

Interaction Strategies for an Affective Conversational Agent

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Abstract.

The development of Embodied Conversational Agents (ECA) as Companions brings several challenges for both affective and conversational dialogue. These include challenges in generating appropriate affective responses, selecting the overall shape of the dialogue, providing prompt system response times and handling interruptions. We present an implementation of such a Companion showing the development of individual modules that attempt to address these challenges. Further, to resolve

resulting conflicts, we present encompassing interaction strategies that attempt to balance the competing requirements along with dialogues from our working prototype to illustrate these interaction strategies in operation. Finally, we provide the results of an evaluation of the Companion using an evaluation methodology created for conversational dialogue and including analysis using appropriateness annotation.

1 Introduction

An emerging concept in recent years has been that of a social agent which focuses more on the relationship it can establish with a human user than on the assistance or information it can provide for a practical task. This concept of a “Companion” is particularly significant for Embodied Conversational Agent (ECA) research where the notion of companionship emerges from the overall communicative abilities of the ECA (that is, embodied and conversational aspects feeding into affective dialogue). Yet, there are also significant technical challenges encountered here in the integration of linguistic communication and non-verbal behaviour for affective dialogue (André et al., 2004).

In this paper, we present the implementation of a companion ECA integrating all the above aspects into a single prototype, in a way which supports conversational phenomena one would expect from affective dialogue, namely lengthy utterances on both sides and interruptions. This presentation mainly focuses on the interaction strategies supported by the agent, which support the principled integration of the large number of software components required to analyse user input, reason upon the situation, control the flow of dialogue and generate appropriate ECA responses and multimodal behaviours. Our main objective is to give an insight into these interaction strategies and to illustrate the Companion’s performance with detailed examples from a fully-implemented prototype.



Figure 1. The Companion during a typical dialogue.

2 System Overview and Application

The Companion (as shown in Figure 1) presents itself as an ECA with which the user can engage in free conversation, albeit on a select set of topics. As an application scenario, we wanted an everyday life domain that would support conversation with some affective content. We opted for a scenario in which the user, a typical office worker, returns home and talks about the day's events. We refer to this as the "How was your day?" (HWYD) scenario. The system currently supports over 40 work-based conversational topics, with further discussion of a range of influencing factors and event outcomes, across a range of emotional situations. By definition, the conversation is not task-oriented (unless one considers a very high level task of supporting the user through positively influencing their attitudes) and follows a mixed-initiative paradigm. User initiative, as expected, takes a central role, but without reducing the Companion to a passive, although sympathetic, listener. As evidenced by the example dialogues of Figures 5, 6 and 7, the Companion will attempt to offer appropriate advice as soon as it has assessed the user situation and considers such advice as appropriate.

Our system integrates no less than 15 different software components covering aspects of multimodal affective input, affective dialogue processing, interruption management and multimodal affective output. The software architecture integrating these components follows a blackboard philosophy (Englemore and Morgan, 1988), which provides the control flexibility required to implement various interaction strategies (see below). The system (Figure 2) comprises speech, language, reasoning and animation modules. Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) is provided by Nuance's Dragon NaturallySpeaking, whilst Text-To-Speech (TTS) is an extension of Loquendo's commercial system developed as part of this project. The ECA appearance and animation are based on the Haptex™ toolkit. As expected, all dialogue and Natural Language Understanding (NLU) modules are proprietary. Emotional aspects are pervasive in these modules but their inclusion depends on the module itself: the animation module for the ECA naturally supports non-verbal behaviour and the expression of emotions, whilst our Text-To-Speech system has been specifically extended to support emotional markers. Finally, some modules are entirely dedicated to affective processing: the recognition of emotional categories from speech is based on the EmoVoice (Vogt et al., 2008) system, the affective content of utterances' transcripts is uncovered using a Sentiment Analysis module (Moilanen and Pulman, 2007). Depending on the interaction strategy considered, these modules will be used separately or their output will be merged using an Emotional Model performing multimodal fusion of affective categories. In this system, multimodality is primarily dedicated to affective aspects, both in terms of input (emotional contents of speech/voice and transcribed utterances) and output (ECA speech, facial expressions and gestures).

Affective dialogue processing is lead by the Dialogue Manager (DM), which supports traditional functions such as managing clarification dialogue and repair. It further makes use of the more specific Affective Strategy Module (ASM) for generating complex affective utterances and a Natural Language Generation (NLG) module for realising replies into utterances for the multimodal affective output stage. The multimodal affective output is coordinated by the Multimodal Fission Manager (MFM) which controls both the ECA and Text-To-Speech modules. This is all overseen by an interruption management layer coordinated by the Interruption Manager (IM). The necessity to control turn-taking and interruptions has led to the incorporation of specific speech modules: the Acoustic Analysis (AA) and Acoustic Turn Taking (ATT) modules, which input into a Dialogue Act Tagger (DAT).

Natural language processing was also adapted to the objectives of affective dialogue and free conversation. The techniques used, including tagging, shallow parsing, named entity identification and contextual reference resolution, resemble Information Extraction and provide a robust coverage of the longer utterances, compared to previous dialogue systems, found in non-task orientated conversations.

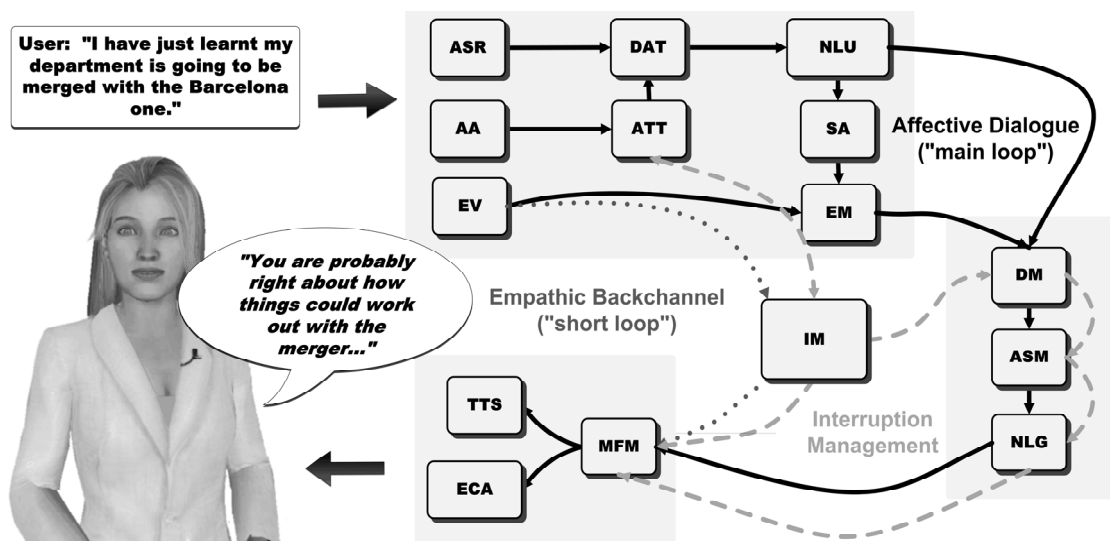


Figure 2. System components with principal interaction loops (see text for details).

3 Interaction Strategies

The majority of language-enabled ECA have been developed in the context of task-based dialogue; this was dictated by both application constraints and linguistic coverage. However, the very idea of a companion agent assumes a level of conversation which is disconnected from any immediate task, and in particular is freed from strict constraints on the nature of dialogue.

Therefore several traditional assumptions which have presided over the formalisation of human-computer dialogue may need to be relaxed when exploring affective conversation. In everyday life, many inter-human conversations see one of the participants relating events through lengthy descriptions, without this corresponding to any specific request or encompassing speech act. Our objective was to support such free conversation, whilst still obtaining meaningful answers from the Companion in the form of advice appropriate both to the affective and informational content of the conversation.

In order to balance the constraints of free conversation with those of tractability, we have deliberately opted for a single-topic conversation, in contrast both to small talk (Bickmore and Cassell, 1999) and ‘chatterbot’ approaches. It should be noted that even ‘chatterbots’ fail to depart from the conventions of human-computer dialogue, and most often feature dialogues in which user and agent utterances alternate rather strictly (De Angeli and Brahnam, 2008).

Our individual components seek to address some of the challenges of conversational dialogue: affective input, longer utterances, balancing clarification dialogue with long-form responses and the generation of these long-form responses. Yet individual optimisations only tackle part of the problem and can often introduce further problems of their own. As such, we additionally sought a more holistic approach; several

interaction strategies allowing the different components to work together effectively, each strategy catering to different requirements of a Companion.

In the following sections we look in detail at the interaction strategies available before going on to provide examples from our implemented system showing the various interaction strategies in operation.

3.1 “Short Loop” Interaction: an Empathic Backchannel

Previous work has amply demonstrated the importance of backchannels in human-agent conversation (Cassell and Thorisson, 1999) (Morency et al., 2008) (Kopp et al., 2007) (Bevacqua et al., 2008). In addition, the processing time required by the complete affective dialogue system, which includes reasoning upon the user’s situation and the appropriateness of her emotional reaction, still exceeds recommended response time for dialogue systems, being on average over 3 seconds. This makes it essential to provide a real-time (< 700ms) yet relevant backchannel to the user, which is able to acknowledge user interaction and provide an initial response appropriate to the affective context even without a full analysis of the utterance.

The “short loop” implements a fast alignment between the perceived emotional state of the user and the ECA’s expression, as well as acknowledging user utterances (see Figure 2). This is achieved by matching the ECA’s non-verbal response to the emotional speech parameters detected by the emotional speech recogniser EmoVoice and including an appropriate verbal acknowledgement (on a random basis to avoid acknowledging all user utterances). The short loop thus essentially aligns the ECA response on the user’s attitude.

3.2 “Main Loop” Interaction: Affective Dialogue and Reasoning

The main interaction strategy consists in a complete end-to-end implementation of affective conversation (with a response time of under 3000 ms). It enacts the overall behaviour of the Companion as an affective dialogue system and involves its full response to the user utterance in terms of both verbal and non-verbal behaviour (both gestures and facial expressions).

The “main loop” (see Figure 2) thus corresponds to an end-to-end implementation of affective conversation between the user and the agent. It is based on the identification of office life events, together with the affective context in which they are introduced. Following an appraisal step that determines the adequacy of the user’s response to the situation she is facing (e.g. difficulties with colleagues, restructuring, redundancies), the Companion will provide an affective response in the form of reassurance, advice, comfort (or, in some cases, warning) to positively affect the user’s attitude. The content is however specific to the details of the situation reported and makes reference to the different causes and consequences of the reported events. Conversational dialogue further requires a degree of flexibility in juggling user utterances of varying lengths with shifting topics while accounting for affective aspects. The expectation is that the Companion will be able to provide a response of appropriate length and tone in reply to the topic provided by the user. However, in order to do this effectively the Companion may be required to clarify information and elicit further information to support a meaningful response. The dialogue management thus needs to find a balance between employing clarification dialogue and generating appropriate responses to the information provided by the user.

The overall conversational loop is under the supervision of a Dialogue Manager which controls the various phases of dialogue and their timing, as well as the level of

system initiative, in an integrated fashion. One of the main decisions it has to make is when to trigger lengthier utterances (which we have termed ‘tirades’ – see e.g. Figures 5, 6 and 7), which correspond to an affective dialogue strategy aiming at influencing the user’s attitude by means of a short narrative. The challenge for the DM is to shift between the various aspects of conversation: allowing long rants from the user, providing sympathetic feedback without shifting dialogue initiative towards itself, triggering clarification sub-dialogues, or regaining initiative through long utterances that provide advice and support in a more structured fashion. Some of these aspects may be covered by the identification of Dialogue Acts, but Dialogue Acts alone may not be able to deal with the contents of longer user utterances (> 30 words). This is why one of the integrating principles adopted in our system is to also base dialogue control on event instantiation, thus relating it to Information Extraction.

3.3 Information Extraction

Conversations may involve utterances of various lengths including utterances much longer (> 50 words) than those typically found in task-oriented dialogues. Sentences may be ill-formed or highly elliptical. Furthermore, speech recognition under realistic conditions frequently results in a high word error rate making the task of syntactic analysis even harder. The task of the Natural Language Understanding module is to recognise a specific set of events reported by the user. These events are formalised as objects consisting of feature-value pairs. The NLU (in collaboration with the DM) employs shallow processing methods that instantiate event templates. These methods resemble Information Extraction (IE) techniques (Grishman, 1997) (Jönsson et al., 2004).

The NLU takes the 1-best output from the speech recogniser, which has already been segmented into dialogue-act sized utterances. The utterances are then part-of-speech

tagged and separated into Noun Phrase (NP) and Verb Group (VG) chunks which denote concepts in our domain. VGs consist of a main verb and any auxiliary verbs or semantically important adverbs. Both of these stages are carried out by a Hidden Markov Model trained on the Penn Treebank, although some customisation has been carried out for this application (relevant vocabulary added and some probabilities re-estimated to reflect properties of the application). NP and VG chunks are then classified into Named Entity (NE) classes, some of which are the usual ‘person’, ‘organisation’, ‘time’ etc. but others of which are specific to the scenario, as is traditional in IE: e.g. salient events, expressions of emotion, organisational structures etc. NE classification, in the absence of domain specific training data, is carried out via hand-written pattern matching rules and gazetteers. The NPs and VGs are represented as unification grammar categories containing information about the internal structure of the constituents: for example, an utterance like “John will move to the Madrid office next month” would yield results like that on the left of Figure 3.

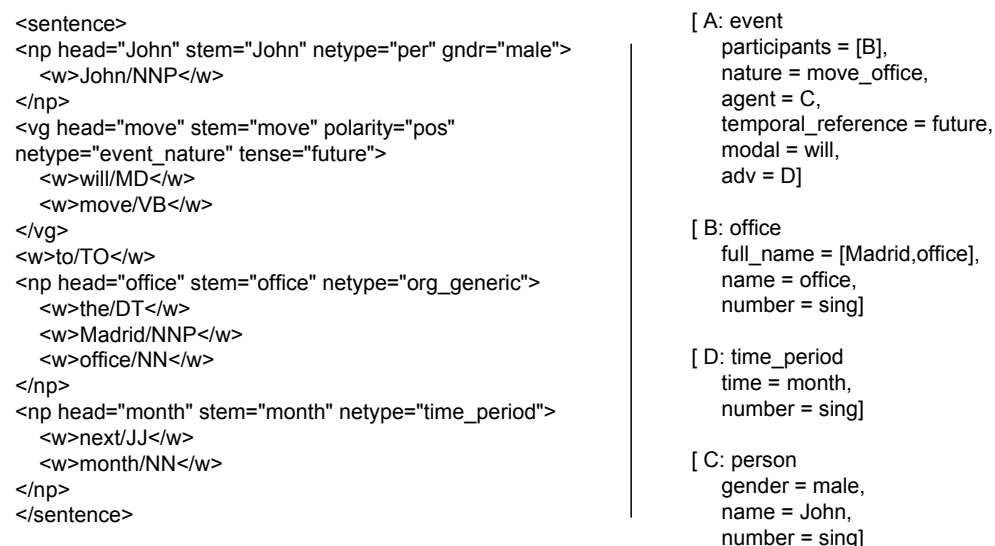


Figure 3. NP and VG representation (*left*) and final semantic representation (*right*)

used by the NLU

In the next stage of NLU processing, domain specific IE patterns are applied on NP and VG chunks which rely on their syntactic and semantic information to form constituents called objects. For example, “meeting with X about Y” where NE type of X is person, or “move to X” where NE type of X is org_generic. In the final stage reference resolution for pronouns and definite NPs is performed. This module is based partly on the system described by Kennedy and Boguraev (1996), with the various weighting factors based on theirs. Each referring NP gives rise to a discourse referent, and these are grouped into coreference classes based on grammatical, semantic, and salience properties.

On its own the NLU module is a large-coverage system which can tag, shallow parse and resolve pronoun reference of any English sentence. Its coverage is most restricted by domain specific NE classes and IE patterns which must be introduced manually. The system covers more than 40 work-based topics of conversation, for example discussions of meetings, problems with office equipment, relationships with colleagues and even the weather. These are mostly represented as event objects. Complex objects such as these are created by a set of IE rules which attempt to cover a range of syntactic and semantic structures which denote identical content. In addition to event objects, the system covers objects of various NE types that relate to the events. For example, to refer to persons, the system may have to collect their names, gender and profession, organisation they work for, their colleagues and the location where they live. In contrast to events, these objects mostly rely on recognition of NE classes.

The final output from the NLU in the format expected by the DM for the utterance “John will move to the Madrid office next month” is shown on the right of Figure 3.

3.4 Dialogue Management

The DM is based on work described in Boye and Gustafson (2005), Boye et al (2006) and Boye (2007) but has been substantially modified for the challenges of conversational dialogue. It receives user utterances from the NLU as semantic representations (right of Figure 3). The DM first checks which information addresses the previous question or comment posed by the system in the dialogue and which information opens up new topics. The information constituting answers to system questions is integrated into the information state of the DM (called the Object Store), while new topics give rise to new conversational goals.

The DM keeps track of all the topics under discussion by maintaining a set of conversational goals, e.g. (1) “Find out more about the possible office relocation to Madrid”, or (2) “Make a comment about today's meeting”. A number of goal-satisfaction rules (similar to the one on the left of Figure 4) specify how goals are broken down into sequences of sub-goals and system utterances. For instance, finding out more about the office relocation (1) might amount to asking specific questions about whether the relocation will indeed take place, what the consequences would be for the user, etc. The goal is considered satisfied when further information about the relocation has been collected.

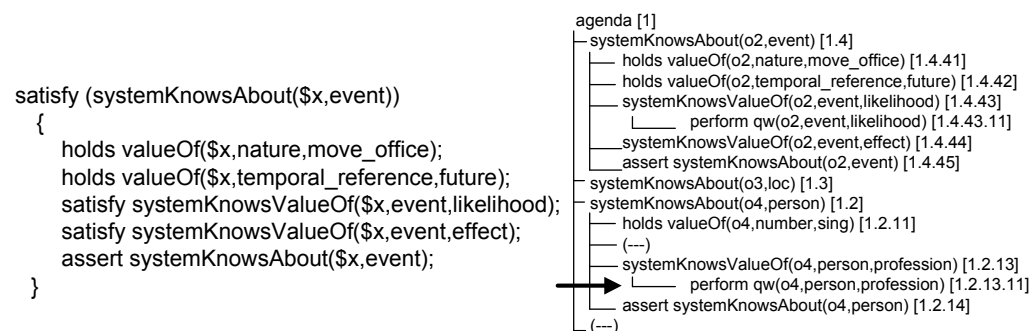


Figure 4. Goal Satisfaction Rule (*left*) and Agenda (*right*) used by the DM

The various possible topics of conversation are organised as in an ontology, so that it is known what attributes can be expected to be present for a particular object. For example, the value of the “effect” attribute of the event object must be another object of type “event”. Again this is reminiscent of Information Extraction, and the DM is in effect aiming to fill a template via clarification and supplementary questions (satisfy `systemKnowsValueOf($x,event,effect)`) to the point where it can be passed to the Affective Strategy Module.

The active goals are organised in a tree-structure, the so-called agenda, as shown on the right of Figure 4. At any given point in time, the agenda might contain many topics, some old, some new (`systemKnowsAbout(o2,event)`), some completed (---), some still open for discussion, and some not yet addressed by the system (`systemKnowsValueOf(o2,event,likelihood)`). For each turn of the clarification dialogue, the DM chooses which topic to pursue next by considering all the currently un-satisfied goals on the agenda and heuristically rating them for importance. The heuristics employed use factors such as recency in the dialogue history, general importance, and emotional value associated with the goal. In the example in Figure 4, the system considered it more important to find out about the person (o4 or “John”) than to find out about the event that the person is a participant of (o2 or “move_office”).

When sufficient information has been gathered from the user through the clarification dialogue, the DM will invoke the Affective Strategy Module so it can generate a suitable tirade. The DM makes the decision to invoke the ASM using heuristics that take into account, amongst other things, the emotional value of the user's utterances and the recency of the latest ASM invocation.

3.5 Affective Dialogue Strategies

Previous dialogue systems (Cavalluzzi et al., 2004) (Bickmore and Sidner, 2006) have resorted to different models as a basis for influencing user behaviour, such as the Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska et al., 1992). However, in our current scenario we are more interested in changes in attitudes rather than behaviour (Tørning and Oinas-Kukkonen, 2009). In presenting a response to the user then, it is first necessary to understand, or appraise, the situation that the user presents to the Companion. This involves gaining an understanding of the events described and how these will affect the user. Further, the user's reaction to these events is also crucial in generating an appropriate tirade. The Affective Strategy Module (ASM) centres its response on a main event, generally the focal event selected by the DM, and its consequences for the user.

An appraisal process determines the nature of the main event in terms of both its impact on the user and the appropriateness of the user's reaction. The impact depends on whether the event constitutes an improvement (promotion, payrise) or a deterioration (office-move, redundancy, increased-workload) to the user's situation. This is determined by using the NLU information to instantiate an event template which indicates both the event type (e.g. improvement) and anticipated outcome based on what the event is and the information available. Every possible NLU event has its own event template within the ASM and default knowledge is used to instantiate these templates where information is not available from the NLU.

Next, the user's mood, provided by the Emotional Model, is used to determine whether the user is showing an appropriate or inappropriate emotional reaction to the event, given the anticipated outcome. This is essentially whether the user is reacting positively to improvements and negatively to deteriorations.

These details are then used to determine the strategy employed by the Companion. These strategies have been selected such that they cover the full range of possible situations a user can be in: a congratulatory strategy for when things are going well for the user, a sympathetic strategy for when they are not, encouraging or reassuring strategies for when the user's outlook is too negative and warning or cautionary strategies for when the user's outlook is too positive. The appraisal process also analyses additional influences, be they positive or negative, for the events at hand. These will be used to enrich the Companion's tirade, giving a more precise content to reassurance or warning statements.

In common with both narrative generation (Cavazza et al., 2002) and text generation (Appelt, 1985), the ASM is based on planning technologies, more specifically a Hierarchical Task Network (HTN) planner (Nau et al., 2004), which works through recursive decomposition of a high level task into sub-tasks until a plan of sub-tasks that can be directly executed is produced. The HTN planning process uses the information from the event templates along with results from the appraisal as heuristics to guide its decomposition. Combined with the fact that this heuristic selection process occurs at multiple levels of the HTN, it allows for greater complexity and variance than is achievable with a scripted approach.

The resulting plan of operators provides a set of communicative functions, each targeting different aspects of the user's utterance but unified under the overall affective strategy. For instance, various operators can emphasise or play down the event consequences or comment on additional factors that may affect the course of events. The planner uses a set of 40 operators, each with multiple parameters. Overall this supports the seamless generation of hundreds of significantly different influencing strategies from the base set of influence operators.

This plan is passed to the NLG module where each operator is realised as a sentence forming part of the overall narrative utterance. The operators contain information supporting an FML-like language (Hernández et al., 2008) which allows full multimodal output comprising affective TTS, gestures and facial expressions.

Figure 5 illustrates the operation of the ASM on an excerpt from an actual dialogue. The Companion first instantiates some basic information (a “bad day” event and discussion of “office politics”) from the first user utterance. However, this is not enough to meet the threshold for generating an affective tirade so the DM triggers a clarification step (“tell me more ...”), which actually prompts a longer and more detailed reply from the user. From this reply the system is able to instantiate further event templates, one about company restructuring, one about redundancies and one about relationships between colleagues, with the DM determining that the redundancies event template is the most prominent event. The ASM then appraises this main event, determining (from the instantiated event template) that the redundancies have not yet happened, and opting to perform a reassuring strategy. The ASM then generates a plan which shows different levels of empathy (one generic and one specific, mentioning the threat of redundancy), but also dissociates the two incidents by reminding the user that antagonistic colleagues will have no influence on redundancy decisions (this is achieved by looking for factors potentially influencing the key event, here company restructuring).

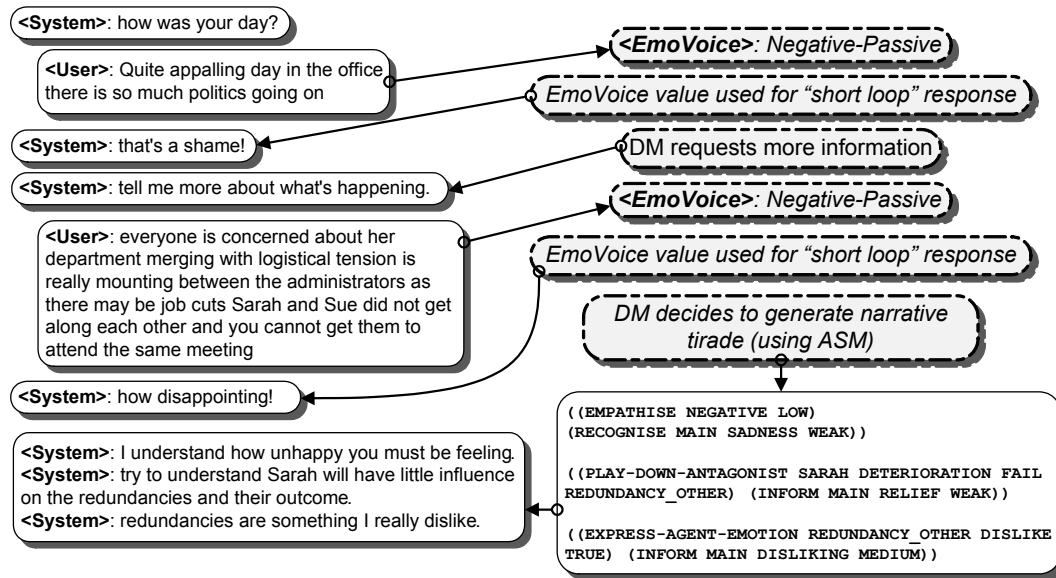


Figure 5. An example dialogue where the user discusses a negative situation and shows a correspondingly negative emotional state. Yet the Companion detects this is just a potentially bad situation and employs a reassuring affective strategy.

3.6 Handling Interruptions

Conversational flow in natural dialogues tends to be quite fluid, with partners frequently interrupting each other rather than observing the strict turn-by-turn structure of most current spoken language dialogue systems. Further, the generation of long, multi-sentence utterances by the ASM creates opportunities for the user to interrupt the Companion whilst it is speaking. Indeed, the long ASM utterances may even provoke a user interruption given that they often include advice on dealing with difficult or stressful situations the user has experienced. To resolve this, our Companion includes interaction strategies for dealing with both “barge-in” interruptions and “non-barge-in” interruptions. When a user starts talking at the same time as the Companion, interrupting the Companion’s reply, this is classed as a “barge-in” interruption. We now describe the handling process (see also Figure 2).

- (1) As the user may speak at any time, the Acoustic Turn Taking module must decide whether this constitutes a ‘genuine’ user interruption (as opposed to, say, backchannel). This decision is based on both the intensity and duration of the voice signal with the Interruption Manager being informed when an interruption is detected.
- (2) The IM then requests that the ECA stop speaking and be given a look of surprise or irritation at being interrupted before broadcasting a notification of the interruption to all modules so they know the previous turn was not completed.
- (3) The DM determines how much of the ASM response was completed.
- (4) The ATT informs the IM when the interruption has ended. The IM then tracks the processing of the interrupting utterance through the system using a System State Model implemented as a two-level Finite State Machine (Crook et al., 2010). Tracking the processing is necessary to ensure that the Companion responds within a realistic time frame.
- (5) When triggered the DM must decide how to respond to that interruption.
 - (5a) The DM would choose to continue the interrupted utterance if the user's utterance does not provide any new information. For example, if the interrupting utterance was “I couldn't agree with you more”, then it would be reasonable for the DM to decide to continue the Companion's planned utterances from the point where the interruption took place. In Figure 6 the user interrupts the tirade in Figure 5 causing the system to stop the tirade and process the interruption. After the short loop response, the DM determines that it is not necessary to revise information and so will just ‘continue’, acknowledging the interruption and resuming the tirade from the point of interruption (that is, repeating the interrupted utterance).
 - (5b) The DM would choose to re-plan if the user's utterance provides new information. This would be the case, for example, if the user's interrupting utterance

corrected what the system had just said. The re-plan is necessary because the current ASM plan was generated from a set of assumptions which have now been shown to be false or incomplete. In Figure 7 the user also interrupts the tirade in Figure 5. This time, after the short loop response, the DM determines that it is necessary to ‘re-plan’. The user interruption is understood as correcting the main topic to that of an increased workload for the user rather than discussion of redundancies. The tirade is then re-generated using this new main topic (with the strategy remaining reassuring). Note that it is not necessary to generate a full tirade for this new topic, as we have already relayed about half of the previous tirade, so we generate an equivalent to the remaining amount for the new tirade.

(5c) The DM chooses to abort if the user's utterance rejects the current dialogue strategy. An abort would be necessary if the interrupting utterance was something like “Don't talk to me about work, I'm not in the mood”. An abort would discontinue the conversation until the user chose to continue by providing another utterance.

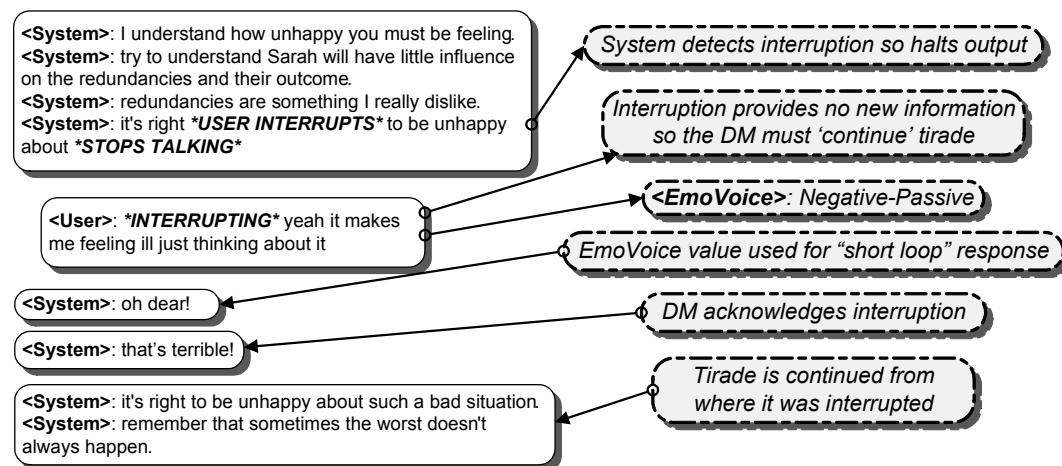


Figure 6. An example dialogue where the user interrupts without providing new information. The Companion responds with ‘continue’ interrupt handling.

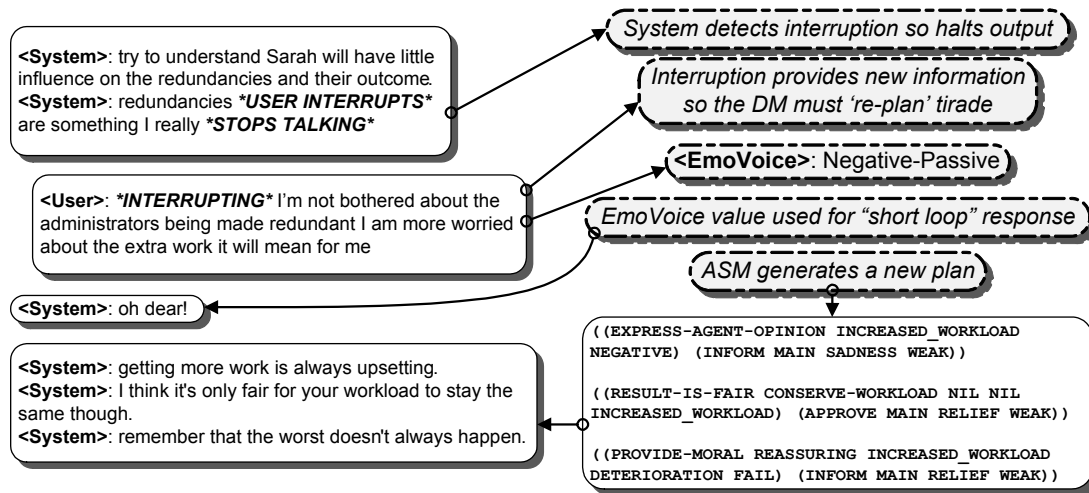


Figure 7. An example dialogue where the user interrupts the Companion with new information. The Companion responds with ‘re-plan’ interrupt handling.

Handling “non-barge-in” interruptions is more straightforward as the user interrupts before the Companion has initiated its reply. (That is, the user continues speaking after the Companion has registered the user turn as having finished, providing additional information after the Companion has started processing the user turn but before the Companion has started delivering a response.) The “non-barge-in” interruption can be summarised as follows:

1. The ATT detects an interrupt and informs the IM
2. The IM informs the affective dialogue processing modules
3. Affective dialogue processing modules disregard the current turn
4. The DM continues, incorporating the previous turn into the next (that is, merging the additional information with the information previously being processed)

4 Evaluation

As the development of Companion ECA requires the integration of a range of techniques to meet the challenges of conversational dialogue, so the evaluation of Companion ECA requires new models of evaluation. We now present the results of an evaluation of our Companion in which we concentrate on three main aspects of the system's functionality: "main loop" interaction, "short loop" interaction and the use of the ECA. These aspects were considered in terms of the system's functional ability, the appropriateness of the Companion's response and the affective behaviour of the Companion.

In comparison to other evaluation methods (such as PARADISE (Walker et al., 1997)) we do not attempt to reduce all features and parameters to a single, optimised figure but rather to target specific functionalities, capabilities and behaviours within the system. This approach allows us to highlight the various strengths and weaknesses of the system while providing a means to characterise certain types of conversations that previously have proven difficult to reliably assess.

4.1 Testing Protocol and Scenario Design

The evaluations consisted of 12 extended sessions each taking approximately 2.5 to 3 hours to complete. The 12 participants ranged from 22 to 54 years of age (with an average of 33), 3 were female and 9 were male and all were native speakers of British English. After watching an introductory video, each participant trained the system (both EmoVoice and ASR) before undertaking a series of 7 testing scenarios, concluding with a post-session questionnaire and interview.

The testing scenarios were constructed to provide a suitable breadth to the evaluation and to cover the fullest range of functionality. The evaluation team started with a pilot phase of testing in order to determine the Companion's anecdotal strengths and

weaknesses. Based on these considerations, a set of twenty initial testing scenarios were developed by the evaluation team with the number of scenarios gradually being refined down to the final seven. These seven scenarios were chosen as encompassing the desired focus on particular behaviours and capabilities of the Companion: handling of varying lengths of user utterance, handling a range of events within the domain of office work, handling the range of emotional information provided by the user, testing of interaction loops and testing of interaction with the ECA. Most of the seven scenarios were scripted so that the content, emotional reaction and length was fixed. This scripting consisted of a short descriptor with an additional emotional direction for each user turn. The intention was to guide the conversation while encouraging the participant to respond naturally and with their own phrasing.

The breakdown of the final testing scenarios is shown in Table 1. ‘Emotion’ determines both the nature of the events discussed as well as the advised emotional reaction. Through the nature of the HYWD scenario itself, the system is weighted towards negative events in its coverage and the testing scenarios reflect this. ‘Events’ determines the total number of events discussed in the dialogue (with this also affecting the overall dialogue length). ‘Utterances’ determines the number of events included in a given user turn. Note that short utterances are merely short in comparison; due to the conversational nature of the Companion these utterances are still generally longer than utterances in a typical task-oriented dialogue system. Finally, the ‘Emotional State’ determines whether the nature of and emotional reaction to the events varies between user turns.

Scenario	Emotion	Events	Utterances	Emotional State
1a	Negative	Few	Short	Constant
1b	Positive	Few	Short	Constant
2	Negative	Many	Long	Constant
3	Neg to Pos	Many	Short	Mixed
4	1a + User defined	1a + User defined	User defined	User defined
5	User defined	User defined	User defined	User defined
6	Negative	Few	Short	Constant

Table 1. Overview of User Testing Scenarios

Scenarios 4 and 5 are not scripted so as to test the Companion in free conversation although Scenario 4 uses a correlate of Scenario 1a to explicitly prime the conversation before allowing the user to continue with the free-form dialogue. Scenario 6 is a repeat of Scenario 1a but with the additional user interface windows removed so the participant can only see the ECA during the interaction.

Following completion of the seven testing scenarios the participant completes a questionnaire. This consists of 35 statements answered using a five point Likert scale of strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. The statements are structured around six themes exploring the notion of a Companion (Benyon and Mival, 2008). The participant is then interviewed by an evaluator for 5 to 10 minutes on what they like and dislike about the Companion, their thoughts on the concept and any other matters they wish to discuss regarding their experience.

4.2 Dialogue Metrics

We collected various dialogue metrics during each session covering the seven testing scenarios. The principal measures were the Word Error Rate (WER) and Concept Error Rate (CER). (CER was calculated by ignoring the order of recognised concepts with substitution errors only used in cases where part of the recognised and actual concepts match.) Table 2 provides a summary of the metrics collected for each Scenario.

Scenario	Average words per User utterance	User turns	System turns	Average words per System utterance	Average concepts per User utterance	WER	CER
1a	8.12	13.60	16.60	6.97	1.31	0.37	0.31
1b	8.31	14.67	16.67	6.51	1.62	0.33	0.31
2	10.00	11.00	12.60	7.63	2.14	0.44	0.34
3	10.07	19.67	26.17	6.58	1.72	0.36	0.34
4	9.57	19.17	20.33	5.90	1.40	0.35	0.39
5	10.11	15.50	13.83	5.41	1.13	0.40	0.26
6	6.30	13.40	15.20	5.55	1.17	0.35	0.33
AVERAGE	8.92	15.29	17.34	6.36	1.50	0.37	0.33
Range	4 to 23	7 to 31	3 to 38	1 to 9.21	0.05 to 4.57	0.15 to 0.93	0 to 0.65

Table 2. Summary of dialogue metrics across Scenarios

The total average WER of 0.37 and CER of 0.33 represent very poor scores for speech recognition and present obvious difficulties for a speech-based dialogue system. This result is surprising given the use of a trained ASR system but may be explained partly by the emotional variation of the participants' voices.

The response time of the system was also measured. This was on the basis of the time from the end of the user's utterance until the start of the audio output from the system. (Although the text response on the user interface would typically appear before the audio output.) The time for a "short loop" response was as low as 1.2 seconds and averaged 2.28 seconds. The "main loop" response averaged 6.47 seconds. Notably, in the participant interviews, length of delay in response was considered far less of an issue than the timing of the response. Participants wanted feedback regarding the state of the Companion during the response delay, specifically if the Companion was indeed going to deliver a response or not (there are several utterances per dialogue that receive no reply). They reported that the length of the delay was less impactful than not knowing if and when a response was coming, and the largest frustration was when they started talking again but the Companion then proceeded to talk over them.

4.3 User Metrics

At the end of each session the participant completed a questionnaire and was interviewed. Results for scores greater than 10 or less than -10 are shown in Table 3 (with scores being calculated as the sum of individual Likert values from +2 to -2). The participants' responses to the questionnaire indicated that they felt the conversation with the Companion was unnatural. When interviewed it appears it was not that the participants found the prototype itself to be unnatural but rather elements of the conversation, specifically the fact that they were having conversations about their work day with a computer. It was not that they thought this to necessarily be an

inappropriate thing to do but rather that it was novel. Several participants noted that combining the HWYD Companion type discussion with the additional utility of scheduling data could prove both cathartic and very useful.

Although the participants felt the Companion was nothing like themselves, they clearly felt it did have a personality and that it acted independently, demonstrated emotions and that it was polite and friendly. This personality was felt to be the case despite the occasional lack of coherence in some of the Companion's responses and incorrect assignment of emotion to a user utterance.

The participants also reported feeling that the Companion understood them better when there was no textual feedback of either ASR result or emotion detection, as was the case in Scenario 6. They also highlighted that they felt the entire interaction felt far more natural as they focussed on the ECA itself rather than the written response (which they had intuitively done in the previous scenarios). Confusion over turn taking still occurred but people would spontaneously stop speaking when the ECA started to respond.

A linked issue reported by every participant was the lack of communication to the user by the system as to its internal state, specifically whether it was or was not thinking about what to respond (i.e. was still in a "listening" state and whether it was going to respond or not). This is a fairly typical usability issue within any computational system where user frustration is increased not by the specifics of user interface feedback or the time to receive that feedback, but by not knowing whether any feedback is actually going to come or not. A next step in Companion development would be the incorporation of various non-verbal cues (such as gaze, head nodding) to indicate floor-grabbing behaviour.

Statement	Score
The Companion surprised me at times	13
The Companion demonstrated emotion at times	11
I thought the Companion acted independently	10
The Companion was polite	10
I thought the conversation was appropriate	-10
I liked the behaviour of the Companion	-10
The Companion anticipated my needs	-10
The Companion got to know me during the conversation	-12
The conversation was coherent	-15
The conversation between myself and the Companion felt natural	-16
The Companion's responses were always appropriate	-19
The Companion is rather like me	-19

Table 3. Accumulated score for selected statements

4.4 Appropriateness Analysis

In addition to these objective and subjective measures of analysis we carried out further analysis through appropriateness annotation (Webb et al., 2010). To capture this information, annotators scored every utterance (that is, both system and user utterances) within a dialogue for its appropriateness in terms of the level of information it contains and the progression of the dialogue so far. The aim is to reward appropriate behaviour (answering questions, using new knowledge correctly) and penalise mechanisms that are seen as inappropriate between humans (incorrect use of knowledge, asking unrelated or off-topic questions and over-verification).

Annotators worked with the ASR output, so appropriateness is with respect to the information the system receives rather than what the participant actually said, marking each utterance with a code depending on whether it was a system or user utterance. User utterances could be a direct response to the system (RTS), eliciting a response from the system (RES), providing no response with this being appropriate (NRA) and providing no response with this being deemed inappropriate (NRN). System utterances could be one of nine categories: filled pauses (FP), requests for repair (RR), appropriate responses (AP), appropriate questions (AQ), appropriate new initiatives (INI), appropriate continuations (COM) and finally inappropriate utterances containing inappropriate emotion (NAPE), content (NAPC) or some other defect (NAPF).

It is important to note that in this stage of the development and application of this evaluation methodology, we do not believe that the total score (or indeed individual annotation scores) are of the upmost usefulness. Instead, we believe that comparative scores (as in Table 4), and label distributions across dialogues (as in Figure 8) are the most useful measures.

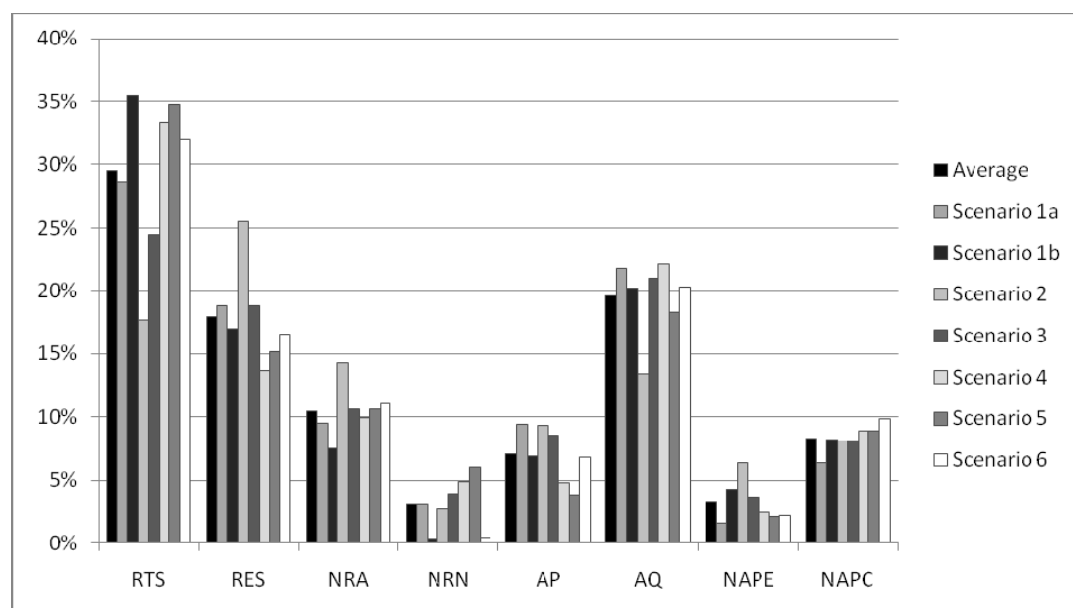


Figure 8. Label Distributions (as percentage) across each Scenario.

Scenario	No. of Utterances	Average Score	Score per Utterance
1a	23.27	17.86	0.77
1b	27.75	16.63	0.6
2	20.09	13.59	0.68
3	35.5	25.13	0.71
4	33.45	20.18	0.6
5	23.58	10.63	0.45
6	28.5	19.05	0.67
Average	27.49	17.56	0.64

Table 4. Appropriateness Scores per Scenario

We start with a quick breakdown of the distribution of annotation labels across the entire evaluation (results marked ‘Average’ in Figure 8) which shows that the majority of utterances in the evaluation sessions (almost 30% overall) are responses by the user to system utterances (RTS). Unsurprisingly, the second largest category is appropriate questions asked by the system (AQ). Looking at the utterances labelled as inappropriate, we see that 3.22% of inappropriate labels are caused by incorrect emotional output (i.e. responding to a negative event with a positive utterance), and that 8.31% are caused by incorrect semantic content (i.e. a user states that they are working on the Companions project, and the next system question is “What’s the name of the project?”). If we take just the inappropriate utterances as a whole, we see then that around 30% of all errors are caused by inappropriate emotion handling, and the remaining 70% are from inappropriate content. Most utterances marked as appropriate responses by the system (AP) are in fact emotional statements made by the Companion in response to user input. As an estimation of emotional system performance (from a subjective point of view), we can sum all appropriate responses (7.05%) with the inappropriate emotional responses (3.22%), and see that 10.27% of all utterances from the system contain some emotional output. In this context, we see

that around 69% of all emotional output is deemed appropriate, with 31% being inappropriate given the context of the dialogue.

Examining the average score for each Scenario normalised for the length of the dialogue (score per utterance in Table 4) we find that our baseline condition, Scenario 1a, outperforms the average. Scenario 1b, by comparison, underperforms the average, despite the only difference being the polarity of events in the scenario. Most noticeably, scenarios involving any deviation from the script (Scenario 4 with slight deviation, and Scenario 5 with no script) score lower than average.

In terms of label distribution (Figure 8), our baseline condition, Scenario 1a, correlates strongly with the average. In Scenario 1b, we find that there are a greater number of responses to the system than in Scenario 1a, as users give more information in response to systems questions. Also, where Scenario 1a had very few inappropriate emotional responses, the number in Scenario 1b is above average. This indicates the system struggled to recognize positive emotional events compared to the negative events used in Scenario 1a, and consequently had a hard time responding appropriately to clear, positive user events.

In Scenario 2 we find that the number of responses to system is way below the average, as this scenario requires users to use longer utterances. As a consequence of receiving more information in longer utterances, the system has fewer questions to ask and the user gives longer, more involved responses to single questions. A trade off to this is that the emotional response is harder to identify here, resulting in a greater than average number of inappropriate emotional responses, as perhaps it is harder to detect the overall emotional value in long utterances than in the shorter, clearer utterances.

Scenario 4 represents the first scenario where free-form user input is permissible (following a short script similar to Scenario 1a). To that end, we find a similar

distribution to that in Scenario 1a and, although the system asks a greater number of appropriate questions and the user gives responses to those, we notice a slight increase in inappropriate content (not recognizing the information exchanged from user to system) is also found. In Scenario 5, where users have completely free access to the system, although they are implicitly guided by prior interactions, we find an increase in utterances from the user that appear to warrant some response from the system, yet return nothing (that is, the system is silent in response to some question or emotional comment from the user). We also find a corresponding drop in appropriate responses from the system, and fewer appropriate questions, all of which cause a drop in overall score for this scenario. (Encouragingly, given that users were free to interact as they saw fit, we don't see any significant increase in inappropriate responses.) This seems to indicate as the users deviate from the scripts (and by inference, the underlying template structure of the domain) the system has less to ask or respond with that is within the topic of the conversation. Consequently, it appears the system chooses to say nothing. We saw in previous evaluations using this appropriateness measure (Webb et al., 2010) that the use of simple conversational mechanisms found in chatbots may help to address these issues.

In the final scenario, Scenario 6, we see little deviation from the pattern found in Scenario 1a. This is merely confirmation that, in terms of appropriateness scores, this scenario performs equally well to our baseline. This scenario was designed to test various UI parameters, and consequently shows that the users and system performed more or less equally, whether the user had access to visual feedback from the system or not. In conjunction with the user feedback from subjective surveys, this would indicate that the best course of action is to remove the additional visual feedback for future trials and focus on the ECA.

5 Conclusion

We have presented a fully-implemented prototype of an ECA supporting affective dialogue under a truly conversational paradigm, which allows longer utterances both from the user and the agent, mixed-initiative as well as user interruptions. We conclude that our approach to the integration of conversational and affective aspects rests with the definition of interaction loops, all under the control of a top-level Dialogue Manager, orchestrating elementary dialogue steps (e.g. clarification), narrative utterances for advice giving and user interruptions. It has reached maturity as a proof-of-concept system and is now the object of public demonstrations (Cavazza et al., 2010).

With respect to results, we have presented an evaluation using a new evaluation methodology designed specifically to highlight the strengths and weaknesses of conversational dialogue with a Companion. The evaluation shows that, despite poor speech recognition performance and the novelty of the application, participants were able to use the system and felt the Companion was polite, friendly and exhibited a sense of personality. Further, through appropriateness annotation, we were able to compare various aspects of the interaction with the Companion embedded in the seven testing scenarios used for the evaluation. This helped to identify the areas where the Companion performed best and those areas requiring improvement. It also helped to suggest areas of further development of the Companion such as new conversational mechanisms and a greater focus on the ECA versus additional visual feedback.

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