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**I CAN (NOT) SEE YOU AND THIS IS WHERE I DRAW A LINE: THE EFFECTS OF
VISIBILITY AND TASK TYPE ON LEXICAL ALIGNMENT AND CONVERSATIONAL
OUTCOMES**

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Abstract

Accommodation and alignment studies have mostly been done in collaboration tasks, however there is reason to believe that alignment principles and objective and perceived conversational outcomes can differ in collaboration and negotiation. Furthermore, it can be expected that being able to see one's conversational partner can influence alignment, and as a result affect conversational outcomes as well because alignment principles occur on multiple modalities. This study aimed to investigate the effects of task type and visibility on lexical alignment and conversational outcomes in an online task-based dyad. The purpose of this study was to research to what degree collaboration and negotiation and seeing or not seeing one's conversational partner differs in terms of lexical alignment and the conversational outcomes objective task success, perceived task success, perceived conversational success, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding, by using both qualitative and quantitative measures. The correlations between lexical alignment, conversational outcomes, self-reported conflict management skills, collaboration skills and task familiarity were also investigated. The results showed that task type and visibility had no effect on lexical alignment. Task type did have an effect on all conversational outcomes: in collaboration, interlocutors had higher levels of objective task success, perceived task and conversational success, sympathy, prosocialness and perceived mutual understanding than in negotiation. Furthermore, all conversational outcomes were correlated, however no correlations were found between conversational outcomes and lexical alignment. Correlations between conversational outcomes, self-assessed conflict management skills, collaboration skills, and task familiarity were also found. Lastly, alignment on synonyms was only correlated to total alignment and task familiarity.

Introduction

Communication accommodation (Giles et al., 1991) and alignment principles (Pickering & Garrod, 2004) occur consciously and subconsciously when people interact with each other. The degree of accommodation is dependent on people's conversational goal(s) (Giles et al., 1991); it seems that an individual goal perspective in negotiation can result in nonaccommodation (divergence or maintenance) to the conversational partner's communication and a joint goal perspective in collaboration can result in accommodation (convergence). Contrary to this, to develop a shared understanding of the situation under discussion, different levels of alignment are needed to achieve task success in different task

types. In a relatively difficult task like negotiation, interlocutors need more joint effort to achieve task success than in a relatively easy task like collaboration. Joint effort can be established through alignment to a conversational partner's linguistic choices (Foltz et al., 2015), or by using more modalities such as visibility (Rasenberg et al., 2022). Limited research has been done on communicative differences in collaboration and negotiation, and the current literature is inconclusive about the effects of task type and visibility on alignment principles and conversational outcomes. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the (combined) influence of task type and visibility on lexical alignment and conversational task and social outcomes.

Common ground

In conversation, we are always and ongoingly adjusting and coordinating our communication to what we perceive the situation asks for. In this process of coordination (how interlocutors communicate together), alignment is a mechanism through which interlocutors establish and maintain *common ground* in interaction, the basis on which coordination of content (how interlocutors work towards the conversational goal) can take place in an interaction (Clark & Brennan, 1991). In the theory of common ground, or *grounding in communication* (Clark & Brennan, 1991), common ground is described as a mutual understanding of knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions about the situation under discussion that is essential to achieve communicative success in an interaction (Clark & Brennan, 1991; Dale et al., 2013). The degree of mutual understanding in finding common ground does not need to be perfect; it is dependent on the '*criterion sufficient for current purposes*' (Clark & Wilkes-Gibbs, 1986). For example, a simple mutual nod might be enough common ground in short and simple interactions like greetings, while finding common ground in making plans requires a higher level of mutual understanding to achieve communicative success.

Automatic alignment

The alignment of common ground can be established in various ways and through various aspects of communication. Interlocutors tend to show *automatic* alignment in interactions (Pickering & Garrod, 2004; Rasenberg et al., 2020; Rasenberg et al., 2022). According to the Interactive Alignment Model (Pickering & Garrod, 2004; 2021), interlocutors align supported by relatively automatic priming mechanisms in an interaction and on different linguistic levels. Interlocutors can align on expressions, structures, and

vocalizations (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999). For example, if one interlocutor will use the phrase ‘*It’s crystal clear*’ to show understanding, it is likely that during the conversation, the other interlocutor will use this same utterance when expressing understanding. Automatic alignment entails that, to develop and maintain common ground, interlocutors practice reciprocal and continuous priming to establish a shared conceptualization, a conceptual pact (Brennan & Clark, 1996), also referred to as conceptual alignment (Fusaroli et al., 2012). Linguistic alignment (*i.e.*, the mirroring of each other’s speech) is thereby seen as a prominent form of alignment (Doyle & Frank, 2016).

Strategic alignment

The process of continuous and reciprocal adjustment of communication to one’s conversational partner can also be explained by *strategic* alignment processes, as described in the Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles et al., 1991). The CAT states that interlocutors adapt to various verbal and non-verbal linguistic aspects of each other’s behavior, known as communication accommodation (Giles et al., 1991; Giles & Powesland, 1997), which is also present in online communication (Riordan et al., 2013; Tobar-Henríquez et al., 2020). Communication accommodation is referred to as an approach to understanding alignment (Von Bergmann, 2013; Rasenberg et al., 2020). By managing the degree of accommodation, interlocutors manage the social distance in an interaction, communication comprehension, and communication efficiency between each other, depending on their conversational goal (Giles et al., 1991). Depending on their conversational goal, interlocutors can decrease, maintain, or increase the social distance (Shepherd & Zacharakis, 2001). Decreased social distance can be facilitated by accommodation, which means that interlocutors can converge their communication on various linguistic levels during an interaction. For example, interlocutors will accommodate to their conversational partner if their conversational partner has a higher perceived social status (Pirie, 2010 [Unpublished Master thesis]), has less communicative capabilities (Branigan et al., 2011), or is perceived as being higher in hierarchy (Bangertter et al., 2012). In negotiation, social distance can be decreased as well, as a persuasive or bargaining strategy (Ayeni, 2021). Conversely, increased social distance can be facilitated by nonaccommodation, which means that interlocutors either maintain or diverge from their conversational partner’s communication on various linguistic levels during an interaction (Giles et al., 1991). For example, interlocutors who want to maintain their individual identity will not accommodate to their conversational partner’s communication (Gallois et al., 1988).

Communication accommodation has both task related and social outcomes. The task related consequences of communication accommodation are perceived task success and perceived conversational success (Dragojevic et al., 2015). Perceived task and conversational successes consist of aspects such as the ability to engage in a meaningful conversation with others, the ability to communicate misunderstandings between the self and others, and the ability to handle different communication styles (Hammer et al., 1987). The social consequences of communication accommodation are sympathy, prosocialness and perceived mutual understanding (Giles et al., 1997; Doherty-Sheddon et al., 1997; Dragojevic et al., 2015). Sympathy is described as the feeling or emotion as a reaction to a threat or hindrance of the wellbeing or welfare of an individual (Darwall, 1998), it is having compassion with someone else while also being perceived as compassionate (Clark, 2010). Prosocialness is described as voluntary behavior on behalf of others' wellbeing (Eisenberg & Fabes, 2007), which means that a person is open to and capable of recognizing and reacting to other people's needs (Dovidio et al., 2006). Lastly, perceived mutual understanding is the subjective belief in mutual knowledge between individuals, whereby mutual knowledge is defined as '*knowledge that the communicating parties both share and know they share*' (Krauss & Fussell, 1990, p. 112). Mutual understanding can be beneficial for communication, as it is shown to promote a positive subjective conversational experience (Guydish & Tree, 2021). Through the decrease of perceived social distance, communication accommodation is shown to have positive effects on the conversational experience in terms of perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding, and negative effects on the conversational experience when social distance increases (Doherty-Sheddon et al., 1997; Dragojevic et al., 2015). Moreover, interlocutors continuously adjust their communication, depending on each other's perceived behavior, needs, and motives, making the degree of communication accommodation a dynamic and flexible process during the course of a conversation (Gallois et al., 2005). Lastly, interlocutors can align on all linguistic levels (Pickering & Garrod, 2004; Branigan et al., 2011), however linguistic alignment seems to occur primarily on a lexical level (Doyle & Frank, 2016).

Task type

Interlocutors do not only align based on the perception of their conversational partners' behavior, needs, and motives. Their own behavior, needs and motives play a role in alignment processes as well. Alignment studies found dissimilar results regarding alignment across conversational types. For example, Fusaroli and colleagues (2017) found that task-

oriented conversations lead to lower alignment than free conversation, while Howes and colleagues (2010) and Hopkins and colleagues (2016) found higher alignment in task-oriented conversations than in free conversations. These differences could be explained by task difficulty because interlocutors tend to show more lexical alignment only when it is necessary for task success to coordinate on word level (Foltz et al., 2015). So, the facilitative effect of linguistic alignment seems to be dependent on the demands of the task (Fusaroli et al., 2012). Therefore, task difficulty can influence alignment effects. The difficulty of a task can be assessed by, for example, propensity to interfere with performance of other tasks (Gilbert et al., 2012), which refers to the proneness that a person will be distracted from one task because another task interferes with it. For example, washing the dishes and having a discussion at the same time makes the total performance more difficult. Having more tasks to execute at the same time can mean that collaboration and negotiation differ in terms of task difficulty. Namely, in collaboration, interlocutors work together towards one joint goal, and mutually engage as an ensemble, which implies that interlocutors will have relatively little interference with performance of other tasks. In negotiation, interlocutors will have to work together while not only having one joint goal, they also have separate ideas or goals that can influence the execution and achievement of the joint goal (Mejía-Arauz et al., 2018). This implies that interlocutors will have relatively more interference with the performance of other tasks outside of the joint goal in negotiation than in collaboration. Because of the inherent goal differences between collaboration and negotiation, collaboration can be assessed as a relatively easy task and negotiation can be assessed as a relatively difficult task. Furthermore, it is probable that alignment processes differ in collaboration and negotiation. On the one hand, collaboration has a joint goal orientation, the attempt to decrease social distance because of communicative efficiency, and (positive) perception of the conversational partner's motives. On the other hand, negotiation has a (partly) individual goal orientation, a probable increase in social distance because of identity management, and a (negative) perception of the conversational partner's motives. However, it is also probable that alignment effects are similar in both collaboration and negotiation, albeit for different reasons. In collaboration, interlocutors can align because of communicative efficiency and the tendency to decrease social distance (Gallois et al., 2005), whereas in negotiation, interlocutors can align because of persuasive or bargaining strategies (Ayeni, 2021). In conclusion, the elementary goal differences of collaboration and negotiation make it likely to assume that collaboration and negotiation will result in different communicative behavior in

terms of accommodation, and therefore have dissimilar conversational outcomes (Mennecke et al., 2000; Shepherd & Zacharakis 2001).

Moreover, alignment is dependent on the difficulty of the task, according to the principle of least collaborative effort (Clark & Brennan, 1991). The principle of least collaborative effort shows that people efficiently coordinate multiple types of communicative behavior to minimize joint effort by distributing communicative efforts across modalities (Rasenberg et al., 2022). The minimalization of joint effort implies that in relatively difficult tasks, interlocutors tend to show more alignment and coordination than in relatively easy tasks (Foltz et al., 2015), indicating that interlocutors tend to align more when it is necessary for task success to coordinate on a lexical level. In other words, a relatively difficult task requires more joint effort to be successful, and therefore more alignment on a lexical level than a relatively easy task, which makes the facilitative effect of linguistic alignment (the degree to which linguistic alignment is helpful for task success and efficiency) dependent on what the specific task asks for (Fusaroli et al., 2012). Furthermore, alignment on a lexical level does seem to influence communicative efficiency such that lower lexical entrainment rates correlate with lower levels of communicative efficiency (Borrie et al., 2019). Additionally, when people used diverging vocabulary, it was found to be more difficult to facilitate a common meaning and understanding than when people used converging vocabulary (Ayoko et al., 2002). Not only can the occurrence of alignment aid in communicative efficiency (in relatively difficult tasks), interlocutors also seem to have higher objective task success when they align linguistically, for example on a lexical or syntactic level (Dideriksen et al., 2022; Fusaroli & Tylén, 2016; Reitter & Moore, 2014).

Visibility

The notion that there is a facilitative effect of linguistic alignment that is dependent on what the specific task asks for, also implies that not all media are fit for all communicative purposes, an idea which is proposed in the Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986). According to the MST, two factors play an important role in determining which media are suitable for successful communication and information transfer: media richness and equivocation. The richness of a medium is determined on a continuum from rich to lean, and by a few factors such as the availability of immediate feedback, the ability to process multiple cues, the variety in communication modes (such as body language and speech), and personal focus to the addressee (Daft & Lengel, 1986). The level of equivocation (or risk of ambiguity) determines how rich a medium should be to successfully deliver a message as

intended. According to the MST, face-to-face communication is the richest medium and can be used for tasks high in equivocation, meaning that, in order for the message to be received as intended, it is necessary to get immediate feedback, use multiple cues, in a variety of communication modes (like *gesture-speech ensembles* for the establishment of common ground (Holler & Bavelas, 2017)), and have a personal focus on the addressee. An example of communication that needs a high media richness is a conflict. On the other end of the continuum is the leanest medium, an unaddressed text. In tasks that are low in equivocation, a message does not require immediate feedback, processing through multiple cues, various communication modes and personal focus to the addressee. An example of a lean medium is a sign on a building that shows its opening hours.

The specific limiting factor of a leaner medium is discussed through the *barrier effect* of visibility (Lewis & Fry, 1977), which explains how an interaction differs when interlocutors can hear but cannot see each other, which prevents them from transmitting, receiving, and interpreting visual cues (Arunachalam & Dilla, 1995; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Carnevale et al., 1981; Fry, 1985; Lewis & Fry, 1977). In relatively easy tasks such as a find-the-differences task, visibility of the conversational partner did not seem to influence objective task performance (O'Malley et al., 1996; Van der Heijden, 2022 [Unpublished Bachelor thesis]). While in relatively difficult tasks, such as the Anagram task, visibility did seem to positively influence task performance (Daft & Lengel, 1986). Furthermore, interlocutors tend to make up for the absence of a visual dimension by using more linguistic responses (Boyle et al., 1994).

The absence of visual cues seems to not only influence linguistic responses, it appears to have social effects as well. Namely, a person's *gaze* (like nodding or facial expressions) gives signs of intimacy or social control (Kleinke, 1986). When eye contact is missing from a conversation, it can lead to a less personal experience, because it can cause less trust in a conversation, which ultimately results in interlocutors perceiving each other less positively (Lapidot-Lefler & Barak, 2012). Furthermore, interlocutors can perceive each other as more positive when they can see each other, because nonverbal cues can decrease insecurity in an interaction (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). In conclusion, being able to see a conversational partner can result in more trust and more security in an interaction, which leads to the assumption that the media richness, in terms of availability of visual cues, can influence how interlocutors perceive each other on a social level. Moreover, building on the Media Richness Theory, the task-media fit hypothesis (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993) speculates that different types of tasks require different levels of richness to be successful. In this way, an

assignment that has the same content can differ in media fit, because the task can be either collaborative or negotiative in nature, making the need for a richer medium higher in negotiation tasks as opposed to collaboration tasks (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993).

Present study

The current research on media use and communication theories, principles, and mechanisms, both in collaboration and in negotiation, show two important research gaps. Firstly, a theoretical challenge that has not yet been solved is the relation between communication outcomes (*i.e.*, convergence and finding common ground) and negotiation processes and outcomes (*i.e.*, performance, social and task outcomes; Geiger, 2020), meaning that it is still unclear how convergence principles, and task and social outcomes are related. Secondly, most of the knowledge on effects of communication channels in negotiation stems from studies where only one level of communication or one modality has been investigated (Geiger, 2020). To help make online collaborations and negotiations more successful and more positively perceived, it is important to understand which mechanisms aid and hinder communicative efficiency (Oviedo & Tree, 2021). Thirdly, the effect of collaboration versus negotiation on the degree of lexical alignment has not yet been investigated together in one study. This leads to the research question this thesis attempted answer: *What are the effects of Task type and Visibility on Lexical alignment and the Conversational outcomes Objective task success, Perceived task success, Perceived conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding?*

All in all, based on the principles of grounding in communication (Clark & Brennan, 1991), the Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles et al., 1991), the Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986), and the media-fit hypothesis (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993), an effect of Task type on Lexical alignment is expected (H1). In collaboration, alignment can occur because of communicative efficiency and to decrease social distance, and in negotiation for identity management or as a bargaining or persuasive strategy. Given the higher task difficulty in negotiation, it is expected that in negotiation, interlocutors align more on a lexical level. The differences in task difficulty between collaboration and negotiation also imply that conversational outcomes (perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding) might be higher in collaboration than in negotiation (H2), because collaboration can be seen as an easier task than negotiation. The notion of the barrier effect and the use of more linguistic responses when a conversational partner is not visible points in the direction that, in a relatively difficult

task such as negotiation, an interlocutor will likely align more on a lexical level than in a relatively easy task such as collaboration. Based on the lack of nonvisual cues when interlocutors cannot see each other, it is expected that interlocutors who cannot see each other will ‘make up’ for the absence of visual cues by using more linguistic responses, and therefore align more on a lexical level than interlocutors that can see each other (H3). Visibility is expected to have positive effects on conversational outcomes (objective task success, perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding), because being able to see each other can result in more security and a more positive perception of a conversational partner than when interlocutors cannot see each other (H4). Furthermore, correlations are expected between lexical alignment and conversational outcomes (objective task success, perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding) because alignment principles can have an effect on perceived social distance in the way that social distance decreases when alignment increases, which can result in a more positive conversational experience (H5). Lastly, positive correlations are expected between Lexical alignment, Conversational outcomes (objective task success, perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding), and Conflict management, Collaboration skills, and Task familiarity (H6). Because the more developed an interlocutor’s conflict management style is, the more alignment to a conversational partner occurs (Weatherholtz et al., 2014). Next to this, a higher level of self-reported collaboration skills and task familiarity both can result in communicative efficiency, which can positively influence alignment principles and therefore can indirectly influence conversational outcomes in a positive way as well.

This master thesis attempted to answer the research question ‘*What are the effects of Task type and Visibility on Lexical alignment and the Conversational outcomes Perceived task and Perceived conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding?*’ by conducting an online experiment. Following Rasenberg and colleagues’ (2020) framework, priming effects (lexical alignment) will be researched by quantitative analysis (through transcriptions of the interactions), and grounding by qualitative analysis (through a questionnaire). Quantitative and qualitative measurements are combined for systematic quantitative observation and qualitative inspection of the multidimensional nature of alignment.

Method

Materials

The experiment was a five-minute recorded online Zoom conversation in which the interlocutors needed to execute two steps. First, the interlocutors needed to divide the task description (organizing an event) in ten subtasks which they had to mutually agree on. After this division, they continued to the second step, which was the assignment of the ten subtasks between each other. In the collaboration condition, the participants were both told they could divide the subtasks amongst each other as they liked with no restrictions on the number of tasks each person takes on, as long as the tasks were assigned to either one or the other. In the negotiation condition, the interlocutors were both told that they should take on the lowest number of tasks possible, and they could not disclose this information to their conversational partner.

To partake in the experiment, participants needed a laptop or computer with a working microphone and camera, internet connection and a quiet area to be in during the experiment. The materials consisted of two task descriptions which were used to distinguish the ten subtasks. The two task descriptions contained the same information and showed divergence only on a lexical level by using ten synonyms, as shown in Appendix 2. The independent variable Task type (collaboration or negotiation) was operationalized by giving the instruction for either free or restricted assignment of the ten subtasks. The independent variable Visibility (camera on or off) was operationalized by conducting the experiment with or without having the camera on.

Participants

90 native Dutch participants took part in the experiment, of which 80 (52% male, 48% female, age 21-59, $M = 29.6$, $SD = .50$) remained fit for analysis. The participants were randomly assigned to the conditions. See Table 1. Age and gender were equally distributed across the conditions.

Table 1. The age and gender of participants per condition.

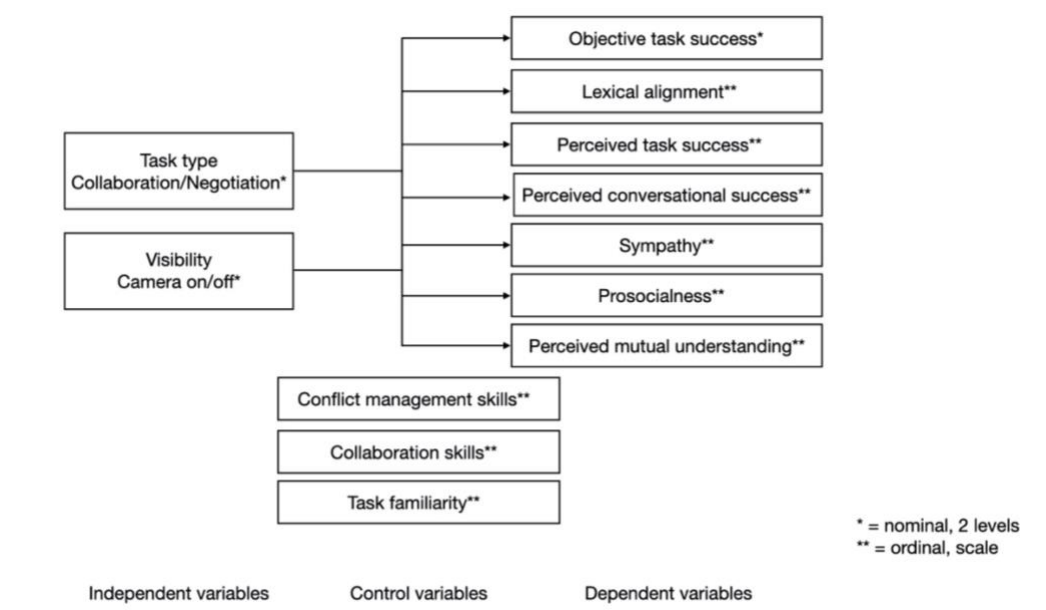
	Visible collaboration ($n = 20$) Frequency	Nonvisible collaboration ($n = 20$) Frequency	Visible negotiation ($n = 20$) Frequency	Nonvisible negotiation ($n = 20$) Frequency
Age (M , SD)	27 (3.65)	30 (10.02)	31 (9.04)	31 (9.56)

Gender	Male	12 (60%)	8 (40%)	10 (50%)	11 (55%)
	Female	8 (40%)	12 (60%)	10 (50%)	9 (45%)
	Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Experimental design

In a between-subjects design, the independent variables Task type and Visibility were manipulated during a five-minute task-division dyad via Zoom. See Figure 1.

Figure 1. Experimental design.



Instrumentation

The dependent variable Lexical alignment was measured by recording the experiment and creating a transcription of the conversation. Using the qualitative data analysis tool Atlas.ti, the transcripts of both interlocutors were separated and compared on overlapping words. The overlapping words were then divided by the total amount of words of an interaction to calculate the percentage of total alignment. For the percentage of synonym alignment, the number of synonyms that was shared between the interlocutors was divided by the total amount of synonyms used in an interaction. For example, ‘zaal’ and ‘lokaal’ were used as synonyms that indicated the meeting room in the two texts. Once a synonym co-occurred in both transcripts, alignment on synonym level had been established. The dependent variable Objective task success was measured by task completion (yes or no) within the five minutes of the experiment.

The other dependent and control variables were measured using five-point Likert scales that consisted of multiple items, in a questionnaire via Qualtrics. For the full questionnaire (in Dutch), see Appendix 1. The dependent variable Conversational experience was used as an umbrella term for the five dependent variables Perceived task success, Perceived conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding. Perceived task success was measured using the adapted self-designed scale for perceived communicative success (Bachelor kring, Kootstra, 2021), and contained questions such as *'I think that the results of our task could have been better'* (1- Completely agree to 5- Completely disagree). The reliability of the scale was good: $\alpha = .87$. The average of the five questions was used to measure perceived task success in further analysis. Perceived conversational success was measured using the adapted scale for perceived communicative success (Messner, 2015), and contained questions such as *'The conversation with this person went smoothly'* (1- Completely disagree to 5- Completely agree). The reliability of the scale was good: $\alpha = .82$. The average of the six questions was used to measure perceived conversational success in further analysis. Sympathy was measured using an adapted version of the Likeability Scale (Reysen, 2005), and contained questions such as *'This person is approachable'* (1- Completely disagree to 5- Completely agree). The reliability of the scale was excellent: $\alpha = .90$. The average of the eight questions was used to measure sympathy in further analysis. Prosocialness was measured using the adapted Prosocialness for Adults Scale (Caprara et al., 2005), and contained questions such as *'I think this person tries to help others'* (1- Completely disagree to 5- Completely agree). The reliability of the scale was excellent: $\alpha = .94$. The average of the ten questions was used to measure prosocialness in further analysis. Perceived mutual understanding was measured using an adapted version of the Perceived Mutual Understanding Scale (Burchter & Oostlander, 2017), and contained questions such as *'We have a similar understanding of the degree in which we need each other for the task'* (1- Completely disagree to 5- Completely agree). The reliability of the scale was good: $\alpha = .81$. The average of the five questions was used to measure perceived mutual understanding in further analysis.

The control variable Conflict management skills was measured by using a five-point Likert-type scale (1-Not good at all to 5- Very good) for the question *'How do you estimate your own conflict management skills?'*. The control variable Collaboration skills was measured by using a five-point Likert-type scale (1-Not good at all to 5- Very good) for the question *'How do you estimate your own collaboration skills?'*. The control variable Task familiarity was measured by using a five-point Likert-type scale (1-Not at all to 5- Very

much) for the question ‘*How familiar and practiced are you with tasks such as the one you performed in this experiment?*’.

Procedure

The participants were recruited through the researcher’s own network. After expressing their willingness to participate, the participants received two e-mails. The first email contained the agreed upon time for the experiment, the informed consent link, general information about the task, safeguarding privacy, and data storage. The second email was sent on the day the experiment took place and contained the time and general information about the experiment, as well as the individual participant number and task requirements about camera setting and task instructions specific to each condition.

In the Zoom meeting, the researcher briefly explained the task once more. When the task was clear, the researcher started the timer, muted herself and turned her camera off. After five minutes, or when the participants succeeded at assigning the subtasks, the researcher interrupted the conversation. The participants then received the link to the Qualtrics questionnaire. Upon completing the questionnaire, participants could ask questions about the experiment, after which the participants were thanked for their participation and the Zoom meeting was ended. One Zoom meeting took approximately twenty minutes in total.

Statistical tests

The independent variables Task type and Visibility both consisted of two conditions (collaboration or negotiation and visible or not visible). To answer the research question ‘*What are the effects of Task type and Visibility on Lexical alignment and the Conversational experience for Perceived task and Perceived conversational successes, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Mutual understanding?*’ an analysis was performed to investigate the (combined) influence of Task type and Visibility on every individual dependent variable of the conversational experience by using a two-way MANOVA and one-way ANOVAs. Correlation analyses between the dependent variables Lexical alignment and Objective task success, Perceived task success, Perceived conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding, and the control variables Conflict management skills, Collaboration skills, and Task familiarity were also performed.

Results

The assumptions to use MANOVA and ANOVA were met, expect for a significant Box's M test. However, the MANOVA can still be considered valid, because the sample sizes were the same across all groups. The results of the two-way multivariate analysis of variance (for conversational experience) and the one-way analyses of variance (for lexical alignment and objective task success) are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of the two-way multivariate variance-analysis of Task type and Visibility on Conversational outcomes and the one-way multivariate variance-analysis of Task type and Visibility on Lexical alignment and Objective task success. Greyed out cells highlight significant results.

	Task type	Visibility	Interaction-effect
TaskSuccess	$F(1,75) = 19.41, p < .001, \eta^2 = .206$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .387, \eta^2 = .010$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .625, \eta^2 = .003$
ConvoSuccess	$F(1,75) = 9.27, p = .003, \eta^2 = .110$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .376, \eta^2 = .010$	$F(1,75) = 4.60, p = .035, \eta^2 = .058$
Sympathy	$F(1,75) = 12.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .139$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .703, \eta^2 = .002$	$F(1,75) = 1.04, p = .311, \eta^2 = .014$
Prosocialness	$F(1,75) = 13.76, p < .001, \eta^2 = .155$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .668, \eta^2 = .002$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .797, \eta^2 = .001$
MutualUnderstanding	$F(1,75) = 22.23, p < .001, \eta^2 = .229$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .428, \eta^2 = .008$	$F(1,75) < 1, p = .659, \eta^2 = .003$
TotalAlignment	$F(1,76) < 1, p = .414, \eta^2 = .009$	$F(1,76) < 1, p = .554, \eta^2 = .005$	$F(1,76) < 1, p = .498, \eta^2 = .006$
SynAlignment	$F(1,76) < 1, p = .795, \eta^2 = .001$	$F(1,76) = 1.581, p = .212, \eta^2 = .020$	$F(1,76) = 3.205, p = .077, \eta^2 = .040$
ObjTaskSuccess	$F(1,76) = 29.69, p < .001, \eta^2 = .281$	$F(1,76) = 1.19, p = .279, \eta^2 = .015$	$F(1,76) = 1.19, p = .279, \eta^2 = .015$

No effects of Task type or Visibility were found on Total alignment nor on Synonym alignment, either as a main effect or in interaction. Participants aligned on average 24.1% of all spoken utterances during their five-minute conversation, ranging from the lowest percentage in the negotiation visibility condition (23.7%) to the highest percentage in the collaboration visibility condition (24.3%). The percentage of lexical alignment in the collaboration non-visibility condition (24.2%) was almost the same as the percentage in the negotiation non-visibility condition (24.1%). Participants aligned on the synonyms used in

the text on an average of 43.46%, ranging from the highest percentage of synonym alignment in the negotiation visibility condition (53.1%) to the lowest percentage of synonym alignment in the negotiation non-visibility condition (35.8%). The percentage of synonym alignment in the collaboration conditions with visibility (41.1%) was close to the percentage of synonym alignment in the collaboration non-visibility condition (43.9%).

As can be seen in Table 2, Task type showed a significant main effect on Perceived task and conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, Perceived mutual understanding, and Objective task success. In collaboration ($M = 3.94$, $SD = .99$), perceived task success was significantly higher than in negotiation ($M = 2.97$, $SD = .96$). Perceived conversational success was significantly higher in collaboration ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .46$) than in negotiation ($M = 3.97$, $SD = .82$). This effect was further modulated by an interaction effect with Visibility. Perceived conversational success was significantly higher in collaboration when interlocutors could not see each other ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .25$) than when they could see each other ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .59$), whereas perceived conversational success in negotiation was significantly lower when interlocutors could not see each other ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .80$) than when they could see each other ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .70$). Sympathy was significantly higher in collaboration ($M = 5.57$, $SD = .70$) than in negotiation ($M = 4.95$, $SD = .85$). Perceived prosocialness was also significantly higher in collaboration ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .54$) than in negotiation ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .72$). Perceived mutual understanding was also significantly higher in collaboration ($M = 5.52$, $SD = .92$) than in negotiation ($M = 4.58$, $SD = .82$). Lastly, Objective task success was also significantly higher in collaboration ($M = .60$, $SD = .50$) than in negotiation ($M = .10$, $SD = .30$).

Visibility did not show any main effects on Lexical alignment or Conversational outcomes (Objective task success, Perceived task and conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding). Remarkably, both Task type and Visibility had no significant effect on either of the alignment measures (Total alignment and Synonym alignment).

Additionally, a correlation analysis was performed to measure the correlations between the dependent variables. As can be seen in Table 3, a significant correlation between Total alignment and Synonym alignment was found. As total alignment increased, so did alignment on the synonyms used in the task. This correlation follows logically from the fact that alignment on synonyms was a part of the total alignment. Furthermore, positive correlations were found between all five variables making up the Conversational Experience and Objective task success. When participants rated the task success as high, they also rated

conversational success, sympathy and prosocialness of their interlocutor, and the degree of mutual understanding with their interlocutor as high. As the variables of Conversational experience were rated high, the Objective task success was high as well. No correlations were found between any of the conversational outcomes and Total or Synonym alignment.

Table 3. Results of the correlation analysis between the dependent variables. Greyed out cells highlight significant results.

Dependent variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 TaskSuccess	X						
2 Convosuccess	<i>r</i> = .644**, <i>p</i> < .001	X					
3 Sympathy	<i>r</i> = .480**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .433**, <i>p</i> < .001	X				
4 Prosocialness	<i>r</i> = .488**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .700**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .700**, <i>p</i> < .001	X			
5 MutualUnderstanding	<i>r</i> = .522**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .551**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .545**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .519**, <i>p</i> < .001	X		
6 SynAlignment	<i>r</i> = -.140	<i>r</i> = -.116	<i>r</i> = .028	<i>r</i> = -.075	<i>r</i> = -.140	X	
7 TotalAlignment	<i>r</i> = -.072	<i>r</i> = -.042	<i>r</i> = -.078	<i>r</i> = -.057	<i>r</i> = -.030	<i>r</i> = .288**, <i>p</i> = .010	X
8 ObjTaskSuccess	<i>r</i> = .602**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .409**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .273*, <i>p</i> = .014	<i>r</i> = .268*, <i>p</i> = .016	<i>r</i> = .419**, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = -.022, <i>p</i> = .846	<i>r</i> = .029, <i>p</i> = .797

** Correlation is significant at a .010 level (two-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at a .050 level (two-tailed).

A correlation analysis was also conducted between the dependent variables and the control variables Conflict management skills, Collaboration skills, and Task familiarity. As

can be seen in Table 4, Conflict management skills were positively correlated with Collaboration skills, Task familiarity, Perceived conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding. Collaboration skills were positively correlated with Task familiarity, and Perceived mutual understanding. Task familiarity was positively correlated with Sympathy and Synonym alignment. As self-reported conflict management skills were high, so were the perceived conversational success, sympathy, prosocialness, mutual understanding, self-reported collaboration skills, and self-reported task familiarity. As self-reported collaboration skills were high, so were the perceived mutual understanding and self-reported task familiarity. As self-reported task familiarity was higher, so were sympathy and synonym alignment. Interestingly, no correlations between the control variables Conflict management skills, Collaboration skills and Task familiarity with Total alignment were found, and no correlations between Conflict management skills and Collaboration skills with Synonym alignment and Objective task success were found.

Table 4. Results of the correlation analysis between the control variables and the dependent variables. Greyed out cells highlight significant results.

	Conflict management	Collaboration skills	Task familiarity
Conflict management	X		
Collaboration skills	<i>r</i> = .375**, <i>p</i> < .001	X	
Task familiarity	<i>r</i> = .448*, <i>p</i> < .001	<i>r</i> = .432**, <i>p</i> < .001	X
Tasksuccess	<i>r</i> = .132	<i>r</i> = .126	<i>r</i> = .037
Convosuccess	<i>r</i> = .334**, <i>p</i> = .003	<i>r</i> = .204	<i>r</i> = .189
Sympathy	<i>r</i> = .271*, <i>p</i> = .016	<i>r</i> = .199	<i>r</i> = .252*, <i>p</i> = .026
Prosocialness	<i>r</i> = .242*, <i>p</i> = .033	<i>r</i> = .135	<i>r</i> = .093
MutualUnderstanding	<i>r</i> = .251*, <i>p</i> = .028	<i>r</i> = .283*, <i>p</i> = .013	<i>r</i> = .135
TotalAlignment	<i>r</i> = -.070	<i>r</i> = .145	<i>r</i> = -.005
SynAlignment	<i>r</i> = -.103	<i>r</i> = -.007	<i>r</i> = .225*, <i>p</i> = .047
ObjTaskSuccess	<i>r</i> = .089	<i>r</i> = .140	<i>r</i> = .061

** Correlation is significant at a .010 level (two-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at a .050 level (two-tailed).

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate how a collaboration task diverges from a negotiation task in terms of lexical alignment and conversational outcomes, and how seeing a conversational partner modulates this effect. Firstly, the results showed no effect of Task type

on Lexical alignment. In collaboration and negotiation, interlocutors seemed to show the same amount of lexical alignment (H1 not supported). This can perhaps be explained by the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which states that people usually want to create and maintain positive personal and social identities, thus accommodate strategically to their conversational partner. In other words, in both collaboration and negotiation, people want to be liked, and will not show differences in alignment between the two different task types. Another explanation is that people strategically accommodate to their conversational partner for communication efficiency depending on their conversational goal, in line with the Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles et al., 1991). In collaboration and negotiation, interlocutors will have different conversational goals. Participants in the negotiation conditions in this study had significantly less objective task success than participants in collaboration, which indicates that some degree of nonaccommodation took place, however this was not related to the lexical level, even though prior research suggests lexical alignment as the primary form of linguistic alignment (Doyle & Frank, 2016). For future research, it would therefore be interesting to research the reason behind the difference in objective task success in collaboration and negotiation in terms of divergence on different linguistic levels. A final possible reason for the absence of effects of Task type on Lexical alignment, is that interlocutors in the negotiation condition did in some cases not reach the second step of the task within the five minutes. This indicates that the degree of lexical alignment in the negotiation conditions was mostly measured during the anticipation of negotiation, not in the actual negotiation itself.

Task type did show an effect on Conversational outcomes (Objective task success, Perceived task and conversational success, Sympathy, Prosocialness, and Perceived mutual understanding), so the manipulation was successful, because a different conversational experience indicates that there were indeed two types of conversations happening in the experiment. Interlocutors seemed to perceive the interaction they had and each other more positively in collaboration than in negotiation (H2 supported). This is in line with the Communication Accommodation Theory (Giles et al., 1991), which states that perceived social distance influences the conversational experience. Furthermore, in line with the findings of Gallois and colleagues (2012), decreased social distance led to communicative efficiency, resulting in higher objective task outcomes. Even though no interaction effect was expected, an interaction effect of Task type and Visibility on perceived conversational success was found. This strengthens the assumption that different communication principles are in effect in collaboration and negotiation, and different modalities might be necessary to result

in higher perceived conversational success in collaboration and negotiation. Interlocutors rated the conversational success higher in negotiation when they could see each other, which can be explained by the notion that negotiation can be perceived as more threatening than collaboration. If this is the case, seeing your conversational partner can indeed take away insecurity in an interaction (Berger & Calabrese, 1975).

No effect was found of Visibility on Lexical alignment. Whether interlocutors could or could not see each other, made no difference in the amount of lexical alignment (H3 not supported). This can perhaps be explained by the Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986) and the task-media fit hypothesis (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993). The necessary media richness needed to execute the task successfully was lower than anticipated in this experiment, meaning that the task was not difficult enough to necessitate 'making up' for a missing modality by aligning more on a lexical level. If the task was indeed not difficult enough, then the results are in line with the existing literature on visibility and alignment principles (O'Malley et al., 1996; Reitter & Moore, 2014; Fusaroli & Tylén, 2016; Dideriksen et al., 2022).

Furthermore, no effect of Visibility on Conversational outcomes (objective task success, perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding) was found (H4 not supported). The findings are not in line with the literature about the social consequences of visibility: that being able to see a conversational partner leads to decreased social distance (Kleinke, 1986) and a more positive conversational experience (Lapidot-Lefler & Barak, 2012). However, the results can perhaps be explained by the media richness, meaning that the task was not difficult enough to be distinct in conversational outcomes when a modality is absent. However, if the task was indeed not difficult enough, then the results are in line with the principle of the barrier effect (Lewis & Fry, 1977) and the findings of Fusaroli and colleagues (2012), who stated that the facilitative effect of linguistic alignment is dependent on the demands of the task.

Correlations between all Conversational outcomes (objective task success, perceived task and conversational successes, sympathy, prosocialness, and perceived mutual understanding) were found, however no correlations with Lexical alignment were found (partial support for H5). Apparently, a higher rating in conversational experience does not seem to be a result of lexical convergence. The correlations between task and social consequences of communication accommodation are in line with the findings of Dragojevic and colleagues (2015). Even though no communication accommodation in terms of lexical alignment was found in this experiment, the conversational outcomes as described in the CAT

(Giles et al., 1991) are correlated. The absence of a correlation with lexical alignment can again be explained by task difficulty (Daft & Lengel, 1986) and the task-media fit hypothesis (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993), in combination with the principle of least collaborative effort (Clark & Brennan, 1991). In conversation, joint effort will be minimized, so interlocutors will only show more lexical alignment when it is necessary for task success to align on word level (Foltz et al., 2015). When a task is relatively easy, interlocutors will not need to align on a lexical level to achieve task success. Moreover, the fact that not all participants in this study achieved task success is probably due to the before mentioned hindrance in communication efficiency because of diverging goals in negotiation. So, even though task difficulty did not require participants to align on a lexical level, the diverging goals in negotiation did influence communicative efficiency. By not being as efficient in negotiation as in collaboration, the time constraints of the experiment resulted in less objective task success in the negotiation conditions than in the collaboration conditions. Furthermore, the absence of correlations between Lexical alignment and Conversational outcomes differs from the results found in previous studies on lexical alignment (e.g., Borrie et al., 2019). Perhaps significant correlations could be found in either the negotiation or collaboration separately. The absence of correlations between Lexical alignment and Conversational outcomes could be explained by the notion that the results found in previous studies were in spatial coordination and collaboration tasks (e.g., Rasenberg et al., 2022), while this current study based its task only on conversational coordination, without a spatial component. So, for conversational coordination, it can be argued that it might not be necessary to use the exact same words to have higher levels of sympathy, prosocialness, reach a mutual understanding, perceive a task or conversation as successful and be objectively more successful.

Difficulty of task

A limitation of this study can be that the tasks were not difficult enough to show an effect of visibility on alignment or conversational outcomes. Even though the manipulation was successful, in future research the task difficulty could be adjusted according to one of the factors that indicate task difficulty, as described by Gilbert and colleagues (2012), such as propensity to interfere with performance of other tasks. If indeed the tasks as executed in this experiment were not difficult enough, the findings in this study are in line with the Media Richness Theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986), the task-media fit hypothesis (McGrath & Hollingshead, 1993), and the barrier effect (Lewis & Fry, 1977). Namely, that visibility as a

modality only enriches a conversation when it is necessary for task success to see each other, when a task is higher in equivocation (or risk of ambiguity).

Length of task

Another limiting factor could have been the length of the task. The task in the experiment was a five-minute long dyad. During five minutes, interlocutors had to coordinate on process and coordinate on content to execute the task (Clark & Brennan, 1991). The amount of time participants had in this experiment might not have been sufficient to develop a shared conceptualization of the task at hand, as a shared language or a conceptual pact (Brennan & Clark, 1996). Even though conceptual pacts do not influence objective task success, they can influence task efficiency, which is important for objective task success if a time limit is present. Furthermore, the length of the task did not allow for participants, especially in the negotiation conditions, to reach the second part of the experiment, in which the interlocutors had to assign the ten subtasks amongst each other. So, for most negotiation conditions, conversational outcomes, and alignment effects of the anticipation of a negotiation were measured, and only a part of the actual negotiation itself, or even no part of the actual negotiation at all. However, the anticipation of having to collaborate or negotiate already influenced conversational experience. Therefore, it can be expected that the perception of behavior, needs, and motives of the interlocutors were different from the start of the experiment, in line with the findings of Gallois and colleagues (2005). In the negotiation conditions, only two out of twenty dyads achieved objective task success, meaning that only two pairs of interlocutors went through the two steps of the experiment within the five minutes. In the collaboration conditions, twelve out of twenty dyads achieved objective task success. If the experiment would have lasted longer, for example ten minutes, more dyads would have probably achieved objective task success. Consequently, a longer experiment might result in the development of conceptual pacts, which could have influenced lexical alignment.

Automatic and strategic alignment

Alignment principles can be classified on a continuum from automatic and subconscious to strategic and conscious (Garrod & Pickering, 2007). It could be possible that no effect of lexical alignment was found because alignment principles are subconscious by nature. Therefore, it can be possible that interlocutors align automatically to their conversational partner, regardless of whether they are in collaboration or negotiation.

Moreover, for future research, it might be interesting to investigate whether interlocutors align on different linguistic aspects than on a lexical level, for example by alignment on a syntactic level or on the use of backchannels. Even though lexical alignment is the most frequently occurring form of linguistic alignment (Doyle & Frank, 2016), it might be possible that other linguistic aspects of an interaction could explain the differences in conversational outcomes. It can be interesting for future research to investigate if differences in conversational experiences are to some degree measurable and predictable on another linguistic level, or multiple levels.

Conclusion

All in all, we can conclude that based on this study, collaboration and negotiation differ in terms of objective and perceived conversational outcomes. However, collaboration and negotiation do not differ in terms of lexical alignment. Visibility also does not seem to influence either lexical alignment or objective and perceived conversational outcomes. By combining qualitative and quantitative analysis, this thesis attempted to provide more insights into the role task type and visibility play in alignment processes and perceived task and social outcomes in online settings. This can aid in further understanding of alignment principles that occur in collaboration and negotiation when the visibility modality is absent.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Questionnaire

1.1 Questionnaire perceived task success.

Based on a scale for perceived task success from a 'Bachelor kring' (Kootstra, 2021). The answers will be measured on a scale of 1- totally disagree to 5- totally agree.

1. Ik ben over het algemeen tevreden over onze samenwerking.
2. We zijn minstens even effectief als wanneer ik met mensen die ik ken communiceer.
3. We zijn minstens even efficiënt als wanneer ik met mensen die ik ken samenwerk.
4. Ik denk dat de resultaten van onze samenwerking beter hadden kunnen zijn.
5. Ik denk dat we meer hadden kunnen bereiken.

1.2 Questionnaire perceived conversational success.

Based on a scale for 'Perceived conversational success' from Messner (2015). The answers will be measured on a scale of 1- totally disagree to 5- totally agree.

1. Het gesprek met deze persoon verliep vlot.
2. Het gesprek met deze persoon was gemakkelijk.
3. Ik denk dat deze persoon begreep wat ik zei.
4. Ik begreep wat deze persoon zei.
5. Er waren geen misverstanden.
6. Ik was in staat om de andere persoon te helpen wanneer ze, bijvoorbeeld, vastliep.

1.3 Questionnaire sympathy

Based on the (adapted version of the) Likability Scale from Reysen (2005). The answers will be measured on a scale of 1- totally disagree to 5- totally agree.

1. Deze persoon is vriendelijk.
2. Deze persoon is sympathiek.
3. Deze persoon is warm.
4. Deze persoon is benaderbaar.
5. Ik zou deze persoon om advies vragen.
6. Ik zou deze persoon graag als collega hebben.
7. Ik zou graag vrienden willen zijn met deze persoon.
8. Deze persoon lijkt op mij.

1.4 Questionnaire prosocialness

Based on the (adapted version of the) Prosocialness for Adults Scale from Caprara et al. (2005). The answers will be measured on a scale of 1- totally disagree to 5- totally agree.

1. Ik denk dat deze persoon graag vrienden/collega's helpt.
2. Ik denk dat deze persoon probeert om anderen te helpen.
3. Ik denk dat deze persoon empathisch is naar hulpbehoevende mensen.
4. Ik denk dat deze persoon direct mensen in nood helpt.
5. Ik denk dat deze persoon doet wat kan om te voorkomen dat anderen in de problemen komen.
6. Ik denk dat deze persoon bereid is om eigen kennis en vaardigheden beschikbaar te maken voor anderen.
7. Ik denk dat deze persoon makkelijk geld en andere dingen uitleent.
8. Ik denk dat deze persoon zichzelf makkelijk in de schoenen van iemand die ongemak ervaart plaatst.
9. Ik denk dat deze persoon makkelijk goede kansen op succes deelt met vrienden.
10. Ik denk dat deze persoon meteen aanvoelt wanneer vrienden in ongemak zijn, zelfs als dit niet direct gecommuniceerd wordt.

1.5 Questionnaire perceived mutual understanding.

Based on the (adapted version of the) Perceived Mutual Understanding Scale from Burchter and Oostlander (2017). The answers will be measured on a scale of 1- totally disagree to 5- totally agree.

1. We zijn het er voor een heel groot deel over eens wie welke taak uit zou moeten voeren.
2. We hebben een soortgelijk begrip over de mate waarin we elkaar nodig hebben in het uitvoeren van de taak.
3. We hebben een goed beeld van elkaars vaardigheden in deze taak.
4. Had je het idee dat jij de ander begreep als diegene aan het woord was?
5. Had je het idee dat de ander jou begreep als jij aan het woord was?

1.6 Scale for conflict management skills

Op een schaal van 1 (helemaal niet goed) tot 5 (heel erg goed), hoe schat je je eigen conflictmanagement vaardigheden in?

1.7 Scale for collaboration skills

Op een schaal van 1 (helemaal niet goed) tot 5 heel erg goed), hoe schat je je eigen samenwerkingsvaardigheden in?

1.8 Task familiarity

Op een schaal van 1 (helemaal niet) tot 5 (heel erg), hoe bekend en geoefend ben je met taken zoals je in dit experiment uitgevoerd hebt?

Appendix 2. Task description

Version 1

Ga er even van uit dat jullie collega's zijn van verschillende afdelingen. Jullie moeten samen een **bijeenkomst** moeten voorbereiden. Voor deze dag moeten jullie een zaal in het gebouw huren en de uitgenodigde **personen** van een bestaande lijst een uitnodiging sturen. Het programma staat al vast, maar er moet wel nog een **presentatie** van gemaakt worden in Powerpoint. Daarnaast moeten er **hand-outs** uitgetypt worden. Deze hand-outs moeten ook nog geprint worden voor de dag zelf. Op de dag van de **bijeenkomst** zelf moet de **zaal** klaargemaakt worden, wat betekent dat er tafels verschoven moeten worden en dat de juiste hoeveelheid stoelen aanwezig moet zijn. Ook moet er contact worden opgenomen met de **catering** in jullie gebouw, zodat er in de pauze iets gedronken en gegeten kan worden. Tot slot moet er na de **bijeenkomst** een **samenvatting** verstuurd worden naar de deelnemers, die door een collega getypt is. De **samenvatting** moet wel nog gecheckt worden op taalfouten. Tot slot moeten de tafels en stoelen **in de zaal** ook weer in de **originele staat** teruggezet worden.

Version 2

Ga er even van uit dat jullie collega's zijn van verschillende afdelingen en dat jullie samen een **vergadering** moeten voorbereiden. Voor deze dag moeten jullie een lokaal in het gebouw huren en de uitgenodigde **collega's** van een bestaande lijst een uitnodiging sturen. **De** planning staat al vast, maar er moeten nog wel **slides** van gemaakt worden in Powerpoint. Daarnaast moeten er **uitreikers** uitgetypt worden. Deze uitreikers moeten ook nog geprint worden voor de dag zelf. Op de dag van de **vergadering** zelf moet **het lokaal** klaargemaakt worden, wat betekent dat er tafels verschoven moeten worden en dat de juiste hoeveelheid stoelen aanwezig moet zijn. Ook moet er contact worden opgenomen met de **restaurant** in jullie gebouw, zodat er in de pauze iets gedronken en gegeten kan worden. Tot slot moet er na de **vergadering** een **uittreksel** verstuurd worden naar de deelnemers, die door een andere

collega getypt is. Het uittreksel moet wel nog gecheckt worden op taalfouten. Tot slot moeten de tafels en stoelen in **het lokaal** ook weer in de **originele situatie** teruggezet worden.

Ten tasks:

1. Zaal/Lokaal huren
2. Uitgenodigde personen/collega's een uitnodiging sturen
3. Presentatie/Slides maken in Powerpoint
4. Hand-outs/Uitreikingen uittypen
5. Hand-outs/Uitreikingen printen
6. Zaal/Lokaal klaarmaken
7. Contact met catering/restauratie
8. Samenvatting/Uittreksel checken
9. Samenvatting/Uittreksel versturen
10. Zaal/Lokaal terugzetten in originele staat/situatie

Appendix 4. Checklist ETC-GW.

1. Is een zorginstelling bij het onderzoeksplan betrokken?

Toelichting: dit is het geval als één van de situaties a/b/c hierna van toepassing is op het voorgenomen onderzoek.

- A. één of meer medewerkers van een zorginstelling is bij het onderzoek betrokken als opdrachtgever of verrichter/uitvoerder
 - B. het onderzoek vindt plaats binnen de muren van de zorginstelling, en dient naar de aard van het onderzoek normaliter niet buiten de muren van de zorginstelling plaats te vinden
 - C. aan het onderzoek nemen patiënten/cliënten van de zorginstelling (in de hoedanigheid van behandeling) deel
- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Ja → Heeft een Medisch-Ethische Toetsingscommissie geoordeeld dat het geplande onderzoek niet WMO-plichtig is?
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Nee → Deze aanvraag moet door een erkende Medisch-Ethische Toetsingscommissie behandeld worden, bijvoorbeeld de [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → einde checklist

2. Wensen subsidiegevers toetsing van het onderzoeksplan door een erkende Medisch-Ethische Toetsingscommissie?

- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Ja → Deze aanvraag moet door een erkende Medisch-Ethische Toetsingscommissie behandeld worden, bijvoorbeeld de [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → einde checklist

3. Is er sprake van een [medisch-wetenschappelijk onderzoek dat mogelijk risico's met zich meebrengt](#) voor de deelnemende persoon?

- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Ja → Deze aanvraag moet door een erkende Medisch-Ethische Toetsingscommissie behandeld worden, bijvoorbeeld de [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → einde checklist

Standaard-onderzoeksmethode

4. Valt de methode van het beoogde onderzoek onder een van de [beschreven standaardonderzoeken](#) van de FdL of FFTR?

- Ja → 12 standaard vragenlijstonderzoek → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist

Deelnemende personen

5. Gaat het bij het voorgenomen onderzoek om een gezonde populatie?

- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)

6. Is er sprake van onderzoek bij minderjarigen (<16 jaar) of bij wilsonbekwamen?

- Ja → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst

Aard van het onderzoek

7. Wordt er een methode gebruikt die het mogelijk maakt bij toeval een bevinding te doen waarvan de deelnemende persoon op de hoogte zou moeten worden gesteld?

- Ja → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst

8. Worden deelnemende personen aan handelingen onderworpen of worden aan de deelnemende personen bepaalde gedragswijzen opgelegd die ongerief kunnen inhouden?

- Ja → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst

9. Zijn de in te schatten risico's verbonden aan het onderzoek minimaal?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

10. Wordt er een andere vergoeding geboden aan de deelnemende personen dan gebruikelijk?

- Ja → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst

11. Indien er [misleiding](#) plaatsvindt, voldoet de procedure dan aan de eisen zoals beschreven in het protocol van de ETC-GW?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

12. Wordt voldaan aan de standaardregels in verband met [anonimiteit en privacy](#) zoals beschreven in het protocol van de ETC-GW?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

Afname van het onderzoek

13. Wordt het onderzoek bij een externe instelling (bijv. school, ziekenhuis) uitgevoerd?

- Nee → doorgaan met vragenlijst
- Ja → Heeft/krijgt u schriftelijke toestemming van deze instelling?
 - Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
 - Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

14. Is er een aanspreekpunt waar deelnemende personen terecht kunnen met vragen over het onderzoek en worden zij hiervan op de hoogte gesteld?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

15. Wordt aan deelnemende personen duidelijk waar klachten over deelname aan het onderzoek kunnen worden geuit en hoe deze behandeld zullen worden?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

16. Zijn de deelnemende personen volledig vrij om deel te nemen aan het onderzoek, en om hiermee op elk moment te stoppen wanneer zij dat willen, om welke reden dan ook?

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

17. Worden deelnemende personen voorafgaand aan deelname voorgelicht over doel, aard en duur, risico's en bezwaren van de studie? (zie [toelichting over informatie en toestemming](#) en [voorbeelddocumenten](#))

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → doorgaan met vragenlijst

18. Tekenende deelnemende personen en/of hun vertegenwoordigers voor toestemming deelname aan onderzoek? (zie [toelichting over informatie en toestemming](#) en [voorbeelddocumenten](#))

- Nee → toetsing noodzakelijk, einde checklist → [ga naar toetsprocedure](#)
- Ja → **checklist afgerond**

Als u de ingevulde resultaten wilt vastleggen, kunt u het ingevulde bestand opslaan.

Als u een goedkeuring van de ETC-GW nodig hebt wegens de vereiste van een tijdschriftredactie of een subsidieverstrekker, zult u de formele toetsprocedure van de ETC-GW moeten doorlopen.