# An Efficient Dialogue Policy Agent with Model-Based Causal Reinforcement Learning

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## Abstract

Dialogue policy trains an agent to select dialogue actions frequently implemented via deep reinforcement learning (DRL). The modelbased reinforcement methods built a world model to generate simulated data to alleviate the sample inefficiency. However, traditional world model methods merely consider onestep dialogues, leading to an inaccurate environmental simulation. Furthermore, different users may have different intention preferences, while most existing studies lack consideration of the intention-preferences causal relationship. This paper proposes a novel framework for dialogue policy learning named MCA, implemented through model-based reinforcement learning with automatically constructed causal chains. The MCA model utilizes an autoregressive Transformer to model dialogue trajectories, enabling a more accurate simulation of the environment. Additionally, it constructs a causal chains module that outputs latent preference distributions for intention-action pairs, thereby elucidating the relationship between user intentions and agent actions. The experimental results show that MCA can achieve state-of-the-art performances on three dialogue datasets over the compared dialogue agents, highlighting its effectiveness and robustness.

## 1 Introduction

Dialogue policy plays a crucial role in task-oriented dialog systems with a pipeline approach, as it determines the next agent action and drives the dialog generation [\(Kwan et al.,](#page-9-0) [2023;](#page-9-0) [Zhao et al.,](#page-10-0) [2024\)](#page-10-0). In recent years, the construction of dialogue policy agent has been regarded as a sequential decision-making problem and optimized via deep reinforcement learning (DRL). The optimization process can be summarized: Interaction– Samples–Deep Learning–Action, i.e., the *interaction* between agent and user to generate *samples* and employ *deep learning* to train the samples for

predicting the next agent *action*. The traditional dialogue policy methods include model-free and model-based methods, the deep Q-network (DQN) based methods [\(Tian et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022;](#page-10-1) [Zhao et al.,](#page-10-2) [2021a;](#page-10-2) [Zhang et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3), the actor-critic(AC) based methods [\(Malviya et al.,](#page-9-1) [2022;](#page-9-1) [Peng et al.,](#page-9-2) [2018a;](#page-9-2) [Chen et al.,](#page-9-3) [2020\)](#page-9-3) are the model-free methods. However, these methods lack modeling of the environment and don't have the ability of perception, making the dialogue agent inadequately anthropomorphic. Recently, as task-oriented dialogue systems have become more popular and powerful, building a human-like dialogue agent with efficient perception and causal reasoning is a promising research direction.

Compared to the model-free methods, the modelbased methods build a world model to facilitate dialogue agents' decisions by simulating human perception [\(Matsuo et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022\)](#page-9-4). In the dialog policy, the world models help the dialogue agent more efficiently by generating simulated data with learning in imagination, such as DDQ [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b\)](#page-9-5), Budget DDQ [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-10-4) [2020\)](#page-10-4), and DPPO [\(Huang and Cao,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6). However, these approaches rely on large amounts of real user-agent interaction data and only consider one-step dialogue transition, ignoring multi-step perception like humans. Research has shown that modeling multi-step state transition has more accurate perceptual capabilities [\(Benechehab et al.,](#page-9-7) [2023;](#page-9-7) [Micheli](#page-9-8) [et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8). Therefore, designing a new world model that can handle complex sequenced interaction data with fewer samples is a more feasible endeavor similar to human perception.

Furthermore, existing research on dialogue policy also lacks interpretability, establishing stateaction mapping relationships through deep neural networks, that hard to uncover the internal relationship between user intentions and actions. Indeed, human beings not only have the ability to perceive the outside environment but infer some

latent result based on past interactions, i.e., we can generalize some fundamental causal relationships based on past information to better facilitate future decision-making [\(Griffiths et al.,](#page-9-9) [2010\)](#page-9-9). The causality strategy from psychological research [\(Sloman,](#page-10-5) [2005\)](#page-10-5) can be aware of the causal mechanisms of underlying actions and improve the interpretability [\(Gao et al.,](#page-9-10) [2024\)](#page-9-10). However, existing dialogue policy methods are not equipped with causal chains. Although some causal reinforcement learning algorithms consider the static prior knowledge [\(Goyal and Bengio,](#page-9-11) [2022;](#page-9-11) [Pouncy and Gersh](#page-9-12)[man,](#page-9-12) [2022\)](#page-9-12), which did not improve their reasoning ability during interactions without adaptation. To dynamically acquire user causal chains to explain agents' decisions, we collect success trajectories in interactive dialogues between the agent and the user, constructing causal chains that present potential changes between the user's intentions and the agent's actions. To the best of our knowledge, the proposed model is the first method applying causal chains to learn dialogue policies without requiring any expert experience.

This paper proposes a dialogue policy learning framework with model-based reinforcement learning and causal chains. It implements the perception and reasoning for anthropomorphic dialogue agents. Concretely, we first employ the autoregressive Transformer [\(Vaswani et al.,](#page-10-6) [2017;](#page-10-6) [Micheli](#page-9-8) [et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8) to build a world model that simulates dialogue trajectories. The constructed world model dynamically learns a sequence modeling problem rather than one-step transitions, making us accurately simulate the dialogue environment. Secondly, we build causal chains via user intentions to form the latent preference distribution and then distill the latent distribution into the policy learning model. Our main contributions are:

- We proposed a sample-efficient dialogue policy learning method that simulates human perception and reasoning, integrating world models and causal chains to facilitate policy learning and enhance interpretability.
- We build an autoregressive Transformer-based world model, which learns dialogue trajectories rather than one-step transition, constructs a causal graph between user intentions and actions during interaction, generates a latent intention-action distribution, and distills the distribution into policy learning.

• We compare plentiful algorithms on three dialogue datasets, and experimental results demonstrate our method has effectiveness, high performance, and robustness.

## 2 Background and related work

## 2.1 Dialogue policy

Dialogue policy is one of the core components of pipeline approach dialogue systems, often modeled through deep reinforcement learning (DRL). Dialogue policy learns policy parameters (or Q-value) according to the dialogue state, then selects an action to push natural language generation [\(Kwan](#page-9-0) [et al.,](#page-9-0) [2023\)](#page-9-0). The DRL-based dialogue policy collects data during the interaction and predicts dialogue action by learning the collected data. It consists of five tuples,  $\langle S, A, P, R, \gamma \rangle$ , where  $S$  is the dialogue state space,  $A$  is the dialogue action space,  $P$  is the state transition function of the environment, and  $R$  is the reward function. At the moment  $t$ , the dialogue agent receives the state  $s_t$ , obtains the reward  $r_t$  by taking action  $a_t$ , and then the environment transfers to the next state  $s_{t+1}$ . The optimization objective of the dialogue policy is to maximize the overall cumulative reward.

$$
\pi^* = argmax_{\pi} \mathbb{E}(\sum_{t=0}^{T} \gamma^t r_t)
$$
 (1)

where  $\pi^*$  is the optimal policy, T is the maximum dialogue turns, and  $\gamma$  is the discount factor used to force the dialogue agent to focus on the shot term reward.

#### 2.2 World Model

The world model is used to perceive the outside environment Currently, the dialogue policies favor learning in imagination to train dialogue agents, aiming to mitigate sample inefficiencies. Dialogue agents have real experiences and simulated experiences. The real experiences come from the real environment, and simulated experiences come from the world model. The world model simulates the dynamics of the environment, including state transfer  $P_w(s'|s, a)$  and dialogue rewards  $R_w(r|s, a)$ .

$$
s' \sim P_w(s'|s, a), \quad r = R_w(r|s, a) \tag{2}
$$

The DDQ [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b\)](#page-9-5) model is the first study to train a dialogue agent via an imaginary world model. It provides a theoretical foundation for subsequent studies on dialogue policy learning. For example, [\(Wu et al.,](#page-10-7) [2019\)](#page-10-7) introduces a switcher to improve DDQ by automatically balancing the usage of simulated experiences and real experiences. Budgeted policy learning [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-10-4) [2020\)](#page-10-4) leverages active learning and human teaching to guide DDQ in generating more highly effective dialogue experiences. DR-D3Q [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020\)](#page-10-8) designs a dynamic reward function based on the user's valid subgoals via the DDQ and replaces the deep Q-network with the Dueling network. Similar to the work of [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020\)](#page-10-8), [\(Huang and Cao,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6) integrate the proximal policy optimization (PPO) algorithm with a DDQ-based world model, proposed DPPO. However, Both [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020\)](#page-10-8) and [\(Huang and Cao,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6) do not modify the world model module of DDQ, merely replacing the deep Q-network module in DDQ with different deep reinforcement learning algorithms.

Moreover, the above methods of world modelbased dialogue policies only consider one-step transitions. The world model module inputs the current dialogue state and the last agent action and outputs the predicted next user action, reward, and termination signal. The interaction between the agent and user usually involves multiple turns. If the world model can model the whole sequential data, it can make sufficient use of the interaction information and enhance its perceptual ability. Meanwhile, the Transformer has a particular advantage when operating sequential discrete tokens. The Transformerbased modal world model has achieved advanced results in the game tasks [\(Micheli et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8).

## 2.3 Causality in Reinforcement Learning

Causality draws some inferences based on existing information, which is combined with reinforcement learning to construct causal reinforcement learning [\(Wang et al.,](#page-10-9) [2021\)](#page-10-9). Causal reinforcement learning can improve generalization and interpretability. In recent years, there has been a prevalence that integrates causal inference with reinforcement learning. [\(Ramachandran et al.,](#page-10-10) [2022\)](#page-10-10) proposed a causal aware safe policy improvement method, which learns causal reward with the human demonstrator. However, the collection of expert demonstration data is time-consuming and laborious. [\(Wen et al.,](#page-10-11) [2024\)](#page-10-11) proposed a diversity-aware causal mode, where they modeled user's feedback through causal inference, combined with offline reinforcement learning, for promoting diversity in interactive recommendations. They lack dynamically expanding causal graphs and are harder to apply to variable scenarios. In addition, some studies

integrate causal inference and model-based reinforcement learning [\(Mutti et al.,](#page-9-13) [2023;](#page-9-13) [Wang et al.,](#page-10-12) [2022;](#page-10-12) [Yu et al.,](#page-10-13) [2023\)](#page-10-13). Based on these studies, the combination of causal reasoning and world modeling can help improve performance.

Our proposed MCA has an independent causal inference module from the world model, where the inference information is the user's intention rather than the complete state, which reduces the size of causal graphs. Furthermore, we continuously optimize the causal information throughout the reinforcement learning interaction without expert experiences. To the best of our knowledge, the proposed MCA model is the first dialogue policy learning framework that mimics human perceptual and causality behaviors. It endows the dialogue agent with adaptive perceptual and memory capabilities, aiming to make the dialogue agent more human-like.

## 3 Method

### 3.1 Architecture Overview

We adopt the autoregressive Transformer to build the world model, and the knowledge of causal chains is infused into the direct reinforcement learning for our proposed dialogue policy method. The world model is endowed with the ability to perceive the outside world, while the causal chains are generated via identical user intentions to obtain the latent action distribution. The output layer of the direct deep reinforcement learning module is refashioned for distilling the latent action distribution. The primary motivation of this work is to enhance the sample efficiency by drawing inspiration from human perception (world model) and ratiocination (causal chains). A pictorial description of our framework is presented in Figure [1.](#page-3-0) It consists of three main modules:

(a) Transformer-based world model: It receives the real squeezed interaction memory and outputs the predicted following user action, current reward, and termination flag. It is based on supervised learning to perceive the outside environment and generate simulated data  $D^s$ . The Transformerbased world model has two advantages. (i) We model the entire dialogue sequence without a single step of transfer, which allows us to construct a more accurate world model. (ii) We model the world using only successful interaction trajectories without expert demonstrations.

(b) Direct reinforcement learning: It is imple-

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

Figure 1: The proposed MCA framework. It contains three modules, (a) Transformer-based world model, (b) Direct reinforcement learning for dialogue interaction, (c) Causal reasoning module.

mented via actor-critic based reinforcement learning. This module is trained with previous interaction memory and the simulated data, distilling the valuable knowledge from the causal reasoning module. The Actor network Q-value distribution will combine with the causal action distribution.

(c) Causal reasoning module: It analyzes the user-agent interaction information to obtain successful agent actions with different user intentions, then generates the causal chains to provide knowledge for direct reinforcement learning. It can gradually learn the user's intent preferences, which helps to provide a more personalized response.

The three modules interact with each other to iteratively facilitate efficient dialogue policy learning.

#### 3.2 Transformer-based World model

In dialogue policy learning, the current dialogue state  $s_t$  consists of the user intention  $s_t^u$ , the last agent response  $s_{t-1}^a$ , dialogue history  $s_t^h$ , and database query results  $s_t^d$ . This combination is more common in recent studies [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b;](#page-9-5) [Zhao et al.,](#page-10-14) [2021b;](#page-10-14) [Rohmatillah and Chien,](#page-10-15) [2023\)](#page-10-15).  $s_t = [s_t^u, s_{t-1}^a, s_t^h, s_t^d]$ , where [] represents the connection operation. The user intention  $s_t^u$  includes user action  $a_t^u$ , user information slot  $u_t^{inf}$  $t^{inf}$ , and user request slot  $u_t^{req}$  $\mathbf{r}^{req}_t, s^u_t = [a^u_t, u^{inf}_t]$  $_{t}^{inf}, u_{t}^{req}$  $_t^{req}$ ]. t is the number of current dialogue turns.

Existing world model methods [\(Peng et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b;](#page-9-5) [Zhao et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020;](#page-10-8) [Zhang et al.,](#page-10-4) [2020\)](#page-10-4) simulate one-step dialogue transfer, lacking consideration of the holistic dialogue interaction. In the real

world, the dialog agent usually has to engage in multi-turn conversations with a user to complete a specific task. The users' utterances are drawn into the user's intentions, and dialogue policies select a dialog action to respond to user utterances. This process involves a sequence of user intentions with agent actions. Thus, we use an autoregressive Transformer to model the world model for simulating the sequential interaction data (as shown in Figure [1.](#page-3-0)a). The discrete user intentions and agent actions are regarded as the tokens to input the autoregressive Transformer. The input sequence is:

$$
H_i^t = (s_0^u, a_0, s_1^u, a_1, ..., s_t^u, a_t)
$$
 (3)

which come from the dialogue history  $s_t^h$ . The autoregressive Transformer-based world model according to the  $H_i^t$  predicts the next user action  $\hat{a}_{t+1}^u$ , the current termination flag  $\hat{d}_t$ , and the current reward  $\hat{r}_t$ . The  $\hat{a}_t^u$ ,  $\hat{d}_t$ , and  $\hat{r}_t$  can be obtained as follows:

$$
Transition: \hat{a}_{t+1}^u \leftarrow T(\hat{a}_{t+1}^u \mid s_{\leq t}^u, a_{\leq t} \mid H_i^t)
$$
\n
$$
Termination: \hat{d}_t \leftarrow T(\hat{a}_{t+1}^u \mid s_{\leq t}^u, a_{\leq t} \mid H_i^t)
$$
\n
$$
(\mathbf{5})
$$
\n
$$
Reward: \hat{r}_t \leftarrow T(\hat{a}_{t+1}^u \mid s_{\leq t}^u, a_{\leq t} \mid H_i^t)
$$
\n
$$
(6)
$$

where  $T$  is the autoregressive Transformer model,  $s_{\leq t}^u = \{s_0^u, ..., s_t^u\}, a_{\leq t} = \{a_0, ..., a_t\}.$  Each  $s_i^u$ corresponds to a user action  $a_i^u$ , and each pair of  $(s_i^u, a_i)$  corresponds to a reward  $r_i$  and termination  $d_i$ . We train T with planning time steps via successful interaction experiences. The cross-entropy

loss is employed for  $\hat{a}_t^u$  and  $\hat{d}_t$ , and a mean-squared error loss for reward  $\hat{r}_t$ .

The proposed autoregressive Transformer-based world model is empowered to generate simulated experience  $D^s$  with planning  $G$ . In more detail, Algorithm [1](#page-11-0) (See appendix A) summarizes the proposed world model.

#### 3.3 Causal reasonging Module

The causal reasoning module infers user intention preferences from the interacted data, which considers user preferences and task completion. Figure 1(c) illustrates causal inference information that contains a causal graph G. Traditional online reinforcement learning can be regarded as the causality mapping the relationship from state to action [\(Schulte and Poupart,](#page-10-16) [2024\)](#page-10-16). In Figure 1(c), we use s to denote the dialogue state, a denotes the action of the dialogue, and  $r$  denotes the immediate reward signal. However, this mapping lacks consideration of the causal relationship between user intent and action. We extend it by adding  $s^u$  and  $M$  nodes, where  $s^u$  is the user's intention and  $M$ denotes the causal effect of user intention  $s^u$  under dialogue action a.

We consider three factors to estimate the causal effect M. Including the number of intention's actions, the action distribution of current intention, and the action distribution of similar intentions. The number J of user-intention actions reflects the optional action. We use factor  $C_i$  to indicate,

$$
C_j = exp(-J) \tag{7}
$$

The smaller  $J$  is, the larger the factor  $C_j$  is, and the stronger the causal effect of the intention.

The action distribution of current intention reflects the user's preference probability for different actions, which is denoted by

$$
P_j^u = \frac{m_j^{s^u}}{\sum_{j=1}^{|a|} m_j^{s^u}}
$$
 (8)

where  $m_i^{s^u}$  $j_j^s$  is the number of action j correspond to the intention  $s^u$ , and |a| is the number of selectable action. The larger  $P_j^u$  is, the stronger the user's preference for the current action.

Considering that the causal graph G reflects a limited number of causal relationships between user intentions and actions, for a new user intention, we employ a similar intention to obtain the

corresponding action distribution. Hence, we construct the similarity factor for the causal effect.

$$
w_j = exp(-(\epsilon + \sum_{(s^{u_i}|s,a) \in \tau} sim(s^{u_i}, s^{u_j}))^{-1})
$$
\n(9)

where  $\tau$  is the dialog trajectories,  $\epsilon$  is a hyperparameter that prevents the numerical value from being 0.  $w_i$  denotes the weight value of similar intentions. We select the most similar intention in the setting. For a dialog interaction

$$
\tau_i = (s_0, a_0, r_0, ..., s_t, a_t, r_t, ..., s_{L-1}, a_{L-1}, r_{L-1}, f)
$$
\n(10)

where  $f = 1$  indicates a user's goals have been completed. Note that  $(s_t, a_t)$  can be attended in either successful or failed dialog interactions. Because an agent completes a user's single-turn requests does not mean it completes the entire user task. Furthermore, the user intention  $s_i^u$  is a portion of  $s_i$ . A successful agent action means that the user's intention is fulfilled. Therefore, we employ the user intention and the agent action to build the causal chains. The final causal effect is

<span id="page-4-0"></span>
$$
m_j = Softmax(\gamma_1 C_j + \gamma_2 w_j p_j^u)
$$
 (11)

The  $Softmax$  function is employed to map the user's preference information within [0, 1].  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are hyperparameters. In this paper, we set them to 1.

From the above analysis, we finally output a prior distribution  $p(s^u | s, a_j) \sim m_j$  as the biased knowledge bias, then the distribution  $p(s^u|s)$  for current user intention is used to improve policy learning. Moreover, the  $p(s^u|s)$  is dynamically shifting during the dialogue interactions. The denser the number of successful dialogs ( $f = 1$ ), the stronger the agent latent action distribution.

#### 3.4 Dialogue Policy Learning

The simulation experience  $D<sup>s</sup>$  obtained from the world model is directly used to improve dialogue policy learning. The distribution  $p(s_i^u | s_i, a_i)$  obtained from the causal reasoning module is used as a priori knowledge to facilitate the efficiency of the policy model. We employ the PPO as a direct reinforcement learning to train the dialogue agent, the Actor network as a policy model, and the Critic network as an evaluating model. The Actor network outputs action distribution  $q(a_i|s_i)$ with dialogue state  $s_t$ . The distribution  $p(s_i^u | s_i^u, a_i)$ is integrated into the Actor network. We draw inspiration from the knowledge distillation [\(Bachem](#page-9-14)

[and Geist,](#page-9-14) [2024;](#page-9-14) [He et al.,](#page-9-15) [2022\)](#page-9-15) to learn the latent distribution. Then the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence is used between the  $q(s_i, a_i)$  and  $p(s_i^u | s_i, a_i)$ . The loss function is defined as follows:

<span id="page-5-0"></span>
$$
L(\theta) = L_{PPO}(\theta) + \alpha H(log_{\pi_{\theta}} a) + \beta KL(\mathbf{q}|\mathbf{p})
$$
\n(12)

where  $L_{PPO}(\theta)$  is the PPO loss,  $H(log_{\pi_{\theta}} a)$  is the entropy regularization,  $KL(q|p)$  is the distill the ratiocination causal action distribution,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is the hyper-parameters, *q* and *p* are the Actor network action distribution and the ratiocination causal action distribution, respectively. We use the reverse KL because it has stronger policy improvement guarantees [\(Chan et al.,](#page-9-16) [2022;](#page-9-16) [Bachem and Geist,](#page-9-14) [2024\)](#page-9-14). Algorithm [2](#page-11-1) (see appendix A) summarizes the whole procedure of the proposed MCA framework. Note that our method can be implemented using different reinforcement learning algorithms. For example, value-based reinforcement learning methods, such as DQN, Dueling DQN. When using a value-based reinforcement learning algorithm, its current network structure needs to be modified to enable it to output the latent agent action distribution, and the simulated data are directly incorporated into the interaction experiences.

## 4 Experiment

#### 4.1 Datasets and Baseline models

We implement experiments on three task-oriented dialogue datasets: movie-ticket booking, taxi booking, and automatic diagnosis. The movie and taxi domain datasets are provided by the Microsoft Dialogue Challenge [\(Budzianowski et al.,](#page-9-17) [2018\)](#page-9-17), and the diagnosis domain dataset comes from [\(Liu et al.,](#page-9-18) [2018\)](#page-9-18). These datasets have been commonly used in dialogue policy learning [\(Xu et al.,](#page-10-17) [2024;](#page-10-17) [Huang](#page-9-6) [and Cao,](#page-9-6) [2023;](#page-9-6) [Qiu et al.,](#page-10-18) [2023;](#page-10-18) [Zhao et al.,](#page-10-0) [2024\)](#page-10-0). The movie ticket booking task includes 128 user goals and 2890 dialogs. The taxi calling task includes 3094 dialogs with 158 user goals for experiments. The automatic diagnosis dataset is collected from the pediatric department in a Chinese online healthcare community, which includes 67 symptoms and more than 700 user goals. We compare our proposed MCA framework with some baselines:

• **DQN** has successfully learned policies from high-dimensional state inputs. Most of the dialogue policy learning methods are implemented based on DQN. Such as DDQ [\(Peng](#page-9-5)

[et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b\)](#page-9-5) and DPPO [\(Huang and Cao,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6), etc.

- Dueling modifies the structure of DQN to alleviate the over-optimization of q-values. It decomposes a single stream of fully connected layers into the Q-value and the advantage value function.
- DRQN modifies the portion of deep learning in DQN, replacing MLP with the LSTM network, which achieved advanced results in dialogue policy learning [\(Wang et al.,](#page-10-19) [2016\)](#page-10-19).
- MAXMIN [\(Lan et al.,](#page-9-19) [2020\)](#page-9-19) employs multiple DQNs and selects the minimum Q-value among the maximum Q-value of DQNs to alleviate the overestimation bias of Q-learning.
- DPAV utilizes a weight between the maximum q-value and the minimum q-value to estimate the ground truth q-value. The weight can be obtained via the heuristics algorithm [\(Tian et al.,](#page-10-1) [2022\)](#page-10-1).
- **DDQ** is the first study to apply a world for modeling dialogue policy learning. Its world model only considers one-step transfer [\(Peng](#page-9-5) [et al.,](#page-9-5) [2018b\)](#page-9-5).
- **DR-D3O** integrates an adaptive reward to the loss function and replaces the reinforcement learning portion of DDQ with the Dueling network [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020\)](#page-10-8).
- LKTD quantifies the uncertainty in the environmental dynamics through Kalman Temporal-Difference and can supervise the uncertainty during policy updating, enhancing the robustness of policy learning [\(Shih and](#page-10-20) [Faming Liang,](#page-10-20) [2024\)](#page-10-20).

We use dialogue success rate (*suc.*) and average reward (*rew.*) to evaluate the experimental performances. The *suc.* indicates the completion of tasks within the maximum number of turns. The *rew.* is the average of the cumulative rewards by the reinforcement learning agent for completing dialogues. These metrics are frequently employed to evaluate the dialog policy learning [\(Lu et al.,](#page-9-20) [2023;](#page-9-20) [Zhao](#page-10-0) [et al.,](#page-10-0) [2024\)](#page-10-0).

To comprehensively evaluate the overall performance of each model, we added new evaluation metrics, AUS and AUR, which reflect the Area Under the Success rate curve and the Area Under Reward curve, respectively. These two metrics are used because they can cover both efficiency and performance. The higher the learning efficiency of the model, the faster the curve rises and the larger the area is, and the higher the performance of a model, the higher the curve peaks and the larger the area is. The AUS is calculated using the trapezoidal rule and is normalized.  $AUS = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} (suc_{k+1} - suc_{i})}{2K(MAX - MIN)}$  $\frac{\sum_{k=1} (Sac._{k+1} - suc._{i})}{2K(MAX_{suc.} - MIN_{suc.})}$ , where  $MAX_{suc.}$ is the maximum, and  $MIN<sub>succ</sub>$  is the minimum of dialogue success rate.  $k$  is the number of iterations. The AUR is calculated in the same way as AUS. Implementation details are described in Appendix B.

#### 4.2 Evaluation Results

In this section, we display the performance of the proposed MCA with baseline algorithms. Fig[.2](#page-7-0) presents the experimental results. In the movie domain, the proposed MCA achieved the highest dialogue success rates and the largest dialogue average rewards. Moreover, the MCA has faster convergence in three dialog domains, owing to the incorporation of the causal reasoning module and the autoregressive Transformer-based world model. In Fig.2(a), the DDQ model has a sub-optimal learning efficiency only than MCA, attributed to the available world model. The MAXMIN has a relatively good dialog success rate at the 400th epoch, but the training speed is relatively inferior. The main reason is that MAXMIN introduces multiple agents that do not balance the Q-values well in the early stages of training. The LKTD has a relatively fast training speed during the early epoch stages. But after the 150th epoch, its results begin to fluctuate. DPAV and Dueling agents have similar dialogue success in the 400th epoch, but DPAV has a slight performance advantage over Dueling.

In the dialogue average reward for the movie domain, MCA has the highest average reward, and DDQ has the second-best results. The DDQ model shows a decrease in average dialogue rewards in the later stages of its training. Owing to the poorer simulated experience hinders the learning performance of the dialogue agent. DRQN has the worst average dialog reward because the LSTM-based state encoding does not outperform the state encoding of multilayer perceptron machines. The dialogue average reward falls before it rises, reflecting that the dialog agent cannot make good decisions in the early training.

In the taxi domain, MCA maintains an advanced learning rate with the highest dialog success rate and achieves better results before 100 epochs. DDQ achieves better results in the early stages of training, but the experimental results fluctuated widely in the later stages. Its performance is comparable to its performance in the movie domain. MAXMIN has the slowest convergence rate compared to the other agents, but after the 150th epoch, its dialogue success rate start to increase. The poor results in the early stages of training because the MAXMIN does not explore a better Q value. In Fig.2(d), the average dialog reward obtained by the proposed MCA is at the leading level. The advantages of the other algorithms are similar to the results of their dialog success rates. In the diagnosis domain (see Fig.2(e) and Fig.2(f)), MCA has a clear advantage in terms of dialogue success rate and dialogue average reward. The final results for DQN and DDQ are comparable, but the performance advantage of DDQ over DQN is in general. LKTD has the worst results in the diagnosis domain, showing a weaker adaptation.

The above experimental results show that the proposed MCA framework achieves advanced results in terms of dialog success rate and average dialog rewards, highlighting the performance and effectiveness of our proposed methodology. Table [6](#page-12-0) displays the detailed performance of three task-oriented dialogue domains (see Appendix C for details). Both AUS and AUR demonstrate that our proposed MCA achieves the best results in three domains. The overall performance is optimal. The experimental results demonstrate that our proposed method can balance convergence and performance.

#### 4.3 Human Evaluation

We recruited 20 volunteers to perform the human evaluation, each rated on an integer scale of 0-5. For the sake of fairness, each volunteer does not know the agent that makes, and they only evaluate whether the agent's policy actions can complete a specific task. Table [1](#page-8-0) shows the results of human evaluation. It can be seen that the proposed MCA obtains high human scores in the three different domains. The DDQ model achieves the secondbest human scores in the movie domain. The DQN receives better human scores in the taxi domain. The DR-D3Q achieves human scores that are just lower than the MCA on the diagnosis domain, and the results of the DR-D3Q are closer to the results

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

(a) Movie domain success rate



Epochs

(b) Movie domain average reward

0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 Epochs 60  $-50$  $-40$ -30  $-20$  $-10$  $\epsilon$ 10 20 Average Reward

(c) Taxi domain success rate

0.0 0.1

 $0.2$ 0.3

Success Rate

0.4 0.5

0.6

0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 Epochs

(d) Taxi domain average reward



Figure 2: The results of proposed MCA with different baselines.

of the DPAV. The human evaluation demonstrates the superiority of the MCA method. It offers a performance advantage over the second-best method.

## 4.4 Ablation study

The reinforcement learning (RL) component of our proposed method is implemented through the PPO. The Transformer-based world model and causal ratiocination are constructed as different modules

to facilitate policy learning. To assess the effectiveness of various modules, we conducted ablation experiments on each of the three domain datasets. Tables [2](#page-8-1) to [4](#page-8-2) display the experimental results. Where RL is policy learning using only the PPO algorithm, 'W' is an abbreviation to denote the Transformerbased world model, and 'C' denotes the causal reasoning module. Table [2](#page-8-1) shows the experimental results in the movie domain. The reinforcement

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

				DQN Dueling DRQN MAXMIN DPAV DDQ DR-D3Q LKTD MCA					
movie		2.65 2.30 1.90		- 1.80			3.25 3.45 3.35	3.40	3.95
taxi	2.60 1.85		1.95	2.00	2.15	2.10 2.25		1.60	2.95
diagnosis 2.30 2.25 1.75 1.70						3.25 3.05 3.30		1.65	3.85

Table 1: Experimental results via human evaluation.

learning baseline module has better suc., rew. than the RL+W module, but the metrics AUS, AUR and Overall are inferior to RL+W. This indicates that RL+W has faster convergence. RL+C has a higher suc., AUS, AUR and Overall than RL. This indicates better performance and faster convergence. The proposed method is RL+W+C, which achieves more advanced results in the movie domain and demonstrates the superior performance of the model. The results with integrated world model (+W) and causal inference modules (+C) are consistently optimal in taxi (Table [3](#page-8-3) ) and diagnosis (Table [4\)](#page-8-2) domains.

<span id="page-8-1"></span>

	movie							
	AUR Overall							
	Suc.	rew.	AUS —					
RL			0.8700 58.41 0.6744 0.7224 0.6984					
$R1+W$					0.8490 50.68 0.7522 0.7563 0.75425			
$RL+C$			0.8805 54.89 0.8300 0.8390		0.8345			
$RL+W+C$ 0.9065 58.47 0.8619 0.8663					0.8641			

Table 2: Ablation study in movie domain.

<span id="page-8-3"></span>

			taxi		
	SUC.	rew.			AUS AUR Overall
RL				0.5491 15.80 0.5105 0.4724 0.4915	
$RI+W$				$0.5313$ 8.21 $0.6662$ 0.6761 0.6713	
$RL+C$				0.5614 18.78 0.5913 0.6332 0.6121	
$RL+W+C$ 0.5733 19.74 0.6526 0.6821					0.6674

Table 3: Ablation study in taxi domain.

<span id="page-8-2"></span>

	diagnosis									
	Suc.	Overall AUS $A$ <i>UR</i> rew.								
RL				0.8075 31.61 0.8016 0.9079	0.8548					
$RI+W$			0.8105 31.42 0.8412 0.9210		0.8811					
$RL+C$			0.8182 32.37 0.8151 0.9139		0.8645					
$RL+W+C$			0.8309 32.40 0.8924	0.9402	0.9163					

Table 4: Ablation study in diagnosis domain.

#### 4.5 Forward and inverse KL divergence

Our MCA model uses the inverse KL divergence to fuse the causal reasoning modules. We implemented an experiment to verify the effect of temperature coefficients under the forward and inverse KL divergence. Table [5](#page-8-4) illustrates the experimental Overall results in different domains. We discovered that smaller inverse KL divergence achieves

better results when tested on three dialogue tasks. This implies that the MCA model focuses more on the causal reasoning module (Smaller temperature values correspond to the amplification of the causal reasoning module). In general, the inverse KL divergence is more effective than the forward KL divergence, especially in the taxi domain, where the difference between inverse and forward KL divergence is more distinct. This is mainly due to the distribution of the original datasets, while the inverse KL divergence with a smaller temperature is more likely to find the optimal action.

<span id="page-8-4"></span>

Temperature		$0.1$ $0.3$ $0.5$ $0.7$		09
movie	Forword 0.8282 0.8511 0.8302 0.8649 0.8379			
	Reverse 0.8641 0.8567 0.8651 0.8655 0.8316			
taxi	Forword 0.1795 0.5263 0.5912 0.6101 0.6027			
	Reverse 0.6674 0.6432 0.6439 0.6587 0.6344			
Diagnosis Reverse 0.9163 0.9070 0.8873 0.8689 0.8651	Forword 0.6054 0.8007 0.8383 0.8625 0.8575			

Table 5: Experimental results on forward and reverse KL on different domains.

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a Transformer-based world model and constructed a causal reasoning module. We endow the dialog agent with a world model and causality, making its decisions more human-like with perception and reasoning. We do four main works for the policy learning of dialog agents: (i) Constructed an autoregressive Transformer-based world model for processing dialogue sequences and generating simulation data. (ii) Constructed a causal reasoning module to generate latent dialogue agent distribution of user intention interaction successfully experiences. (iii) Modified the network structure of direct deep reinforcement learning methods, empowering it to use both latent distributions and simulated data. (vi) Experiments demonstrate the effectiveness, high performance, and robustness, of both individual and integrated modules. In the future, improving the causal reasoning module via a nonlinear network is a valuable direction.

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## A Pseudo-code for proposed Model

The Transformer-based world model for generate simulated samples is described in Algorithm 1. We proposed the model-based causal dialog agent described in Algorithm 2.

<span id="page-11-0"></span>Algorithm 1 Transformer-based world model generate simulated samples

- 1: initialize the planning step  $G$  and the maximum dialogue turns  $L$ , batch size  $bs$
- 2: randomly sample batch sizes bs from successful interaction experiences, obtaining a set  $H \in (H_0, H_1, ..., H_{bs})$
- 3: update world model parameters via Z-step minibatch SGD of multi-task learning
- 4: for  $g = 1$  to G do
- 5: termination flag  $d_t = 0$ , dialogue turn  $t=0$
- 6: sample a user goal, obtain user action  $a^u$ and generate an initial dialogue state  $s_t$
- 7: while not  $d_t$  and  $t < L$  do
- 8: with probability  $\epsilon$  select a random action  $a_t$ , otherwise select  $a_t =$  $arg_{a'}maxQ_{\theta}(s, a')$
- 9: generate sequential  $H_i^t$  according to Eq. (1)
- 10: world model responds with  $a_{t+1}^u$ ,  $r_t$  and  $d_t$
- 11: update dialogue state to  $s_{t+1}$  according to  $a_{t+1}^u$

```
12: store (s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, d_t) to D^s
```
13: set 
$$
t = t + 1
$$
,  $s_t = s_{t+1}$ 

14: end while

15: end for

## B Implementation details

The hidden layer size in deep reinforcement learning is 80 and an activation function of tanh. The discount factor for the reinforcement learning reward is  $\gamma = 0.9$ . On the movie ticket booking dataset, the size of the memory pool  $D^u$  is 5,000, and the size of the simulated experience pool  $D<sup>s</sup>$  is 5,000. On the taxi calling dataset, the size of  $D^u$ is 10,000, and the size of  $D<sup>s</sup>$  is 10,000. The experience pool is  $D^u = 10,000$ , and the simulated experience pool is  $D^s = 10,000$  in the diagnosis domain. The model optimizer for value-based reinforcement learning uses RMSprop, the learning rate is 0.001, and the batch size is 16. The proposed method is implemented via proximal policy optimization (PPO) methods, and the learning rates are 0.0003 and 0.001 for the Actor and Critic network, respectively. The clipping value is 0.2 in the movie domain, 0.6 in the taxi domain, the  $\alpha$ parameter of entropy regularization is 0.01, and  $\beta$  for distilling the episodic memory distribution is 0.9. The optimizer for updating the Actor and

## <span id="page-11-1"></span>Algorithm 2 Proposed Model-based Causal dialogue Agent

- 1: for each episode do
- 2: initialize raw state  $s_1$
- 3: for  $t = 1$  to L do
- 4: select an action  $a_t$  according to the probability of the actor network.
- 5: execute action  $a_t$ , receive environment rewards  $r_t$  and come into next state  $s_{t+1}$ , observe user response  $a_t^u$ , update task completed signal  $f$
- 6: store  $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$  to  $D^u$
- 7: set  $s_t = s_{t+1}$
- 8: end for
- 9: obtaining  $\tau$  based on  $D^u$  and calculating the  $p(s_t^u)$  according to Eq. [11.](#page-4-0)
- [1](#page-11-0)0: obtain  $D^s$  by executing Algorithm 1
- 11: sample random minibatch of  $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$  from  $D^s$  and  $D^u$ , respectively
- 12: execute a gradient descent step via Eq. [12](#page-5-0) with  $D^s$  and  $D^u$ , and update network parameter  $\theta$

#### 13: end for

Critic network is Adam. The maximum dialogue length L is 40 in the movie and taxi domains. In the diagnosis domain,  $L = 26$ . All user requests completed within L turns are considered dialogue successful. The agent receives a reward of  $2 * L$ when they complete all of the user's requests within L. If the agent fails to complete the requests or the dialogue turns over L, it receives a reward of  $-L$ . Additionally, the agent obtains a reward of -1 for each time step to incentivize the task completed. All world models use a planning step 5. The number of DQNs in MAXMIN is 5. The balance weight of the DPAV algorithm is 0.75 in the movie domain and 0.2 in the taxi domain, 0.6 for the automatic diagnosis domain The adaptive reward parameter of DR-D3Q is 0.05 on the movie domain, 0.9 on the taxi domain, and 0.4 on the disease diagnosis domain. The proposed autoregressive Transformerbased world model has a timestep parameter of  $L/2$ , the embedding dimension is 256, the layers are 10, the attention heads are 4, the weight decay is 0.01, the embedding dropout is 0.1, the attention dropout is 0.1, and the residual dropout is 0.1. All experiment results are averaged in 5 tests. The user simulator used in our experiments is the same as [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-10-0) [2024\)](#page-10-0) and [\(Xu et al.,](#page-10-17) [2024\)](#page-10-17).

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

	$\cdot$ movie			taxi			diagnosis		
	<b>AUS</b>	AUR	Overall	<b>AUS</b>	AUR	Overall	<b>AUS</b>	AUR	Overall
<b>DQN</b>	0.4765	0.5132	0.4949	0.4149	0.4625	0.4387	0.6070	0.7633	0.6852
<b>Dueling</b>	0.5004	0.5276	0.5140	0.2173	0.2525	0.2349	0.4324	0.6506	0.5415
<b>DRON</b>	0.4719	0.5031	0.4875	0.2761	0.3104	0.2933	0.2941	0.5860	0.4401
<b>MAXMIN</b>	0.4145	0.4625	0.4385	0.3106	0.3670	0.3388	0.4876	0.6939	0.5908
<b>DPAV</b>	0.5706	0.6153	0.5930	0.3585	0.4014	0.3800	0.5335	0.7219	0.6277
<b>DDO</b>	0.7144	0.7543	0.7344	0.3202	0.3596	0.3399	0.6432	0.7829	0.7131
DR-D3Q	0.4590	0.4769	0.4680	0.3607	0.4040	0.3824	0.5298	0.7072	0.6185
<b>LKTD</b>	0.568	0.5939	0.5810	0.2142	0.2358	0.2250	0.0921	0.3955	0.2438
<b>MCA</b>	0.8619	0.8663	0.8641	0.6526	0.6821	0.6674	0.8924	0.9402	0.9163

Table 6: The experiment results in three task-oriented domains. The best results are indicated in bold, and the second-best results are underlined. Overall is the average of the two metrics AUS and AUR.

## C Detailed Experimental Results

The detailed performance of three task-oriented dialogue domains, see table [6.](#page-12-0) The proposed MCA algorithm achieves the best results in all three domains.DDQ overall achieves the second-best results in the domains of movie and diagnosis, and DQN maintains the second-best results in the domain of taxi. The experimental results demonstrate the superiority of the MCA algorithm.