ABSTRACT

Gaze aversion—the intentional redirection away from the face of an interlocutor—is an important nonverbal cue that serves a number of conversational functions, including signaling cognitive effort, regulating a conversation’s intimacy level, and managing the conversational floor. In prior work, we developed a model of how gaze aversions are employed in conversation to perform these functions. In this paper, we extend the model to apply to conversational robots, enabling them to achieve some of these functions in conversations with people. We present a system that addresses the challenges of adapting human gaze aversion movements to a robot with very different affordances, such as a lack of articulated eyes. This system, implemented on the NAO platform, autonomously generates and combines three distinct types of robot head movements with different purposes: face-tracking movements to engage in mutual gaze, idle head motion to increase lifelikeness, and purposeful gaze aversions to achieve conversational functions. The results of a human-robot interaction study with 30 participants show that gaze aversions implemented with our approach are perceived as intentional, and robots can use gaze aversions to appear more thoughtful and effectively manage the conversational floor.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

H.1.2 [Models and Principles]: User/Machine Systems—human factors, software psychology; H.5.2 [Information Interfaces and Presentation]: User Interfaces—evaluation/ methodology, user-centered design

General Terms

Design, Experimentation, Human Factors

1. INTRODUCTION

Gaze is an important nonverbal behavior for social interaction [9]. Research in human-robot interaction (HRI) has investigated the role of gaze behavior across a variety of settings, including open-ended conversation [11], presenting information [16], and storytelling [19]. A recent survey of research on social gaze in HRI proposes a computationally oriented definition of social gaze as a mapping from social functions to the expression of one or more discrete gaze actions [27]. In this paper, we focus on one of these actions—gaze aversion—and show they might enable humanlike robots to achieve a number of positive social functions in conversations with humans.

Gaze aversion is defined as the intentional redirection of gaze away from the face of an interlocutor, and it is used in conversations to achieve three primary functions: cognitive, intimacy modulation, and floor management. First is the cognitive function: speakers spend much more time averting their gaze than listeners in order to better attend to the planning and delivery of their utterances while limiting external distraction [4]. Second is the intimacy-modulating function: periodic gaze aversions while speaking or listening can serve to modulate the overall level of intimacy in the conversation [1]. Third is the floor management function: looking away while pausing during speech is used to indicate that the conversational floor is being held and the speaker should not be interrupted [13]. These three functions—cognitive, intimacy, and floor management—correspond with three social contexts identified in previous work on social gaze in HRI: projecting mental state, establishing agency, and regulating the interaction process respectively [27].

While the social science literature has highlighted the positive functions of gaze aversion, it does not provide the exact measurements required to synthesize a model of gaze aversion for robots that could achieve these functions. In previous work [3], we analyzed a corpus of human-human conversations to obtain precise spatial and temporal parameters of gaze aversion movements in relation to speech and conversational function. This analysis informed the design of a gaze controller for virtual agents that generated appropriately timed gaze aversions during conversations with people. However, the prior work does not consider the challenges of applying the model to an autonomous robot, nor does it provide any evidence that gaze aversions can be effectively used by robots.

In this paper, we demonstrate that humanlike robots can use gaze aversions to achieve conversational goals. We apply techniques that address the challenges of applying a human-based gaze aversion model to a robot, describe an implementation on the NAO platform,
and evaluate the resulting system in a human-robot interaction study. Our work considers three key technical challenges: adapting the human movements to a robot with non-human affordances, making the movements appear lifelike and intentional, and integrating the gaze aversion movements with other head movements. A description of the system, along with a link to downloadable source code, is presented in Section 3.2. In our experimental evaluation, presented in Section 4, human participants interacted with two robots in four conversational tasks (Figure 1). Through this evaluation, we show how the gaze aversions employed by the robot were perceived as intentional, served to make the robot appear more thoughtful, and helped the robot manage the conversational floor.

2. BACKGROUND
In this section, we present an overview of social and cognitive science research on human gaze aversion in conversations, in which three primary functions of gaze aversion have been identified: facilitation of cognitive processing, intimacy modulation, and floor management. We then review related work on designing effective gaze mechanisms for robots.

2.1. Conversational Gaze Aversion
The frequency of speaker gaze aversions in conversation has been shown to be related to the difficulty of cognitive processing [10]. When constant mutual gaze is required from someone speaking spontaneously in social interaction, that person’s speech becomes significantly impaired [7]. Averting gaze has the practical benefit of improving cognitive performance. This is because an interlocutor’s face is rich in social information, and is a cognitively demanding visual target. When people avert their gaze from their interlocutor, they are able to deploy additional cognitive resources to the task of thinking or remembering information. With these aversions, a speaker signals to the listener that cognitive processing is occurring, creating the impression that deep thought or creativity is being undertaken in formulating their speech [4].

Eye contact is a primary contributor to the level of intimacy in a conversation along with physical proximity, topic intimacy, amount of smiling, and so on [5]. If one of these dimensions of intimacy is disturbed, compensatory changes will likely occur along the other dimensions. For example, research has shown that children avert their gaze more when answering questions in face-to-face rather than video-mediated conversations [8]. In general, people frequently avert their gaze to alleviate feelings of self-consciousness and, while listening, to make speakers more comfortable and to reduce negative perceptions associated with staring [1].

Gaze is important for facilitating turn-taking and conversational floor management [13]. When exchanging speaking turns in conversation, a pattern is frequently observed in which the first speaker finishes speaking, looks toward their interlocutor and engages in momentary mutual gaze, and finally the second speaker averts their gaze and begins their speaking turn [21]. By looking away at the beginning of an utterance, the speaker strengthens his or her claim over the speaking turn. Looking away during a pause in speech is also used to indicate that the conversational floor is being held and that the speaker should not be interrupted [13].

2.2. Robot Gaze Mechanisms
Previous research has shown that robots can greatly benefit from the utilization of humanlike gaze mechanisms [16, 19, 20, 28]. Modeling humanlike gaze mechanisms enables conversational robots to signal different participant roles to human interlocutors, manage turn-exchanges, and shape how users perceive the robot and the conversation [20]. Human comprehension of robot speech is improved when a robot gazes to objects it is speaking about in a similar way and with similar timings as found in human gaze behavior [28]. Robots that use gaze cues are perceived as possessing mental states and intentionality, as evidenced by previous work on gaze leakage in a human-robot guessing game [20].

To be truly effective, a robot’s gaze mechanisms need to be employed contingently based on the behaviors of its human interlocutors. A robot that gazes responsively toward a human user is capable of eliciting a stronger feeling of being looked at than a robot that uses non-responsive—i.e., static or random—gaze [30]. In recent work, HRI researchers have developed a responsive, rule-based system for generating robot head nods, tilts, and gazes based on discrete dialogue acts in conversation, such as those associated with turn-taking, backchannels, and conversational fillers [16]. When employing gaze aversions in conversation, robots should do so responsively to the speech behavior of its human interlocutor.

In previous work [3], we showed how to enable virtual agents to effectively use gaze aversions responsively in conversations with people. However, it is not obvious that these results extend to HRI, as the prior work did not consider the technical challenges specific to robots. Robots and virtual agents differ along a number of social dimensions, including realism, social presence, lifelikeness, and physical proximity [24]. Several studies have demonstrated effects of these differences [6, 14, 24].

A fundamental difference between the virtual agents we used in previous work [3] and the robots used in the current work is the difference in physical affordances available for carrying out gaze motions. Overall differences in geometry mean that gaze motions and control laws need to be adapted [22]. Even more critically, the robots lack articulated eyes and must rely solely on head motions to convey gaze motions, making it unclear if they are capable of eliciting the same positive conversational outcomes found in the virtual agent work [3]. Previous research points to the possibility of such capabilities, including work which has shown that people are capable of recognizing a robot’s gaze according to its head orientation [11] and that robots can use head motions alone to gaze effectively in a storytelling scenario [19].

3. ROBOT GAZE AVERSION
In prior work [3], we derived a gaze aversion model consisting of precise spatial and temporal parameters—including length, timing, and frequency—in relation to conversational functions and speech. In the next section, we review the data collection and model parameters relevant for the design of a robot gaze controller. Following that, we present our design of gaze aversion motions for humanlike robots without articulated eyes, secondary head motions for achieving mutual gaze and lifelikeness, techniques for combining the different head motions, and the overall system implementation for expressing conversational gaze aversion on the NAO platform.

3.1. Modeling Gaze Aversion
We recruited 24 females and 24 males, aged 18 to 28 and previously unacquainted, for data collection (Figure 2). Each dyad engaged in a structured conversation for approximately five minutes. We analyzed recorded videos of the interactions for participants’ gaze and speech. Video coding was carried out by two independent coders with partial overlap. Sequences of time spent speaking and averting gaze were annotated.

Gaze aversions were coded for the conversational function that they were perceived to be supporting: cognitive, intimacy-modulating, or floor management. This coding took place in three passes. In the first pass, the coder marked gaze aversions as cognitive if they occurred near perceived cognitive events, e.g., when a participant appeared to be thinking of a response to a question. In the second pass, gaze aversions were marked as floor management...
if they occurred near the beginning of a speaking turn or during a pause in speech. In the third pass, all remaining gaze aversions were labeled as intimacy-modulating. An inter-rater reliability analysis showed substantial agreement on the identification of gaze aversions and their conversational function (Cohen’s χ = .747).

From our analysis, we obtained timing statistics for different kinds of gaze aversions. Each of these parameters is modeled as a Gaussian distribution with means and standard deviations derived from the data. For cognitive gaze shifts, we model the length (\(M = 3.54s, SD = 1.26s\)), start time in relation to cognitive events (\(M = -1.32s, SD = 0.47s\)), and end time after cognitive events (\(M = 2.23s, SD = 0.63s\)). A cognitive event is any point in time at which the robot should display a state of deep cognitive processing, e.g., at the beginning of a response to a user’s question. For intimacy-modulating gaze aversions, we model the length and time between consecutive gaze aversions while speaking (length: \(M = 1.96s, SD = 0.32s\); time between: \(M = 4.75s, SD = 1.39s\)), and while listening (length: \(M = 1.14s, SD = 0.27s\); time between: \(M = 7.21s, SD = 1.88s\)). For floor management gaze aversions, we model the length (\(M = 2.30s, SD = 1.10s\)), start time in relation to the start of the next utterance (\(M = -1.03s, SD = 0.39s\)), and the end time in relation to that same utterance (\(M = 1.27s, SD = 0.51s\)). Our model also captures the time before the end of a floor-passing utterance at which point mutual gaze is engaged with the interlocutor and no more gaze aversions are generated during that utterance (\(M = -2.41s, SD = 0.56s\)). Figure 3 illustrates each type of gaze aversion.

We also labeled each gaze aversion for its direction as up, down, and side (Figure 4) and found that intimacy-regulating and floor-managing gaze aversions and cognitive gaze aversions were more likely to be directed sideways and upwards, respectively.

### 3.2. Robot Gaze Aversion Implementation

In this section, we describe methods to overcome three key technical challenges in adapting our gaze aversion model to a head controller for conversational robots: adapting the human movements to a robot with non-human affordances, making the movements appear lifelike and intentional, and integrating the gaze aversion movements with other head movements. To adapt gaze movements to a robot platform without articulated eyes, we substitute head movement for combined eye and head rotations, extending prior work that showed robot head motions to serve as valid gaze signals [19]. To make the movements appear lifelike and intentional, we combine aversion control with face tracking and structured random movements to create idle motion. To realize these behaviors in an autonomous system, we implement them in a predictive filtering framework that affords graceful combination of multiple goals and effective reaction to external events.

#### 3.2.1. Aversion Movement Design

A robot without articulated eyes must rely on head motion alone to carry out gaze aversion motions. There are two considerations when designing these motions: the magnitude and the dynamics.

The appropriate magnitudes for gaze-averting head motions were determined in an iterative process to achieve a natural subjective appearance. Our goal was to generate head movements that are not too extreme yet clearly serve to avert the robot’s gaze away from the user. Our system generates vertical gaze-averting head movements with a magnitude of approximately 20 degrees, with horizontal and downward head movements at 28 and 22 degrees respectively. For intimacy-modulating gaze aversions, these angles are scaled by a factor of 0.4, because these gaze aversions occur quite frequently and were observed in our human-human data to be employed with more subtle eyes-only motions.

For the generated gaze aversions, we attempted to recreate the head velocity profile identified in neurophysiological research on
human gaze shifts [15]. This profile resembles standard ease-in/ease-out curves found in animation, in which the head rotation starts slow, speeds up during the bulk of the shift, then slows down before coming to a halt. The velocity profile was implemented using programmatically-defined bezier curves. Care was taken to respect both the upper and effective lower limits of the motors’ rotational speeds, ensuring smooth motions throughout the robot’s gaze shifts.

3.2.2. Achieving Mutual & Lifelike Gaze
In order to interact effectively with humans and accomplish a general feeling of lifelikeness, the robot must use its head for not only gaze aversion, but also mutual gaze. To engage in mutual gaze, the robot must track the user’s face. For our system, we use a face-tracking algorithm that used a Microsoft Kinect situated behind the robot. The robot continuously adjusts its head rotation based on the results of the face tracking algorithm, polled every 200ms.

At this point the robot is capable of executing gaze aversions and face tracking, however a problem remains in that the transition between statically gazing at the user and engaging in a gaze aversion is still quite abrupt. When the user is sitting still and the robot is not currently engaged in a gaze aversion motion, the robot’s head becomes motionless and loses its sense of liveliness. To address this problem, we generate a small amount of idle head motion for the robot to execute at all times. This idle motion was implemented by adding a small amount of structured noise, generated by a Perlin noise function [23], to the results of the face tracking algorithm. A Perlin noise function generates band-limited, pseudorandom signals that are useful for emulating biological forms and motions.

3.2.3. Combining Behaviors
The robot uses its head for three different types of gaze motions: gaze aversions, face tracking, and idle motion. At any point in time, the robot has multiple distinct goals for its target head rotation. These goals must be combined in a natural manner that maintains an ability to be reactive to new goals. To solve this problem, we use a Kalman filter [12], a linear predictive filter used for estimating the state of a system given past states and target goals. The filter predicts the appropriate motion by blending estimated trajectories generated from the current state and current goals, and corrects these estimates as the goals change. The filter gains were chosen empirically to provide an appropriate balance between smoothness and reactivity.

Target head rotations from the three types of motions are streamed through this filter and combined into a single head rotation signal, allowing for graceful transitions between motions. Without this filter, head motions would have to be serially generated and completed, e.g., a head tracking motion to the face of the user would have to be completed before a gaze aversion motion could be executed. The Kalman filter solves this problem by blending estimated trajectories over time, resulting in smooth, interruptible motions.

3.2.4. System Integration
The target platform for this work was the NAO, a programmable humanoid robot manufactured by Aldebaran Robotics. ¹ The NAO has 25 degrees of freedom, including two in its neck, and a multitude of sensors. All behaviors for the NAO were implemented using the .NET SDK provided by Aldebaran. Gaze aversion behaviors were implemented on the NAO using two controllers: a high-level gaze controller to plan the timing and direction of gaze aversions and a head controller to physically execute the gaze shifts. The source code for the entire system has been made available online. ²

The head controller is situated at the end of an overall system pipeline that also includes a speech recognition system and a dialogue manager. A Microsoft Kinect with the Microsoft Speech Platform ³ are utilized for speech recognition. Recognized speech from the user is passed to a dialogue manager that associates a semantic tag with the utterance and plans the agent’s speech accordingly. For example, if the dialogue manager receives a recognized question, it will produce the associated answer. Robot speech is generated in our system by playing pre-recorded audio files, but the NAO’s built-in text-to-speech system can also be used.

The dialogue manager sends upcoming speech events and the current conversational state to the gaze controller. As the gaze controller receives these inputs, it continuously plans gaze aversion motions to be executed by the head controller. The exact timings of the gaze aversions are drawn from the parameter distributions reported in the previous section and visually depicted in Figure 3. The direction of each gaze aversion is similarly generated according to its function and the directional likelihoods presented in Figure 4.

Also included in the overall system are a wireless touchpad and the NAO’s chest light. The wireless touchpad is used by the user to signal that the NAO can begin the next phase of the interaction, depending on the context. For example, after the user is done giving an open-ended response to a question posed by the NAO, the user would touch the touchpad to signal to the NAO that it can move on to its next question. The NAO’s chest light is used to signal to users the beginning (green) and end (red) of the interaction as well as when the NAO is ready to begin a new interaction phase (blue). The chest light was not used during core interaction sequences while gaze aversions were being displayed (i.e., while asking a question, answering a question, or listening to a user’s utterance).

4. Evaluation
We designed a study to test user perceptions of the generated gaze aversions and their effectiveness in enabling robots to achieve positive conversational functions in human-robot conversations. In this study, participants interacted in multiple conversational tasks with two NAO robots. Each task involved the participant either asking questions to the NAO or responding to questions posed by the NAO.

4.1. Study Design
The experiment involved a single independent variable, gaze aversion behavior, with three conditions varying between participants. One condition involved the robots using gaze aversions generated by the controllers described in the previous section, which we call the good timing condition. The other two conditions served as baselines for comparison. The first baseline was a static gaze condition in which the robots did not employ any gaze aversions. This baseline was included to demonstrate the importance of generating gaze aversion motions regardless of the timing. The second baseline was a bad timing condition in which the robot employed just as many gaze aversions as in the good timing condition but with reverse timings. More precisely, the bad timing condition produced a gaze shift toward the participant—engage in mutual gaze—every time the good timing condition would have triggered a gaze aversion. Similarly, a gaze aversion is triggered every time the good timing condition would have produced a shift toward mutual gaze. This third condition was included as a baseline to show that not only the presence, but also the timing of gaze aversions is important for achieving positive social outcomes. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three gaze aversion conditions, which was then held constant for all tasks (10 participants per condition). Regardless of condition, the robot always tracked the participant’s face and utilized a small amount of idle head motion.

¹http://www.aldebaran-robotics.com/
²http://hci.cs.wisc.edu/projects/gaze
³http://msdn.microsoft.com
4.2. Participants
Thirty participants were recruited for this study (15 females and 15 males)—aged between 20 and 38 (M = 22.90, SD = 4.27)—from the University of Wisconsin–Madison campus. Participants were primarily University students with a range of fields of study, including biology, computer science, economics, and communication.

4.3. Hypotheses, Tasks, & Measures
We developed two hypotheses related to participants’ perceptions of gaze aversions carried out by a robot and how robots might use gaze aversion behaviors to achieve each of the three conversational functions. The second hypothesis is split into three sub-hypotheses, one for each conversational function. Separate tasks and measures were created to test each hypothesis and sub-hypothesis. For clarity, we present each hypothesis together with the task designed to test that hypothesis as well as the primary measure in that task.

**Hypothesis 1**—Well-timed robot gaze aversions will be seen as intentional motions used to engage in some cognitive processing, rather than randomly generated motions without meaning.

This hypothesis is derived from research that has shown how speaker gaze aversion is recognized by listeners as the speaker’s attempt to disengage attention from the listener’s face in order to put cognitive effort into organizing a new utterance [8, 10]. Finding support for this hypothesis enables us to conclude that the robot’s head movements, which were designed to convey gaze aversion, are indeed perceived as gaze aversions and not as random movements.

**Task 1**—The participants were told that the robot was training to work at a library help desk and given five library-related questions to ask the robot. They were instructed to ask each question and listen to the robot’s response. The robot paused for 7 to 10 seconds (randomly determined to decrease predictability) before answering each question. Participants were instructed to ask a question again if they thought that the robot did not understand.

**Measure 1**—The primary measure was the time participants waited for the robot to respond to questions before interrupting it to ask the question again. Based on our hypothesis, we expected participants to give the robot the most time to respond when it was using gaze aversions in the good timing condition, implying that the gaze aversion during its long pause was perceived as an intentional motion to formulate responses to the participants’ questions.

**Hypothesis 2**—Gaze aversions generated by our model and employed by the robot will enable it to achieve the positive conversational functions observed in human-human interaction. This hypothesis has three sub-hypotheses, one each for the cognitive, intimacy-modulating, and floor management functions of gaze aversion.

**Hypothesis 2a**—When a robot utilizes cognitive gaze aversions at the start of answers to questions, its answers will be rated as being more thoughtful and creative than when it does not display gaze aversions or displays gaze aversions with inappropriate timings.

This hypothesis is derived from research which has shown that people use gaze aversions to signal that cognitive processing is occurring and to create an impression that deep thought or creativity is being undertaken in formulating their utterance [4].

**Task 2a**—Participants engaged in a mock job interview with the robot, in which the participant was the interviewer and the robot was the interviewee. Participants were instructed to ask a series of five common job interview questions, and the robot was programmed to respond with answers taken from real-world job interviews.

**Measure 2a**—Participants rated each response immediately after it was given on four seven-point rating items. We constructed a single scale of thoughtfulness from the four items, including ratings on perceived thoughtfulness, creativity, disclosure, and naturalness of each response. Internal consistency was good for the items in this scale (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .852$). We expected the highest overall ratings to be given by participants when the robot used cognitive gaze aversions at the start of its responses according to our model.

**Hypothesis 2b**—Robots that display periodic gaze aversions while listening will increase a human interlocutor’s comfort and elicit more disclosure than robots that do not display gaze aversions or display gaze aversions with inappropriate timings.

Eye contact is one of the factors that shape feelings of intimacy between people. Too much of it results in uncomfortable levels of intimacy [4]. We posit that using gaze aversions appropriately will alleviate this potentially negative outcome.

**Task 2b**—The robot in this task was introduced to the participant as training to be a therapist’s aide that would conduct preliminary interviews with new clients. During the task, the robot asked the participant a series of five questions with increasing levels of intimacy, ranging from “What do you like to do in your free time?” to “What is something you don’t like about yourself?” and participants were instructed to respond with as much or as little detail as they wished.

**Measure 2b**—The primary measure for this task was the breadth of self-disclosure, which we obtained using a word count of participants’ responses to the robot’s questions. Previous research on how computers can elicit self-disclosure from people has validated word count as an appropriate measure of disclosure [17]. We expected that participants would disclose more to a robot that used appropriately timed intimacy-modulating gaze aversions while listening.

**Hypothesis 2c**—Robots that display gaze aversions during pauses will be perceived as holding the floor and will be interrupted less
Gaze has been previously shown to be important in regulating conversational turn-taking [13]. By averting its gaze at a pause in speech, we posit that a robot will be able to hold the conversational floor, whereas making eye contact during this pause will result in the robot being interrupted.

**Task 2c** – Participants were provided with a list of five questions to ask the robot, with the goal of getting to know each other. Participants were instructed to ask each question, listen to the robot’s response, and then reciprocate with their own response to the same question. The robot’s responses had two parts, separated by a pause between 2 and 4 seconds in length (randomly determined to decrease predictability). If participants started speaking during the pause, the robot refrained from giving the second part of its response.

**Measure 2c** – The primary measure of this task was the time participants waited for the robot to be silent during the pause in its speech before interrupting or before the robot successfully produced the second part of its utterance. We expected participants to wait longer before interrupting the robot—or to not interrupt the robot at all—when it used appropriate turn-taking gaze aversions during its speech pauses, as specified by our model.

### 4.4. Setup & Procedure

An orange NAO, given the name Norman, was used for the first task that tested the perceived intentionality of generated gaze shifts. A gray NAO, given the name Jack, was used for the other three tasks. A separate robot was used for the first task due to the unnaturally long pauses present in that task. We did not want negative perceptions associated with these long response times to become associated with the robot during the other three tasks in which conversations proceeded more naturally. Each robot had a unique voice, implemented as pre-recorded audio files from separate male voice actors modulated in pitch to better fit the design of the robot. Participants sat in a chair approximately three feet away from the robot they were currently interacting with. The robot’s position was carefully chosen to be at approximately eye-level with the participant and at a comfortable social distance. A black dividing wall was placed between the two robots so that participants could only see a single robot at a time. The setup resembled interview booths commonly used in job fairs (Figure 5 and Figure 6).

Each question-answer interaction sequence, illustrated in Figure 7, began with a *preparation phase*—a common element of human-human interviews—in which the participant looked down and read a question from the list. During this phase, the robot displayed idle gaze movements while staying focused on the participant. Toward the end of the question, the participant redirected their attention toward the robot, at which point the robot began its response, displaying gaze aversions based on the experimental condition. Between gaze aversions, the robot displayed subtle random motions to increase lifelikeness. Upon completing its utterance, the robot always focused back on the participant, displaying subtle idle motion. At this point, the participant looked down to the list, beginning the preparation phase for the next question-answer sequence.

After obtaining informed consent, the experimenter led each participant into the study room and gave a brief introduction to the experiment. The participant first completed the single task with Norman and was then relocated to sit in front of Jack for the other three tasks, which were completed in random order. After completing all four tasks, the participant responded to a survey of demographic characteristics and was debriefed. The study took approximately 30 minutes, and each participant received $5.

### 4.5. Results

We performed a mixed-design analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to assess how robot gaze aversion behaviors affected the dependent variable for each task. Participant gender was included as a covariate to control for gender differences. Question ID—five in each task—was included as a covariate to control for learning effects. Question ID was nested within participant ID and modeled as a random effect. This resulted in five observations per participant and 150 total observations in each measure. Planned pairwise comparisons described in our hypotheses were carried out using Tukey’s HSD test. A summary of our primary results is presented in Figure 8.

**Hypothesis 1** predicted that gaze aversions employed by the robot would be seen as *intentional* motions used to engage in some cognitive processing, rather than randomly generated motions without meaning. Our analysis supported this hypothesis. The time given to the robot before interrupting was significantly higher when the robot used proper gaze aversion with good timing rather than bad timing, \( F(1,142) = 7.72, p < .01 \), or no gaze aversion at all, \( F(1,142) = 5.99, p = .041 \).

**Hypothesis 2a** predicted that when a robot utilized cognitive gaze aversions at the start of answers to participant-provided questions, those answers would be rated as being more *thoughtful* and creative than when the robot did not display gaze aversions or displayed gaze aversions with inappropriate timings. Our analysis supported this hypothesis. Participants assigned higher ratings of thoughtfulness to utterances produced by robots using well-timed gaze aversions over those produced by robots using poorly-timed gaze aversion, \( F(1,142) = 27.97, p < .001 \), and over those produced by robots using static gaze, \( F(1,142) = 10.19, p = .005 \).

**Hypothesis 2b** predicted that robots that displayed periodic gaze aversions while listening would increase a human interlocutor’s comfort and elicit more *disclosure* than robots that did not display gaze aversions or displayed gaze aversions with inappropriate timings. Our analysis did not support this hypothesis. The robot using gaze aversions with good timing elicited no more disclosure—measured as word count per response—from participants than when its gaze aversions were badly timed, \( F(1,142) = 0.56, p = .735 \), or when it used no gaze aversion at all, \( F(1,142) = 0.05, p = .972 \).

**Hypothesis 2c** predicted that robots that displayed gaze aversions during pauses would be perceived as *holding the floor* and would be interrupted less than robots that did not display gaze aversions or displayed gaze aversions with inappropriate timings. Our analysis...
Finally, robots using well-timed gaze aversion behaviors were more successful in managing conversational floor. When the robot used gaze aversions appropriately, participants waited longer during the robot’s pause before interrupting it to claim the floor. It should be noted, however, that the robot was never able to hold the conversational floor throughout the entirety of its pause in speech (planned to be 2–4 seconds in length) without being interrupted. When using properly timed gaze aversions, the mean time before interruption was 608 ms, compared with 329 ms and 327 ms in the static gaze and bad timing conditions, respectively. This is still a noteworthy result, as most gaps between turns in human-human conversations are shorter than 400 ms, about one-third of them less than 200 ms [29]. Adding other floor-holding behaviors, such as conversational fillers, might enable the robot to be even more effective in holding the floor during its pause. Previous work in HRI has already demonstrated the usefulness of conversational fillers in alleviating users’ negative perceptions to long system response times [26].

5. DISCUSSION

The goal of the evaluation was to show that gaze aversions generated by our robots are perceived as intentional and meaningful motions, and that robots can use gaze aversions to achieve three conversational functions: signaling that cognitive effort is being spent in producing thoughtful utterances, modulating the overall intimacy level of the conversation, and facilitating floor management.

As shown in the first task, the robot’s gaze aversions were perceived as intentional motions to engage in some sort of processing. Participants gave the robot significantly more time to formulate its response to a question when the robot used gaze aversions than when it used gaze aversions were badly timed, $F(1, 142) = 25.53, p < .001$, or when it did not use gaze aversion at all, $F(1, 142) = 24.93, p < .001$.

As shown in the second task, in which a robot produced responses to a participant’s interview-style questions, a robot that uses gaze aversions appropriately is capable of achieving the cognitive conversational function of producing utterances that are perceived as thoughtful and creative. This result is especially interesting as it was not observed when evaluating our previous implementation of gaze aversion behaviors for virtual agents [3]. A potential explanation might be found in the increased social presence of robots over virtual agents, making the generated cognitive gaze aversions more salient cues in this evaluation. That said, a follow-up evaluation that directly compares virtual agents and robots in this task would be required to better explain the observed difference in results.

Robots using well-timed gaze aversions were not successful in eliciting more disclosure from participants, as shown in the third task. A possible explanation is that the intimacy-modulating function of gaze aversion is really about reducing eye-contact and staring and that the precise timing for this type of gaze aversion is not important. Furthermore, the idle Perlin noise motions generated by our robot system in all conditions may have been perceived as small gaze shifts that increased participant comfort without needing more overt gaze aversions. In general, the lack of a significant result is consistent with previous HRI work that also did not find a difference in participant disclosure based on the gaze behavior of a robot [18].
Another limitation of this work is that the gaze aversions are responsive to the speech of the human user but not to their gaze. By tracking the user's gaze, the robot might be able to more effectively regulate mutual gaze throughout the conversation and recognize gaze aversions of its user. Interactively aligning gaze aversions is particularly important to ensure that the robot's gaze aversions are recognized by the user, for instance, by producing a turn-taking gaze aversion only when the user is looking toward the robot.

When used inappropriately or in excess, gaze aversion can be perceived negatively, as illustrated by our bad timing condition. Previous research has linked gaze aversion with avoidance-oriented emotions, such as embarrassment, sorrow, and disgust, and direct gaze with approach-oriented emotions, such as joy, love, and anger [2]. We posit that averting gaze only when it is useful and appropriate maximizes the positive effects of eye contact. The link between gaze aversion and emotion and the tradeoff between the effects of mutual and averted gaze are important directions for future work.

Gaze aversion is only one type of gaze action, but there are many others, including fixations, glances, mutual gaze, and scanning [27]. In future work, we hope to integrate the current work on gaze aversion into a comprehensive gaze controller that implements other gaze models, and test the effectiveness of robot gaze aversion within the context of a richer set of gaze behaviors.

6. CONCLUSION
Gaze aversion—the intentional redirection away from the face of an interlocutor—is an important nonverbal cue that serves cognitive, intimacy-modulating, and floor management functions in conversations. In previous work, we identified precise spatial and temporal parameters of gaze aversion from a video corpus of human-human interactions. In this paper, we presented our work to implement these behaviors on a humanlike robot system. This implementation was designed to overcome the inherent challenges of adapting a human-based gaze model for a robot without articulated eyes. We designed a head controller for the NAO platform that generates and combines head motions with three purposes: purposeful gaze aversion into a comprehensive gaze controller that implements other gaze models, and test the effectiveness of robot gaze aversion within the context of a richer set of gaze behaviors.

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8. REFERENCES