1 INTRODUCTION

Over more than a decade, rResearch from over more than a decade has increasingly shown that humans as social beings imitate each other during conversations. This convergence occurs at many different level especially in linguistic behaviour, and it-may lead to easy and successful communication as argued by Pickering and Garrod [1][2]. The word *alignment* has been used to refer to such convergences.

<u>Major A major part of alignment studies covers dialogues between human interlocutors.</u> Yet<u>a</u> as dialogues between human<u>s</u> and artificial devices (such as smart mobiles, computers, tablet devices-) <u>have</u>-increasingly <u>becoming become</u> part of everyday life, investigating the characteristics of such dialogues will help us-to understand how this interaction works and how it will help the development of more effective systems [3].

Additionally, an <u>existed_existent</u> evidence of people treating computers as social actors and evaluating them as they evaluate people [4] strongly suggests the presence of alignment in Human—_-Computer dialogue. Furthermore, Suzuki et al. (2003) <u>report</u> findings on the effects of voice prosody in human-computer interaction and <u>show</u> how the prosodic imitation by a computer of the user's voice increases the user's friendliness to the computer [5], Which <u>which by</u> potentially using the voice prosody alignment in spoken dialogue systems tries to obtain the user's emotional engagement [6].

To gain <u>a</u> better understanding of alignment, we have to identify its different aspects and recognise which <u>are the mechanisms that underlie underlie</u> it.

1.1 Levels of Alignment

There are many aspects of alignment involved in the communication process. To mention a few, alignment also occurs at a non-linguistic level such as<u>and includes</u> facial expressions and emotional states, <u>but-But</u> extensive research and studies have discovered <u>that</u> such alignment is widely spread at the linguistic level [3].

Interlocutors show <u>a</u> strong tendency to repeat each other<u>'s</u> term of their lexical or grammatical choices [7–9]. For example, when two interlocutors <u>both of</u> who both use the same name for an object <u>are said to be aligned on the use of that term</u> even of<u>if</u> one or both of them never usually use it, then they are aligned on the use of that term</u>. Similarly<u>, with in</u> respect of<u>to</u> syntactic representation, according to [7] naïve participants followed their confederate scripted description when he used a "prepositional object" (PO) form like *the doctor selling the gun to the artist* -and produced another prepositional object description when it <u>is was</u> their turn to describe. <u>And t</u>They did the same when the confederate produced a "-double object" "-(DO) form description like *the doctor selling the artist the gun*. **Comment [Editor1]:** Do you mean to say 'trie to emotionally engage the user'?

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Another level of alignment is at <u>the level of the</u> structure related to <u>the</u> meaning where different semantic representations <u>can be</u> correlated to <u>an</u> interlocutor's choice of structure. For example, when describing a spatial position, <u>as</u> speaker may use the same form of description and its interpretation. When a pair of participants played a cooperative maze game in <u>a</u> Garrod and Anderson (1987) experiment, they aligned their representations when the form *I'm two along, four up* was used and aligned again with the other form of description *I'm at B4* [3].

1.2 Alignment Mechanisms

Although it is unarguably to say that alignment between interlocutors occurs at many different levels and many proposed mechanisms that account for it, but our focus, in this project on linguistic level of alignment.

1.2.1 Unmediated mechanisms of alignment

<u>Priming The priming of representations</u> is one of the proposed approaches to explain alignment and it is largely based upon this mechanism [1][3]. This priming is not mediated or influenced by prior beliefs about the addressee. Therefore, it called *unmediated* mechanism.

Studies of language processing suggested that <u>the</u> activation of such representations does not fade immediately and continues <u>to increase</u> activation <u>increase of</u> the possibility of using the same linguistic form by the speaker (e.g. [10]).

This unmediated alignment is consistent with evidence that interlocutors usually unaware of alignment have taken place [1]. Participants in <u>the</u> Branigan et al. (2011) experiment showed a very strong tendency to use the same choice of lexical words even if it was one of the disfavoured names specified in the experiment. For example, if their partner used the name *toad* instead of *frog* which was tested and classified as a disfavoured name for this creature, the naïve participants would ignore their default preferences and use the same disfavoured name that <u>they</u> had been exposed to [8].

1.2.2 Mediated mechanisms of alignment

In contrast with the previous mechanism, some speakers <u>would may</u> intentionally use the same linguistic representation with <u>a</u> particular interlocutor because they believe<u>d that</u> this will would lead to <u>a</u> successful communication, or this <u>is would be</u> the appropriate expression to use_a so their partners could understand them [3]. This alignment is mediated by the speakers' beliefs about their interlocutors and it is usually referred to as *audience design*.

A clear example of this mechanism, <u>is evident</u> when a speakers communicates with a nonnative partner and they avoid using complex expressions or rare words or even speak more **Comment [Editor5]:** Unarguably correct/accurate or inaccurate? Please check for clarity

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slowly than when communicating with another native speaker, <u>and</u> this effect highlights the fact that speakers form judgments about their partners' community membership and their linguistic knowledge. Consequently, such judgments influence their choice of linguistic representations [3].

Moreover, <u>the</u> alignment occurs upon based on the speakers' beliefs about their interlocutors' <u>knowledge of the</u> language <u>knowledge</u> based on their own experience with that particular interlocutor. For example, if their partner <u>used uses</u> a specific name for an object, the speaker may assume that this is a good word to use because their partner understands it. Similarly, if the speaker <u>used uses</u> the name *pram* for example, instead of *pushchair* and the interlocutor appears to understand it, then the speaker makes reference of to it and thinks it is <u>a</u> more suitable word to use [8].

1.3 Related Work

As mentioned earlier, this study will focus on the -aspects of our focus in this study is the Human-Computer Interaction aspects of this phenomenon as many recent research in this area <u>have</u> investigated the effects and existence of alignment <u>in-between</u> human—_computer in written and spoken dialogues [3], [6–8], [11], [12]. Most of these researches employed the same methods used to investigate <u>the</u> Human-Human alignment using a modified version of [7] confederate-scripting paradigm. Participants <u>in such an experiment</u> were told that they were playing a picture matching and description game with another partner in a different room connected by a network terminal. Although they believed that they <u>ware-ere</u> interacting either with a computer or a human, <u>but-in</u> fact they <u>were</u> always <u>interacted interacting</u> with a computer program that produced scripted utterances.

One of the interesting findings in [8] <u>showed that have shown that lexical alignment with</u> computers <u>is was</u> more stronger and robust <u>compared to</u> that with human and it <u>is was</u> largely mediated by the participants' beliefs about their interlocutors. Where the strength of linguistic alignment increased when they believed that they were interacting with <u>a</u> computer more than if they believed their partner is a person and this alignment is largely comparable. Additionally, participants <u>displayed showed</u> more alignment with a computer <u>which</u> appeared to them <u>as being</u> unsophisticated and old-fashioned <u>compared to than with one that</u> appeared to be being state-of-the-art and technically advanced.

However, [12] investigated the syntactic aspects of the linguistic alignment with computers. Their result supported the claim of Reeves and Nass's in [4] that people treated computers as social actors and added a linguistic domain into their work. Whereas findings about syntactic alignment in this study keeps up the claim that it is largely an automatic process and unmediated by beliefs about the interlocutor akin to Brennan and Clark's (1996).

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Although [8] analysis <u>provided provides</u> no evidence that lexical alignment is affected by written or spoken utterance, [5] have discovered that the voice prosody <u>effect affects</u> the human-computer interaction in both behavioural and psychological terms. Thus, [6] also demonstrated a mutual alignment at the prosodic level and users' evaluation for the computer familiarity increased when the computer imitated their intonation. Therefore, they suggested that a mutual prosodic alignment in the human-computer interaction, which could be induced by the prosodic changes in a computer voice.

While most of the studies on alignment in HCI investigated the written input and lexical alignments, researchers in [11] took-take the initiative to study syntactic alignments in spoken dialogue interactions within HCI and examine how the user beliefs about the system could be affected by choices of interface design-choices (-such as the naturalness of the type of voice used by the interlocutor-) and the implication of this perception about the system on alignment in human-computer dialogues. Although the result of their research suggested suggests that the effect of voice type on syntactic alignment is not significant, they found find that participants' evaluation of the system in terms of interaction satisfaction was is significantly different between the experiment's three conditions (human , basic voice , advanced voice) but this is not wasn't reflected in the amount of alignment seen between the conditions in contrary with-to the previous predictions. In contrast with [12] that suggests the existence of more mediated components in syntactic alignment between the humans and the computers, more- research was is proposed to investigate the scarcity of syntactic alignment in [11].

1.4 Aim and Objectives

One of the main reasons <u>that explains to explain</u> the lack of alignment differences between the experiment conditions in [11] is the syntactic structure used in the experiment and <u>how the</u> <u>increased how is the high</u>-natural preference to use one structure (AN : Adjective Noun e.g. *red circle*) over another (RC : Relative Clause e.g. *circle that's red*) might haveay overruled any priming effect and may-saturated any alignment effect. Therefore, it is necessary to explore whether this these findings is are also repeated with different syntactic structures though with less natural preferences such as <u>the</u> (PO) prepositional object and <u>the</u> (DO) direct object that-used in [7], [10], [13] and that-what we aim to investigate in this project. Whereas in this study our main objective <u>in this study</u> will <u>only</u> be <u>only</u>-investigating the effect of <u>the</u> interlocutors' voice types- on the syntactic alignment using (PO) and (DO) syntactic structure.

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1.5 Achievements

We employed the same experiment design that <u>is</u> usually used to-in syntactic alignment research, specifically that what is used in [11] but with the (PO) and (DO) structure instead. Similarly, <u>We we</u> found that there was no significant effect of voice type on syntactic alignment (p > 0.05) but there was a significant effect of the type of prime on the alignment and that supported the claim of syntactic alignment <u>is-being</u> more automatic. <u>This and</u> unmediated my beliefs about interlocutors.

Finally, from the previous observations on alignment, we have seen <u>that</u> it involves many different components at many different levels. However, recent studies have introduced effective methods to address <u>which those</u> components <u>which</u> are most relevant to alignment in HCI as <u>we are going to discussed</u> in the next chapter.

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2 METHODOLOGY

The main difficulty <u>faced by the researcher that may face the researcher towhen compare</u> <u>comparing the</u> alignment in HCI with <u>that alignment</u> between humans <u>is may be</u> that there is more than one factor that <u>could can</u> influence the participant's behaviour. One of the effective methods to address this matter is to use the Wizard of Oz paradigm in which all aspects of the interaction are kept the same across conditions except for the participant's beliefs about the nature of <u>their his</u> interlocutor [3].

Through this paradigm, we could can manipulate the participant's beliefs about their his partners and lead them him to think that he hey are is interacting with a human or a computer while keeping other factors constant. Accordingly, any changes in the participants' behaviour could can be associated with the difference in their beliefs about their interlocutors. Furthermore, this paradigm allow us to study the interaction with the simulation of more developed technologies that not currently available yet rather than interacting with a final system[11].

On the other hand, <u>on-in</u> order to observe syntactic alignment proposed in this project, we need -an intelligent system -that offers <u>a full-a</u> tremendous degree of <u>sensitivities-sensitivity</u> as required to achieve this observation-; hence such system <u>canis-not</u> exist yet, nor <u>using-use</u> an automated system (rather using a controlled one) without risking the experiment to <u>committing</u> possible errors when the computer takes <u>their-its</u> turn, using <u>the Wizarda wizard</u> of <u>oz-Oz</u> method, <u>which</u> would be the best alternative.

2.1 Experiment Design

Taking into account the experiment design used in [11] and also-the use of the (PO) and the (DO) structure used in [7], [10], [13], the same collaborative communication game was employed in this project in which two players (the naïve participant and a confederate) take took turns in describing and matching different picture cards using a picture matching game application. In keeping with the three different conditions used in [11], the confederate (either basic voice computer, advance voice computer or human) produced mixed scripted utterances of the (PO) and the (DO) structures and the target utterance produced by the participant afterward afterwards was observed to detect whether alignment has had occurred or not.

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Figure 1. Experiment Set Up for the Human Condition



Figure 2. Experiment Set Up for the Computer-Based Conditions

2.1.1 Conditions

The experiment <u>contains contained</u> three different conditions in terms of <u>the</u> naturalness of the partner's voice in which they <u>acted as an</u>-independent variables to compare alignment occurrences between them. The human condition (first condition) <u>was</u> used as a control to compare the effects between human-human utterances to-<u>with</u> computer-human utterance. While the computer-based conditions-, the basic computer voice that used in the game as *basic* condition (second condition) was an artificial sounding computer voice and it distinguished by the absence of naturalness in intonation and more of and-automated generated speech. The descriptions for this condition were produced using <u>the</u> Vox Machina for Mac. However, in the *advance* computer voice condition (third condition)<u>a</u>-the participants were interacting interacted with a computer that <u>produces-produced</u> more human human-like and natural utterances. To produce these more natural utterances<u>a</u> another program were-was used called the Festival Speech.

2.1.2 Materials

Each primed picture in the game and its description followed by a second picture was to be described by the participant and these were termedealled an items. There were 72 items in total, 24 of them, were experimental items and derived from items originally used in [7], [12]. The experimental pictures represented ditransitives involving an agent, a patient, and a beneficiary. Six ditransitive verbs were used (give, hand, offer, sell, show and throw). Each verb were-was used four times as a prime picture and four times as a target picture and each prime picture with its description will-would be followed by a second picture (target picture) to form one experimental item. The remaining 48 items were filler items whereby each filler item consisted of a prime and a target picture but only representing represented the transitive actions involving an agent and a patient (e.g., a waitress eating a cake). In the filler pictures, 18 different transitive verbs were used, and each verb was used at least twice as a prime and at least twice as a target. An example of an experiment picture and a filler picture was is shown in Figure 3. We constructed two lists containing 24 experimental items and 48 filler items. Each list contained 12 experimental items with PO target descriptions and with-12 with DO target descriptions. The two lists were similar in terms of the order of the items, but the only difference was the experimental items that were used with a PO description in one list and were used with a DO description in the other. The same and the same were was applied on-to the experimental items that were used with a DO description.

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Experiment picture with a ditransitive verb



Filler picture with a tansitive verb

Figure 3. An example of the experiment and the filler pictures.

2.1.3 Controls

In the experiment, several controls were used to ensure that any priming effect was <u>n't not</u> <u>attributed to due to other factors</u>. To eliminate any priming effect caused by lexical similarity between primes and target descriptions, the verbs used in the target picture is-were always different from the ones used in the target. Also, adding <u>2-two</u> filler items after each experiment item would <u>mean controlling</u> the potential of <u>carry-carrying-over</u> the priming effects and to-hideing the focus of the experiment item descriptions. Additionally, in the matching turns for the participant, the prime picture was paired with a random filler picture or a picture with <u>a</u> ditrasitive verb different from the ones that were used in the experiment items besides a random appearance of the prime picture to be on the left side or on the right side of the game frame. Finally, a random order were-was generated for the 24 experimental items and each one was followed by <u>2-two</u> filler items. Then then, this order was hard-hard-coded



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across the experiment's <u>3-three</u> conditions to certify that each participant <u>went-had gone</u> through the same settings-.

Figure 4. Example screenshot of the communication game where participant plays the role of the matcher.



Figure 5. Example screenshot of the communication game when the participant turn to describer.

2.1.4 Participants

44-<u>Forty-four</u> participants including 24 females and 20 males, all <u>were-members</u> of the University of Birmingham community were paid to participate in the experiment.

2.1.5 Procedures

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions taking into consideration equal distribution for males or females between them. <u>They were told that It was explained to</u> them that they are would be going to playing a picture matching game and they will would have to pick out the picture that matched a description they will-would hear about from their partner and as quickly and as accurately as possible and they would take turns to then take a turn to-describe one to their partner. In the *human-interlocutor* condition, the participants were told that they were would have toto play the game with another participant (confederate) on the other side of the room through a network computer terminal. While in the *computer-interlocutor* condition, participants were shown the computer on the other side of the room and were told they are going to play the same game with a computer placed on the other side of the room via a network terminal and that it could 'understand' descriptions of pictures

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placed on the other side of the room via a network terminal. All other details of the experiment procedure were identical. Before starting the game, the participants were asked to complete a demographic form recording their age, gender, profession/subject for study and they-were asked if they were a non-native speakers of English speaker-or if they suffered from any medical condition that affected their ability to safely view the computer screen. If one of their answers was 'Yes' to either of the two questions they were told that they are could not participate not qualified to take part in the experiment and though they were thanked for showing interest in the study. Participants underwent through-a trial run consisting of 4-four items so they could get familiar with the game. During the game, the experimenter noted participants' utterance structures in addition to an audio recording to of the whole session to guarantee that we could retrieve it if the experimenter missed it during the session. Each experiment's session were was controlled remotely by a member of the experiment team using Skype to listen to the session and a remote desktop control session was offered from by subscribing at Logmein Rescue website to control the laptop in the experiment room to ensure that the game turns for participants and their partners were correctly taking place by clicking the *next next* button after the participant have had picked up a picture when it is was the participant's turn as a matcher or after the participant finished his or her description from description when he/she turn as a describer. The remote desktop control session was also used to play the audio file that joint to the prime picture when the confederate (human or computer) needed to play the role of a describer. After completing all the 72 items, they were thanked and debriefed about the nature of the experiment.

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