Modeling Low-Resource Health Coaching Dialogues via Neuro-Symbolic Goal Summarization and Text-Units-Text Generation

Yue Zhou, Barbara Di Eugenio, Brian Ziebart, Lisa Sharp, Bing Liu and Nikolaos Agadakos

University of Illinois Chicago, Illinois, United States {yzhou232, bdieugen, bziebart, sharpl, liub, nagada2}@uic.edu

Abstract

Health coaching helps patients achieve personalized and lifestyle-related goals, effectively managing chronic conditions and alleviating mental health issues. It is particularly beneficial, however cost-prohibitive, for low-socioeconomic status populations due to its highly personalized and labor-intensive nature. In this paper, we propose a neuro-symbolic goal summarizer to support health coaches in keeping track of the goals and a text-units-text dialogue generation model that converses with patients and helps them create and accomplish specific goals for physical activities. Our models outperform previous state-of-the-art while eliminating the need for predefined schema and corresponding annotation. We also propose a new health coaching dataset extending previous work and a metric to measure the unconventionality of the patient's response based on data difficulty, facilitating potential coach alerts during deployment.

Keywords: Dialogue Systems, Neuro-Symbolic AI, NLP in Healthcare

1. Introduction

Health coaching is a patient-centered clinical practice that aims to help patients achieve personalized and lifestyle-related goals to enhance their health behaviors. It has demonstrated efficacy in managing chronic conditions like diabetes and cardiovascular disease, as well as alleviating mental health issues such as anxiety and depression (Butterworth et al., 2006; Ghorob, 2013; Kivelä et al., 2014; Thom et al., 2016). Health coaching is particularly advantageous for low-socioeconomic status (SES) populations, who endure a disproportionate burden of physical and mental health issues (Thackeray et al., 2004; Kangovi et al., 2014). Nonetheless, it is invariably cost-prohibitive for these populations due to its highly personalized and labor-intensive nature; additionally, it also reguires considerable time commitment since it normally spans several sessions across weeks or even months.

Recently, efforts have been undertaken to enhance the effectiveness of health coaching through natural language processing techniques. Our group (Gupta et al., 2020a,b, 2021) collected real-world datasets of health coaching conversations and proposed a goal summarization approach based on slot-filling and dialogue state tracking. We further improved goal summarization and introduced an efficient health coach dialogue system that supports empathetic response generation (Zhou et al., 2022). An excerpt of a health coaching conversation is illustrated in Table 1.

However, these works are based on simplified dialogue states (a set of goal attribute-value pairs) and require a designed schema with corresponding human annotations, which are not only laborintensive but also lose the global contextual information that is established over several sessions (in our case, from 4 to 8 weeks). In addition, the considerable length of each sample, together with the limited data size, poses significant challenges in healthcare dialogue modeling. To address these issues, we propose a neuro-symbolic goal summarization approach that eliminates the need for a pre-designed schema or corresponding annotations yet preserves interpretability. The model is optimized to (i) summarize the goal as effectively as possible, given the current week's dialogue, and (ii) generate an executable instruction on how to modify the summarized goal by referencing the goal from the previous week(s). We also introduce a text-units-text dialogue generation approach that considers as input a sequence of discrete units symbolizing the dialogue history. Moreover, we propose a more generalized approach to detect patient's unconventional responses by extending Point-wise V-usable Information (PVI) (Ethayarajh et al., 2022) for dialogue generation, without using any external datasets, contrasting with our previous work (Zhou et al., 2022). Finally, we introduce a novel health coaching dataset consisting of 1880 dialogue turns from 22 patient-coach conversations, each spanning up to 8 weeks. The dataset is enriched with Fitbit data, which tracks the progress of patients' goals. We aim to augment

Excerpt of Patient-Coach Conversation # 17 Week # 7
Coach: Hi [Name]! I hope you had a great weekend :) You are now in the second to last week of the study!
Coach: Your goal last week was to reach 7000 steps everyday - you got close!
Coach: Did you want to keep your walking goal the same this week or lower it a bit?
Patient: You can lower it to 5000
Coach: Okay, sounds good - and what days are you thinking to do 5,000 steps?
Patient: 7 days
Coach: awesome - and what's your confidence on a scale from 1-10 that you can reach this goal?
Coach: Hi [Name] - you're doing a really great job with your goal this week.
Coach: You got over 11,000 steps on Monday and yesterday - that's over double your goal! Amazing job :)
Patient: Thanks and you too
Coach: Hi [Name] - Great job reaching your goal last week. You got over 5,000 steps all 7 days! You should be really proud of yourself :)
Excerpt of Patient-Coach Conversation # 17 Week # 8
Coach: This is your last week in the study - what would you like your final walking goal to be?
Patient: Stay the same as last week.

Table 1: An excerpt from a health coaching conversation from our dataset. Each week the coach and patient collaboratively establish a feasible goal. Then, the coach monitors the patient's progress, maintains the patient's engagement, and addresses the patient's concerns. The coach may discuss the goal by referring to the goal settled before.

the existing health coaching datasets and provide a more robust testing benchmark for health coaching modeling, particularly in potential domain-shift scenarios.

We evaluate our model by both automatic metrics and expert-based human evaluation. Experimental results show that our neuro-symbolic goal summarizer outperforms the current state-of-theart by up to ~30% in semantic frame accuracy. In addition, our text-unit-text dialogue generation achieved the best performance compared to previous work in all metrics for all datasets. Health coaches prefer our generated responses over the previous state-of-the-art 33.9% of the time, while the vice versa happens 19.6% (the rest are ties).

Our contributions are (1) a data-efficient neurosymbolic goal summarization model and text-unitstext dialogue generation model for health coaching, which outperform previous state-of-the-art while eliminating the need for predefined schema and corresponding annotation; (2) a metric measuring the unconventionality of the patient's response in terms of data difficulty, facilitating potential coach alert during deployment and data characterization during training; and (3) a novel health coaching dataset.

2. Related Work

Conversational Agents in Healthcare. Conversational agents have been employed in healthcare to enhance the efficiency and scalability of interactions between healthcare professionals and patients. For instance, chatbots have been utilized in various healthcare contexts, such as chronic disease monitoring (Chaix et al., 2020), cognitive behavior therapy (Fitzpatrick et al., 2017), and physical activity promotion (Mohan et al., 2020;

Kocielnik et al., 2018). Nevertheless, these systems often exhibit limitations in their natural language understanding and generation capabilities. More advanced approaches have been proposed for mental health counseling (Althoff et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2020) and health coaching. Our group (Gupta et al., 2020a,b, 2021) collected two realworld health coaching conversation datasets, focusing on the NLU components that summarize weekly goals to support health coaches. Building upon these datasets, we developed a data-efficient health coaching dialogue system with a simplified NLU and NLG framework and mechanismconditioned empathetic response generation (Zhou et al., 2022). In recent years, there has been a shift in domain-specific dialogue systems from modularized and NLU-NLG component-based designs (Jokinen and McTear, 2009; Williams et al., 2016; Budzianowski et al., 2018; Mrkšić et al., 2017; Wen et al., 2015) towards end-to-end architectures to reduce human effort and error propagation between modules (Hosseini-Asl et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2021).

Neuro-symbolic Approaches have recently gained significant attention due to their ability to facilitate end-to-end while leveraging symbols for interpretability and data-efficient training. Mao et al. (2019) proposed a neuro-symbolic concept learner that combines the strengths of both neural networks and symbolic logic, demonstrating improved performance in visual question-answering tasks. Lamb et al. (2019) introduced the Neuro-Symbolic Transformer, which leverages symbolic reasoning within a transformer-based architecture in text classification tasks. De Raedt et al. (2019) proposed a neuro-symbolic approach that demonstrates the potential of neuro-symbolic systems in handling

complex reasoning tasks. Another work in this area is the exploration of end-to-end differentiable natural logic modeling (Feng et al., 2020). Dong and Lapata (2018) proposed a coarse-to-fine decoding method for neural semantic parsing, utilizing a structure-aware neural architecture. Arabshahi et al. (2021) explores a neuro-symbolic approach for enhancing conversational dialogue systems with commonsense reasoning capabilities. Garcez et al. (2018) provides a comprehensive survey and taxonomy of approaches that combine neural and symbolic methods for learning and reasoning in Al systems.

3. Health Coaching Datasets

Background A health coaching process often starts with a goal-setting stage where the coach discusses creating a S.M.A.R.T. goal with the patient, namely a goal that is specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound (Doran, 1981). Once the goal is settled, the coach will monitor the patient's progress and maintain patient engagement. Our research group (Gupta et al., 2020a) collected two datasets (dataset 1 and 2) of health coaching dialogues between patients and coaches via text messages. Previously, we defined ten slots for the goal's attributes (types of activity, amount, time, days, location, duration, and the confidence score for the activity). We also used a stage-phase schema for additional turn-level annotation and added dialogue act annotations in our later work (Gupta et al., 2021).

New Human Data Collection Emulating their settings, we recruited four health coaches trained in SMART goal setting and a cohort of 22 patients. The study was conducted over eight weeks. The communication between the coach and the patient was facilitated through text messaging applications, and Fitbits were provided to monitor patients' activity progress. However, six patients withdrew in the early weeks of the study. Consequently, the dataset comprised 1880 dialogue turns over 102 weeks. The datetime of messages, interlocutors, dialogue content, Fitbit action data, and patient and health coach IDs are available for each dialogue. The data were thoroughly anonymized. In contrast to the first two rounds of data, we retained the emoji tokens in the dataset for future analysis. Data statistics are shown in 2. A sample of the health coaching conversation between the patient and health coach is presented in Table 1. The full dataset is available at https://github.com/uic-nlplab/virtualcoachdata/.

	#P/C	#W	#T	#T/(W,P)
Dataset 1	27/1	4	2,853	26.6
Dataset 2	28/3	5-8	4,134	18.8
Ours	22/4	2-8	1,880	18.4

Table 2: Dataset Statistics. #P/C, #W, #T, #T/(W,P) refer to the number of patients/health coaches involved, study weeks, total dialogue turns, average turns per patient per week.

4. Methods

This section presents the two integral components of our health coaching dialogue system: the Neuro-Symbolic Goal Summarizer and the Neuro-Symbolic Dialogue Generator.

4.1. Neuro-Symbolic Goal Summarizer

The task of goal summarization involves processing the dialogue history between the health coach and the patient to generate the negotiated goal in natural language. The dialogues in health coaching often span multiple weeks. When the coach discusses the current week's goal, they may refer back to the attributes of the goal implemented in the previous week. However, incorporating all text from previous weeks can result in excessively long inputs, which, given the limited dialogue samples, can be challenging to train on. Our previous research (Zhou et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2021) approached this task by formulating it as dialogue state tracking, where the state is defined as a set of goal attribute-value pairs. However, these methods require a pre-defined schema with corresponding annotations and a separate slot-filling module, which do not optimally utilize the entire context, resulting in compromised information.

To address these challenges, we aim to provide a data-efficient and end-to-end vet interpretable solution and propose a neuro-symbolic approach for goal summarization. The approach considers the dialogue of the current week while referencing the previous week's goal. In addition, it does not require a schema or corresponding annotations. We aim to optimize the model to summarize the goal, focusing on two key aspects: (i) summarizing the goal as effectively and comprehensively as possible, given the *current* dialogue, and (ii) generating a feasible instruction on how to modify the summarized goal from (i) based on the previous goal. As an example depicted in Figure 1, the coach elaborates on the goal for week w_t by referencing the goal established in the preceding week w_{t-1} ("same days?"). Our model learns to generate an executable instruction (Copy {Days}) and extract the partial goal ("Walk 2,500 steps") from the current week's dialogue, and execute the instruction on the referenced previous week's goal to generate the complete goal summarization: *"Walk 2,500 steps from Monday to Friday."*

To achieve that, we formulate the problem within the context of Reinforcement Learning (RL), specifically utilizing the Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017) framework. We maximize the following training objective:

objective
$$(\phi) = \mathbb{E}(x, y) \sim D_{\pi_{\phi}^{RL}}[r(y, y^*|x) - \lambda \operatorname{KL}(\pi_{\phi}(y|x))| \pi_{base}(y|x))]$$
 (1)

where π_{ϕ} is the learned RL policy (e.g., the language model to be fine-tuned) and π_{base} is the untouched pre-trained language model. r is the reward function (we use ROUGE score (Lin, 2004)), and the KL term is the Kullback-Leibler Divergence as regularization. We aim to optimize the likelihood of the generated sequences, comprising partial goals and instructions, that Instruction{Partial Goal, Reference} subsequently results in ground truth summarization. The full set of instructions (e.g., Add {Num}, Copy {Times}) will be available in the Appendix.

4.2. Text-Units-Text Dialogue Generator

4.2.1. Generation with Unit Symbols

A prevalent issue in healthcare dialogue datasets is the extensive length of each sample, associated with the limited number of samples. Training a sequence-to-sequence generation model using a long context window presents a significant challenge. However, an interesting observation is that healthcare dialogues typically follow a similar pattern. For instance, health coaching invariably begins with the coach discussing a realistic goal with the patient, confirming each aspect of the goal, such as activity, amount, day, and times. Once the goal is established, the coach monitors the patient's progress and sustains patient engagement.

Inspired by this observation and the recent success of speech-to-unit modules that predict the discrete representations of the speech (Lee et al., 2022; Lakhotia et al., 2021), we explore the possibility of utilizing a short context window while preserving the dialogue history information through symbolic abstraction in text-to-text dialogue generation. Specifically, our response generation incorporates the following two models:

Dialogue-History-to-Unit Encoder encodes the long dialogue history into discrete unit symbols using out-of-box pre-trained language models and unsupervised approaches. We first encode each turn of the conversation in the training dialogues with SBERT, then run k-means clustering to obtain K clusters; we subsequently designate the cluster indices as units. Despite the unique details of each dialogue, we anticipate a similar sequence of units to emerge as each dialogue progresses. Furthermore, the total number of units in a dialogue can indicate the dialogue's progression length.

Units-to-Text Generation We propose a sequence-to-sequence model that generates responses for a virtual coach. The model takes as inputs a sequence of discrete units $N_1, ..., N_{t-1}$ symbolizing the dialogue history, the most recent dialogue turns from the coach C_{t-1} and the patient U_{t-1} , and a partial goal G_{t-1} summarized as discussed in Section (4.1) based on the current dialogue. All inputs are concatenated as a single sequence. Then the generated virtual coach response R_t is defined as:

$$R_t = \text{Seq2Seq}([N_1, ..., N_{t-1}, G_{t-1}, R_{t-1}, U_{t-1}])$$
(2)

4.2.2. Measuring Data Difficulty of User Responses

Identifying unconventional user responses is vital in domain-specific dialogue systems to circumvent system failures due to unsupported user inputs. It can be particularly critical in healthcare settings, where patients often express concerns and emotions that exceed the system's capabilities or do not respond directly to the system's prompts. The unconventional inputs from patients, coupled with the limited availability of healthcare training data, can pose significant challenges to the model's training process. In this work, we show the potential of leveraging data difficulty to identify unusual patient inputs.

Data difficulty metrics categorize data into easyto-learn and difficult-to-learn examples based on training dynamics (Pleiss et al., 2020; Swayamdipta et al., 2020) or mutual information (Xu et al., 2020; Ethayarajh et al., 2022). Previous research primarily focuses on classification tasks, where a difficult-to-learn example typically signifies that the example is mislabeled. Xu et al. (2020) propose a framework called predictive *V*-information to measure how much information can be extracted or learned from input Xabout its label Y when constrained to functions or a model family \mathcal{V} . The predictive \mathcal{V} -information, $I_{\mathcal{V}}(X \to Y)$ is defined as the difference between predictive \mathcal{V} -entropy $H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y)$ and conditional \mathcal{V} entropy $H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y|X)$:

$$I_{\mathcal{V}}(X \to Y) = H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y) - H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y|X)$$
(3)

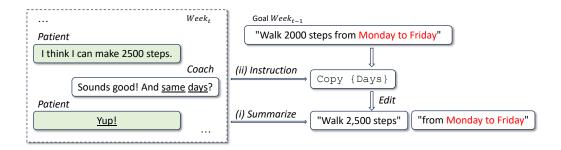


Figure 1: A simplified demonstration of Neuro-Symbolic Goal Summarization. The health coach discusses the goal for week w_t by referring to the goal set in the previous week w_{t-1} ("same days?"). Our model is trained to generate an executable instruction ($Copy \{Days\}$) and to extract the partial goal ("Walk 2,500 steps") from the dialogue of the *current* week. The model then edits the partial goal by applying the instruction to the reference previous goal, resulting in the comprehensive goal summary: "Walk 2,500 steps from Monday to Friday."

The greater the $I_{\mathcal{V}}(X \to Y)$, the easier the dataset is for \mathcal{V} . Extending from Xu et al. (2020), Ethayarajh et al. (2022) propose **Point-wise** \mathcal{V} -**usable Information (PVI)** to measure the information in the *individual* instance usable by a model family \mathcal{V} with respect to the data distribution. The PVI of an instance (x, y) is defined as:

$$PVI(x \rightarrow y) = -\log_2 g'_y(\emptyset) + \log_2 g_y(x) \quad (4)$$

where $g' \in \mathcal{V}$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[-\log g'_Y(\emptyset)] = H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y)$ and $g \in \mathcal{V}$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[-\log g_Y(X)] = H_{\mathcal{V}}(Y|X)$. If \mathcal{V} were the BERT function family, g and g' would be the models after finetuning BERT with and without the input, respectively. An instance with a large negative PVI value is considered as "difficult," showing that the model can better predict the majority class when ignoring X, which often indicates the instance is mislabeled.

Inspired by their work, we aim to explore the difficulty in predicting user responses given the most recent dialogue context, which will provide insights into the degree of unconventionality or surprise in the user's response and its divergence from the dataset distribution. This approach could additionally serve as an easy-to-implement and general out-of-domain detection, eliminating the need to construct a separate domain-specific detection classifier (e.g., empathy detector (Zhou et al., 2022)). To achieve this, we propose an *extension to the PVI* in sequence-to-sequence *generation* as:

$$PVI(x \rightarrow y) = -\sum_{t=1}^{n} log(p(y_t|y_{< t}, \varnothing))$$

$$+\sum_{t=1}^{n} log(p(y_t|y_{< t}, x))$$

$$+\sum_{t=1}^{n} log(p(y_t|y_{< t}, x))$$

$$+\sum_{t=1}^{n} log(p(y_t|y_{< t}, x))$$

where x and y are the sequence of the dialogue context and the user response, and g and g' are the generative models after fine-tuning with and without the dialogue context, respectively. An instance (user response) with a large negative PVI value is considered "difficult," showing that the model can better predict the user response when ignoring the context, indicating the unconventionally in the user response.

The difficulty metric we propose serves two functions: Firstly, it assists in identifying unconventional patient responses during deployment. If such a response were detected, the system could alert the human coach, indicating potential patient concerns that require attention or suggesting that the patient's utterance or question may not be within the system's capabilities. Secondly, the difficulty metric acts as a data filter during training. It categorizes our limited data into subsets of easy-to-learn and hard-to-learn instances, facilitating possible curriculum learning or denoising approaches for our system.

5. Experiments

5.1. Experimental Settings

To ensure comparability, we use dataset 1 and dataset 2 from Gupta et al. (2021) for training/development and testing, following our previous work (Zhou et al., 2022). We also employ identical model architecture backbones as before, specifically utilizing T5 (Raffel et al., 2020) for the goal summarization task and GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) for the response generation task. We additionally evaluate model response generation performance on our newly collected dataset 3 for generalizability in possible domain-shifting. To mitigate inefficient sampling, we manually annotate 40 positive examples. We also use two T5-base models for our PVI-generation metrics. We choose k = 15

Model	D1 (F)	D1 (B)	D2
Gupta et al. (2021)	15	13.1	-
Zhou et al. (2022)	21.7	31.6	13.6
Ours	52.3	44.8	46.7

Table 3: Goal summarization performance by semantic frame correctness. D1 (F), D1 (B), and D2 refer to dataset 1 (Forward), dataset 1 (backward), and dataset 2. Our model outperforms previous work by a significant margin in all three datasets.

for deriving the discrete units. Further details and model parameters will be available in the Appendix.

Evaluation Metrics We use semantic frame correctness for evaluating the goal summarization, which is identical to goal correctness@k with k = 10, used by our previous work (Gupta et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2022). For dialogue response generation, we use BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), BertScore (Zhang et al., 2020), and Perplexity (PPL). We measure fluency as perplexity (PPL) of the generated response using a pre-trained GPT2 model that has not been fine-tuned for this task, following previous work (Ma et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2021).

5.2. Results

We compare our Neuro-symbolic Summarization model with the best performance reported by Gupta et al. (2021) and Zhou et al. (2022) in Table 3. D1 (F), D1 (B), and D2 refer to dataset 1 (Forward), dataset 1 (backward), and dataset 2. Forward and Backward refer to the two points where they labeled the goals for each week: one at the end of the goal-setting stage (forward) and the other at the end of the goal-implementation stage (backward). Our approach improves semantic frame correctness by a significant margin ($\sim 20\% - \sim 30\%$), compared with previous work that utilizes the traditional slot-filling and state-tracking framework.

Table 4 shows the model performance on dialogue response generation. We employ two settings to train our response generation model: (1) Original. Using the original data, and (2) Low-PVI-Replace. substituting the patient's response, which has been assigned a large negative PVI value, with an alternative response from a similar context with a positive PVI in the training set. This context is identified by locating the semantically closest previous coach utterance using sentence-BERT embeddings. We substitute 5% of the patient's utterances, prioritizing those with the most negative PVI values in the training set. We acknowledge that patient utterances with low negative PVI values are not necessarily "noise," and such substitutions could potentially disrupt the coherence of subsequent dialogues. However, we have found that this replacement strategy generally aids our model's convergence, particularly with limited training data. Our model (both with and without PVI fix) outperforms previous work on both dataset 2 and our newly collected dataset in all metrics. We have identified a domain shift in our collected dataset, characterized by patients exhibiting less verbal communication and increased usage of emojis. Coaches have adapted to maintain the continuity of the dialogue by becoming more talkative. The domain shift negatively impacted our model's performance.

Human Evaluation We conducted an expert-led assessment of the generated coach responses via A/B testing. Four health coaches were consulted to evaluate our model's outputs compared to those from previous state-of-the-art (Zhou et al., 2022), given the same dialogue histories. The coaches were asked to select one of the following options: (a) Response A is most suitable in the given context; (b) Response B is most suitable in the given context; (c) Tie; both responses are equally good, or (d) Neither is appropriate. Among 56 collected samples, our model's outputs have a 14.29% preference over previous state-of-the-art (Zhou et al., 2022) (as the difference between the preferences for one or the other). However, approximately 30%of the generated responses were not deemed appropriate by our experts. This indicates the ongoing challenge of generating high-quality health coaching responses, particularly given the constraints of limited data and the sensitive nature of health-related interactions. See Figure 2.

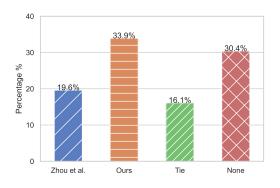


Figure 2: Human evaluation of generated response by health coaches. Our model's outputs have a 14.29% preference over previous state-of-theart (Zhou et al., 2022).

		Data 2			Data 3	
Model	BLEU (↑)	PPL (↓)	BertS F1 (↑)	BLEU (↑)	PPL (↓)	BertS F1 (↑)
Zhou et al. (2022)	25.1	15.6	87.2	20.6	19.7	83.5
OURS+Original	26.7	14.7	88	22.5	16.7	84.4
OURS+Low-PVI-Replace	28.4	14.1	89.2	23.7	15.3	84.1

Table 4: Evaluation on dialogue generation. BLEU: Average of BLEU-1,-2,-3,-4. BertS F1: Averaged BERT-score F1. Our model (both with and without PVI fix) outperforms previous work on both dataset 2 and our newly collected dataset 3 in all metrics. Nevertheless, the performance of all models diminishes on dataset 3 due to possible distribution shifts.

5.3. Qualitative Analysis

We present the output examples from our neurosymbolic goal summarizer and dialogue generator, comparing them to previous work. We also demonstrate generation from GPT-3.5-turbo¹ (two-shot in-context exemplars due to the input context limit), highlighting the limitation of utilizing LLMs in lowresource healthcare settings.

Table 5 compares goal summarization results from various models given the same dialogue history example. The dialogue example contains misleading information, such as "Friday" and "2 miles a day" (highlighted in red in the Table), while the part of the ground-truth information is in the previous goal ("7 days a week"), as indicated by the bolded text "same as last week" that coach and patient agree to. Our previous methodologies, which rely on slot-filling and update dialogue states as the goal by either the last appearance of the slotvalue (Gupta et al., 2021) or a carryover classification (Zhou et al., 2022) and neglect the global context, fail to extract the correct goal information. In contrast, not only does our model summarize "3 miles" from the dialogue but also generates the instruction of *copy(days)*, applying this instruction to the previous goal to complete the summarization with "7 days a week." Moreover, our model delivers outputs in a natural language format, which is more user-friendly and comprehensible, particularly for health coaches, compared to the slot-values format. Lastly, the result from GPT3.5-turbo only captures partial information but asserts that the goal is a well-defined SMART goal.

As illustrated in Table 6, our Extended Point-wise \mathcal{V} -usable Information (PVI) for Generation measures unconventionality in the patient's response given the dialogue context. A significantly negative value indicates that the model struggles to anticipate the response, implying a higher degree of surprise in the patient's response. Conversely, a positive value suggests a more predictable and conventional response. Responses that either fail to directly address the coach's question (example #1-3) or fall outside the domain of the conversation (example #4, the patient intended to show her

dog named King watching Youtube) are assigned a negative value. On the other hand, if the patient's response closely aligns with the coach's utterance, PVI will be positive. Interestingly, the response "short of breath" is unconventional while aligning with the coach's question, resulting in a moderately low value.

Table 7 shows response generation outputs from different models. In Dialogue #1, the model by (Zhou et al., 2022) failed to generate a coherent response due to the model's conditioning on the state of goal slot values while disregarding the critical contextual information ("set the same goals"). Interestingly, GPT-3.5 recognizes the patient's adherence to their goals but still prompts for a new goal definition. However, our model generates a coherent response that benefits from accurate Neuro-symbolic goal summarization. In Dialogue #2, Our previous model failed to generate an appropriate response due to an error in updating the goal stage. The model incorrectly predicts the dialogue to be in the goal-setting stage, hence attempting to fill the empty attribute of the goal (e.g., days). In contrast, our NS generation does not utilize or predict stage information. Instead, it infers the dialogue progression, which is more likely to be in the goal implementation stage, based on a sequence of discrete units. It then focuses on the patient's concerns rather than completing the goals. Surprisingly, GPT3.5 failed to respond to the patient's concern, even when explicitly indicated in the prompt. The complete prompt for GPT3.5 dialogue generation can be found in the appendix.

6. Conclusion

We propose a neuro-symbolic goal summarization approach that (i) summarizes the goal as effectively as possible, given the current week's dialogue, and (ii) generates an executable instruction on modifying the summarized goal by referencing the previous goal. We also build a text-units-text dialogue generation approach that considers as input a sequence of discrete units symbolizing the dialogue history. Our models outperform previous state-of-the-art while eliminating the need for a predesigned schema or corresponding annotations.

¹https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/chat

Dialogue + [Previous Goal: walk 2 miles a day 7 days a week.] Coach: Also, what would you like to set as your SMART goal this week? Patient: Hey bro last Friday I met my goal but I didn't have the Fitbit on. Patient: On Tuesday I had it on but it went dead. I met my goal on that day also. My goal for this week is 2 miles a day. Coach: No problem, making the goal is most important. Your body is your tracker. Patient: Ok I'm excited and thanks for your help. Coach: Okay so you want to stick with your same goal as last week? FYI 2 miles is 4000 steps. Patient: Let's make it 3 miles. Coach: Base on your steps the first week I think 3 miles a day is doable if we monitor your step and have a plan... Coach: How many days do you want to go for? Patient: Same as last week? Coach: Sure. And last what might get in the way of you accomplishing your goal? Patient: Nothing. Patient: I'm ready. Coach: Sounds like a plan. Good luck!! Model Predictions Gupta et al. (2021): {Activity:Steps, Amount: [3 miles, 4000 steps], daytimes:Tuesday} Zhou et al. (2022): {Activity:Walk, Amount: 3 miles, daytimes: Friday}

Ours: Walk 3 miles a day 7 days a week. Instruction:Copy{Days}

GPT-3.5-turbo: "Goal: 3 miles a day." - This goal is Specific (3 miles), Measurable (can be tracked by steps or distance), Achievable (based on the patient's previous performance), Relevant (to the patient's fitness objectives), and Time-bound (for the duration of the week). It's a well-defined and attainable goal.

Table 5: Qualitative examples of summarized goal from different models.

Dialogue Context $ ightarrow$ Patient Response	PVI
Coach: and one last thing, how would you rate the goal? $ ightarrow$ Patient: yes and yes.	-0.11
Coach: What would you like to set as your SMART goal this week? -> Patient: Bam! Did you see the weekend?	-0.259
Coach: Great and what days it will be? $ ightarrow$ Patient: Yes, but we can move it up to 8,000 steps.	-0.391
Coach: It's also important to be kind to yourself. $ ightarrow$ Patient: This is King. Looking at Youtube.	-0.57
Coach: Great would you be available at 9am or 11am? \rightarrow Patient: 11am	1.875
Coach: How confident are you that you can reach your goal on a scale from 1 - 10? \rightarrow Patient: 10. Absolutely.	1.498
Coach: what days would you like to do the elliptical? $ ightarrow$ Patient: Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday.	1.096
Coach: oh no! I'm sorry to hear that. What happened? \rightarrow Patient: Short of breath.	0.78

Table 6: Our Extended Point-wise \mathcal{V} -usable Information (PVI) for Generation measures unpredictability in the patient's response given the dialogue context. A large negative value shows the model's difficulty in predicting the response, indicating a higher degree of surprise in the patient's response. On the other hand, a positive value indicates a more predictable and conventional response.

Dialogue #1
Coach: Hi [Name], hope you're well. I forgot to message you yesterday to set your goal for Week 6, my apologies!
Coach: You met your goal 5 out of 7 days last week, great job What would you like to do for this week?
Patient: Gd morning [Name], I am going to set the same goals. With a 7 confidence.
Model Response
Zhou et al. (2022): That's great. And think about what activity would you like to set for your goal? Walks, stairs, etc
Ours: Ok, great! Can you think of any barriers that might prevent your goal?
GPT-3.5-turbo: That's fantastic to hear that you're sticking to your goals! Let's make sure it's a SMART goal for Week 6.
Can you provide more details about the goal, like the specific number of steps or any changes in frequency, time, or location?
Dialogue #2
Coach: Hi [Name]! Hope you had a good weekend and were able to stay cool/dry! How are you feeling about your 5,000 steps goal this week?
Patient: Good morning. I'm feeling good about it. I will start today (Monday) this weekend I had a party on Saturday and rested on Sunday.
Coach: Sounds like a fun weekend! I'm excited to see your steps for today and the rest of the week!
Patient: Loved "Sounds like a fun weekend! Im excited to see your steps for today and the rest of the week!"
Coach: You are totally crushing your goal this week! Great job! Keep it up!
Patient: Thank you.
Coach: Reminder to sync your Fitbit!
Patient: What do you mean? Are you unable to track me?
Model Response
Zhou et al. (2022): What days?
Ours: Oh, Just wanted to remind you.
GPT-3.5-turbo: That's great to hear you're feeling good about your goal! How many days this week do you plan to aim for those 5,000 steps?

Table 7: Qualitative examples and error analysis for response generation.

This significantly minimizes the annotation labor cost and development cycle, benefiting healthcare and other resource-constrained scenarios. The framework also exhibits the potential for generalization to other applications, including developing dialogue systems in patient education upon discharge or consultations regarding behavioral change issues. However, there remains to be a disparity between the responses generated by the model and those of expert human levels. Given the nature of data limits and sensitivity in healthcare, generating human-level, fair, and faithful outputs while ensuring the model's interpretability is a significant and challenging direction for future exploration.

7. Acknowledgments

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A. Instruction Set

The full set of instruction on goal editing based on the reference is shown in Table 8.

Instruction	Explanation
" "	Pass
Copy {Times}	Copy times, e.g., "after 8 pm"
Copy {Days}	Copy days, e.g., "Mon-Fri"
Copy {Num}	Copy number, e.g., "3000 steps"
Add {Num}	Add number from previous goal.
Add {Days}	Add days from previous goal.
Copy {All}	Copy all info from previous.

Table 8: The executable instructions we used in the neuro-symbolic goal summarization.

B. Prompts

We show the templates we use when prompting the language model for goal summarization and response generation.

```
Prompt for Goal Summarization: Summarize
the SMART goal discussed in the
health coaching dialogue. The goal
attributes include details such
as the activity (e.g., walking),
the quantity of the activity
(e.g., 4000 steps), the schedule
(e.g., Monday-Friday, after 4 pm),
locations, and more:/n
```

Prompt for Response Generation: As a health coach, your task is to refine the patient's goal into a SMART goal. Ask for details like frequency, time, duration, location, and confidence level, but only one aspect at a time. After establishing the goal, monitor the patient's progress and keep them engaged. Always address their concerns concisely. Now, consider the following dialogue context and formulate your response:/n

C. Quantitative Results of LLMs

Due to resource constraints, we run the goal summarization and dialogue generation on 100 randomly selected examples with GPT-3.5-turbo. We show the results in Table 9.

D. Training Details

All the following models use Huggingface Transformers Library (Wolf et al., 2020). The hyperparameters are not extensively fine-tuned.

Response Generation				
PPL	23.6			
BLEU	14.21			
BertScore	85.62			
Goal Summarization				
Semantic Frame Acc	41.0			

Table 9: Performance of GPT-3.5-turbo on sampled response generation and goal summarization data.

For the goal summarizer, we use T5-base as the model backbone. To mitigate inefficient sampling, we manually annotate 40 positive examples, i.e., the sequences of instructions and partial goals that result in ground truth. The model was first finetuned with dialogue-to-goal pairs and then with the 40 examples we labeled. Finally, we contrast the sampled negative examples (the ones that fail) with the positive examples to update the gradient.

We also use two T5-base models to train our PVI-generation metrics. Model g was trained with the context mapping to the patient response for two epochs, while g' was trained with an empty context with one epoch.

For dialogue generation, we choose k = 15 for deriving the discrete units. We use GPT-2-large as the model backbone with a max sequence length set to 128 since the dialogue history has been symbolized as discrete units. The model was trained for 7.0 epochs with a learning rate of 1e-4, with a batch size of 16. We use sampling during decoding with top-k set to 40 and top-p set to 1.