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**Measuring Exosystem Operator Use Intent: The Exosystem Use Intent Model - Industrial**

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### **1 REFERENCES**

See Appendix A for a full list of references.

### **2 PURPOSE**

The purpose of this paper is to propose a methodology for the measurement of an exoskeleton operator's cognitive perceptions and attitudes, leading up to their intention to use the exoskeleton to complete future industrial work tasks. Note that this version of the EUI is meant to only measure exosystem operators in an industrial environment. Exosystem operator use intent in the medical or military fields will be addressed in future documents.

# **3 BACKGROUND**

Human interaction with technology has been studied for thousands of years, yet modern scientific work in this field can trace its roots back only to the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, beginning with the time-motion studies of Taylor and Gilbreth, continuing towards the pioneering work of Fitts and Chapanis, Broadbent [1], and Wickens [2]. Human interaction studies have evolved as technology advancement has exploded. This explosion has enabled modern technology, specifically robotics, to perform many tasks such as assembly work in a highly controlled environment. As of the date this paper is written, however, basic human/machine function allocation still calls upon a human's adaptability and creativity to accomplish tasks that automated robotics cannot due to an uncontrolled environment. For this reason, current technology has produced "wearables" (including exoskeletons and exosuits, hereafter called exosystems). These devices are placed on the human in order to extend the human body's domain into tasks that would benefit from the productivity afforded by robotic systems, while taking advantage of the adaptability and creativity of the human mind. Exosystems can be further defined as a unique interface of the human (both cognitively and physiologically), machine hardware, and computers (hardware and software). A human's psychological aspects of this "cobotic" interaction are as of yet largely unknown [3]. This proposed methodology measures those engineering psychological factors using a modified TAMII model, as well as four existing human factor constructs: usability, workload, situational awareness (SA), and trust in automation.

The domain of prosthetic devices has yielded valuable lessons about human interaction with wearable technology—specifically about the use and abandonment of wearable technology that, while both high-tech and well-intentioned in its design, does not meet its human user's goals and expectations. Jarrasse et al. [4] point out, "While physical interaction with robots is becoming common in many domains, numerous devices are not appropriated by their users and

remain unused in the cupboard. This phenomenon is observed particularly with robotic devices that are designed to interact closely with the body."

Such lack of acceptance by users of robotic prosthetics—in some cases leading to total abandonment—can be due to any number of physiological, psychological, social, cultural, and/or anthropological aspects. Discovery of these aspects will lead to a decrease in desertion of exosystem technology. The objective of this paper is three-fold:

- To propose a methodology *broad* enough to test human factor/engineering psychology aspects of exosystems used in different work tasks within the industrial work domain.
- To create a methodology *flexible* enough to catch future developments in exosystem technology; a certainty to happen in the near future.
- To create a methodology *short* enough, *inexpensive* enough, and *easy enough to apply* for small shop managers to practice while testing exosystem models for use in their facilities, while still *in-depth* enough for large, well-funded, lab-based studies.

### **3.1 Human/System Interaction Models**

To address the problem of lack of acceptance and abandonment, earlier models of human/machine interaction have evolved to utilize and integrate technologies with human activity/task contexts.

In one attempt to solve the abandonment problem by computer users and improve human/system interaction predictions in the software domain, John Brooke [5] produced what he called a "quick and dirty" questionnaire on the user's subjective opinions of a system: the System Usability Scale (SUS). The SUS questionnaire askes subjects their level of agreement with the following post-test Likert scale questions:

- I think that I would like to use this system frequently
- I found the system unnecessarily complex
- I thought the system was easy to use
- I think that I would need the support of a technical person to be able to use this system
- I found the various functions in this system were well integrated
- I thought there was too much inconsistency in this system
- I would imagine that most people would learn to use this system very quickly
- I found the system very cumbersome to use
- I felt very confident using the system
- I needed to learn a lot of things before I could get going with this system

Use of the SUS questionnaire improved human-system interactions, but did not eliminate the abandonment problem. Valuable, well-intentioned resources also suffer from the persistent issue of abandonment by intended users in a slightly different domain, Assistive Technology (AT). AT is described as any item, piece of equipment, software program, or product system that is used to increase, maintain, or improve the functional capabilities of persons with disabilities [6]. To remedy abandonment, the Human Activity/Assistive Technology (HAAT) model was developed to pre-test AT users. HAAT is "a conceptual model that incorporates three

common elements of a user's environment: the human/person; the activity/occupation; and the context/environment [7]." Even though SUS attempted to account for the environmental context of computer users, it fell short in ways that HAAT did not. According to Giesbrecht, "[T]he context is understood to be more than the location and physical conditions in which an activity occurs. The impact of social, cultural and institutional factors is embedded and the relevance of the activity to the individual is paramount [7]." By including the elements of the human user's occupational and environmental context the HAAT model led to a further decrease of the abandonment problem.

Returning to the software domain, an improvement upon the SUS questionnaire led to the creation of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Figure 1) [8]. Similar to the approach used by the HAAT model, TAM incorporates a focus on environmental context and is based on two closely related human psychological constructs: the Theory of Reasoned Action [9] and the Theory of Planned Behavior [10]. In the diagram presented in Figure 1, an individual's cognitive processes flow from left to right. TAM separates a user's cognitive perceptions into two separate categories: how they perceive the technology's usefulness to the task and how they perceive the technology's ease of use.



**Figure 1. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)**

A later evolution to the TAM, developed by Venkatesh and Davis [11] and called the TAMII, expanded on what the TAM labels "External Variables" but still utilized a cognitive flow from external (exogenous) variables or factors through internal (endogenous) variables or factors. This flow from exogenous through endogenous factors culminates in a person's behavior towards a technological system.

TAMII continued to be extended and modified and was eventually re-labeled as the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) model [12] (Figure 2). The UTAUT posits three direct determinants of intention to use (performance expectancy, effort expectancy, and social influence) and two direct determinants of usage behavior (intention and facilitating conditions). Its main difficulty, pointed out by Elprama et al.'s study of industrial workers' intent to use exosystems [13] is that "the UTAUT model is developed for the evaluation of IT in particular rather than all forms of technology in general. As a result, future research might focus on the development of a better question battery for evaluating the acceptance of exoskeletons."

Still, some of the queries posited by the developers of UTAUT [12] on what they label "moderating influences" can be extremely valuable for developing a better exosystem question battery. Venkatesh [12] points out that in UTAUT, "[W]hile each of the (previously) existing models in the domain is quite successful in predicting technology usage behavior, it is only when one considers the complex range of potential moderating influences that a more complete picture of the dynamic nature of individual perceptions about technology begins to emerge." Researchers identified "… moderating influences of experience, voluntariness, gender, and age were confirmed as integral features of UTAUT [12]."



**Figure 2. The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) Model**

Park [14] further modified the TAMII interaction representation into what he called a "Theoretically Interesting Model" (Figure 3). This model takes into account more of the "moderating influences" described in UTAUT that effect factors in the task environment than either TAM or TAMII. In this particular case, Park addresses a computer e-learning system designed to be used by college students. He limits his model modifications to external,

exogenous factors on the Y-axis, while keeping Davis' original endogenous factors [8] flowing on the X-axis. The exogenous factors include Individual Factors, Social Factors, and Organizational Factors, which together form a more complete picture of the user's environmental context. Endogenous factors include the Cognitive Domain, the Affective Domain, and the Behavioral Domain.



**Figure 3. Park's "Theoretically Interesting Model" Based on TAMII**

### **4 TECHNOLOGY ACCEPTANCE MODEL MODIFICATIONS: THE EXOSYSTEM USE INTENT (EUI) MODEL**

Modifications to the exogenous factors of Park's TAMII model [14] can account for different task environments and the user's intent to use different technologies in those environments, in our case a cobotic exosystem. Exogenous factors, originating from outside the user, include mostly the physical and environmental aspects of the human/machine system; these include the Task Context, the Social Context, and the Individual Context. Endogenous factors are the same as in the TAMII: perceptive factors, attitude (affective or emotional) factors, and behavioral (intent) factors. As presented in Figure 4, human cognitive action flows from the exogenous factors on the left through the endogenous factors on the right. This flow from the exogenous through the endogenous factors (or domains) forms the Exosystem Use Intent (EUI) model (Figure 4), which can give us a methodology broad enough to test human factor/engineering psychology aspects of exosystems.

As presented in Figure 4, normal cognitive flow can be traced by the thicker arrows, yet almost all exogenous sub-factors can affect any endogenous sub-factor outside of the normal flow. This is shown by the thinner arrows, and represents a phenomenon similar to what Venkatesh [12] called "moderating influences."



**Figure 4. The Exosystem Use Intent Model (EUI)**

In their work on developing a model for human interaction with automation, Parasuraman, Sheridan, and Wickens [15] developed a four-stage model of human information processing (Figure 5) that they admitted was "a gross simplification of the many components of human information processing."



**Figure 5. Simple Four-stage Model of Human Information Processing**

This simple human processing model, however, was used to establish human-machine processing functions that could be automated and was created to guide future designers of human-automation interaction. The EUI functions (Figure 4) align well with those of the four-stage model (Figure 5) in their movement from left to right across their respective diagrams:

- 1. Exogenous factors (Sensory Processing)
- 2. Perspective factors (Perception/Working Memory)
- 3. Affective Factors (Decision Making)
- 4. Behavioral Factors (Response Selection)

While the EUI may represent an over-simplification of human information processing similar to the one used by Parasuraman, Sheridan, and Wickens, the EUI does acknowledge its inter-dependent nature with each of its factors. Each factor of the EUI model relates to a group of questions listed in Appendices B, C, D, and E. Any of the questions listed can either be included or not used in a final EUI questionnaire, according to the individual experiment designer's needs. For examples of practical use, see Appendix G.

# **4.1 Exogenous Factors**

Much like the HAAT model [7], the exogenous factors/contexts within the EUI of Task, Social, and Individual, together describe the user's perceptions of the environment in which the exosystem is used.

# **4.1.1 Task Context**

Exogenous task factors include the human/exosystem's compatibility with the operator's specified task to be performed. Examples include exosystem compatibility with the user's task-related movements, task-related auxiliary equipment, task workspace, and weight distribution. This is analogous to Stirling's [25] "Static and dynamic fit":

"Given that the static fit evaluates the alignment between human and the equipment, understanding the anthropometric characteristics of the target users as well as the geometric features of the equipment is critical. Dynamic fit assesses how the human and equipment move and interact with each other during functional ROM [Range of Motion] and task performance, with a focus on the relative alignment of the kinematic linkages between the two systems."

The design of exosystem technology is extremely task dependent. For example, hammers differ in design depending on their tasks – carpenter hammers, upholstery hammers, and demolition hammers all differ in design. So do exosystem designs between the domains of industrial, health/rehabilitation, and the Military, as well as specific tasks within a domain. For example, exoskeletons used for overhead work in the industrial environment differ in design from exosuits designed for manual material handling in the industrial environment. Each design will vary in the amount of risk it presents to a user, depending on the case, activity, task, and subsequent subtasks associated with the exosystem's use [7, 12, 16, 17, 28].

In one of the few field studies on exosystems, Gastaldi [19] pointed out the importance of considering the work environment: "… studies run on non-workers may suffer from a bias, since they lack the perception and acceptance assessment of the intended user. Introduction in the work environment brings in further constraints in the exoskeleton architecture and devices."

In another field study on exoskeletons, Weston et al. [20] stated that future exosystem interventions need to anticipate task contexts, specifically "…how mechanical loads might be shifted or transferred with their use." Their study, in which subjects used an exovest with an articulation tool support arm, found that use of the Exovest actually increased spinal loading by not taking into account the additional load created by task-related auxiliary equipment.

# **4.1.2 Social Context**

Many of the previous models relevant to the "intention to use" construct discuss the influence of social factors on a user's decision. The Theory of Planned Behavior [10] and subsequent models of TAM and TAMII [8, 14, 21, 22] list what they call the "subjective norm," referring to "…the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior [10]." The UTAUT model lists three direct determinants of intention to use, one of which is the influence of social aspects [12].

In the medical field, while designers of advanced robotic prosthetics strive for their devices to become included into the patient's "body image," often the user rejects it for a simpler, mechanical cable-based device. In their article on robotic prosthetics, Jarasse [4] points out that for prosthetics in general:

"[S]ome patients describe their prosthesis as an external entity, sometimes a partner, sometimes an adversary, with which they are engaged in a sort of "social" relationship… Clinicians are regularly confronted with users who, after having tried a recent myoelectric prosthesis, prefer to go back to a mechanical cable-based device or even a purely aesthetic limb.

This observation is, actually, not very surprising. The anthropology of technology, among other fields, has shown for a long time that many phenomena other than technical performance condition the appropriation and use of a technical device, particularly when the device is designed to interact with the body."

Currently, Appendix B lists six possible questions on influence of the social context that can affect an operator's intention to use an exosystem in the future. While the EUI will undoubtedly expand in all sections in the future with new knowledge coming to light, the questions surrounding social contexts are most likely to be modified.

# **4.1.3 Individual Context**

The Individual Context effecting exosystem future use consists of only a single concept: the user's perceived self-efficacy, or how well they think they will perform the task *before* they perform their task. Ajzen [10] calls this "perceived behavioral control." Venkatesh and Davis [21] originally proposed that the perception of Ease of Use is very dependent on its antecedent judgement, self-efficacy. They define self-efficacy as "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations." In looking at an e-learning computer software system, the authors concluded that "(C)omputer self-efficacy acts as a determinant of perceived ease of use *both before and after* hands-on use," and that objective usability was found to be a determinant of Ease of Use only after direct experience with a system.

Self-efficacy, in relation to exosystems, is an important psychological concept to measure both before and after hands-on system use. Either an increase or decrease in scoring self-efficacy after use can relate to a user's perception of confidence to complete the task, which can be attributable to the exosystem.

In his modified TAMII model, Park [14] executed multiple bivariate analyses on his model's exogenous and endogenous factors, and similarly found self-efficacy had a large influence on perceived Ease of Use and an even larger effect on an operator's Intention to Use a system. Similar to the Park's model and questionnaire, the EUI uses self-efficacy as the only exogenous Individual Context factor in his model [Figure 4].

This concept of self-efficacy might be related to a concept in psychology best defined by the Kruger-Dunning effect: the cognitive bias of illusionary superiority [23, 24]. However, this potential relationship is beyond the scope of this paper.

# **4.2 Endogenous Factors**

Endogenous factors, introspective elements originating from inside the user, include the user's cognitive perceptions of the exosystem's ease of use, the user's perceptions of the exosystem's usefulness, and the user's attitudes/judgments of the exosystem formed by those perceptions. Stirling [25] defines three types of "fit" regarding the human operator and exosystems: "Exosystem fit is defined across three characteristics (static, dynamic, and cognitive). These characteristics are not independent and interact with each other within defined motor tasks." Endogenous factors are analogous to Stirling's cognitive fit:

"Cognitive fit refers to supporting the perception–cognition–action decision process of the human when wearing the exosystem. This characteristic is relevant to exosystem fit as the operator's cognitive capability must be maintained such that operational tasks, including decision-making, can be adequately performed. The operator should be free to process task- and stimulus-related information, as well as to choose and complete the appropriate physical actions that the exoskeleton supports. Issues related to cognitive fit include somatosensation, executive function, and motor-action selection."

# **4.2.1 Perceptive Factors**

Endogenous Perceptive factors for the EUI model remain similar to those within TAM, with two additional sub-factors: Perceived Ease of Use and Perceived Usefulness.

# **4.2.1.1 Perceived Ease of Use**

Some previous exosystem studies have concluded that the final intention to use an exosystem is largely driven by perceived Ease of Use. Elprama [13] noted "… the intention to use exoskeletons is mostly driven by cognitively perceived ease of use of exoskeletons as opposed to the expected increase in performance. This is not surprising because exoskeletons are especially developed to reduce efforts whereas performance increase is only of secondary importance."

To achieve this increased endogenous perception of Ease of Use, and with it Stirling's [25] "Cognitive fit," it is critical to have a good physiological "Static and Dynamic" fit, both exogenous factors. Without either, discomfort and even injury become risks. Stirling goes on to warn that, "The impact of poor fit on mobility may also lead to deeper changes in motor-plan selection, as well as increased attention toward task completion, increasing overall physical and cognitive workload, and risking diminished operational performance." This highlights the highly interactive nature of exosystems, human physiology, and human psychology.

# **4.2.1.2 Perceived Usefulness**

Much as the HATT model achieved success in decreasing abandonment of assistive technologies by taking into account the environmental context in which the assistive technology is to be used, applying context by adding the versatility factor of usefulness in regard to an operator's attitude toward using an exosystem in the future, will enable designers to decrease exoskeleton non-use and enable purchasers to avoid systems that do not take usefulness/versatility into account.

Any task is comprised of a number of subtasks. For example, if a task entails bringing in a chair from the next room, the task's subtasks might include walking up to the door of the next room, grasping and turning the door knob, pushing or pulling the door open, walking through the doorway, grasping the chair, then walking back through the doorway with the chair. Being unable to perform any of these subtasks would make the initial task impossible. A worker's typical job would include perhaps dozens of tasks, with maybe hundreds of sub-tasks. Perceived usefulness describes the test subject's perception of the versatility of being able to perform multiple tasks and sub-tasks.

Another consideration with the construct of usefulness is the exosystem's ability to provide feedback and furnish knowledge concerning a process or output. In their work on a student e-leaning software tool, Martinez-Argüelles et al. [27] state that:

"Usefulness of personalized feedback perceived by the students can be subsumed under two large dimensions: the one that facilitates learning (related to its semantic dimension) and the motivational one (by allowing an easier and more fluid communication with the tutor, contributing not to leave the course, etc.). The latter dimension has been also proved to be key in order to attain improvements in the students' satisfaction with the learning process."

Whether a teacher supplying motivation to a student so they do not drop a class, or a hammer providing tactile feedback sensations up a user's arm to let them know they have hit a nail directly on its head, feedback from a tool/system can provide useful information not only for future performance improvement but motivation to continue for future use. Feedback information from exosystems will differ according to each exosystem's design and usage. Future systems may include computerized, AI "assistants" to help with an industrial task, similar to the role of a tutor in conjunction with an e-learning system.

# **4.2.2 Attitude (Affective) Factor**

The over-simplified model of human information processing contained in both TAMM II and the EUI (Figures 3 and 4) includes Attitude Factors. The Attitude factor provides space to address a user's emotional dynamics. Pauen [29], in his research on emotion, decision-making, and mental models, holds that:

"Rational decisions may require the participation of emotions. It would follow that an adequate model of real-world decision-making has to account for emotions in some way or other. Due to their multi-modal character and because they preserve the structure of the objects or states of affairs they represent, mental models are particularly well-suited for this undertaking."

For this reason, the Attitude factor is also co-labeled as the Affective factor, and includes feelings and emotions about the exosystem.

The user's mental model of the system is formed in part by their attitude and emotions toward it. As mentioned by Pauen [29] and repeated by Stangl [32] (below), emotions play a large part in the formation of mental models:

"Mental models are a framework in the brain for new learning situations, which are based on experiences/meanings and which are influenced by a persons' personality and the environment. Thereby, emotions and feelings are considered emotional mental models while thoughts and believes are accounted for by cognitive models. In learning situations new information is compared with existing content (believes and emotions) and structures, then; an adapted cognitive and emotional mental model is generated. Human beings' feelings, reactions, and behavior towards stimuli (person/situation/product/brand/service) are guided by emotional mental models."

This fact that emotions help build mental models is one of the reasons why Norman [30] concluded mental models are "typically incomplete, can be unscientific, are unstable (forgetting occurs), and do not have firm boundaries." The same may be said of human emotions. At the same time, Nielsen [31] optimistically notes: "Hopefully, users' thinking is closely related to reality because they base their

predictions about the system on their mental models and thus plan their future actions based on how that model predicts the appropriate course."

When learning an exosystem that is new to them, most industrial novice users tend to have a preconceived mental model of exosystem physiological control: the device should just mimic their movements. They feel they shouldn't have to "control" the exosystem at all. Exosystem designers do their best to accommodate this. As de Looze et al. [33] point out:

"The exoskeleton has a similar skeletal structure compared to the human body involving a series of many actuated joints. The main advantage is that the footprint of the exoskeleton is relatively small as it adheres directly to the body, and the movements should in theory be unrestricted. The movements of the worker are copied by the exoskeleton, i.e. the limbs of the human and the exoskeleton are aligned during motion."

Further studies, however, have provided evidence that such control is not always the case in reality. In her work on human motor control and learning to operate a large active exosystem, Srinivasan [34] pointed out there is a learning curve, with one of her test subjects saying, "You have to think hard: you basically have another human being on your body that you are controlling." This was echoed by Bequette et al. [35], looking at military application of a lower-body active exosystem. Both studies' findings indicated a large amount of individual variability in subjects using the exosystem, suggesting that a learning effect takes place while the individual user develops both emotional and cognitive mental models according to their individual perceptions and emotions. Once formed, these mental models constantly change, which is echoed by Stirling [36] when she calls mental models an "evolving memory structure that provide a dynamic representation of the environment, as well as descriptive interrelationships for a set of objects or events."

The temporal aspect of the learning effect when developing emotional and cognitive mental models is similarly described in the work of Lowenstein and Lerner [37], who reasoned there are two emotional influences on human decisions: Immediate Affects and Expected Affects. The former influences decisions in the present, while the latter influences decisions made in the future. This conclusion, in turn, is also echoed in Endlsey's definition of the three levels of Situational Awareness [38]: 1) perception of the elements, 2) comprehension of the current situation, and 3) projection of future status, where levels 1 and 2 are influenced by Immediate Affects and level 3 is influenced by Expected Affects.

### **4.2.3 Behavioral Factor - Intent to Use**

The EUI thus gives us a framework in which to explore user's behavior in relation to cobotic technology exosystems. While insufficient to cover all human cognitive mechanisms, the EUI model can at least address the multiplicity of work tasks, worker environments, and workers' attitudes and emotions within the industrial domain. The depth of the EUI can be improved upon by creating a questionnaire which includes optional, previously addressed human factor constructs.

# **5 EXOSYSTEM USE INTENT (EUI) QUESTIONNAIRE**

In order to create a useful, flexible, and convenient method to test for exosystem cognitive use, a questionnaire format was chosen as the measuring tool of choice for three reasons: 1) usability, workload, situational awareness, and trust in automation are all well-known engineering psychology constructs that can be measured through user introspection through a questionnaire, 2) if given immediately after a an experimental task the rating reliability is good, and 3) a questionnaire format is relatively inexpensive, so smaller companies investigating exosystems will be able to afford to use the EUI.

The EUI test should be administered to subjects while objectively comparing performances of the specific task, both with and without the exosystem. If the experimenter is attempting to discover whether exosystems may be useful in their small business, a smaller questionnaire can be administered to test subjects. A questionnaire utilizing only the 15 "core" questions, as determined by both a literature review and the outcomes of a focus group (Appendix D), is listed in below (Table 1). For examples on scoring the questionnaires see Appendices F and G.

If the experimenter is attempting to discover more in-depth cognitive aspects of exosystem operator use, a larger questionnaire can be administered utilizing the optional human factor constructs as discussed in Appendix E. Instances of such questionnaires can be found in examples 2 and 3 in Appendix G.

### **5.1 Questionnaire Example 1 – Core questions only**

There are 15 questions listed in Appendix B that are listed as "core" questions. These core questions are basic and should be asked no matter the final size of the questionnaire.







# **5.2 Questionnaire Example 2 – with Human Factor Constructs**

This 44-question example uses the above core questionnaire, in addition to the 31 human factor construct questions. This questionnaire gives not only a EUI flow score, but also separate scores for the constructs of Usability, Workload, Situational Awareness, and Trust. For further discussion of these human factor constructs, see Appendix E.









### **5.3 Questionnaire Example 3 – with Core Questions, Human Factor Constructs, and Additional Questions**

The following is a 58-query example questionnaire developed from the 69-question EUI question alternatives. This questionnaire gives not only a EUI flow score, but scores for the constructs of Usability, Workload, Situational Awareness, and Trust, as well as scores to questions that are pertinent to the study/experimental situation/context.

### **Table 3. Questionnaire Example using Core Questions, Human Factor Constructs, and Additional Questions**













# **6 DISCUSSION**

Park [14], using Ajzen's conceptual frameworks [10] and the data from his modification into the TAMII model, examined multiple correlations between different factors. He found large effects of self-efficacy (self-confidence of task completion before using the system) and social norm (social factors) on behavioral intention (intent to use). He concluded that:

"One of interesting results of the study is that both e-learning self-efficacy and subjective norm play an important role in affecting attitude towards e-learning and behavioral intention to use e-learning. One possible explanation for this may be justified by motivational theory. E-learning self-efficacy may be considered an intrinsic motivational factor and subjective norm may be an extrinsic motivational factor that could help the university students self-regulate their motivation on e-learning."

This finding is echoed in the work of Giesbrecht with the HAAT model as well as Davis' and, separately, Bandura's social motivation theory [7, 8, 39].

Adopting an exosystem requires changes in human activity, both physical and cognitive. Posing new coordination demands using exosystems can be extremely complex and introduce new risks. Stirling describes an exosystem study that found some novice exoskeleton users' tried to initially 'fight the device,' leading to an increase in the activity rate of muscle groups that the device was designed to decrease activity in; "This example highlights the complexity of developing tightly coupled human-in-the-loop systems, where there is a time-varying response of the human to the system and the potential for different steady-state performance characteristics depending on the user [36]."

In their work on human interaction with automation, Parasuraman, Sheridan, and Wickens [16] concluded, "This work has shown clearly that automation does not simply supplant human activity but rather changes it, often in ways unintended and unanticipated by the designers of automation, and as a result poses new coordination demands on the human operator." This is also true of semi-automated systems, and illustrates why it is essential to compare the questions of self-efficacy (individual context) with the question of selfconfidence (attitude). Self-efficacy is defined as how well the user thinks they will perform the task *before* use of the exosystem to aid in their task. Self-confidence is defined as how well the user thinks they performed the task *after* use of the exosystem to aid in their task. This difference in self-efficacy/self-confidence and how it changes over time will be directly contributable to the learning period the user of the exosystem needs and how well the user adapts to the changes the exosystem requires.

Jarasse [4] points out that in order to address the complexities of the changes in human/system interaction with the human body, we need more than just technological progress: "Social and cultural phenomena influence the use of the devices as much as, or even more than, the devices technical performance." The EUI tries to account for some of these social influences.

However, unlike Jarasse, we are not looking at prosthetic users that are looking for physical integration of a prosthetic into their body image. Instead, we are looking at industrial workers using a new tool/process in the completion of their tasks. Industrial workers don't really care if their exoskeletons are seen by them as "part of their body;" they just want to accomplish their work tasks. But, what if this incorporation takes place anyway? Unbeknownst to the user? Jarasse uses the analogy of a sculptor, who "will over the years of use, displace the boundary of his body beyond his tool which becomes an extension of his hand." He goes on to point out that there are numerous examples of this in scientific research:

"For neuroscientists, the relationship between sensory-motor loops and physical integration appear obvious. Several studies have demonstrated this: research on the subject of the physical integration of vibrotactile devices used to substitute visual loss; work on the development of the sense of orientation through long-term wearing of a "compass-belt" which provides constant vibrotactile information on the direction of North, or the "rubber hand" experiments in which the combination of sensory signals (visual and tactile) generate the sensation that a rubber hand is a part of the subject's own body."

# **7 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

In his research providing a conceptual framework to explain the human behavior of intention, Ajzen [10] describes the Theory of planned Behavior'… to be well supported by empirical evidence. Intentions (intent) to perform behaviors of different kinds can be predicted with high accuracy from attitudes toward the behavior

(attitude), subjective norms (social context), and perceived behavioral control (individual context)…" Park [14] heavily used this theory in his work on TAMII which in turn was modified into the EUI.

Not every question listed in the EUI questionnaire list (Appendix B) will be relevant to every experiment. For example, not every EUI question listed under "trust" in the system will apply if one is studying a passive exoskeleton. The individual lead investigator choosing to use the EUI needs to take different environmental use contexts into account.

The EUI questionnaire, while designed to be cheap and easy to administer, should also be regarded as a "first cut." If significant findings or "red flags" result from this simple, subjective questionnaire, more in-depth methodologies are recommended as follow-up studies. For example, in their study on warfighters using a lower-body exoskeleton to reduce the burden of carrying heavy equipment, Bequette et al. [35] found that exosystem performance was negatively affected while attending a secondary task radio call. Manufacturers of lower-body exoskeletons designed for this domain might produce a follow-up study using Endsley's' more indepth SAGAT to measure objective Situational Awareness, as well as the Borg Rating of Perceived Exertion to further measure workload.

The relationship between sensory-motor loops and human physical integration of exosystems raises more questions than answers and must be further explored. By including the previously developed human factor constructs of usability, workload, situational awareness, and trust in automation, the EUI questionnaire corrects what Parasuraman, Sheridan, and Wickens [15] termed a "gross over-simplification" and deepens the EUI's similarly simplified model of human information processing. The EUI model, with its inclusion of the exogenous factor of social context, should be able to alert the investigator to the adaptations that the human operator may or may not make because of their changed work context with the introduction of an exosystem. While it is not designed to address the entirety of the field of anthropology of technology, the EUI model and questionnaire will be attentive to the relationship between human beings and the tools/systems/techniques they have created [4].

# **8 POINT OF CONTACT**

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# **Appendix A**

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# **Appendix B**

### **EUI Question Alternatives**

C = Core Question Core questions should always be included in questionnaires. HF = Construct Question Construct questions belong to various human factor constructs. Depending on which constructs the experimental designer wishes to include - Usability, NASA TXL Workload, Situational Awareness Rating Technique, and/or Trust in Automation - these questions can be optionally included in questionnaires.

The Origin column lists not only which questions go with which construct, but also lists where the question originates from. Some questions have more than one source listed; others could theoretically belong to multiple factors in different domains.

### **B-1. [EUI Questionnaire Alternatives]**














# **Appendix C**

## **Core Questions**

There are 15 questions listed in Appendix B, EUI Questionnaire Alternatives, which are listed as Core (C) questions. These core questions are basic and should be asked no matter what the final size of the questionnaire.

### **Table C-1. Core Questions**





# **Appendix D**

### **Military Consortium on Exosystems Focus Group**

On January 31, 2019, a focus group was held at the Boeing plant in Charleston, North Carolina. At this focus group were active members of the U.S. military, who were asked about potential questions and issues they would want to know about potential exosystem use. Dr. Christopher Reed, from Boeing Corporation, was the focus group leader. Dr. John Pentikis and Kevin Purcell, civilian members of the U.S. Army Public Health Center, were also in attendance. The following table are the questions the military members were concerned with.

### **Table D-1. Focus Group Questions**

Rate how ineffective/effective you were at the completion of your work/task BEFORE you used the exosystem.

Rate how ineffective/effective you were at the completion of your work/task AFTER you used the exosystem.

Rate how much slower/quicker the exosystem effected the completion time for your work/task?

Rate how weak/strong you felt while using the exosystem.

Rate how inaccurate (1) to accurate (5) you felt with the exosystem in the completion of your work/task.

Rate the noncooperation/coordination of the exosystem.

Rate the clumsiness/agility of the exosystem.

Rate how worse off/ how well the exosystem meet your needs?

Rate how little/much the exosystem extended your task limits? (i.e. less/more repetition, less/better quality, etc.)

Rate how much worse/better you feel after the day by using the exosystem?

Rate how little/how much load is taken by the exosystem off of your back muscles.

Rate how ineffective/effective the exosystem system is at supporting the load (tool/payload/weight of arm).

Rate the difficulty/ease ability of either yourself of someone else to do a quick, emergency doffing of the exosystem.

Rate how fragile/durable the exosystem is.

Rate the difficulty/ease of maintenance/repair of the exosystem.

Rate how hard/easy it is to use your exosystem.

Rate how hard/easy it was to perform your task using the exosystem.

Rate the difficulty/ease of becoming skillful at using the exosystem.

Rate how complex/simple the exosystem was to use.

Rate your soreness/not sore the next day after using the exosystem.

Rate how hard/easy it was to clean the exosystem (both from human biology or industrial processes)

Rate how much/little you needed to learn or train before using your exosystem?

Rate how much inconsistency/consistency there was in the exosystem.

Rate how well the exosystem misunderstood/understood what you wanted to do.

Rate how badly/well the exosystem responded to your movements.

Rate while using the exosystem your focus was on the exosystem (1) or your work task (7).

Rate the amount of load, from none (1) to entire load (5), the exosystem took off your back/targeted muscles.

Rate your overall experience, bad (1) to good (5) wearing the exosystem.

Rate the statement: "I would not use/use the exosystem for my task if it were available to me."

Rate how little/much the exosystem increased my task performance?

Rate how little/much the exosystem increased my performance, regardless of your industrial task/work?

Rate how often do you utilize the exosystem (1=daily, 4=weekly, 7=monthly)

Rate how little/much you intend to use the exosystem.

Rate your overall dissatisfaction/ satisfaction with the exosystem

Rate how bad/well the exosystem does what it claims to do (i.e. reduce injury, muscle fatigue, perceived workload, and/or increase productivity, etc.)

Rate amount of training required to learn system (1=Less, 7=more)

Rate your non-confidence/confidence in the exosystem to effectively help/aid you while working.

Rate how unsafe/safe you feel when using the exosystem.

Rate how unsafe/safe the exosystem made performing your task.

Rate how unsafe/safe you felt donning/doffing exosystem

Rate the undependability/dependability of the exosystem.

Rate your distrust (1) to trust (5) for the exosystem to provide the correct force magnitude and timing. (Not sure if you want to combine force and timing or have two separate questions)

Rate your distrust (1) to trust (5) for the exosystem to appropriately transition support for the tasks you were performing.

Rate how unpredictable (1) to predictable (5) the exosystems actions were during your tasks.

Rate if the exosystem operated too slowly (1), appropriate speed (3), too quickly (5).

Rate if you do not believe (1) to believe (5) the exosystem is supporting your task.

Rate if you believe there is too little (1), just right (3), too much (5) feedback from the exosystem on how it will support your actions.

Rate if you believe there is high (1) to low (5) risk in using the exosystem for your mission. Rate how much/how little the exosystem changes your natural movements/biomechanics (ex. running, walking, rolling, squatting, kneeling, prone, crawling, climbing, jumping, stairclimbing).

Rate how hard/easy it was to don the exosystem.

Rate how hard/easy it was to doff the exosystem.

Rate the slowness/speed required to don/doff the exosystem.

Rate the difficulty/ease of the initial set-up/adjusting of the exosystem

Rate the amount of training the exosystem requires to don/doff/adjust to fit you ?

Rate how badly/well weight distributed on around you while wearing an exosystem.

Rate how much/little weight is added to you while wearing an exosystem.

Rate how poor/well the exosystem fits you after adjustment?

Rate your imbalance/balance while wearing the exosystem.

Rate the difficulty/ease of operating controls of the exosystem

Rate the difficulty/ease of reading and understanding the system interface controls on the exosystem.

Rate the difficulty/ease of reaching the system interface controls on the exosystem.

Rate how overheated/cool wearing the exosystem makes you

Rate your limitations/freedom of doing your task while wearing the exosystem (i.e., can you sit on ground/chair, kneel, lay down, climb stairs, etc.)

Rate how much the system restricts joint range of motion of arms, neck, torso, and legs.

Does your organization offer choices of exosystems to use to help you with your task? (1=no, 7=yes)

Does your organization offer the choice of using or not using the exosystem to complete your work (1=no, 7=yes)

Rate your inability/ability to move while wearing the exosystem in your work environment (i.e., does it allow stepping/climbing over obstacles/allows uneven or changing gaits, etc.)

Rate slowly/quickly you can move while wearing the exosystem in your work environment.

Rate jerky/smoothness you can move while wearing the exosystem.

Rate how disconnected/integrated the various functions in the exosystem were.

Rate the non-compatibility/compatibility of the exosystem to fit in or through confined spaces (ex. narrow openings/hatches, vehicle aisles, etc.)

Rate the non-compatibility/compatibility of the exosystem with the systems/equipment that you're going to be using it with (vehicles, controls, clothing, load carriage, PPE, tools)

Rate how incompatible/compatible the exosystem is with the tools/equipment you need to complete your work task.

Rate how incompatible/compatible the exosystem is with your PPE/fall-protection gear/work clothing.

Rate the difficulty/ease of maintenance of the exosystem towards hygiene, battery swapping

# **Appendix E**

### **Construct Questions**

Appendix B lists 31 questions as "construct" questions. These human factor/engineering psychology construct questions can be broken out into 4 sub-questionnaires to measure the following constructs: Usability (as defined by the Usability Professionals' Association [40]), Workload (as defined by the NASA TLX Workload Assessment [41]), SA (as defined by the Situational Awareness Rating Technique [44], and Trust in Automation (as defined by the modified Trust in Automation questionnaire [49]). These individual, well researched, well verified constructs can be broken out to pin-point areas of interest. Some of the question alternatives, such as "How badly (1) to well (5) did the system support you when you needed it during your work task?" is relevant to 2 construct sub-questionnaires (Usability and the NASA TLX Workload Assessment).

#### **Usability**

The concept of usability was first largely discussed surrounding computer software [5]; however exosystems are not solely computer software. Exosystems are a unique interface of the human (both cognitively and physiologically), hardware, and computers (hardware and software). While the use of computers is currently limited to mostly active exosystems, computers will play a large part in all future exosystems.

It's been stated before that the word "usability" has become a blanket term for ease of use; not only the general public but many researchers have been guilty of this. The International Standards Organization defines usability in ISO 9241-11 as "The extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals with effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction in a specified context of use. " Bevin (56) points out that this definition is very broad; a more detailed definition comes from the Usability Professionals' Association [40], which lists 5 criteria for a product to meet to become usable:

- Effectiveness
- Efficiency
- Engagingness
- Error Tolerance
- Ease of Learning





The usability of an exosystem is important information as it could be compared to the usability of other systems judged under similar guidelines, and has become a de facto standard.

## **Workload (NASA Task Load Index (TLX))**

Workload and usability are two non-overlapping human factor constructs that "can be jointly employed to greatly improve the prediction of human performance" [16]. Longo goes on to define Mental Workload (MWL) as:

"…the total cognitive work necessary for a human to accomplish a task over time. It is believed that is not an elementary property, rather it emerges from the interaction between the requirements of a task, the circumstances under which it is performed and the skills, behaviours and perceptions of the operator."

In regards to exoskeleton use, Sterling [25] states, "Cognitive capabilities should remain available to process task- and stimulus-related information in the presence of an exosystem."

To quantify the cognitive cost associated to performing a task, Hart and Staveland [41] developed the NASA TLX Workload Assessment. The TLX consists of 6 Subscales:

MENTAL DEMAND - How much mental and perceptual activity was required (e g, thinking. deciding, calculating, remembering, looking, searching etc.)? Was the task easy or demanding, simple or complex, exacting or forgiving?

PHYSICAL DEMAND - How much physical activity was required (e g . pushing, pulling . turning, controlling, activating . etc.)? Was the task easy or demanding, slow or brisk, slack or strenuous, restful or laborious?

TEMPORAL DEMAND - How much lime pressure did you feel due to the rate or pace at which the tasks or task elements occurred? Was the pace slow and leisurely or rapid and frantic?

PERFORMANCE - How successful do you think you were in accomplishing the goals of the task set by the experimenter (or yourself)? How satisfied were you with your performance in accomplishing these goals?

EFFORT - How hard did you have to work (mentally and physically) to accomplish your level of performance?

FRUSTRATION LEVEL - How insecure, discouraged, irritated, stressed and annoyed versus secure, gratified, content, relaxed and complacent did you feel during the task?

#### **Table E-2. Construct Questions and EUI Relevance**



In the original NASA TLX these subscales were weighted. In her paper on the many uses of the TLX by the research community 20 years after its introduction, Hart [42] pointed out:

"The most common modification made to NASA-TLX has been to eliminate the weighting process all together or weighting the subscales and then analyzing them individually. The former has been referred to as Raw TLX (RTLX) and has gained some popularity because it is simpler to apply; the ratings are simply averaged or added to create an estimate of overall workload. In the 29 studies in which RTLX was compared to the original version, it was found to be either more sensitive (Hendy, Hamilton, & Landry, 1993), less sensitive (Liu & Wickens, 1994), or equally sensitive (Byers, Bittner, Hill, 1989), so it seems you can take your pick."

This weighting has been eliminated in the EUI, instead just asking questions from the 6 subscales of Mental, Physical, Temporal demand as well as Frustration, effort and own performance. These subscales have shown robustness over a 40-year span.

### **Situational Awareness (Situational Awareness Rating Technique (SART))**

The user's awareness of the environment and context is not included in the concept of workload. However, workload needs to be at a low level so that a user's cognitive abilities can be clear to process stimuli presented to them [25]. This ability to process stimuli presented to the user is key to facilitate Situational Awareness (SA). Endsley's [42] definition of SA is the "perception of the elements of the environment within a volume of time and space (Level 1), the comprehension of their meaning (Level 2) and the projection of their status in the near future (Level 3)." This concept of SA embraces environment and context, and is a key measure that adds depth to exosystem studies. Regarding the importance of SA to exosystem use, Stirling [36] points out:

"While a user may be able to perceive information in the environment (Level 1 SA), it may not be apparent how these cues would affect the use of the exoskeleton (Levels 2 and 3 of SA). Thus, an inappropriate action may be taken. Breakdowns in SA can occur in any of the three levels and therefore evaluation of SA in the context of exosystem use is important for understanding the ability of a user to make operational decisions. Consider an exosystem ankle that nominally actively assists rotation based on the interaction force recorded with the ground, except in a separate mode where the interaction force is used to stiffen the joint and limit motion. If the user perceives (Level 1 SA) cues that lead to projecting (Level 3 SA) that the exosystem should be actively assisting, but the joint instead stiffens, the user would expect assistance and may then lose balance and fall when the joint stiffens instead."

Unfortunately, Endsley's measurement methodology, the Situation Awareness Global Assessment Technique (SAGAT) [43], while extremely valid and sensitive, is not possible to use to develop an EUI questionnaire. SAGAT is a freeze technique first used in flight simulators, while the EUI is designed to be used in either in the field or during real-time lab studies. Taylor's paper-based Situational Awareness Rating Technique (SART) [44] is a much more viable candidate for EUI use. It is measured post-trial, involves participants subjectively rating each EUI dimension on a seven point rating scale  $(1 = Low, 7 = High)$  based on their performance of the task, and was originally based on 10 dimensions:



These ratings are then combined to calculate a measure of participant perceived SA. The EUI modifies the SART to be used on a 5-point scale. There are drawbacks to this approach, however. As Endsley indicates in a paper comparing SAGAT and SART methodologies [30], "SAGAT provides an objective measure of SA based on queries during freezes in a simulation. SART provides a subjective rating of SA by operators."

As the EUI model and questionnaire is aimed towards ascertaining a person's intent to use the exosystem, using SART to ascertain a user's perception of SA is logical. According to Endsley [30], SART is highly correlated with self-confidence and subjective performance. It was discussed previously that the antecedent to self-confidence and ease of use is self-efficacy, both major factors in intention to use.

To quote Endsley [30] again, "As the SART scores were so highly correlated with confidence level and subjective performance, it is recommended that subjective SA ratings be viewed as good indices of these aspects, but perhaps not veridical representations of SA." Subjective versus objective SA may be a critical distinction for some exosystem operators in particular environments, such as those industrial workers working with heavy machinery in very dynamic environments and require enhanced levels of objective SA. In these particular use cases, *or* if a high level of user workload is found in conjunction with a high level of subjective level of SA (which could be indicative of overconfidence [23, 24]), it is highly recommended that further lab testing take place.

Determining objective SA is beyond the scope of a simple questionnaire. This testing of objective SA should either use the SAGAT simulation freeze technique or using a technique in a lab setting similar to the Bequette study [35, 45], where the experimenter can ask the test subject specific questions about the presented environment where specific SA behaviors are known and/or expected.



#### **Table E-3. SART Questions and EUI Relevance**



# **Trust (Trust in Exosystems (TiE))**

Trust in automation/semi-automation is based on well-established work, such as Lee and Moray [46] and Lee and See [47]. Lee and See state, "Trust is one example of the important influence of affect and emotions on human-technology interaction. Emotional response to technology is not only important for acceptance, it can also make a fundamental contribution to safety and performance." They go on to define trust as "the attitude that an agent will help achieve an individual's goals in a situation characterized by uncertainty and vulnerability." Here they quote Barley [48], "More generally, trust seems to be an example of how affect can guide behavior when rules fail to apply and when cognitive resources are not available to support a calculated rational choice." This reliance on human affect can easily lead to an inappropriate, over-reliance on automated control [46].

An example of this can be found in the earlier study by Lee and Moray [46], which included an experiment in which study subjects ran a pasteurization plant using a feedstock pump, choosing to switch control of the plant between either an automatic or manual scheme. During the simulation, a fault would appear in the operation of the feedstock pump. Their results showed an *increase* in operators using automation use during the fault, rather than a *decrease*. In light of these results, the authors propose, "If trust alone guided use of the automatic controller, a drop in the use of the automatic controller might be expected. The operators' level of selfconfidence may explain why they tended to use the feedstock pump more often when faults occurred."

Additionally, Lee and See [47] viewed the behavior of choosing the automated control as dependent not solely upon the operator's self-confidence, but also upon dynamic interactions between the operator's individual, organizational, and environmental contexts. This echoes the exogenous factors of the individual, social, and task contexts in the EUI.

Köber [49] developed a questionnaire to measure Trust in Automation (TiA), using 19 Questions, developed on 6 scales; Reliability/Competence, Understandability/Predictability, Propensity to Trust, Intention of Developers, Familiarity, and Trust in Automation:



The questions with an asterisk are what Köber calls an "inverse item", where the same question is asked only using opposite wording. These inverse item questions are left out of a modified Trust in Exosystems (TiE) questionnaire only to minimize the total number of questionnaire choices. In addition, as our exosystem questionnaire is more interested in the opinions of trust surrounding an exosystem rather than individual user's opinions on whether they trust the developers of the systems or not, as well as whether they as individuals have a pre-disposition to trust, the questions in the subscales "Intention of Developers" and "Propensity to Trust" will not be used in the modified TiE questionnaire.

A few questions of the TiE will only apply to computer assisted (mostly active) systems; for example one such question only applies to systems that can completely take over completing the task. It is left to the experiment designer to modify or exclude questions accordingly.





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### **Appendix F**

### **Analyzing the EUI Questionnaire – Industrial**

In order to create a useful, flexible, and convenient method to test for exosystem cognitive use, a questionnaire format was chosen as the measuring tool of choice for 3 reasons: a) usability, workload, situational awareness, and trust in automation are all well-known engineering psychology constructs that can be measured through user introspection through a questionnaire, b) if given immediately after a an experimental task the rating reliability is good, and c) a questionnaire format is relatively inexpensive, so smaller companies investigating exosystems will be able to afford to use the EUI.

Not all questions listed in Appendix B will apply to every exosystem experiment; for example some questions listed in the TiE will only apply to computer-assisted active exosystems that have different levels of automation (15). The core questions listed in Appendices B and C were chosen to be selected by all experimenters no matter what their particular study needs based on the existing exoskeleton literature.

The questionnaire was designed to have a score for each listed context under the factors of exogenous to endogenous, following the operator's cognitive flow. Park [14] performed multiple variance and statistical validity checks on his TAMII model, and found a large effect of selfefficacy (self-confidence) on the behavioral intention (intent to use) factor on his model of an elearning system. He found a similar if slightly smaller effect of social norm (social factors) on the behavioral intention (intent to use) factor. As these were so important a numerical weighting component for these 2 factor scores was considered for the EUI, however exosystem use environments can differ greatly. For example, it is likely that some environmental contexts may create a much higher (or lower) social factor than others. Certain exosystem experiment designers in the future may wish to consider weighting certain questions according to their specific use environments.

The questionnaire was also designed to optionally include any or all 31 "construct" questions that are listed in Appendix E. These 31 questions can be broken down into the measurements of Usability (as defined by the Usability Professionals' Association [40]), Workload (as defined by the NASA TLX Workload Assessment [41]), SA (as defined by the Situational Awareness Rating Technique [44]), and TiE (as defined by the modified Trust in Automation questionnaire [49]). Scores from these individual sub-questionnaires can be broken out into their respective constructs to pin-point areas of specific interest. For an example, see Appendix G example 2. NOTE: due to inherent biases, a Likert scale questionnaire can be considered ordinal data, where the numbered responses 1 – 5 are *not* equidistant from each other. Therefore a mean

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average within each context should *not* be used. Likert scale responses could differ due to individual differences, therefore using a mean score would lead to misinterpretation. Rather, the median and/or mode of scores within each context should be used. It must also be noted that currently, much meaningful statistical analysis using the EUI beyond descriptive statistics is difficult, as it is hard to get a large n value to achieve statistical significance. This fact is due to the current expense of exosystems. This expense factor will theoretically change; the larger number of systems are created and put out in industry the lower the cost should become. Finally, in order to compare operators' cognitive flow scores while using exosystems you must use the same questions in all questionnaires within a single experiment.

## **Appendix G**

#### **Questionnaire Examples**

The following are example questionnaires developed from the 69 question EUI question alternatives (Appendix B). The questionnaires can be shorter or longer - it is up to the experiment lead to choose the most relevant of the 69 alternatives according to their experiment's requirements. The examples are followed by examples of scoring the questionnaires. The example below is the shortest recommended.

## **Example 1 – Core questions only**

This 15-question example is the shortest questionnaire recommended:





#### **Example 1 - Scores**

The Context scores within the exogenous and endogenous domains should be added together, and all context scores should then also be added forming a Total EUI score. As the responses to this Likert scale questionnaire can be considered ordinal data, where the numbered responses 1 – 5 are *not* equidistant from each other, a mean average within each context should *not* be used. The Likert scale responses could differ due to individual differences, therefore using a mean score would lead to misinterpretation. Rather, the median and/or mode of scores within each context should be used. Note: in order to compare operators cognitive flow scores while using exosystems you must have the same questions in your questionnaires for both exosystems. Example 1 Scores:



Total EUI score gives an operators' cognitive flow towards an intention to use: in this example 55. This measures the cognitive flow from exogenous through endogenous context; it does not measure the human factor constructs discussed above.

## **Example 2 – with HF Constructs**

This 44 question example uses the above core questionnaire, in addition to the 31 construct questions. This questionnaire gives not only a EUI flow score, but also separate scores for Usability, TLX Workload, SART, and TiE. This example can apply to a passive, non-computer-assisted exosystem.



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### **Example 2 – Scoring**

The Context scores within the exogenous and endogenous domains should be added together, and all context scores should then also be added forming a Total EUI score. As the responses to this Likert scale questionnaire can be considered ordinal data, where the numbered responses 1 – 5 are *not* equidistant from each other, a mean average within each context should *not* be used. The Likert scale responses could differ due to individual differences, therefore using a mean score would lead to misinterpretation. Rather, the median and/or mode of scores within each context should be used. Note: in order to compare operators cognitive flow scores while using exosystems you must have the same questions in your questionnaires for both exosystems. Note: in order to compare operators cognitive flow scores while using exosystems you must have the same questions in your questionnaires for all systems. Example 2 Scores:



Total EUI score gives an operators' cognitive flow towards an intention to use: in this example 171. This includes the human factor constructs discussed above.

# **Example 2 – Scoring the Constructs**

Here are the individual breakouts from the human factor constructs:

Usability Construct:



This gives a Usability score of 26

NASA TLX Workload Construct:

:



This gives a TLX Workload score of 24.

SART (Situational Awareness Rating Technique) Construct:



This gives a SART score of 34

Trust in Exosystems (TiE)



This gives a TiE score of 31.

## **Example 3**

The following is a 58 query example questionnaire developed from the 69 question EUI question alternatives. This questionnaire gives not only a EUI flow score, as well as scores for Usability, TLX Workload, SART, and TiE, but also scores to questions that are pertinent to the study/experimental situation/context that also address issues discussed in the human factors and exosystem-specific literature.





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#### **Example 3 - Scores**

The Context scores within the exogenous and endogenous domains should be added together, and all context scores should then also be added forming a Total EUI score. As the responses to this Likert scale questionnaire can be considered ordinal data, where the numbered responses 1 – 5 are *not* equidistant from each other, a mean average within each context should *not* be used. The Likert scale responses could differ due to individual differences, therefore using a mean score would lead to misinterpretation. Rather, the median and/or mode of scores within each context should be used. Note: in order to compare operators cognitive flow scores while using exosystems you must have the same questions in your questionnaires for both exosystems. Example 3 Scores:



Total EUI score gives an operators' cognitive flow towards an intention to use: in this example 221. This includes the human factor constructs discussed above.

# **Example 3 – Scoring the Constructs**

Here are the breakouts from the human factor constructs:

Usability Construct:



This gives a Usability score of 26.

NASA TLX Workload:



This gives a Workload score of 24.
SART (Situational Awareness Rating Technique):



This gives a SART score of 34.

TiE (Trust in Exosystems):



This gives a TiE score of 31.