On the Difficulty of Calibrated Trust In Automated Vehicles

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In this position paper, we discuss the difficulty in calibrating trust in automated vehicles based on our recent research. We review current approaches to measure calibrated trust, how uncertainty is incorporated in machine learning models, how uncertainty can be visualized, and which levels of automation could be a basis for communication.

CCS Concepts: • **Human-centered computing → HCI theory, concepts and models**.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: trust; calibration; automated vehicles

ACM Reference Format:

Anonymous Author(s). 2023. On the Difficulty of Calibrated Trust In Automated Vehicles. 1, 1 (February 2023), 7 pages. https://doi.org/10.1145/nnnnnnn.nnnnnnn

1 INTRODUCTION

Automated vehicles (AVs) have the potential to fundamentally alter mobility patterns [11], allowing passengers to engage in a variety of non-driving related tasks (NDRTs) [7, 37] and increasing mobility for individuals who may have previously been unable to drive, such as the elderly or those with impairments [11].

However, with the introduction of this novel technology, concerns surrounding personal safety, such as under- or overtrust, have emerged [26, 40]. For example, Schoettle and Sivak [40] found that 75% were, at least, slightly concerned that there would be system failure if AVs encounter unexpected situations.

Undertrust in AVs may result in limited usage of this powerful technology, while overtrust may lead to over-usage and potential abuse of the system [3, 43]. Previous research has investigated methods to address these concerns, such as highlighting other vehicles in poor weather conditions [43], pedestrian intent [3], object detection [4], or vehicle trajectories [5].

The concept of "calibrated trust" [34] refers to a situation where the level of trust a user has in an automated system is appropriate to the system's capabilities. There are two main requirements for this are:

(1) A proper definition of **what** system capabilities are meant and **how** they can be quantified.
(2) Appropriate communication methods of system capabilities and limitations.

2 TRUST IN AUTOMATED VEHICLES

Trust in AVs is a subset of the broader field of trust in automation, and it directly affects passengers' attitudes and usage of automation [33]. It is also a significant factor in the acceptance of automation by humans [16, 35, 38, 42]. Different models propose different definitions of trust. For example, Lee and See define trust as "the attitude that an agent will help achieve an individual's goals in a situation characterized by uncertainty and vulnerability" [27, p. 51], and model trust as a feedback loop between automation and the user (i.e., the passenger). They suggest that the display of the automation can influence how the passenger perceives it and builds trust. They also propose that a trustee has three

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Manuscript submitted to ACM

bases: Performance, Process, and Purpose. The most relevant recommendations for the communication of AVs of Lee and See [27] are to reveal the process and algorithms of the automation, make the automation understandable, and present the classification of situations relative to the automation's capabilities.

Hoff and Bashier define trust as "a variable that often determines the willingness of human operators to rely on automation" [14, p. 407] and propose a three-layered trust model (dispositional trust, situational trust, and learned trust).

Körber defines trust based on the dimensions proposed by Mayer et al. [30] and Lee and See [27] and suggests that trust is influenced by Competence/Reliability, Understandability/Predictability, and the Intention of Developers, as well as Familiarity and Propensity to Trust.

Ekman et al. [9] used Lee and See's [27] model as a basis to create a framework specifically intended for creating HMIs that create trust in AVs, and suggest that an HMI should present continuous information about upcoming events and how common goals are met to allow the passenger insight into the system process.

Key Challenge: Determine the appropriateness of the different trust models.

3 STATE-OF-THE-ART IN MEASURING (CALIBRATED) TRUST

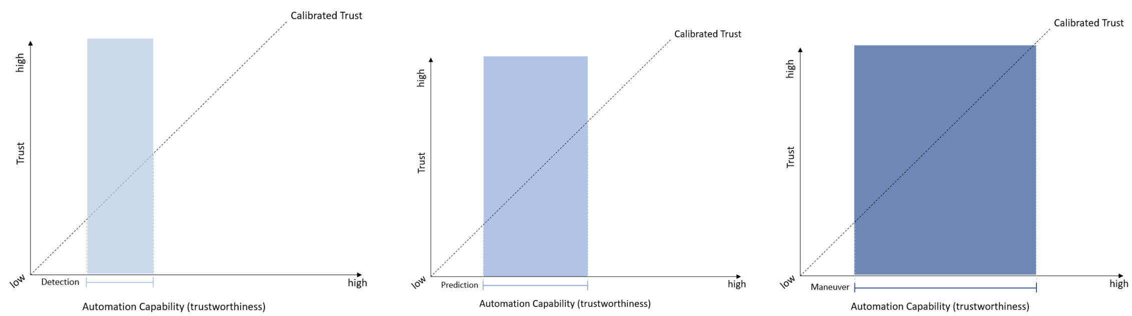
Several questionnaires have been proposed for measuring trust. Jian et al. [17] demonstrated that trust and distrust can be measured on a common scale using 12 items related to trust in machines, which were assessed using seven-point Likert scales. On the other hand, Körber [20] used a five-point Likert scale and employed two or more questions for each category, based on the models of Lee and See [27] and Mayer et al. [30].

Additionally, Krueger et al. [21] showed that brain imaging can be used to detect trust-building. Therefore, physiological measures [1], such as heart rate or brain activity, can also be used to infer trust in the system.

However, measuring calibrated trust is difficult. Methods could be borrowed from adjacent types of difficult-to-measure constructs such as mode confusion [25]. Often, interviews are often used [18, 25]. Other measurements include the time required to recognize a problematic mode [18] or letting participants determine the system's current mode [28]. Therefore, currently, surveys and interviews are used to assess users' perceptions and beliefs about the system's capabilities and their own trust in the system. Additionally, in experiments, such as simulated or real-world scenarios, researchers can observe users' behavior and decision-making while interacting with the system, providing a more objective measure of trust.

Schlicker et al. [39] propose to determine the actual characteristics to determine what they call "actual trustworthiness". This is based on observable cues, which have to be defined. This is, however, not trivial. On which functional levels should these cues be? How many cues are necessary to assess actual trustworthiness for non-trivial automation such as AVs?

McDermott and Brink [31] try to provide more practical guidelines. They define four dimensions for trust: Belief: Does the user believe that the automation will accomplish what it is designed to do? Understanding: Does the user understand system errors and limitations? Intent: Does the user intend to use the automation? Reliance: Does the user actually use automation? Furthermore, they introduce the concept of *Calibration Points*. These calibration points refer to instances in which the automation performs according to different capability levels, that is good or bad. By leveraging these calibration points, one can assess whether over- or undertrust is present. Again, defining these instances is difficult and might not underpin necessary subsystems of automation such as AVs.



(a) Detection range (b) Prediction range (c) Planning range

Fig. 1. Calibration possibilities

The reliance on situation and context is also highlighted by Holthausen et al. [15]. They propose six situational trust factors: Trust, Performance, NDRT, Risky, Judgement, and Reaction.

Finally, Mirnig et al. [32] provide an initial framework for trust calibration. They define functional levels (operational, tactical, and strategical) and the interaction (Perceive, Understand, Predict, and Adapt). Therefore, trust should be calibrated for each of the 12 (3 times 4) subtasks. This framework, however, does not take the situation into account.

Overall, the specific method of measuring calibrated trust depends on the goals of the research and the characteristics of the system being evaluated.

Key Challenge: Develop appropriate methods to determine trust level.

4 POTENTIAL CUE LEVELS IN AUTOMATED VEHICLES

In modern functional hierarchies of AVs [8, 22, 41], input from cameras, radars, lidars, maps, and GPS is used to construct an environmental model. This model involves detecting objects in the scene ("Situation Detection"), predicting their likely future states ("Situation Prediction"), and integrating this information into the AV's decision-making process ("Maneuver Planning"). Communicating information to the user at any of these stages can calibrate trust and improve the technical maturity assessment of the vehicle [5].

This categorization is simple and represents the three levels of situation awareness proposed by Endsley et al. [10].

The difficulty in applying this framework lies in the different ranges of capabilities. For example, the detection of objects has a given range of capability (see Figure 1a). As the prediction of the actions of other entities directly relies on the detection and introduces novel challenges, the range is bigger for prediction (see Figure 1b). Finally, the planning of the own trajectory includes all the previous information, leading to novel challenges and an even wider range of possibilities (see Figure 1c).

Key Challenge: Determine which levels of uncertainty visualization are appropriate and how they relate.

5 UNCERTAINTY IN MACHINE LEARNING

As today's AVs rely heavily on machine learning, the uncertainty of their reliance stems not only from faulty sensors but also from faulty interpretation of the data. Machine learning models nowadays often include an uncertainty measure [12]. Gawlikowski et al. [12] distinguish five factors for uncertainty: (1) Variability in Real World Situations, (2) Error and Noise in Measurement Systems, (3) Errors in the Model Structure, (4) Errors in the Training Procedure, and (5) Errors Caused by Unknown Data.

The value associated with a given output is often called *Predictive Uncertainty* [12]. There are several causes and computational approaches, which are described by Gawlikowski et al. [12]. This uncertainty has to be communicated to calibrate trust.

Key Challenge: Understand the uncertainty of machine learning approaches.

6 VISUALIZING UNCERTAINTY

To calibrate trust, it is necessary to be able to communicate uncertainty to users.

This has been done in various ways in different fields. There are two widely recognized methods for communicating uncertainty: graphical annotations and visual encodings. Five types of uncertainty encodings in figures are fuzziness, location, arrangement, size, and transparency as described by Padilla et al. [36]. These encodings can be combined to effectively communicate uncertainty. According to MacEachren et al. [29], color, shape, orientation, or grain can also be used as uncertainty encodings. Their study found that fuzziness and location were highly effective while value and arrangement were also rated positively. Size and transparency were considered potentially usable, while saturation was rated low. To address this issue, Correll et al. proposed Value-Suppressing Uncertainty Palettes [6]. This approach enables the communication of a greater number of values with low uncertainty and fewer values with high uncertainty, as it maps values and their associated uncertainty independently [6, 19].

In the automotive domain, Kunze et al. [23] demonstrated through a sorting study on visual variables that hue is particularly effective in conveying a sense of urgency. In a subsequent study, Kunze et al. [24] emphasized the importance of reducing workload while conveying uncertainty. To achieve this, they proposed the use of a light strip and a vibrotactile seat instead of an instrument cluster, so as to allow users to maintain their focus on the road. Beller et al. [2] took a different approach by using abstract representations of uncertainty. They used an anthropomorphic symbol to indicate system limits while Helldin et al. [13] employed bars.

Colley et al. [3] employed color-coded symbols visualized over pedestrians to convey uncertainty in crossing decisions. Also, Colley et al. [4] used the result of the semantic segmentation to directly visualize the RGB camera picture, which directly includes the uncertainty information (see Figure 2).

Therefore, while previous work has shown numerous attempts at uncertainty visualization, it is unclear which is most appropriate for the AV context.

Key Challenge: Develop appropriate uncertainty visualization for the AV context.

(a) Derived pedestrian intentions; taken from [3].

(b) Display of the semantic segmentation result; taken from [4].

Fig. 2. Examples from previous publications regarding the visualization of detected objects and intentions.

7 ON THE NEED OF RELIABLE DATA

To be able to determine what McDermott and Brink [31] call “Calibration Points”, there is the requirement to know how AVs will behave in these scenarios. However, currently, vehicle manufacturers are only required to report minimal data about crashes: Name of the reporting entity; Make, model and model year of the vehicle involved in the incident; A unique vehicle identifier; Incident information (e.g., incident month and year); A unique incident identifier; Incident scene (e.g., roadway type); Crash description (e.g., object crash occurred with); Post-crash information (e.g., the indication of any investigation by a law enforcement agency); Narrative (e.g., description of the pre-crash, crash and post-crash details)[1]. With this data, the incident cannot be reconstructed, as the description is too broad (real data from a current report, for example, roadway type: street; roadway surface: dry; roadway description: traffic incident).

Currently, researchers developing measures to calibrate trust, have to make assumptions about AV’s capabilities, which could be totally wrong. Therefore, it is required to make these incident reports accessible to be repeatable, for example, via Unity.

Key Challenge: Relevant data to enable researchers to study appropriate scenarios has to be acquired.

8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there are numerous challenges when trying to calibrate trust. In this position paper, we named the missing data on how well AVs perform in certain situations, the possibility to visualize uncertainty, and the difficulty in assessing which trust level is appropriate.

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Received February 2023