

# Learning to Speak to a Spoken Language System: Vocabulary Convergence in Novice Users

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## Abstract

A key challenge for users and designers of spoken language systems is determining the form of the commands that the system can recognize. Using more than 60 hours of interactions, we quantitatively analyze the acquisition of system vocabulary by novice users. We contrast the longitudinal performance of long-term novice users with both expert system developers and guest users. We find that novice users successfully learn the form of system requests, achieving a significant decrease in ill-formed utterances. However, the working vocabulary on which novice users converge is significantly smaller than that of expert users, and their rate of speech recognition errors remains higher. Finally, we observe that only 50% of each user's small vocabulary is shared with any other, indicating the importance of the flexibility of a conversational interface that allows users to converge to their own preferred vocabulary.

**Keywords** Spoken Language System; Novice-Expert; Lexical Entrainment

## 1 Introduction

Most currently deployed interactive spoken language systems employ a restricted vocabulary and syntax for system commands. These constraints provide greater recognition accuracy and faster recogni-

tion times. (Makhoul, 1993) However, they also require the system developer to provide a command language that is expressive enough to accomplish the tasks for which the speech system was designed and flexible enough to allow use by a wide variety of users with different levels of experience with the system. In turn, the users must learn the constrained language that is understood by the system. A conversational interface attempts to step away from a rigid command language with, for example, a single form for any command, to provide a set of well-formed inputs that have more varied and natural syntax and admit a range of synonymous terms and constructions. While it has been demonstrated that even with substantial synonymy, users will still choose terms outside the system's vocabulary some percentage of the time (Furnas et al., 1987), it is hoped that the flexibility of a conversational interface will allow some natural individual variability and potentially ease the task for novice users. A key challenge for the user is thus to produce well-formed input to the system under these restrictions, and for the system designer to provide a set of commands that it is easy for the user to learn. (Brennan, 1998) demonstrate that users adopt the system's terminology, most reliably with explicit correction, but also with implicit correction, similar to the way in which pairs of human speakers converge on a lexical referent. (Walker et al., 1998) observe anecdotally that users learn system vocabulary over time. (Yankelovich, 1996) and (Kamm et al., 1998) explore techniques to guide users to produce well-formed queries, with a variety of strategies and tutorials, respectively. The above studies have focused on pure novice users

within their first few interactions with the system and on the goal of task achievement. Here, we analyze quantitatively the process by which users learn the language understood by the system, by exploring natural interactions during the course of a field trial conducted over a period of months. We analyze not only task completion or command recognition, but also the vocabulary acquired itself.

## 2 Data Collection

### 2.1 Speech System Description

The speech system utilized in the field trial is a prototype spoken language system that provides a voice interface to a variety of common desktop and information feed services, including e-mail, on-line calendars, weather information, and stock quotes. Two significant features distinguish this system from other spoken language systems. First, since it was designed for use over the telephone to provide ubiquitous access, it is a *voice-only* system. Almost all user input is spoken, recognized with BBN's Hark speech recognizer, and all output is through synthesized speech, using Centigram's TruVoice.

Secondly, the spoken language system was designed to provide a "conversational" interface as described above, aiming to provide a more natural, flexible alternative to a fixed command language. All new users receive a wallet-sized information card with examples of common commands, but, as we will demonstrate later in this paper, users each rapidly develop their own distinct forms.

The system was deployed for a field trial to a limited number of participants. All interactions were recorded yielding approximately sixty hours of interactions conducted over several months. In addition to the audio, speech recognizer results, natural language analysis results, and the text of all system responses were stored.

### 2.2 Subjects

The subjects participating in the field trial fell into three distinct classes: **14 Novice Users**, with no previous experience with this spoken language system, **4 Expert Users**, long-term members of the system's development staff, and **Guest Users**, one-time users of a public demonstration system.

There were three female, two novice and one expert, and fifteen male regular system users, twelve novice and 3 expert. The users engaged in at least ten phone conversations with the system. The distribution of users allows us to examine the development of novice users' interaction style, in terms of vocabulary choice and number of out-of-vocabulary (OOV) utterances. In addition, we can contrast the different recognition accuracy rates and vocabulary distributions of expert and novice users.

### 2.3 Data Coding

All user utterances were manually transcribed and paired with their corresponding speech recognizer output. Each of these pairs was assigned one of four accuracy codes: Correct, Error minor, Error, or Rejection. The "error minor" code assignments generally resulted from a misrecognition of a non-content word (e.g. an incorrect article) compensated for by the robust parser. The "error" and "rejection" codes were assigned in those cases where a user could identify a failure in the interaction. Utterances coded either as Error or Rejection could also receive an additional tag, OOV. This tag indicates that either words not in the recognizer's vocabulary or constructions not in the system's grammar were used in the utterances. For simplicity, we refer to both cases as OOV. Two examples appear below:

Unknown Word: Rejection

User Said: Abracadabracadabra

System Heard: <nothing>

Unknown Form: Misrecognition

User Said: Go to message five eight six

System Heard: Go to message fifty six

Grammar knows: Go to message five hundred eighty six

## 3 Analysis

In total, there were 7529 recorded user utterances. Of these, 4865 were correctly recognized, and 702 contained minor recognition errors, but still resulted in the desired action. There were 1961 complete recognition failures: 1250 of which were rejection errors and 706 of which were misrecognition errors. The remaining errors were due to system crashes or parsing errors. Overall, this yields 25% error rate.

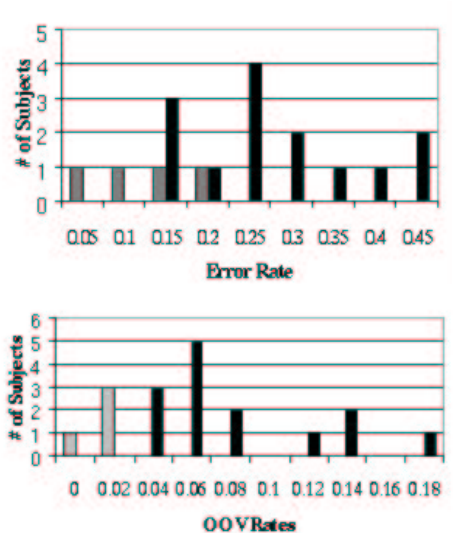


Figure 1: Distributions of Error Rates (Top)  
Distributions of OOV Rates (Bottom)  
Novice (Dark) vs Expert (Light)

Excluding errors by guest users, nearly 350 errors resulted from OOV utterances. More than half of these cases involved unknown words and one quarter involved unknown grammatical constructions. The remainder were valid utterances for a different application, but were invalid in the application context in which they were used.

To understand the users' lexical acquisition, we will look at three specific features of user vocabulary: error and out-of-vocabulary (OOV) rates over time, vocabulary size and rate of new words over time, and degree of vocabulary overlap among users.

### 3.1 Error and OOV Rates

We conduct a longitudinal examination of error and out-of-vocabulary utterance rates. Overall rates are given as averages, and longitudinal rates are in utterances per hundred. Figure 1 compares the distributions of overall average error rates and out-of-vocabulary rates for all novice users to that for expert users. We find significantly higher rates of overall recognition (24.86% versus 10.75%) and OOV (7.39% versus 0.76%) errors for novices than for expert users.

Do these errors rates, especially the higher novice user error rates, change over time, and if so, how and how much? To track these longitudinal changes, or

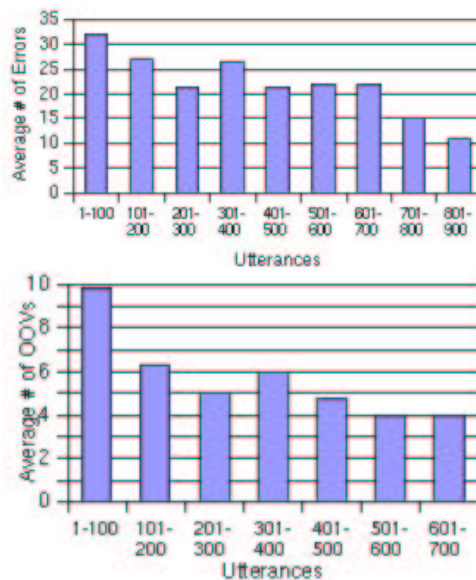


Figure 2: Rate of errors (top) and OOVs (bottom) over time

changes over time, we recompute the error and OOV rates from above in terms of the number of errors per hundred utterances for the first, second, and third set of one hundred utterances, and so on.

We observe that neither the expert users (10.75%) nor the guest users (41%) show any significant change in error rate over time. However, novices show a distinct decrease in errors after the first hundred utterances (Figure 2). We can quantify this contrast by comparing number of errors in the first hundred utterances to the average number of errors per hundred utterances for the later interactions. This contrast is a significant decrease by t-test, paired, two-tailed. ( $p < 0.05$ ), showing that novice users make fewer errors over time, but still at a much higher rate than expert users.<sup>1</sup>

This observation comes as no surprise; however, we would like to know which features of novice vs. expert user interaction account for this contrast. Specifically, to what degree do out-of-vocabulary utterances or speech acoustics differentially affect the error rates of these two subject groups? Can all contrasts be related to limited knowledge of the system's vocabulary? Experts, naturally, exhibit very few instances of out-of-vocabulary utterances. Here we

<sup>1</sup>For longitudinal analysis, we consider only those users with more than 200 turns with the system.

consider the change in rate of OOV’s in novice user utterances over time and contrast it with that of the guest user class. There is a significant decrease in OOV’s over time for longer term users (Figure 2) in contrast with an almost constant OOV rate for guest users (20%) and for expert users (<1%). Specifically there is a significant decrease in the number of OOVs between the first hundred utterances and all subsequent interactions. This is clearly a desirable trend, indicating the new users’ increasing familiarity with the limited vocabulary understood by the system.

However, repeating the above error rate analysis after excluding OOV-related errors, we find that the decrease in error rates with time is not significant. The decrease in OOV errors is thus the primary contributor to the perceived improvement in recognition rate over time. In addition, even with all OOV errors removed, the error rates of novices are still much higher than those of expert users (18.25% versus 10.25%), indicating that expert use of a spoken language system requires more than just the knowledge of the utterances understood by the system. This knowledge is acquired fairly rapidly as we see by the drop in OOV rates, but the knowledge of proper speaking style, such as timing and pausing, is more difficult.

### 3.2 Vocabulary Size and Rate of New Word Introduction

Here we will use two measures to try to clarify the process of OOV reduction: number of words in working vocabulary (defined as number of discrete words per hundred words spoken) and rate of introduction of new words into the working vocabulary (again in words per hundred). Unsurprisingly, the rate of new word introduction undergoes a significant decrease over time - for all except the guest user category - and, like OOVs, drops dramatically after the first 200-300 words. Analysis of variance of number of new words to point in time is highly significant ( $F=59.27$ ,  $df=323$ ,  $p < 0.001$ )

The trend for the working vocabulary is quite interesting and somewhat unexpected. There is a significant decrease in vocabulary size over time. Specifically, there is a significant decrease in the number of unique words per hundred between the first 200-300 words and all later interactions. ( $F =$

1.00	0.30	0.44	0.48	0.41	0.48	0.30	0.37	0.41
0.21	1.00	0.53	0.34	0.26	0.34	0.34	0.42	0.37
0.19	0.32	1.00	0.22	0.24	0.27	0.21	0.32	0.24
0.33	0.33	0.36	1.00	0.26	0.36	0.36	0.28	0.33
0.42	0.38	0.58	0.38	1.00	0.31	0.31	0.35	0.31
0.41	0.41	0.53	0.44	0.25	1.00	0.38	0.38	0.44
0.33	0.54	0.54	0.58	0.33	0.50	1.00	0.33	0.46
0.33	0.53	0.67	0.37	0.30	0.40	0.27	1.00	0.40
0.37	0.47	0.50	0.43	0.27	0.47	0.37	0.40	1.00

Table 1: Proportion of Two Subjects’ Vocabulary that is Shared

8.738,  $df = 19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) Specifically, novice users who begin with an average working vocabulary of 54 words, after working with the system, converge on a surprisingly small working vocabulary of an average of 35 distinct words per hundred. This small vocabulary size contrasts strongly with the 50 distinct words per hundred of the expert users<sup>2</sup>. From this analysis, we can see that the decrease in out-of-vocabulary utterances arises from a narrowing of the users’ working vocabulary to a fairly small set of words in which the user has high confidence.

### 3.3 Vocabulary Overlap

What ramifications does this use of a small working vocabulary have for conversational speech user interface design? Is it simply irrelevant since only a small set of words is needed by any user? An analysis of cross-user vocabulary will help to answer these questions. Here we tabulated the percentage of words shared between any pair of users and the percentage of a user’s vocabulary that overlaps with any other’s. We see that, for any pair of users, between 18 - 57% of vocabulary is held in common, with an average of 21% of the union of the two vocabularies falling in the intersection (Table 1).<sup>3</sup> This translates to each user sharing approximately 50% of their words with any other given user.

This relatively small proportion of overlap between users attests to the value of the conversational interface. While the users individually do not have large vocabularies, the choice of words across users is highly varied. This supports the notion of a flexible vocabulary that allows users to gravitate

<sup>2</sup>The expert users do not, in fact, use more of the system applications than novices.

<sup>3</sup>Results shown for the nine novice users with more than 200 turns.

toward lexical usages that come naturally, and supports wide cross-user utility.

## 4 Discussion & Conclusion

We observe the significant reduction in recognition errors, largely through a reduction in ill-formed utterances, of novices over their first two to three hundred utterances. This accomplishment supports the anecdotal reports that users learn system vocabulary over time, but most impressively, demonstrates the speed with which users acquire the necessary vocabulary, even in the absence of explicit guidance or correction.

Many of these early OOV errors arise from issues in speech system design. Two design goals often come into conflict: keeping the active recognition vocabulary small to improve recognition speed and accuracy and providing a consistent and wide coverage vocabulary to the users to enhance flexibility and functionality. Stock quotes and weather searches are limited to a small subset of possible cases: technology stocks and major U.S. cities respectively. Errors arise as users, for instance, try to query Canadian cities. These limitations could be clarified in the system prompts. Likewise, only application-specific vocabulary and a small general vocabulary are active at any time. Users, rather naturally, generalize vocabulary use, and encounter a significant number of errors due to utterances that would be acceptable in another portion of the system. For example, “cancel” halts e-mail sending, but was erroneously used to try to stop other system activities. Thus, focusing on consistent vocabulary and structure across applications is desirable. Finally, since the system reads e-mail headers and bodies, the system inevitably violates the dictum that it should never say words that the system can not itself recognize. Users frequently try to use these terms themselves and learn over only time that they are not in the recognizer’s vocabulary. It is necessary to develop a strategy to differentiate this type of content from regular conversational turns, possibly through a different synthetic voice.

The skilled novice users still differ significantly from expert users in two respects: overall recognition accuracy and working vocabulary size. Novice users gradually remove ill-formed utterances from their input to the system. They achieve this result, in

part, by converging on a small working vocabulary in which they have high confidence. Interestingly, this vocabulary varies substantially among users, suggesting an advantage to the conversational interface that allows users more flexibility in their choice of words and constructions. We still find, though, that even if we exclude all errors resulting from out-of-vocabulary utterances from consideration, novice users suffer from significantly worse speech recognition performance than do the expert system developers. Many of these remaining errors involve speaking too soon, speaking too slowly, or speaking with lengthy pauses. These limitations in overall speech recognition accuracy and restricted vocabulary indicate that additional training that guides users to a suitable speaking style and full exploitation of the system’s vocabulary and capabilities is necessary for the competent novice users to become true experts.

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