

Understanding User Satisfaction with Intelligent Assistants

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ABSTRACT

Voice-controlled intelligent personal assistants, such as Cortana, Google Now, Siri and Alexa, are increasingly becoming a part of users' daily lives, especially on mobile devices. They allow for a radical change in information access, not only in voice control and touch gestures but also in longer sessions and dialogues preserving context, necessitating to evaluate their effectiveness at the task or session level. However, in order to understand which type of user interactions reflect different degrees of user satisfaction we need explicit judgements. In this paper, we describe a user study that was designed to measure user satisfaction over a range of typical scenario's of use: controlling a device, web search, and structured search dialog. Using this data, we study how user satisfaction varied with different usage scenarios and what signals can be used for modeling satisfaction in different scenarios. We find that the notion of satisfaction varies across different scenarios and show that, in some scenarios (e.g. making a phone call), task completion is very important while for others (e.g. planning a night out), the amount of effort spent is key. We also study how the nature and complexity of the task at hand affect user satisfaction, and found that preserving the conversation context is essential and that overall task-level satisfaction cannot be reduced to query-level satisfaction alone. Finally, we shed light on the relative effectiveness and usefulness of voice-controlled intelligent agents, explaining their increasing popularity and uptake relative to the traditional query-response interaction.

H.5.2 [Information Interfaces and Presentation]: User Interfaces— *evaluation/methodology, interaction styles, voice I/O*

Keywords: intelligent assistant, user satisfaction, user study, user experience, mobile search, spoken dialog system

1. INTRODUCTION

Spoken dialogue systems [35] have been around for a while. However, it has only been in recent years that voice controlled intelligent assistants, such as Microsoft's Cortana, Google Now, Apple's Siri, Amazon's Alexa, Facebook's M, etc, have become a daily used feature on mobile devices. A recent study [12], ex-

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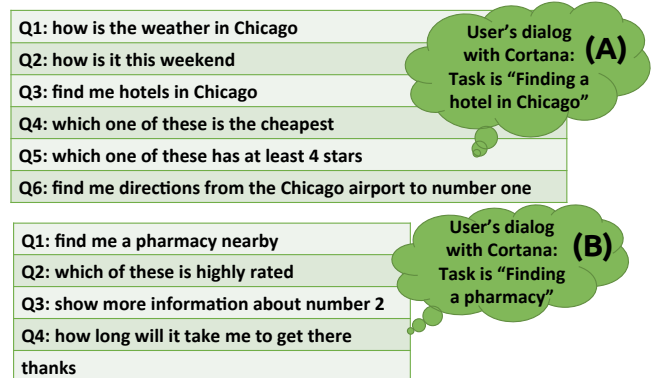


Figure 1: Two real examples of users' dialogs with an intelligent assistant: In the dialog (A), a user performs a 'complex' task of planning his weekend in Chicago. In the dialog (B), a user searches for a closest pharmacy.

cuted by Northstar Research and commissioned by Google, found out that 55% of the U.S. teens use voice search every day and that 89% of teens and 85% of adults agree that voice search is going to be 'very common' in the future. One of the reasons for the increased adoption is the current quality of speech recognition due to massive online processing [36], but perhaps more important is the added value users perceive: the spoken dialog mode of interaction is a more natural way for people to communicate and is often faster than typing.

Intelligent assistants allow for radically new ways of information access, very different from traditional web search. Figure 1 shows two examples of dialogs with intelligent assistants sampled from the interaction logs. They are related to two tasks: (A): searching things to do on a weekend in Chicago, and (B): searching for the closest pharmacy. Users express their information needs in spoken form to an intelligent assistant. The user behavior is different compared to standard web search because in this scenario an intelligent assistant is expected to maintain the context throughout the conversation. For instance, our user anticipates intelligent assistants to understand that their interaction is about 'Chicago' in the transitions: $Q_1 \rightarrow Q_2, Q_3 \rightarrow Q_4$ in Figure 1(A). These structured search dialogs are more complicated than standard web search, resembling complex, context-rich, task-based search [43]. Users expect their intelligent assistants to understand their intent and to keep the context of the dialog—some users even *thank* their intelligent assistant for its service, as in example in Figure 1(B).

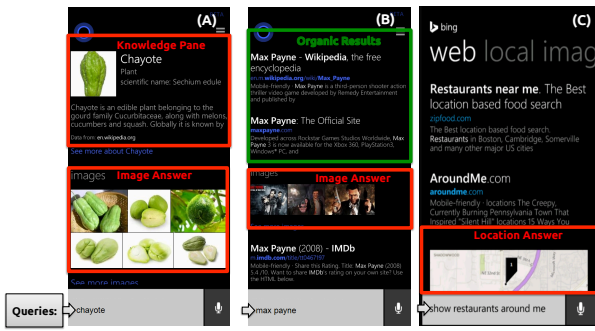


Figure 2: An example of mobile SERPs that might lead to ‘good abandonment’.

Users communicate with intelligent assistants through voice commands for different scenarios of use, ranging from controlling their device—for example to make a phone call, or to manage their calendar—to complex dialogs as shown in Figure 1. These interactions between users and intelligent assistants are more complicated than web search because they involve:

- automatic speech recognition (ASR): users communicate mostly through voice commands and it has been shown that errors in speech recognition negatively influence user satisfaction [23];
- understanding user intent: an intelligent assistant needs to understand user intent in order to select a right scenario of actions, and provide exact answers whenever possible;
- dialog-based interaction: users expect an intelligent assistant to maintain the context of the dialog;
- complex information needs: users express more sophisticated information needs while interacting with intelligent assistants.

This prompts the need to better understand success and failure of intelligent assistant usage. When are users (dis)satisfied? How can we evaluate intelligent assistants in ways that reflect perceived user satisfaction well? Can we resort to traditional methods of offline and online evaluation or do we need to take other factors into account?

Evaluation is a central component of many web search applications because it helps to understand which direction to take in order to improve a system. The common practice is to create a ‘gold’ standard (set of ‘correct’ answers) judged by editorial judges [21]. In case of intelligent assistants, there may be no general ‘correct’ answer since the answers are highly personalized and contextualized (user location, previous user history) to fit user information needs. Another way to evaluate web search performance is implicit relevance feedback such as clicks and dwell time [3, 11, 16, 26, 27]. However, we know that user satisfaction for mobile web search is already very different [33].

In the examples in Figure 2, different types of answers are shown for queries such as ‘Location Answer’, ‘Image Answer’ or ‘Knowledge Pane Answer’. Users can find required information directly on the SERP and they do not need to perform any further interactions (e.g. clicks). So we cannot assume that users who do not interact with the SERP are dissatisfied. This problem of ‘good’ abandonment received a lot of interest in recent years [6–8, 34]. An example of a users’ dialog about ‘weather’ is shown in Figure 3. All information about the weather is already shown to the users and they



Figure 3: An example of a ‘simple’ task with a structured search dialog.

do not need to click. In case of structured dialog search, the lack of standard implicit feedback signals emerges even more because users talk to their phones instead of making clicks. One example of this is the transition $Q_2 \rightarrow Q_3$ in Figure 1(B).

In light of the current work, this paper aims to answer the following main research question:

What determines user satisfaction with intelligent assistants?

We breakdown our general research problem into five specific research questions. Our first research question is:

RQ 1: *What are characteristic types of scenarios of use?*

Based on analysis of the logs of a commercial intelligent assistant; on the way different types of requests are handled by the back-end systems; and on previous work [25], we propose three types of scenarios of intelligent assistant use: (1) controlling the device; (2) searching the web; and (3) perform a complex task (or ‘mission’) in dialogue style. We characterize key aspects of user satisfaction for each of these scenarios.

Our second research question is:

RQ 2: *How can we measure different aspects of user satisfaction?*

We set up user studies with realistic tasks derived from the log analysis, following the three scenarios of use, and measuring a wide range of aspects of user satisfaction relevant to each specific scenario.

Our third research question is:

RQ 3: *What are key factors determining user satisfaction for the different scenarios?*

In order to understand what the key components of user satisfaction are, we analyze output of our user studies for different intelligent assistants scenarios. We aim at understanding what factors influence user satisfaction the most: speech recognition quality, complexity of the task, or the amount of effort users spend to complete tasks.

Our fourth research question is:

RQ 4: *How to characterize ‘abandonment’ in the web search scenario?*

‘Good abandonment’ makes it difficult to measure user satisfaction with web search scenario using conventional implicit feedback behavioral signals. We analyze the collected data for the web search

interactions, and characterize user satisfaction in general, and over the number of issued queries, and types of answers found.

Our fifth research question is:

RQ 5: *How does query-level satisfaction relate to overall user satisfaction for the structured search dialog scenario?*

The structured search dialog scenario introduces a new way of user interactions with intelligent assistants and has not received a lot of attention in the literature. We analyze the data for the search dialog interactions, and look at satisfaction over tasks with increasing complexity, and how sub-task level satisfaction relates to overall task satisfaction.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes earlier work and background. Then, Section 3 introduces scenarios of user interaction with intelligent assistants, discusses differences and similarities in user behavior. Followed by Section 4 zooming in different types of user studies developed to evaluate user satisfaction for intelligent assistants different scenarios. Finally, Section 5 reports our results and findings. We summarize our findings, discuss possible extensions of the current work in Section 6.

2. RELATED WORK

In this section, we will discuss related work relevant to the research described in this paper, covering three broad strands of research. First, methods for evaluating user satisfaction in web search systems are presented in Section 2.1. Research on spoken dialogue systems is discussed in Section 2.2. Finally, we focus on user studies for the evaluation of intelligent assistants in Section 2.3.

2.1 Evaluating User Satisfaction

User behavioural signals have been extensively studied and used for the evaluation of web search systems [1, 2, 14–16, 24, 30, 45]. Historically, the key objective of information retrieval systems is to retrieve relevant information (typically documents) or references to documents containing required information [37, 38]. Given this query-document relevance score, many metrics have been defined: MAP, NDCG, DCG, MRR, P@n, TBG, etc. [21]. For such setup we have a collection of documents and queries that are annotated by human judges. It is a common setup used at TREC¹. In this case we evaluate system performance at the *query-level* for the pair $\langle Q, SERP \rangle$. Building such data collections needed for this type of evaluation is both expensive and time consuming. There is a risk that such collections may be noisy, given that third-party annotators have limited knowledge of an individual user intent.

User satisfaction is widely adopted as a subjective measure of search experience. Kelly [28] proposes a definition: ‘*satisfaction can be understood as the fulfillment of a specified desire or goal*’. Furthermore, recently researchers studied different metrics reflective of user satisfaction such as efforts [48] and it has been shown that user satisfaction at the query-level can change over time [31, 32] due to some external influence. These changes lead to the necessity of updating the data collection. Unfortunately, *query-level* satisfaction metrics ignore the information about users’ ‘*journey*’ from a question to an answer which might take more than one query [22]. Al-Maskari et al. [4] claim that *query-level* satisfaction is not applicable for informational queries. Users can run follow-up queries if they are unsatisfied with the returned results. Reformulations can lead users to an answer. This scenario is called *task-level* user satisfaction [9, 16]. Previous research proposed different

methods for identifying successful sessions. Hassan et al. [16] used a Markov model to predict success at the end of the task. Ageev et al. [1] exploited an expertise-dependent difference in search behavior by using a Conditional Random Fields model to predict a search success. Authors used a game-like strategy for collecting annotated data by asking participants to find answers to non-trivial questions using web search. On the other hand, situations when users are frustrated have also been studied. Feild et al. [10] proposed a method for understanding user frustration. Hassan et al. [17] and Hassan Awadallah et al. [18] have found that high similarity of queries is an indicator of an unsuccessful task. All described methods focus on analyzing user behavior when users interact with traditional search systems.

2.2 Spoken Dialog Systems

The main difference between traditional web search and intelligent assistants is their conversational nature of interaction with users. In the considered scenarios of intelligent assistants use, the technology can refer to the previous users’ requests in order to understand the context of a conversation. For instance, in the dialog (A) in Figure 1, the user asks for Q_2 and assumes that the intelligent assistant ‘keep in mind’ that he is interested in Chicago. Therefore, the spoken dialog systems [35] are closely related to intelligent assistants because the spoken dialog systems understand and respond to the voice commands in a dialog form. This area has been studied extensively over the past two decades [40–42]. Most of these studies focused on systems that have not been deployed in a large scale and hence did not have the necessary means to study how users interact with these systems in real-world scenarios. However, intelligent assistants are different from traditional spoken dialog systems because they also support interactions, understand user intent (and redirect to the right scenario). Furthermore, intelligent assistants display an answer which users can interact with and they are not purely based on speech—users can type in responses as well. From these perspectives, intelligent assistants are similar to multi-modal conversational systems [19, 44].

2.3 User Studies of Intelligent Assistants

In recent years voice-controlled personal assistants have become available to the general public. There are few studies researching intelligent assistants, and there is only one earlier paper that organizes a user study [25]. Jiang et al. [25] focus on simulated tasks for device control, as well as chat and web search, and identify satisfactory and unsatisfactory sessions based on features used in predicting satisfaction on the web, as well as acoustic features of the spoken request. Our work extends this study focusing on a wider range of scenarios of intelligent assistant use, including complex dialogs, and analyzing crucial aspects determining user satisfaction under these different conditions.

More broadly, intelligent assistants are often used for longer sessions and tasks that involve sub-tasks and complex interactions, and task complexity has been studied in many user studies. Wildemuth et al. [46] reviewed over a hundred interactive information retrieval studies in terms of task complexity and difficulty, and found that the number of sub-tasks, the number of facets, and the indeterminably were the main dimensions of task complexity. The structured search tasks we use in our study score high on these dimensions. Recently, Kelly [29] linked perceived task complexity with effort, suggesting that user satisfaction may depend on the amount of effort to complete a complex task. We also look specifically at the role of effort relative to task level user satisfaction.

To summarize, the key distinctions of our work compared to previous efforts are: we studied how users interact with intelligent

¹Text REtrieval Conference: <http://trec.nist.gov/>

assistants; we studied how we can use these interactions to understand ‘good abandonment’. We explored three main scenarios of user interactions with intelligent assistants and a definition of user satisfaction for these scenarios.

3. USER INTERACTION WITH INTELLIGENT ASSISTANTS

This section reports our study findings pertaining to the **RQ 1**: *What are characteristic types of scenarios of use?* In order to answer our research question we used the Microsoft intelligent assistant—Cortana. Historically, the scenario of controlling devices through voice commands was implemented first. It is described in details in Section 3.1. From user satisfaction perspectives, the main difference of this scenario compared to the information seeking tasks is that the ‘right answer’ is clear. In order to satisfy users Cortana needs to recognize requests correctly and to give access to the correct functionality. In contrast, for information seeking tasks [20, 47] users have different behaviour. In Cortana, the general search scenario returns a variant of the Bing Mobile SERP and may include answers, tiles from the knowledge pane and organic search results as presented in Figure 2. We discuss this scenario in Section 3.2. Another way of user interaction with information systems that some intelligent assistants support is—structured search dialog (Figure 1). In this case, intelligent assistants are able to maintain the context of a conversation as the system engages with the user in a dialog. It is definitely more complex (for the system) but at the same time a more natural (for the users) way of ‘communication’ between users and information systems. This scenario is presented in Section 3.3.

3.1 Controlling a Device

The first scenario of using intelligent assistants that we study is to directly access on-device functions, e.g., call a contact, check calendar, access an app, etc. This scenario is useful because ordinarily it usually takes several actions to complete an operation on existing smartphones. For example, in order to make a phone call, one needs to first access a contact book on the phone and then look for a correct person. The ordinary process is time consuming, especially when the user is not familiar with the device. Instead, one can directly talk to the intelligent assistant to solve the problem, e.g., ‘call Sam’. As long as the intelligent assistant can correctly recognize the users’ words and task context, this largely reduces users’ effort.

Our user study includes the following types of on-device tasks that are popular in Cortana’s usage logs:

- Call a person;
- Send a text message;
- Check on-device calendar;
- Open an application;
- Turn on/off wi-fi;
- Play music.

We group these tasks into one category because they share the similarity that users try access these on-device functions through the intelligent assistants. These functions are normally not provided by the intelligent assistants, but offered by the device hosting it. In these tasks, intelligent assistants serve as a quick and efficient interface for accessing on-device functions.

3.2 Performing Mobile Web Search

Another popular usage scenario for intelligent assistants is the general web search scenario. For this scenario, input can be either speech or text and there is no need for the system to be state aware since it does not provide a multi-turn experience. During web search on mobile devices it is not always clear what users want. Therefore, the search result page (SERP) is very diverse and may include different types of answers such as:

- ‘Answer Box’. A box such as the knowledge pane in Figure 2(A) or direction to a locations Figure 2(C). These answer boxes fire for specific query intents.
- ‘Image’. In this case, just seeing an image may have satisfied a user’s information need. The examples are presented in Figure 2(A,B).
- ‘Snippet’. The user’s information need is satisfied by a snippet of text appearing below an organic search result (e.g. Figure 2 (B)).

These different elements on a SERP can all lead to user satisfaction. For instance, the knowledge pane might contain the answer that the user is looking for or a user may be satisfied by the text in a snippet.

Since the SERP is able to directly satisfy the user’s information needs in some cases, it leads to the absence of one of the most studied user interaction signals (i.e. clicks on the SERP). Previous work on general web search has shown that presenting these types of answers affects user behavior [33] and leads to ‘good abandonment’ [7, 34] cases where the user seems to have abandoned the results but they were actually satisfied without the need to engage with the SERP using clicks.

3.3 Structured Search Dialog

In the structured search dialog scenarios, the users are engaged in a conversation with the system using voice as we show in Figure 1. Cortana returns a structured answer that is distinguishably different from the usual SERP (Figure 2). The key component of this scenario is the ability of the intelligent assistant to maintain the context of the conversation. Examples of tasks where this scenario is activated include places (e.g. restaurants, hotels, travel, etc.) and weather. There are two types of tasks that fall under this scenario: ‘simple’ and ‘mission’ tasks. We discuss ‘simple’ tasks in Section 3.3.1 and ‘mission’ tasks in Section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Simple Tasks

‘Simple’ tasks have one underlying atomic information need and mostly consist of one query and one answer. An example of a ‘simple’ task is the Weather-related task shown in Figure 3. ‘Simple’ tasks can be very similar to web search scenarios. We expect that they can be evaluated using a paradigm of *query-level* satisfaction because ‘simple’ task usually consists of one query and one answer.

3.3.2 Mission Tasks

‘Mission’ tasks consist of multiple interactions with Cortana that lead towards one final goal (e.g. ‘find a place for vacation’). The final task can be divided into sub-tasks. Obviously, the complexity of ‘missions’ conditions on necessity to understand the context of the conversation.

The example of a places-related ‘mission’ dialog is presented in Figure 4. A user make the following transitions:

- (1) ‘asking for a list of the nearest restaurant’ → (2) ‘sorting the derived list to find best restaurants’;



Figure 4: An example of a structured search dialog (mission task).

(Comment for the transition 1 → 2 : Cortana ‘knows’ that a user is working on the same list of restaurants)

- (2) → (3) ‘selecting the restaurant from the list and asking for the directions’;

(Comment for the transition 2 → 3 : Cortana ‘knows’ that a user is working with the sorted list of restaurants)

This type of interaction can be viewed as a sequence of user requests (‘user journey towards a information goal’) where each request is a step towards user satisfaction or frustration. Much of frustration happens when Cortana is not able to keep context and users need to start over their search in order to complete. Going back the example at Figure 1 (B), if Cortana would miss a context for the transition $Q_3 \rightarrow Q_4$ (e.g. due to ASR error) then a user has to start over again his search. Overall user satisfaction goes down dramatically in this case, especially because the mistake happens at the end of the session.

To summarize, in this section, we categorized three distinct scenarios of user interactions with intelligent assistants. Cortana was used as a intelligent assistant example. We discussed difficulties in evaluating user satisfaction in each of these scenarios. For the controlling a device scenario, users’ requests cannot be characterized by information needs. In order to satisfy users’ needs the system requires to recognize their speech correctly and maps a request to the right functionality. The web search and structured search dialog are more complex because a comprehensive information seeking process is involved. The effect of good abandonment makes it difficult to measure user satisfaction. The structured search dialog is a novel way of users’ interactions that support complex tasks which consist of more than one singular objectives. We refer to these complex tasks as ‘mission’ tasks.

4. DESIGNING USER STUDIES

This section addresses **RQ 2: How can we measure different aspects of user satisfaction?** by describing the design of user study to collect user interactions and ratings for different intelligent assistants scenarios. We start by characterizing participants of our study in Section 4.1 followed by the description of environment of the studies in Section 4.2. The general procedure for the study is presented in Section 4.3. Then, we present the detailed tasks and user study procedure for the different scenarios separately: device control in Section 4.4, structured search dialog in Section 4.6, and mobile web search in Section 4.5. While designing the user study tasks we follow two requirements: (1) the simulated tasks should be realistic and as close as possible to real-world tasks ; (2) according

Table 1: Demographics of the user study participants: gender (A), native language (B), and field of education (C)

Gender		Native language		Field of education	
Male	75%	English	55%	Computer science	82%
Female	25%	Other	45%	Electrical engineering	8%
				Mathematics	7%
				Other	2%

to Borlund [5] we construct the simulated tasks so that participants could relate to them and they would provide ‘enough imaginative context.’

4.1 Participants

We recruited 60 participants through emails sent to a mailing list of an IT company located in the United States. All participants were college or graduate students interning at the company or full time employees. They are reimbursed \$10 gift card for participating in an experiment. The average age of participants is 25.53 (± 5.42). The characteristics of participants regarding a gender (A), field of education (B) and a native language (C) are presented in Table 1.

4.2 Environment

Participants performed the tasks on a Windows phone with the latest version of Windows Phone 8.1 and Cortana installed. If the task needed to access some device resources, functions or applications (e.g. maps), they are installed to make sure users would not encounter problems. The experiment was conducted in a quiet room, so as to reduce the disturbance of environment noise. Although the real environment often involves noise and interruption, we eliminate those factors to simplify the experiment.

4.3 General Procedure

The participants were first asked to watch a video introducing the different usage scenarios of Cortana, and after this complete a background questionnaire with demographics and previous experience with using intelligent assistants. Then, they work on one training task and eight formal tasks. We instructed participants that they could stop a task when they had accomplished the goal or if they became frustrated and wanted to give up. Finally, they were asked to answer an extensive questionnaire on their experience and share further details during a short interview.

For each task, we asked participants to listen to an audio recording that verbally described the task objective. We did not show the participants the task description while they were working on the task, because in an earlier pilot study, many participants directly used the sentences shown in task descriptions as requests. We strongly want to avoid such outcome because our goal is simulate real user behavior. After completing the task, participants were directed to the questionnaires. The questions depend on the objectives of the experiment and vary per user study. Participants answered all questions using a standard 5-point Likert scale.

4.4 User Study for Controlling Device

The first user study is to conduct the most basic scenario—controlling a device. We will now describe the used tasks (Section 4.4.1) and the specific procedure for this study (Section 4.4.2).

4.4.1 Tasks

In total we develop nine device control tasks. We rotated the assignment of tasks using a Latin square such that 20 participants worked on each unique task. Some examples of these tasks are:

- Ask Cortana to play a song by Michael Jackson (a song by the artist is downloaded on the device prior to the task).
- You are on your way to a meeting with James, but will be late due to heavy traffic. Send James Smith a text message using Cortana and explain your situation.
- Create a reminder for a meeting with James next Thursday 3pm.
- Ask Cortana to turn off the Wi-Fi on your phone.
- Ask Cortana to open WhatsApp (the name of a popular App, and the App is installed on the device prior to the task).

4.4.2 Procedure

The instructional video about the controlling device scenario is about 2 minutes long. Our informal observation is that the video instructions were effective and felt like a natural extension of the speech interaction of the study, framing the participants better than written instructions. When the participants worked on this user study, they were asked to use mostly voice for interactions. After terminating a task, they answer questions regarding their experience, including:

1. *Were you able to complete the task?*
2. *How satisfied are you with your experience in this task?*
3. *How well did Cortana recognize what you said?*
4. *Did you put a lot of effort to complete the task?*

The total experiment time was about 20 minutes.

4.5 User Study for Web Search

The next use case for the user study is general web search. There has already been significant research involving search on mobile phones [33, 39]; however, ‘good abandonment’ in mobile search has had limited investigation. It is a particularly interesting problem to investigate as queries in mobile search have been described as *quick answer types* and previous research has shown that users formulate mobile queries in such a way so as to increase the likelihood of the query being satisfied directly on the SERP [34]. For this reason, in this user study we choose to focus on tasks that have an increasing likelihood of leading to good abandonment. Section 4.5.1 introduces the used tasks. The specific procedure for this study is presented in Section 4.5.2.

4.5.1 Tasks

The tasks for web search were designed to encourage answer seeking behavior and increase the likelihood of good abandonment. The tasks involved:

- A conversion from the imperial system to the metric system.
- Determining if it was a good time to phone a friend in another part of the world.
- Finding the score of the user’s favourite sports team.
- Finding the user’s favourite celebrity’s hair colour.
- Finding the CEO of a company that lost most of its value within the last 10 years.

After data cleaning, we retained the data from 55 users who completed a total of 274 tasks, 194 of which were labeled as SAT, while the remaining 70 were labeled as DSAT. There were a total of 607 queries for these tasks of which 576 were abandoned, thereby indicating that we were successful in designing tasks that had a higher potential of leading to good abandonment.

4.5.2 Procedure

The user study starts from the the instructional video (about 3 minutes long) that contains an example task for general web search. After completing each task, users were asked:

1. *Were you able to complete the task?*
2. *Where did you find the answer?*
(Suggested Answers: In an answer box, On a website that I visited, In a search result snippet, In an image.)
3. *Which query led to you finding the answer?*
(Suggested Answers: First; Second; Third; Fourth or later)
4. *How satisfied are you with your experience in this task?*
5. *Did you put a lot of effort to complete the task?*

The purpose of the second question was to allow us to better understand where users find information that they are looking for. The option ‘On a Website that I visited’ means a user clicked on a search result and visited a website to find the information that they were looking for.

The purpose of the third question was to allow us to tie a success event within a task to a specific query for future evaluation. We did not ask users about ASR quality because we gave users the option of using text input instead of speech. The reason for doing this is that, since we wanted to study good abandonment, we tried to reduce the level of frustration due to speech recognition errors. However, even though that was the case, we still found that most of the participants used voice input because they found it more convenient. The total experiment time was about 20 minutes.

4.6 User Study for Structured Search Dialog

This Section introduces the design of the user study to explore user satisfaction for the structured search dialog. First, we describe the way we create tasks for our user study and tasks examples in Section 4.6.1. The specific procedure for this study is described in Section 4.6.2.

4.6.1 Tasks

In order to come with the list of tasks for participants, Cortana’s logs (over 400K requests) are analyzed. We look at the terms distribution to get an idea what kind of places users are looking for. Based on our analysis we come up with eight tasks that supposed to cover a large portion of subjects used by Cortana’s users.

Among these eight tasks we have:

- (A) one simple task that is related to the weather where almost all participants are satisfied;
- (B) four ‘mission’ tasks that include two sub-tasks;
- (C) three ‘mission’ tasks that require at least three switches in a subject.

Tasks are given to participants in a free/general form in order to get query diversity and stimulate use satisfaction or frustration with returned results. For instance, let us consider the ‘mission’ task

with 3 sub-tasks: ‘You are planning vacation. Pick a place. Check if the weather is good enough for the period you are planning the vacation. Find a hotel that suits you. Find out driving direction to this place. By giving free form task we stimulate information needs of participants (they need to come up with their own goal and they are more involved into tasks) so this scenario should leave to satisfaction or frustration. For instance, out of 60 responses for the described task we get 46 unique places.

As a result of free task formulation we have obtained diverse query set. The obtained dataset can be characterized by following: in total participants perform 540 tasks that ended up in 2,040 queries, 1,969 unique queries, an average query length is 7.07. The simple task generated 130 queries in total, five (B) type of tasks generate 685 queries in total, and three (C) type generate 1,355 queries.

4.6.2 Procedure

The introduction video for this user study is about 4 minutes long and contains instructions on how to use the structured search dialogs. During this user study, we instruct participants to verbally interact with Cortana. We instruct them to use text input only if Cortana does not understand their requests more than three times. Only after completing a task, they are redirected to questions regarding their experience in this task session. For ‘mission’ type of tasks, users are asked to indicate their satisfaction with the sub-tasks and the task in general. In order to stimulate participants involvement into tasks we ask them to answer clarifying questions. For instance, if the task was about ‘what is the weather tomorrow’ user need to indicate temperature. This way we keep participants concentrated.

Participants answer the following four questions after completing the tasks:

1. Were you able to complete the task?
2. How satisfied are you with your experience in this task in general?
If the task has sub-tasks participants indicate their graded satisfaction e.g. **a.** How satisfied are you with your experience in finding hotel? **b.** How satisfied are you with your experience in finding direction?
3. Did you put a lot of effort to complete the task?
4. How well did Cortana recognize what you said?

The total experiment time was about 30 minutes.

To summarize, we described how we designed user study with the objective of understanding user satisfaction with intelligent assistants different scenarios, measuring relevant variables as speech recognition quality, task completion, and the effort taken. Introductory videos designed for user study is available.² Detailed descriptions of the tasks and the recording on the task can be accessed.³

5. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

This section presents the results and findings from the user studies, investigating our three remaining research questions (RQ3–5). In Section 5.1, we focus on the user satisfaction relative to the different usage scenarios, and in relation to other measures like the speech recognition, task completion and effort taken. In Section 5.2, we analyze the phenomena of ‘good abandonment’ for

²<https://goo.gl/6Gv5Y5>

³<https://goo.gl/0jXu2J>

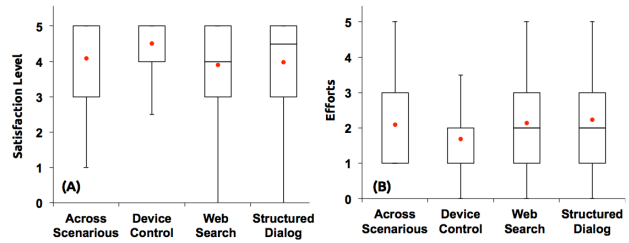


Figure 5: User satisfaction (A) and effort (B) across scenarios and in three discussed scenarios separately. Mean is red dot. Median is horizontal line.

web search in short sessions where answers may be shown without the need for further interaction. In Section 5.3, we focus on structured search dialogs and how session or task level satisfaction relates to subtask level satisfaction for longer sessions.

5.1 Scenarios of Use

We will now investigate **RQ 3: What are key factors determining user satisfaction for the different scenarios?** The scenarios of use differ considerably in terms of complexity, session duration, types of outcome, and more, suggesting that different factors may play a role in determining user satisfaction.

We first discuss the distribution of user satisfaction across all discussed ways of intelligent assistants use, both overall sessions and broken down by scenario—device control, web search on a mobile device, and structured dialog search—which is presented in Figure 5(A). The user satisfaction is very high with means around 4 on a 5-point scale, both over all sessions and for each of the three scenarios. The high level of satisfaction showcases the maturity of the current generation of intelligent assistants, and explains the increasing adoption. As a case in point, many participants had (almost) never used the service, and were impressed by its effectiveness. We can see that user satisfaction with the device controlling tasks (mean of 4.5) is somewhat higher on average than with the information seeking tasks (mean of 3.7), plausibly because the information seeking tasks are open domain and more complex.

We also show the distribution of user efforts across scenarios and separately in Figure 5(B). Here we see relatively low scores for effort overall, consistent with high levels of satisfaction.⁴ When we break down the effort over the scenarios, a similar picture emerges as with user satisfaction: participants spend more effort on search tasks, especially structured search.

We now perform a correlation analysis of user satisfaction and its components. Table 2 presents the correlation of user satisfaction with (1) speech recognition quality (ASR), (2) task completion (participants indicate if they are able to complete the suggested task), and (3) effort spent (participants report the perceived effort to complete the task). We also look at the correlation between effort and completion. An obvious finding is that user satisfaction depends on ASR quality which is consistent with previous research [25]. Hence ASR quality is a key component of user satisfaction. We find a more interesting pattern for task completion: there is a high correlation with satisfaction for device control, but a low correlation for the information seeking scenarios. This suggests that users are able to find required information and complete

⁴To be precise, this is based on the response to the question if a lot of effort was required to complete the task, measured on a Likert scale, where low scores indicate disagreement with the statement, hence that not much effort was required.

Table 2: Correlations of user satisfaction with other measures: ASR quality, Task Completeness, User Efforts. The sign * stands for statistically significant results ($p < 0.05$)

Measures	All	Device	Web	Struct.
		Control	Search	Dialog
SAT vs. ASR	0.57*	0.57	-†	0.56*
SAT vs. Completion	0.18*	0.59*	0.10	0.10*
SAT vs. Effort	-0.75*	-0.64*	-0.65*	-0.80*
ASR vs. Completion	-0.22*	-0.27*	-†	-0.19*
ASR vs. Effort	-0.54*	-0.56*	-†	-0.51*
Completion vs. Effort	-0.11*	-0.39*	-0.08*	-0.05*

† ASR was not calculated for web search as both spoken and typed queries were used.

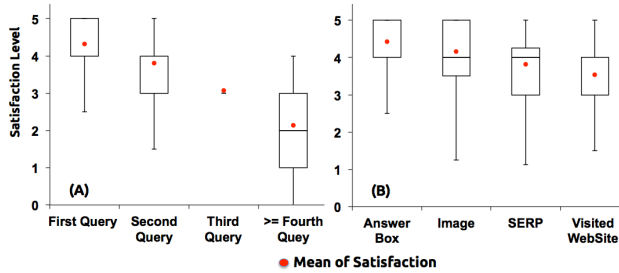


Figure 6: User satisfaction in the web search scenario: satisfaction over the number of queries that users run to find a required answer (A), and over where users find a required answer (B). The mean is represented by the dot and the median is the horizontal line.

their tasks even in cases where their user satisfaction is suboptimal. And the strong negative correlation between satisfaction and effort shows that users spend a considerable amount of effort to complete their task.

This has important methodological consequences: we cannot equate ‘success’ in terms of task completion with user satisfaction for the informational scenarios, and have to incorporate the effort taken as a key component of user satisfaction across the different intelligent assistants scenarios. This finding is in line with recent work on task complexity or difficulty and effort, which postulates that satisfaction is low (high) for tasks that take more (less) effort than expected [29]. In addition, ASR quality is of obvious influence on user satisfaction. However, speech recognition is improving constantly and reached the levels that users can recover from misrecognition within a dialog and still complete their task, at the cost of some extra effort and frustration.

5.2 Good Abandonment for Web Search

We continue with investigating our **RQ 4: How to characterize ‘abandonment’ in the web search scenario?** Whilst intelligent assistants result in highly interactive sessions, many results come as exact answers in speech or on the screen, requiring no further interaction of the user open a web page or read to extract the requested information. Hence many sessions stop without an explicit user action, making it hard to discern good and bad search abandonment from interaction log data.

We analyze the phenomena ‘good abandonment’ from two perspectives: (1) the session length and (2) where users find answers. Figure 6(A) presents the dependency of user satisfaction and how much effort was required to find an answer. Efforts are associ-



Figure 7: A distribution of overall user satisfaction for different types of tasks: ‘simple’ tasks and ‘mission’ tasks with two and three objectives.

ated with the number of queries that participants issued to find required information. Our observations suggest that user satisfaction is higher if users use fewer queries to reach their goal. Figure 6(A) suggests that if users cannot find an answer after their first query their satisfaction goes down dramatically. Longer sessions lead to user frustration, however, task completion levels are high for the web search scenario, indicating that unnecessary effort was spent in completing the task.

Figure 6(B) shows the dependency of user satisfaction on the place where users find the desired answer. Furthermore, users are more satisfied if they can find a required result directly (‘Answer Box’ and ‘Image’) without the need to interact with the SERP such as (1) finding an answer in snippets (‘SERP’); (2) clicking on SERP (‘Visited Website’). Hence cases without further interaction (‘Answer Box’ and ‘Image’) lead to higher levels of satisfaction than those requiring interaction (‘SERP’ and ‘Visited Website’). This has important methodological consequences: we have to be consider cases of ‘good abandonment’ and to measure user satisfaction in this case we need to investigate the other forms of interaction signals that are not based on clicks, such as touch or swipe interaction.

5.3 Analyzing Structured Search Dialogs

We now investigate our **RQ 5: How does query-level satisfaction relate to overall user satisfaction for the structured search dialog scenario?** Structured search dialogs are complex interactions with a longer session and different sub-tasks and changes of focus within the same context. This is very different from traditional search in the query-response paradigm, and session context becomes of crucial importance.

We start our analysis of the collected user interactions with structured search dialogs by introducing the satisfaction distribution for the different types of tasks presented in Figure 7. We see that users are more satisfied with the simple tasks (A), almost all participant give the highest possible rating. The ‘mission’ tasks (B and C), that are more complex have less skewed satisfaction distribution. This immediately shows the complexity of context in structured search dialogs: when viewed independently the quality of the results is comparable for each step of the interaction, and the high levels of satisfaction for the simple task confirm that the quality is high, yet the satisfaction levels go down considerably when tasks are of increasing complexity. This suggests that the intelligent assistant loses context of a conversation, and requires more effort and interaction to restart the dialog and get back on track. This observation is in line in our previous finding that amount of effort users spend on a task is a main component of user satisfaction.

We look now in greater detail at the mission tasks contain 2 or more sub-tasks, and try to find out how overall user satisfaction is related to user satisfaction per sub-task. Table 3 presents the correlation between the overall *task*-level satisfaction and the minimum, mean, and maximum *query*-level satisfaction per sub-task. The re-

Table 3: Correlations of overall task user satisfaction and different summations over sub-tasks satisfaction. All presented results are statistical significant ($p < 0.05$)

Measures	Mission tasks
Overall SAT vs. <i>Average</i> Sub-task SAT	0.50
Overall SAT vs. <i>Minimum</i> Sub-task SAT	0.69
Overall SAT vs. <i>Maximum</i> Sub-task SAT	0.71

sults suggest that overall user satisfaction with the ‘mission’ tasks depends more on either user frustration—some sub-task results in low satisfaction and frustration dragging down the overall satisfaction fast—or on user success—high levels of satisfaction with the main sub-task solving the problem lead to high levels of overall satisfaction. This has important methodological consequences: user satisfaction with the structured search dialogs cannot be measured by averaging over satisfaction with sub-tasks, suggesting that task-level satisfaction is different from sub-task or query-level satisfaction, and session level features are a crucial component.

To summarize, this section presented the main results of the user study. We first looked at user satisfaction and found high levels of satisfaction throughout, but important differences between the scenarios on the factors contributing to overall satisfaction: for the device control scenario completion correlates well to user satisfaction—it either worked or not—but for the informational scenarios effort has a much higher correlation than completion. We then looked in detail at the web search scenario, and found satisfaction dropping fast with the number of issued queries, and that the direct answers (not requiring interaction) had higher levels of user satisfaction than SERP or web page results (requiring further interaction), making ‘good abandonment’ a frequent case and necessitating to take other features (e.g., touch, swipe, acoustic) into account to discern good and bad abandonment. Finally, we zoomed in on the structured search dialogs, and found high level of satisfaction per sub-task but a drop in overall satisfaction for ‘mission’ tasks with multiple sub-tasks addressing different aspects, showing the importance of preserving session context and demonstrating that task-level satisfaction cannot be reduced to query or impression-level satisfaction.

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper aimed to answer the following main research question: *What determines user satisfaction with intelligent assistants?*, by investigating key aspects that determine user satisfaction for different scenarios of intelligent assistants use. Our first research question was: **RQ 1: What are characteristic types of scenarios of use?** We proposed three main types of scenarios of use: (1) device control; (2) web search; and (3) structured search dialog. The scenarios were identified on the basis of three factors: their proportional existence in the logs of a commercial intelligent assistant; the way requests are handled at the intelligent assistant backend (e.g. user requests are redirected to the different services and they serve different interfaces); and the way scenarios were defined in previous works [25]. Next we investigated: **RQ 2: How can we measure different aspects of user satisfaction?** We designed a series of user studies tailored to the three scenarios of use, with questionnaires on variables potentially related to user satisfaction. The used tasks were based on an extensive analysis of logs of a commercial intelligent assistant.

The data collected in the user study was used to investigate the remaining research questions. First, we looked at: **RQ 3: What are**

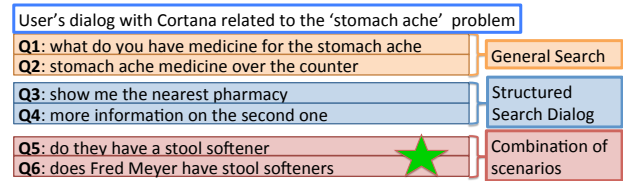


Figure 8: Example of a mixed dialog.

key factors determining user satisfaction for the different scenarios? We collected participant’s responses on their satisfaction with the task, their ability to complete a task, and the estimated effort it took. Our main conclusion is that effort is a key component of user satisfaction for across the different intelligent assistants scenarios. Second, we focused on the web search interactions: **RQ 4: How to characterize ‘abandonment’ in the web search scenario?** We clearly demonstrated a ‘presence’ of ‘good abandonment’ in the web search scenario, and concluded that to measure user satisfaction we need to investigate the other forms of interaction signals that are not based on clicks or reformulation. Third, we zoomed in on the structured dialog interactions: **RQ 5: How does query-level satisfaction relate to overall user satisfaction for the structured search dialog scenario?** We looked at user satisfaction as ‘a user journey towards a information goal where each step is important,’ and showed the importance of session context on user satisfaction. Our experimental results show that user satisfaction cannot be measuring by averaging over satisfaction with sub-tasks. Hence, frustration with some steps in a user’s ‘journey’ can greatly affect their overall satisfaction.

Our general conclusion is that the factors contributing to overall satisfaction with a task are different between the scenarios. Task completion is highly related to user satisfaction for the device control scenario—it either worked or not. For information seeking scenarios, user satisfaction is more related to effort than task completion. We demonstrated that task-level satisfaction cannot be reduced to query or impression-level satisfaction for information seeking scenarios.

Research on intelligent assistants for mobile devices is a new area, and this paper just addresses some of the important first steps. This work can be extended in two main directions. First, our typology of three types of scenarios could be extended in various ways. In the logs we noticed that users use a mix of scenarios in order to satisfy their information needs. Consider for example the dialog in Figure 8, in which our user used a combination of different scenarios in order to accomplish his task. The user has started by using general web search (Step 1: $Q_1 \rightarrow Q_2$) to get information about his problem. Then she used the structured search dialog (Step 2: $Q_3 \rightarrow Q_4$) to find a pharmacy. Afterwards, she tried to combine the information from the previous steps by asking complex requests (Step 3: $Q_5 \rightarrow Q_6$). Unfortunately, this led to dissatisfaction as the intelligent assistant failed to process Step 3. Therefore, it is essential to study user satisfaction when users use the mix of scenarios. Second, we found that typical behavioral signals in interaction logs (e.g., clicks) are not sufficient to infer user satisfaction with intelligent assistants. Therefore, the second important future direction is to make use of other types of interactions such as touch, swipe, or acoustic signals to predict user satisfaction. It has been shown [13, 25, 33] that these signals are promising to detect user satisfaction with intelligent assistants. This holds the potential to construct accurate predictions of task level user satisfaction based on behavioral logs, and make them applicable in production to improve the quality of interactions with intelligent assistants.

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