1	"Talk to You Later": Doing Social Robotics with Conversation Analysis. Towards
2	the Development of an Automatic System for the Prediction of Disengagement
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Abstract

25

26	This article presents an applied discussion of the possibility of integrating conversation
27	analysis (CA) methodology into that of machine learning. The aim is to improve the
28	detection of that which resembles disengagement in the interaction between a robot and
29	a human. We offer a novel analytical assemblage at the heart of the two disciplines, and
30	namely on the level of the annotation schemes provided by conversation analysis
31	transcription methods. First, we demonstrate that the need for a stable structure in
32	establishing an interaction scenario and in designing robot behaviours does not prevent
33	the emergence of ordinariness or creativity among the participants engaged in this
34	interaction. Secondly, based on an actual case, we emphasize the possibility of
35	systematicness in CA transcription to support the choice (a) of the categories targeted
36	by prediction methods and defined by the annotation scheme, and (b) of the verbal and
37	non-verbal features used to create prediction models.
38	
39	Keywords: social robotics, engagement, machine learning, multimodal features,

40 annotation schemes, conversation analysis, transcription, closings

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44	In recent human-agent interaction studies, topics such as artificial agent's
45	sociality or engagement in interaction have given rise to a great deal of publications and
46	discussions. (Sidner, Lee, Kidd, & Rich, 2005; Dautenhahn, 2007; Pelachaud & Glas,
47	2015a; Clavel, Cafaro, Campano, & Pelachaud, 2016; Jones, 2017). With the
48	development of so-called social robotics, one observes a tension between (i) building
49	computational models using implementable traits to make an artificial agent sociable or
50	socially interactive (Fong, Nourbakhsh, & Dautenhahn, 2003; Breazeal, 2003); and (ii)
51	the recognition that this sociality is the product of a local organization, emerging from
52	the interaction (Suchman, 2007; Straub, 2016; Sabanovic, Chang, 2016). Such a
53	recognition suggests an increased focus on the mechanisms that organize an
54	environment in which interactions can take place, and where robot sociality and human
55	engagement can emerge. Such a recognition calls for interdisciplinarity.
56	As Pélachaud and Glas (2015a: 945) have stated, Sidner and Dzikovska (2002)
57	provide a definition of engagement, that is commonly used in the field of human-agent
58	interaction research, as a collaborative endeavour: "the process by which two (or more)
59	participants establish, maintain and end their perceived connection". For interactionists,
60	engagement does not necessarily involve verbal practices but rather any deployment of
61	orientation from one participant to another (or others) - in particular, the fact that
62	participants take into account the actions of others to produce, adjust their own
63	(Goffman, 1983). Engagement is a form of presence.

64	From a conversation analysis (CA) perspective, the question of engagement /
65	disengagement is linked to the observable deployment of interactional behaviours at the
66	scale of turns-at-talk and conversational sequences such as closings and pre-closings
67	(Sacks & Schegloff, 1973; Button, 1991), distinct orientations towards turn-taking
68	systems (Jefferson, 1978; Zimmerman, 2006), interruptions (Schegloff, 2002). In
69	addition, verbal behaviours can co-occur with other behaviours: gaze, body orientation,
70	etc. (Goodwin, 1981). Engagement can also refer to the multiple orientations of a
71	person who must respond to external events and reorganize, in situ, the practical
72	achievement of multi-activity, for example looking at his smartphone and driving
73	(Licoppe & Figeac, 2014), talking and playing an instrument (Rollet, 2010).
74	Human-robot (HRI) and Human-agent (HAI) interaction studies using CA as a
75	data exploration and analysis method are recent – about two decades (see for example
76	Cassel et al., 1999) ¹ . Nevertheless, the combination of CA and coding practices in
77	affective computing / machine learning is quite uncommon. Although quite new,
78	applications are growing and CA is even recently presented in a new handbook on HRI
79	(Bartnek et al., 2019). Moreover, one can distinguish between studies that use CA more
80	as a thematic basis or conceptual underpinning (Sadazuka, Kuno, Kawashima, &
81	Yamazaki, 2007; Yu et al., 2013; Pelachaud & Glas, 2015b) and those that, in addition
82	to this thematic use, conduct a meticulous analysis of the interactions themselves, for
83	themselves, and therefore often contain detailed transcriptions in their publications
84	(Pitsch et al., 2009; Dickerson, Robins, & Dautenhahn, 2013; Pelikan & Broth, 2016;

¹ There are earlier discussions in the Computer Science community, for example Chapman, D. (1992), that claims that "an interactionist computational interpretation of the conversation analytical rules is possible".

Rollet, Jain, Licoppe, & Devillers, 2017; Porcheron, Fischer, Reeves, & Sharples,
2018).

87 We pursue the idea that interdisciplinarity in social robotics offers novel and 88 ambitious opportunities for design (Fong, Nourbakhsh, & Dautenhahn, 2003; Bartnek et 89 al., 2019), especially if it focuses on objects at the heart of the respective disciplines. In 90 this sense, we can discuss this interdisciplinarity by considering the nature and purpose 91 of collaboration between a so-called interactionist sociological approach and a 92 computational model of human-robot interaction. Such interdisciplinarity raises 93 multiple questions with regard to both the design and detection of behaviours -94 especially how to address these in terms of segmentable and annotatable flows of 95 interaction. We address some of these questions through the subject of disengagement 96 in a human-robot interaction. Drawing on a study conducted by (Ben-Youssef et al., 97 2017), which develops a system to predict engagement breakdown in the context of 98 face-to-face interaction with the robot Pepper (Softbank robotics), we present a 99 conversation analysis viewpoint of the methodology adopted. 100 CA is a sociological approach that addresses language and especially talk-in-interaction 101 as a social organization. Its general topic lies in the description of the details of this 102 organization through which social interaction is made possible in an orderly and 103 intelligible way (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Levinson, 1983; Sacks, 1992). 104 One recognizes here the affiliation to ethnomethodology's perspective which relies on 105 the intelligibility of the methods (defined as 'accountability') and on the participants' 106 point of view to produce its scientific analyses (Garfinkel, 1967). In addition, CA 107 considers an utterance in conversation in its sequential conditions of emergence, i.e., as 108 a contribution retrospectively and prospectively referring to the temporal stream of

109	interaction locally managed by participants. In that sense, social action is context-
110	shaped and context-renewing (Heritage, 1991) - property defined as <i>reflexivity</i> . The
111	conversational approach provides a methodological and argumentative framework in
112	which social interaction itself constitutes a powerful resource for analyzing and
113	understanding the meaning of being engaged, adapting, collaborating, disengaging, and
114	sharing an experience between co-participants.

115

The computational models of human-robot interaction discussed in this article are based on "supervised" machine learning (Mohri, Rostamizadeh, & Talwalkar, 2012). The supervision consists of using audiovisual recordings of human-robot interactions that have been annotated into categories of behaviours to predict (here, engagement-related categories), in order to learn the models associated with each of these categories. The methodology is broken down into different stages that structure this article.

123 The first stage consists of collecting audiovisual recorded data that will be used 124 for learning behavioural models. This requires an interaction scenario to be defined, that 125 will be followed by the robot during its interaction with the participant. In the first 126 section, we present the chosen scenario and correlate it with the notion of context as 127 understood in conversation analysis, in particular with regard to the notion of *relevance*. 128 The second stage consists in annotating the data into engagement categories that 129 will be used for learning the supervised model. The second section of this article 130 presents a conversational perspective on the methodology for creating affective 131 computing annotation schemes, and shows how conversation analysis can contribute to 132 identifying features relevant to the development of our human behaviour detection

system. Specifically, this approach emphasizes the details constituting social
behaviours, on the scale of turns-at-talk, sub-units composing turns (Turn
Constructional Units), and sequences. Based on an actual case of human-robot
interaction, this section discusses the problems of categories and of segmentation, and
proposes leads for an interdisciplinary *assemblage*.
Finally, Section 3 offers a summary and an extension simultaneously aiming at

139 short-term applications in the context of a project underway, and lines of reflection that 140 expand the horizon of possible collaboration between interactionist sociology, machine 141 learning, and Affective Computing.

142 1. Interaction Scenarios in Social Robotics and the Notion of Context in CA

When seeking to develop methods to predict a participant's behaviour in his or her interaction with a machine, it is essential to examine the situation or setting (*e.g.* museum entrance hall (Campano, Clavel, & Pelachaud, 2015) or negociation game (Langlet & Clavel, 2018) in which we want our prediction system to function— both to define the interaction scenario used for data collection and to better understand the data itself. Indeed, the participant's behaviours faced with the robot could depend heavily on features of the situation of interaction.

The notion of context has been highly discussed and re-specified in conversation analysis and sociolinguistics. We give a clarification below in order to better understand the issues related to defining an interaction scenario and its impact on the type of processing foreseen (Paragraph 1.a). We then give a contrastive view of CA and affective computing approach regarding stability and emergence (Paragraph 1.b).

155	a. Social robotics scenarios and the CA perspective
156	The main goal of the interaction scenario that we have used, as defined in (Ben-
157	Youssef et al., 2017), is to collect the data on which the model to predict an engagement
158	breakdown will be built. Specifically, the goal is to collect data on a situation where a
159	participant is liable to exit the interaction before the end of the scenario. In this study,
160	the scenario defines the following aspects:
161	• The place of the interaction: the robot (in this case, Softbank's Pepper) is placed
162	in a hall where people frequently pass by.
163	• The mechanisms of entering into interaction: the robot starts speaking when it
164	detects the presence of a person, to invite him or her to interact, and the
165	participant is free to enter into the interaction or not.
166	• The mechanisms of exiting the interaction: the participant is free to exit the
167	interaction whenever he or she so wishes.
168	• The participant's engagement area: a space delimited by a semicircle with a
169	radius of 1.5 m.
170	• The phases of the scenario (note that the scenario was intentionally long, thus
171	including multiple phases, in order to trigger engagement breakdowns prior to
172	completion): the welcome phase (the robot introduces itself using very lively
173	animations, and gives instructions; the dialog phase (set of open questions that
174	the robot asks the participant about his or her tastes and personality); the
175	cucumber phase (with self-mockery and in the form of a game, the robot
176	presents its perceptive capabilities to show that, from its viewpoint, the
177	difference between a cucumber and a human is the human's face); and the <i>final</i>

phase (the robot concludes the interaction with questions intended to evaluatethe participant's interaction).

180

181 Now, one fundamental aspect of the *emic* perspective of conversation analysis 182 (that is, in which the orientation of the analysis is based on the participants' viewpoints 183 emerging in the interaction itself) regarding context, is characterized by *relevance*. 184 By following what participants make relevant themselves in the ongoing 185 interaction, it is possible to provide a characterization of the participants and of the 186 context. Such characterization provided in situ by the participants themselves is called internal setting relevancies (Schegloff, 1987). In this sense, the selection of cues 187 188 relevant to the context from the multitude of available contextual elements, corresponds 189 to what is carried out visibly (accountably) by the interactants in the immediacy of the 190 interaction. These contextual aspects "internal to the interaction" heavily weigh on the 191 interaction, whilst they are not exclusive: background elements can also be important, 192 as well as the structure of the place, time, etc.² 193 The scenario consists of shaping a set of robot behaviours (of a finite number, by 194 definition) for interaction with humans. The robot's verbal and non-verbal behaviours 195 are defined in "interaction phases" (welcome phase, cucumber phase, etc.). From this 196 viewpoint, the scenario is designed asymmetrically: it consists of creating robot's 197 behaviours as ingredients of the different phases that make up a whole-the scenario-198 but in which other ingredients of these phases, and namely human behaviours, 199 constitute hypothetical, fictional participation's opportunities.

² For a multi-dimensional definition of context, inspired by CA and linguistic anthropology, see (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992; Duranti, 1997)

200		With	respect to the actions of the designer, this asymmetry consists in pre-
201	alloc	ating tu	rns-at-talk, which will then be experienced by a human participant.
202		Here	are two examples of the same turn's occurrence:
203		(Ext	ract $1)^3$
204	01	R	comment tu t'appelles ?
205			what's your name?
206	02	Ρ	oui, Evelyne
207			yes, Evelyne
208			
209		(Ext	ract 2)
210	01	R	comment tu t'app@elles /
211			what's your name?
212	02	Р	@looks towards Robot's face
213	03		(1s)#(1,7s)
214	04	Р	#leaves
215			
216		In the	e two examples taken from the data, the robot (R) addresses a question
217	abou	t the nat	me (Line 1) to the participant that stands in front of it. Pepper produces
218	what	CA cal	ls a first part of an adjacency pair, namely a question-answer sequence
219	(Sack	ks & Scl	hegloff, 1973; Schegloff, 2007). This is a very basic (ordinary) sequence in
220	whic	h the fir	st pair calls for possible seconds, that is: for the next speaker, the first pair
221	part i	s a cont	ext in which some relevant actions are expected, namely giving something
222	recog	nizable	as an answer (i.e. a second pair part). That is what happens in the first
223	extra	ct, but r	not in the second: the participant looks at the robot (L2) and after 1 second
224	pause	e, just le	eaves (L4). Contrary to what is expected in an interaction between two

³ Some conventions of transcription are given below in 2.a.

humans, the strong pressure exerted by the first part of the pair on the possible second
part, in this situation, is visibly not addressed by the participant through his unilateral
disengagement. This particular observation raises an interesting point regarding the
categorization of the robot as a machine rather than as a social partner. For the latter
case, mitigation marks would generally be produced before leaving (Goffman, 1973;
Sacks & Schegloff, 1973).

231 Indicating that "the participant is free to exit the interaction" in the protocol illustrates 232 the rather logical asymmetry in the process of its assembling involving the design of 233 robot behaviours: the scenario is designed by projecting a hypothetical participant. 234 Whilst, in ordinary social interaction each apparently identical turn occurs in particular 235 circumstances, often as another first time. Hence, the naming of phases such as the 236 "welcome phase" or expectations such as "the participant is free to exit the interaction" 237 doesn't give any details on how this is factually, in a particular moment of the 238 interaction, both relevant and experienced⁴. Reversing the reasoning, we acknowledge 239 that the design of robot behaviours is based on the designer's ordinary interactional 240 knowledge: he/she assumes that these hypothetic interactions should start with a 241 welcome phase, and that saying hello will trigger a hello. 242 In addition, it is not given in advance that a framework externally considered 243 artificial or experimental implies that the participants treat it as such sometimes, or even 244 never. Context influences practices, but practices actualize and coproduce context as 245 well. In ethnomethodology, this refers to reflexivity: social practices pre-suppose 246 (context-shape) and constitute (context-renew) the framework of the interaction

⁴ Although the interaction strategies defined within the phases of the scenario take into account the participant's responses/reactions, they are still part of a planning process: they do not predict the particular circumstances under which actions will occur (Suchman, 2007).

embedded within them (Heritage, 1991). There is nothing to prevent a particularly
constrained framework, such as a scenario based on question-answer games, from
seeing the emergence of unexpected, creative, natural behaviours.

250

b. Emergence, spontaneity, stability

251 The emerging dimension (i.e. the situated character of actions) is at the heart of 252 the organization of social interactions (human-human). Conversation analysis' 253 analytical approach puts emphasis both on the *accountability* of actions (that which the 254 participants make visible themselves for themselves to coordinate their actions and 255 structure an activity) and on their normative aspect. Moreover, if the human treats the 256 robot like a conversation partner (and not an answering machine), then despite being 257 "scripted", the interaction will nonetheless adopt an emerging quality (fully on the 258 human side, and in the form of a tree diagram on the robot side). The fact that the 259 context is not only a set of imposed external characteristics but also a set of resources to 260 organize the interaction affords the participants the opportunity to demonstrate 261 creativity and spontaneity based on this framework. This question of spontaneity is 262 addressed from another viewpoint below (Section 3) regarding affective computing 263 annotation schemes in contrast with conversation analysis transcription practices. In 264 both cases, the problem of the reification of emerging behaviours is raised. 265 Now, the problem is that the contrast between the CA approach and affective 266 computing using supervised machine learning lies at the intersection of a problem of

stabilizing cues and the fundamentally emerging nature of social interaction. On the one

hand, on the CA side, we address the versatility of the context, or to put it another way,

the situated character of actions, as a strong resource to analyze the meaning of these

270	same actions. Actions are to be analyzed in their sequential deployment. (Where
271	versatility does not mean that there is no stability: it is punctual, circumstantial.). Few
272	data are processed generally, CA researchers work on singular cases and collections as
273	well but they are in relatively limited number. On the other hand, on the supervised
274	Machine Learning side, there is a technically justifiable need for stability of features
275	and identification of large classes that must be detectable and in limited numbers to
276	optimize the mass annotation work. Thus, from the viewpoint of a system to
277	automatically analyze participant behaviours, the question of spontaneity is addressed as
278	follows: how can defining constraints limiting the interaction steer the automatic
279	participant behaviour analysis system. Large amount of data is to be processed in this
280	approach.

281

To summarize, we gather the elements of this contrast in Figure 1.

282

Conversation Analysis Supervised Machine Learning for Affective Computing sociologists, anthropologists, linguists linguists, computer scientists, annotators Actors Goals analyze the intimacy of interaction, the define classes that can be learned by a practical reasonings, the improvised system, define cues for these classes, choreography, account for the detect human behaviour, present a robust system intelligibility of actions, the sequential conducts Steps in scientific audio-video recordings ; transcription ; text audio-video recordings ; annotation ; production (analysis) programming (model training) Data Scale small corpus (collections) Big data

283

Figure 1. Variety of shared and distinct aspects of conversation analysis and

affective computing approaches

286 The underlying idea is that by defining that which is potentially stable (the context-

shaped induced by the interaction scenario) and by integrating it into our behaviour

288 prediction models, we can improve the performance of prediction systems.

Our goal is to explore the possibility of improving the acuity of the detectable cues, while guaranteeing some stability and not excluding the fact that this stability can be temporary (on the scale of a turn or an adjacent pair, for example).

292 2. Affective Computing Annotation of Recordings in Social Robotics vs. CA

293 Transcription

294 In this section, we present a comparative study of two productions 295 independently obtained with the same recording data from interactions with the robot 296 Pepper: an affective computing annotation to develop behaviour prediction (Figure 2) 297 and a CA transcription (Transcript 1). The goal of this section is to provide an in-depth 298 comparison of what is produced by both approaches. The first paragraph contrasts the 299 categories produced by the affective computing annotations with the principle of 300 emergence in conversation analysis from a methodological point of view. The second 301 paragraph aims to compare productions of each approach, showing: i) similar results 302 that have emerged from both affective computing annotation and transcription processes 303 and *ii*) complementary results that show how both processes could benefit from each 304 other. The third paragraph discusses the affective computing segmentation processes 305 from a conversation analysis perspective. We use as a guideline the framework 306 concerning the development of the system to predict participant engagement 307 breakdowns, and illustrate our study with examples of affective computing annotation 308 and CA transcription.

user1_2017 🗘	:03:13.000	00:03:14.000	00:03:15.000	00:03:16.000	00:03:17.000	00:03:18.000	00:(🔵 😑	file:///Users/utilisateur/Desktop/R
	····		+		·			1
,	:03:13.000	00:03:14.000	00:03:15.000	00:03:16.000	00:03:17.000	00:03:18.000	00:0	
Interaction							_	
Engagement					SED			T RANA
Cues_1					Head			
Affect					Disappointment			
[2] Cause					Robot says goodby	e too soon.		
[5]					Acoustic			
Cues_2 [5]					I			
Cues_3								
								Real Property Contraction
igure 2.	Affect	tive comp	outing ann	otation o	of interaction	on record	ings co	onducted with the
	~				the transc			

Transcript 1 user1_2017-03-03 312

309

310

311

313	01	Р	ablas esp[agnol
314			hablas español
315	02	R	[une autre fois\
316			another time
317	03	Р	<oh: ((look="" (0,5s)="" at="" smartphone))=""> (0,5s) ok ()je ne</oh:>
318	04		sais pas qué: qu'est-ce qué tou (1,1s) dire\
319			oh, ok I don't know what, what do yousay
320	Tran	script 16	. In this excerpt from an interaction between the robot Pepper and a
321	huma	in, turns	are delimited to the left by a letter for each participant (R for robot and P
322	for h	uman pa	rticipant), and to the right by the end of the line or several lines below (e.g.
323	the fi	rst robot	t's turn starts in L02, while the first participant's turn starts in L01, then he

- 324 produces another turn that starts in L03 and ends in L04). Pauses are indicated in
- 325 seconds. The font used (courier) allows for ideal vertical alignment. Such a layout is

⁵ https://tla.mpi.nl/tools/tla-tools/elan

⁶ We use an adaptation of ICOR transcription conventions:

http://icar.cnrs.fr/projets/corinte/documents/2013_Conv_ICOR_250313.pdf

326	used to retain the outline of the course of the interaction over time by seeking to
327	reproduce the details of verbal behaviours, overlaps (marked by square brackets [),
328	intonations indicating the end of a turn (going up or down with the signs / or \), but also
329	bodily behaviours (in this case looking at the smartphone, indicated in double
330	parentheses in L03 with the signs "<>" that delineate the co-occurrence of this
331	behaviour with the verbal conduct). Intended to be as neutral as possible, such a
332	transcription is then subject to analysis that can lead to it being refined, for instance by
333	detailing the timing of the participant's orientation towards his smartphone with respect
334	to his turn in L03.

335

a. Categories vs. emergence principle: methodological comparison

336 The goal of an affective computing annotation scheme is to define the macro-337 categories that can be learned by the system. These categories must be sufficiently 338 represented in the data and relatively easy to annotate. The quality of the models learned 339 will depend heavily on the quality and quantity of the annotations obtained. All the 340 difficulty lies in defining an annotation protocol to establish convergence between the 341 annotations of multiple annotators, knowing that socio-emotional behaviours are highly 342 subjective phenomena that are difficult to define in an annotation (Cowie & Cornelius, 343 2003). The performances of the models learned are also evaluated using these 344 annotations as a reference, acknowledging that it is sometimes difficult to determine 345 what annotation is the most relevant between the automatic annotation of the system 346 and human annotation (Clavel & Callejas, 2016).

347		In the case of the study of disengagement, we conducted an annotation of the
348	differe	ent videos collected, an example of which is given in Figure 2. Four categories
349	were d	lefined upstream to delimit the phenomena to annotate:
350	•	BD (engagement BreakDown): phase when the participant leaves the
351		interaction;
352	•	EBD (Early sign of future engagement BreakDown): the first precursor sign of
353		an engagement breakdown (necessarily results in an engagement breakdown,
354		and is therefore different from a SED and a TD);
355	•	SED (Sign of Engagement Decrease); and
356	٠	TD (Temporary disengagement) (TD): phase during which the participant
357		interrupts the interaction before returning (this is a disengagement related to an
358		external interruption, such as a third person).
359		Modelled on the work in (Clavel, Vasilescu, & Devillers, 2011), a sub-
360	charac	terization of these macro-categories was also proposed and consisted of the
361	follow	ing tasks:
362	1.	Defining the main verbal and non-verbal cues that characterize the annotated
363		phenomena (no sub-segmentation provided): speech, facial expressions, or
364		gestures (see Cues1 field: Head in Figure 2).
365	2.	Specifying if emotions were expressed in these annotation segments (no sub-
366		segmentation provided) and identifying them in the following list of negative
367		emotions: frustration, boredom, nervousness, disappointment, anger, submission
368		(see Affect Field: Disappointment in Figure 2).
369	3.	Providing an interpretation of the participant's disengagement (see <i>Cause field</i> :
370		"Robot says goodbye to soon" in Figure 2).

371	4. Identifying secondary cues (see <i>Cues2 field: Acoustic</i> in Figure 2)
372	The objective of this subcategorization was to provide cues to understand how
373	the system functions and to interpret the reasons (explanatory cues) for which the
374	system detected the emergence of this category of phenomena. Indeed, when analyzing
375	the performance of the machine learning models of the marco-categories, the
376	subcategories can explain the behaviours of the system. For example, if the errors of the
377	automatic detection of an engagement breakdown are always located in segments where
378	boredom is expressed, it may think that the system missed to model this type of
379	expression of engagement breakdown.
380	The tool ELAN was used for these affective computing annotations (see Figure
380 381	The tool ELAN was used for these affective computing annotations (see Figure 2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our
381	2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our
381 382	2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our own annotation scheme. For example, the segment annotated on Figure 2 is constructed
381 382 383	2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our own annotation scheme. For example, the segment annotated on Figure 2 is constructed as a so-called "parent" category (SED) followed by associated cues or comments. In
381382383384	2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our own annotation scheme. For example, the segment annotated on Figure 2 is constructed as a so-called "parent" category (SED) followed by associated cues or comments. In this case, there is a bodily cue called Cue 1 ("head"), a non-lexical cue called Cue 2
 381 382 383 384 385 	2). It is an annotation tool for multimodal dialogue. This tool allows us to define our own annotation scheme. For example, the segment annotated on Figure 2 is constructed as a so-called "parent" category (SED) followed by associated cues or comments. In this case, there is a bodily cue called Cue 1 ("head"), a non-lexical cue called Cue 2 ("acoustic"), an emotional cue ("disappointment") and, last of all, a Cause comment

389 explanatory cues—which greatly contrasts with the transcription mentality of

390 conversation analysis.

In conversation analysis transcription is a textual translation of repeated
observations from audio-visual data. In this sense, it constitutes a particular
configuration of the recorded reality, which is itself simply a particular configuration of
overall reality. From a methodological point of view, it is a research support that is not

395	sufficient in itself: the analysis is always carried out, transcription at hand, with repeated
396	visualizations of the corresponding audiovisual data. Transcription is both a necessary
397	and a reifying tool: it leads to decision-making and materializes a graphic layout (Ochs,
398	1979; Mondada, 2008), as we can see below in Figures 3 and 4, which show such
399	examples of transcription.
400	To summarize:
401	• Each type of transcription corresponds to a position and a goal for the researcher
402	or the transcriber.
403	• Each type of transcription corresponds to a status ascribed to the verbal and non-
404	verbal, and to the relationship maintained between the two.
405	• Transcription involves theoretical assumptions on the part of the transcriber,
406	which have a configuring effect on this transcription.
407	
408	Transcription and <i>a fortiori</i> affective computing annotation result in de-
409	contextualization, that is, extraction from the singular context of production and
410	transformations (for example, certain phenomena that appear anecdotal in the field
411	become worthy of interest and fixed during transcription / affective computing
412	annotation practices).
413	Nevertheless, the status of transcriptions in conversation analysis is radically
414	different from that of the computational approach's annotation diagrams-even though
415	both "describe" an undertaking to categorize interactional behaviours, whether by the
416	conversation analysis researcher or multiple affective computing annotators. In affective
417	computing annotation schemes, macro-categories (that can be learned by the system)
418	are associated with cues (which are relatively limited), and the practical reasoning used

419 by annotators is to some extent invisible. By contrast, conversation analysis 420 transcription is an intermediary that attempts to be as neutral as possible between the 421 raw data and the researcher's analysis. This tendency of relative neutrality in the 422 production of transcripts refers to an orientation of the researcher towards the analysis 423 of participants' practical reasoning in the here and now of their social interactions. Note 424 that CA community is familiar with ELAN interface as a mean to visualize and account 425 for multimodal phenomena during collective work processes ('data sessions') and as 426 screenshots for publications (Mondada, 2006, 2008). 427 Nonetheless, conversation analysis is not fundamentally prevented from seeking 428 out systematicity (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Stivers, 2015). Even though 429 debate exists within the CA community, it is not unreasonable to want to improve or 430 challenge the macro-categories resulting from the description modes of the 431 computational approach. In this approach, using the analysis of micro-phenomena can 432 feed a diversity of cues associated with these macro-categories in annotation schemes.

433

b. Categories vs. emergence principles: comparison of two types of

434 production

To demonstrate this, let us contrast the affective computing annotation presented in Figure 2 with the transcription of the same excerpt, taken from a common corpus of interactions between the robot Pepper and humans. Note that both processes have been carried out independently. This affective computing annotation is characterized by the annotated segment as a "sign of engagement decrease" (SED). The complete transcription of this segment and of what goes after is presented in Transcript 2.

441 Transcript 2 user1_2017-03-03

442	01	Р	ablas esp[agnol
443			hablas español
444	02	R	[une autre fois\
445			another time
446	03	Р	<oh: ((look="" (0,5s)="" at="" smartphone))=""> (0,5s) ok ()je ne</oh:>
447	04		sais pas qué: qu'est-ce qué tou (1,1s) dire\
448			oh, ok I don't know what, what do yousay
449	05		(3,65)
450	06	Р	<((with greeting gesture)) au revoir/>
451			goodbye
452	07		(6,2s)
453	08	Р	<((with greeting gesture and body torq)) au revoir Pepper\>
454			goodbye Pepper
455	Trans	script 2.	Transcription associated with Figure 3 and 4
455 456	Trans	•	Transcription associated with Figure 3 and 4 ler to visualize the correspondence that could be found between the two
		In ore	
456	produ	In orc	ler to visualize the correspondence that could be found between the two
456 457	produ annot	In ord actions,	ler to visualize the correspondence that could be found between the two we manually integrated the segments of transcriptions corresponding to the
456 457 458	produ annot excer	In ord actions, cation er pt revea	der to visualize the correspondence that could be found between the two we manually integrated the segments of transcriptions corresponding to the nvironment in Figure 3 and 4. These figures show that in CA, analyzing the
456 457 458 459	produ annot excer expla	In ord actions, ration er pt revea natory i	der to visualize the correspondence that could be found between the two we manually integrated the segments of transcriptions corresponding to the nvironment in Figure 3 and 4. These figures show that in CA, analyzing the als much more detailed information than that annotated, and may provide

🖉 🔍 🖉 file:///Users/utilisateur/Desktop/Research/ParisTe	
00:03:27.000 00:03:28.000 00:03:28	00:03:33.000 00:03:34.000 00:03:35.000 00:03:
SED Gestures	SED Gestures
	un autre au rev]
	Linguistic
06 P <((with greeting gesture)) au revoir> goodbye	

Figure 3. Assemblage of CA transcription – affective computing annotation



Figure 4. Assemblage of CA transcription – affective computing annotation (continued)
A first example of interesting details provided by CA transcription is given in
Figure 3. Within the segment annotated signs of engagement decreased (SED), the
affective computing annotation indicates globally that it is characterized by linguistic

470 ("un au revoir") and gestural cues, while the CA transcription details the type and the471 exact timing of gesture that accompanied the "au revoir".

472 A second example is given in Figure 4. The affective computing annotation 473 indicates a decrease in engagement by using the annotation of the SED category, and 474 specifies that it consists of acoustic cues and cues related to head movements (Head). 475 Here, the CA transcription reveals different cues with their interpretation allowing one 476 to anticipate the engagement breakdown that are not given by the affective computing 477 annotation: i) in (L01-02), the CA transcription allows us to identify a potential cause 478 of participant's engagement decrease that occurs before the SED affective computing 479 segment: an overlap between participant turns (the robot (R) produces a turn that causes 480 an overlap (L01-02)) and a violation of adjacency principle by the robot (the 481 participant's turn is a question addressed at R concerning a language skill but R 482 produces a turn that is topically inconsistent with P's question); *ii*) the "oh" produced 483 quietly and transcribed in the CA transcription (L03) follows this overlap and marks 484 thus a reaction to this transgression. This cue occurs during SED segment but is just 485 signaled as acoustic cues by affective computing annotation; *iii*) the head cue annotated 486 in the affective computing annotation in Figure 4 is more precise in CA transcript. It is 487 detailed as an accompaniment of the verbal behaviour "oh" with the orientation of P 488 towards his smartphone (L03); iv) the CA transcription indicates in L03-L04 linguistic 489 cues denoting the re-engagement of the participant in the interaction. Reengagement is 490 not so far included in the affective computing annotation categories. In CA 491 transcription, we note that the "ok" seems to mark a re-engagement, a springboard 492 (Beach, 1993; Rollet, 2013) towards a new orientation: that of moving towards the end 493 of the interaction. This orientation is made visible by the production of a unit ("je ne

494	sais pas qué: qu'est-ce qué tou (1,1s) dire\") that topicalizes an unresolvable non-
495	understanding; v) the pre-closing phenomenon, that is, an interactional behaviour that
496	sequentially precedes and serves to project the closing as such (Sacks & Schegloff,
497	1973). This phenomenon is illustrated here by the re-engagement cues to move towards
498	the interactions described above. In this case, an "interactional blank cheque" is being
499	given by P, which is followed by a 3.6s slot granted to R which is therefore transcribed
500	on a separate line (L05).

501

502 Another interesting aspect of comparing the two forms of notation of this extract 503 concerns the relationship between turns L02, L03 and L04. An initial analysis offered 504 by the transcription is that in L03-04, P is marking disengagement according to two 505 mechanisms (gestural-he looks at his cell phone-and verbal). And, still according to 506 this analysis, the robot's turn L02 can be described as a transgression of the "one 507 speaker at a time" rule (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), made visible by the 508 reaction that this transgression provokes (L03 "Oh"). In other words, in this case, a 509 transgressive value is ascribed to the robot's turn L02, and P is attributed the initiative 510 to move in two steps towards the end of the interaction.

However, an alternative to this analysis is possible, and can be derived from the affective computing annotation itself. Specifically, in the annotation, there is a comment associated with SED under the "cause" section: *Robot says goodbye too soon*. The first comment we can make is that such a "cause" is consistent with categorizing a segment as a "decrease in engagement". However, we can go even further. This comment is an analysis of an entirely different level than, for example, the Cue1 section with "head". This is a categorial and sequential analysis that has a significant influence on the

518	subsequent interpretation of P's behaviour. The fact that the annotator comments on R's
519	turn, "another time" as "Robot says goodbye too soon", and because this is not a
520	"goodbye" in the strict sense, shows that he considers this turn to be a behaviour
521	projecting a closing, such as a "goodbye": this is precisely the work accomplished by a
522	pre-closing, or a <i>junction</i> ⁷ in general (Button, 1991). If this is the case, P's "oh" may be
523	an indication of disappointment due not to technical incompetence revealed by the
524	emergence of an overlap (with a thematically incongruent turn), but to the participant
525	analyzing Pepper's turn as a pre-closing. Hence, P's turn, and in particular the unit "je
526	ne sais pas qué: qu'est-ce qué tou (1,1s) dire\", could be analyzed as an alignment
527	(constructed through topicalizing a non-understanding) with the end of the interaction,
528	initiated by the robot: something along the lines of "I guess we don't understand each
529	other". Following this analysis, the disengagement is therefore not initiated by P but
530	rather, from P's viewpoint, by R. Contrary to a disengagement, it is rather an affiliation
531	(Stivers, 2008) of the participant towards the disengagement of the robot.
532	These two comparative analyses show to what extent the interpretation of a
533	behaviour - even that of a robot - is not as univocal as it may seem, as soon as it is
534	examined in its interactional framework. Moreover, regardless of the interpretation
535	prioritized, a central and well-described sequence in conversation analysis literature
536	emerges as an essential phenomenon for analyzing disengagement: pre-closing.
537	Cues, such as verbal (the exclamation "oh") and non-verbal cues (posture, gaze)
538	and conversation analysis' interpretation of them also facilitate our understanding of

⁷ The *junction* refers to a conversational pivot action that switches from the current topic to the closing. It is done in the current topic. There are several forms of action that put interaction on a closing track, e.g. projecting future activities, announcement of departure, or formulating summaries.

539	engagement breakdowns and can subsequently be integrated into the annotation scheme
540	or automatically annotated in order to be quantified. If they are sufficiently frequent and
541	representative, they can be added to the features extracted from videos for the machine
542	learning of the system to detect engagement breakdowns.
543	c. Segmentation
544	The allocation of categories by the annotation schemes used in social robotics
545	discussed above is generally based on a prior stage of segmenting audio/video feeds that
546	allows one to delimit annotation segments. In this case, we present a conversation
547	analysis viewpoint of the segments and phenomena thus delimited.
548	Annotating consists of two main stages. In the first stage the segments
549	associated with the above-mentioned categories are identified according to the
550	following steps:
551	1. Detecting the occurrences of one of these categories of phenomena (TD, EBD,
552	etc., see 2.a).
553	2. Segmenting those phenomena over time by defining their time boundaries
554	(segments that appear in the form of rectangles in Figures 2 and 5). Attributing
555	the category identified to these time segments. These annotation time segments
556	are called annotation units.
557	We believe to be crucial, first, discussing the segmentation of the interaction
558	flow and, second, the categorization of the segments as well as the analysis level that
559	they underpin. If we once again consider the comparative analysis of affective
560	computing annotation vs. transcription presented above, a second conclusion that
561	emerges is that annotation segments are "too macro". Concretely, P's turn in L03-04

- 562 can be successively analyzed as an indication of disengagement, with the "oh + looks at
- 563 cell phone", and a re-engagement initiated by "ok". Specifically (Figure 5):



Early sign of future engagement BreakDown

Figure 5. Assemblage diagram with CA transcription (from Transcript 2) and affectiveannotation (from Figure 4)

567

568	Such a breakdown suggests a methodological viewpoint already mentioned
569	above: transcription attempts to provide analysis with the means of rendering
570	(accounting for) participants' ways of doing. This is particularly true for segmentation.
571	Even though analysis requires one to extract and isolate interaction segments, this task
572	can run the risk of losing its "natural" explanatory basis by becoming de-
573	contextualized—with researchers in that case running behind something that was
574	nonetheless already there. For if we, the second-hand observers, manage to follow a
575	conversation or to understand a fragment of an interaction, it is because an initial
576	analysis undertaking in praesentia took place.

577	By reconsidering the example in Figure 5, we note that the work accomplished
578	by the participant through what he says and does can be described in three stages. Three
579	stages for a turn; three turn-constructional units (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974;
580	Ford & Thompson, 1996) which each accomplish something different, as we describe
581	above (Paragraph 2.a). A turn is a participation unit. It can be composed of multiple
582	sub-units which are often delimited in terms of syntax, intonation, semantics, or
583	pragmatics—and even gesturally or rhythmically. A turn is a contribution to the
584	progressiveness of a situated interaction, and an initial signifying segmentation
585	undertaking is conducted by the interactants themselves in the here and now of their
586	social activities.

587 From a machine learning viewpoint, the question of the analysis unit is 588 fundamental: what time frames of analysis should be used to extract social signals, and 589 which units should be considered a frame for decision-making for the phenomenon to 590 predict? Conversation analysis contributes to understand how people themselves break 591 down the stream of language, and can help provide indications around the choice of 592 analysis unit or the decision frame.

593 **3. Conclusion and Prospects**

In this article we have presented an affective computing annotation protocol dedicated to a project to detect disengagement in human-robot interactions. In the frame of an interdisciplinary collaboration between machine learning and conversation analysis within social robotics, this critical and constructive viewpoint can be applied to the analysis of:

Context and relevancy: combining a multidimensional viewpoint with that of the
 interacting participants, affords a perspective that encompasses the situated
 nature of social behaviours.

Issues surrounding annotation and the segmenting of interaction flows: as stated
 in Paragraph 2a., breaking down and categorizing the behaviours appearing in
 interactions are not meaningless practices: they relate to forms of representation
 with respect to the relationship between the verbal and the non-verbal, as well as
 regarding the level of exogenous ('etic') production of meaning.

607 The question of sequentiality as a new "explanatory feature": this is a dimension 608 that is all too often neglected but can nonetheless constitute a fundamental 609 resource in the endogenous production of meaning, in the same way as the 610 syntactic, semantic, melodic, and pragmatic levels. The identification of 611 phenomena such as pre-closings and junctions as cues of disengagement not 612 only concerns a set of typical actions ("I gotta go", "talk to you later", etc.), but 613 also a space of interaction that highlights the significant relationship between 614 "what has just happened" and "what could happen next".

An initial line of collaboration between the two disciplines is based on the idea that interaction is more fluid through robotic behaviours that tend towards a form of ordinariness (that is, practices that are recognizable as being able to appear in an ordinary, daily, and routine social interaction (Sacks, 1984)). In other words, collaboration in creating scenarios can consist in providing designers with the viewpoint of a competent participant of everyday life who has developed a reflexive perspective

621 with respect to his or her own (ordinary) practices, which is then refined through

detailed observations of diverse social interactions. The following interaction cues serveas examples:

- the acoustic forms of a robot's utterances which project an action in a sequential
 process;
- the construction of turns as pragmatic units that are not necessarily primarily
 based on syntactic or semantic considerations; and

the orientation of actions from a sequential viewpoint, that is, in a logic of turn taking system and establishing interactional episodes or activities.

630 As another prospect for collaboration, attention can be drawn to the explanatory 631 cues of an annotation category. In the scheme presented above (Section 1), a number of 632 cues ranging from the human-robot distance to acoustic features and spatial orientation 633 are highlighted. Moreover, analyzing the interaction excerpt between the robot Pepper 634 and a human (cf. Paragraph 2.a) reveals a fundamental feature in explaining 635 disengagement in social interaction in general. Specifically, beyond the pre-closing 636 phenomenon as such, the sequential dimension appears to be central and the machine 637 learning chosen must be able to integrate this sequentiality. To analyze how a robot's 638 turn (such as "another time") is treated by the participant ("je ne sais pas qu'est-ce qué 639 tou dire"), semantic, acoustic and pragmatic contents are not enough: the sequential 640 positioning highly contributes on the grasp of what takes place, what follows, and what 641 the participant makes accountable. It thus becomes necessary to establish a way of 642 categorizing / codifying this sequential dimension each time that the annotator, aware of 643 this dimension, observes its consequential nature. This awareness means considering a 644 certain teaching process intended for annotators, and questioning how far this can be 645 taken. The first step would be to sensitize annotators on pre-closings and conclusive

646	junctions as familiar phenomena they do experience in their ordinary life even if they've
647	never 'conceptualized' it - a step we've been just started to test. Affective computing
648	annotation work is already moving in this direction, consisting of the canonical
649	sequential format in interaction, and namely adjacent pairs (Langlet & Clavel, 2014),
650	such as the question-answer sequence. Rather than leaving this field completely open to
651	the annotator, the idea here is to enrich the explanatory cues of a macro-category (TD,
652	EBD, BD, SED) by implementing the "Cause" section of the best-demarcated sub-cues:
653	first comes the question of sequentiality, but we can also consider the pragmatic or even
654	topical dimension. In this sense, the precision regarding the annotation segment
655	addressed in the Cause section becomes crucial. These sub-cues can either be used as
656	subcategories to be predicted by machine learning, or for the design of the input features
657	of machine learning in order to improve disengagement prediction models.
658	These prospects raise the question of the extent to which the phenomena
659	observed in the data can be sufficiently formalized to be processed for machine learning
660	in order to improve machines' ability in detecting these phenomena. Moreover, to what
661	extent is the tension between the principle of describing the uniqueness of cases -
662	defining the analytical mentality of Conversation Analysis - and the requirement of
663	generalization for the training of automatic models bearable? That is to say, how closely
664	can we model the uniqueness and emerging nature of social interaction?
665	

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