

# Learning to Assess the Cognitive Capacity of Human Partners

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## ABSTRACT

We demonstrate that a robot is capable of learning to recognize the behavioral indicators that a complex, rapidly-evolving task has exceeded the cognitive capacity of a human partner and make an informed decision based upon this assessment.

## Keywords

User modeling and awareness, teamwork and group dynamics, robot behavior design, quantitative field study, learning about the environment

## 1. INTRODUCTION

One of the most challenging obstacles facing human-robot teams is the inherent communication barrier between the two. Human operators, at least once they have received training, have some notion concerning the capacities of their mechanized partners, but the ability of robots to assess the limitations of humans has not received adequate attention.

The robot is trained to associate human directions with task quality for a well-understood task, in this case, the navigation of a maze. The robot may then apply this learned model to a different problem while still being able to evaluate a human operator's cognitive load. Even without the ability to understand the end goal of this new task. Human-robot interactions can be evaluated using fundamental metrics [3] like task effectiveness (TE), neglect tolerance (NT), free time (FT), fan out (FO). Physiological metrics as objective evaluation along with subjective evaluation for cognitive load estimate[1].

## 2. TECHNICAL DETAILS

### 2.1 Problem statement

Take  $H = [h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m]$  to be a vector of ecologically valid measurements of human behavior relevant to the problem space. Assume a task for which a robot participant can

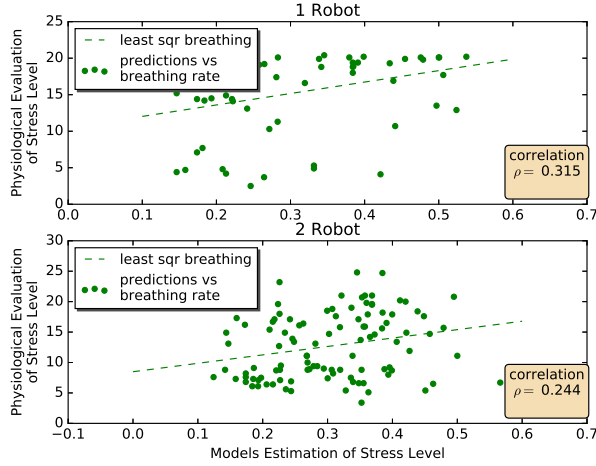
independently calculate  $s$  which is a function of a vector of measurable environmental features  $E = [e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n]$ . Thus,  $s = f(E)$ , where  $f$  is a task-specific function known to the robot. Using  $f$  and calculating  $s$ , a robot can build its own supervised training set for a learning task, where the human input  $H$  is associated with  $s$  through a learned function  $g$ . Thus, the robot learns to associate the human behavioral metrics  $H$  with task success  $s$  within a known task, so the output of  $g$  is a learned *estimate* of the true success ( $\hat{s} = g(H)$ ). Now, assign the robot a task which requires human input for success, i.e., the robot has no access to an analogue to  $f$  or  $s$  in this new task. However, it can still measure the components of  $H$ , and it has access to its learned model  $g$ . We show that computing  $\hat{s} = g(H)$  in this new environment allows the robot to estimate not the task success, but the cognitive load on its human partner and an estimate of the quality of the human's direction.

### 2.2 Experimental design

Our experiments consisted two games, namely, the Maze and the Coin. Effectively navigating a Maze game has been demonstrated in literature [2]. In the Maze game, the robot collected the data needed to build a model  $g$  for evaluating the trustworthiness of user input  $H$ . In the subsequent Coin Game, the robot is placed in a different scenario, one in which it had no access to success measures or even rules; beyond the fact that it was moving in a similar environment to the Maze Game. Even so, with no independent means of measuring task success, it can still calculate  $\hat{s} = g(H)$ , and can therefore evaluate the quality of instruction, and hence the cognitive capacity, of its human partner. Communication between operators and robots was achieved using the Robot Operating System (ROS).

In the Maze Game, vector of environmental measurements  $E = [e_0, e_1, e_2]$ . In this particular context,  $e_0$  is the *disparity* term, the distance between the navigation directions provided by a human and the route that the robot would have planned for itself,  $e_1$  is the *collision* term, which penalizes collisions with walls, and  $e_2$  is the *time delay* term, the amount of time taken for the human to guide the robot through the maze, compared with the robot's estimate of the time it would have taken under its own power. The computation of  $s = f(E)$  is a function for measuring success of the human directions, is a normalized summation of all metric in  $E$ .

By computing this value  $s$ , the robot can label its own data in order to train a supervised learning algorithm which will relate the success of a human-directed task with a set of measured behaviors  $H = [h_0, h_1, h_2]$ . For this particular



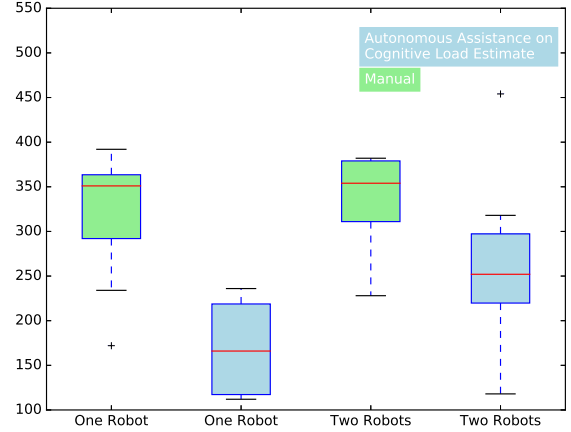
**Figure 1: Models predicted stress level vs Physiological metrics in coin game experiment.**

experiment,  $h_0$  is the *decision interval* term, which measures the time elapsed between the robot reaching a navigation goal and the human providing a new one,  $h_1$  is the *error correction* term, which measures the tendency of a human operator to provide a navigation goal and then subsequently provide another before the task is complete, and  $h_2$  is the *franticness* term, which characterizes erratic behavior for the control inputs.

## 2.3 Results

In general, the robot correctly predicts the cognitive load that its operator was under in every scenario Fig ?? . From our experiments we have found that the cognitive load estimate from the robots using our model correlates with the coder evaluated stress level by a factor  $\rho = .205$  and  $\rho = .25$  for coin game played with one and two robots respectively. Our experiment also captures that posture and breathing rate of human operator as objective metric for estimating cognitive stress level. We could not find any interesting pattern in other physiological objective metrics i.e. heart rate, ECG amplitude using our model and experimental setup. The benefits of this can be seen in Fig 2. It is critical for interpreting the information in Fig. ?? or 1 to note that while the robot's cognitive load evaluation and the scoring technique for quantifying self-reported user stress both produce a result between zero and one *their magnitudes are not directly comparable*. Whenever cognitive stress occurs or changes, the robot is able to recognize this increase for most cases in the tested scenarios, and the robot's evaluation agrees with self-reported user stress.

Most important contribution of our model can has been demonstrated from the perspective of task success. The task success of the coin game is measured in term of number of coins collected within given time. Tab.1. It shows that autonomous assistance improves overall task success. In the context of this paper, it also supports the original hypothesis: robots can are able to reliably assess the cognitive strain their human partners are under, even in contexts where the actual tasks they are being asked to perform are opaque to the robot.



**Figure 2: Comparison of task task success for task involving one and two robots operating in both manual and autonomous modes. Task success has been quantified as task completion time with additional penalty for failure to complete the task (loosing the Coin game).**

**Table 1: Task success comparisons between autonomous assistance mood and manual mood. Autonomous assistance was activated on detection of high stress level predicted by our model.**

Game Mode	Manual		Autonomous Assistance on high Stress level	
	one	two	one	two
Number of Robots Participated	one	two	one	two
Number of Failure/ Total Number of Game Played	3/7	3/7	0/10	1/10
Task Success Score per game	318	355	170	258.2

### 3. CONCLUSIONS

Every day humans interact with more and more technologies that require us to decide whether or not to trust them; robots should be making similar determinations about us. In the future, we plan to extend this research into complex heterogeneous teams of humans and robots performing real-world tasks.

### 4. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

### 5. REFERENCES

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