

# A Computational Model for Managing Impressions of an Embodied Conversational Agent in Real-Time

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**Abstract**—This paper presents a computational model for managing an Embodied Conversational Agent’s first impressions of warmth and competence towards the user. These impressions are important to manage because they can impact users’ perception of the agent and their willingness to continue the interaction with the agent. The model aims at detecting user’s impression of the agent and producing appropriate agent’s verbal and non-verbal behaviours in order to maintain a positive impression of warmth and competence. User’s impressions are recognized using a machine learning approach with facial expressions (action units) which are important indicators of users’ affective states and intentions. The agent adapts in real-time its verbal and non-verbal behaviour, with a reinforcement learning algorithm that takes user’s impressions as reward to select the most appropriate combination of verbal and non-verbal behaviour to perform. A user study to test the model in a contextualized interaction with users is also presented. Our hypotheses are that users’ ratings differs when the agents adapts its behaviour according to our reinforcement learning algorithm, compared to when the agent does not adapt its behaviour to user’s reactions (i.e., when it randomly selects its behaviours). The study shows a general tendency for the agent to perform better when using our model than in the random condition. Significant results shows that user’s ratings about agent’s warmth are influenced by their a-priori about virtual characters, as well as that users’ judged the agent as more competent when it adapted its behaviour compared to random condition.

**Index Terms**—Embodied Conversational Agents, First Impressions, Warmth, Competence, Facial Expressions Detection, Impression Management, Machine learning

## I. INTRODUCTION

When we encounter a new person, we involuntary and quickly form impressions about him/her. Those impressions may affect the interaction, and even last afterward. For example, they can influence our willingness to meet again with the person [1]. This is why people often attempt to control the impression they make on others. This process is called *impression management* [2] and is done by controlling one’s

own appearance (physical aspect, clothing style, etc.) and non-verbal behaviour [3]. Non-verbal behaviour in particular is often the most difficult to control. Nevertheless, it plays an important role in *impression formation* since it can uncover information about others’ characteristics such as their sexual orientation [1], personality and interpersonal attitudes [4].

An Embodied Conversational Agent (ECA) is not immune to user’s judgments, particularly when it is capable of engaging a user in a real-time face-to-face interaction [5], [6]. For this reason, endowing ECAs with the ability of exhibiting the appropriate non-verbal behaviours during the interaction with the user has been the goal of many researchers in the last decades. Until now, these efforts mainly focused on the ECA’s expression of emotional states [7], personality traits [8] and interpersonal attitudes [9] via non-verbal behaviour.

In this paper, we focus on user’s impressions of an ECA which are measured with warmth and competence dimensions considered as the most fundamental dimensions in social cognition. The goal is to adapt the ECA’s behaviours to users’ impressions measured from their behavioural reactions, in particular their facial expressions, in order to manage the most appropriate impression of warmth and competence. For this purpose, we implemented a reinforcement learning algorithm to learn which behaviours to exhibit while learning from and adapting to user’s reactions to those exhibited behaviours.

In the next section we provide more background on warmth and competence dimensions as well as a review of related work with emphasis on ECAs and techniques to detect user’s affective reactions. In Section III we describe our ECA’s system’s architecture and our computational model. In Section IV we present the results obtained from a user study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of our model in a real-time interaction with users.

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## II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

### A. Warmth and Competence

During social interactions, many cognitive mechanisms are involved, such as processing, storing and applying information about other people. These activities are defined as social cognition. From an evolutionary point of view [10], social cognition reflects the survival need of knowing the intentions of the others (positive or negative), i.e., the warmth dimension, and the consequent ability (or failure) to enact those intentions, i.e., the competence dimension.

In this paper the terms **warmth** and **competence** (W&C) are used since they are the most used in literature about human-human and human-agent interaction: the former includes traits like friendliness, trustworthiness, sociability; the latter includes traits like intelligence, agency and efficacy. These two dimensions have been studied by several researchers, under different points of view and using different labels [11]. Several authors highlighted their centrality in both inter-personal [4] and inter-group perception [12], as well as the unique emotional and behavioural consequences of their judgments [11].

Impressions about others' W&C can be elicited by particular non-verbal cues. Bayes [13] attempted to define and specify the behavioural cues of warmth, by searching for an association between global ratings of warmth and objective measurements of specific behavioural cues such as posture, head movements, hand movements, facial expressions and smiling. This last cue was found to be the best single predictor of warmth. Cuddy et al. [3] confirmed the role of Duchenne's smile [14] for warmth, and added the presence of immediacy cues (e.g., leaning forward, nodding, orienting the body toward the other) that indicate positive interest or engagement, touching and postural openness, mirroring (i.e., copying the non-verbal behaviours of the interaction partner). For coldness, the authors cited tense posture, leaning backwards, orienting the body away from the other, tense and intrusive hand gestures (e.g., pointing). Concerning competence, they cited non-verbal behaviour related to dominance and power, such as expansive (i.e., taking up more space) and open (i.e., keeping limbs open and not touching the torso) postures. People who express high-power or assertive non-verbal behaviours are perceived as more skillful, capable, and competent than people expressing low-power or passive non-verbal behaviours.

Maricchiolo et al. [15] showed significant effects of hand gestures type on competence perception. In particular, ideationals (that is, gestures related to the semantic content of the speech) and object-adaptors resulted in a higher level of competence judgments, compared to absence of gestures, while self-adaptors resulted in a lower competence. No significant effect of hand gestures was found for warmth.

### B. Warmth and Competence in ECAs

Some researchers investigated the role of W&C dimensions in ECAs. Nguyen et al. [16] applied an iterative methodology that included theory from theater, animation and psychology, expert reviews, user testing and feedback, in order to extract a

set of rules to be encoded in an ECA. To do that, they analysed gestures, use of space and gaze behaviours in videos of actors performing different degrees of W&C.

Bergmann et al. [17] found that human-like vs. robot-like appearance positively affected impressions of warmth, while the presence of co-speech gestures increased competence judgements.

Compared to these works, we focus on natural interactions and on the use of not only co-speech gestures but other cues such as rest poses. In [18] we investigated the associations between non-verbal cues and W&C impressions in human-human interaction. We annotated the type of gesture, the type of arms rest poses, head movements and smiling, as well as the perceived W&C of people who played the role of expert in a corpus of videos of dyadic natural interactions. A negative association was found between some arms rest poses, like arms crossed, and W&C. In addition, the presence of gestures was positively associated with both W&C, in particular the presence of beat gestures with both W&C, and ideationals with warmth. As for smiling behaviour, its presence when performing a gesture increased warmth judgements, and a compensation effect was found: warmth judgements were positively related to the presence of smiles, while competence judgements were negatively related to it. In a follow up study, participants rated videos of an ECA displaying different combinations of these manipulations. The type of gesture was found to affect W&C judgements: they were higher when the ECA displayed ideationals than when it displayed beats. In addition, this effect occurred for warmth judgements only when the frequency of gestures were high rather than low.

In this paper we aim at applying these findings in a real-time interaction, where participants are no more passive observers but interactive users.

### C. Impressions Assessment

As described above, current research has focused on how exhibited behaviours influence the formation of impressions. To the best of our knowledge, there is no existing research investigating if the formed impressions can be assessed from the social signals of the person forming the impression. However, studies in affective computing have demonstrated the possibility to infer user's emotions from multi-modal signals [19]. Since emotions can be induced when forming impressions [11], this supports the possibility of assessing users' impressions from their affective expressions. Emotion recognition studies explored a variety of models using machine learning methods. These methods can be grouped in two classes based on whether temporal information is applied or not. The non-temporal models generally require contextual features while temporal models exploit the dynamic information in the model directly. They include methods such as Multiple Layer Perceptron (MLP), Support Vector Machine (SVM) and XGBoost. For temporal models, Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) models are currently widely used with several topologies [19]–[21]. When detecting emotions, different modalities may require various lengths of temporal windows

to extract features appropriately [22]. For example, according to [23], [24], visual modality (upper body recordings) changes faster over time than physiological signals such as heart rate, temperature and respiration rate. There are multiple works from both temporal and non-temporal methods, indicating that facial expression measurements generally achieve better performance as compared with other modalities such as speech and physiological signals for affect recognition [19], [25].

### III. SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

In this section we describe the ECA architecture designed to carry on the interaction with the users. The system has a software module including sub-components to detect user's behaviour (speech, facial expressions), analyse and interpret it (i.e., the user's impressions of the ECA's W&C) as well as a second module to arbitrate on verbal behaviour (i.e. what the ECA should say) and non-verbal behaviour (i.e., the behaviours accompanying speech). The ECA's speech and behaviours are dynamically selected based on interpreted user's impressions and the ECA's strategy to effectively manage impressions of W&C. The 2 main modules of our system enabling real-time user-agent interaction are illustrated in Fig. 1:

- 1) *User's Impressions Detection* - We exploit the EyesWeb open source platform [26] that extracts in real-time the user's face Action Units (AUs, that describe the contraction of different muscles/regions of the face), by running the OpenFace framework [27], and user's speech by executing the Microsoft Speech Platform<sup>1</sup>. Based on the extracted signals, the EyesWeb open source platform computes user's impressions as described in Section III-A.
- 2) *Agent's Impressions Manager* - The ECA has an Impressions Manager module implemented with Flipper [28], a dialog manager that, given the detected user's impressions, chooses the verbal and non-verbal signals the ECA has to perform in the next speaking turn, according to a Reinforcement Learning algorithm. The SAIBA-compliant Greta/VIB platform supports the generation of behaviour and computes the corresponding animation of the ECA [29].

#### A. User's Impressions Detection

Facial signals can reveal the users' affective states, and potentially formed impressions, faster compared to other modalities such as heart rate and body temperature [23], [24]. As our system is required to work in real-time, we therefore adopt face signals for rapid impression detection. We rely on AUs extracted from each video frame as input to our sequence learning model. We extract 14 AUs with presence and intensity values respectively on each frame.

A trained Multilayer Perceptron Regression (MLP) model is applied to detect impressions formed by users' of the ECA. We trained the MLP model with a corpus including face video recordings and continuous self-report annotations

of W&C. The model was trained with 32 participants (12 hours recording) watching impression stimuli videos from the NOXI database [30]. In each stimulus, an expert was talking about a topic of interest, which was similar to the scenario adopted in our user study. While the participants were watching the videos, their facial expressions were recorded using a camera (Logitech C525 & C920 with sample rate at 30fps) and they were requested to annotate their impressions by pressing buttons when they felt a change in warmth (up & down keyboard arrow) or in competence (left & right keyboard arrow). W&C were annotated independently.

The MLP model had 2 hidden layers and 1 output layer with 50 epochs. A validation set was created with 20% of the training data, to apply early stopping (patience of 5 epochs) and avoid over-fitting. The performance was tested using a leave-one participant out cross-validation which is widely used for small dataset and evaluated using the Concordance Correlation Coefficient (CCC). The average CCC of the MLP model on warmth and competence were 0.64 and 0.70 respectively.

In our ECA system, EyesWeb communicates with the trained MLP model through a TCP connection. EyesWeb implements a parallel thread to send and receive data to the server. It means that at each Kinect RGB video frame, EyesWeb calls the OpenPose API to get the users facial AUs configuration. Impression is detected by the MLP model every second with AUs extracted from 30-frame buffer.

#### B. Agent's Impressions Manager

1) *Verbal and non-verbal behaviour*: Every dialog act is performed by the ECA through a combination of non-verbal and verbal behaviours. The choice of the non-verbal behaviour to display in order to express W&C is based on our previous findings [18], [31], whereas for verbal behaviour we built on the work of [32] and [33]. Therefore, the ECA's behaviour is as follows:

- *Type of gestures*. The ECA can perform *ideational* (related to the semantic content of the speech) or *beat* (rhythmic and not directly related to the semantic content of the speech) [34] gestures or *no gestures*;
- *Arms rest poses*: in the absence of any kind of gesture, these rest poses can be performed by the ECA: *akimbo* (hands on the hips), *crossed* on the chest, *along* its body, or *hands crossed* on the table.
- *Smiling*. During the animation, the ECA can decide whether or not to perform smiling behaviour, characterized by the activation of AU6 and AU12.
- *Verbal behaviour*. We worked on subjective pronouns, in particular *we* and *you*, the level of formality of the language (formal vs informal), the length of the sentences, in order to create 4 possible ways to pronounce the same dialog act. For example, sentences aiming at eliciting high warmth contain more pronouns, less synonyms, more informal language so that the phrases are more casual and give the impression to be less meditated, more verbs rather than nouns, and positive contents are predominant. Sentences aiming at eliciting low warmth contain more

<sup>1</sup><https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/download/details.aspx?id=27225>

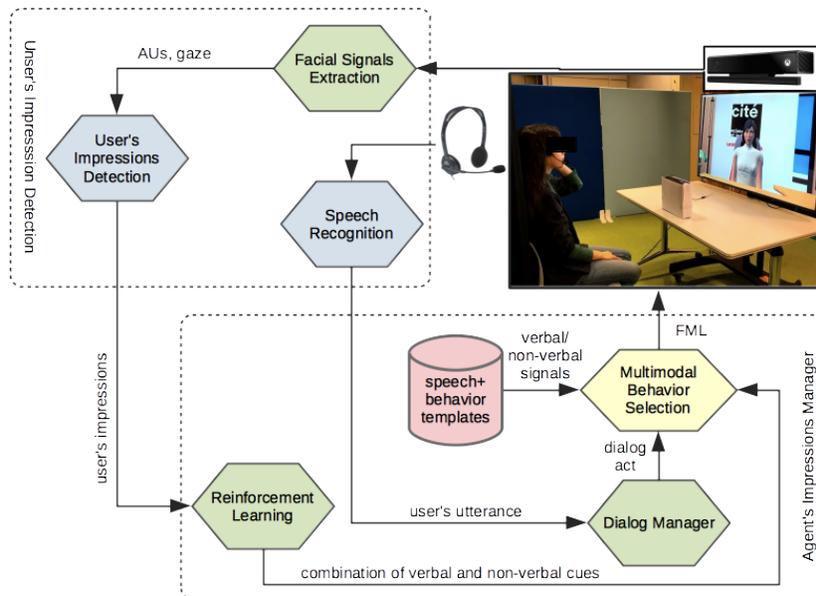


Fig. 1. The system architecture, which is composed by two main modules, one for user's impression detection and the other for agent's impressions management. The picture shows the set up of the user study described in Section IV.

negations, longer phrases, formal language, and do not refer to the speaker. Sentences aiming at eliciting high competence contain high rates of *we-* and *you-* words, and *I-* words at low rates.

2) *Dialog Manager*: A dialog manager supports the ECA's choice of dialog acts to perform; for instance the ECA greets the user when the interaction begins, it introduces itself, etc.

We exploit two main concepts that characterise the dialog manager Flipper [28]: the *information state* and the *declarative templates*. The information state stores interaction-related information (e.g., the state of the conversation) and data in a hierarchical tree-based structure. Declarative templates can be grouped and organized in different files according to their related functionality [28]. Each template consists of:

- *preconditions*: sets of rules that describe when a template should be executed;
- *effects*: associated updates to the information state.

We define preconditions depending on the current dialog act (e.g., greeting, asking information about a topic) or the user state (e.g., user has finished speaking) and describe the expected effect of the precondition on the evolution of the interaction (i.e., the next dialog act). Example dialog acts are: greeting, topic details, topic shift. The Dialog Manager module outputs the type of the dialog act to be spoken by the ECA.

3) *Reinforcement Learning*: To be able to change the ECA behaviour according to detected participant's impressions, we apply a value-based reinforcement learning algorithm named Q-learning. This is a widely used model-free and off-policy method which fits our user study [35]. Q-learning defines states  $s$  (in our case these are warmth/competence levels) and actions  $a$  performed by the ECA (in this paper an action is the dialog act accompanied by non-verbal behaviours listed

in section III-B1). The initial Q values  $Q(s, a)$  of actions and states are set up to 0. A reward function  $R$  is computed for each combination of state and action. In our case  $R$  is the difference between detected warmth (resp. competence) and the current warmth (resp. competence) level. The Q-learning algorithm explores all the possible next state-action pairs  $(s', a')$  and tries to maximize the future rewards with a discount rate  $\gamma$ . We maximize one dimension at a time. The new Q values  $Q_{(new)}(s, a)$  are updated with the Q function:

$$Q_{(new)}(s, a) = Q(s, a) + \alpha [R(s, a) + \gamma \max_a Q'(s', a') - Q(s, a)]$$

where  $\alpha$  is the learning rate, and  $Q(s, a)$  is the Q value of current state and action.

#### IV. USER STUDY

We conducted a user study in order to test our model in a user-agent real-time interaction scenario. The aim of the study was to investigate whether the adaptation of the ECA through our reinforcement learning algorithm can positively impact user's impressions of the ECA's W&C and user's overall perception of the interaction.

##### A. Experimental Design

The independent variable concerned the use of our reinforcement learning model (*Model*), and included 3 conditions: *Warmth*, when the ECA adapted its behaviours according to user's warmth impressions; *Competence*, when the ECA adapted its behaviours according to user's competence impressions; *Random*, when the model was not exploited and the ECA randomly chose its behaviour, without considering user's reactions.

The dependent variables measured during the study were:

- User’s perception of ECA’s warmth ( $w$ ) and competence ( $c$ ): participants were asked to rate their level of agreement about how well each adjective described the ECA (4 concerning warmth, 4 concerning competence, according to [36]).
- User’s perception of the interaction (*perception*): participants were asked to rate their level of agreement about a list of items adapted from [37].

The questionnaire included users’ satisfaction of the interaction, their willingness to continue it, how much they liked the ECA, how much they learned from it, how much they wanted to visit the exhibit (see Section IV-B), where they would place the ECA in a scale from computer to person, and where they would place it in a scale from a stranger to a close friend.

Before the interaction with the ECA, we asked participants to fill in a questionnaire about their a-priori about virtual characters (*NARS*): an adapted version of *NARS* scale from [38] was used. Items of the questionnaire included for example how much you would feel relaxed talking with an ECA, or how much you would like the idea that ECAs made judgments.

We hypothesised that:

**H1:** The ECA would be perceived *warmer* when it adapted its behaviours according to user’s warmth impressions, that is, in the *Warmth* condition, compared to the *Random* condition;

**H2:** The ECA would be perceived *more competent* when it adapted its behaviours according to user’s competence impressions, that is, in the *Competence* condition, compared to the *Random* condition;

**H3:** When the ECA adapted its behaviours, that is in either *Warmth* and *Competence* conditions, this would improve user’s overall experience, compared to the *Random* condition.

## B. Procedure

We conceived a scenario in which the ECA played the role of a virtual guide, introducing an exhibit about video games, held at the Cité des sciences et de l’industrie, the biggest Science museum of Paris. Our ECA, called Alice, first introduced itself to the participants, and then gave them several information about the exhibit. Alice asked questions/feedback to users at several points of the interaction. The study took around 15 min. and was conducted as follows:

- 1) At the beginning, the participant sat at the questionnaires’ place, read and signed the consent form, and filled the *NARS* questionnaire [5 min];
- 2) The participant then moved to the center of the room, and sat in front of a desk and a big screen displaying Alice sitting at a virtual desk placed at the same level than the participant. At the top of the screen, a Kinect 2 was installed. The set up is depicted in Fig.1. During the interaction the participant wore a headset and was free to interact with the ECA as she wanted. The experimenter stayed in a hidden place behind the screen [3 min];
- 3) The last step consisted in filling in the last questionnaires and debriefing the participant [5-7 min].

The interaction with Alice, lasting about 3 minutes, included 26 speaking turns. A speaking turn consisted of a dialog act (e.g., greeting, asking questions, describing a video game, etc... ) played by the ECA and user’s possible answer or verbal feedback. In the absence of user’s responses (i.e. in case of user’s silence lasting more that a threshold set from 1.5s to 4s, depending on whether the ECA asked an explicit question or just said a sentence), Alice continued with another speaking turn. After each speaking turn, the score about user’s impression was computed and sent to the reinforcement learning module (see Section III-B3).

## C. Analysis and Results

We collected data from 71 participants, 34% of them were women. Participants were visitors of the Science museum, who were invited to take part to our research study. 28% of them were in the range 18-25 years old, 18% were in the range 25-36, 28% in the range 36-45, 15% in the range of 46-55 and 11% over 55 years old. Participants were assigned randomly to each condition with 25 participants assigned to the *Warmth* condition, 27 to the *Competence* condition and 19 to the *Random* one.

In order to group together the 4 items for  $w$  and the 4 for  $c$ , we computed Cronbachs alphas on their scores: good reliability was found for both ( $\alpha = 0.85$  and  $\alpha = 0.81$  respectively). Then we computed the mean of these items in order to have one  $w$  score and one  $c$  score for each participant and we used them for our analyses.

Since *NARS* scores got an acceptable score of reliability ( $\alpha = 0.69$ ), we computed the overall mean of these items for each participant and divided them into 2 groups, “high” and “low”, according to whether they obtained a score higher than the overall mean or not, respectively. Participants were almost equally distributed into the two groups (35 in the “high” group, 36 in the “low” group). Chi-square tests for *Model*, age and sex were run to verify that participants were equally distributed across these variables, too (all  $p > 0.5$ ).

1) *Warmth’s Scores:* Since  $w$  means were normally distributed (Shapiro test’s  $p = 0.07$ ) and their variances homogeneous (Bartlett tests’  $ps$  for each variable were  $> 0.44$ ), we run  $3 \times 5 \times 2 \times 2$  between-subjects ANOVA, with *Model*, age, sex and *NARS* as factors.

No effects of age or sex were found. A main effect of *NARS* was found ( $F(1, 32) = 4.23, p < 0.05$ ). Post-hoc test specified that the group who got high scores in *NARS* gave higher ratings about Alice’s  $w$  ( $M = 3.65, SD = 0.84$ ) than the group who got low scores in *NARS* ( $M = 3.24, SD = 0.96$ ).

Although we did not find any significant effect,  $w$  scores were on average higher in *Warmth* and *Competence* conditions than in the *Random* condition. Mean and standard error of  $w$  scores are shown in Fig.2.

2) *Competence’s Scores:* Since  $c$  means were normally distributed (Shapiro test’s  $p = 0.22$ ) and their variances homogeneous (Bartlett tests’  $ps$  for each variable were  $> 0.25$ ), we run  $3 \times 5 \times 2 \times 2$  between-subjects ANOVA, with *Model*, age, sex and *NARS* scores as factors.

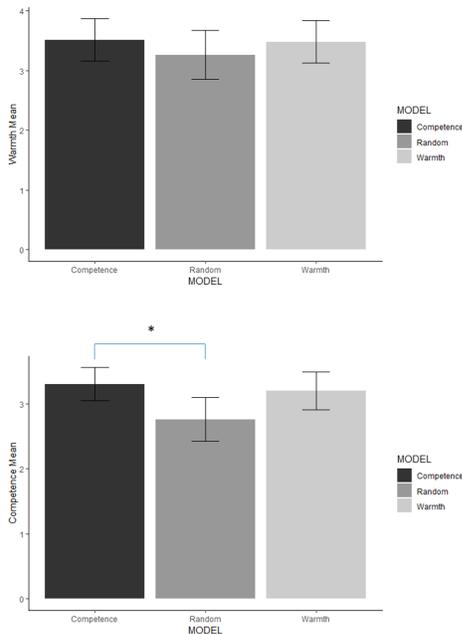


Fig. 2. Warmth and competence means for each level of *Model*. \* stands for  $p = 0.05$ .

We did not find any effect of age, sex or *NARS*. A strong tendency towards statistical significance was found for a main effect of the *Model* ( $F(2, 32) = 3.22, p = 0.0471, \eta^2 = 0.085$ ). In particular, as shown in Fig.2, post-hoc tests revealed that participants in the *Competence* condition gave higher scores about Alice’s *c* than participants in the *Random* condition ( $M1 = 3.3, M2 = 2.76, p\text{-adj} = 0.05$ ).

3) *Perception’s Scores*: Since *perception* items’ means were not normally distributed but their variances were homogeneous (Bartlett tests’  $ps$  for each variable were  $> 0.17$ ), we run non-parametric tests for each item and each variable. Even if we did not find any statistically significant effect, on average items’ scores tended to be higher in *Warmth* and *Competence* conditions than in *Random* condition.

4) *Q-learning algorithm*: The Q-learning algorithm ended up selecting (for each participant) one specific combination of verbal and non-verbal behaviours from the  $84\% \pm 7$  and  $82\% \pm 7$  of the interaction, for *Warmth* and *Competence* conditions respectively. In the *Warmth* condition the rest pose *Akimbo* was the most selected one ( $\chi^2 = 8.05, p = 0.005$ ), and we found a tendency to use *Ideationals* ( $p > 0.05$ ). In the *Competence* condition the *Verbal Behaviour* aiming at eliciting low warmth and high competence was the most selected one ( $\chi^2 = 3.86, p = 0.00495$ ).

## V. DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

The results show that participants’ ratings tended to be higher in the conditions in which the ECA used the reinforcement learning algorithm to adapt its behaviour, compared to when it selected its behaviour randomly. In particular, the results indicate that we successfully manipulated the impres-

sion of competence when using our adaptive ECA. Indeed, higher competence was reported in the *Competence* condition compared to the *Random* one. No a-priori effect was found.

On the other hand, we found an a-priori effect on warmth but no significant effect of our conditions (just a positive trend for both *Competence* and *Warmth* conditions). People with high a-priori about ECAs gave higher ratings about Alice’s warmth than people with low a-priori.

We could hypothesise some explanations about these results. First, we did not get effects of our experimental conditions on warmth ratings since people were more anchored into their a-priori and it was hard to change them. Indeed, people’s expectancies have already been found to have an effect on user’s judgments about ECAs [31], [39]. The fact that we found this effect only for warmth judgments could be related to the primacy of warmth judgments over competence [40]. Then, it could have been easier to elicit impressions of competence since we found no a-priori effect on competence. This could be explained as people might expect that it is easier to implement knowledge in an ECA rather than social behaviours.

Regarding users’ perception of the interaction, we tried to understand why it only tended to be different across conditions but did not reach statistical significance. During the debriefing many participants told us their disappointment about Alice’s appearance, the quality of the voice synthesizer and the animation, described as “disturbing”, “creepy”, as well as the limitations of the conversation (participants could only answer to ECA’s questions). The animation of the agent is done procedurally and its voice is synthesized. People could have been influenced by science-fiction films or video games and have had difficulties in distinguishing these to the current state of the technology of interactive ECAs. This could have reduced any other effect of the independent variables. Indeed, Alice’s appearance and the structure of the dialog were the same across conditions. If participants mainly focused on these elements, they could have paid less attention to ECA’s verbal and non-verbal behaviour (the variables that were manipulated and we were interested in), which thus did not manage to affect their overall perception of the interaction.

In a future work we aim to improve the ECA’s conversational skills, to ensure conversation repairs and interruptions and by letting the user choose the topic of conversation from a set of possible ones.

Regarding the Q-learning algorithm, we found that it ended up selecting a specific combination of behaviours only during the late part of the interaction. To improve its efficiency we aim at conceiving a longer interaction with more steps in order to allow the algorithm to better learn. In addition, the impression detection model should be improved in order to send to the agent more precise information about the user.

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