

A humanoid robot that pretends to listen to route guidance from a human

Takayuki Kanda · Masayuki Kamasima ·
Michita Imai · Tetsuo Ono · Daisuke Sakamoto ·
Hiroshi Ishiguro · Yuichiro Anzai

Received: 24 August 2005 / Revised: 7 September 2006 / Accepted: 12 September 2006
© Springer Science + Business Media, LLC 2006

Abstract This paper reports the findings for a humanoid robot that expresses its listening attitude and understanding to humans by effectively using its body properties in a route guidance situation. A human teaches a route to the robot, and the developed robot behaves similar to a human listener by utilizing both temporal and spatial cooperative behaviors to demonstrate that it is indeed listening to its human counterpart. The robot's software consists of many communicative units and rules for selecting appropriate communicative units. A communicative unit realizes a particular cooperative behavior such as eye-contact and nodding, found through previous research in HRI. The rules for selecting communicative units were retrieved through our preliminary experiments with a WOZ method. An experiment was conducted to verify the effectiveness of the robot, with the results revealing that a robot displaying cooperative behavior received the highest subjective evaluation, which is rather similar to a human listener. A detailed analysis showed that this evaluation was mainly due to body movements as well as utterances. On the other hand, subjects' utterance to the robot was encouraged by the robot's utterances but not by its body movements.

Keywords Human-robot interaction · Embodied communication · Cooperative body movement · Humanoid robot · Communication robot

1 Introduction

1.1 The communication robots

Over the past several years, many humanoid robots have been developed, and they can typically make sophisticated human-like expressions with their head and arms (Hirai et al., 1998; Sakagami et al., 2002). We believe that humanoid robots will be suitable for our research on "communication robots" that behave as peer-partners to support daily human activities based on advanced interaction capabilities. The human-like bodies of humanoid robots enable humans to intuitively understand their gestures and cause people to unconsciously behave as if they were communicating with humans. Thus, as well as providing physical support, these robots will supply communication support such as route-guidance (Ono et al., 2001) and education (Kanda et al., 2004a).

Recent research into HCI (human-computer interaction) has highlighted the importance of robots as a new interface. Reeves and Nass researched the role of computers as new interface media in the manner of TV and radio, and they proved that humans act toward computer interfaces (even a simple text-based interface) as if they were communicating with other humans (Reeves and Nass, 1996). Cassell et al. showed that anthropomorphic expressions, such as those by arms and heads on embodied agents, are important for effective communication with humans (Cassell et al., 1999; Nakano et al., 2003). Kidd and Breazeal compared a robot and a computer-graphic agent and found that subjects felt the robot to be more informative and credible than the

T. Kanda (✉) · M. Kamasima · M. Imai · T. Ono · D. Sakamoto ·
H. Ishiguro
ATR

M. Kamasima · M. Imai · Y. Anzai
Keio University

T. Ono · D. Sakamoto
Future University, Hakodate

H. Ishiguro
Osaka University

121 computer-graphic agent for communication concerning real-
122 world objects (that is, for manipulating colored objects on a
123 table) (Kidd and Breazeal, 2004).

124 Previous works in robotics have emphasized the mer-
125 its of robots' embodiment. For example, they have shown
126 the effective usage of body properties in communication,
127 such as facial expression, eye-gaze, and gestures (Breazeal
128 and Scassellati, 1999; Nakadai et al., 2001). Moreover, mu-
129 tual body movements have been investigated. The joint-
130 attention mechanism is one typical mutual body movement,
131 whereby humans utilize their eye-gaze and pointing gestures
132 to mutually synchronize their attention. Scassellati devel-
133 oped a robot as a testbed for a joint-attention mechanism
134 (Scassellati, 2000). In that work, the robot followed people's
135 gaze in order to share attention. Imai and his colleagues used
136 a robot's arms as well as eyes to establish joint attention and
137 verified its effectiveness (Imai et al., 2003).

138 1.2 Importance of cooperative body movements

139 Furthermore, recent research works reported the importance
140 of cooperative body movements. Ono and his colleagues
141 verified the importance of eye contact, arm gestures, and
142 appropriate positional relationships (orientation of body di-
143 rection) in a route guide robot (Ono et al., 2001). In this
144 research, it was found that body movements are not only
145 used for visually understanding what the teacher (the robot
146 that taught the route) says but also for synchronizing commu-
147 nication. That is, the body movements of the robot teacher
148 made human listeners move their bodies in a similar way
149 as the teacher did, such as an imitation of a pointing ges-
150 ture (Fig. 1). Like this example, it is important to adjust the
151 teacher's body movement appropriately, which causes the
152 cooperative body movements of listeners, such as the imi-
153 tation of pointing, and makes the interaction natural. The
154 importance of cooperative body movements was also found
155 in interaction between humans and an autonomous interac-
156 tive robot. Kanda and his colleagues found that people caused
157 cooperative body movements, such as eye contact and syn-



Fig. 1 Embodied cooperative behaviors in human-human communication

158 chronized body movements, when the people evaluated the
159 robot positively (Kanda et al., 2003). These research works
160 highlighted the importance of cooperative body movements
161 when robots played the role of a speaker while a human was
162 a listener in an interaction.

163 On the contrary, few papers have reported cooperative be-
164 havior when a robot plays the role of a listener and a human
165 is the speaker. Watanabe and his colleagues found the im-
166 portance of temporal cooperativeness, and have developed a
167 robot that is capable of giving responses to a speaking human
168 (Ogawa and Watanabe, 2001). However, only temporal co-
169 operativeness was considered in that case and little previous
170 research has focused on the spatial cooperativeness of body
171 movements of a robot listener.

172 Cooperative body movements were also utilized for de-
173 veloping an intelligent mechanism for robots based on imita-
174 tion and learning. For example, interactive systems observe
175 human behaviors for the purpose of synthesizing behaviors
176 (Jebara and Pentland, 1999). One imitation mechanism for a
177 robot was developed comprising a motion capturing system
178 and a neural network (Billard and Mataric, 2001). However,
179 these research approaches focused on the intelligent mech-
180 anism for generating a motion, and they did not reveal its
181 effects on human-robot interaction, such as how effective
182 cooperative behaviors make interaction more natural.

183 1.3 A communication robot that expresses listening 184 attitude with cooperative body movements

185 In a route guidance situation, there are two roles: a teacher
186 (mostly talking to explain the route) and a listener (mostly
187 listening), and since the roles of teacher and listener can be
188 clearly separated, there are two research directions:

- 189 (1) To develop a robot that teaches a route to a human (Ono
190 et al., 2001)
- 191 (2) To develop a robot that listens to the route guidance
192 instructions given by a human (this paper)

193 We believe that both directions are important, and these
194 will be finally merged into an ideal communication robot
195 that performs natural communication like humans do in any
196 interaction scenes. Since we have already developed a robot
197 for the teacher role (Ono et al., 2001), we are going to focus
198 on the second direction in this paper.

199 The situation where a robot teaches a route to a per-
200 son is apparently important, since communication robots are
201 expected to perform the role of conveying information to
202 people. Here, however, we also focus on a route guidance
203 situation where a person teaches a route to a robot. We believe
204 that it is a realistic situation for a communication robot, thus
205 the function of expressing listening attitude needs to be de-
206 veloped. There are two examples of this situation. First, there
207 is the case where a person asks a robot about some operation

208 related to a place. Here, we believe that the most intuitive
 209 way to operate is to use utterances and gestures as humans
 210 do to each other. Thus, a communication robot should have
 211 a function to give response to the person to express its listen-
 212 ing attitude and understanding. The second case is a situation
 213 of route guidance. Even when a robot explains a route to a
 214 person, the explained person will sometimes repeat the route
 215 explanation back to the robot to ensure his/her understand-
 216 ing is correct, such as saying “I see. That is, go straight, turn
 217 right, and then arrive at the destination. Is this right?” This
 218 often happens in inter-human conversation: After a person
 219 (A) explains a route to the other person (B) unilaterally, the
 220 role of speaker and listener switches, and person B confirms
 221 the route to person A by explaining it in his/her own words.

222 Moreover, we can also expect this work to contribute to
 223 research on embodied communication where a robot per-
 224 forms cooperative behaviors in the role of a listener toward
 225 the speaking person. When a robot is in a speaker role, it
 226 is not necessary to adjust its behaviors to the human lis-
 227 tener, since the speaker initiates utterances and gestures and
 228 it is the listener who performs cooperative behaviors toward
 229 the speaker; thus, it is a relatively difficult research issue
 230 to develop a robot that behaves cooperatively with a human
 231 speaker.

232 In this paper, we propose a mechanism for a communica-
 233 tion robot that autonomously expresses its listening attitude
 234 and understanding to a speaker in the role of a listener in a
 235 route guidance situation. In other words, the robot pretends
 236 to listen to the speaker in conjunction with cooperative body
 237 movements. Since no speech-recognition function is used
 238 in this research, the robot does not linguistically understand
 239 what is said by humans. Concretely, our robot utilizes both
 240 body movements and utterances to give responses to a human
 241 speaker as a human does. It selects appropriate cooperative
 242 body movements from among 18 implemented behaviors
 243 such as eye contact and nodding, which are prepared in a
 244 bottom-up manner by referring to previous research works
 245 in robotics and cognitive science. The selection rules were

246 implemented by retrieving knowledge from a human oper-
 247 ator with a WOZ (Wizard of Oz) method. The evaluation
 248 experiment proves the effectiveness of the proposed method
 249 and identifies how the robot’s body movements and utter-
 250 ances affect subjective evaluation and behaviors of the robot.
 251 Through this research approach, we aim to identify an ideal
 252 mechanism for a communication robot with human-like body
 253 properties.

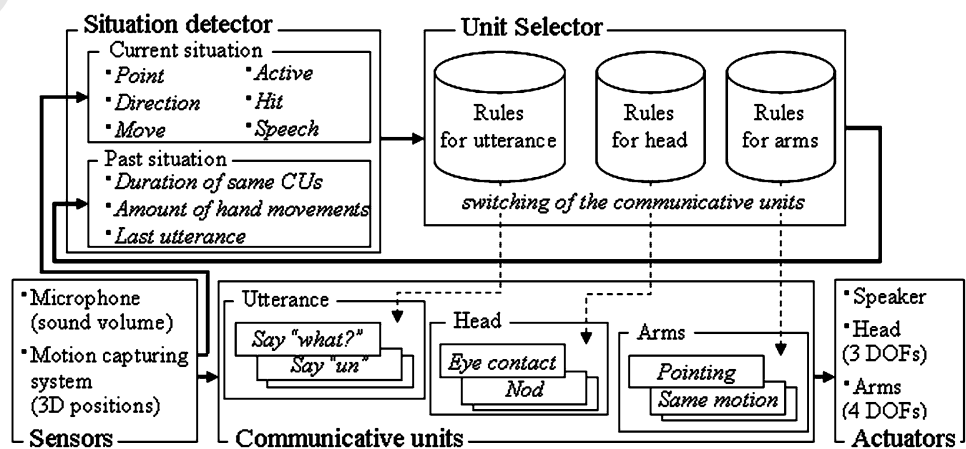
2 System configuration 254

255 We have developed a humanoid robot system that performs
 256 cooperative behaviors with a human in a route guidance sit-
 257 uation, the purpose of which is to naturally communicate
 258 with humans. Concretely, when a human explains a route to
 259 the robot, it expresses cooperative body movements and ut-
 260 terances to express its listening attitude and understanding,
 261 or to *pretend* to listen, to the explanation. Figure 2 shows
 262 an overview of the developed system. The following subsec-
 263 tions describe the design policy, details about the system’s
 264 components, and preliminary experiments to set up the sys-
 265 tem’s rules and parameters.

2.1 Design policy 266

267 The system is designed to realize an ideal listener robot that
 268 expresses responsive behaviors to a speaker as if it were a
 269 human listener in an inter-human conversation. The essential
 270 components of the system consist of both cooperative body
 271 movements, which have been identified to be important such
 272 as eye contact and imitation of pointing, and simple utter-
 273 ances to give responses. We named the components “com-
 274 municative units,” and developed the “*pretending* listen-
 275 ing behaviors” by controlling the use of the communicative
 276 units along with the current state (posture and whether or not
 277 speaking) of a speaking person and the past state (posture
 278 and utterance) of the robot.

Fig. 2 System configuration



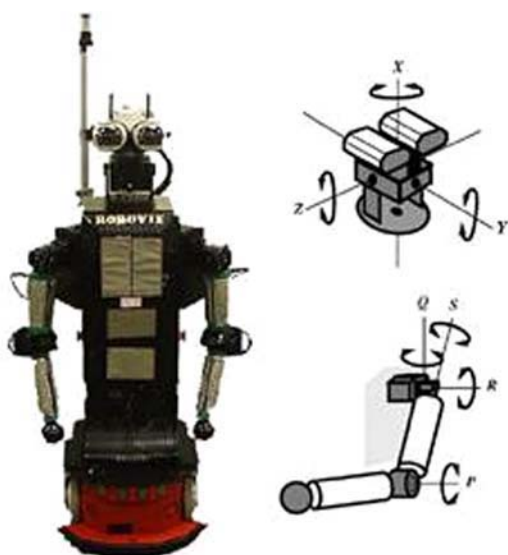


Fig. 3 Humanoid robot “Robovie”

of the WOZ experiment seem to indicate that this is a valid hypothesis.

2.2 Hardware

Figure 3 shows the humanoid robot “Robovie” (Kanda et al., 2004b). It is capable of human-like expression and recognizes individuals by using various actuators and sensors. Its body possesses highly articulated arms, eyes, and a head, which were designed to produce sufficient gestures for communicating effectively with humans. The sensory equipment includes auditory, tactile, ultrasonic, and vision sensors, which allow the robot to behave autonomously and to interact with humans. All processing and control systems, such as the computer and motor control hardware, are located inside the robot’s body. The height is 1.2 m and its radius is 0.5 m.

We adopted a microphone and a motion capturing system as the system’s sensors. The microphone is attached to the robot, which acquires the utterance volume of a human. The motion capturing system acquires three-dimensional numerical data on the human body movements. It consists of 12 sets of infrared cameras with an infrared irradiation function and markers that reflect infrared rays. The motion capturing system calculates the three-dimensional position of each marker based on the two-dimensional positions on all of the cameras’ pictures. The system’s time resolution is 60 Hz and spatial resolution is about 1 mm in the experimental environment. The attaching position of each marker is shown in Fig. 4. There is an approximately 50 milliseconds delay to calculate the three-dimensional position of markers with these settings.

2.3 “Communicative units” for cooperative behaviors

The effectiveness of temporal-cooperative behaviors was already verified in previous research. Watanabe et al. found that nodding behavior of a robot makes human-robot communication as natural as human-human communication

Through this development, our purpose is to prove the validity of our framework for utilizing cooperative behaviors for listener behavior. Thus, we focused on the minimum essential components for body movements and utterances and did not include redundant behaviors or subtle expressions, such as facial emotions and slight movements. For example, the utterances “un” “un un” and “a ha” would be redundant. We only included important body movements mainly reported in previous research on HRI (human robot interaction); as a result, we ignored less important body movements. Of course, humans are doing more various behaviors than what the developed robot does; so if our framework is proved to be valid, we believe that we can further improve the performance of the system by adding other behaviors.

Our hypothesis behind the implementation was that we can perform appropriate body movement and vocal backchannel without the semantics from speakers’ utterances. Of course, it will be difficult in general; but, during the route-guidance, the listener can also get information through the teaching person’s body movements. The results

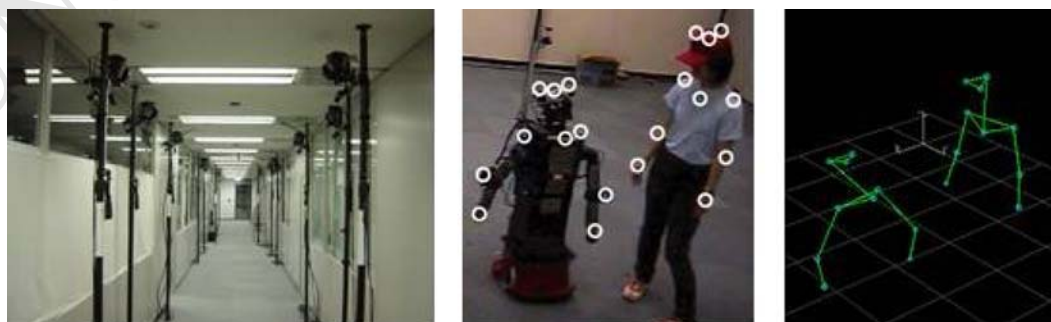


Fig. 4 The motion capturing system (left), attached markers (center), and obtained 3-D numerical position data of body movement (right)

(Ogawa and Watanabe, 2001). We define such nodding as *temporal-cooperative* behavior, because it expresses a reacting attitude to the partner's action with appropriate timing. Similarly, backchannel utterances such as "un" and "un un" are also temporal-cooperative behaviors.

Meanwhile, the occurrence of *spatial-cooperative* behaviors was found in a situation where a robot taught a route to a human (Ono et al., 2001). For example, in their research, eight out of ten subjects performed imitation of pointing with arms. We can find similar spatial-cooperative behaviors in joint-attention mechanism, where a listener looks or points in the direction that a speaker is looking or pointing at to share attention about objects or directions (Moore and Dunham, 1995).

Here, we adopt these temporal or spatial cooperative behaviors found in previous research. There are certain components to realize cooperative behaviors, which are called *communicative units*. By continuously controlling the use of communicative units, the developed system controls each of the head, right arm, left arm and utterance of the humanoid robot to express its listening attitude. We have already proposed the notion of communicative units for an autonomous interactive robot (Kanda et al., 2004b), where the communicative units realize basic motion for general communication, such as eye contact and pointing. We believe that future communication robots will be equipped with a basic library of body movements so that developers can easily configure high-level communication by combining them. Through this research, we would like to also establish a fundamental set of communicative units and the method to appropriately use them; we believe that it will have great merits on various future communication robots.

Table 1 shows all implemented communicative units. Only one communicative unit can be active within a part of body (right arm, left arm, head, and utterance), and each communicative unit for a part can run in parallel; thus, multiple communicative units can be active in the robot. In this

research, each communicative unit refers to an output from a motion capturing system to obtain human positions. Regarding the communicative units related to the head and arms, they calculate the destination angle of each joint of the robot's head and arms based on numerically obtained data of human body movements. For instance, the calculations in *Hec* (eye contact) and *Rsr* (synchronized arm movement) are described as follows (Henceforth, each communicative unit is described with its name identifier, such as *Rsr*):

Hec: This calculates both the robot's head direction vector and the human's head direction vector and then calculates the desirable angle of the robot's head so that these two vectors exactly indicate the opposite direction on a certain line.

Rsr: This calculates the angle of a human's right shoulder and elbow and then reconfigures these angles into the angle of the robot's right arm so that the robot seems to show the same motion as the human does. (The same angles do not seem to show the same motion. Thus, we need to adjust the angles between the robot and humans with a simple look-up table prepared in advance.)

Some communicative units such as nodding (*Hnd*) do not refer to the input from the motion capturing system. For example, *Hnd* changes the head's orientation from the current one to a relatively lower one for a while.

In addition, we prepared a parameter "response-delay time (d sec)" to make communicative units more natural. Because the robot can react faster than what humans do due to the fast calculation of the motion capturing system, we have observed unnaturalness in the robot's cooperative behaviors when the delay d was not present. That is, it was rather reflecting human motion rather than reacting to human action. This response-delay time d was simply realized by letting the robot's system refer to the d sec older data obtained from the motion capturing system. Our system implements

Table 1 Implemented communicative units

Right arm	Left arm
<i>Rsr</i> : Same motion as human's right hand	<i>Lsl</i> : Same motion as human's left hand
<i>Rsl</i> : Same motion as human's left hand	<i>Lsr</i> : Same motion as human's right hand
<i>Rpr</i> : Points in the direction indicated with right hand	<i>Lpr</i> : Points in the direction indicated with right hand
<i>Rpl</i> : Points in the direction indicated with left hand	<i>Lpl</i> : Points in the direction indicated with left hand
<i>Rno</i> : Do nothing	<i>Lno</i> : Do nothing
Head	Utterance
<i>Hec</i> : Eye contact	<i>Seh</i> : Says "eh? (what?)"
<i>Hrp</i> : Turn the head in the direction indicated with right hand so that it seems to look in that direction	<i>Sun</i> : Says "un."
<i>Hlp</i> : Turn the head in the direction indicated with left hand so that it seems to look in that direction	<i>Suu</i> : Says "un un."
<i>Hnd</i> : Nod	<i>Ssd</i> : Says "sorede (so what?)."

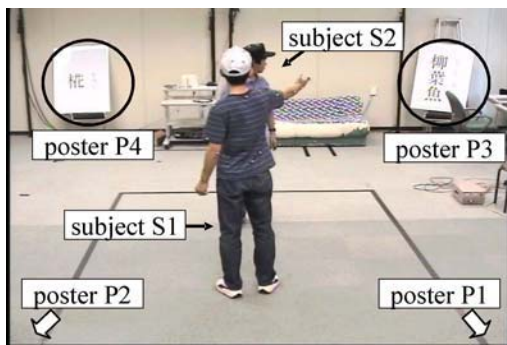


Fig. 5 Scene of the experiment for measuring humans' response delay

characters (since each Kanji character is associated with a semantics and has a multiple way of readings, even Japanese adults usually do not know the readings of very difficult Kanji). Two subjects S1 and S2 were face-to-face in the center of the room. S1 pointed at a poster and spoke the reading of the Kanji to teach the reading to S2. S1 repeated this for posters P1 (right rear), P2 (left rear), P3 (right front), and P4 (left front). The task (teaching the reading of the Kanji) was a pseudo task so that the subjects would not be nervous about their body movements. The true purpose was to measure the delay of the movements from the start of S1's to that of S2's, which were measured by using a motion capturing system.

Measurement of delay time

By using the numerically obtained body movement data, we determined the start time of S1's movement ($t1$) to be the earlier of the following two movements: the time when S1 started to move his/her arm (the start of pointing) and the time when S1 started to move his/her head (the start of eye gaze). Similarly, the start time of S2 ($t2$) was defined as the time when S2 started to move his/her head (the start of the looking motion). The response-delay time of the reaction is retrieved as $t2-t1$.

Result

Figure 6 displays the response-delay times for the four pointing behaviors for all subjects (data from 17 pairs was used while that of 8 pairs was omitted due to data collection errors with the motion capturing system). The average delay time was 0.89 s (standard deviation 0.63). We utilized this parameter in the developed system so that the response-delay time d was 0.89 s.

response-delay time d in the units $Rsr, Rsl, Rpr, Rpl, Lsl, Lsr, Lpr, Lpl, Hec, Hrp,$ and Hlp .

2.4 Preliminary experiment for measuring response-delay time

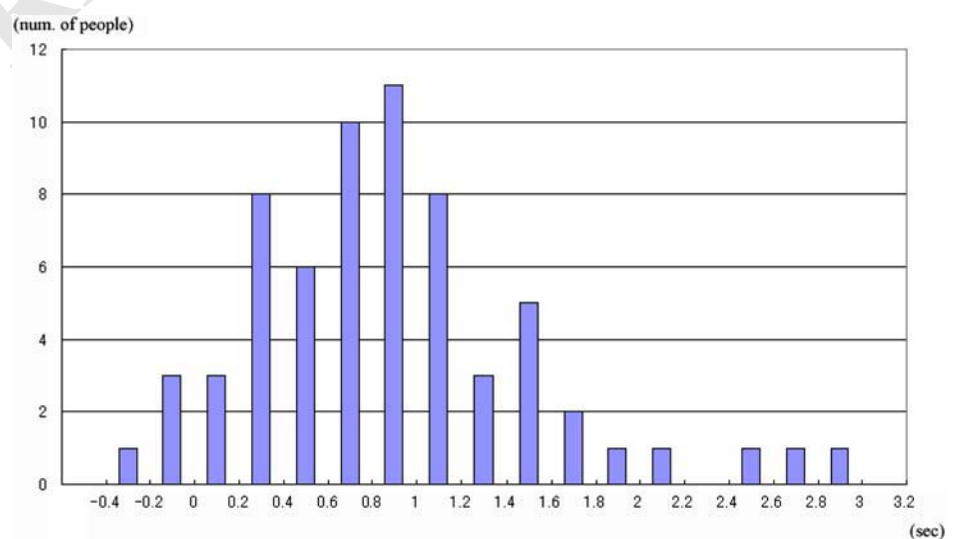
We conducted a preliminary experiment to choose the appropriate response-delay time d sec (explained in the previous subsection) where we measured the delay time of humans during a pointing conversation.

Method

We employed 25 pairs of university students (23 men, 27 women) for the preliminary experiment. They were asked to participate in "experiments to talk with a humanoid robot." employed them in first-come-first-employed manner. There were no special request for subjects' capability except for being fluent in Japanese and no specific selection was conducted to choose the subjects.

We placed four posters, P1, P2, P3, and P4, in each corner of a room measuring 8 m \times 15 m. The setup of the experiment is shown in Fig. 5. The posters described difficult Kanji

Fig. 6 Results for the humans' response delay



456 2.5 Preliminary experiment with WOZ settings for
457 retrieving rules to control the use of communicative units

458 Another preliminary experiment was conducted to retrieve
459 the control rules for communicative units. Although we have
460 already reported the findings from this experiment, which
461 verified the effectiveness of communicative units (Sakamoto
462 et al., 2005), here we briefly explain them because they are
463 closely related to the implementation of control rules.

464 *Settings*

465 The subjects for the experiments were 50 university students
466 (23 male, 27 female) who also participated in the other pre-
467 liminary experiment described in the previous subsection.
468 After learning a route by walking, they were asked to teach
469 it to the robot. For each teaching of a route, we prepared two
470 experiment conditions:

471 *Rc condition:* the robot expresses its listening attitudes
472 with communicative units, chosen by human operators
473 to be appropriate to each situation.

474 *Rs condition:* the robot stayed stationary.

475 In addition, the subjects were paired and one subject in
476 each pair explained the route to the other (*H condition*).

477 Here, human operators chose communicative units (de-
478 noted in Table 1) preferable for the current situation as shown
479 in Fig. 7. Two specific persons who were well trained to op-
480 erate the system (one of whom is the co-author of the paper)
481 always served as the operators. There were markers of the
482 motion capturing system attached to both subjects and the
483 robot (Fig. 4). The human operators continuously assigned
484 which communicative units should be used. Those commu-
485 nicative units were then executed by the robot based on out-
486 put from the motion capturing system. As a result, subjects
487 reported better impressions for the Rc condition than the Rs

488 condition, which seems to indicate a positive perspective of a
489 robot that exhibits those behaviors, as reported in Sakamoto
490 et al. (2005).

491 *Analysis of operator's selection*

492 In the experiment, two operators controlled the robot's behav-
493 ior. There was no script prepared in advance for the oper-
494 ator, because we were not sure what behaviors would be
495 appropriate. We asked the operators to establish a consistent
496 manner of operation so that the behaviors would be con-
497 sistent between different subjects. The operators used some
498 test subjects within the laboratory and tried to make the robot
499 behaviors appropriate from their subjective view.

500 They only controlled the selection of the communicative
501 units, and did not directly control head orientation or arm
502 gestures. Thus, the system controlled spatial cooperative be-
503 haviors of the robot, while the human operators decided the
504 communicative units to be executed with appropriate timing.
505 We recorded the operation of choosing communicative units
506 along with video of the experiments, output from the motion
507 capturing system, and utterance information obtained from
508 the microphones.

509 We believe that this is one of the important points of
510 the research. The operators' decisions were recorded at the
511 symbol level, but not at the raw sensory-motor level. If we
512 were to allow the operators to directly control the motors of
513 the robot, their operation (such as, moving the robot's head in
514 a horizontal direction) might have multiple meanings (such
515 as, for nodding, facing its head in the indicated direction,
516 just making its pose as default, etc.); thus, the mapping,
517 required for later implementation, between sensory input
518 and robot's behavior would be more complicated, due to
519 such complex decision-making behind the motor control of
520 the operators. That is why we implemented sensory-motor
521 mapping (communicative units) first, and tried to retrieve
522 operators' behavior through symbolic operations.

523 After the experiment, we analyzed the operation records in
524 order to retrieve the if-then rules for selecting communicative
525 units. We assigned the reason why the operator chose each
526 of the communicative units that appeared in the operation
527 records (such as, "because the robot's left hand was so close
528 to the subject that it would have get contact with him/her,
529 its right hand was used", or "there were no specific action
530 needed for its head so the eye-contact module was chosen").
531 Then, we added if-then rules that could be implemented with
532 its sensors until most of the operations could be reproduced
533 by the rules. As a result, the following rules were retrieved.

- 534 • "Eye contact" and "the same arm movement" are usually
535 selected.
- 536 • When a subject points in a certain direction by lifting one
537 of his/her hands, the robot points in the same direction

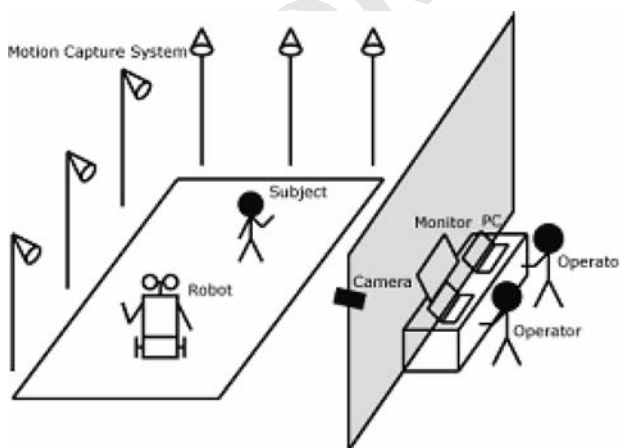


Fig. 7 Settings for WOZ experiment

- 538 and turns its head in the pointed direction so that the robot
539 appears to look in that direction.
- 540 • If the robot did not conduct eye contact for a while, perform
541 eye contact
 - 542 • While the subject is moving his/her hand, perform an im-
543 itating gesture with the same-side hand
 - 544 • If the subject is so close that the robot's hand might get
545 contact with him/her, use the other hand instead.
 - 546 • When the robot tries to perform an imitating gesture and
547 the subject is facing it, perform a mirrored imitating gesture
548 instead.
 - 549 • Backchannel feedback is given in response to the sub-
550 ject's explanation (after a certain blank period following
551 humans' utterances).

552 (The experiments were conducted with Japanese sub-
553 jects. There is a cultural characteristic in giving response
554 behaviors: Maynard reported that the backchannel (giving
555 a response) frequency of Japanese is higher than that of
556 Americans (with brief utterances: 165 times for Japanese
557 and 35 times for Americans among each 36-min data set;
558 with head movement: 104 times for Japanese and 5 times for
559 Americans). Even though the role of the backchannel is the
560 same in both languages (Maynard, 1986).

561 2.6 Situation detector and unit selector

562 We analyzed the human operators' decisions to retrieve the
563 rules for selecting communicative units, as described in the
564 previous section, and implemented them into the system. The
565 system consists of two parts: a situation detector and a unit
566 selector.

567 *Situation detector*

568 The situation detector detects 6 current characteristics and
569 5 past characteristics of the situation. The current charac-
570 teristics are about the subject's posture with respect to the
571 robot posture (such as *Hit* and *Direction* characteristics, de-
572 scribed below) and whether or not the subject is speaking.
573 The situation detector identifies them by referring to the in-
574 put from the motion capturing system and a microphone, and
575 also remembering short-term past situations. These are the
576 six characteristics:

577 *Point*: Whether he/she is using the right (left) hand for
578 pointing?

579 *Direction*: In which direction is he/she pointing, to the
580 right or to the left side of the robot?

581 *Move*: Is the right (left) hand moving? (Does the speed of
582 the hand exceed a certain threshold?)

583 *Active*: Is the right (left) hand used for guiding gestures
584 (pointing and the movement between pointing)?

585 *Hit*: Is he/she so close to the robot that it might hit him/her
586 with its right (left) hand if the robot moves it?

587 *Speech*: Is he/she speaking?

588 The remaining five characteristics are metrics based on
589 the robot's most recent actions:

- 590 • How long has the same communicative unit with the head
591 been in progress?
- 592 • How long has *Hrp* or *Hlp* (facing its head in an indicated
593 direction) been in progress?
- 594 • How long has *Rpr*, *Rpl*, *Lpr*, or *Lpl* (pointing in a direction)
595 been in progress?
- 596 • How much did it move its hand during a past certain num-
597 ber of seconds?
- 598 • What did it say in its last utterance?

599 *Unit selector*

600 The unit selector consists of a set of rules for selecting ap-
601 propriate communicative units for each of the head and both
602 arms. Figures 8 and 9 describe all implemented rules related
603 to the arms and the head and utterances. These rules are
604 based on the analysis of the operator, described in the pre-
605 vious section. The rules are implemented as a combination
606 of if-then rules referring to the six current situations and five
607 past situations detected by the situation detector.

608 For example in Fig. 8, if the last behavior module is not
609 *Rpr*, *Rpl*, *Lpr*, or *Lpl*, a human is pointing with the right hand
610 (*Point = right hand*), the human is using the right hand for
611 route guidance (*Active = right hand*), the human is not in
612 the region where either of the robot's hands might hit him or
613 her (*Hit = nothing*), and the human is pointing to the robot's
614 left side (*Direction = left*), then *Lpr* is selected.

615 3 Experiment

616 We conducted an experiment to verify the significance of the
617 developed system. The hypothesis for the experiment was
618 "if a robot performs embodied cooperative behaviors corre-
619 sponding to the interacting human based on the developed
620 system, then the human will perceive the communication
621 with the robot during the route guidance is smooth."

622 3.1 Method

623 A human teacher (denoted as *Teacher*) taught a route to a
624 destination to the developed robot or a human learner (de-
625 noted as *Learner*). The following presents the details of the
626 experimental procedure.

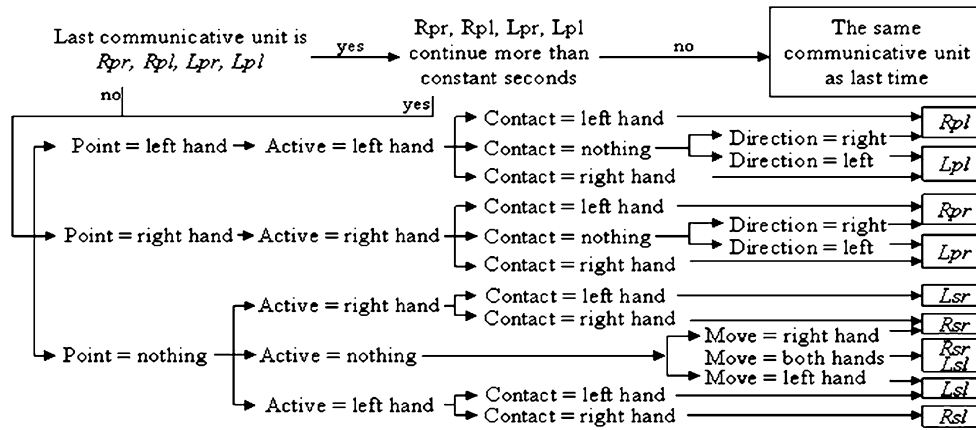
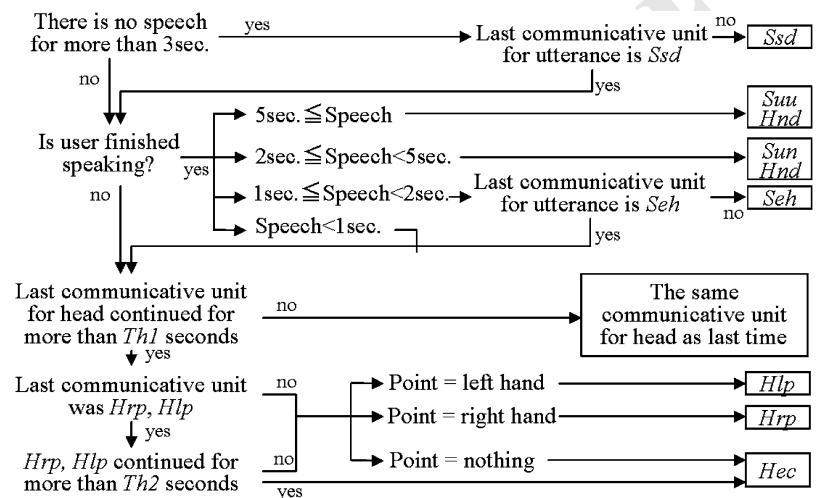


Fig. 8 Illustration of the rules for selecting communicative units for arms

Fig. 9 Illustration of the rules for selecting communicative units for head and utterances



627 *Subjects*

628 We employed 81 university students as subjects in the exper-
 629 iment (36 men, 45 women). They were asked to participate in
 630 “experiments to talk with a humanoid robot.” We employed
 631 them on a first-come-first-employed basis. There were no
 632 special requests for subjects’ capabilities except for being
 633 fluent in Japanese, and no specific selection was conducted
 634 to choose the subjects. They had never visited this environ-
 635 ment before, so they did not know the route that they would
 636 teach or be taught. None of them had participated in the
 637 previous experiment described in Section 2.

638 *Conditions*

639 We investigated the effect of the *Learner*’s embodied co-
 640 operative behaviors on the *Teacher*. We set five *Learner*
 641 conditions as follows:

642 *Human condition (H condition)*

643 The *Teacher* teaches a human the route.

Robot cooperative condition (Rc condition)

The *Teacher* teaches the robot that performs embodied cooperative behaviors.

Robot body move condition (Rb condition)

The *Teacher* teaches the robot that performs embodied cooperative behaviors without utterances (only body movements).

Robot voice condition (Rv condition)

The *Teacher* teaches the robot that performs embodied cooperative behaviors without body movements (only utterances).

Robot static condition (Rs condition)

The *Teacher* teaches the robot that remains stationary (without body movements and utterances).

(We chose to keep the robot stationary for the control condition because it more naturally falls within human social norms than other reactions, such as random movement, would. It would not be unnatural, for example, for an unfriendly person to remain nearly stationary while listening to route guidance.)

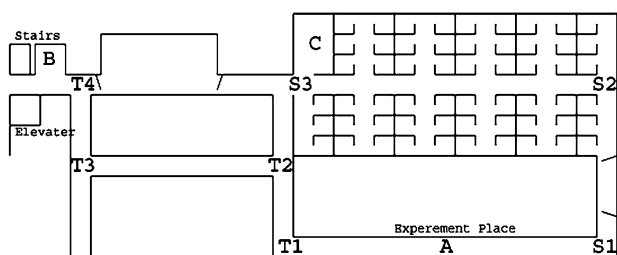


Fig. 10 Environment for the route-guidance experiment

and neither the robot nor the human *Listener* was designed to follow the route after the guidance. Instead, the experimenter came and picked up the *Teacher* in order to let the *Teacher* answer the questionnaire.

Evaluation

We administered a questionnaire to obtain subjective evaluations of when the subjects behaved as *Teacher* and also analyzed their behavior toward the *Learner*. In the questionnaire, we investigated the influence of robot's behaviors that affect communication. Specifically, we investigated aspects of conveying the information, reliable communication, and sympathetic interaction, where the last two aspects are the ones related to human-like natural communication. Concretely, the following six questions were used in the questionnaire. The subjects answered each question on a 1-to-7 scale, where 1 stands for the lowest evaluation and 7 stands for the highest.

- Aspects of conveying information
 - Q. 1 Time to recall the route
 - Q. 2 Easiness of teaching the route to the partner
- Aspects of reliable communication
 - Q. 3 The partner's listening to the guidance
 - Q. 4 The partner's understanding of the guidance
- Aspects of sympathetic interaction
 - Q. 5 Your feelings of sharing information with the partner
 - Q. 6 Your empathy with the partner.

Regarding the *Teacher's* behavior, the following factors were recorded and analyzed.

- Total duration of utterance
- Total amount of arm gesture (sum of both hands' movements per second)

3.2 Results

First, we compared the subjective impressions for the H condition, the Rc condition (a robot with the cooperative embodied behavior), and the Rs condition (a static robot) to verify the significance of the developed system.

Significance of the developed system

Table 2 shows the average, the standard deviation, and the result of analysis of variance (ANOVA) among the H, Rs, and Rc conditions of the six items on the questionnaire. In the table, standard deviation is given in parentheses after the average value. The comparison is also illustrated in Fig. 11.

We defined Robot condition (R condition) as the set of Rc, Rb, Rv, and Rs conditions.

Environment

Figure 10 shows the experimental environment. The *Teacher* told the route to the *Learner* at A, and the destination that the *Teacher* taught is one of two lobbies (B or C).

Procedure

Since a human *Teacher* taught a route to a human *Listener* in the human condition, we needed to pair two subjects and operate the paired subjects simultaneously. Each subject participated in both the H condition and the R condition. As for the R condition, one from among the Rc condition, Rb condition, Rv condition, and Rs condition was chosen randomly. In the H condition, each subject behaved as both *Teacher* and *Learner*. In addition, an experimenter guided the *Teacher* along the route that he/she would teach to the *Learner* before the experiment. The order of the two experiments (R and H conditions) was counter-balanced. (For half of all subjects, we conducted the experiments in the H-R order, while the R-H order was used for the rest.) The route guidance destination (lobby B or C) was randomly assigned within paired subjects so that each of the subjects was taught the route he/she did not know. (For example, supposing there are a paired subject X and Y, subject X teaches a route to lobby B and subject Y teaches a route to lobby C).

First, the *Teacher* is taught a route to the lobby (B or C); he/she will guide by actually walking to the destination. After that, the *Teacher* is given the instruction at a point close to point A that: "There is a person (*Learner*) who gets lost. He/she will ask you the route to the lobby, so please explain the route. At first, please point to the first corner, and start with "from this corner" to teach the route." The *Learner* is given an instruction to wait at point A and ask the *Teacher* for the route when the *Teacher* comes. The experiment starts when the *Teacher* arrives at point A, where the *Learner* is waiting. To control the R and H conditions, we instructed the *Learner* not to ask for the route repeatedly. The experiment was finished when the *Teacher* finished the route guidance,

Table 2 Comparison among the H, Rc, and Rs conditions

	Q. 1(Recallability)	Q. 2 (Easiness)	Q. 3 (Listening)	Q. 4 (Understanding)	Q. 5 (Sharedness)	Q. 6 (Empathy)
H condition (40 subjects)	5.38 (1.48)	4.68 (1.44)	6.28 (1.06)	5.18 (1.39)	5.10 (1.32)	4.78 (1.23)
Rc condition (20 subjects)	4.75 (1.80)	3.75 (1.71)	5.50 (1.60)	5.05 (1.61)	4.40 (1.57)	3.65 (1.42)
Rs condition (20 subjects)	4.45 (1.67)	3.25 (1.25)	3.95 (1.50)	4.05 (1.28)	2.80 (1.24)	2.35 (1.27)
Result of ANOVA ($F(2,77)$)	$p = .090 (+)$ $F = 2.48$	$p < .01 (**)$ $F = 6.97$	$p < .01 (**)$ $F = 21.36$	$p = .015 (*)$ $F = 4.41$	$p < .01 (**)$ $F = 18.93$	$p < .01 (**)$ $F = 24.02$
Multiple comparison	(H > Rs) $p < .05$	H > Rc, H > Rs $p < .05$	H > Rc, Rc > Rs $p < .05$	H > Rs, Rc > Rs $p < .05$	H > Rs, Rc > Rs $p < .05$	H > Rc, Rc > Rs $p < .05$

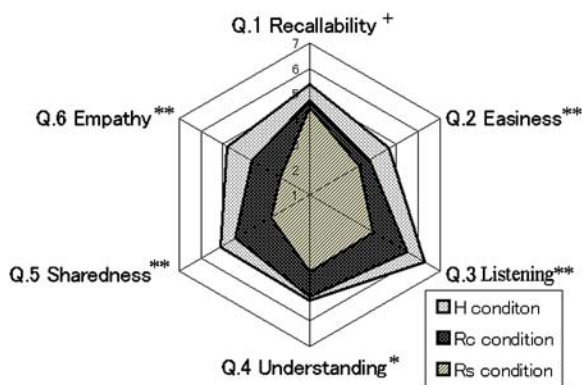


Fig. 11 Comparison of subjective evaluation between the Human (H) condition, the Robot cooperative (Rc) condition, and the Robot static (Rs) condition

the developed system had no effect on the aspects of conveying information. Moreover, the subjective evaluation for Rc was lower than the H condition in Q. 2 (Easiness) Q. 3 (Listening) and Q. 6 (Empathy), which suggests that the realized natural communication by the developed system is still far from that of inter-human communication; therefore, there are some things we can improve in the system for more naturalness.

Analysis of the effect of robot's body movements and utterances

We performed a detailed analysis on the robot's body movements and utterances by comparing the Rc, Rb, Rv, and Rs conditions. Table 3 shows the average and standard deviation of the six questionnaire items. It also describes the results of two-way factorial ANOVA among the conditions, where the two factors are "body movements" and "voice." The Rc condition has both factors, but the Rb condition has only the factor of body movements, the Rv condition has only the factor of voice, and the Rs condition has neither factor. The number of subjects was 20 in the Rc condition, 21 in the Rb condition, 20 in the Rv condition, and 20 in the Rs condition.

The two-way factorial ANOVA revealed that there were significant simple main effects for the body movement factor in Q. 3, Q. 5, and Q. 6, and an almost significant effect in Q. 4. For the voice factor, there was a significant simple main effect in Q. 5. Furthermore, there were significant statistical interactions between the body movement factor and the voice factor in Q. 3 and Q. 5. These results indicate that both the body movement factor and utterance factor affected on the reliability (Q. 3, 4) and sympathy (Q. 5, 6) aspects (since there are simple main effects of both factors or the interaction), and the body movement factor was relatively more dominant than the utterance factor because some of the questionnaire items were only affected by the body move-

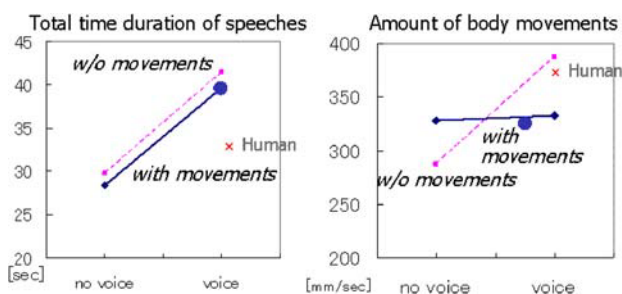
The number of subjects was 40 in the H condition, 20 in the Rc condition, and 20 in the Rs condition.

The ANOVA (analysis of variance) result revealed significant differences in Q. 2, Q. 3, Q. 4, Q. 5, and Q. 6, and an almost significant difference in Q. 1. For each of the significant items, an LSD (least significance difference) method provided a multiple comparison among the H, Rs, and Rc conditions. As a result, there was a significant difference for the Rc condition > Rs condition in Q. 3 (listening), Q. 4 (understanding), Q. 5 (sharedness), and Q. 6 (empathy). These results proved that a subjective evaluation of the Teacher for the robot with embodied cooperative behaviors (Rc) is higher among the aspects of reliability and sympathy compared with the robot without body movements and voice (Rs). We believe that this proves the significance of the developed system.

Meanwhile, there was no significant difference between the Rc and Rs conditions among the aspects of conveying information; Q. 1 (recallability) and Q. 2 (easiness). Thus,

Table 3 Comparison of the effect of the body movement factor and the utterance factor

	Q. 1 (Recallability)	Q. 2 (Easiness)	Q. 3 (Listening)	Q. 4 (Understanding)	Q. 5 (Sharedness)	Q. 6 (Empathy)
Rc condition (20 subjects)	4.75 (1.80)	3.75 (1.71)	5.50 (1.60)	5.05 (1.61)	4.40 (1.57)	3.65 (1.42)
Rb condition (21 subjects)	4.43 (1.80)	3.67 (1.74)	5.76 (0.89)	4.57 (1.54)	4.38 (1.50)	3.76 (1.51)
Rv condition (20 subjects)	5.05 (1.54)	3.35 (1.42)	5.15 (1.27)	4.45 (1.32)	4.40 (1.23)	3.00 (1.26)
Rs condition (20 subjects)	4.45 (1.67)	3.25 (1.25)	3.95 (1.50)	4.05 (1.28)	2.80 (1.24)	2.35 (1.27)
Factor of body movements ($F(1,77)$)	$p = .681$ (n.s.) $F = 0.17$	$p = .239$ (n.s.) $F = 1.41$	$p < .01$ (**) $F = 13.76$	$p = .084$ (+) $F = 3.06$	$p = .013$ (*) $F = 6.50$	$p < .01$ (**) $F = 11.43$
Factor of utterance ($F(1,77)$)	$p = .229$ (n.s.) $F = 1.47$	$p = .792$ (n.s.) $F = 0.07$	$p = .112$ (n.s.) $F = 2.59$	$p = .174$ (n.s.) $F = 1.88$	$p = .011$ (*) $F = 6.82$	$p = .383$ (n.s.) $F = 0.77$
Interaction ($F(1,77)$)	$p = .719$ (n.s.) $F = 0.13$	$p = 1.00$ (n.s.) $F = 0.00$	$p = .014$ (*) $F = 6.29$	$p = .921$ (n.s.) $F = 0.01$	$p = .013$ (*) $F = 6.50$	$p = .215$ (n.s.) $F = 1.56$

**Fig. 12** Illustration of comparison of subjects' behavior toward the robot

ing a human *Teacher* in a route guidance situation, but its body movement did not affect the *Teacher* behavior. That is, the listener's vocal response promoted the speech of the speaker, which fits with a previous report in psychology on inter-human communication of Japanese (Tsukahara et al., 1997).

4 Discussions

Summary of the result

The experimental result demonstrated the significance of the developed robot system that reacts to the *Teacher's* route guidance with both spatial and temporal cooperative behaviors. In addition to the subjective impressions, subjects provided free-form comments after the experiment, such as "with the robot's arm movements, nodding, and giving vocal responses, I could recognize that it comprehended what I was saying." We believe that the significance of the robot system with cooperative behaviors is proved. We focused on the "pretending listening" in this research, because our focus was on the embodied communication between a robot and people. This fundamental result suggests that, if we add a recognition function at the language level into the robot, we will be able to develop a robot that "understands and show its understanding" to people speaking to it.

Concerning the comparison of the body movement and utterance factors, both factors affect how the robot exhibits its listening behavior to the *Teacher*. Particularly, for sharedness (Q. 5), it seems that each factor sufficiently affected the subjective evaluation to make the effect of their mixture seem little bigger than that of each of them individually. We believe that the subjects received adequate signals of

ment factor. Regarding the effects for conveying information aspects, there was no significant effect caused by either the body movement factor or the voice factor.

Analysis of the effect of subjects' behavior toward Listener

Figure 12 shows the result of the analysis on the *Teacher's* behavior toward the *Learner* in the Rc, Rb, Rv, and Rs conditions. There were a few subjects' data excluded from the analysis due to the failure of recoding of the motion capturing system. We analyzed the total duration of utterance and the total amount of arm gesture.

The left figure in Fig. 12 shows a comparison of the total duration of utterance. The two-way factorial ANOVA proved that only the utterance factor increased the utterance of the *Teacher* (utterance factor: $p < .01$, body movement factor: $p = .577$). The right figure refers to a comparison of the body movements. The two-way factorial ANOVA showed no significant difference, though it might be affected by the utterance factor (utterance factor: $p = .131$, body movement factor: $p = .846$). Thus, the utterance of the *Listener* robot had an effect on promot-

848 sharing the information from the robot merely by voice or
849 body movements. Regarding listening (Q. 3) and empathy
850 (Q. 6), only the body movement factor affected the subjective
851 impression. To summarize, we believe that both factors
852 affected the impression, and the body movement factor was
853 more dominant than the utterance factor on the impressions.

854 On the contrary, the robot's utterance promoted the
855 *Teacher's* utterances, but its body movements did not have
856 such an effect. This finding suggests that a robot can elicit
857 a more elaborative explanation from a speaking person by
858 reacting to the utterances, which may have a merit in speech
859 recognition by the robot. That is, both body movements and
860 utterances are important reaction for the robot to give better
861 impression to and retrieve enough information from a
862 speaking person.

863 This result matches the findings in HCI. Whittaker and
864 O' Conaill analyzed inter-human communication through a
865 video-conferencing system and found that the task achieve-
866 ment is mainly through vocal channels and that emotional
867 information is mainly conveyed through visual channels
868 (Whittaker and O'Conaill, 1997). In our research, since the
869 task was closely related to the three-dimensional real world,
870 the body movement factor seemed to affect also the task-
871 achievement side, such as the *Teacher's* impression of lis-
872 tening to the *Listener*, as well as the emotional aspect of
873 sympathy. This implies that the effect of visual channels,
874 such as the body movements of robots, has higher power in
875 a real-world task than the ones previous HCI have treated,
876 such as on-screen and virtual world communication.

877 Effect of embodied cooperative behavior on aspects for 878 conveying information

879 Ono et al. reported that gestures from a robot causes co-
880 operative body movements in a human listener, such as
881 pointing in the same direction as the robot, which pro-
882 motes understanding by the listener about guidance along
883 a route (Ono et al., 2001). One hypothesis we intended to
884 prove was that the listener's cooperative body movements
885 might promote the *Teacher's* gestures in teaching a route
886 and support the teacher in recalling information about the
887 route.

888 It seems, however, that the comparison of the subjective
889 impression on the aspects for conveying information (Q.
890 1, 2) did not show a significant difference. Thus, even if
891 there had been any effect on the aspects, it would have been
892 smaller than the effects on other aspects. Moreover, the H
893 condition received a better impression for the aspect than
894 the Rs condition. This indicates a disadvantage in having a
895 static robot compared to the human listener. Also, we found
896 a significant difference in the H condition > Rc condition.
897 These results seem to suggest that the robot is not yet as good
898 a listener as a human, probably due to the robot's appearance

899 and lack of social expectation. For example, subjects reported
900 on the difference of their behavior to the robot with the one to
901 humans, such as "I spoke to the robot as if I were talking to a
902 child," "I used simple landmarks when I explained directions
903 to the robot," "I talked slowly and loudly to the robot," "I
904 explained the route in detail to the robot," and "I did not give
905 detailed explanations to the robot."

906 Generality of findings and Limitations

907 Since this "pretending listening" behavior does not depend
908 on the appearance of Robovie, which has a less sophisticated
909 design than other humanoid robots such as Asimo (Sakagami
910 et al., 2002), we believe that the developed system and the ex-
911 perimental results are applicable for other humanoid robots
912 that have a similarly simple or better appearance.

913 The experimental result showed that a robot with coop-
914 erative behavior affected for natural communication with
915 humans to some degree, but not as much as inter-human
916 communication. Our implementation includes fundamental
917 cooperative behaviors with large movements, but it is appar-
918 ently not perfect. We believe that its performance depends on
919 our implementation yet. On the contrary, since some of the
920 human *Listeners* in the experiment did not seem to be such
921 good listeners, such as their just listening without exhibit-
922 ing responses to the *Teacher*. Thus, the ideal robot might be
923 able to realize natural communication as average humans do
924 if we could implement further body movements and utter-
925 ances, or add other hardware devices for subtle expressions
926 such as facial expressions or degrees of freedom to the waist
927 (Miyashita et al., 2004).

928 The findings also depend on the task. For example, we can
929 expect that effects for the body movements might be stronger
930 if a task requires significantly more spatial precision.

931 This research was conducted with the global perception
932 of a motion capturing system, which could potentially cause
933 a negative effect to the naturalness of the interaction of the
934 robot. For example, the pointing behavior of an instructor is
935 biased based on whether or not the listener can perceive the
936 object of attention (Trafton et al., 2005). This type of infor-
937 mation is difficult to account for using the global perception
938 of a motion capture system. However, since the robot's re-
939 actions were limited to simple ones, such as nodding and
940 synchronized arm movements (when it is facing its head in
941 the direction, the speaker's motion is within the possible
942 sight of the robot's eye) in the route guidance situation, we
943 believe that the global perception did not cause a negative
944 effect. Of course, we should be aware that this point will be
945 more important when the robot will behave in different situ-
946 ations with global perception, which will affect whether the
947 developed technique will be applicable for a robot without
948 global perception. Since the presence of the humanoid robot
949 is very strong, usually people (subjects) seem to interact pri-

950 marily with the robot, rather than with the motion capturing
951 system. Thus, if we appropriately design the system so that,
952 for example, the robot does not react to visual stimuli that
953 are out of the sight from the robot's eye, we can exploit the
954 global perception in order to develop interaction mechanisms
955 for the humanoid robot.

956 5 Conclusion

957 This paper reported the development of an autonomous inter-
958 active humanoid robot that is capable of “pretending listening
959 behavior” based on embodied cooperative behaviors such as
960 the eye contact and synchronization of arm movements seen
961 in inter-human communication. We conducted an experiment
962 in a route guidance situation where a human *teacher* taught
963 a route to the robot. The results revealed that the developed
964 robot has a positive effect on the teacher's impression about
965 reliability and sympathy. Moreover, the detailed analysis in-
966 dicated that both body movements and utterances contributed
967 to the impression, though the body movement factor was the
968 more dominant one. In contrast, the robot's utterances en-
969 couraged the human teacher's utterances to the robot, but
970 the body movements did not. Thus, the importance of both
971 utterances and body movements was demonstrated. To sum-
972 marize, we developed “pretending listening” behaviors for
973 a humanoid robot by reactively controlling its head, arms
974 and utterances to the speaking person, which is a fundamen-
975 tal technique for a humanoid robot that is able to naturally
976 communicate with people as humans do.

977 **Acknowledgments** This research was supported by the National In-
978 stitute of Information and Communications Technology of Japan.

979 References

- 980 Billard, A. and Mataric, M. 2001. Learning human arm movements by
981 imitation: Evaluation of a biologically inspired connectionist ar-
982 chitecture. *Robotics and Autonomous Systems*, 37(2–3):145–160.
983 Breazeal, C. and Scassellati, B. 1999. A context-dependent attention
984 system for a social robot. In *Proc. Int. Joint Conf. on Artificial*
985 *Intelligence*, pp. 1146–1151.
986 Cassell, J., Bickmore, T., Billingham, M., Campbell, L., Chang, K.,
987 Vilhjalmsson, H., and Yan, H. 1999. Embodiment in conversa-
988 tional interfaces: Rea. In *Proceeding of the CHI '99 Conference*
989 *on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, pp. 520–527.
990 Fujita, M. 2001. AIBO: Towards the era of digital creatures. *Interna-*
991 *tional Journal of Robotics Research*, 20:781–794.
992 Hirai, K., Hirose, M., Haikawa, Y., and Takenaka, T. 1998. The de-
993 velopment of the Honda humanoid robot. In *Proceedings of the*
994 *IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation*, pp.
995 1321–1326.

- 996 Imai, M., Ono, T., and Ishiguro, H. 2003. Physical relation and expres-
997 sion: Joint attention for human-robot interaction. *IEEE Transac-*
998 *tion on Industrial Electronics*, 50(4):636–643.
999 Jebara, T. and Pentland, A. 1999. Action reaction learning: Automatic
1000 visual analysis and synthesis of interactive behaviour. In *Proceed-*
1001 *ings of International Conference on Computer Vision Systems*.
1002 Kanda, T., Ishiguro, H., Imai, M., and Ono, T. 2003. Body move-
1003 ment analysis of human-robot interaction, In *Proceedings of In-*
1004 *ternational Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pp. 177–
1005 182.
1006 Kanda, T., Hirano, T., Eaton, D., and Ishiguro, H. 2004a. Interactive
1007 robots as social partners and peer tutors for children: A field trial,
1008 *Human Computer Interaction*, 19(1–2):61–84.
1009 Kanda, T., Ishiguro, H., Imai, M., and Ono, T. 2004b. Development
1010 and evaluation of interactive humanoid robots. *Proceedings of the*
1011 *IEEE*, 92(11):1839–1850.
1012 Kidd, C. and Breazeal, C. 2004. Effect of a robot on user perceptions. In
1013 *Proceedings of IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent*
1014 *Robots and Systems (IROS2004)*, pp. 3559–3564.
1015 Maynard, S. 1986. On back-channel behavior in Japanese and English
1016 casual conversation. *Linguistics*, 24:1079–1108.
1017 Miyashita, T. and Ishiguro, H. 2004. Human-like natural behavior
1018 generation based on involuntary motions for humanoid robots.
1019 *Robotics and Autonomous Systems*, 48:203–212.
1020 Moore, C. and Dunham, P.J. (eds.). 1995. Joint attention: Its origins
1021 and role in development. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
1022 Nakano, Y., Reinstein, G., Stocky, T., and Cassell, J. 2003. Towards a
1023 model of face-to-face grounding. In *Proc. Association for Com-*
1024 *putational Linguistics*, pp. 553–561.
1025 Nakadai, K., Hidai, K., Mizoguchi, H., Okuno, H. G., and Kitano, H.
1026 2001. Real-time auditory and visual multiple-object tracking for
1027 robots. *International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*,
1028 pp. 1425–1432.
1029 Ono, T., Imai, M., and Ishiguro, H. 2001. A model of embodied com-
1030 munications with gestures between humans and robots, In *Pro-*
1031 *ceedings of Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society*, pp.
1032 732–737.
1033 Ogawa, H. and Watanabe, T. 2001. InterRobot: Speech-driven embod-
1034 ied interaction robot. *Advanced Robotics*, 15(3):371–377.
1035 Reeves, B. and Nass, C. 1996. *The Media Equation*.
1036 Sakagami, Y., Watanabe, R., Aoyama, C., Matsunaga, S., Higaki, N.,
1037 and Fujimura, K. 2002. The intelligent ASIMO; System overview
1038 and integration. In *Proceedings of IEEE/RSJ International Confer-*
1039 *ence on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS'02)*, pp. 2478–2483.
1040 Sakamoto, D., Kanda, T., Ono, T., Kamashima, M., Imai, M., and Ishig-
1041 uro, H. 2005. Cooperative embodied communication emerged by
1042 interactive humanoid robots. *International Journal of Human-*
1043 *Computer Studies*, 62:247–265.
1044 Scassellati, B., 2000. Investigating models of social development using
1045 a humanoid robot. *Biorobotics*.
1046 Trafton, J.G., Cassimatis, N.L., Bugajska, M.D., Brock, D.P., Mintz,
1047 F.E., and Schulz, A.C. 2005. Enabling effective human-robot inter-
1048 action using perspective-taking in robots. *IEEE Trans. on Systems,*
1049 *man and Cybernetics, Part A: Systems and Humans*, 35(4):460–
1050 470.
1051 Tsukahara, S. and Hanazawa, S. 1997. Effects of back-channel in inter-
1052 human communication. In *proceedings of 61st Annual Conference*
1053 *of the Japanese Psychology Society*, p. 134.
1054 Whittaker, S. and O'Conaill, B. 1997. The role of vision in face-to-face
1055 and mediated communication. In K. Finn, A. Sellen, and S. Wilbur,
1056 (eds.) *Video Mediated Communication*, Lawrence Erlbaum Asso-
1057 ciateds, pp. 23–49.