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A turn to language: How interactional sociolinguistics informs the redesign of prompt:response chatbot turns

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1 A turn to language: how interactional sociolinguistics informs the 2 redesign of prompt:response chatbot turns

5 Abstract

6 This paper discusses how a microlevel linguistic analysis, using interactional sociolinguistics as an umbrella
7 framework and drawing on analytical concepts from politeness theory and conversation analysis, can be
8 used to advise chatbot designers on the interactional features contributing to problematic human user
9 engagement as part of a consultancy project. Existing research using a microlevel linguistic analysis has
10 analysed human user:bot interactions using natural language. This research has identified a central role
11 for language which promotes sociability between the machine and users in the alignment of their goals
12 and practices. However, there is no research currently which discusses how a microlevel linguistic analysis
13 can help identify how the discursive construction of alignment and affiliation within prompt:response
14 chatbots supports social presence and trust. This paper addresses this gap through an analysis of a
15 database of prompt:response chatbot interactions which identified problematic sequences involving
16 misalignment and disaffiliation, undermining human users' trust and sense of social presence within the
17 interaction. It also reports on how the consultancy project suggested changes to the programming of the
18 chatbot which have potential to lead to improved user engagement and satisfaction.

20 Keywords

22 chatbots; micro-analysis; trust; alignment; affiliation; social presence

24 Funding

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28 1. Introduction

29 Digital interactions within social or commercial contexts rely on the human user (hereon referred to as
30 the 'user') being engaged and having a pleasant experience. This also applies for customers in
31 conversation with chat-bots (hereon referred to as 'bots'). Natural language technology used in some bots
32 provides an initial boost to 'connect' users to a conversation through the mimicking of human behaviour,
33 where novelty and curiosity support engagement. An example would be Xiaoice, a chatbot designed to
34 convey 'empathy' by using natural language to ask questions, offer greetings and engage the 'user' in
35 social dialogue (Zhou, Gao, Li, & Shum, 2018). An alternative strategy of a prompt:response design
36 provides a more constrained user experience, where users select from a range of options at each turn
37 rather than engaging with the bot using natural language. We argue that given the constraints for user
38 engagement, it is particularly critical to consider the 'human perspective' in order to optimise the bot's
39 design.

40 This paper reports on a consultancy project in which two researchers, representing applied linguistics and
41 social psychology, were tasked by a bot development company to review the prompt:response volleys of
42 their commercial bot, designed to handle enquiries from customers wishing to make a complex product
43 purchase on a website. In a typical prompt: response bot, the bot and the user communicate through pre-
44 written question and answer volleys. The bot is programmed to use the input given by the user and ask
45 relevant follow-up questions. The bot's communication method is solely text-based to guide the
46 interaction to identify customer problems and needs. The bot works unsupervised and its role in customer
47 support requires effective operation against multiple objectives including initial engagement, subject
48 orientation, preference gathering, detailed product information and recommendations for purchase.
49 However, feedback from users and observers during internal usability testing was that conversations
50 sometimes seem ponderous, annoying, underwhelming or even simply boring. To illustrate how the
51 chatbot operates in interaction with a user, the following screenshot shows an example of the chatbot
52 develop company's bot after the intervention described in this paper (see Image 1).

53



54

55 Image 1: Chatbot interaction (image © Account Management Online Limited)

56 Since words are a key mechanism, the researchers approached this project with a language-led
57 perspective, believing that improving the programming of the bot's language use could increase positive
58 user engagement and enjoyment. This paper shows how interactional sociolinguistics, with analytical
59 tools derived from conversation analysis, and face and politeness theory, was used to make suggestions
60 for changes to the bot design. This work was conducted using designer authored algorithmic databases of
61 prompt:response volleys provided by the chatbot design company as well as a number of conversations
62 between the researchers and the bot. This is a novel area of research, given that prompt:response bot
63 interactions have so far only been subjected to subjectivist and interpretative research.

64

65 2. Theoretical perspectives

66 **2.1 Social presence, trust and alignment**

67 Previous research has established that the constructs of social presence, trust and alignment are
68 associated with higher levels of user engagement (Li and Mao, 2015). This section starts by discussing
69 these core concepts, followed by a discussion of the research methodologies which have previously been
70 used to understand user:bot interaction. We then discuss how a language-led approach can inform
71 research on user:bot interaction. More specifically, we outline a microlevel linguistic approach that draws
72 on analytical tools and concepts from interactional sociolinguistics and pragmatics.

73 Social presence is the degree to which users perceive each other as being present within an online
74 interface or "how feelings of human contact can be created without actual human contact" (Schurink,
75 2019, p. 9). Key variables for user:bot interaction which support social presence have been identified as
76 sociability, warmth, personal connection and sensitivity (Schuetzler et al., 2018). Higher levels of social
77 presence have been attributed to reducing user's feelings of helplessness, particularly when task-
78 complexity is high and leading to higher levels of user satisfaction (Schurink, 2019). Bot design has focused
79 on user experiences which are 'personalised' and likely to lead to 'hedonic' rather than solely 'utilitarian'
80 user experience, where hedonic experience may be associated with more pleasurable user engagement
81 and evaluations of bots as more credible (Li and Mao, 2015). User perceptions of trust in and alignment

82 with the bot are two key conditions for the establishment of social presence (Clark et al., 2019; Folstad et
83 al., 2018).

84 Trust is defined as “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon
85 positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another” (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395) and is
86 believed to be borne out of trustor’s perceptions of expertise, benevolence and integrity of the trustee.
87 Traditionally, research into bot user’s experiences has shown that bot ‘expertise’ for accurately
88 interpreting user’s goals, matched with its answer eloquence and its anthropomorphic characteristics, as
89 well as user experiences of low risk interactions are key features which support user’s trust in the bot
90 (Nordheim, 2018).

91 Alignment is understood in user:bot interaction as a condition in which bots are programmed to support
92 higher levels of congruence between users’ expectations and the bot’s responses to these expectations
93 (Branigan et al., 2010; Li and Mao, 2015). Research suggests users perceive bots as social actors, and are,
94 therefore, likely to identify cues representative of personality, ethnicity and gendered characteristics
95 based on bot conversational styles, and whether these support more or less congruency (Mou et al.,
96 2019).

97 Alignment and affiliation are often used as synonyms in microlevel analyses. However, alignment has
98 tended to focus on features of interaction which demonstrate actions where two parties ‘align’ their
99 actions. An example would be of an interaction involving storytelling, in which both parties mutually
100 recognise each other’s rights to ‘access the floor’. This can be contrasted with misalignment,
101 demonstrated when, for example, one party undermines the other’s right to give their account (Lindström
102 and Sorjonen, 2012). In a service provider context, the importance of alignment was identified as essential
103 for effectively managing the coordination of help seeking in telephone calls to an emergency centre
104 (Raymond and Zimmerman, 2016). For example, alignment was achieved when the presenting issue was
105 readily codeable (e.g. an established event, such as a burglary) leading to the help provider giving a service
106 announcement (e.g. we’ll send a police officer). Misalignment occurred when the presenting issues was
107 more circumspect, as it required a further narrative on the part of the help seeker, and the call completion
108 was less likely to have been resolved (Raymond and Zimmerman, 2016).

109 In contrast, Strivers (2008) proposed that the term affiliation should be reserved for responses which
110 endorse and support the other speaker's perspective by, for example, demonstrating affect and 'social
111 solidarity'. Question and answer sequences which demonstrate a 'shared orientation' to a task such as
112 'getting information on record' have been shown to be important for establishing affiliation (Steensig and
113 Larsen, 2008). Epistemic access is also important in displaying affiliation and demonstrated when there is
114 congruence between both speakers' actions in recognising each other's claims to knowledge.
115 Disaffiliation occurs when a claim to knowledge is challenged or contested, and is likely to lead to re-
116 evaluation, such as downgrades by one party (Heritage, 2013).

117 In order to understand the features of user:bot interaction which support social presence, trust and
118 alignment and affiliation, a range of research methodologies have been deployed in previous research.
119 For example, there is a tradition involving positivistic methodologies, such as experimentation involving
120 the manipulation and measurement of user:bot interactional variables. An example is the system design
121 of Xiaolce, a social bot, which involved the use of a set of heuristics which were developed through user
122 engagement. This process led to the bot designers identifying associations between different discussion
123 topics and users' cognitive and affective/emotional responses to them (Zhou, Gao, Li, & Shum, 2018).
124 These associations were used to support bot content creation and subsequent user engagement,
125 measured by the number of conversation turns per session (CPS), where a greater number was believed
126 indicative of higher levels of trust and empathetic user:bot interaction (Zhou et al., 2018). Also in this
127 tradition, an experimental study exploring customer satisfaction and emotional connection in commercial
128 bot interactions, found that bots which used so-called extrovert linguistics – e.g. other-focused talk,
129 informal talk, few hedges and conversation initiation, were associated with higher levels of customer
130 satisfaction and emotional connection (De Lannoy, 2017). In another experimental study, a virtual real
131 estate agent was used to test associations between users' reported satisfaction and enjoyment of
132 interaction with the virtual agent and its ability to accurately recall user information. In the condition
133 where the virtual agent incorrectly remembered user information, users reported significant frustration
134 (Richards and Bransky, 2014).

135 Other studies on social presence, trust and alignment in user:bot interactions have used interpretive
136 methodologies involving either interviews (Følstad et al., 2018) or questionnaires (Nordheim, 2018) to
137 explore users' perceptions of their experience in engaging with bots. However, these methodologies make
138 ontological assumptions about the 'nature' of user:bot interactions which support social presence, trust
139 and alignment in that they presuppose that interactional features can be measured as either a set of
140 discrete variables for relatively fixed and pre-determined behaviour (positivistic) and that the subtleties
141 of interaction are recognisable to users (subjective and interpretative). In doing so, they miss
142 opportunities to understand key features of human interaction, as they unfold, turn-by-turn.
143 We thus argue that a microlevel linguistic analysis of interaction is necessary to understand how social
144 presence, trust and alignment are constructed through language in a solely text-based environment in
145 which no other modes (e.g. gesture, expression, tone of voice) are available. Microlevel linguistic analysis
146 to identify features of talk-in-interaction which are associated with alignment/misalignment and
147 affiliation/disaffiliation has an established tradition in telephone and online contexts (e.g. Gehle et al.,
148 2014; Markman, K., 2009; Pappas and Seale, 2009; Raymond and Zimmerman, 2016; Rintel et al., 2001;
149 Sahin et al., 2017; Stommel and te Molder, 2015; Süßenbach et al., 2012). However, as yet there is, to
150 our knowledge, no research in this area for prompt:response bots.

151

152 ***2.2 Microlevel linguistic analysis of interaction: concepts and existing research***

153 A range of concepts derived from conversation analysis (CA), such as adjacency pair and repair, as well as
154 from face and politeness theory, have previously been used for the microanalysis of interactions to
155 account for the possible cues that may lead to misalignment and disaffiliation in user:bot interactions and
156 thereby undermine the user's sense of social presence and trust with the bot.

157 Conversation analysis is normally focused on investigating natural language and is concerned with how
158 speakers orientate and achieve action in the interaction through the orderliness and sequential
159 organisation of talk. Research in CA has shown that talk is often organised in two part exchanges, called
160 'adjacency pairs', in which the second pair part (SPP) is functionally dependent on the first pair part (FPP).
161 A second important concept is that of 'repair', relating to speakers' practices to address interactional

162 trouble in speaking, hearing and understanding (Hutchby and Woofit, 1998). Liebscher and Dailey O’Cain
163 (2003) describe repair as a ‘Role-Defining Mechanism’, with access to repair defining speakers’ roles and
164 epistemic stances. In human:bot interaction, individuals’ degree of repair initiation and intersubjective
165 effort has been linked to the bot’s anthropomorphic features (Corti and Gillespie, 2016).

166 The term ‘face’ is often attributed to Goffman (1967), who defines it an image of self which is co-
167 constructed through interaction with others. Brown and Levinson (1987) extended Goffman’s face
168 concept to describe ‘positive face’ as individuals want for connection, for feeling wanted and needed, and
169 ‘negative face’ as individuals want not to be imposed on, to keep their distance from others. They further
170 argue that specific speech acts threaten face – for instance, a request threatens the addressee’s negative
171 face as it imposes on them to complete the required action – and that politeness strategies can mitigate
172 the face threat.

173 Microlevel language-focused analyses of the interaction between humans via the instrumentality of
174 machines are not new (see Paulus et al., 2016 for a summary of CA-based studies). For example, Garcia
175 and Jacobs (1999) and Schönfeldt and Golato (2003) investigated online chat, with a focus on turn-taking
176 and repair respectively. Stommel et al. (2017) focused on the role of hyperlinks as turns in service-focused
177 chats, Gibson (2009) discussed the sequential organisation of turns in an asynchronous discussion group
178 and Farina (2018) described the structure and organisation of comment threads on facebook. Other
179 studies are comparative, e.g. Meredith and Stokoe’s (2014) comparison of facebook chat with spoken
180 interaction which foregrounds ‘repair’.

181 While all these studies deal with instances in which two or more individuals use natural language
182 (speaking and writing) with one another, others investigated human interactions with bots and robots.
183 Süssenbach et al. (2012) used CA to reveal how competence is constructed in human interactions with a
184 robot acting as a fitness instructor and Gehle et al. (2014) investigated repair in interactions between
185 museums visitors and guide robots. Sahin et al. (2017) applied CA to interactions between a chatbot
186 mimicking a real person as the recipient of spam phone calls. Li et al. (2019), using CA to investigate
187 sources of communication breakdown between users and a banking chatbot, showed that these

188 breakdowns occurred when the bot was misunderstood, or when it failed to recognise the user's intended
189 meaning.

190 Theories of politeness and face have also been recognised as an important tool for analysing interactions
191 mediated through technology (Morand and Ocker, 2002; Locher, 2010). Darics (2010), for example,
192 conducted a micro-analysis of politeness strategies in instant messaging interactions in a professional
193 setting. She found that participants adapted strategies from spoken interactions for the virtual (written)
194 discourse to conduct relational work and establish a community of practice. Using these insights, she
195 argued that an interactional perspective would allow for a fuller understanding of how language functions
196 in a merely text-based environment. As far as bots and embodied conversational agents are concerned,
197 we are however only aware of two studies which apply politeness theory. One of these (De Jong et al.,
198 2008) described a model for adapting the politeness strategies used by a virtual museum guide to match
199 the politeness level of its human communicators. The other one (Wallis and Norling, 2005), argued that a
200 bot's ability to negotiate social relationships, and thus align with human expectations and behaviours, is
201 much more important to users than its knowledge of the world: "The thing humans do however is to
202 negotiate their failure. [...] These negotiations can be seen as taking the form of a dialogue game, and the
203 problem with conversational agents is that they, often, simply do not play the game" (p. 34).

204

205 ***2.3 Interactional sociolinguistics – an analytical umbrella framework***

206 As stated earlier, there is evidence from research that users perceive bots as social actors (Mou et al.,
207 2019), and there is a developing evidence-base derived from the application of CA to user:machine
208 interactions which involve natural language (see 2.2). However, this study focuses on user:bot interactions
209 which do not involve natural language. It is for this reason that interactional sociolinguistics (IS) represents
210 the most appropriate umbrella framework for our analysis.

211 Interactional sociolinguistics is concerned with the use of language in its social context. In contrast to
212 other microanalytical perspectives on talk-in-action such as CA, interactional sociolinguistics interprets
213 what is happening in a sequence of talk rather than uncovering and predicting patterns. Its power is,
214 according to Bailey (2008), in "account[ing] for how different dimensions of communicative behaviour are

215 related, e.g. prosody and words, and to explain the achievement, or lack of achievement, of
216 intersubjective understanding in particular instances of interaction” (p.2317).

217 One of the core concepts of interactional sociolinguistics is the ‘contextualisation cue’, a verbal or
218 nonverbal feature “by which speakers signal and listeners interpret what the activity is, how the semantic
219 content is to be understood and how each sentence relates to what precedes or follows” (Gumperz, 1982,
220 p. 31). Contextualisation cues signal communicative intent and determine what communicative intent is
221 received and perceived. Applying this concept to digital discourse, Darics (2013) showed, using instant
222 messaging (IM) interactions from a virtual workplace, how letter repetition signals affect, excitement and
223 emotional involvement, creates intimacy and collegiality, and signposts the nature of the power
224 relationship between participants.

225 To uncover the cues which signal communicative intent, interactional sociolinguistics liberally draws on
226 other analytical traditions and frameworks, prompting Bailey (2008, p. 2317) to talk about its ‘eclectic
227 toolbox’ (Bailey, 2008, p. 2317). For example, Stubbe (2010) positioned her study of miscommunication
228 within the overall framework of interactional sociolinguistics but draws on CA’s repair concepts to conduct
229 the analysis. In another example deploying face and politeness theory, Jagodziński and Archer (2018)
230 investigated call centre practices contribute to customer experience. They show that forced adherence to
231 quality guidelines and regulation through scripts prevents linguistic co-construction and co-creation of
232 the customer experience, with agents orienting primarily to transactional (task-oriented) rather than
233 relationally (face-oriented) oriented elements of exchanges. They thus argued that “this commodification
234 of language [...] runs contrary to pragmatic accounts of meaning, which emphasize its co-construction ‘in
235 the moment’ [...] (and) the understanding, within the marketing literature, that customer experience is a
236 co-creation between the representative of the company and the client” (p. 183).

237 Prompt:response bot interactions bear similarity to these scripted call-centre interaction as they do not
238 allow co-construction and ‘in the moment’ construction and negotiation of meaning and relationships.
239 Moreover, they are characterised by an extreme case of ‘context collapse’ (Androutsopoulos, 2014) as
240 the potential audience is very diverse and has unpredictable characteristics, making it more difficult to
241 tailor content and forms of talk (Frobenius, 2014) or, in other words, to ‘align’ with the user. As the bot

242 makes requests for information as well as requests to purchase a product, the choice of language for
243 prompts and response needs to allow for maximum possible alignment with user expectations and
244 enhance trust and social presence within the interaction.

245

246 **2.4 Aims and objectives for the study**

247 Interactional sociolinguistics, with its interpretative stance centred around the notion of ‘cues’ –
248 represented here by the scripted prompts and responses of the bot – and its broad analytical toolbox
249 make it an ideal umbrella framework to support this consultancy project. Specifically, this study explores,
250 using algorithmic databases of prompts and responses as well as researcher generated interactions with
251 a packing adviser bot and a software qualification bot, how the bot design was leading to bot:user
252 interaction which did not support user:bot alignment and affiliation, thereby undermining user trust and
253 social presence within the interaction. The microlevel linguistic analysis focuses on question design and
254 the design of response options available.

255

256 3. Method

257 **3.1 Design**

258 A case study method was adopted to explore alternative methodological approaches for analysing
259 user:bot interaction which did not involve natural language. As argued by Yin (2017), a case study method
260 can address explanatory, rather than just descriptive or exploratory research questions because it enables
261 in-depth analysis of relevant case examples in their real-world context. While a case study is not
262 generalisable to wider populations, it does have the power to be generalisable to ‘theoretical
263 propositions’ in the wider research literature (Yin, 2017) and is useful in identifying specific interactional
264 features (Chatwin, 2014). This case study design aimed to identify examples of where the bot interactional
265 design supported or undermined interaction involving trust, alignment and social presence which are
266 associated with human engagement and satisfaction with bot interactions.

267

268 **3.2 Data harvesting & procedure**

269 The data used for the analysis was harvested from two sources:

- 270 1) The bot development company provided the researchers with descriptions of the ‘volleys’ – sets
271 of user input and bot output algorithms – used for a packaging adviser bot and a software
272 qualification bot. This allowed researchers an overview of the interactions which the bot
273 development company bot would be able to generate. The software included 580 templated
274 prompt:response conversation elements that can dynamically generate the conversation.
- 275 2) The researchers as well as the bot development company directors used the packaging bot to
276 generate conversations as if they were customers attempting to solve a packaging problem.
277 Whilst researcher involvement in the generation of the data may appear to be a limiting factor,
278 the fact that the bot development company technology tested here did not deploy natural
279 language meant that researchers and directors were working from the same conversational
280 constraints which a customer would encounter.

281 This study does not rely on usability trials which would provide an indication as to when and why users
282 perceive of instances of language as problematic. Consequently, in selecting examples, the researchers
283 had to rely on their own ‘curious noticing’ of examples which might result in an uncomfortable imposition
284 on the user, impacting trust, alignment and social presence. Researchers thus acted as representatives of
285 possible bot users, using a theory-led approach to decide which linguistic cues which might be problematic
286 and to arrive at conclusions about their affordances. Meredith (2017) links affordances to user perception,
287 describing them as “not [...] static features of technology, but are features that can be seen by users as
288 having a number of potential actions associated with them. Therefore, an affordance exists once a user
289 has perceived it and perceived the potential actions associated with it” (p. 43).

290 Examples, representing a range of conversation openings, closings and interactional sequences (e.g.
291 requests for information, purchasing requests, greeting and closing phases, rejection) which are believed
292 to be representative of real-world user:bot engagement, were selected through an iterative process. First,
293 researchers took notes on instances of conversation which, through their knowledge of relevant
294 theoretical frameworks in social psychology and applied linguistics if the bot and the user had had the

295 opportunity to discursively negotiate meaning and content, might have stood out as ‘negatively marked’
296 (Locher, 2006) for misalignment and disaffiliation. In the second stage, a shared data session resulted in
297 large amounts of overlap of data selected as valid for our study.

298

299 **3.3 Analysis**

300 The two researchers analysed the data independently. After the initial identification of sequences which
301 involved user:bot sequences of misalignment and disaffiliation, and believed to undermine user trust and
302 social presence, each of the researchers analysed the sequences independently. In a second stage, the
303 researchers held a joint data session to compare their analyses, discuss analytic assumptions and confirm
304 distinctive interactional patterns within the data.

305 For the analysis, we used adjacency pairs as the primary unit of analysis. Each adjacency pair included
306 question phrases and multipart response options. We looked at instances of alignment/misalignment and
307 affiliation/disaffiliation using several analytic concepts. Firstly, we used politeness theory (Brown and
308 Levinson, 1987) with its notions of negative and positive face and looked for linguistic indicators of positive
309 politeness (e.g. features which foster a sense of inclusion) and negative politeness (features which limit
310 the imposition on the interlocutor). Secondly, we investigated how turn allocation and turn content,
311 including opportunities for ‘repair’ to address problems in the interaction (Hutchby and Woofit, 1998),
312 constructed the user’s alignment and affiliation with the bot. Thirdly, we considered how the bot design
313 constructed epistemic stance in the interaction (Heritage, 2013), and in particular the user’s ability to ‘be
314 heard’ as knowledgeable about their needs and requirements, also important for alignment and
315 affiliation. Finally, we contemplated how the interactional features we identified may support or
316 undermine social presence (Schuetzler et al., 2018) in the interaction.

317 A third stage of the process involved the researchers presenting their analysis to the bot development
318 company directors for further critical review and discussion. In a final stage, the bot development
319 company directors then created a new set of conversational volleys applying the analyses stages 1-3. A
320 new set of volleys was created for an investment hub bot, a furniture bot, a recruitment bot and a health
321 and safety software bot. Due to space constraints, and as this paper aims to show how micro-analysis can

322 be applied to prompt:response bots, we are only able to display one example from the investment hub
323 bot to showcase some of the changes made as a result of the recommendations.

324

325 **3.4 Ethical considerations and data protection**

326 As no personal or demographic data was collected, and no primary data collected from participants, the
327 study did not involve formal ethical procedures. All the data for this study was harvested from a collection
328 of bot volleys or simulated bot interactions facilitated by the directors and researchers. The collaborative
329 academic/commercial study was funded by an Innovation Voucher grant provided by the University of
330 Surrey.

331

332 4. Analysis

333 **4.1 Misalignment**

334 In this analysis, misalignment concerns the bot's design whereby it fails to align with users' expectations
335 in terms of the question design and/or response options available and thus potentially undermines trust,
336 engagement and credibility (Li and Mao, 2015). The focus of this analysis is on bot displays of
337 incompetence (4.1.1); bot epistemic stance (4.1.2); bot's use of directive rather than partnership building
338 language (4.1.3); and bot design demoting user engagement (4.1.4).

339

340 4.1.1 Bot displays of incompetence

341 Bot competence and expertise are known to be important issues within user:bot interaction (Nordheim,
342 2018). However, the design of the prompt:response bot in this study displayed its incompetence for
343 appropriately aligning next sequence based on prior task completion. In example (1) the bot asks a series
344 of questions to elicit information from the user (l. 1, 3, 5), and closes the sequence with an offer of 'further
345 help' (l. 8).

346

347

348 Example (1)
349 1 *bot: So, who does the packaging?*
350 [dedicated team | machinery | just me | anybody]*
351 2 *user: dedicated team*
352 3 *bot: Where do you store packaging materials?*
353 [warehouse | storeroom | cupboard | anywhere]*
354 4 *user: warehouse*
355 5 *bot: And finally, do you have to palletise shipments?*
356 [frequently | occasionally | never]*
357 6 *user: occasionally*
358 7 *bot: That's given me a great introduction to your business.*
359 8 *Let me help you further*

360 *Suggestion prompts (options) for response

361
362 This is clearly an inappropriate response as the bot cannot offer *further* (l. 8) help where no *initial* help
363 has been offered. The positioning of this statement leads to misalignment between the user's anticipation
364 of the helping sequence, which we might expect would involve the bot either summarising user
365 information given and/or signifying next transactional steps appropriately. The sequence also constitutes
366 a possible threat to face as the promise of help, which appeals to positive face and thus the need for
367 connection, is being broken.

368

369 4.1.2 Bot epistemic stance

370 When a bot makes marketing statements these have been recognised as undermining user trust in
371 user:bot interactions (Nordheim, 2018). In example (2), the bot's design integrates a marketing
372 statement which position it as the 'expert' with the knowledge and skills needed to provide help to the
373 user. However, it does not ask for, nor take account of the user's perspective or knowledge of their own
374 needs.

375 Example (2)

376 1 bot: *I'm Packaging Live Expert, software trained by real experts*

377 2 *Packaging AI, to provide expertise 24/7 anytime you need help in*

378 3 *finding the right solution*

379 4 bot: *You're on the Packaging AI home page - can I help with?*

380 [packing advice | pick a specific product | warehousing solutions |

381 other]*

382 5 user: *other*

383 6 bot: *OK, what would you like to know more about for example*

384 7 *product bulk prices?*

385 [my order | product | company | account | else]*

386 8 user: *my order*

387 *Suggestion prompts

388

389 Example (2) shows that the bot is programmed to take a K+ epistemic stance (Heritage, 2013) which is

390 evident through the way turns are allocated: the bot starts with a lengthy introduction (l. 1-3), which is

391 immediately followed by another turn which elicits an answer from the user (l. 4). The users thus

392 automatically has the SPP allocated to them, and retains this position in the next adjacency pair, too (l. 6-

393 8). The questions 'Can I help with' (l. 4) and 'what do you want to know about for example product bulk

394 prices?' (l. 6-7) further positions the user to take a K- stance as the bot's K+ position has pre-empted the

395 user's specific requirements and the user has no scope to elaborate on their own situation, including any

396 displays of knowledge or expertise about their specific requirements. This misalignment is likely to

397 undermine user engagement, as users' claims to knowledge regarding their requirements are being

398 constrained in the very sequences designed to elicit these.

399

400 4.1.3 Bot's use of directive rather than partnership building language

401 The analysis identified the use of question and answer sequences which involved directive rather than
402 partnership building language. This was evident through a prompt-response pair which required closed-
403 ended questions to facilitate a limited range of responses, as shown in example (3) representing the
404 opening sequence for a new user inquiry:

405

406 Example (3)

407 1 bot: *You're on the Packaging AI home page – can I help with?*

408 [pick a specific product | packing advice | warehousing solutions | other]*

409 *Suggestion prompts

410

411 As can be seen from the bot's question turn (l. 1), the question is not constructed as an interrogative,
412 which may be heard by the user as an even more 'directive' style of language and, therefore, stronger
413 'male' voice. While this may appeal to an audience with a preference for this style of language, it may
414 serve to alienate users more likely to align with language which supports partnership building.
415 Furthermore, a more directive style is also more likely to threaten the user's negative face, i.e. their need
416 for retaining freedom of action (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

417

418 4.1.4 Bot design demoting user engagement

419 The analysis identified some prompt:response designs likely to inhibit user engagement. For example, in
420 the following question-response sequence – example (4) – the user had only one turn where very little
421 information about their requirements was elicited:

422

423 Example (4)

424 1 bot: *Which of the following products might be of interest...?*

425 [boxes | protection | bags | decoration | palletising | stretch film |

426 strapping tape | labelling | more...]*

427 2 *user: boxes*

428 3 *bot: Standard boxes are our lowest cost option. Clever boxes offer*

429 4 *special benefits such as super strength, including for export, crash*

430 5 *lock for reduced packaging time, adjustable sizes or telescopic*

431 6 *construction for variable volumes for a snug fit.*

432 7 *bot: Postal box products are designed to withstand public transit*

433 8 *adding to protection of the item. Are you looking for?*

434 [standard | clever | postal | other]*

435 9 *user: standard*

436 10 *bot: These seal top and bottom with tape.*

437 11 *bot: Do you need a size to palletise in complete layers*

438 *Suggestion prompts

439

440 The adjacency pair structure used here again positions the bot as the dominant partner in the interaction.

441 The bot initiates all first pair parts in this sequence, with the visitor providing (very brief) second pair parts

442 when prompted. After the user's first reply (l. 2), the bot's second question prompt 'Are you looking for?'

443 (l. 8) is preceded by a lengthy pre-sequence (l. 3-8) in which the specific properties of various packaging

444 solutions are explained. Epistemically, this positions the bot as the partner with the superior knowledge.

445 The user is not given any opportunity for 'repair', i.e. to ask questions, to ask the bot to back-track a step

446 etc. This is exacerbated by the fact that the bot uses some 'split turns' with the options divided into two

447 turns and no opportunity for the user to re-engage (e.g. l. 3-6, 7-8). In addition, the closed question format

448 of 'Are you looking for?' (l. 8) further closes the user's interactional space and denies them the opportunity

449 to 'opt out' of an answer, and the lack of an 'other' option subsequently denies the opportunity for repair,

450 e.g. by asking for clarification.

451

452

453

454 **4.2 Disaffiliation**

455 In this analysis, disaffiliation concerns the bot's design whereby it fails to endorse or support the user's
456 perspective by demonstrating affect or 'social solidarity' (Stivers, 2008), a concept also captured by the
457 concepts of 'positive face' encapsulating human need for connection, and 'negative face' describing
458 human need not to be imposed on (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The focus of this analysis is on bot design
459 leading to threats to user 'face' (4.2.1); bot design leading to rudeness (4.2.2); and bot design reducing
460 opportunities for sociability (4.2.3).

461

462 4.2.1 Bot design leading to threats to user 'face'

463 The user:bot interactional characteristics in example (5) demonstrate contraventions in interaction based
464 on 'face'. Admission of incompetence by the bot equates to a threat to the user's positive face – a human
465 need for connection and approval – as the suggestion that more training is required (l. 1) implies that the
466 user's query is too complex to answer and is thus not worthy of an answer.

467

468 Example (5)

469 1 bot: *I'm afraid I need a bit more training to guide you to an optimum*

470 2 solution. *I'll brief a colleague and get back to you at your convenience.*

471

472 A further example of directive language which has the potential to not only undermine some users'
473 disaffiliation with the bot, but also consequently instil an unfavourable impression of it, concerns the use
474 of feedback where the user's needs are not well matched to the service being provided in examples (6) –
475 (8):

476

477 Example (6)

478 1 bot: *Oh dear, I don't think you're ready. Build your visitors and then*

479 2 *let's talk.*

480

481 Example (7)

482 1 *bot: I'm really sorry, but really you won't benefit from our software*

483 2 *until you get more views*

484

485 Example (8)

486 1 *bot: I'm sorry, but I think you should focus on traffic*

487

488 In these three cases, the bot wraps up the information gathering phase of the interaction with an
489 assessment of the suitability of the user's needs to the software. All these examples are potentially face-
490 threatening due to the words chosen. The bot's pre-programmed linguistic choices are framed around its
491 own requirements ('You won't benefit from our software', 'I don't think you're ready'). Consequently,
492 they constitute a threat to positive face as they do not display approval of the user's perspectives and
493 needs. This is then followed up by demands for what the user needs to do to meet these requirements,
494 which threaten negative face as they are direct and blunt and include only very few devices which might
495 be able to mitigate face threat (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

496 The consequence of this exchange is likely to lead to disaffiliation between the bot and the user and a
497 threat to user's self-esteem. In addition, users here are positioned to carry the risk for their goals to
498 succeed. This is exacerbated by the fact that the user is not given an opportunity to 'repair' by asking the
499 bot a question about how to fulfil the requirements.

500

501 4.2.2 Bot design leading to rudeness

502 Another example of directive language, which is likely to lead to disaffiliation, concerns directives
503 designed to moderate the user's pace of engagement when response times are slower, showcased in
504 examples (9) – (11):

505

506 Example (9)

507 1 *bot: OK let's get on with it*

508 Example (10)

509 1 bot: *Come on, haven't got all day 😊*

510

511 Example (11)

512 1 bot: *Let's step up the pace a bit*

513

514 The directive language used in these examples constitutes a potential threat to users' negative face. The
515 directives impose on the user to provide an answer, and to do so quickly. They are also delivered bald-on-
516 record in the form of imperatives, without any mitigating devices such as hedges or reasons (Brown and
517 Levinson, 1987). Hence, users' freedom of action is severely limited and their needs are being ignored as
518 the programmed language choices do not demonstrate solidarity.

519

520 4.2.3 Bot design reducing opportunities for sociability

521 Reduced opportunities for fostering sociability with the user are also evident in other sequences. In the
522 following example (12), no sensitivity towards the user's perspective is present while the bot elicits
523 relevant information, despite the topic under consideration involving risks to the user:

524

525 Example (12)

526 1 bot: *Do any of the following keep you awake at night?*

527 [cost | damage | security | regulation]*

528 2 user: *security*

529 3 bot: *So security, in particular?*

530 [theft | fraud | confidentiality | everything]*

531 4 user: *fraud*

532 5 bot: *In terms of cost, does this specifically include?*

533 [price per unit | pack size | machine price | time to wrap |

534 storage cost | compliance | most of these]*

535 6 *user: most of these*

536 7 *bot: And looking at regulation...*

537 [customs | restrictions | environment | multiple]*

538 8 *user: customs*

539 *Suggestion prompts

540

541 This interaction starts with a bot query about user concerns. However, threat to negative face is likely
542 here as the formulation ‘keep you awake at night’ (l. 1) imposes a state of affairs that may not apply. There
543 is also an issue of alignment between the first pair part – a yes / no question (l. 1) – and the second pair
544 part, chosen from of options (l. 2). This adjacency pair is followed by three more in which information is
545 elicited from the user through questions. The first two of these (l. 3, l. 5) are heavily truncated questions
546 in that they don’t include a question pronoun such as ‘what’, and don’t refer in person to the user by using
547 ‘you’. The third one (l. 7) is not posed in question format at all. For these reasons, these questions do little
548 to support a personal connection with the user and sensitivity to their needs. In addition, the question
549 format is also representative of an ethnocentric position. Research in English as a lingua franca suggests
550 that, when English language use orients to linguistically diverse audiences including non-native speakers
551 of English, it is characterised by increased levels of explicitness to convey meaning clearly (Björkman, 2013;
552 Mauranen, 2012). The question format in example (12) may not sufficiently signpost the intended
553 meaning of the bot’s prompts. For example, ‘keep you awake at night’ (l. 1) is an idiomatic expression
554 which may not be familiar to users of English who speak English as a second or foreign language. ‘And
555 looking at regulation’ (l. 7) may not be decodable as a question at all. Thus, the bot’s prompts undermine
556 rather than promote the principle of explicitness.

557 A further example of how the question-answer responses misses opportunities for developing social
558 presence concerns a lack of attentiveness to personal relevance for the user. In example (13), an
559 assumption is made about the user’s inquiry:

560

561

562 Example (13)

563 1 bot: *The most common packaging questions I get are about*

564 2 *single parcels shipping by land in UK, with normal protection*

565 3 bot: *Is that you?*

566 [YES, that's me | overseas | retail or store | bulk or multiple

567 | extra protection]*

568 4 user: *overseas*

569 *Suggestion prompts

570

571 In an adjacency pair, the second pair part is functionally dependent on the first i.e. a question elicits an

572 answer. Whilst, in this example, we do find a question – answer sequence in which the bot asks for

573 information from the user (l. 1-2, l. 3), the bot then imposes an answer on the user ('single parcels shipping

574 by land in UK', l. 2) and then merely asks for confirmation ('is that you?', l. 3)? Not only does this constitute

575 a potential threat to negative face as the user's freedom of action is restricted. In addition, it subsequently

576 leads to misalignment of the first pair part (ending in 'Is that you?') with the second pair part ('overseas',

577 l. 4), which the user was able to pick from the prompts. Of the prompts available, only 'Yes that's me'

578 would have constituted a functionally well-aligned SPP. And the perspective of clarity, 'Is that you?' may

579 not necessarily be easily decodable by less proficient speakers of English who need longer to parse and

580 decode written text, given the indirectness of the question and the lack of fit to the prompts provided.

581

582 5. Discussion

583 5.1 From analysis to action

584 Existing research has not accounted for how prompt:response turns involving misalignment and

585 disaffiliation position the user negatively in human:bot interaction when no natural language is available.

586 Using a case study approach to analyse a 'library' of bot volleys and a small dataset of researcher and

587 company generated conversations, this paper has demonstrated that a microlevel linguistic analysis

588 provides an alternative approach for understanding user:bot prompt:reponse interactions. In particular,

589 the integration of different theoretical perspectives, which drew on a range of analytic concepts,
590 supported a pragmatic approach for recognising user:bot misalignment and disaffiliation which was of
591 practical use to the bot designers. The approach allowed identification of problematic sequences which
592 feature threats to user positive and negative face, ineffective management of epistemic stance and
593 respect of user's knowledge, including self-knowledge, and user loss of control through sequences which
594 lead to user inability to repair where their needs or requirements are unmet. This analysis identified these
595 problematic sequences as restricting the development of social presence, alignment and trust which may
596 potentially lead to user dissatisfaction with the bot.

597 The bot development company were able to use the analysis to reprogram the bot to attend to the
598 problematic interactional sequences. They made changes to different bots that service visitors in the fields
599 of packaging, investment, recruitment, health and safety and software, in particular focussing on:

- 600 • avoiding any admittance of the bot's limited competence and removing misleading promises
- 601 • setting expectations upfront by using a clear "call to action" prior to engagement, with marketing
602 language removed
- 603 • taking account of the user's perspective by giving the user the ability to make statements or ask
604 something else in addition to pre-existing prompt options
- 605 • use of less directive and more partnership-building language, including the use of 'you' and
606 'your'
- 607 • improved rejection handling, adding an option to re-engage or seek direct contact
- 608 • removing domain specific language (or technical jargon) in order reduce the epistemic gradient
609 between the bot and the user
- 610 • rewording the question format to prevent assumptions being made about user needs
- 611 • improving the opportunity for user repair with a more prominent and functional undo button

612 The following illustrative example (14) showcases a sequence which leads to rejection of an entrepreneur
613 from the investment hub. It shows changes to expectations management (l. 2-4), partnership-building
614 language with use of 'you' and 'your' (e.g. l. 3, l. 9) and improved rejection handling (l. 8-17).

615 Example (14)

616 1 user: I am an entrepreneur

617 2 bot: We work with businesses at all stages of development. So I

618 3 can understand you and your opportunity better I have up to eight

619 4 questions.

620 5 bot: I hope that's OK. To start with, what best describes your

621 6 venture at this point

622 [working on a great idea | startup company | early stage

623 with customers | established mature business / or ask something

624 else]*

625 7 user: working on a great idea

626 8 bot: Based on the information you have given me, I feel that

627 9 there is not a good match between your objectives and those we

628 10 can meet.

629 11 [...]

630 11 bot: Our network favours technology companies – others rarely

631 14 proceed to investment. This is not a value judgment on your

632 15 business

633 16 bot: May I wish you and your business every success and good

634 17 luck in the future

635 [no problem | I understand | or ask something else]*

636 *Suggestion prompts

637

638 5.2 Consultancy and the rigor-relevance gap

639 This paper is based on a volley library and researcher/bot designer generated interaction rather than

640 naturally occurring user:bot interaction to identify the social activities and action being accomplished

641 through interaction (Mondada, 2012). It is also reliant, as described above, on researcher-selected

642 examples. Thus, it may not be unfeasible to argue that this project suffers from what has been called
643 'rigor-relevance gap' (Kieser and Leiner, 2012), the gap between academic rigor and relevance to
644 professionals and their work.

645 However, we believe, that the dataset and approach used were sufficient to explore the application of an
646 established methodological approach to a novel context despite these limitations. In this collaborative
647 project, academic researchers from the fields of social psychology and applied linguistics did not just
648 'present' their findings, but collaboratively reflected on them and discussed them with the engineering
649 practitioners from the chatbot development company. This approach supports Kieser and Leiner's (2012)
650 argument that "actionable knowledge can be produced independently from rigorous research" (p. 22)
651 and is an example of what Gibbons (2000) calls 'Mode 2 Knowledge Production', which he describes as
652 transdisciplinary, a preference for flatter hierarchies, socially accountable and reflexive (p. 159-160).

653 In addition, this paper is not arguing for the development of a theoretical approach in developing a
654 'universal' conceptual framework of specific interactional patterns in prompt:response bot designs.
655 Rather, it is arguing for the development of a language-led approach to identify problematic bot
656 sequences so that they may be reprogrammed to enhance users' experience of social presence, alignment
657 and trust. In the future, the validity of this analysis can be further strengthened through analytic
658 generalisations for patterns in other similar interactions. This requires the identification of recognisable
659 linguistic patterns within turn construction units across a large corpus of data.

660

661 6. Conclusion

662 In conclusion, this paper reports on the application of a language-led approach for understanding
663 user:bot, and by extension human-machine interaction in a consultancy context, to understand how social
664 presence, alignment and trust are supported or inhibited. Specifically, it applied concepts from
665 conversation analysis and pragmatics, such as politeness theory, in a micro-level linguistic analysis of
666 user:bot interactions, which is an alternative approach to existing methods which tend to be either
667 interview- or experiment-based. Additionally, the paper argues for inter-disciplinary teamworking to

668 identify problematic sequences and discusses how they can be modified to generate improved bot
669 interactional capacity.

670 The reconfigured set of volleys for an investment hub bot has only recently been deployed by the chatbot
671 development company, so that the impact of the bot on generating leads and engaging users is not yet
672 known. Future research, involving usability trials, intends to assess the efficacy of the analysis of the
673 current study for identifying misalignment and disaffiliation believed to undermine users' sense of social
674 presence and trust when interacting with bots.

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