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Abstract-Shared mental models are critical to team success; such preventable errors, here, we present a Bayesian approach we demonstrate our approach using two simulated team-based scenarios, derived from actual teamwork in cardiac surgery. human cognition in the operating room and improve teamwork.

Index Terms-teamwork, surgical data science, cardiac surgery, Bayesian inference, patient safety, artificial intelligence

I. INTRODUCTION

Alignment of mental models among the members of a team is critical to achieving effective teamwork. In absence of shared understanding [1] about the goals, plans and context of the team, teamwork often results in preventable errors [2], [3]. For instance, lack of shared mental models between members of a flight crew can result in aviation accidents [3]. Similarly, misalignment between members of a surgical team can adopt best practices (such as team training and debriefing) to improve their mental model sharing [5]-[7]. Nevertheless, the possibility of preventable error persists due to the impact of execution-time factors, such as high workload, surgical flow disruptions or fatigue [8].

Informed by the challenges of teamwork in the cardiac operating room (Fig. 1), our goal is to mitigate preventable errors of human teams performing goal-oriented and time-ॅ, critical can be can b metrics of evaluating team fluency, provide one avenue for teams to improve shared understanding and teamwork [9]-



Fig. 1. Teamwork in the cardiac operating room: Surgery being performed by a team of surgeons, anesthesiologists, perfusionists, and nurses.

[11]. However, due to their inherent post-hoc nature, it is ॅ, difficult diff and alleviate preventable errors arising due to execution-time factors. Moreover, while collaborating, it is not easy for team members to self-assess their teamwork, due to distributed cognition and the partially observable nature of collaboration.

We posit that augmenting post-hoc assessments with on-thefly interventions can help mitigate preventable errors caused due to execution-time factors. We envision a digital team member (AI Coach) that can assess and improve teamwork by monitoring the team members during their collaborative task execution and providing timely interventions. Due to the advances in surgical data science, sensing hardware and software [12]–[15], the opportunity is ripe to develop such an execution-time tool. However, several challenging problems need to be resolved to realize its vision. For instance, based on the sensed information, the AI Coach would need to infer whether the mental models (a latent quantity) are aligned. Similarly, it would need to identify when to provide interventions

II. REPRESENTING COLLABORATIVE TASKS

A mathematical representation of teamwork is necessary to enable automated reasoning of team behavior. Motivated by the variety of teaming contexts, research on human teaming, multi-agent systems and human-robot collaboration has led to several formalism to represent teamwork [17]–[19]. Here, we utilize a multi-agent and partially observable variant of MDPs, to represent goal-oriented collaborative tasks of interest.

MDPs provide a framework to represent sequential decisionmaking tasks [16]. They are specified by a set of states $s \in S$, which represent the task context; a set of actions $a \in A$, which represent the actions that can be taken while performing the task; a transition model $T: S \times A \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$, which specifies the distribution over the next task state given current state and action; and a reward function $R: S \rightarrow \Re$, which specifies the reward of reaching a state and can encode task goals. As MDPs can encode stochastic outcomes and goals, they provide a useful framework to represent real-world sequential tasks.

MDPs, however, represent tasks with one decision-maker. To represent teams, we consider its multi-agent variants, where the action represents joint action of a team. Specifically, for a team with n members, the joint action is represented as $a = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$, thereby enabling modeling of multiple decision-makers. The task progress (through the transition model), now, depends on the joint action (i.e., action of each

team member). The behavior of a team, for a fully observable multi-agent MDP, can be specified using n policies, where $\pi_i(a_i|s)$ denotes the policy of the *i*-th team member.

A. Protamine Administration

Cardiac surgery is performed by a team of surgeons, anes-2); in academic medical centers, a subset of the team can experience. After successful weaning of the patient from the cardioplumonary bypass machine, alongside removal of the venous and arterial cannulas, protamine needs to be administered to reverse the anticoagulant effect of heparin and restore normal blood coagulation. The resident anesthesiologist (RA) administers protamine after receiving a verbal request from the attending surgeon (AS), after which the surgeon begins removing the cannulas. One caveat is that a patient may be allergic to protamine leading to a life-threatening "protamine reaction" syndrome; hence, protamine needs to be administered intravenously incrementally over 5-10 minutes and not as a single intravenous bolus.

Administration of protamine as a bolus (i.e., all at once) can lead to a protamine reaction with refractory vasoplegia unless action is not taken quickly and efficiently by the team; however, due to limited prior experience, an RA can have an incorrect mental model of the team's strategy (incremental vs. bolus administration). In a prior documented case in the literature, protamine administration was conducted by the RA improperly as a bolus, despite the oversight of the attending anesthesiologist [8]. Meanwhile, physical barriers including the sterile drape separating the RA from the AS preclude explicit awareness of such an error by the team unless verbally communicated. Thus, misalignment of mental models may occur if the team is not proceeding through the surgical steps as expected. If an AI Coach can infer this lack of shared mental models (between the AS and RA), it can help prevent associated adverse outcomes.

 Boolean variable denoting whether the surgical workflow is in the protamine administration phase), status of protamine dosage (s_2 , indicating the percentage amount of protamine administered), number of cannulas removed (s_3), and patient state (s_4 , indicating the patient state, as measured by the vitals and categorized as nominal, allergic, and adverse).

In addition to the observable features, which can be measured using sensors and instrumentation in the operating room [13], [14], the team behavior depends on the proper understanding of the task. In particular, the team may have one of two mental states regarding protamine administration: bolus or incremental (especially because heparin is always given as a bolus). These mental states correspond to the latent state $x \in \mathcal{X}$ in the task model, as they cannot be measured by a physiological sensor. The surgeon is modeled to have the following actions $a_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1$: request protamine, remove cannula, and No-op. Similarly, the anesthesiologist can take the following actions $a_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$: administer incremental dosage, administer bolus, communicate, and No-op.

The transition model T represents the effect of team members' actions on the task state. The task begins prior to the protamine administration phase $(s_1 = 0)$, and transitions to the protamine administration phase $(s_1 = 1)$ after the surgeon's 'request' action. The 'remove cannula' action updates the status of cannula removal (s_3) deterministically. Similarly, the protamine administration actions update the status of protamine administration (s_2) ; specifically, 'bolus' changes $s_2 = 100\%$, where 'incremental dosage' increments s_2 first by a test dosage and, subsequently, by 25%. The incremental dosage leads to an allergic reaction with 0.01 probability. Similarly, bolus administration of protamine leads to an adverse reaction with 0.8 probability. The No-op and 'communicate' actions do not change the task state; however, we posit that a more engaged resident (with the correct task understanding) is likely to communicate more often. The scenario terminates after the goal is achieved or when the patient exhibits adverse or allergic reaction, after which the surgical team adopts specific protocols to restore the patient's stability.

B. Surgical Tool Delivery

As the second task, we model the handovers (between scrub and circulating nurses) encountered in surgery. To model this task, we consider a grid-world representation of the operating area (Fig. 2) and focus on the sub-team of surgeon, scrub nurse (SN), and circulating nurse (CN). During the preoperational stage, required surgical tools are prepared and placed in the sterile area next to the operating table. However, every so often, an additional tool (or item, such as sutures) may be required to be delivered from outside the sterile area. In such situations, SN may ask the CN to deliver the requisite tool. Incorrect tool delivery, due to lack of shared mental models arising from ineffective communication of the surgeon's preferences, can delay the surgery and lead to preventable harm in time-critical situations. In such situations, an AI Coach incorrect tools.



In our simulated environment, the CN can move in a 5by-5 grid world (Fig. 2), while the surgeon and SN are limited to the sterile area. The task begins with the SN having sterile sutures and scalpels. Additional sutures are located in the cabinet in the operating room, while scalpels in the storage area (in an adjacent room). During the task, SN may require additional sutures or replacement scalpel (i.e, $\mathcal{X} = \{Sutures, Scalpel\}$), and communicate this requirement to CN. If the CN misunderstands the SN's request, the team members will have misaligned mental models \mathcal{X} .

III. ONLINE INFERENCE OF MODEL ALIGNMENT

A. Problem Statement

To arrive at the algorithm, we first provide a mathematical description of the problem statement. For a given task specification, we assume that each team member as well as the AI Coach can observe (through sensors) the task's observable features and, thus, maintains a shared understanding of the state component s. However, each team member can potentially maintain a different understanding regarding the latent feature x, where the estimate of *i*-th team member is denoted as \hat{x}_i . Further, the policy of the *i*-th team member depends on both latent and observable features, and is denoted as $\pi_i(a_i|s, \hat{x}_i)$. In a team with shared understanding, all team members will maintain the same estimate of the latent feature (i.e., $\hat{x}_1 = \hat{x}_2 = \cdots = \hat{x}_n$). However, if the estimates differ, the team members will have misaligned mental models.

B. Inference Algorithm

We adopt a Bayesian approach to infer model misalignment. To estimate the quantity of interest (x), in addition to data, Bayesian algorithms require specification of prior probability p(x) and likelihood model p(data|x). Here, we utilize the task and policy specifications to arrive at the likelihood model, while noting that, in general, its specification is non-trivial. In our ongoing work, we are actively developing approaches to learn these models from training data, for the case where team members' policies are difficult to specify.

In our case, the Bayesian algorithm seeks to infer the latent state \hat{x}^i for each member of the team. Let us denote this joint estimate as $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2, ... \hat{x}_n)$. Given the data, the posterior probability is computed as follows,

$$p(\hat{\mathbf{x}}|\tau) \propto p(\tau|\hat{\mathbf{x}}) p(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = p(s^{0}, \mathbf{a}^{0}, s^{1}, \cdots, s^{t}|\hat{\mathbf{x}}) p(\hat{\mathbf{x}})$$
$$= p(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) p(s^{0}) \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} T(s^{j+1}|\mathbf{a}^{j}, s^{j}) P(\mathbf{a}^{j}|s^{j}, \hat{\mathbf{x}})$$
$$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(p(\hat{x}_{i}) \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \pi_{i}(a_{i}^{j}|s^{j}, \hat{x}_{i}) \right), \qquad (1)$$

$$p(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = p(\hat{x}_1)p(\hat{x}_2)\cdots p(\hat{x}_n) \tag{2}$$

$$P(\mathbf{a}|s, \hat{\mathbf{x}}) = \pi_1(a_1|s, \hat{x}_1)\pi_2(a_2|s, \hat{x}_2)\cdots\pi_n(a_n|s, \hat{x}_n).$$
 (3)

Given 1, the latent state is inferred as the maximum posteriori estimate. In the inferred latent state of each agent are not identical, then the algorithm reports a model misalignment.

IV. EXPERIMENTS

To evaluate the inference approach, we utilize the collaboration scenarios described in Sec. II. For each scenario, we implement the Markovian task model (detailed in Sec. II-A-II-B), specify ground truth policies of the team members, and generate synthetic data of task execution using the task and policy specifications. Execution sequences are created by first assigning latent states \hat{x}_i to the team member and, then iteratively, (a) sampling team members' action a using their policy, latent state \hat{x}_i , and task state s, and (b) sampling the next state s' in the sequence using the transition model T(s'|s, a), until the task termination criteria is reached.

A. Protamine Administration

We generate 300 task sequences for the simulated protamine administration task, where model misalignment could occur due to incorrect task understanding. In our simulations, the AS always expects incremental protamine administration, while the RA may (incorrectly) administer it as a bolus with probability 0.5. We describe the team member's policies next.

The scenario begins prior to protamine administration phase, during which the RA may communicate (e.g., ask for supervision, provide updates) with AS. We model that an RA which communicates more often is less likely to have an incorrect understanding of the task (i.e., misaligned mental model). During the task, the AS initiates the protamine administration phase through a verbal communication, after which protamine is administered bolus or incrementally by the RA based on their task understanding \hat{x} . Cannula removal is interleaved with the protamine administration. The AI Coach can sense the observable state *s*, team's actions *a*, and seeks to infer \hat{x} . Among the 300 task sequences generated, in 155 the team exhibits model misalignment. We evaluate the inference performance with both full and partial task sequences.

Post-hoc performance As the AI coach can monitor the amount of protamine administered, with full task sequences, it can always infer model misalignment accurately. While post-hoc inference of misalignment does not prevent the anesthe-siologist from performing the erroneous action (bolus), it can help identify near-miss events (i.e., where the incorrect action did not lead to an adverse outcome; 31 out of 300 in our synthetic data) and help the team achieve a shared mental model for subsequent surgeries.

Execution-time performance Since the algorithm does not impose any condition on the length of sequence, it can also provide an estimate during the task (i.e., given partial task execution). For the current task, we evaluate this capability for when the surgeon requests protamine (i.e., before a potential error). Even with a partial task sequence, the algorithm results in overall estimation accuracy of 66.3%. In life-critical tasks, where the goal of AI Coach is to mitigate adverse outcomes, false alarms are less critical. Among the 155 sequences with misaligned mental models, the algorithm could predict model misalignment in 119 cases, i.e., exhibiting 76.8% recall.

B. Surgical Tool Delivery

For the tool delivery task, we generate 300 synthetic task sequences and 271 samples among them include the situation where a tool was requested. The task sequences include the positions of the tools and CN, patient status (i.e., whether an incision has been made or not), item request status (i.e., whether SN has requested an item from CN), and actions latent states (i.e., tool being requested, \hat{x}) for both SN and CN, آ ی and 5 steps after the request in 75.9% and 98.5% recall with partial and full sequences, respectively.

V. DISCUSSIONS

ॅ İn this paper, we propose the
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