Demo Submission: Virtual Humans for non-team interaction training

David Traum and William Swartout and Jonathan Gratch and Stacy Marsella
Patrick Kenney and Eduard Hovy and Shri Narayanan and Ed Fast
Bilyana Martinovski and Rahul Baghat and Susan Robinson and Andrew Marshall
Dagen Wang and Sudeep Gandhe and Anton Leuski
University of Southern California
Marina del Rey, CA, USA

Abstract

We will demo a virtual human who can engage in multi-modal negotiation dialogue with people from other organizations, to be used in training applications. The virtual humans build on sophisticated task, dialogue, and emotion models, with an added model of trust, which are used to decide interactional moves. The model has been implemented within an agent in the SASO-ST system, and some example dialogues are given, illustrating the necessity for building social bonds.

1 Introduction

Some kind of social and affective relationships between agents are needed for all but the most individualistic kinds of interaction. For teams working together on a shared task, there are quite strong requirements on mutuality (Cohen and Levesque, 1991; Grosz and Sidner, 1990). Allwood (Allwood, 1976), defined *Ideal Cooperation* between parties as a situation in which the parties

- 1. take each other into cognitive consideration
- 2. have a joint purpose
- 3. take each other into ethical consideration
- 4. trust each other to act in accordance with 1-3.

(Allwood et al., 2000) discussed how cooperation can also be less than ideal when only some of these factors hold, or they hold only to a lesser extent. Teams do not exist a priori – generally they must be built from individuals who have more neutral relationships. While some teams may be built artificially when agents engage in activities with specific team roles, or out of local perceived self-interest, in general bonds are needed to hold teams together. To do

this, ethical consideration and trust must be built from a starting point in which such trust may not exist. Building such trust is a real issue in teambuilding, especially when there are conflicting goals or interests.

We claim that virtual humans can play an important role in helping train these skills of establishing bonds and teams. By building virtual humans that are not just humanoid in appearance and external behavior, but which also have internal models (including beliefs, goals, plans, and emotions) and ability to reason over these models and formulate appropriate strategies and behaviors on the basis of the models and perceptual input, virtual humans can behave appropriately for a range of social relationships, e.g., by taking other agents into cognitive and ethical consideration (e.g., by fulfilling obligations or reasoning about politeness issues) and trusting other agents to do the same.

In previous work (Rickel et al., 2002; Traum et al., 2003), we described virtual humans that could engage as teammates and negotiate and carry out team tasks. While this model handled cases where strong social bonds were already assumed (including common end goals, a social institution with roles that the participants played, and strong trust in the teammates abilities and veracity), it did not address how virtual humans might interact in the case where these bonds were lacking, and how to begin to form them through interaction.

In this paper, we describe the first attempts to extend this model to the more general case, where bonds may need to be developed during the interaction, and in which the virtual human's behavior may be very different depending on the nature and strength of the bonds. In the next section, we describe our initial testbed: a scenario within the SASO-ST project. In Section 3, we briefly describe the virtual human model and how trust of the agent toward another is calculated. In section 4, we show



Figure 1: VR clinic and virtual human doctor

two example interactions with this agent, showing how the dynamic trust model is developed during the interaction and how this can affect the agent's choice of utterance.

2 Domain Testbed: support operations

Whether it is Kosovo, East Timor, or Iraq, one lesson that has emerged from attempts at "peacemaking" is that negotiation skills are needed across all levels of civilian and government organizations involved. To have a lasting positive effect, interactions between military and locals must be carried out in a way that generates goodwill and trust. We have selected this general class of operations as a testbed for our work on negotiation.

More specifically, we are developing a training scenario in which a local military commander (who has a rank of captain) must negotiate with a medical relief organization. A virtual human plays the role of a doctor running a clinic. A human trainee plays the role of the captain, and is supposed to negotiate with the doctor to get him to move the clinic, which could be damaged by a planned military operation. Ideally, the captain will convince the doctor without resorting to force or threats and without revealing information about the planned operation. Figure 1 shows the trainee's view of the doctor in his office inside the clinic. The success of the negotiation will depend on the trainee's ability to follow good negotiating techniques, when confronted with different types of behavior from the virtual doctor.

The success of a negotiation is also mediated by factors that influence the perceived trust between parties, including a belief in shared goals, credibility and interdependence. The doctor is unlikely to be swayed by an offer of aid if he does not believe the captain can and will fulfill his commitments. Trust issues are pervasive throughout the negotiation, since there is usually not much point in negotiating with someone you expect to lie, be ill-disposed toward you, or not keep their side of a bargain.

3 Virtual Human Negotiation Implementation

We take as our starting point the virtual humans implemented as part of the MRE project (Rickel et al., 2002). These virtual humans are embedded in a dynamic virtual world, in which events can happen, agents can perform actions, and humans and virtual humans can speak to each other and communicate using verbal and non-verbal means. The virtual humans include sophisticated models of emotion reasoning (Gratch and Marsella, 2004), dialogue reasoning (Traum and Rickel, 2002) and a model of team negotiation (Traum et al., 2003). Agents use a rich model of dialogue closely linked with a task model and emotional appraisals and coping strategies for both interpretation of utterances as well as for decisions about when the agent should speak and what to say.

To negotiate and collaborate with humans and artificial agents, virtual humans must understand not only the task under discussion but also the underlying motivations, beliefs and even emotions of other agents. The virtual human models build on the causal representations developed for decisiontheoretic planning and augment them with methods that explicitly model commitments to beliefs and intentions. Plan representations provide a concise representation of the causal relationship between events and states, key for assessing the relevance of events to an agent's goals and for assessing causal attributions. Plan representations also lie at the heart of many reasoning techniques (e.g., planning, explanation, natural language processing) and facilitate their integration. The decision-theoretic concepts of utility and probability are key for modeling nondeterminism and for assessing the value of alternative negotiation choices. Explicit representations of intentions and beliefs are critical for negotiation and for assessing blame when negotiations fail (Mao and Gratch, 2004).

3.1 Modeling Trust

According to the dialogue model in (Matheson et al., 2000), the direct effect of an assertion is the introduction of a commitment, whether or not either party believes in the assertion. While this is sufficient for reasoning about the claims and responsibil-

ity for information, we need to go further and potentially change beliefs and intentions based on communicated information. Trust is used to decide whether to adopt a new belief based on the commitments of another.

Similar to (Marsella et al., 2004) and (Cassell and Bickmore, 2001), trust is modeled as function of underlying variables that are easily derived from our task and dialogue representations. Solidarity is a measure of the extent to which parties have shared goals. It is derived from a running tally of how many times the trainee makes assertions or demands that are congruent with the agent's goals. Credibility is a measure of the extent a party makes believable claims. It is derived from a running tally of how many times the trainee makes assertions that are consistent with the agent's beliefs. Finally, familiarity is a measure of the extent to which a party obeys norms of politeness. Currently, an overall measure of trust is derived as a linear combination of these three factors.

4 Example Interactions

Consider the dialogue in Figure 2. This is just one of many possible interactions, depending on the choices of the human captain, as well as several aspects (some probabilistic) influencing the choice of moves and strategy transitions of the virtual human doctor.

Here the captain acts as he might with a team member - after starting the conversation, launching directly into his purpose, and answering a question straightforwardly. While this would have worked with a subordinate team-member, it has disastrous effects on the neutral doctor, bringing his trust level almost down to zero and failing to accomplish both objectives.

In this dialogue, nothing was done by the captain to try to establish a better relationship with the doctor, or address the issue of differing objectives and beliefs. The first exchange after the greetings (utterances 2-5) lowers solidarity by showing different objectives, setting up more of an antagonistic than cooperative interaction. The doctor tries to avoid the topic, focusing instead on his patients, rather than the captain's stated goal. The captain tries to argue for his proposed course of action, but only makes things worse with utterance 7. First, he says something the doctor doesn't believe (that the clinic is in danger), lowering his credibility. The doctor is able to reason though that perhaps the captain knows of a reason why it will be unsafe, and challenges by asking if he is going to cause the danger. In 9, the captain answers sincerely, which is a mistake on two fronts. First, he reveals more about his mission than

- 1 C Hello Doctor Perez.
- 2 D Hello
- 3.1 C I have orders to move this clinic to another location.
- 4 D You want to move the clinic?
- 5 C Yes

DECREASES SOLIDARITY: captain endorses undesired act 'run-clinic-there'

- 6.1 D Look at these people!
- 6.2 D we need to help them.
- 7 C It is not safe here, we cant protect you. DECREASES CREDIBILITY: captain asserted unbelieved (but possible) state 'patients-unsafehere'

'patients-unsafe-here' could be established by captain's act of 'planned-attack'

- 8.1 D Protect me? Protect me from what?
- 8.2 D Are you going to attack?
- 9 C Yes

DECREASES SOLIDARITY: captain committed to perform undesired act 'planned-attack'

10.1 D We need proper supplies here Unsuccessfully conclude the negotation about runclinic-there

- 10.2 D To move the clinic is not possible, we have many patients in critical condition.
- 11 C It is very important to move now!
- 12.1 D You are the threat, I need protection from you!
- 12.2 D I would have to refuse this decision.
- 12.3 D I must go now.

Figure 2: Unsuccessful negotiation dialogue between C, a captain (human trainee) and D, a doctor (virtual Human) showing positive and negative effects on trust.

he should to an outsider, possibly endangering it's success if word gets out to his enemies. Second, he shows even further divergence from the doctor's goals — attacking rather than helping the patients. After one more brief attempt to change the topic and get help for his own goals, the doctor gives up on the captain in (10.2), and tries to get out of the negotiation. The captain has failed in his objective and prospects are not good for future relations.

For really learning about negotiation it is very helpful to know not just what the other party did, but why. In real negotiations it is usually not possible to get "inside the head" of the negotiating partner, and even subsequent questions can sometimes damage the nature of the interaction itself. In this respect, virtual humans present a real opportunity to improve on training. As shown in Figure 2, we have

```
1
       \mathbf{C}
           Hello Doctor Perez.
2
       D
           Hello
3
       \mathbf{C}
            Very nice to meet you! [+FAMILIARITY]
       D
           What do you want?
4
5
           I have orders to assist you in moving this
            clinic to a safer location.
6
       D
            You want to move the clinic?
       \mathbf{C}
            Yes [-SOLIDARITY]
Strategy shift: Avoid negotiating about move
8.1
       D
           This conflict is madness, it is killing people!
8.2
      D
            We need proper supplies here!
       \mathbf{C}
            It is not safe here we can't protect you.
            [-CREDIBILITY]
       D
           Protect me? Protect me from what?
10.1
      D
            Are you going to attack?
10.2
            I can not disclose more information but it will
11
            be a problem to stay here.
            You are the problem your bombs are killing
12
       D
            these people!
13
            Sir, we are trying to help these people too.
            [-CONTROL + SOLIDARITY]
Strategy shift: Disrupt negotiation about move
14.1
            The patients are here,
14.2
      D
            to move the clinic is not possible we have
            many patients in critical condition.
       \mathbf{C}
15
            We can move you to a safer location.
16
       D
           I can't move all these patients.
17
       \mathbf{C}
            We can organize the transportation and assist
            you with the moving. [+SOLIDARITY]
      D
18
            I can't move all these patients.
19
      \mathbf{C}
            We can have locals move you.
            [+SOLIDARITY]
20
       D
            There are no supplies there.
21
            We can provide you with the supplies you
            need to help your patients. [+SOLIDARITY]
Strategy shift: Willingly negotiate about move
22.1
           I think I understand what you say.
22.2
       D
            Well perhaps we can reach an agreement,
22.3
      D
           but before we can think about moving, we
           need you to bring antibiotics and plasma to
            stabilize the patients.
            [+INTERDEPENDENCE]
23
       \mathbf{C}
            We can do that! [+SOLIDARITY]
      D
24.1
            Well
            Very well captain contact my assistant to
24.2
      D
            make further arrangements.
25
       \mathbf{C}
            I'll see to it personally. [+SOLIDARITY]
26.1
      D
            I understand your position.
26.2
      D
            My patients need my attention now.
27
       \mathbf{C}
            Thank you Doctor!
28.1
       D
           Well,....
28.2
       D
           I must go now
            Goodbye.
29
       \mathbf{C}
           Good bye.
30
```

Figure 3: Example negotiation dialogue between C, a captain (human trainee) and D, a doctor (virtual Human), showing strategy shifts and positive and negative effects on trust.

implemented a trace facility that provides an annotated transcript of the dialogue, showing not just what the virtual human thought was said, but how it influenced his trust, beliefs, and strategy choice. This tool can be used in an "after action review" (AAR) to look in detail at the specific effects the trainee's negotiation tactics had. Here we can see the reasons for decreases in credibility and solidarity as effects of the commitments the captain makes in relation to desires and beliefs of the doctor.

Figure 3 shows a more successful interaction, where the captain tries to build bonds as well as accomplish his task. While the captain's behavior in this dialogue is not perfect either (the captain might have been better served spending more time up front establishing familiarity and solidarity and perhaps addressing the doctor's concerns first), it is a big improvement over the dialogue in Figure 2. Here the greetings in turn 3 add some familiarity, and the evasion in turn 11 does not do as much damage as the blanket statement of acting against the doctor's interest in the previous dialogue. Things are still not going very well, though, until the captain establishes some common goals with turn 13. With slightly higher trust, the doctor does not break off negotiation at this point, but rather raises a series of objections. By addressing each of the doctor's concerns: safety of patients, lack of supplies, lack of transport, and neutrality, the captain is able to bring him around to the point where the move is not an absolute negative, but is worthy of consideration, as part of a team plan. Finally, the two participants reach an agreement including giving needed supplies as part of the conditions of moving the clinic.

In a companion paper, we describe the negotiation strategies that the virtual doctor uses, based on his current feeling about the desirability and avoidability of the object of negotiation, and the degree of closeness with his interlocutor. We can see several distinct phases of the dialogue in Figure 3, relating to different negotiation strategies. The initial segment (turns 1-7) includes initial greetings and establishing the topic for the conversation - the captain wants to move the clinic. In turns 8-12, the doctor engages in an avoidance strategy, trying to avoid this topic by bringing up other issues, such as his need for supplies, and the general problems of conflict. In turns 14-20, the doctor has adopted an attack strategy, and points out problems with the proposed move. In turns 22-25, the doctor adopts a more open negotiation strategy, and an actual bargain is struck. Finally, turns 26-30 show a closing phase in which the doctor disengages from the conversation, while the captain tries to establish good

relations for future interaction. Application of these strategies influences not just the choice of dialogue move, but the whole body posture of the doctor and use of gestures and expressions as well. For example, when the doctor is feeling more distant and less trusting, he adopts the closed posture as shown in Figure 1. When he is more trusting and open to negotiation, the posture becomes more relaxed, as in Figure 4.



Figure 4: More relaxed and open doctor

Acknowledgements

The work described in this paper was supported by the Department of the Army under contract number DAAD 19-99-D-0046. Any opinions, findings and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Department of the Army.

References

- Jens Allwood, David Traum, and Kristiina Jokinen. 2000. Cooperation, dialog, and ethics. In International Journal of Human Computer Studies, 53(6):871-914.
- Jens Allwood. 1976. Linguistic Communication as Action and Cooperation. Ph.D. thesis, Göteborg University, Department of Linguistics.
- Justine Cassell and Timothy Bickmore. 2001. A relational agent: A model and implementation of building user trust. In *Proceedings of ACM CHI* conference, pages 396-403, New York. ACM Press.
- Phillip R. Cohen and Hector J. Levesque. 1991. Teamwork. Nous, 35.
- Jonathan Gratch and Stacy Marsella. 2004. A domain-independent framework for modeling emotion. Journal of Cognitive Systems Research.

- Barbara J. Grosz and Candace L. Sidner. 1990.
 Plans for discourse. In P. R. Cohen, J. Morgan, and M. E. Pollack, editors, *Intentions in Communication*. MIT Press.
- Wenji Mao and Jonathan Gratch. 2004. Social judgment in multiagent interactions. In In proceedings of AAMAS 2004: Third International Joint Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multi-Agent Systems, pages 210-217.
- Stacy Marsella, David Pynadath, and Stephen Read. 2004. Psychsim: Agent-based modeling of social interactions and influence. In *In proceedings of International Conference on Cognitive Modeling*, pages 243–248.
- Colin Matheson, Massimo Poesio, and David Traum. 2000. Modelling grounding and discourse obligations using update rules. In Proceedings of the First Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jeff Rickel, Stacy Marsella, Jonathan Gratch, Randall Hill, David Traum, and William Swartout. 2002. Toward a new generation of virtual humans for interactive experiences. *IEEE Intelligent Systems*, 17.
- David R. Traum and Jeff Rickel. 2002. Embodied agents for multi-party dialogue in immersive virtual worlds. In *Proceedings of the first International Joint conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent systems*, pages 766-773.
- David Traum, Jeff Rickel, Stacy Marsella, and Jonathan Gratch. 2003. Negotiation over tasks in hybrid human-agent teams for simulation-based training. In In proceedings of AAMAS 2003: Second International Joint Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multi-Agent Systems, pages 441–448, July.