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Human Autonomy Teaming for ROV Shared Control

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Abstract:	<p>ROV is a widely used subsea vehicle in offshore oil and gas industries to assist in the development and inspection of offshore oil fields, given its agility, safety, and endurance. As the offshore industry and subsea engineering fields advance, the demands on ROV technology, particularly in terms of control accuracy and safety, have been greatly increasing. Traditional methods require ROV operators to be stationed on vessels in challenging conditions, relying on video streams that offer limited spatial information about the ROV working environment. All these factors make conventional joystick controls even harder for novices. This research aims to propose a novel approach to human-autonomy collaboration aiming to diminish the learning and operational burdens on operators. A VR-based sensory augmentation and body motion teleoperation method was applied, which allows operators to teleoperate the ROV in a much more comfortable environment. An interactive user interface was developed to enable seamless engagement with the autonomous system and facilitate dynamic switching between human and autonomous controls. To assess the system, a human subject experiment was conducted to compare the performance of an inspection task between human control, full autonomy, and human autonomy teaming methods. The result indicated that our solution could enhance human understanding of the ROV work status as well as reduce human workload during operation.</p>	
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The journal requires that all submissions fall within its aims and scope, explained here . Please explain how your submission fits the journal's aims and scope.	<p>This paper fits well within the scope of the Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering as it presents innovative ideas and advances in computing, specifically in the context of enhancing the operational capabilities of remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) in offshore engineering settings, which is a crucial aspect of civil engineering in oil and gas industries. It encompasses innovations in artificial intelligence and information technology by integrating VR-based sensory augmentation and body motion teleoperation methods, and offering a novel approach to human-autonomy collaboration, thus aligning with the journal's focus on cross-disciplinary areas of</p>	

	<p>software and hardware applications. Additionally, the development of an interactive user interface and the implementation of dynamic switching between human and autonomous controls reflect the journal's interest in computer-aided design systems and strategic computing resource management. The research, therefore, not only contributes valuable insights into the application of advanced computing technologies in civil engineering tasks but also addresses broader implications for enhancing safety and efficiency in the engineering profession.</p>
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September 30, 2023

RE: Submission of technical paper to Special Collection “Integrated Human Machine Intelligence (IHMI) in Civil Engineering”

Dear Guest Editors,

Please find our submission of a technical paper titled “*Human Autonomy Teaming for ROV Shared Control*” for the special collection “*Integrated Human Machine Intelligence (IHMI) in Civil Engineering*”.

This paper introduces a novel approach to human-autonomy collaboration for remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) used in offshore oil and gas industries, addressing increased demands in control accuracy and safety. The approach employs a VR-based sensory augmentation and body motion teleoperation method, enabling operators to teleoperate the ROV in a more comfortable environment, and features an interactive user interface to facilitate dynamic switching between human and autonomous controls. An experimental assessment revealed that this solution enhances human understanding of the ROV work status and reduces operator workload during operations.

We confirm that this submission contains at least 50% new contents in addition to a conference paper we submitted to ASCE i3CE conference.

We sincerely look forward to the comments.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Eric Du'.

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Human Autonomy Teaming for ROV Shared Control

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ABSTRACT

ROV is a widely used subsea vehicle in offshore oil and gas industries to assist in the development and inspection of offshore oil fields, given its agility, safety, and endurance. As the offshore industry and subsea engineering fields advance, the demands on ROV technology, particularly in terms of control accuracy and safety, have been greatly increasing. Traditional methods require ROV operators to be stationed on vessels in challenging conditions, relying on video streams that offer limited spatial information about the ROV working environment. All these factors make conventional joystick controls even harder for novices. This research aims to propose a novel approach to human-autonomy collaboration aiming to diminish the learning and operational burdens on operators. A VR-based sensory augmentation and body motion teleoperation method was applied, which allows operators to teleoperate the ROV in a much more comfortable environment. An interactive user interface was developed to enable seamless engagement with the autonomous system and facilitate dynamic switching between human and autonomous controls. To assess the system, a human subject experiment was conducted to compare the performance of

31 an inspection task between human control, full autonomy, and human autonomy teaming methods.
32 The result indicated that our solution could enhance human understanding of the ROV work status
33 as well as reduce human workload during operation.

34 **KEYWORDS:** ROV; Virtual Reality; human autonomy teaming

35 **INTRODUCTION**

36 Subsea engineering has been rapidly developing for decades, driven largely by the escalating
37 demand for offshore energy and resources (Casey 2020). The most widely used tool for subsea
38 engineering is Remotely Operated Vehicle (ROV). It is vital for multiple ocean exploration
39 purposes such as inspection, installation and maintenance (Azis et al. 2012), due to its agility,
40 safety, and endurance. Provided the rapid expansion of the ROV market and the growing needs
41 for subsea engineering (Li et al. 2018; WBOC 2021), there is a foreseeable shortage of ROV
42 operators in the near future. However, current ROV control system is still at a primary level, with
43 operators stationed on the vessels, maneuvering through joysticks and reliant on limited 2D camera
44 view (BlueRobotics 2021; Patiris 2015). On one hand, operators need to work in uncomfortable
45 environments, and cannot receive sufficient information for better control, such as water
46 conditions (Xia et al. 2023). On the other hand, it requires tremendous training to master the
47 coordination between feedback and joystick actions, which remains the ROV operator a highly
48 specialized profession with high training barriers to broader participation (Institute 2018;
49 Oceaneering 2022). Furthermore, the long-time subsea operations also place significant cognitive
50 load on the ROV pilots.

51 To mitigate these challenges, researchers have initially turned to autonomous solutions,
52 such as simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) for ROV navigation (Meireles et al. 2014;

53 Vargas et al. 2021), self-stabilization with adaptive nonlinear feedback controller (Tran et al.
54 2020), and machine learning methods (Amundsen et al. 2021). However, achieving precise
55 underwater ROV operations solely via full autonomy remains extremely difficult due to the
56 inherent challenges associated with underwater environments (Antonelli and Antonelli 2014;
57 Trslic et al. 2020). Unlike terrestrial robots that can be outfitted with an array of high-quality
58 sensors, ROVs are somewhat limited. The low visibility in the underwater environment restricted
59 the effective visual range for cameras (Lachaud et al. 2018; Xia et al. 2022), and LiDAR is not
60 widely equipped either. Furthermore, specific subsea tasks, like inspections, deeply rely on human
61 insight and experiential judgment for decision-making. Although these studies contributed a lot to
62 automated navigation, current artificial intelligent technology cannot qualify such complex
63 decision making for dynamic trajectory planning. At the same time, recognizing these autonomy
64 constraints, some researchers began to use mixed reality (Elor et al. 2021) and sensory
65 augmentation technologies (Shazali 2018; Xia et al. 2023) to assist human-centered operation.
66 These studies incorporate virtual reality and haptic devices to enhance human perception of the
67 working environment, which increases the control precision but makes the workload and mental
68 load even higher.

69 Therefore, this study proposed a new human autonomy teaming (HAT) framework by
70 integrating autonomy algorithms, Virtual Reality (VR) and sensory augmentation methods.
71 Human operators are responsible for autonomy allocation and decision making, while autonomous
72 algorithms can assist in position estimation and autonomous navigation. An interactive user
73 interface was developed in VR to enable seamless engagement with the autonomous system and
74 facilitate dynamic switching between human and autonomous controls. The teleoperation system
75 allowed operators to work in a more comfortable environment. Human operators could use their

76 natural body motions for ROV control, which is verified to greatly reduce learning barriers for
77 ROV operation. A human-subject experiment was conducted to verify the effectiveness of the
78 system. The result indicated that with autonomy assistance and appropriate human autonomy
79 teaming design, operators could benefit from lower workload and mental load and also keep a
80 great performance in inspection tasks.

81 **LITERATURE REVIEW**

82 *Autonomy for ROV Operations*

83 ROVs are underwater devices designed for a range of tasks including inspection, exploration, and
84 installation, maintenance and data collection for subsea engineering (Brun 2012; Patiris 2015). In
85 terms of operational depth and payloads, ROVs can be categorized into the micro class (100m, 5kg)
86 mini-class (300m, 10kg), light work class (2000m, 100kg) and heavy work class (3000m, 300kg)
87 (Patiris 2015). Regardless of their specific designs, standard features of ROVs include multi-axial
88 mobility, state estimation, and data transmission via umbilical cables or additional wireless means
89 (Song et al. 2020). Different classes of ROVs vary in functionality, capability and cost. Compared
90 to commonly used ground robots, ROV operators are facing much more unique environmental
91 complexities, including unpredictable water flows, reduced visibility due to light scarcity and
92 water murkiness, radio frequency limitations, fluctuating temperatures and pressures, and potential
93 biofouling risks (Lachaud et al. 2018; Nitonye et al. 2021; Xia et al. 2022). Additionally, they face
94 operational threats such as umbilical cable snags, impacts, communication breakdowns, elongated
95 control response times, and disturbances from aquatic life and electrical issues (Walker et al. 2020;
96 Yang et al. 2020). Despite the challenges inherent in ROV operations, the control and feedback
97 mechanisms remain in a primary level. Operators are often stationed on vessels, maneuvering the
98 ROV through joysticks and relying solely on 2D camera visuals (NOAA 2021; Patiris 2015). This

99 control method necessitates intensive training to establish a robust connection between the visual
100 inputs and appropriate control responses (Oceaneering 2022). As a result, a pilot shortage exists
101 in offshore industries due to the great entry barriers to operate the ROV.

102 To tackle problems related to the harsh environment of ROV workplaces and reduce the
103 learning curve for ROV pilots, many existing efforts are made in autonomous algorithms as
104 similarly seen in other intelligent systems (Schjøberg and Utne 2015). The basic and most
105 common method is to enhance Kalman filter for better state estimation and trajectory control, such
106 as the extended state-based Kalman filter (ESKF)-based model predictive control (MPC) to
107 incorporate external disturbances and measurement noises into navigation trajectory (Long et al.
108 2022; Long et al. 2021). For high level autonomy and better estimation, additional data source is
109 necessary. Some studies tried to integrate the ROV-equipped camera data for better autonomy
110 control, such as the embedded markers and vision-based localization data system(Zaman and
111 Mardiyanto 2021), and dual-eye vision-based docking system (Lwin et al. 2019). These methods
112 addressed the autonomy localization and docking problem to some extent for near-shore
113 operations. However, as introduced above, the low visibility in the deep ocean makes the cameras
114 less reliable. In that case, more sensor data is necessary to keep high precision trajectory planning,
115 e.g., doppler velocity log (DVL), inertial measurement unit (IMU) and short baseline acoustic
116 system (SBL), for precise trajectory estimation and prediction (Soylu et al. 2016), which might
117 not be acceptable for small-scale ROVs. In addition, human knowledge and experience can be
118 critical for some inspection and navigation planning tasks (Xia et al. 2022), which cannot be solved
119 by current artificial intelligence system. In general, current studies greatly addressed the problems
120 of position estimation and simple automated navigation, but human operators can still be necessary
121 for dynamic decision making.

122 *Sensory Augmentation for ROV Operations*

123 As introduced above, despite the advancement made in ROV autonomy, there is a recognition of
124 the irreplaceable value of human operators to deal with uncertainties in the subsea environment.
125 Currently, the complex and dynamic subsea environment, the limited human operator ability to
126 process and react to these dynamics, and the lack of user-friendly control methods for ROV
127 teleoperation, bring great burdens to operators. Relying solely on 2D camera view with joystick
128 control, operators need tremendous training to build the correct feed-control loop. This can disrupt
129 the critical feedback-control loop necessary for precise motor actions during ROV operations and
130 lead to perceptual-motor malfunctions (Finney 2015). Therefore, in addition to the efforts on
131 autonomy, more and more researchers tried to enhance human perception by applying sensory
132 augmentation methods for better human control precision. In general, two kinds of sensory
133 augmentation, visual augmentation and haptic augmentation, are used in current human-centered
134 ROV teleoperation methods.

135 For visual augmentation, VR is a popular interface that simulates realistic environments,
136 offering users a depth of spatial information (Brooks 1999; Zheng et al. 1998). When incorporated
137 into robot teleoperation, VR can help to build a tighter integration of human and robot, for better
138 perceptions and controls (Concannon et al. 2019; Zhou et al. 2020). This can also benefit in
139 improving motion planning and interactions during complicated tasks demanding both human and
140 robotic insights (Williams et al. 2019). Therefore, a great number of studies have explored the
141 merits of applying VR in ROV teleoperations across diverse assignments, such as underwater
142 capture tasks (Elor et al. 2021), deep ocean remote control (Martin et al. 2021) and VR device
143 based teleoperation methods (Sapp 2023; Xia et al. 2023). These initial trials verified the
144 effectiveness and efficiency of VR for ROV control system. Especially, it is widely believed that

145 the greatest benefit of VR is providing semantically rich visual cues (Khadhraoui et al. 2016),
146 which could greatly enhance human spatial awareness that is critical for complex subsea tasks
147 (Chellali and Baizid 2011).

148 However, visual cue is not the only feedback human relies on for sensorimotor control.
149 Humans usually make sense of the consequence of the initiated action multimodal sensory
150 feedback, such as the visual, auditory, and somatosensory (tactile and proprioceptive) cues (Kirsch
151 and Kunde 2013; Shadlen and Newsome 1996; Wood et al. 2013). The motor planning and
152 feedback loop is broken when the perceptual ability is affected, such as the missing haptic
153 stimulation in most existing VR-based systems (Ye et al. 2022). The importance of haptic feedback
154 has been recognized in ground robot teleoperation studies. Recently, more and more studies have
155 verified the effectiveness of haptic feedback for various ground robots, such as snake robots (Zhu
156 et al. 2022), robotic arms (Zhou et al. 2023), and tower cranes (Zhu et al. 2022). As for haptic
157 stimulation in ROV controls, there is also a lot of information that cannot be clearly transmitted
158 via visual feedback, i.e., flow conditions. In this case, haptotactile signals can be used to enhance
159 the human perception of motion and status of ROV. Early efforts included using one-dimensional
160 haptic simulation (such as pressure or torsion forces) to produce the illusional proprioception and
161 kinesthetic perception of the ROVs (Amemiya and Maeda 2009). Later, linear-oscillating actuators
162 using asymmetric drivers are used to simulate hydrostatic pressure in remote ROV systems
163 (Ciriello et al. 2013). Advanced status sensors, such as gyroscope sensors, are used to provide
164 dynamic data to drive haptic actuators to simulate torque feedback (Shazali 2018). Further, in order
165 to provide more immersive full-body level haptic feedback, haptic suit is involved to simulate the
166 feeling of water for better understanding of flow conditions (Xia et al. 2023). Till now, human

167 perception and control precision can be significantly improved with the advancements of visual
168 and haptic sensory augmentation methods in ROV teleoperation methods.

169 *Human Autonomy Teaming*

170 In general, autonomy plays a vital role in augmenting human ability via automatic navigation, data
171 collection and environment modeling (Mader et al. 2016; Rakha and Gorodetsky 2018) but it lacks
172 decision-making ability, while human-centric methods enhance human perception and control
173 precision but increase workload and mental load during long-time operation. Given the
174 advancements of current technology, it is time to push conventional joystick control systems to a
175 higher level of autonomy (LOA) (Skeete 2018), which requires a better human autonomy teaming
176 (HAT) strategy (Lyons et al. 2021). HAT enables autonomy agents to work together with human
177 operators, where complementary strengths of humans and autonomous systems are melded to
178 enhance team performance (Lyons et al. 2021; O'Neill et al. 2022). The term "HAT" emerged in
179 the mid-2010s, marking a shift in focus from full autonomy to collaborative autonomy. One of the
180 strengths of HAT is its adaptability in dynamic and complex environments. Such environments
181 often pose challenges that neither humans nor autonomous systems can address independently, i.e.,
182 it is observed enhanced performance in drone navigation when pilots collaborate with autonomous
183 agents, leveraging the human's cognitive flexibility and the machine's computational prowess
184 (Simpson 2021). For ROV operation, it is a common scene that operators need to deal with
185 complex underwater environment, such as low visibility and dynamic subsea currents. HAT could
186 be an effective method to enhance control performance as well as reduce human workload.

187 Several factors are deciding the efficiency of HAT system. The first factor is autonomy
188 allocation, also called task or function allocation (Abbass 2019; Rahman et al. 2016; Roth et al.
189 2019). The tasks should be assigned to human or robot agents based on their capability (Abbass

2019; Rahman et al. 2016). Specifically, for ROV operation, autonomy is more precise in state estimation and navigation, while human operator is better in route plan and decision making. Besides, an effective user interface (UI) is also important. Research has demonstrated that interfaces promoting bi-directional communication between humans and autonomous agents boost team efficiency (Calhoun et al. 2018). Transparent systems that explain their reasoning can further augment this relationship (Chen et al. 2016; Felzmann et al. 2019). Thirdly, a recurring theme in HAT literature is the trust. The reliability and predictability of an autonomous system significantly influence human trust (McNeese et al. 2021). It is noted that trust calibration, ensuring neither too much nor too little trust, is paramount for optimal team performance (Schaefer et al. 2019). Finally, cognitive models play an instrumental role in HAT, simulating human cognitive processes to facilitate smooth interactions. By understanding how humans think, feel, and decide, these models allow autonomous systems to predict human behavior and adjust their actions accordingly, ensuring seamless cooperation (Demir et al. 2018). There are also studies trying to adjust UI elements by tracking human cognitive load (Zhou et al. 2023). In this study, we focused on the two most basic factor for HAT design, autonomy allocation and UI design. This study aimed to propose an HAT framework for ROV teleoperation based on automation and sensory augmentation methods. It is expected to enhance the team performance as well as reduce human workload and the carrier barriers of ROV pilots.

208 **METHODOLOGY**

209 *System Architecture*

210 This study aimed to propose a HAT framework for ROV teleoperation based on sensory augmentation and autonomous algorithms. As demonstrated in **Fig. 1**, the system consists of ROV module, VR digital twin module, human-centered feedback and control module, autonomy

213 module, and UI. The sensor data collected by ROV could be transmitted to Unity via ROS #
214 (Bischoff 2021), a web socket data transfer method, to build a realistic digital twin in VR.
215 Compared to the general VR system, this method rebuilt not only the environment objects but also
216 hydrodynamic features and physical interactions in the VR environment. A high-fidelity
217 underwater hydrodynamic simulation, subsea light rendering as well as adjustable water texture
218 and field of view (FOV) were ensured by applying the crest ocean system API (Harmonic 2022).
219 The hydrodynamic information was used to generate full-body coverage haptic feedback, and
220 augmented visual feedback was rendered in VR as well. Similarly, the same information was sent
221 to the autonomy module for auto-navigation. In general, humans were responsible for decision
222 making and target selection, while autonomy agents were used for state estimation and navigation
223 in our design. Human operators could switch control between human mode, stable mode and auto
224 mode based on needs, and assign navigation goals for autonomous algorithms. Finally, the control
225 actions were sent back to ROV via ROS#.

226

227 **INSERT FIG.1 HERE**

228

229 For ROV module, camera and acoustic doppler current profile (ADCP) (Guerrero et al.
230 2012) or pressure sensors are necessary to capture the hydrodynamic features. Based on the size
231 of ROV and task requirements, some extension functions can be integrated, such as 3D
232 reconstruction and localization. Our previous studies have developed the pipeline to convert
233 complex point cloud models to Unity objects and reconstruct the realistic VR scene by using
234 machine learning (Zhou et al. 2020). This method could significantly reduce the data amount and

235 increase the conversion speed. Besides, there are also some developed methods for GPS
236 synchronization (Mack 2015) with VR for better localization and teamwork. These methods
237 extended the potential of VR as a multi-sources platform for complex industry applications. This
238 paper does not focus on 3D modeling and localization methods for ROV. Sensory augmentation,
239 task allocation, and UI design will be mainly introduced in the following sections.

240 *Sensory Augmentation and Haptomotor Control*

241 The sensory augmentation and haptomotor control system was designed to provide immersive
242 control-feedback loop for human operators. The conventional joystick control method restricted
243 human perception of the working environment, broke the precise control-feedback loop, and
244 increased career barriers. Provided with multi-sensory feedback, human operators could gain more
245 immersive environmental information, and interact with their most natural body motions as in the
246 real world, which could significantly reduce the learning barrier. Previous studies have verified its
247 effectiveness in navigation and stabilization tasks (Xia et al. 2023; Xia et al. 2023). In this research,
248 we adjusted the system to fit the features of the VR system and human-autonomy interaction needs.
249 As shown in **Fig. 2**, two kinds of feedback were generated on human-equipped devices, including
250 visual augmentation on HTC VIVE headset (VIVE 2022) and haptic feelings on bHaptics TactSuit
251 X40 (bHaptics 2022). Operators could use their natural body actions to react to these sensory cues.
252 A series of functional control was designed on VR controllers, which was detail introduced in the
253 User Interface section. Packaged human control signals were then sent to real ROV and converted
254 to thruster-based control signals.

255

256

INSERT FIG.2 HERE

257

258 For visual augmentation, this system provided a vector field with arrayed arrows indicating
259 the flow speed and directions. Each arrow pointed to the flow direction in that area, and the length
260 of the arrow represented the flow speed, i.e., a shorter arrow represented a smaller flow speed. On
261 the other hand, haptic feedback was designed to simulate the feeling of water flushing human
262 bodies. To convert single sensor data to full-body covered haptic feelings with 40 units on the
263 haptic suit, a particle flow and virtual sensor system was designed to simulate the hydrodynamic
264 forces in the VR digital twin. This data augmentation process was necessary to enhance the
265 spatially and temporally sparse sensor data to high refresh rate and dense simulation data.
266 Specifically, a particle flow was generated based on the received sensor data from ROV. The dense
267 particle flow with hundreds of particles could physically interact with the virtual ROV in realistic
268 way. A total of 24 virtual sensors were distributed around the ROV model, which received the
269 collision data from the particle flow. These virtual sensors were mapped with 40 real units on the
270 haptic suit, and therefore a full-body coverage body feeling could be generated.

271 At the same time, operators could use their natural body motions in reaction to the
272 occurring events, such as strong turbulence, based on sensory feelings. This kind of natural
273 reaction does not require high-level mental processing. Specifically, the ROV control parameters,
274 such as motion and orientation control signals, were driven by human body motions, including
275 head rotation and body postures. The local rotation of the human body read from the headset was
276 sent to control the pitch, roll and yaw of the ROV. Besides, human body postures were designed
277 to control the ROV's horizontal motion, such as that the ROV would move forward when the
278 human operator leaned forward. For those unachievable actions for humans, such as raising up and
279 sinking down vertically, the control signals were read from the VR controller trackpad. To be

280 noted, the position-based control signals cannot be directly used in thruster-based ROV control.
 281 After data from Unity was received through ROS#, a data conversion process was necessary in
 282 ROS. Here as an example, we used a mini-class ROV, BlueROV2 (BlueRobotics 2021), which
 283 was equipped with six thrusters. For motion control signals, a scaled motion control signal from
 284 Unity, $\mathbf{P}_v = [\mathbf{v}_{rov.x}, \mathbf{v}_{rov.y}, \mathbf{v}_{rov.z}]^T$, can be directly converted to thruster control signals via **Eq.**
 285 **1** and **Eq. 2**, where $\mathbf{v}_{rov.x}$, $\mathbf{v}_{rov.y}$, and $\mathbf{v}_{rov.z}$ are control signals in Unity coordinate, \mathbf{P}_v is the
 286 control signal from the operator in Unity, $\mathbf{P}_{v.rov}$ is control signals for ROV, ${}^{ROS}T_{Unity}$ is the
 287 transformation matrix from Unity to ROS, and ${}^{ROV}T_{ROS}$ is the transformation matrix from ROS to
 288 ROV.

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{v.rov} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} = {}^{ROS}T_{Unity} {}^{ROV}T_{ROS} \begin{bmatrix} P_v \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

289

$$con = \begin{bmatrix} -P_{v.rov}(1) + P_{v.rov}(2) \\ -P_{v.rov}(1) - P_{v.rov}(2) \\ P_{v.rov}(1) - P_{v.rov}(2) \\ P_{v.rov}(1) + P_{v.rov}(2) \\ P_{v.rov}(3) \\ P_{v.rov}(3) \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

290 As for rotation control, similarly, after converting rotation data $\mathbf{P}_{\theta,rov}$ in Unity coordinate
 291 to correct format $\mathbf{P}_{\theta,rov}$ in the ROS coordinate illustrated in **Eq. 3**, a PD controller was then used
 292 to adjust ROV posture smoothly by comparing ROV current orientation with target human head
 293 orientation.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_{\theta,rov} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} = {}^{ROS}T_{Unity} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_{\theta} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

294 *Autonomy Control*

295 Based on the capability and size of ROV, many kinds of autonomy methods, such as PID
296 controller, SLAM and machine learning methods, can be applied. In this study, we only focused
297 on inspection used mini-class ROV. The sensors equipped and computation ability cannot support
298 high-cost methods. Therefore, a basic Kalman Filter and PID controller was used for the auto
299 navigation system.

300 There are two control modes for autonomy, stable mode and auto mode. **Fig.3** illustrated
301 the system scheme for Kalman Filter PID controller, where PID controller was used for ROV
302 motion control and Kalman Filter was used to eliminate measurement error for precise state
303 estimation. After the target position was assigned by human operators, the target position and ROV
304 estimated state were sent to PID controller to generate the control signals towards the target in VR.
305 The generated control signals, IMU sensor data, and ADCP flow data were then sent to Kalman
306 Filter. The Kalman Filter would calibrate the predicted data and sensor data to filter the noise and
307 estimate current state. The updated state data was then sent back to PID controller again for the
308 next frame control signal calculation. Specifically, parameters were set as $K_p = 1.55$, $K_i = 0.05$,
309 and $K_d = 0.74$ in current design. The PID parameters could be adjusted to optimized values by
310 the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm (Marini and Walczak 2015) based on the real
311 application needs. For stable mode, the target position was always set as the current state. As
312 mentioned above, the position-based control signals should be sent to ROV via ROS# and
313 converted to thruster-based control signals.

314

315

INSERT FIG.3 HERE

316

317 *User Interface*

318 To seamlessly integrate human and robot agents, a better user interface design is necessary.
319 Currently, there are two main challenges for VR User interface design. Firstly, it should be decided
320 how to switch control between humans and autonomy agents. Usually, it can be human-decided or
321 autonomy-decided, corresponding to different levels of autonomy. Secondly, ROV is needed to be
322 operated in a 3D space, which required a special design for target assignment. Conventional VR
323 UI design could only deal with 2D plane operation, which cannot fit the features of ROV
324 teleoperation. Additionally, sensory augmentation and haptomotor-driven control system was
325 designed to reduce human mental load during operation and learning barriers. The UI design
326 should not be too complex to require too much training process.

327 Given the human-centered control system we used, a human-decided switch control design
328 was used in this system. All the functional control was allocated on VR controllers. For better
329 understanding, the left-hand controller was used for human mode control and the right-hand
330 controller was designed for auto mode-related functions. As listed in Table 1, the left controller
331 trigger, grip and trackpad were designed for human control, entering the stable mode, and up &
332 down control respectively. On the other hand, the right-hand controller was mainly designed for
333 target selection for autonomy navigation, specifically including confirm current selection, cancel
334 current selection and up & down selection for 3D space navigation.

335

336

INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

337

338 To enable 3D navigation, we further developed the traditional mini-map UI for depth
339 selection. As shown in **Fig. 4**, operators could first select the target position in the xz plane (**Fig.**
340 **4a**) in the stable mode. After pushing the right-controller trigger button for confirmation, the mini-
341 map would rotate and the system entered the depth selection phase (**Fig. 4b**). Operators could
342 further use the trackpad to adjust the depth and push the trigger button for confirmation (**Fig. 4c**).
343 Then the system would enter auto mode and the ROV would automatically navigate to the target
344 point. Even in the auto mode, the orientation of ROV was synchronized with human operators.
345 This aimed to provide operators with immersive spatial information for their decision-making. For
346 example, operators might decide to change the target when observing accidents or strong
347 turbulences. The system would return to stable mode when the ROV arrived at the target position.

348

349

INSERT FIG.4 HERE

350

351 Although the mini-map system could provide depth selection, there could still be problems
352 for novices. For those who were familiar with the VR mini-map system, they could easily adapt.
353 But for novices, especially for those who were weak in spatial ability and recognition (McGee
354 1979), tremendous training was necessary to build the connection between the mini-map and the
355 real-world directions. In order to reduce the learning barriers for novices and take advantage of
356 VR, we also developed an egocentric target selection method (Masnadi et al. 2022), with which
357 human operators could behave as in the real world without too much mental process. As shown in
358 **Fig. 5**, operators could use their right-hand controller to point to the target in the xz plane. Then
359 similarly, enter the depth selection mode and adjust depth with trackpad on controller. There were

360 three lines located at 5m, 10m, and 30m for reference of distance. In general, mini-map system
361 provided a global view with more specific state estimation information, while egocentric system
362 was easier to access with lower training barriers.

363

364

INSERT FIG.5 HERE

365

366 ***Human Subject Experiment Design***

367 In order to verify the effectiveness of this task allocation method and HAT system, a human subject
368 experiment was conducted with three conditions, fully autonomy condition, human control
369 condition, and human autonomy condition. As shown in **Fig. 6**, participants were required to finish
370 a subsea pipeline inspection task, starting from a start point, planning the route based on flow
371 conditions, and returning to the start point to end the experiment. In total, there are three different
372 kinds of flow settings in the experiment. Each participant would start with a random flow setting
373 and need to plan their route appropriately for the shortest inspection time, based on the sensory
374 information they received. For autonomy condition, current ROV autonomy system could only
375 follow the predefined route without the ability to dynamically plan the route based on
376 environmental conditions.

377

378

INSERT FIG.6 HERE

379

380 Before the experiment started, each participant would sign the consent form and begin with
381 a training session to familiarize themselves with the system, including VR and haptic device,
382 control functions, as well as the procedure of the experiment. After that, human subjects were
383 asked to finish two conditions, human control condition and human autonomy condition. At the
384 same time, the fully autonomy condition experiment would be conducted with the same inspection
385 task. The system recorded the ROV's trajectories as well as the time to finish the inspection task.
386 As said above, a random flow setting would be selected at the beginning of each trial. This is aimed
387 to eliminate the learning effect. The three flow settings had been calibrated to have the similar
388 shortest finishing time. The distribution of three flow settings and the best navigation route were
389 plotted in **Fig. 7**.

390

391

INSERT FIG.7 HERE

392

393 After each experiment trial, participants were asked to finish two surveys, including a
394 NASA-TLX survey (Hart 2006) for the workload level estimate, and a user experience survey to
395 measure the perceived benefits of the control system. The user experience survey asked about
396 participants' overall preference, fatigue, concentration, feeling of system complexity, and
397 confidence in decision making. Finally, a demographic survey was conducted after the experiment,
398 to collect information about gender, age, college majors, and experience with VR. All results were
399 analyzed with the Wilcoxon tests as preliminary analysis found that data did not satisfy the
400 normality assumption (Cuzick 1985).

401 **RESULT**

402 *Participants*

403 In total, 28 college students were recruited for the human subject experiment. The demographic
404 information was shown in **Table 2**. Participants were aged from 20 years old to 32 years old (mean
405 = 26.43, std = 3.07), including 17 males and 11 females respectively. As for college majors, 21
406 participants were from engineering majors (75%) such as Civil Engineering and Computer
407 Science, and 7 participants (25%) were recruited from non-engineering majors such as Geography
408 and Biology. Despite the difference in gender, age and educational background, all participants
409 were trained to be familiar with VR devices and control system to finish the experiment.

410

411 **INSERT TABLE 2 HERE**

412

413 *Experiment Performance*

414 Firstly, we recorded the ROV's trajectory under three conditions, with a data capture rate of 60Hz.
415 These distinct conditions are illustrated in **Fig. 8**, where each group exhibits different trajectory
416 patterns. For the autonomy condition (**Fig. 8a**), it was observed autonomous algorithms
417 consistently produced ROV trajectories characterized by remarkable stability. Consequently, the
418 trajectories in this condition appeared more concentrated and shorter when compared to the other
419 conditions. However, it's important to note that these autonomous systems lacked the capability to
420 dynamically adjust their route plans in response to varying flow conditions. Conversely, for the
421 human condition (**Fig. 8b**), the trajectories were more scattered, which might be caused by the
422 limitations of human operators in terms of spatial recognition and precise control. However, human
423 operators exhibited the ability to adaptively modify route plans in accordance with changing flow

424 conditions. This kind of dynamic decision-making capability proves to be critical in real ROV
425 operations, particularly when navigating complex subsea environments characterized by dynamic
426 currents and unforeseen incidents. When the autonomy system was integrated with human control
427 (**Fig .8c**), it was observed that the strengths of both approaches were retained, leading to enhanced
428 performance. The trajectory pattern of this condition exhibited a degree of concentration when
429 compared to human control alone. Besides, this approach effectively leveraged the decision-
430 making capabilities of human operators to adapt route plans based on dynamic flow conditions,
431 further enhancing the ROV's performance.

432

433

INSERT FIG.8 HERE

434

435 The analysis of task finishing time also verified the effectiveness of human-autonomy
436 teaming approach. **Fig. 9** showed the average task finishing time of three conditions, with 210.12s
437 for autonomy condition, 180.09s for human condition, and 147.86s for human autonomy condition.
438 The Wilcoxon test showed a significant difference in task finishing time between autonomy
439 condition and human autonomy condition ($p < 0.0001$), between the human condition and human
440 autonomy condition ($p < 0.0001$) and between the autonomy condition and human condition ($p =$
441 0.019). In general, autonomy system was more capable of precise state estimation and position
442 control if appropriate sensor data was provided, but it lacked of intelligence to deal with dynamic
443 events. On the contrary, human operators were excellent in planning based on their previous
444 knowledge and experience. This result further proved that an appropriate human autonomy
445 teaming design could significantly enhance group performance compared to relying on humans or

446 autonomy only, by integrating the precise control ability of autonomous algorithms and the
447 dynamic decision making ability of human operators.

448

449 **INSERT FIG.9 HERE**

450

451 More interestingly, it was found that participants occasionally intervened in the autonomy
452 process within the HAT framework under some circumstances. To delve deeper into the
453 motivation behind this behavior and to inform future HAT system design, we highlighted the
454 trajectory data by labeling the human control process, as shown in **Fig 10**. In general, it is observed
455 that operators might switch control under two conditions. Firstly, operators might take control
456 when they were close enough to see the targets. While the precise rationale behind this behavior
457 remains unclear, we assumed the possibility of psychological factors influencing their decisions.
458 Besides, it was noted that a number of operators chose to take when navigating around hilly terrain,
459 opting for a direct, upward over-the-hill trajectory to reach the next target, while the autonomy
460 system was designed to follow a circumferential route around the hills. Actually, in the
461 experimental setup, no significant discrepancy in terms of total distance covered or time taken was
462 observed between these two routes. The operators' choice to intervene, perhaps rooted in their
463 intuition that a direct path should be swifter, highlighted a crucial aspect of autonomous systems:
464 the necessity for operators to comprehend the intentions of the ROV. As introduced earlier,
465 information transparency could be important within the HAT design, as it sustains human
466 comprehension and trust in autonomous agents. The insufficient transparency in our current design
467 suggests further improvement and investigation in subsequent studies.

468

469

INSERT FIG.10 HERE

470

471 ***Survey Result***

472 To further investigate how HAT method influenced human perception and work experience,
473 participants were asked to finish a NASA TLX survey and answer user experience questions,
474 including the preference of the control method (preference), overall fatigue level during the whole
475 operation process (fatigue), perceived concentration on the tasks (concentration), perceived
476 complexity of the control methods (complexity), and confidence in decision making and route
477 planning (confidence). Participants were asked to finish the surveys after each experiment trial.
478 All the questions were ranked from 0 to 10.

479 As shown in **Fig. 11**, participants showed an overall lower perceived workload in the sum
480 value of NASA TLX survey ($p < 0.0001$) in the HAT condition compared to human control only.
481 Similarly, participants also showed higher preference ($p < 0.0001$), lower fatigue level ($p <$
482 0.0001), lower perceived complexity ($p = 0.0009$), and higher confidence in control ($p < 0.0001$)
483 in the HAT condition. There was no significant difference in the perceived concentration ($p = 0.89$)
484 during the operation. The fatigue and high mental load have always been critical problems for
485 ROV pilots, especially for long-term navigation and inspection. Our survey findings showed the
486 potential of a well-designed HAT system in mitigating these challenges. Specifically, it becomes
487 evident that an appropriately designed HAT system can effectively reduce human fatigue and
488 perceived workload, and simplify the control interface. The reason might be that a competent HAT
489 system design can allocate a portion of the human workload, consequently leading to a substantial

490 reduction in human fatigue. Besides, additional information provided by the autonomy system
491 could assist in the human decision making process, which enhanced their confidence when
492 planning the route in the experiment.

493

494 **INSERT FIG.11 HERE**

495

496 **DISCUSSION**

497 This research tried to design a HAT strategy for ROV teleoperation based on sensory augmentation
498 technology and autonomy technology. In our design, the autonomy system was responsible for
499 position estimation and trajectory control and human operators concentrated on route plan and
500 dynamic decision making. A human subject experiment was conducted to compare the
501 performance difference between human control only, autonomy control only and human autonomy
502 system in subsea pipeline inspection tasks. The results preliminary revealed the effectiveness of
503 HAT method in reducing human workload, fatigue level, perceived difficulty in control and
504 enhancing human confidence in making decisions. However, there are still some further research
505 problems to be resolved.

506 First of all, it's important to note that our study exclusively employed a basic Kalman filter
507 and PID controller for the design of the mini-class ROV autonomy system. In contrast, larger-scale
508 ROVs equipped with high-fidelity sensors like sonar and underwater LiDAR could offer an
509 opportunity to implement more advanced technologies, including machine learning (ML), for more
510 precise trajectory control. Furthermore, additional functionalities like collision avoidance and
511 scenario reconstruction could be integrated if the computational capacity of larger ROVs allows.

512 The utilization of these advanced technologies holds the potential to significantly enhance the
513 synergy between human operators and ROVs, consequently augmenting the level of automation
514 (LOA) and its impact on human operators. On the other hand, as discussed in the result section,
515 human operators might opt to take control if it is hard for them to comprehend the intentions of
516 the ROV. This study did not delve extensively into the domain of system transparency. Our
517 preliminary findings suggested that a transparent system capable of explaining its decision-making
518 processes might further enhance this human-ROV relationship. Subsequent research endeavors
519 could prioritize investigating how transparency influences human decision-making within the
520 HAT system.

521 **CONCLUSION**

522 In this study, we designed and evaluated a human autonomous teaming (HAT) system for mini-
523 class remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) used in teleoperation scenarios. The system utilized a
524 combination of Kalman filters and PID controllers to enhance the capabilities of autonomous
525 systems while providing an intuitive user interface (UI) with a mini-map and an egocentric target
526 selection system to facilitate human interaction. This system enabled human operators with the
527 ability to dynamically assign complex decision-making and route planning objectives while
528 delegating the responsibility for state estimation and trajectory control to the ROV. A human-
529 subject experiment was conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of this system, including three
530 conditions: human control only, autonomous control only, and the HAT condition. The experiment
531 focused on a pipeline inspection task with different subsea current settings. The results obtained
532 through the combined analysis clearly demonstrated the superior performance of participants
533 operating under HAT conditions. Subjects not only demonstrated excellent task performance but
534 also provided favorable feedback in the post-task survey. Specifically, participants reported

535 significantly lower perceived workload, denoting reduced cognitive and physical burdens. Higher
536 confidence in decision making during task execution was observed, affirming the value of the HAT
537 system's seamless synergy between human expertise and autonomous capabilities. Notably,
538 participants reported lower levels of fatigue, which has long been a challenge in ROV
539 teleoperation. Moreover, perceived operation complexity was substantially reduced, enhancing the
540 overall user experience.

541 In summary, this study preliminarily proved the transformative potential of the HAT
542 system in mini-class ROV teleoperation. The innovative integration of human decision-making
543 with autonomous functionality not only enhanced task performance but also addressed critical
544 concerns related to operator fatigue and task complexity. This research was expected to encourage
545 more studies further exploring the application of HAT systems in similar operational contexts. In
546 addition, this study also suggested further researched topics based on experiment results, including
547 better autonomy system design involving more high-fidelity sensor data and transparency design.
548 Future investigations may also delve deeper into the system's adaptability and scalability in various
549 real-world scenarios, further solidifying its significance in the domain of ROV teleoperation.

550 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

551 All data, models, or code generated or used during the study are available from the corresponding
552 author by request.

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557

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Table 1. Functional control on VR controller

Controller	Button	Function
Left-Hand	Trigger	Hold for human mode
	Grip	Enter stable mode
	Trackpad	UP & down control for human mode
Right-Hand	Trigger	Confirm for selection
	Grip	Cancel current target
	Trackpad	Up & down selection for target position

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Table 2. Background information of participants (n=30)

Category	Item	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	17	60.71%
	Female	11	39.29%
Age	20 to 25	10	35.71%
	26 to 30	14	50.00%
	Above 30	4	14.29%
College Major	Engineering	21	50.00%
	Non-Engineering	7	25.00%

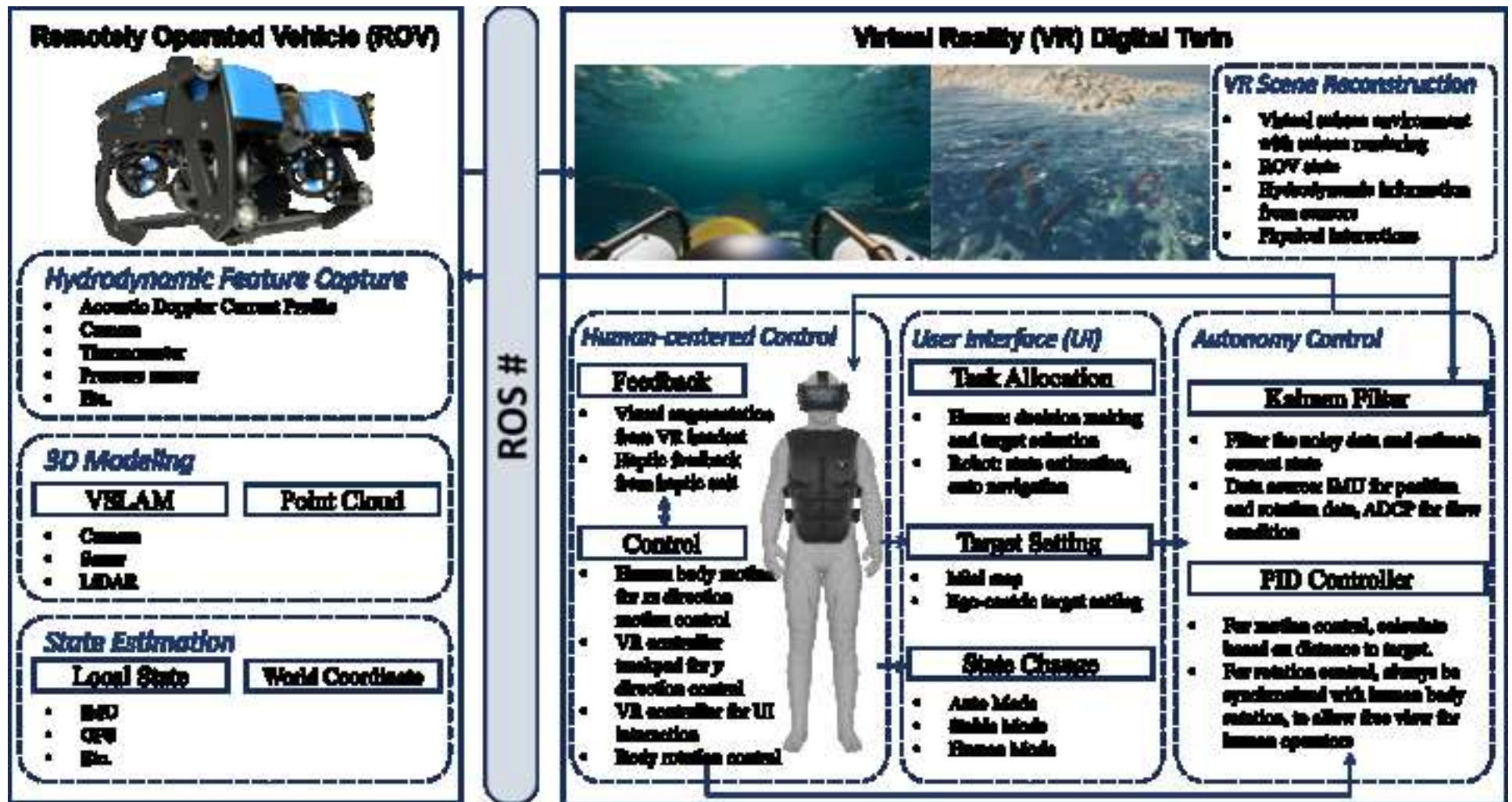
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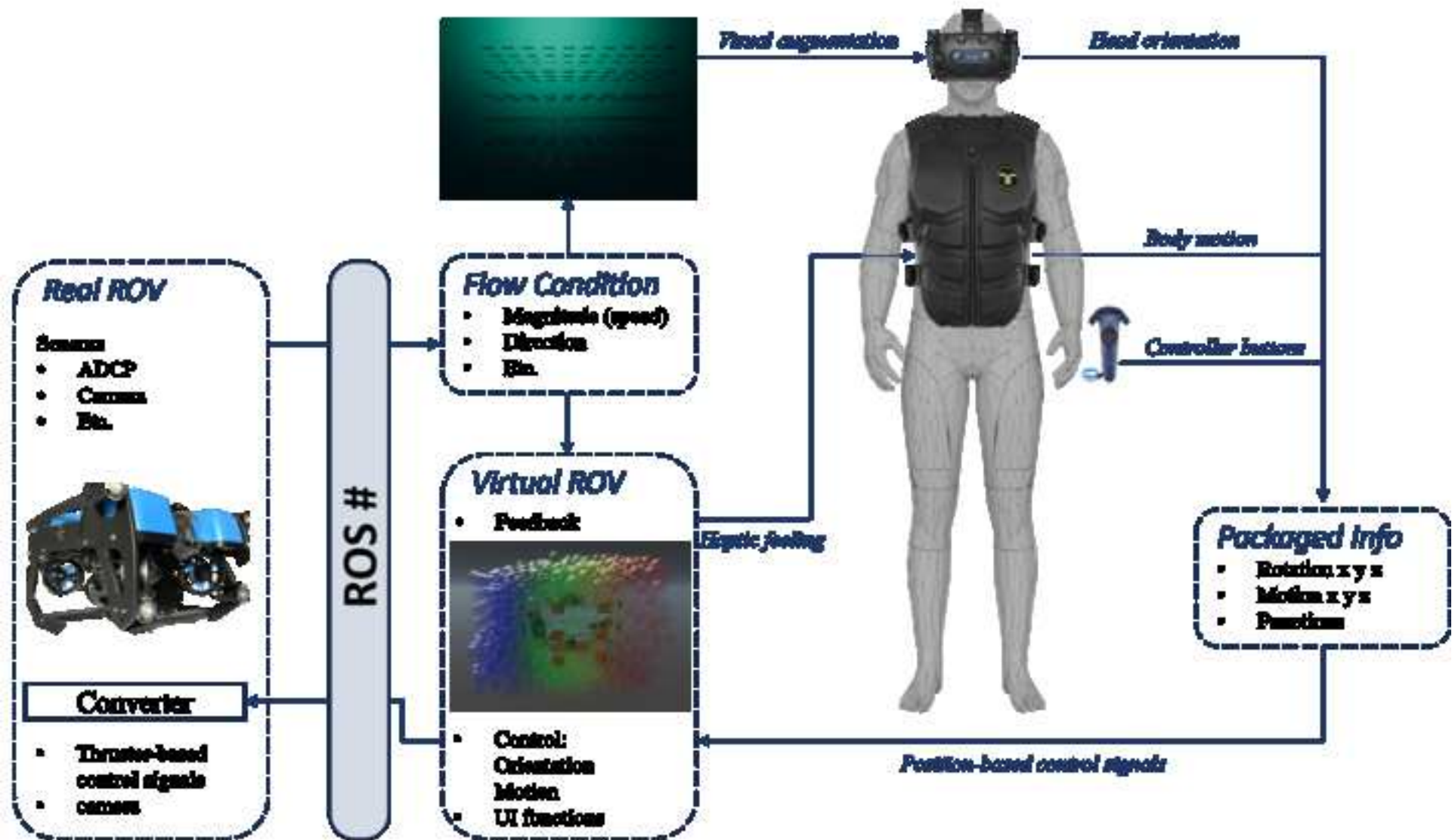
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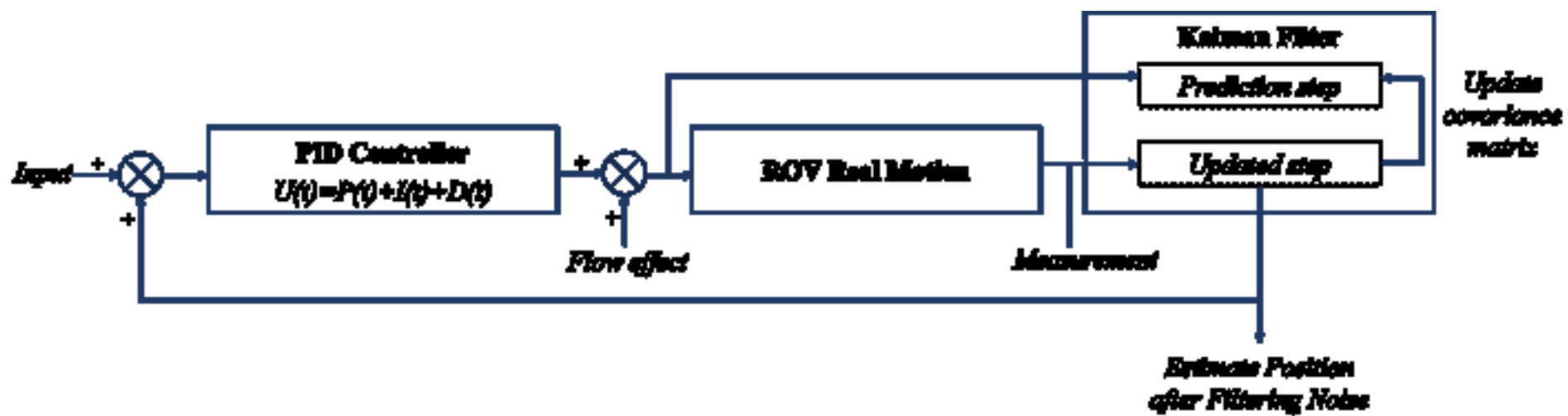
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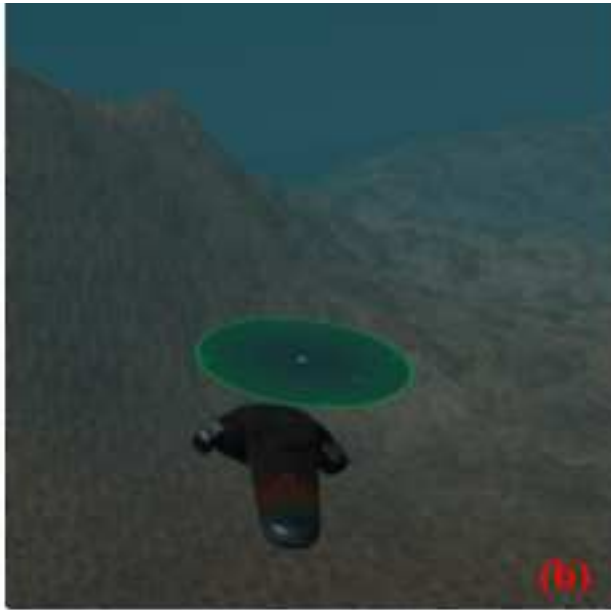
Table 1 Functional control on VR controller

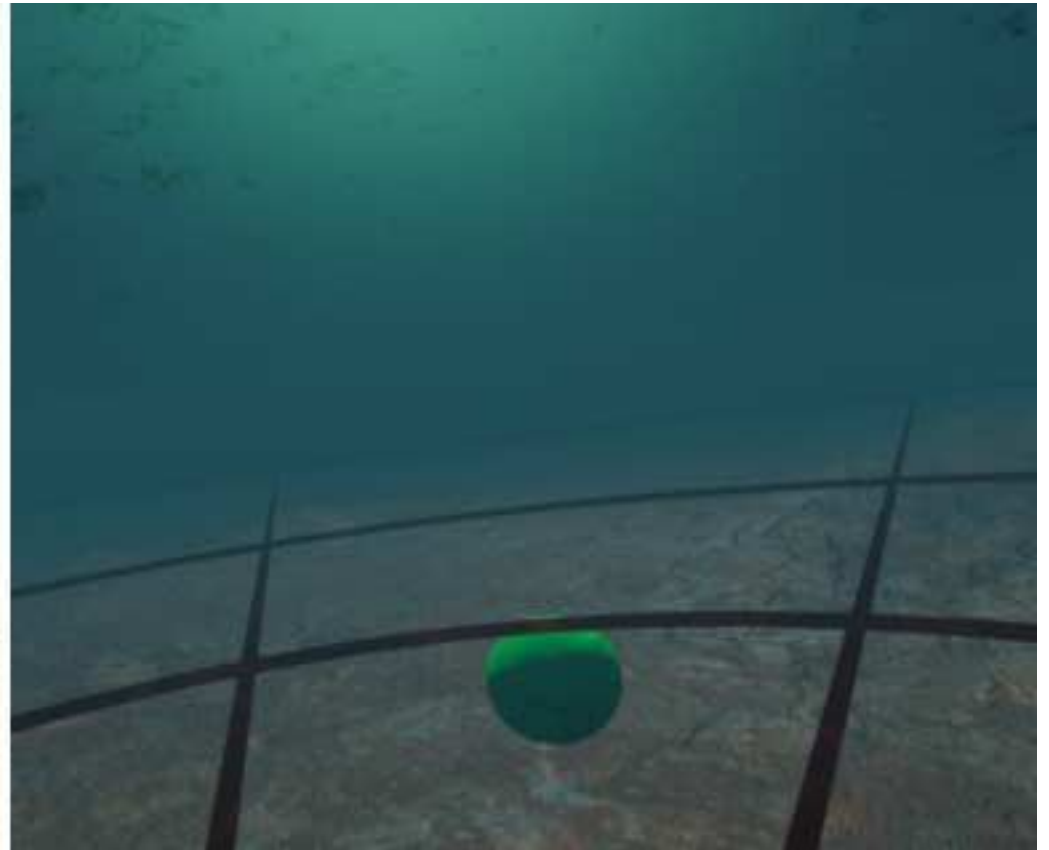
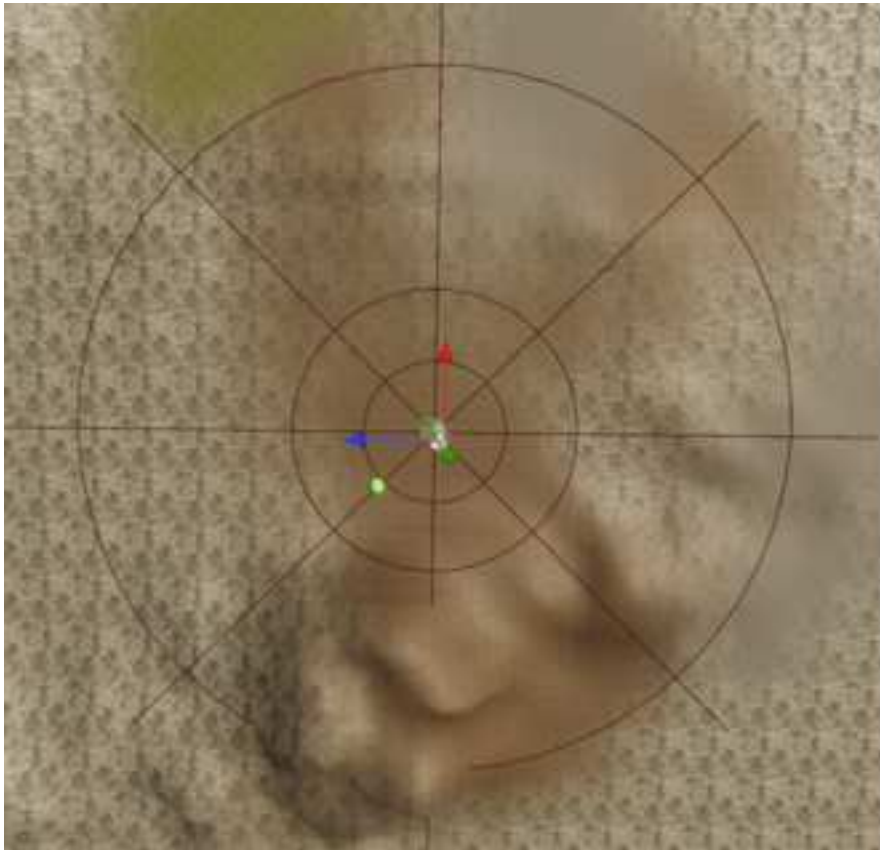
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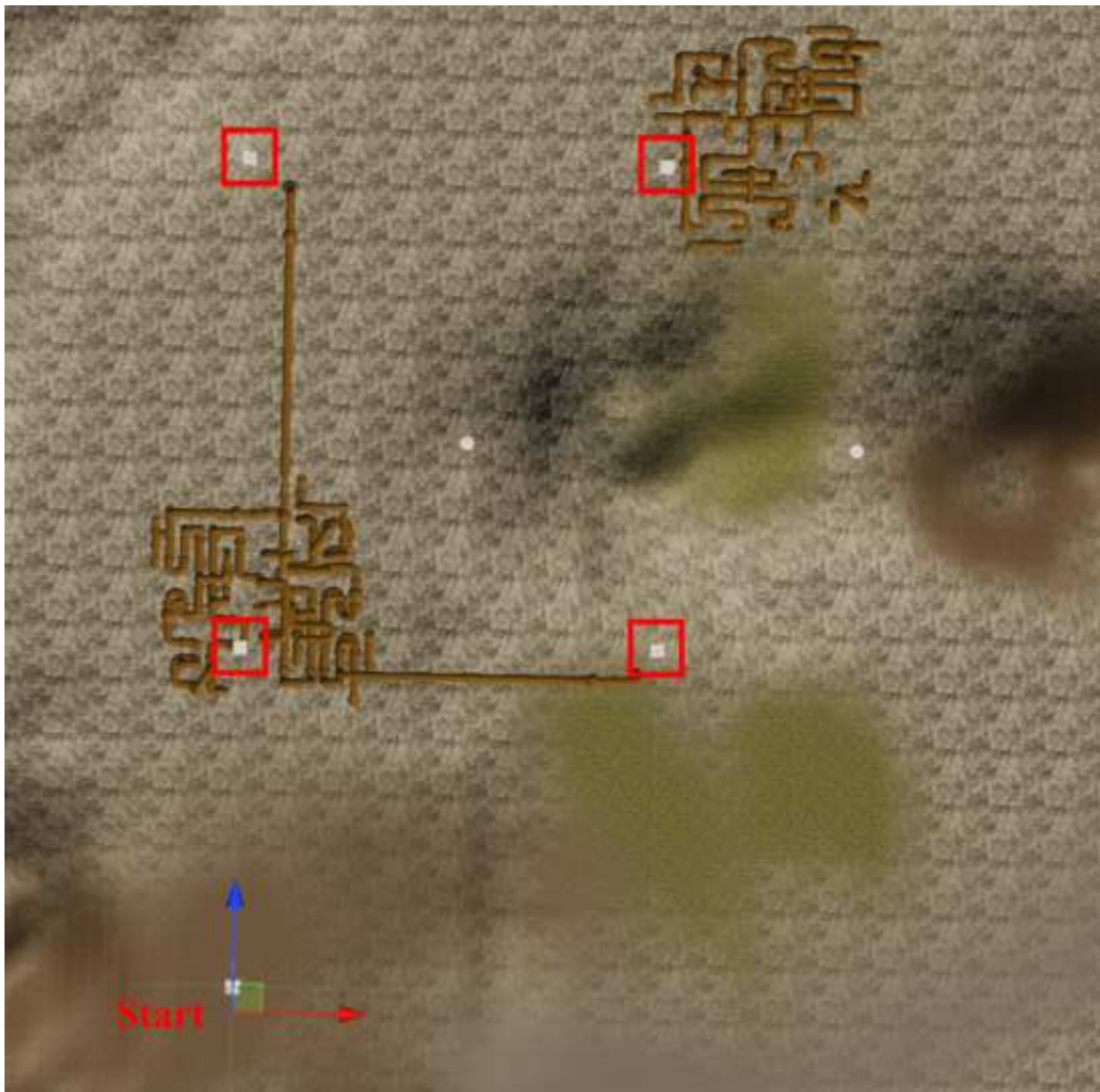


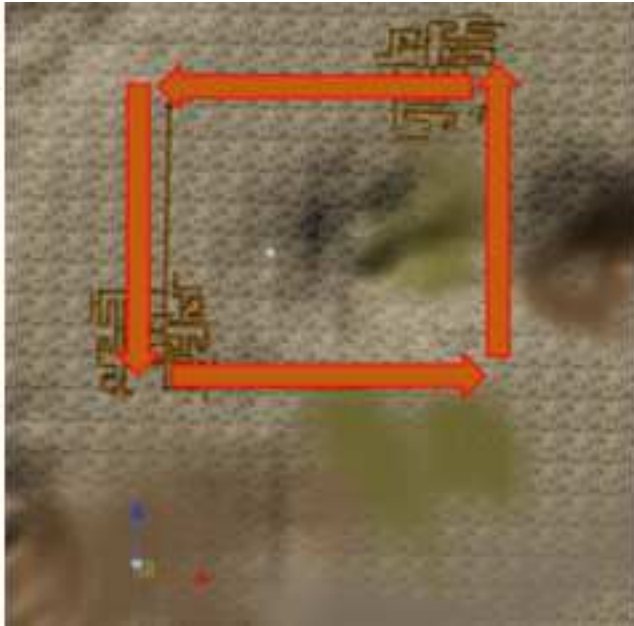
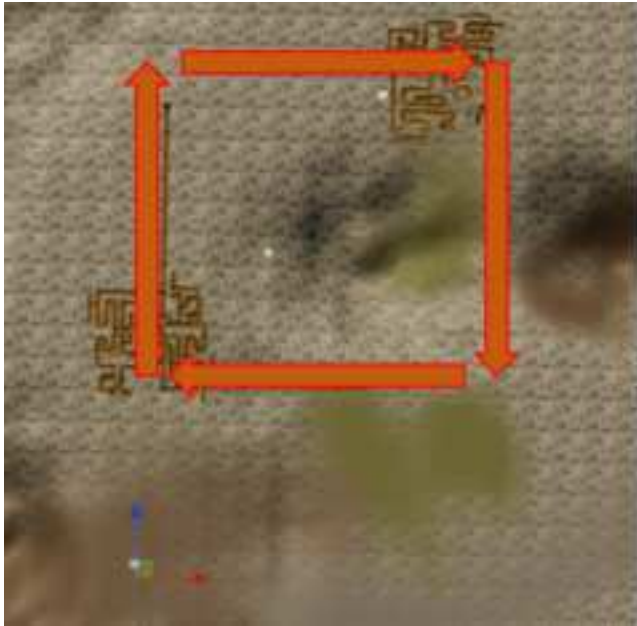


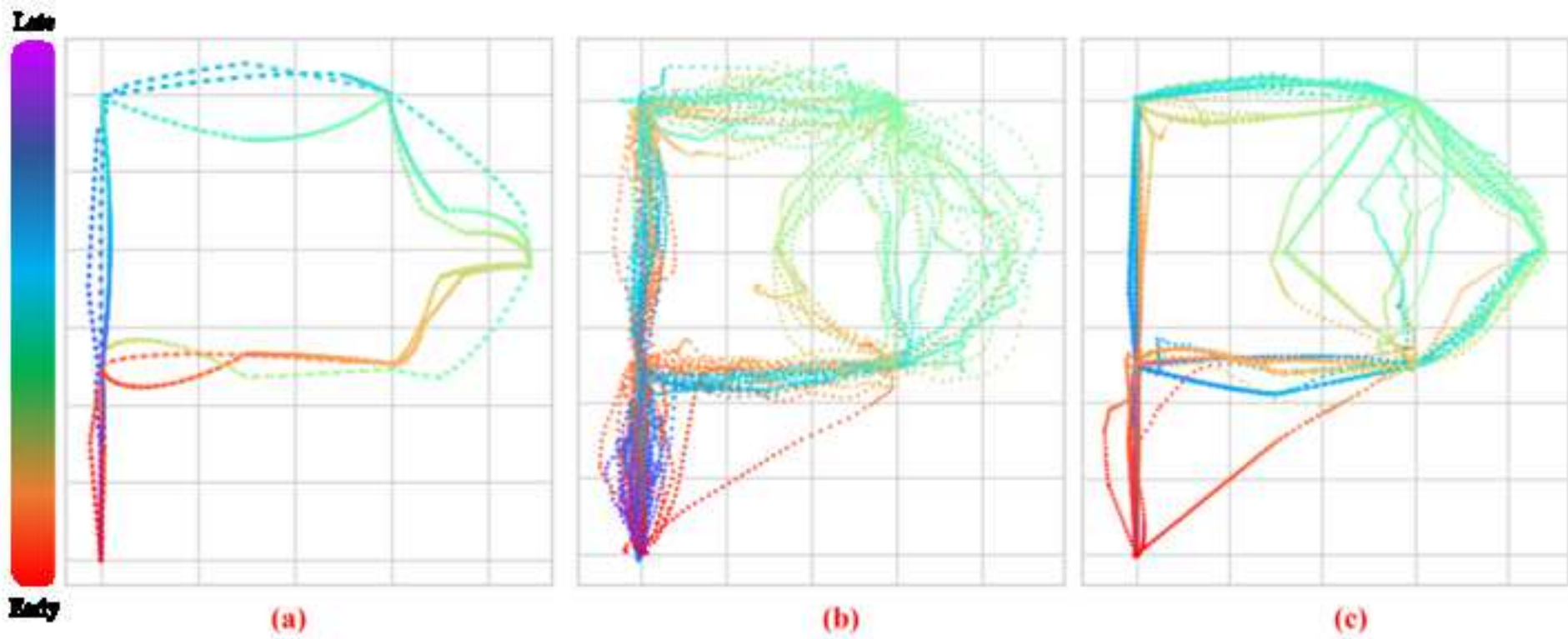


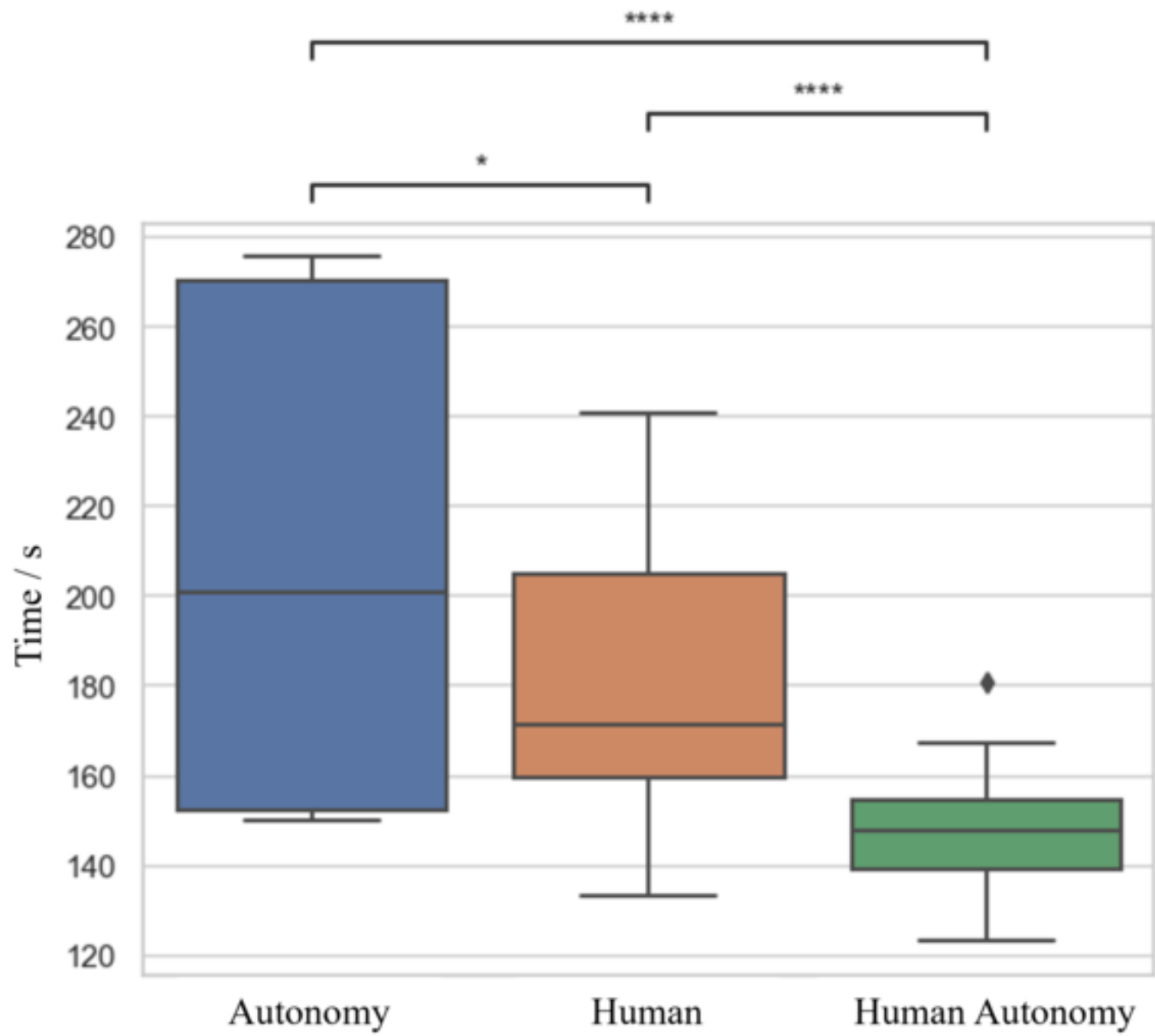


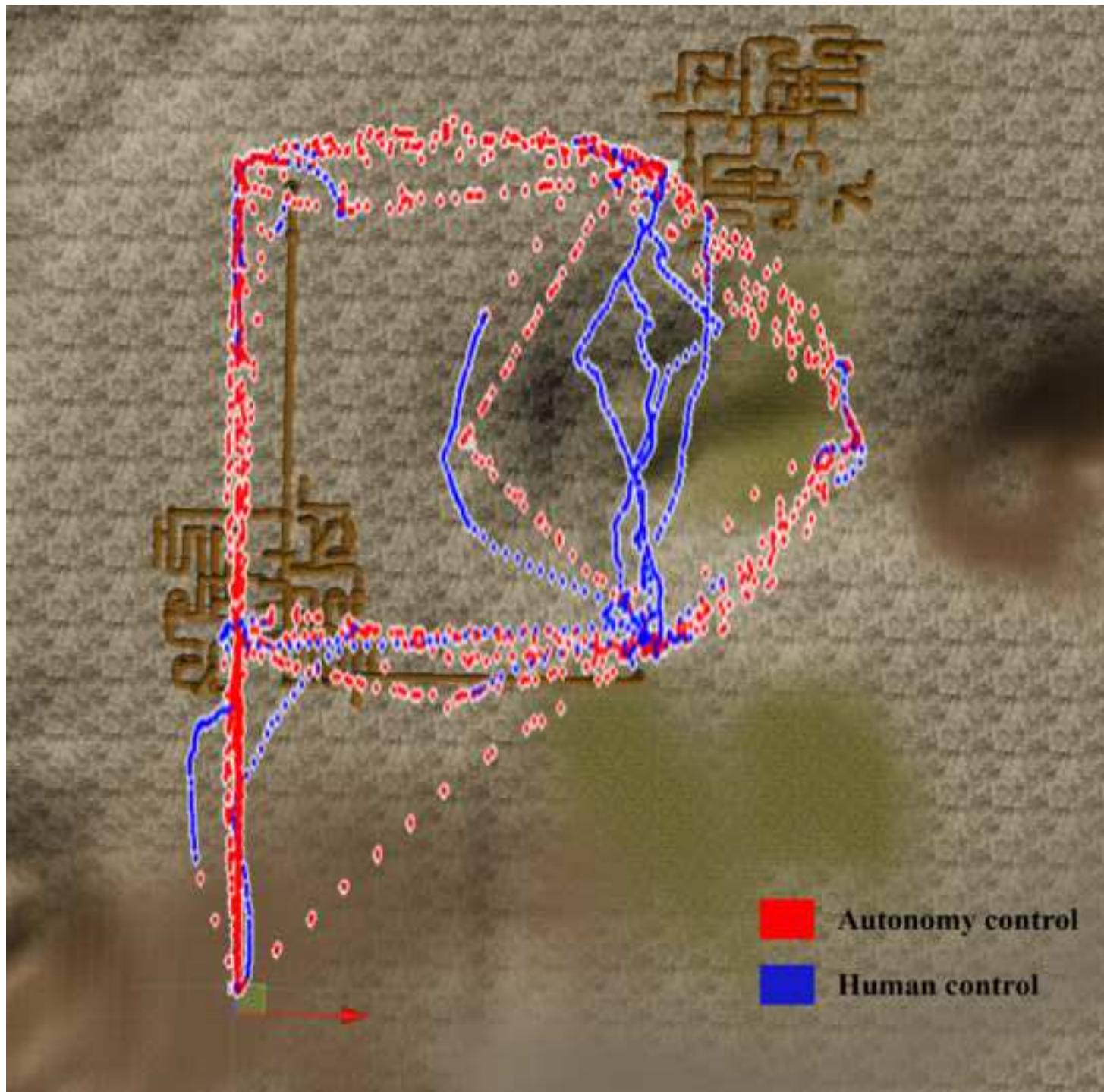


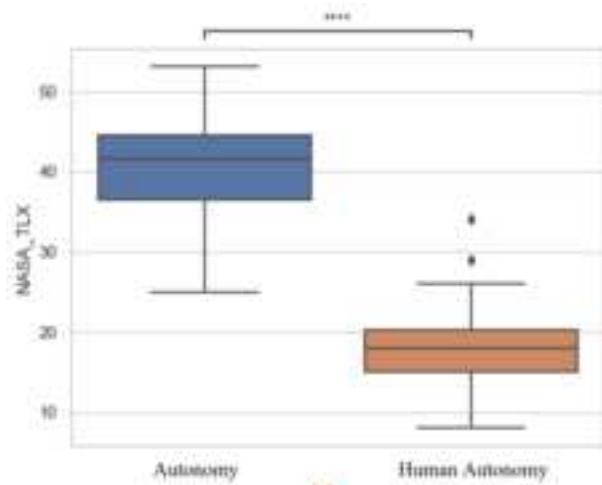




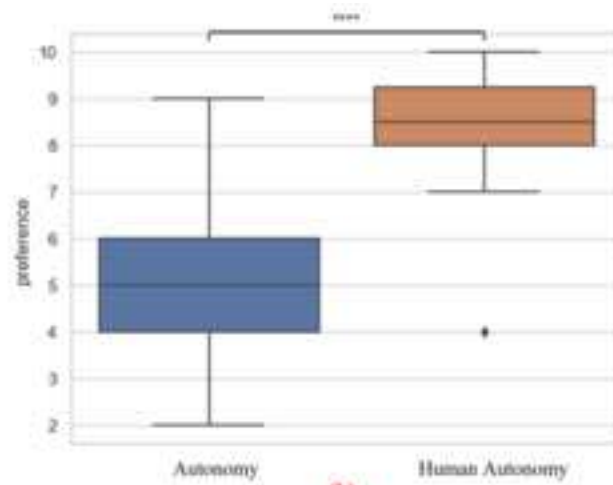




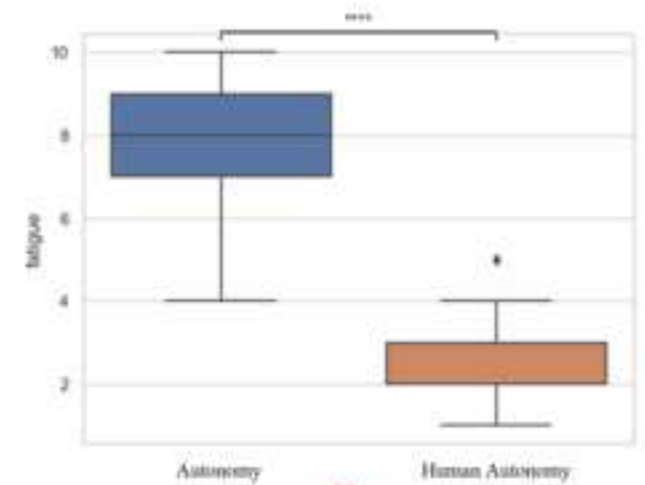




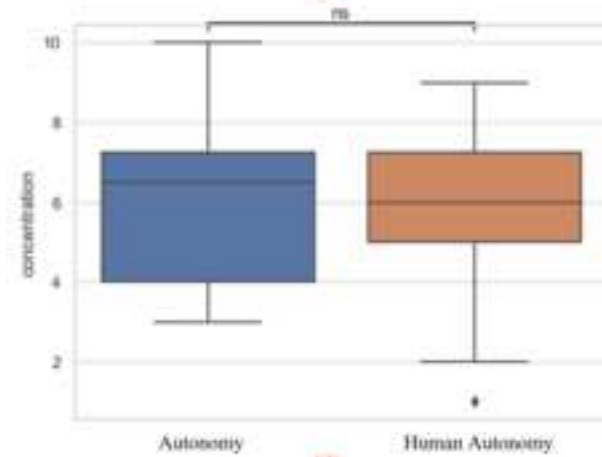
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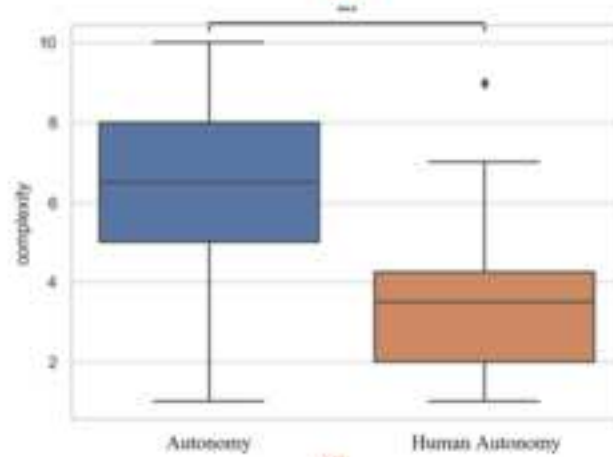
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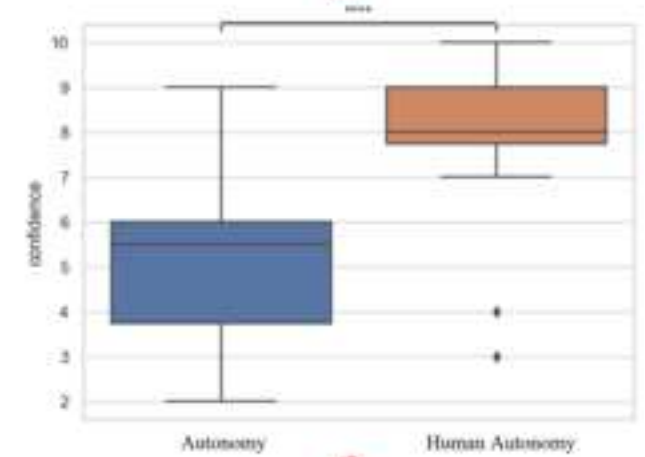
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig.1 System architecture for HAT based on sensory augmentation and autonomous methods

Fig.2 Sensory augmentation and haptomotor-driven control

Fig.3 Scheme for Kalman Filter & PID controller

Fig.4 Mini-map system for target selection

Fig.5 Egocentric target selection system

Fig.6 Pipe inspection experiment scene

Fig.7 Human-subject experiment flow settings

Fig.8 Trajectory patterns. (a) Autonomy condition; (b) Human condition; (c) Human autonomy condition

Fig.9 Task finishing time

Fig.10 Trajectory data labeled with human control

Fig.11 Survey Results: (a) NASA TLX; (b) preference; (c) fatigue; (d) concentration; (e) complexity; (f) confidence