. Additionally,

in terms of Comforting (62% against MISC, 47% against PAL) and Suggestion (50% against MISC, 46% against PAL), our model also shows strong results. Notably, for the dimension of Information, our model achieves significant gains over both MISC and PAL (62% against MISC, 43% against PAL), demonstrating its capability to generate content with depth and practical value.

4.7 Case Study

We analyze two case studies to compare the responses generated by our model and the baseline model, PAL, as shown in Table [4.](#page-7-0) This comparison highlights that our method is more context-aware and human-like under the same strategy.

In the first case, the help-seeker feels nervous about accepting a project from a friend and is uncertain about how it will go. Both models identify the need for *affirmation and reassurance*. PAL's response provides empathy by sharing a similar personal experience, saying, "*I've had a project where I was nervous about accepting it.*" While this shows understanding, it focuses more on the responder's perspective. Our model, however, balances empathy with practical advice by acknowledging the seeker's concern ("*I can understand how that can be a challenge*") and offering a constructive suggestion ("*Do you have a good friend you can trust more?*"). This approach aligns better with the ground-truth response, which acknowledges the complexity of the situation. In the second case, the help-seeker expresses feelings of loneliness during the holiday season due to a lack of communication with family. Both models attempt to provide suggestions. PAL recommends a direct action, "*Maybe you could try calling them and see what they say?*" This is a practical suggestion but lacks emotional engagement. In contrast, our model begins with empathy ("*I understand. I am struggling with the lack of communication too.*") and then offers a similar suggestion ("*Maybe you could call your child?*").

Table 4: Responses from our approach and others. Due to space constraints, we have omitted some sentences.

This combination of empathy and actionable advice is more in line with human preferences, and it balances understanding with practical guidance.

These cases show that our model provides more nuanced and emotionally attuned responses, effectively combining empathy with actionable suggestions and better addressing the help-seeker's needs compared to the PAL baseline.

5 Conclusion

In this work, we proposed a novel framework for enhancing emotional support conversations by incorporating filtered commonsense knowledge and user persona information. Our method dynamically extracts and integrates relevant cognitive aspects and persona features to generate high-quality responses tailored to the user's emotional state and

context. Extensive experiments demonstrated that our approach outperformed existing baselines in both automatic and human evaluations.

Limitations

Our commonsense filter is trained on a subset of the ComFact dataset, focusing specifically on four knowledge categories from COMET: [Intent, Want, Need, Effect]. As a result, the filter's effectiveness in classifying commonsense knowledge outside these predefined categories remains unclear. Additionally, as noted in the ablation studies, the commonsense filter may incorrectly classify relevant knowledge as irrelevant, which could affect the quality of the generated responses. Although training aims to minimize these errors, the filter's performance in large-scale real-world applications needs further validation.

Moreover, the model's reliance on predefined knowledge categories may limit its adaptability to diverse conversational contexts, potentially overlooking other critical knowledge types not covered by COMET. The error rates in classifying relevant knowledge into irrelevant categories also highlight a need for more robust filtering mechanisms. Future work should explore expanding the range of knowledge categories, refining the filtering process, and testing the model across various domains and scenarios to enhance its adaptability and robustness.

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