# I love your chain mail! Making knights smile in a fantasy game world: Open-domain goal-oriented dialogue agents

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### Abstract

We study learning within a rich multi-player text-based fantasy environment where agents engage in both actions and open-domain dialogue. Specifically, we investigate training a goal-oriented dialogue model with reinforcement learning (RL) that can learn to converse with other agents that speak and act such that goal actions are achieved during their interaction. We describe two tractable RL policies: learn to pick topics or an utterance given the top- $K$  utterances from a dialogue model. We show these models outperform an inverse model baseline and can converse naturally with their dialogue partner in order to achieve goals.

## 1 Introduction

In this work, we study a multi-player text-based fantasy environment **[\[31\]](#page-5-0)** with grounded actions and reference objects. Given a particular character to play in a particular scenario (location, set of objects and other characters to interact with), an agent should conduct open-ended dialogue with the goal of making their dialogue partner execute a specified action, differing from many other text-adventure game works that do not involve dialogue  $[22, 3]$  $[22, 3]$  $[22, 3]$ . The action could be an emote (smile, laugh, ponder, etc), or a game action (wear chain mail, drink mead, put glass on table, etc). The richness of the environment means that there are a huge set of possible tasks and scenarios in which to achieve a wide range of actions. We plan to make our code and models publicly available.

We train a variety of baseline models to complete the task. We compare agents trained to imitate human actions given a goal (an "inverse model") to two different RL approaches: optimizing actions with latent discrete variables (topics), or via rewarding actions sampled from the model (via the top- $K$  outputs). We show that both types of RL agent are able to learn effectively, outperforming the inverse model approach or the chit-chat imitation baseline, and can converse naturally with their dialogue partner to achieve goals.

In short, our main contributions are: a new family of tasks that combines goal-oriented dialogue and chit-chat in a rich, fully realized environment, and the results and analysis of scalable RL algorithms and behavioral-cloning models (and simple heuristic methods) on these tasks.

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## <span id="page-1-0"></span>2 LIGHT Game Environment

We work in the LIGHT game environment [\[31\]](#page-5-0), which is a multi-user medieval fantasy text-based game. Characters can speak to each other via free text, send emote actions like *applaud*, *nod* or *pout* (22 emote types in total), and take actions to move to different locations and interact with objects (e.g. *get cutlery, put cutlery in drawer*, etc.), see Appendix  $\overline{D.5}$  for a full list of game actions and how the game engine works.

LIGHT is built with crowd-sourced data both for the world (locations, characters and objects) and human demonstrations of player interactions. There are a total of 663 locations, 1755 characters, and 3462 objects. They range from beaches with crabs and seaweed to crypts with archaeologists and coffins, yielding an extremely rich environment for agents to learn within. Crowdworkers were asked to play the role of characters within the game. This involved them making utterances, game actions and emotes, while interacting with each other (in pairs). The resulting gameplay data consists of 10,777 episodes with an average of 18.3 actions each of rich human play. These are split into train (8538), validation (500) and test (1739) portions, the latter being split into new episodes in existing settings (test seen, 1000) and completely new settings (test unseen, 739).

Players were not given specific goals, but instead asked to play the role convincingly of the character given, during play some of them effectively defined their own goals during the interactions, see Appendix Fig.  $\overline{3}$ . Existing work  $\overline{31}$  does not consider using this data to learn goal-based tasks, but instead has only used this for chit-chat and action imitation learning, different to this work.

#### 3 Tasks

The tasks we introduce in this work involve achieving open-domain goals during interaction between two agents in a given LIGHT scenario. One of the agents, which we will call the "environment agent"  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$ , together with the game engine, effectively functions as an environment for the other agent, denoted by  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$ . We assume that the environment agent is fixed; in this work it will be a model trained via behavioral cloning from human-human interaction data.  $M_{player}$  must conduct open-ended dialogue such that a given goal action is executed in the future by the environment agent.

More formally, the two agents  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$  and  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$  are given their views of the scenario ( $D_{env}$  and  $D_{\text{player}}$  respectively). These consist of the setting name, scenario description, character names, and their own persona, all described as a sequence of text (see Fig $\overline{1}$ ). Note that each agent can only access their own persona but not the persona of the partner with whom they are conversing, but they do know the name of their partner. Denote by t the time-step of the environment,  $U_t^{\text{player}}$  and  $U_t^{\text{env}}$  the utterances of the agents  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$  and  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$  respectively, and denote by  $A_t^{\text{env}}$  the environment actions by  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$ . Hence the interaction sequence is:

$$
\mathbf{S}_{t} = [\mathbf{U}_{0}^{\text{player}}, (\mathbf{U}_{0}^{\text{env}}, \mathbf{A}_{0}^{\text{env}}), \mathbf{U}_{1}^{\text{player}}, (\mathbf{U}_{1}^{\text{env}}, \mathbf{A}_{1}^{\text{env}}), \dots, \mathbf{U}_{n}^{\text{player}}, (\mathbf{U}_{n}^{\text{env}}, \mathbf{A}_{n}^{\text{env}})].
$$
 (1)

The agent  $M_{player}$  is additionally given a persuasion goal g to achieve. That is, the objective of  $M_{player}$  is for  $M_{env}$  to take the action g. An episode ends when  $A_t^{env} == g$  or when n becomes larger than a set number of turns.

Goals We experiment separately with two different types of goals: game actions and emote actions. We use the same train, valid, test (seen and unseen) split of the original human-human LIGHT episodes, assign roles  $M_{player}$  and  $M_{env}$  randomly, and randomly pick an action by  $M_{env}$  that occurs in the episode as the goal. We can then present the corresponding setting to our agents in order to form a new interaction, but within the same scenario and with a goal that was naturally desirable and achievable within that setting.

In our setup,  $M_{player}$  speaks (but does not act). This allows us to study grounded dialogue between agents; it guarantees that the player cannot force the goal to be reached by performing actions itself. It has to produce appropriate utterances  $U^{player}$  such that  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$  eventually takes the action g.

**Observations** The state observation  $\mathcal{O}_t = (\mathbf{D}_{\text{player}}, \mathbf{S}_{t-1}, \mathbf{g})$  at time t given to a model consists of the agent's setting description ( $D_{\text{player}}$ ), the utterance and action history up to that time step ( $S_{t-1}$ ), and the agent's goal (g). Our models for  $M_{player}$  consume  $\mathcal{O}_t$  as a flattened sequence of tokens, and return a dialogue utterance  $U_t^{player}$ . Each structured component is represented in the flattened sequenced separated by a special token denoting the types, e.g. names, settings, etc.

#### 3.1 Reinforcement learning formulation

Our task set-up can be framed as a Markov decision process. Because the entire history and goal is given to  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$ , the environment is Markovian. We give a terminal reward of +1 only if the goal g is achieved and 0 otherwise, i.e, it is  $+1$  if the environment agent takes the goal action g. The episode ends after *n* steps. In our experiments we consider  $n = 1$  and  $n = 3$ . When we formulate our tasks as a reinforcement learning problem, we will also refer to  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$  as the "RL agent".

## 4 Models

In this section we describe the models for  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$  and  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$ . In this work these are retrieval models, using the LIGHT dialogue training corpus as candidates (111k utterances).

Base agent architecture All our models adopt the same base architecture: a 12-layer bidirectional transformer [\[32\]](#page-5-2) pre-trained on a large dialogue corpus (Reddit, 174M examples), and then fine-tuned on our task. To score retrieval candidates, we use a *bi-encoder* [\[13,](#page-4-1) [31\]](#page-5-0), in which two transformers are used, one to encode the context, and another to encode a candidate response, and a dot product between the first output vector of each scores the match, and the maximum scoring candidate is chosen as the final utterance/action/emote. For actions, the candidates are the set of admissible actions at that game state, which are provided by the game engine, for example *get apple* is only available in the candidate set if it is a valid action (an apple is present in the room). For emotes, all 22 candidates are always available. For dialogue the training set candidates are used (111k in this case). To train the model, a cross entropy loss is used, with negatives sampled from the batch  $[21]$ .

Environment agent The environment agent is the base agent described above, and stays fixed over episodes where an RL agent is trained. This helps guarantee our RL models stick to using the semantics of natural language (English) rather than so-called language drift of learning a new emergent language on the same tokens [\[16\]](#page-5-4).

#### <span id="page-2-0"></span>4.1 Inverse model

We consider an inverse model, trained to imitate human actions given a goal, as both a baseline for comparing to RL models, and for producing weights from which we can fine-tune. The inverse model consists of a bi-encoder, as described above, which takes as input an observation  $\mathcal{O}_t$ , and outputs an utterance. We train it by extracting from the human-human game logs training set (which does not have goals) every instance where a game action occurs at time  $t$  in  $S_t$ . We consider as baselines both a version where the goal is given in the input, and where it is removed.

#### 4.2 Topic RL model

Optimizing all the parameters of a large transformer architecture by RL is both incredibly costly in data efficiency and computing time, and is also known to have the problem of language drift [\[16\]](#page-5-4). A solution to both problems is to train most of the parameters of the model with human-human language data, and then only optimize some of the parameters [\[33\]](#page-5-5) with RL. Here, we propose a straight-forward model for that purpose.

We build an RL agent that consists of two transformers: prediction of a topic from  $K$  topics given the observation (first transformer), followed by prediction of the final dialogue utterance given the observation and topic (second transformer). The first transformer is initialized to the inverse model, and K-means provides initial topic centers given its output representation. A two-layer fully connected neural net is then placed at the output of the first transformer which is trained by RL to predict the topic C. The second transformer, trained on human-human data, given the observation and topic  $C$  outputs the dialogue utterance. We use the Advantage Actor-Critic implementation  $A2C$ [\[14\]](#page-4-2) to train the policy and the value function. Further details are given in appendix **B**.

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

		<b>Test Seen</b>			<b>Test Unseen</b>		
		$(n=1)$ $(n=3)$		$(n=1)$	$(n=3)$		
Model	<b>Goal Type</b>	Reward	Reward	Turns	Reward	Reward	Turns
Inverse model (no goal)	game act	0.185	0.345	2.55	0.160	0.345	2.57
Inverse model	game act	0.223	0.414	2.42	0.193	0.410	2.48
Top- $K$ RL	game act	0.327	0.491	2.26	0.278	0.442	2.34
Topic RL	game act	0.359	0.561	2.15	0.313	0.496	2.26
Topic RL $(1$ -step $3x)$	game act	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	0.493	2.22	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	0.479	2.29

Table 1: Results on the test seen and unseen environments for our models.

<span id="page-3-1"></span>

Table 2: Example 1-step episodes where after the Topic RL agent's utterance  $U_0^{player}$  the environment agent's response action  $A_0^{\text{env}}$  was equal to the RL agent's goal g. Our RL agent both makes natural utterances given the situation, and that elicit the desired goal.

#### 4.3 Top- $K$  RL model

The Top-K model, related to  $\overline{6}$ , also keeps the number of trainable parameters small. As above it keeps close to the base retrieval model to avoid drift. It first uses the inverse model to get a context embedding  $\tilde{s}$  from the observation, and a list of K candidate utterance embeddings  $v_1, ... v_K$ corresponding to utterances  $u_1, \ldots u_K$ . These are the encodings by the inverse model of the K utterances it considers most likely given the context and goal. We form scores  $t_i = (A+b)^T v_i$ , and obtain a probability distribution over these  $K$  candidates for our policy:

$$
\pi(u_i|\text{context}) = \text{softmax}(t_0, ..., t_K)(i). \tag{2}
$$

Here the trainable parameters of the RL agent are the map  $A$  and biases  $b$ .

### 5 Experiments

We compare our models on the game action tasks (with results for emotes given in the appendix). We experiment with differing number of steps n allowed to complete the goal,  $n=1$  and  $n=3$ . Results for both seen and unseen test environments  $(\sqrt{2})$  are given in Table  $\Pi$ . We report the average reward and for  $n=3$  the average number of turns before completion. The results show clear improvements for our RL models compared to the inverse model for each n, and improvements for an  $n = 3$  model compared to naively applying an  $n=1$  model three times. As a sanity check we also tried, after training, to replace the Topic RL policy with random topic prediction, which yielded poor results, e.g. 0.217 reward for  $n=1$  test seen game actions. Our model is clearly learning appropriate topic acts.

We show examples of successful utterances, achieving goal actions in Table  $\sqrt{2}$  for a diverse range of scenarios, actions and language. For example, for the guard's goal to encourage the archer to *get weapon* the Topic RL model utters "This is the armory! The king keeps the best weapons here. Take a look", which ends up leading to the desired action in the subsequent turn. More examples (for both  $n = 1$  and  $n = 3$ ) are given in Appendix [D.7.](#page-17-0)

A much more detailed analysis of the experiments is also given in appendix  $\overline{D}$ . In short: we analyzed utterance choice, and find clear improvements in semantic connection with the RL models compared to the inverse model given the task. We also analyze model capacity e.g. choices of  $K$ , train vs. test performance, breakdown by goal and difficulty, showing there are a number of challenging tasks still unresolved for longer step, more difficult action subcases.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we investigate agents that can interact (speak or act) and can achieve goals in a rich world with diverse language, with preliminary success. Future work should scale tasks and models to harder tasks with more steps with richer and richer goal (game) states.

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## A More Detailed Related work

Chit-chat dialogue There is an increasing body of work in the domain of chit-chat, where the primary approaches being currently tried are end-to-end neural approaches. They are typically large pre-trained and then fine-tuned transformers, either generative or retrieval. Retrieval models work best, or match generative models, on a number of tasks  $[34, 5, 19]$  $[34, 5, 19]$  $[34, 5, 19]$ . Our work shares a commonality with these approaches in that the original LIGHT dialogue data we use has no specified goals, and humans chit-chat together (and act). Thus, the conversations cover a rich number of diverse topics. In [\[31\]](#page-5-0) models were trained in a similar fashion to chit-chat task models, and we adopt similar architectures here, but instead adapt them to learn to pursue goals.

Goal-oriented dialogue Traditional goal-oriented dialogue has focused on narrow tasks that would typically be useful for a dialogue-based assistant, for example restaurant  $\|T\|$ , taxi, train, and hotel  $\|T\|$ or trip [\[7\]](#page-4-7) booking. Hence, each task typically focuses on a narrow slice of natural language and world knowledge for a specialized domain. Earlier work focused on labeled state representations, slot filling mechanisms and dialogue managers  $[25]$ , and more recent work has shifted to an end-to-end approach [\[1\]](#page-4-8), in line with chit-chat models, but still the two sets of tasks are rarely considered together, or by using the same methods. Recently,  $\sqrt{30}$  used coarse-grained keywords as targets for open-domain chit-chat but in this work the target can be achieved when either the human or the agent uses the keyword in the response.

RL for dialogue The classical goal-oriented dialogue literature studies RL extensively [\[29\]](#page-5-10). Typically, they used RL to improve dialogue managers, which manage transitions between dialogue states  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$  $[28, 24, 25, 9, 8]$ . Recent works have focused more on end-to-end learning. Some works have focused on self-play type mechanisms for end-to-end reinforcement learning, where the reward is derived from the goal. A related approach to ours is the negotiation task of  $\left[\frac{17}{33}\right]$ , which requires two agents to swap 3 item types (hats, balls, books) where the value of the items is different for the two agents, and derives their personal reward. In contrast, our setup encompasses a rich world of settings and characters – with 3462 object types, and a corresponding large number of actions. This is reflected in the vocabulary size itself (∼32,000 versus ∼2,000 in the negotiation tasks). Other notable uses of RL in dialogue include within visual question answering  $\mathbf{a}$ , in the domain of chit-chat where RL has been used to decrease repetitive and generic responses through the the use of self-play [\[18\]](#page-5-14), and through human-bot conversation [\[26\]](#page-5-15).

**RL for language and games** RL is used extensively for learning to play games, one of the most well known examples being AlphaGo [\[27\]](#page-5-16). Since then, language in games has started to be more deeply explored, for example in graphical games such as Minecraft [\[23\]](#page-5-17), Real-time strategy war games  $[12]$ , or in text adventure games  $[22, 3]$  $[22, 3]$  $[22, 3]$ . The latter are related to our setting. However, those approaches use RL to optimize the set of actions given feedback in a *single-player* rather than multi-player game, so the text only refers to the environment, and there is no dialogue or actions from other agents. We focus on the latter.

Self-Play and Language Self-play has started to become more and more widely used in NLP in general recently, see e.g.  $[20, 15, 10]$  $[20, 15, 10]$  $[20, 15, 10]$ .

## <span id="page-6-0"></span>B Topic RL Model Further Details

Optimizing all the parameters of a large transformer architecture by RL is both incredibly costly in data efficiency and computing time, and is also known to have the problem of language drift  $[16]$  – that is, there is no guarantee after training with self-chat that the models will output recognizable natural language utterances. A solution to both problems is to train most of the parameters of the model with human-human language data, and then to either disentangle or only optimize some of the parameters with model self-chat [\[33\]](#page-5-5). Here, we propose a straight-forward model for that purpose. We assume an RL agent that consists of two components.

The first component  $F_C(\mathcal{O}) = P_C(T_s(\mathcal{O}))$  maps from an observation to a discrete variable with C possible values. It consists of a chain of two functions: a transformer  $T_s$  that takes in the observation, and outputs a state representation  $\tilde{s}$ , and a policy chooser  $c = P(\tilde{s}) \in (1, \ldots, C)$  which takes in the state representation and outputs the value of the discrete latent variable.

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

Table 3: Results on the test seen and unseen environments for our models.



Table 4: Example 1-step episodes where after the RL agent's utterance  $U_0^{player}$  the environment agent's response action  $\overline{A}^{\text{env}}_0$  was equal to the RL agent's goal g. Our RL agent both makes natural utterances given the situation, and that elicit the desired goal.

The second component  $T_u(\mathcal{O}, c)$  is an additional transformer that takes as input the observation as well as the output of the first component, and outputs a dialogue utterance. The entire model is thus the chain  $u = T_u(\mathcal{O}, P_C(T_s(\mathcal{O})))$ . We make this explicit decomposition so that we can train only part of the model with RL; note that the "action" trained via RL is choosing  $c$ , not outputting the final utterance.

**Initial topics** We first pre-train the transformer  $T_s$  using the inverse model described in Section  $[4.1]$ , which produces a vectorial representation of a given observation. We then run K-means over the vectorial representations of all observations from the training set to provide the mapping to one of C values, which represent dialogue topics, which we use as our initial function  $P_C(\tilde{s})$ . These two

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

		<b>Train</b>		
		$(n=1)$	$(n=3)$	
Model	Goal	Reward	Reward	Turns
$Top-K-TFRL$	act	0.677	0.752	1.72
Topic RL	act	0.539	0.752	1.87
Top- $K$ -TF RL $(1$ -st. $3x)$	act		0.737	1.62
Topic RL $(1-st. 3x)$	act		0.660	1.87
Top- $K$ -TF RL	emote	0.498	0.668	2.13
Topic RL	emote	0.483	0.612	2.22
Top- $K$ -TF RL $(1$ -st. $3x)$	emote		0.587	1.96
Topic RL $(1-st. 3x)$	emote		0.570	1.99

Table 5: Results on the training environment

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

		1-Step		$1-Step\;3x$		3-Step	
<b>Verb</b>	Count	Topic	Top- $K$	Topic	Top- $K$	Topic	Top- $K$
get	213	27.70	28.17	37.56	43.66	44.13	40.85
hit	172	43.02	46.51	63.95	66.86	63.95	75.58
hug	178	61.26	69.82	72.52	81.53	85.13	85.56
give	136	33.09	41.91	50.00	54.41	56.62	48.53
remove	127	9.45	13.39	22.83	22.83	27.56	26.77
steal	55	47.27	50.91	63.64	63.64	80.00	54.55
drop	27	0.00	0.00	18.52	18.52	7.41	7.41
put	25	0.00	0.00	8.00	12.00	4.00	4.00
eat	10	30.00	10.00	70.00	20.00	60.00	40.00
wear	10	0.00	0.00	20.00	30.00	20.00	10.00
drink	3	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33

Table 6: Verb success in percentage on 1000 test seen episodes. The 3-step model performs best for high and medium frequency verbs.

functions together give us our initialization of  $F<sub>C</sub>$ . We use the set of topics as a set of actions A for our RL setup.  $^{2}$  $^{2}$  $^{2}$ 

**From** c to A Given our initial choice of  $F_C$ , we can also pre-train  $T_u$ . We simply take our initial human-human training data, and for each observation append the topic computed by  $F_c$  to it. This allows our model to be able to generate an action (utterance) conditional on both an input and a topic. We can now train a policy by RL that optimizes the topic at any given point in the episode.

**Policy training** We keep the pre-trained portions of the model  $T_u$  and  $T_s$  fixed and during fine-tuning only optimize  $P_C$ . The cluster chooser  $P_C$  is redefined (from the initial K-means) to be an MLP network consisting of 2 layers. A discrete action is sampled from a categorical probability distribution over the possible topics, given by  $c_t \sim$  Categorical( $h_t^2$ ), where  $h_t^2 = \tanh(\mathbf{W_2}\tanh(\mathbf{W_1}\mathbf{s_t} + b_1) + b_2).$ 

The state vector  $s_t$  also encodes the goal g and thus, the policy is conditioned on the goal g of the agent. Hence, the policy can learn strategies that will result in picking actions at each time step t that will help the agent to achieve its goal g. As our RL agent can only choose topics, it cannnot redefine easily the meaning of words to cause language drift. We use the Advantage Actor-Critic implementation  $\Delta 2C$  [\[14\]](#page-4-2) to train the policy and the value function in both this and the subsequently described Top-K model.

<span id="page-8-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We show the clusters denoted by their topics along with the most representative sentences in Table  $\frac{\theta}{\theta}$  in Appendix  $[D.1]$ . We see that the learned clusters are non-random but rather correspond to specific topics.

<span id="page-9-3"></span>

		1-Step					
			Topic	$Top-K-TF$		Top- $K$ -BE	
	1-step achievable		0.452		0.505	0.407	
	1-step unachievable		0.000		0.005	0.005	
						Table 7: Test seen breakdown by difficulty (1-step achievable or not).	
			$1-Step\;3x$			3-Step	
	Topic	$Top-K-TF$		$Top-K-BE$	Topic	$Top-K-TF$	$Top-K-BE$
1-step achievable	0.616	0.647		0.587	0.686	0.664	0.620
1-step unachievable	0.044	0.058		0.044	0.068	0.049	0.078

Table 8: Test seen breakdown by difficulty (1-step achievable or not). The 3-step models outperform the 1-step 3x models on both sets.

<span id="page-9-0"></span>

Figure 1: Example interaction in the described task setup (single turn). Here the RL agent  $\mathcal{M}_{player}$ would receive a reward as the environment agent  $\mathcal{M}_{env}$  took the desired action g.

#### $C$  Top- $K$  Model Further Details

The Top-K model, related to  $[6]$ , is another approach to keeping the number of trainable parameters small. As above it keeps close to the base retrieval model to avoid drift. It first uses the inverse model to get a context embedding  $\tilde{s}$  from the observation, and a list of  $K$  candidate utterance embeddings  $v_1, ... v_K$  corresponding to utterances  $u_1, ... u_K$ . These are the encodings by the inverse model of the K utterances it considers most likely given the context and goal. We form scores  $t_i = (A+b)^T v_i$ , and obtain a probability distribution over these  $K$  candidates for our policy:<br>  $\pi(u_i|\text{context}) = \text{softmax}(t_0, ..., t_K)(i)$ . (3)

<span id="page-9-2"></span>Here the trainable parameters of the RL agent are the map  $A$  and biases  $b$ .

Alternatively, we can train a small (2-layer) Transformer model  $T_w$  that takes as input the set  $\{\tilde{s}, v_1, ... v_K\}$ . Instead of a softmax over dot products  $t_i$  as in  $\mathcal{B}$ , we use the attention weights in the last layer of  $T_w$  above  $\tilde{s}$  against the candidates as the distribution over the candidates for sampling an utterance. In this case, the weights of  $T_w$  are the trainable parameters of the RL agent. We call the former model a policy "bi-encoder". In the main paper we only reported in the bi-encoder results. In the appendix we label these as Top-K-BE RL in tables, and label the latter Transformer model as Top- $K$ -TF.

## <span id="page-9-1"></span>D More Detailed Experimental Analysis

Analysis of utterance choice To understand the semantics the models are learning that ground language to actions, we visualize the top scoring utterances, averaged over their probabilities on the 1-step test set, broken down by verb type. We observe a clear improvement in semantic connection for the Topic RL model over the inverse model. For example utterances such as "Have a taste of this" are highly scoring for *drink* goals, "hmm..this sure smells nice" for *eat* goals, "Ew you vile beast, do not touch me! I will have you removed" for *hit* goals, and "How I love being pampered by you, sweetheart" for *hug* goals. Given there are ∼111,000 possible utterances in our setting, the model has clearly learned meaningful representations. Appendix Tables  $\overline{13}$  and  $\overline{14}$  show results for the inverse model and Topic RL model respectively.

Train vs. test performance We compare training performance of our models in Table **5.** We see the same trends that models that performed better on test fit better on train (e.g. Top- $K$  vs. Topic RL on 1-step tasks). Nevertheless, we do observe significant overfitting can occur, indicating that future work could explore either models that improve through better generalization, or by exploiting more training data – for example by self-play with more goals, rather than just using goals from human logs, as we have done here.

**Model capacity** We evaluate different values of  $K$  or numbers of topics for Top- $K$  and Topic RL. Full results are given in Appendix Table  $\overline{11}$ . They show that increasing the capacity of both models improves performance up to 200 clusters or  $K = 200$ , after which performance saturates. However,  $K = 200$  (56.1%) is substantially better than  $K = 50$  (47.7%) on the 3-step task, for example.

**Performance breakdown by goal** We show the breakdown of test performance by goal type in Table  $\overline{6}$  (splitting by verb type) and Appendix Table  $\overline{12}$  (splitting by emote type). The results show that the easiest tasks are common actions with clear differentiation such as *hug* (85% success) and *hit* (75%). Actions like *get*, *drop*, *give* which are more confusable have somewhat lower numbers, with more rare actions (e.g. wear) faring worse.

Performance breakdown by difficulty We can break down the test results into difficulty by considering in the 3-step task, which examples are 1-step achievable given the model's possible actions under the policy (i.e. the possible Top- $K$  utterances or Topic RL cluster choices), and reporting results separately. The results are given in Table  $\frac{7}{1}$  and  $\frac{8}{1}$ . They show that non 1-step achievable goals are much harder, representing a significant challenge to future systems.

**1-step 3x baseline** To investigate further the quality of our 3-step task models, we consider an additional baseline of taking a 1-step task trained model (Topic RL or Top- $K$ ) and applying it on the 3-step task, which it has not been optimized for. The results in Table  $\overline{3}$  show test results are inferior for this approach. Breaking down further by goal type (Table  $\overline{6}$  and Appendix Table  $\overline{12}$ ) shows that there are large improvements for the 3-step model on goals which are more often expressed in the data. Table  $\overline{7}$  shows that 3-step models outperform the 1-step 3x models on both 1-step achievable and the harder 1-step unachievable goals. Training performance (Table  $\overline{5}$ ) further validates these results.

3-step task repeats We analyze the number of repeated utterances in an episode. The Topic RL model repeats at least one utterance 25.8% of the time, with 15.59% utterances overall repeated. The 1-step 3x baseline in comparison repeats 37.3% at least once, and 22.94% on average. We note that repeating an utterance may possibly bring the desired goal in some cases, just as in real life.

#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>D.1 Clusters

#### D.2 Training Curves

Figure 2: Topic RL model training for  $n=1$  and  $n=3$  step goals for game actions (left) and emotes (right), comparing to the inverse model baselines. We report rewards averaged over the batch (512 for  $n=1$ , and 128 for  $n=3$ ). Darker lines indicate smoothed plots.

#### D.3 Hyperparameters and additional experimental details

The Topic RL models have 576969 trainable parameters, the Top-K RL have 14767105, and the Top-K Biencoder have 1181953. Training using 8 V100 machines took ∼2 weeks (1 step), ∼5 weeks (3 step). Learning rate is the only hyperparameter that was swept over. For each setup, we considered learning rate values between  $3 \cdot 10^{-6}$  and  $7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ . Other hyperparameters (e.g. eps) were briefly examined in preliminary experiments but our setup was not very sensitive to changes in those values; hence we used the default provided values.

<span id="page-11-0"></span>

Table 9: Clusters learnt from the dialogue utterances (Clusters = 50). '#C' denotes the cluster ID.



Model	n (steps)	goal	<b>Best LR</b>	goal	<b>Best LR</b>
Topic RL	3	game act	7E-04	emote	7E-04
Topic RL		game act	7E-04	emote	7E-04
Top- $K$ -TF RL	3	game act	7E-05	emote	$3E-05$
Top- $K$ -TFRL		game act	$1E-0.5$	emote	$1E-05$
Top- $K$ -BE RL	3	game act	$1E-03$	emote	$1E-03$
Top- $K$ -BERL		game act	$1E-03$	emote	$1E-03$

Table 10: Best learning rate values for each reported experiment.

# D.4 Additional Results

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

Table 11: Results with different numbers of clusters (Topic RL) or candidates (Top-K RL). Some experiments were not completed because of resource limitations.

<span id="page-12-1"></span>

			1-Step		$1-Step\;3x$		3-Step
<b>Emote</b>	Count	Topic	Top- $K$	Topic	Top- $K$	Topic	Top- $K$
laugh	109	20.18	11.01	32.11	20.18	44.04	26.61
smile	106	31.13	13.21	58.49	37.74	61.32	44.34
ponder	94	31.91	2.13	44.68	7.45	59.57	24.47
frown	85	18.82	9.41	29.41	21.18	34.12	24.71
nod	75	40.00	21.33	58.67	52.00	84.00	56.00
sigh	67	55.22	4.48	82.09	14.93	85.07	11.94
grin	63	4.76	1.59	25.40	12.70	33.33	26.98
gasp	57	21.05	0.00	33.33	0.00	33.33	3.51
shrug	47	29.79	6.38	51.06	48.94	59.57	48.94
stare	41	7.32	4.88	26.83	17.07	26.83	9.76
scream	40	17.50	20.00	25.00	25.00	42.50	30.00
cry	32	12.50	28.13	18.75	50.00	43.75	56.25
growl	27	40.74	37.04	48.15	40.74	33.33	40.74
blush	26	3.85	19.23	11.54	50.00	19.23	53.85
dance	24	37.50	29.17	62.50	33.33	62.50	33.33
applaud	23	17.39	0.00	43.48	21.74	21.74	21.74
wave	19	21.05	21.05	36.84	21.05	10.53	26.32
groan	17	5.88	0.00	17.65	11.76	11.76	5.88
nudge	16	0.00	0.00	0.00	6.25	0.00	12.50
wink	15	13.33	20.00	13.33	33.33	13.33	53.33
yawn	11	0.00	0.00	0.00	18.18	27.27	27.27
pout	6	0.00	33.33	16.67	66.67	16.67	16.67

Table 12: Emote success in percentage on 1000 test seen episodes. The 3-step model performs best for high and medium frequency verbs.

<span id="page-13-0"></span>

Table 13: Top utterances for each verb for the inverse model.

<span id="page-14-0"></span>

Table 14: Top utterances for each verb for the Topic RL model.

# <span id="page-15-0"></span>D.5 Game actions within LIGHT



Table 15: LIGHT actions and constraints from [\[31\]](#page-5-0)

# D.6 LIGHT example

<span id="page-16-0"></span>

Figure 3: Example episode from the LIGHT dataset, consisting of an environment (location setting, characters with given personas, objects), utterances and game actions. There are 10,777 such humanhuman gameplay episodes, and a rich world of 663 locations, 1755 characters and 3462 objects.

#### <span id="page-17-0"></span>D.7 1-Step and 3-Step Episode Examples



Table 16: Successful 3-step episodes. On the left: the topic-RL agent's goal was to get the environment agent to remove shield. On the right: the topic-RL agent's goal was to get the environment agent to hit the topic-RL agent. In both episodes, the topic-RL agent makes natural utterances given the situation that elicit the desired goal in 2 turns.

Self: cat	Partner: challenger		Partner: the man Self: peasant
Persona:	I live in the barn of a small farm. I protect the farm from pests	Persona:	I am poor and dirty. I hate that I am starving to death
Setting:	The Dungeon, Inside Palace The dungeon is in the very most bottom room of the Palace. Many have gone down to the dungeon	Setting:	Cottage, Countryside The small cottage was white with two, shuttered windows. It was in the unique shape of a
Goal:	drop poison	Goal:	put coin in dinner table
$\mathbf{U}_{\Omega}^{\text{player}}$	What's that stuff? Smells good.	$\mathbf{U}_{\Omega}^{\text{player}}$	Oh, what is this? It smells heavenly!
$U_0^{\text{env}}$	That's smells like the good stuff alright!	$U_0^{\text{env}}$	Yes it is top quality.
$A_0^{\text{env}}$	give poison to cat	$A_0^{\text{env}}$	steal moldy bread from peasant
$U_0^{\text{player}}$	i thought so too, well that's gone. What are you up to?	$\mathbf{U}_{\Omega}^{\text{player}}$	Excellent! What have you been doing out here on this fine day?
$U_0^{\text{env}}$	ive been hidden waiting for the perfect time to make an escape	$U_0^{\text{env}}$	I have no bread. I have just come to get some rest before moving on.
$A_0^{env}$	remove bag of herbs	$A_0^{\text{env}}$	eat moldy bread
$U_0^{player}$	I thought you might be eating my herb again.	$\mathbf{U}_{\Omega}^{\text{player}}$	No, but perhaps you can use it to cleanse your bread!
$U_0^{\text{env}}$	I did it, I confess! I stole these precious herbs.	$U_0^{env}$	I would love to. I fear I look disheveled. I will wear this blanket to cover my filthy clothes
$A_0^{\text{env}}$	drop bag of herbs	$A_0^{\text{env}}$	hug peasant

Table 17: Unsuccessful 3-step episodes. On the left: the topic-RL agent's goal was to get the environment agent to drop poison. On the right: the topic-RL agent's goal was to get the environment agent to put coin in dinner table. In both episodes, the topic-RL agent both makes natural utterances given the situation, but does not manage to achieve its goal.