Comparing Conventional and Conversational Search Interaction Using Implicit Evaluation Methods

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Abstract: Conversational search applications offer the prospect of improved user experience in information seeking via agent support. However, it is not clear how searchers will respond to this mode of engagement, in comparison to a conventional user-driven search interface, such as those found in a standard web search engine. We describe a laboratory-based study directly comparing user behaviour for a conventional search interface (CSI) with that of an agent-mediated multiview conversational search interface (MCSI) which extends the CSI. User reaction and search outcomes of the two interfaces are compared using implicit evaluation using five analysis methods: workload-related factors (NASA Load Task), psychometric evaluation for the software, knowledge expansion, user interactive experience and search satisfaction. Our investigation using scenario-based search tasks shows the MCSI to be more interactive and engaging, with users claiming to have a better search experience in contrast to a corresponding standard search interface.

1 INTRODUCTION

The growth in networked information resources has seen search or information retrieval become a ubiquitous application, used many times each day by millions of people in both their work and personal use of the internet. For most users, their experience of search tools is dominated by their use of web search engines, such as those provided by Google and Bing, on various different computing platforms. Users lack of knowledge on the topic of their information need often means that they must perform multiple search iterations. This enables to learn about their area of investigation and eventually to create a query which sufficiently describes their information need which is able to retrieve relevant content. The search process is thus often cognitively demanding on the user and inefficient in terms of the amount of work that they are required to do.

Bringing together the needs of users to search unstructured information technologies and advances in artificial intelligence, recent years have seen rapid growth in research interest in the topic of conversational search (CS) systems (Radlinski and Craswell, 2017). CS systems assume the presence of an agent of some form which enables a dialogue-based interaction between the searcher and the search engine to support the user in satisfying their information needs (Radlinski and Craswell, 2017). Studies of CS to date have generally adopted a human “wizard” in the role of the search agent (Trippas et al., 2017; Avula et al., 2018). These studies have been conducted in CS systems with the implicit assumption that an agent can interpret the searcher’s actions with human like intelligence. In this study, we take an alternative position using an automatic rule-based agent to support the searcher in the CS interface and compare this with the effectiveness of a similar CSI to perform the same search tasks. In this study, we introduce a desktop based prototype MCSI to a search engine API. Our interface combines a CS assistant with an extended standard graphical search interface. The goals of our study include both better understanding of how users respond to CS interfaces and automated agents, and how these compare with the user experience of a CSI for the same task.

The ubiquity of CSIs means that users have well established mental models of the search process from their use of these tools. With respect to this, it is important to consider that it has been found in multiple studies that subjects find it difficult to adapt to new systems.
technologies, especially when dealing with interfaces (Krogsæter et al., 1994). Thus, when presented with a new type of interface for an equivalent search task, it is interesting to consider how users will adapt and respond to it. Previous studies of CS interfaces have focused on chatbot type interfaces which limit the information space of the search (Avula et al., 2018; Avula and Arguello, 2020), and are very different from conventional graphical search interfaces. Search via engagement with a chat type agent can result in the development of quite different information-seeking mental models to those developed in the use of standard search systems, meaning that it is not possible to directly consider the potential of CS in more conventional search settings based on these studies. We are interested in this study to consider how user mental models of the search process from CSIs will respond in a CS conversational setting to enhance the user search experience.

For our study of conversational engagement with a search engine and contrasting it with more conventional user-driven interaction, we adopt a range of implicit evaluation methods. Specifically we use cognitive workload-related factors (NASA Load Task) (Hart and Staveland, 1988), psychometric evaluation for software (Lewis, 1995), knowledge expansion (Wilson and Wilson, 2013) and search satisfaction (Kaushik and Jones, 2018). Our findings show that users exhibit significant differences in the above dimensions of evaluation when using our MCSI and a corresponding CSI.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 overviews existing work in conversational engagement and its evaluation, Section 3 describes the methodology for our investigation, Section 4 provides details of our experimental procedure and our results and includes analysis, findings and hypothesis testing and Section 5 concludes.

2 RELATED WORK

In this section, we provide an overview of existing related work in conversational interfaces, conversational search and relevant topics in evaluation.

2.1 Conversational Interfaces

Conversational interaction (CI) with information systems is a longstanding topic of interest in computing. However, activity has increased greatly in recent years. The key motivation for examining CI is the development of interactive systems which enable users to achieve their objectives using a more natural mode of engagement than cognitively demanding traditional user-driven interfaces. Such user-driven interfaces require users to develop mental models to use them reliably. Recent research on CI has focused on multiple topics including mode of interaction, the intelligence of conversational agents, the structure of conversation, and dialogue strategy (McTear et al., 2016; Abdul-Kader and Woods, 2015; Roller et al., 2020). Progress in CI can be classified in four facet areas: smart interfaces, modeling conversational phenomena, machine learning approaches, and toolkits and languages (Singh et al., 2019; Braun and Matthes, 2019; Araujo, 2020).

Current chatbot interfaces have evolved, in common with many areas, from rule-based systems to the use of data driven approaches using machine learning and deep learning methods (Nagarhalli et al., 2020). Toolkits have been developed to support the construction and testing of chatbot agents for particular applications. The majority of research on conversational agents has focused on question answering and chit chat (unfocused dialogue) systems. Only very limited work has been done on information-seeking bots, dating mainly from the early 1990s (Stein and Thiel, 1993). One recent example of a multimodal conversational search is presented in our earlier work (Kaushik et al., 2020). This enables a user to explore long documents using a multi-view interface. Our current study is focused on evaluation of this interface in comparison to a CSI.

2.2 Conversational Search

While users of search tools have become accustomed to standard “single shot” interfaces, of the form seen in current web search engines, interest in the potential of alternative conversational search-based tools has increased greatly in recent years (Radlinski and Craswell, 2017). Traditional search interfaces have significant challenges for users, in requiring them to express their information needs in fully formed queries, although users have generally learned to use them to good effect. The idea of agent-support conversational-based interaction supporting them in the search process is thus very attractive. Multiple studies have been conducted to investigate the potential of conversational search in different dimensions. These studies however have generally involved use of a human in the role of an agent wizard (Avula and Arguello, 2020; Avula et al., 2018; Avula et al., 2019). These have the limitation of assuming both human intelligence and error free speech recognition, which will generally not be the case in a real system (Trippas
et al., 2017; Trippas et al., 2018).

Some studies on conversational search have been based completely on a data-driven approach using machine learning methods to extract a query from multiple utterances. The drawback of this approach is that the dialogues are not analyzed based on incremental learning over multiple conversations (Nogueira and Cho, 2017; Bowden et al., 2017). Other types of studies have developed agents by using an intermediate approach in which a combination of rules is used to form a dialogue strategy from users search behaviour (De Bra and Post, 1994) (Kaushik and Jones, 2018), which guide the user in conversations with the support of a pretrained machine learning model to extract the intent and entities from utterance. We follow this last approach in our multi-view prototype to understand the user search experience in a conversational setting.

2.3 Evaluation

Currently, there is no standard mechanism for evaluation of conversational search interfaces. In this study, we adopt implicit measures in five dimensions (Kaushik and Jones, 2021) user search experience (Kaushik and Jones, 2018), knowledge gain (Wilson and Wilson, 2013), cognitive and physical load (Hart and Staveland, 1988), user interactive experience (Schrepp, 2018) and usability of the interface software (Lewis, 1995).

3 METHODOLOGY

In this section, we describe the details of our user study which aims to enable us to observe and better understand and contrast the behaviour of searchers using a CSI and our prototype MCSI. This section is divided into two subsections: interface design and experimental setup.

3.1 Prototype Conversational Search System

In order to investigate user response to search using a MCSI and to contrast this with a comparable CSI with the same search back-end, we developed a fully functioning prototype system, shown in Figure 1. The interface is divided into two distinct sections. The right-hand side which corresponds to a standard CSI, and the lefthand side which is a text-based chat agent and interacts with both the search engine and the user. Essentially the agent works alongside the user as an assistant, rather than being positioned between the user and the search engine (Maes, 1994).

The Web interface components are implemented using the web python framework flask and with HTML, CSS, and JS toolkits. The agent is controlled by a logical system and is implemented using Artificial Intelligence Markup Language (AIML) scripts. These scripts are used to identify the intent of the user, to access a spell checking API 1, and are responsible for search and giving responses to the users. Since the focus of this study is on the functionality of the search interface, the search is carried out by making calls to the Wikipedia API. The interface includes multiple components, as discussed in detail in our previous work (Kaushik et al., 2020)

3.1.1 Dialogue Strategy and Taxonomy

After exploring user search behaviour (Kaushik and Jones, 2018) and dialogue systems, we developed a dialogue strategy and taxonomy to support CS. The dialogue process is divided into three phases and four states as discussed in detail in our previous work (Kaushik et al., 2020) The three phases include:

- Identification of the information need of the user,
- Presentation of the results in the chat system,
- Continuation of the dialogue until the user is satisfied or aborts the search.

The agent can seek confirmation from the user, if the query is not clear, it can also correct the query by using the spell checker and reconfirm the query from the user to make the process precise enough to provide better results. The agent can also highlight specific information in long documents to help the user to direct their attention to potential important content.

The user always has the option to interrupt the ongoing communication process by entering a new query directly into the Query Box. The communication finishes by the user ending the search with success or with failure to address their information need.

3.1.2 System Workflow

The system workflow is divided into two sections: Conversation Management and Search Management, discussed in detail in our previous work.

1. Conversation Management: This includes a Dialogues Manager, a Spell Checker and connection to the Wikipedia API. The Dialogue Manager validates the user input and either sends it to the AIML scripts or self-handles it, if the user input

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1 https://pypi.org/project/pyspellchecker/
misspelt or incorrect. We use AIML scripts to implement the response to the user. The system response to user input directed to the AIML scripts is determined by the AIML script, which can further classify the user’s intent. The two major categories of intent are: greeting and search. The greeting intent is responsible for initializing, ending the conversation and system revelation. The search intent is responsible for directing the user input to the spell checker or wikipedia API and transferring control to search management. The Spell Checking module is responsible for checking the spelling of the query and asking for suggestions from the user (for an example: If the user searches for “viusal” then the system would ask: Do you mean “visual”?). Once the user confirms “yes” or “no”, then the query is forwarded to the Wikipedia API.

2. Search Management: This is responsible for search and display of the top 3 search results. The user may also look for more subsections from a selected document. Search management also has an option to display the full document. This opens a display with important sections with respect to the query highlighted. The criteria for an important section is based on a Custom Algorithm which extracts important sentences based on a TF-IDF score for each sentence by selecting the top-scoring sentences. The top 30% of extracted sentences are divided into clusters by Density based Clustering (DBSCAN) to extract diverse segments (combination of the sentences). Important segments are selected from these segments by using a cosine similarity score with the query.

3.1.3 User Engagement

The user can interact with both the search agent assistant and directly with the search engine. If the user commences a search from the Retrieval Results box, the assistant initiates a dialogue to assist them in the search process. The system also provides support to the user in reading full documents. As described above, important sections in long documents are highlighted to ease reading and reduce cognitive effort.

3.1.4 Review of Long Documents

In our study reported in (Kaushik and Jones, 2018), we note users can spend considerable time reviewing long documents. Our MCSI aims to support these users and reduce their required effort by highlighting important segments with respect to the user’s query, as described above. This facility also provides the user with the opportunity to explore subsections within a document instead of needing to read a full long document.
It is late, but you can’t get to sleep because a sore throat has taken hold and it is hard to swallow. You have run our of cough drops, and wonder if there are any folk remedies that might help you out until morning.

Figure 2: Example backstory from UQV100 test collection.

3.1.5 Conventional Interface

To enable direct comparison with our MCSI, a CSI for our study was formed by using the MCSI with the agent panel removed and the document highlighting facilities disabled. The searcher enters their query in the query box, document summaries are returned by the Wikipedia API, and full documents can be selected for viewing.

3.2 Information Needs for Study

For our investigation, we wished to give searchers realistic information needs which could be satisfied using a standard web search engine. In order to control the form and detail of these, we decided to use a set of information needs specified within backstories, e.g. as shown in Figure 2. The backstories that we selected were taken from the UQV100 test collection (Bailey et al., 2016), whose cognitive complexity is based on the Taxonomy of Learning (Krathwohl, 2002). We decided to focus on the most cognitively engaging backstories. Analyze type, in the expectation that these would require the greatest level of user search engagement to satisfy the information need.

Since the UQV100 topics were not provided with type labels, we selected a suitable subset as follows. The UQV100 topics were provided labeled with estimates of the number of queries which would need to be entered and the number of documents that would need to be accessed in order to satisfy the associated information need. We used the product of these figures as an estimate of the expected cognitive complexity, and then manually selected 12 of the highest scoring backstories that we rated as the most suitable for use by general web searchers, e.g. not requiring specific geographic knowledge or of specific events.

3.3 Experimental Procedure

Participants in our study had to complete search tasks based on the backstories using the MCSI and CSIs. Sessions were designed to assign search tasks and use of the alternative interfaces arranged to avoid potential sequence-related biasing effects. Each session consisted of multiple backstory search tasks. While undertaking a search session, participants were required to complete a pre- and post task search questionnaires. In this section we first give details of the practical experimental setup, then outline the questionnaires, and finally describe a pilot study undertaken to finalise the design of the study.

3.3.1 Experimental Setup

Participants used a setup of two computers arranged with two monitors side by side on a desk in our laboratory. One monitor was used for the search session, and the other to complete the online questionnaires. Participants carried out their search tasks accessing the Wikipedia search API using our interfaces running using a Google chrome browser. In addition, all search activities were recorded using a standard screen recorder tool to enable post-collection review of the user activities. Approval was obtained from our university Research Ethics Committee prior to undertaking the study. Participants were given printed instructions for their search sessions, each task.

3.3.2 Questionnaires

Participants completed two questionnaires for each search task. The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

- **Basic Information Survey**: Participants entered their assigned user ID, age, occupation and task ID.
- **Pre-Search**: Participants entered details of their pre-existing knowledge with respect to topic of the search task to be undertaken.
- **Post-Search**: Post-search feedback from the user including their search experience, knowledge gain, and writing the post-search summary.

The questionnaire was completed online in a Google form.

3.3.3 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with two undergraduate students in Computer Science using two additional backstory search tasks. This enabled us to see how long it took them to complete the sections of the study using the CSI and the MCSI, to gain insights into the likely behaviour of participants, and to generally debug the experimental setup.

Each of the pilot search tasks took around 30 minutes to complete. Feedback from the pilot study was used to refine the specification of the questionnaire. Results from the pilot study are not included in the analysis.
Based on the result of the pilot study, each participant in the main study was assigned two of the selected 12 search task backstories with the expectation that their overall session would last around one hour. Pairs of backstories for each session were selected using a Latin square procedure. After every six tasks the sequence of allocation of the interface was rotated to avoid any type of sequence effect (Bradley, 1958).

Each condition was repeated 4 times with the expectation that this would give sufficient results to be able to observe significant differences where these are present. Since there were 12 tasks, this required 24 subjects to participate in the study. In total, 27 subjects (9 Females, 18 Males) in the age group of 18-35 participated in our study (excluding the pilot study), we examined the data of 25 subject, since 2 subjects were found not to have followed the instructions correctly. The study was conducted in two phases. Each user had to perform a different search task using the CSI and MCSI with the sequencing of their use of the interfaces varied to avoid learning or biasing effects.

As well as completing the questionnaires, the subjects also attended a semi-structured interview after completion of their session of two tasks using both interface conditions. The user actions in the videos and interviews were thematically labelled by two independent analysts and Kappa coefficients were calculated (approx mean .85) (Landis and Koch, 1977). Disparities in labels were resolved by mutual agreement between the analysts. The interview questionnaire dealt with user search experience, software usability and cognitive dimensions, and was quantitatively analyzed. Based on the interview analysis, out of 25 participants 92% were happy and satisfied with the MCSI. In all conditions, subjects preferred the MCSI. Showing that there is no sequence effect arising from the order of the interfaces in the search sessions.

Each hypothesis of the study was tested using a T-Test (since the number of samples was less than 31). Each hypothesis was evaluated on a number of factors which contribute to the examination in each dimension as discussed below.

### 4 STUDY RESULTS

The MCSI was compared with the conventional interface using an implicit evaluation method examining multiple dimensions: cognitive load, knowledge gain, usability and search satisfactions.

#### 4.1 Cognitive Dimensions

Conventional search can impose a significant cognitive load on the searcher (Kaushik, 2019). An important factor in the evaluation of conversational systems is measurement of the cognitive load experienced by users. To measure user workload, the NASA Ames Research Centre proposed the NASA Task Load Index (Hart and Staveland, 1988; Kaushik and Jones, 2021). In terms of cognitive load, the user was asked to evaluate the conventional interface and MCSI in 6 dimensions from the NASA Task Load Index associated with mental load and physical load, as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Change</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hurried or Rushed</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>5.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally Demanding</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically Demanding</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically Tiring</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How stressed were you?</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How tired were you?</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How hard did you have to work to accomplish?</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful Accomplishing</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much do you feel you have learned?</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much do you feel you have accomplished?</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 3: Summary Comparison Metric (Wilson and Wilson, 2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dqual</td>
<td>Comparison of the quality of facts in the summary in range 0-3 where 0 represents irrelevant facts and 3 specific details with relevant facts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dintrp</td>
<td>Measures the association of facts in a summary in the range 0-2 where 0 represents no association of the facts and 2 that all facts in a summary are associated with each other in a meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dcrit</td>
<td>Examines the quality of critiques of topic written by the author in the range 0-1 where 0 represents facts are listed without thought or analysis of their value and 1 where both advantages and disadvantages of the facts are given.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task Load index. Although four factors were not significantly different, the mean difference between both the systems on these factors was more than 10%. This shows that the user experienced less subjective mental workload while using the MCSI.

### 4.2 Usability

CS studies generally do not explore the dimensions of software usability. However, it is important to understand the challenges and opportunities of CSs on the basis of software requirements analysis. This allows a system to be evaluated based on real-life deployment and to identify areas for improvement. Lower effectiveness and efficiency of a software system can increase cognitive load, reduce engagement and act as a barrier in the process of learning while searching (Kaushik and Jones, 2018; Vakkari, 2016; Kaushik, 2019). Usability is an important evaluation metric of interactive software. IBM Computer Usability Satisfaction Questionnaires are a Psychometric Evaluation for software from the perspective of the user (Lewis, 1995) known as the Post-Study System Usability Questionnaire (PSSUQ) Administration and Scoring. The PSSUQ was evaluated using four dimensions: overall satisfaction score (OVERALL), system usefulness (SYSUSE), information quality (INFOQUAL) and interface quality (INTERQUAL), which include fifteen parameters. On each dimension, the MCSI outperformed the CSI. The grading scale lies between 0 (low) - 7 (High). We compared the mean difference of both systems on all parameters. In all aspects, subjects experienced less task load when using the MCSI, as shown in Table 2.

### 4.3 Knowledge Expansion

Satisfaction of the user’s information need is directly related to their knowledge gain about the search topic. Knowledge gain can be measured based on recall of new facts gained after the completion of the search process (Wilson and Wilson, 2013). We investigated knowledge expansion using a comparison of pre-search and post-search summaries written by the participant, based on a number of parameters, as shown in Table 3, while using both the systems. We divide the hypothesis into two sub-parts as follows:

1. **H0**: User Psychometric Evaluation for the conversational interface and conventional search has no significant difference: A T Independent test was conducted. It was found that for all the parameters the MCSI outperformed the CSI. The null hypothesis was rejected and the H1 hypothesis was accepted, which is that the MCSI performs better than the CSI.

2. **Comparison of Pre-search and Post-search summaries**: This is to verify the knowledge expansion after each task independent of the search interface used by the participant.

3. **Comparison of the mean difference between pre-search and post-search summaries for each interface**: This is to verify which interface supported users better in gaining knowledge.

The user gains knowledge during the search when using either of the search interfaces. To measure their knowledge gain, we asked subjects to write a short summary of the topic before the search and after the search. Each summary was analyzed based on three
criteria as described in (Wilson and Wilson, 2013): Quality of Facts (DQual), Interpretations (DInterpretation) and Critiques (DCritique), as shown in Table 3. The summaries were scored against these three factors by two independent analysts with the Kappa coefficient (Approx .85) (Landis and Koch, 1977). We conducted hypothesis T dependent testing on tasks completed using both the conventional search interface and the MCSI.

1. H0: No significant difference in the increase of the knowledge after completing the search task in both settings: As shown in Tables 4 and 5, the pre-search score and post-search score for all three factors were statistically significant in both the search settings. This implies that subjects expand their knowledge while carrying out the search. This rejects the null hypothesis which leads to the alternative hypothesis which concludes that users experienced significant increase in their knowledge after search in both search settings.

After concluding the alternative hypothesis, it was important to investigate whether one system was better in expanding the user’s knowledge. We purposed and tested the following hypothesis.

1. H0: Knowledge gain during the search is independent of the interface design: In this test, we compared the Mean of the difference in the score for pre-search and post-search summaries in both settings. conducted on the change of the three parameter scores as discussed above for the hypothesis testing as shown in the Table 6. It was found that in the MCSI interface setting, the subjects scored higher in the change of critique, quality and interpretation. This implies that the subjects learned more while using the MCSI. The difference in critique score was statistically significant, while the other two parameters were not statistically significant. The quality and interpretation increased more than 20% while using the MCSI. This confirms the alternative hypothesis, subjects’ knowledge expands more when using the MCSI.

### 4.4 Search Experience

Learning while searching is an integral part of the information seeking process. Based on the search as learning proposed by Vakkari (Vakkari, 2016), the user search experience can be evaluated on 15 parameters, including the relevance of the search result, the quality of the text presented by the interface, and understanding of the topic in both the search settings via pre-search and post-search questionnaires.

### Table 7: Characteristics of the search process (Vakkari, 2016) by the change in knowledge structure where * indicates statistically significant results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>CSI Mean</th>
<th>MCSI Mean</th>
<th>Percentage Change</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in finding the information needed to address this task?</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>-35.25</td>
<td>0.002168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of text presented with respect to your information need and query?</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>21.55</td>
<td>0.010465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How useful were the search results in the whole search task?</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>23.08</td>
<td>0.029826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How useful was the text shown in the whole search task in satisfying the information need?</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>27.62</td>
<td>0.010245</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Interactive User Experience

To ensure a conversational search system provides reasonable User Experience (UX), it is critical to have a measurability which defines user insights about the system. A UX questionnaire for interactive products is the User Experience Questionnaire (UEQ-S) (Laugwitz et al., 2008; Schrepp et al., 2017; Hinderks et al., 2018). This questionnaire also enables analysis and interpret outcomes by comparing with benchmarks of a larger dataset of outcomes for other in-
Table 8: UEQ-S score based on CSI and MCSI where ‘P’ stands for Pragmatic Quality and ‘H’ stands for Hedonic Quality (statistically significant).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative/Positive</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>CSI Mean</th>
<th>MCSI Mean</th>
<th>P Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>obstructive</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>2.96e-08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complicated</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>7.84e-09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inefficient</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>1.69e-05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confusing</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>2.31e-06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boring</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>8.86e-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not interesting</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>9.76e-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conventional</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>1.73e-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>usual</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>8.95e-12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interactive products (Hinderks et al., 2018). This questionnaire also provides the opportunity to compare interactive products with each other. For specified purposes, a brief version (UEQ-S) was prepared which had only 8 parameters to be considered (Hinderks et al., 2018). UEQ-S was preferred for the MCSI, since it is mostly used for interactive products. For example, users filled the experience questionnaire after finishing the search task, if there were too many questions, a user may not complete the answers fully or even refuse to complete it (as they have finished the search task and are in the process of leaving or starting the next task, so the motivation to invest more time on feedback may be limited). The UEQ-S contains two meta dimensions Pragmatic and Hedonic quality. Each dimension contains 4 different parameters, as shown in Table 8. Pragmatic quality explores the usage experience of the search system, while Hedonic quality explores the pleasantness of use of the system.

1. **HO: Users feel a similar interactive experience when using the different interfaces:** Users evaluated the system based on 8 parameters as shown in Table 8. The grading scale was assigned between 0 (low) - 7 (High). We compared the mean difference of both systems on all parameters. In all aspects, subjects experience was positive in Pragmatic quality and Hedonic quality when using the MCSI, and statistically significantly different in comparison to the CSI. Subjects felt obstructive, complicated, confusing, inefficient, and boring, while using the CSI with significant difference (P<0.10). This implies that the null hypothesis was rejected on the basis of the user experience.

Based on these findings, we can conclude that the user experience was more pleasant and easy while using the MCSI.

### 4.6 Analysis of Study Results

In summary, hypothesis testing showed that the MCSI reduced cognitive load, increased knowledge expansion, increased cognitive engagement and provided a better search experience load. Based on the results of the study, a number of research questions dealing with factors relating to conversational search, the challenges of conventional search, and user search behaviour can be addressed.

#### 4.6.1 RQ1: What Are the Factors that Support Search Using the MCSI

Around 92% of the subjects claimed that the MCSI provided a more pleasant and easy experience compared to the CSI. Around 48% found that the MCSI allowed them to more easily access the information. A similar view was found in terms of information relevance and its structure as presented to the user. Around 38% of subjects were satisfied with the options and suggestions provided by the MCSI.

The other reasons for their satisfaction were the highlighting of segments in long documents, finding the search system effective, its being interactive and engaging, and user friendly.

#### 4.6.2 RQ2: What Are the Challenges with the Conventional Search System?

Subjects found some major challenges in completing the search tasks with the CSI. The limitations were mainly based on observations from user interactions and feedback after the search task. The limitations can be divided into five broad categories.

**Exploration:** Around 60% of the subjects claimed that they found it difficult to explore the content with the CSI, which meant that they were unable to learn through the search process. It was noted that they needed to expend much effort to go through whole documents, which discouraged them from exploring further to satisfy their information need. Another reason was that too much information was displayed to them on the page which confused them during the process of information seeking.

**Cognitive Load:** Around 28% of subjects experienced issues with cognitive load using the CSI. In current search systems, a query to the search engine returns the best document in a single shot. The user may need to perform multiple searches by modifying the search query each time to satisfy their information need. There are multiple limitations associated with this single query search approach which put high cognitive load on the user. The following points highlight the limitations and weaknesses of single-shot search (Kaushik, 2019).

1. The user must completely describe their information need in a single query.
2. The user may not be able to adequately describe their information need.
3. High cognitive load on the user in forming a query.
4. An information retrieval system should return relevant content in a single pass based on the query.
5. The user must inspect returned content to identify relevant information.

Interaction and Engagement: 8% found difficulty in engaging and interactive with long documents. Subjects can find content in long documents irrelevant or vague with respect to their specific information need. Using the CSI, 32% of the subjects did not find the long documents precise enough to satisfy their information need. In contrast, 90% of them were satisfied with the way information was presented to them in the MCSI, although the Wikipedia API and underlying retrieval method was same for both interfaces.

Highlighting: Another issue which was referred to by around 8% of subjects related to text highlighting. Subjects found that the absence of highlighting in the CSI was frustrating.

4.6.3 RQ3: Does Highlighting Important Segments Support Users in Effective and Efficient Search?, and Why?

92% of subjects liked the document highlighting options in the MCSI. The following reasons were identified for choosing this:
1. Interactive and Engaging: Around 28% of subjects claimed that they were able to engage and interact with documents better by using the highlighting options.
2. Helpful: 68% of the subjects found highlighted documents helpful in information seeking.
3. Reduce the Cognitive Load: Around 24% of the subjects believed that the highlighted documents reduced their cognitive load.
4. Access to Relevant information: 36% of the subjects believed that highlighted documents helped them to more easily access useful information.

4.6.4 RQ4: What Are the Challenges and Opportunities to Support Exploratory Search in Conversational Settings?

The majority of subjects (92%) claimed that the MCSI was better. The remaining subjects (8%) faced some challenges using it. Subjects wanted more sections and subsections in the documents to support their exploration, and also wanted support of image search. Around 4% of the subjects felt the need for improvement in operational speed and better incorporation of standard features such as spellchecking. Subjects found the chat interface helpful for exploring long documents. They were keen to see the addition of speech as a mode of user interaction and a more refined algorithm for the selection of images for presentation to the user.

Subjects appreciated the usefulness of the interface in supporting exploratory search, but suggested that this would be further improved by the incorporation of a question answering facility.

4.6.5 RQ5: How Does User Experience Vary Between Search Settings in Comparison to Each Other?

1. Observing the Pragmatic and Hedonic Properties of CSI: The users provided feedback based on their experience using the CSI. The CSI score is negative with respect to both Pragmatic and Hedonic properties and the overall score is also negative. From this we can infer that the user’s experience of the CSI system is neither effective nor efficient, as shown in the Table 9. From Table 9, we can calculate the mean range after data transformation for UEQ-S where is -3 too negative and +3 is too positive. Table 9 shows the confidence interval and confidence level. The smaller the confidence interval the higher the precision (Schrepp, 2018). The confidence interval and confidence level confirm our analysis that all the dimensions of Pragmatic and Hedonic properties were negatively experienced by the users. Generally, items belonging to the same scale should be highly correlated. To verify the user consistency, alpha-coefficient correlation was calculated using the UEQ-S toolkit. As per different studies, an alpha value > 0.7 is considered sufficiently consistent (Hinderks et al., 2018). This shows that user marking of the CSI is consistent. The UEQ-S tool kit also provides an option to detect random and non-serious answers by the users (Schrepp, 2018) (Hinderks et al., 2018). This is carried out by checking how much the best and worst evaluation of an item in a scale differ. Based on this evaluation, the users’ feedback does not show any suspicious data.

2. Observing the Pragmatic and Hedonic Properties of MCSI: The MCSI scored positive in Pragmatic, Hedonic and Overall score from which we can infer that the user’s experience of the MCSI is good in general and with good ease of use. Table 10 shows the confidence interval and confidence level. The confidence interval and confidence
Table 9: CSI confidence intervals on UEQ-S where, ‘P’ stands for Pragmatic Quality, ‘H’ stands for Hedonic Quality and ‘C’ stands for Confidence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean (-3 to 3)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>C Interval</th>
<th>Alpha value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>-0.720</td>
<td>1.349</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-1.249</td>
<td>-0.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>-1.640</td>
<td>1.233</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-2.213</td>
<td>-1.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>-1.180</td>
<td>1.207</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-1.653</td>
<td>-0.707</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: MCSI confidence intervals on UEQ-S, where ‘P’ stands for Pragmatic Quality, ‘H’ stands for Hedonic Quality and ‘C’ stands for Confidence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean (-3 to 3)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>C Interval</th>
<th>Alpha value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>1.310</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.076</td>
<td>1.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>1.600</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>1.381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>1.455</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>1.252</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

level confirms our analysis that all the dimensions of pragmatic and hedonic scores were positively experienced by the users. Alpha-coefficient correlation (Hinderks et al., 2018) confirms that the marking of MCSI by the users is consistent. The UEQ-S toolkit also provides an option to detect random and non-serious answers by users. This is conducted by checking how much the best and worst evaluation of an item in a scale differ. Based on this evaluation, the users’ feedback does not detect any suspicious data.

4.6.6 RQ6: How Does User Experience Vary for both Search Settings in Comparison to a Standard Benchmark?

1. Comparison of the CSI with the Standard Benchmark: This benchmark was developed based users on feedback on 21 interactive products (Hinderks et al., 2018). Based on the comparison from the benchmark, the CSI UX is far below the mean of the interactive products (Pragmatic Quality < 0.4, Hedonic Quality < 0.37 and overall < 0.38). This signifies that the UX with the CSI needs major improvement on Pragmatic and Hedonic sectors. In the comparison to the benchmark, the CSI rates as a low quality of user experience and lies in the range of worst 25% of the products.

2. Comparison of the MCSI with the Standard Benchmark: Based on the comparison from the benchmark (Hinderks et al., 2018), the MCSI UX is far above the mean of the interactive products (Pragmatic Quality > 0.4, Hedonic Quality > 0.37 and overall > 0.38). This signifies the UX of the MCSI compared to other interactive products (benchmark) is very high and is of excellent level, and lies in the range of 10% best results.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND OBSERVATIONS

The study reported in this paper indicates that subjects found our MCSI more helpful than a closely matched CSI. We also observed types of user behaviour while using MCSI which are different to those when using a CSI. Using our agent-based system, we observe the natural expectations of user search in conversational settings. We observed that subjects do not encounter any difficulty in using the new interface, because it seems to be similar to the standard search interface with the additional capabilities of conversation. We also observe that the information space and its structure is a key component in information seeking. Subjects found highlighting important segments in long documents enables them to access information much easily. The MCSI made the search process less cognitively demanding and more cognitively engaging.

Clearly our existing rule-based search agent can be extended in terms of functionality, and going forward we aim to examine basing its functionality on machine learning based methods, but this will require access to sufficient suitable training data, which is not available at this prototype stage.

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REFERENCES


