

Stress in Manual and Autonomous Modes of Collaboration with a Cobot

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Stress in Manual and Autonomous Modes of Collaboration with a Cobot**Abstract**

Working with collaborative robots (cobots) can be a potential source of stress for their operators. However, research on specific factors that affect users' stress levels when working with a cobot is still scarce. This study is the first to investigate the levels of psychological (primary and secondary stress appraisal) and physiological (heart rate) stress in human operators working in two different cobot modes (i.e., manual and autonomous). We applied an experimental within-subject repeated-measures design to 45 healthy adults (26 women, 19 men). The results show that the levels of secondary stress appraisal were lower and the heart rate levels were higher in the autonomous cobot mode. The results suggest that, when working with a cobot, control plays a key role in the emotional, cognitive, and physiological reactions during the human-robot collaboration. Implications for organizational practice are discussed.

Keywords: collaborative robot, cobot, stress, heart rate, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal

18 **Stress in Manual and Autonomous Modes of Collaboration with a Cobot**

19 **1. Introduction**

20 Collaborative robots (cobots) are increasingly being used at work. These systems
21 work side by side with humans, often share their workspaces and tasks, and will be an
22 indispensable tool in different future organizations (Fast-Berglund, Palmkvist, Nyqvist,
23 Ekered, & Åkerman, 2016; Kildal, Tellaache, Fernández, & Maurtua, 2018; Simões, Lucas
24 Soares, & Barros, 2019), thus transforming work processes in the industry (Seriani, Gallina,
25 Scalera, & Lughi, 2018). Due to their safety-centered design, cobots can be appealing
26 companions for tedious, repetitive, or physically straining tasks because they help to
27 improve ergonomics, reduce risk factors, and offload demands on robotic agents (Kildal et
28 al., 2018; Safeea et al., 2019). They also create an opportunity for increased performance
29 because they allow their human operators to focus on more value-added tasks (Safeea,
30 Neto, & Béarée, 2019; Shah, Wiken, Williams, & Breazeal, 2011; Prewett, Johnson, Saboe,
31 Elliott, & Covert, 2010).

32 Although human-robot collaboration has been shown to be fruitful, achieving fluency
33 and greater work safety in these teams has created some challenges (Baraglia, Cakmak,
34 Nagai, Rao, & Asada, 2016). Because the human teammate plays a central role in the human-
35 cobot partnership (Kildal et al., 2018), robots have to easily integrate with their human
36 operators (Nikolaidis, Ramakrishnan, Gu, & Shah 2015), and it is essential for the individual
37 to achieve optimal psychological states through this collaboration. Unfortunately, pan-
38 European research indicates that attitudes towards autonomous robotic systems, including
39 robots assisting workers, have declined over a five-year period (Gnambs & Appel, 2019).
40 Along these lines, initial research suggests that the interaction with a cobot might be a
41 source of negative cognitive-emotional reactions or mental strain for their human operators

42 (Arai, Kato, & Fujita, 2010; Gombolay, Bair, Huang, & Shah, 2017; Hoffman & Breazeal,
43 2007). However, research on specific factors that can contribute to operators' stress is still in
44 its infancy.

45 In this experimental study, we show that different cobot modes (i.e., autonomous,
46 manual) can have a differential effect on their operators' levels of psychological and
47 physiological stress. To our knowledge, this is the first study to focus on both the
48 psychological (primary and secondary appraisal) and physiological (heart rate, HR) stress
49 response to different cobot modes in people operating with a cobot.

50 **1.1. The Concept of Stress**

51 Stress is a potential barrier to ensuring an optimal human-cobot collaboration
52 because it can have detrimental consequences for the person (Wallace, Edwards, Arnold,
53 Frazier, & Finch, 2009) and the organization (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). According
54 to the transactional approach to stress, stress can be defined as "a particular relationship
55 between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or
56 exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being" (Lazarus & Folkman,
57 1984, p.19), which means that the cognitive appraisal of a situation is essential in
58 determining the stress experience. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) distinguish between two
59 concurrent appraisals: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. During primary appraisal,
60 the demands are categorized as sources of threat, challenge (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), or
61 both (Folkman, 1997; Kozusznik, Peiró, Lloret, & Rodriguez, 2016). The appraisal of threat is
62 defined as the perception that one might experience harm, whereas the appraisal of
63 challenge is focused on potential gain or growth and accompanied by eagerness or
64 excitement. The focus on these two types of appraisal reflects the interest in research on
65 positive aspects of the stress process, in addition to the negative ones (Folkman and

66 Moskowitz, 2000). During the concurrent secondary appraisal, a complex evaluative process
67 of "what might and can be done" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p.35) about the demanding
68 situation takes place. Secondary appraisal is influenced by the person's beliefs about control
69 (e.g., over environmental circumstances), related to feelings of confidence and mastery of
70 the situation. It can be operationalized as two factors referring to the "self-concept of one's
71 own abilities" and "control expectancies" (Gaab, Rohleder, Nater, & Ehlert, 2005) when
72 faced with the stressor.

73 Within this context, it is important to note that the use of solely subjective measures
74 to assess stress may provide limited insight into the underlying psychobiological mechanisms
75 involved. The Autonomic Nervous System (ANS) operates somewhat independently from
76 subjective experiences and could provide crucial information about the actual activation of
77 the stress system and the process of stress regulation (Allen, Kennedy, Cryan, Dinan, &
78 Clarke, 2014). The ANS is rapidly activated by stressful situations, and one of the most
79 important biomarkers is the cardiac response, measured with the heart rate (HR) (Allen et
80 al., 2014; Pulpulos, Hidalgo, Puig-Perez, & Salvador, 2018). Importantly, previous research
81 has shown that a stress-induced ANS response in general, and cardiac reactivity in particular,
82 is associated with individual differences in cognitive stress appraisal (e.g., Quigley, Barrett, &
83 Weinstein, 2002; Pulpulos, Baeken, & De Raedt, 2020; Zandara, Garcia-Lluch, Villada,
84 Hidalgo, & Salvador, 2018). Therefore, in addition to psychological measures, investigating
85 cardiovascular activity as a marker of ANS may provide crucial evidence about the stress
86 response during interactions with cobots.

87 **1.2. Stress in Human-Cobot Collaboration**

88 In human-cobot interactions, stress factors may include the changes in the nature of
89 the work (from physical to mental activities; Argote, Goodman, & Schkade, 1983), the

90 proximity of the robot to the human operator and the robot's movement (Arai et al., 2010),
91 or the loss of control that can stem from the automation of robotic agents (Gaudiello,
92 Zibetti, Lefort, Chetouani, & Ivaldi, 2015; Stein, Liebold, & Ohler, 2019). The first attempt to
93 describe the subjective characteristics of working with a robot took place in the initial period
94 of factory automation. In their research, Argote, Goodman, and Schkade (1983) showed that
95 the implementation of robots in a workplace causes a shift in the work itself, from primarily
96 manual to primarily mental activities, resulting in higher levels of employee stress.
97 Furthermore, Elizur (1970 in Argote, Goodman, Schkade, 1983) and Mann and Hoffman
98 (1956) revealed a difference between employees of automated and non-automated
99 enterprises, in terms of their level of control and sense of responsibility. The introduction of
100 autonomous robots caused their operators to experience less freedom in carrying out their
101 tasks and perceive the results of their work as not depending on them. More recently, stress
102 at work with a robot was analyzed in the context of legal restrictions, work safety, and well-
103 being (Prewett et al., 2010; Złotowski, Yogeewaran, Bartneck, 2017). These authors
104 conclude that stress is an important indicator of the human operator's well-being that stems
105 from an adequate level of technical (e.g., automation and display) and social resources
106 (Prewett et al., 2010) and is especially relevant in the domain of working with autonomous
107 robots because they represent a realistic and symbolic threat to their operators' safety and
108 well-being (Złotowski et al., 2017).

109 Although the research on stress at work with cobots is limited, a noteworthy
110 exception is the work by Arai, Kato, and Fujita (2010) who assessed physiological (i.e., skin
111 conductance response) and psychological strain (conceptualized as a state of fear, surprise,
112 and discomfort) in cobot users. They showed that less distance between a cobot and its
113 human operator causes physiological strain, and that a greater motion speed of the cobot

114 induces both physiological and psychological strain (i.e., fear and surprise) (Arai et al., 2010).
115 Overall, this research indicates that working with a cobot may increase its operator's
116 perception of stress, a factor that may have lasting negative health and economic
117 consequences. However, more research is still needed to understand which factors in the
118 work with cobots are critical to provoking stress in their human operators.

119 **1.2.1. Manual vs. Autonomous Cobot Modes as Potential Sources of Stress**

120 One of the factors that could explain why working with a cobot can be especially
121 stressful is the cobot's operating mode. A cobot can work in either of two modes, i.e.,
122 autonomous (also called automatic) and manual (Fast-Berglund et al., 2016), which both
123 result in a synchronous human-robot joint action (Gombolay, Huang, Shah, 2014). Choosing
124 a specific mode depends on the need to eliminate nuisance and insecurity during a specific
125 task (Cherubini, Passama, Crosnier, Lasnier, & Fraise, 2016), and it determines the level of
126 autonomy while working with a robot (Harriott, 2015), the operator's capacity to exert
127 control over the robot's performance (Gombolay et al., 2014), and the constructive
128 engagement of the human operator (Heyer, 2010).

129 In the autonomous mode, the cobot controls all the operations by itself. After
130 initiating the cobot, the human operator performs his or her tasks synchronously with it
131 (Gombolay & Shah, 2014; Shi, Jimmerson, Pearson, & Menassa, 2012). Successive sequences
132 are implemented repetitively, until the cycle is interrupted when the sensor systems detect
133 an intrusion into the cobot's work space. Although the operator of a cobot working in the
134 autonomous cobot mode is able to disengage the system and take over its job, this only
135 occurs in certain situations, such as the failure of the autonomous robotic system (Prewett
136 et al., 2010).

137 In manual mode, each step in the human-cobot collaboration is initiated by the
138 operator (Kruger, Lien, & Verl, 2009) by touching a button on the controller or one of the
139 sensors installed on the cobot's arm. Thus, the user operates the cobot (Shi et al., 2012) on
140 tasks that require the flexibility and adaptability of the human operator (Charalambous,
141 Fletcher, & Webb, 2016). A crucial question is whether the two different modes provoke
142 different stress responses. In this domain, the cobot's autonomy and, thus, the human's
143 limited possibility to exert control may be an important factor in explaining individual stress
144 levels during the human-cobot interaction.

145 Following the occupational stress theory of demand-control (Karasek, 1979), limited
146 control at work means a reduction in a job resource that employees need in order to deal
147 with job demands. As a result, and in line with the principles of reactance theory (Brehm,
148 1966), limited control at work can have negative consequences for well-being (Kozusznik,
149 Maricutoiu, Peiró, Virga, Soriano, Mateo-Cecilia, 2019; McCoy & Evans, 2005). Furthermore,
150 in their Model of Autonomous Technology Threat, Stein, Liebold, and Ohler (2019) suggest
151 that autonomous technology can be perceived as a source of stress for its users because it
152 contributes to a general experience of threat to one's control, safety, and identity. These
153 researchers specifically describe this as a continuum of threat, ranging from physical harm to
154 one's realization of the loss of human uniqueness. Following Gaudiello, Zibetti, Lefort,
155 Chetouani, and Ivaldi (2015), autonomous robotic agents with decision-making capabilities
156 can be perceived as having more intrusive consequences in our lives than other non-
157 autonomous technologies. Accordingly, taking the decision-making authority away from the
158 human teammate and giving it to the robotic counterpart may lead to workers' negative
159 emotional and cognitive reactions (Gombolay & Shah, 2014). Indeed, research shows that
160 humans are not always willing to cede their control to the robots because they would rather

161 be the decision-makers (Nikolaidis et al., 2015). This idea is consistent with the findings of
162 Złotowski, Yogeewaran, and Bartneck (2017), who show that people perceive autonomous
163 robots to be significantly more threatening than non-autonomous agents. The researchers
164 (Złotowski et al., 2017) explain user reactance to the robot based on the notion of the
165 importance of power in social interactions. According to the authors, people share a general
166 opinion that robots should be helpful and obedient. Therefore, when they meet a decisive
167 autonomous robotic agent, they feel less certain about the outcome of their interaction and
168 perceive a threat to their control. Despite the undeniable value of these results, they are
169 based on the reports of participants who watched videos of robots, and the effect of a real
170 collaboration with a cobot on its human user remains to be seen.

171 Taking all of the above into consideration, in this study we expect that the manual
172 mode will be associated with less psychological and physiological stress in cobot operators
173 compared to the autonomous mode. Specifically, we formulate the following hypotheses:
174 Hypothesis 1: The levels of primary appraisal will be lower in the manual cobot mode than in
175 the autonomous cobot mode.
176 Hypothesis 2: The levels of secondary appraisal will be higher in the manual cobot mode
177 than in the autonomous cobot mode.
178 Hypothesis 3: HR levels will be lower in the manual cobot mode than in the autonomous
179 cobot mode.

180 Addressing these hypotheses will make a contribution to the literature on the impact
181 of cobot use on individuals in three ways. First, we conceptualize psychological stress as
182 including both primary and secondary stress appraisal that explain the potential differences
183 in stress levels when collaborating with a cobot. Second, we include both psychological and
184 physiological stress measures to assess the effects of different cobot modes on the human

185 users' outcomes. Finally, we show the robustness of the effects by applying a within-subject
186 repeated-measures experimental design to a large sample of individuals collaborating with a
187 cobot. Understanding the cobot mode-related stress relationship is necessary in order to
188 improve the human-cobot interaction and prevent stress-related disorders in the workers.
189 Gaining insight into the cobot operator's stress responses in different cobot modes has clear,
190 practical implications for work design and training in industrial workplaces using cobots.

191 **2. Method**

192 **2.1. Sample**

193 Participants included 45 individuals (26 women, 19 men) aged 19-28 ($M = 23.64$, $SD =$
194 2.84) who had never had any experience working with a cobot. Eighty-seven percent of the
195 respondents were undergraduate students, 9% were PhD students, and 4% were high school
196 students. Moreover, 87% of all the participants were students engaged in technical studies
197 (e.g., Biomedical engineering, Automatic Control and Robotics, and Architecture), and
198 students from social and health sciences (i.e., Psychology) accounted for 9% of the sample¹.
199 We recruited all the participants through an online invitation posted on the university
200 website. Upon completion of the study, each participant was debriefed and received a
201 coupon worth approximately 10\$ (50 Polish zloty) to use in the university gift shop as
202 compensation.

203 **2.2. Experimental setting and procedure**

204 For each participant, the procedure began with brief information about the purpose
205 of the experiment, which was described as being about modern forms of cooperation in

¹ The majority of the participants (87%) were students with a technical background, whereas a much smaller part (9%) were students with a social and health science background. Because participants with a technical background might have different attitudes towards technology than students from social and health sciences, we conducted additional analyses including students' background variables (technical vs. social and health sciences) as covariate. The statistical conclusions of the study remained the same.

206 Industry 4.0, without revealing any information about the experimental task of cooperating
207 with a cobot. Participants then gave their informed consent and were asked to fill out a
208 baseline questionnaire containing sociodemographic data (i.e., sex, age, and field of study).
209 Next, each participant was put on a telemetric heart rate monitor (Polar®V8000, Polar
210 Electro, Kempele, Finland) that he or she had to wear during the entire experiment. Then
211 they had a 15-minute habituation period. Subsequently, participants were invited to another
212 room, where the human-cobot cooperation station had been set up. The station included a
213 KUKA LBR iiwa 7 R800 cobot, a panel with a designed artificial pill holder, and a container
214 with artificial 3D printed pills in 6 colors, half of which had the letter P printed on them.

215 We asked each participant to stand next to the cobot, and we gave them specific
216 instructions about how to do the task. The task was designed to resemble that of a nurse
217 working in a hospital. We told the participants to choose 36 artificial pills from the container
218 and place them in the pill holder, one at a time, according to a list provided by the
219 experimenter. We informed the participants that the order of the pills, their color, and the
220 presence or absence of the letter P on them was significant. After each pill was placed in the
221 holder on the panel, the cobot grabbed it and put it in a designated box that was out of the
222 participant's reach.

223 We asked the participants to do the same task twice, but in two different modes:
224 manual and autonomous. In the manual mode, the participant's task was to touch the robot
225 in order to "wake it up" and continue with the task, so that the cobot would take the
226 prepared pill from the holder. In the autonomous mode, the cobot worked autonomously at
227 its own pace and needed no signal from the participant to work. If the participant did not
228 place the pill in the holder on time, the cobot did not wait or respond by making any extra
229 moves at the end of the task. In both cobot modes, the completion of the tasks by the

230 human operator and by the cobot required following the same procedure of fetching and
231 carrying the appropriate pills, working on the same panel. Furthermore, the tasks ended
232 with the same outcome, and they had a similar degree of difficulty. The participants were
233 randomly assigned to begin their task in the manual or autonomous mode.

234 Between the tasks, the experimenter reset the station and then repeated the
235 instructions to the participant. In each mode, the sequence of the pills was altered, in order
236 to minimize boredom or carryover effect. While the experimenter was resetting the station,
237 the participants filled out the paper-pencil questionnaire. The task with the cobot lasted
238 from 13.97 minutes to 16.59 minutes ($M = 14.48$, $SD = .38$), with the manual mode time span
239 ranging from 6.75 to 9.22 minutes ($M = 7.73$, $SD = .40$) and the autonomous mode time
240 span ranging from 6.66 to 7.74 minutes ($M = 6.75$, $SD = .38$). The time in the autonomous
241 mode varied between subjects because the cobot was programmed to move in random
242 trajectories within the space of the panel, which is a common practice.

243 **2.3. Measures**

244 **2.3.1. Primary and secondary appraisal**

245 Primary and secondary stress appraisal was measured by a 4-item self-report
246 questionnaire, as used by Gaab et al. (2005), Klopp et al. (2012), or von Dawans et al. (2011)
247 and adapted to the context of the experimental tasks. This measure is based on the PASA
248 instrument (Gaab et al., 2005), which has been widely-employed in the field (Allen et al.,
249 2014; Herhaus & Petrowski, 2018; Het et al., 2009; Kuebler et al., 2015; Nater et al., 2010;
250 Skoluda et al., 2015; Wichmann et al., 2017). The scale is composed of primary appraisal and
251 secondary appraisal subscales, which make up the global scale of stress appraisal. The
252 primary appraisal subscale consists of two items that refer to a person's judgment of the
253 event as significant, stressful, challenging, or irrelevant (Kuebler et al., 2015) (i.e., item "The

254 past situation was stressful for me" for perceived stress and "I found the past situation to be
255 a challenge" for challenge). The secondary appraisal scale consists of two items that refer to
256 one's available resources and options to cope with the stressor (Kuebler et al., 2015) (i.e.,
257 item "I knew what I had to do to influence the past situation" for self-concept and "I was
258 able to do something to influence the course of the previous situation" for perceived
259 control). Because in this study we were interested in measuring the levels of both primary
260 and secondary appraisal, we considered these two factors in our analyses. The global scale
261 of stress appraisal is computed using the following formula: primary appraisal (stress +
262 challenge) - secondary appraisal (self-concept + perceived control). The response scale
263 ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree), and higher scores indicate higher
264 stress appraisal. Pearson inter-item correlations between the two items were .35 ($p = .01$)
265 for primary appraisal and .58 ($p = .01$) for secondary appraisal, which is considered adequate
266 for this two-item scale (Briggs & Cheek, 1986).

267 **2.3.2. Heart Rate**

268 HR data were continuously recorded throughout all the sessions using a telemetric
269 heart rate monitor (Polar®V800) with a Polar H7 heart rate sensor and a prochest strap
270 placed on the solar plexus. The Polar watch records HR with a sampling rate of 1000Hz.
271 Previous studies have shown that the Polar is a valid and reliable method to assess HR at rest
272 and HR changes during physical and psychological stress (e.g., Goodie et al., 2000; Giles et
273 al., 2016; Caminal et al., 2018; Mishra et al., 2018; Gilgen-Ammann et al., 2019). Studies
274 investigating the reliability of the Polar have shown significant correlations between HR
275 measured by ECG and by Polar, with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.97 to 1.00 (e.g.,
276 Goodie et al., 2000; Terbizan et al., 2002; Engström et al., 2012). The mean HR score for each
277 participant was obtained by calculating a mean score for the time range of HR data for each

278 person, from the start of the task (i.e., the first move made by the cobot) until the moment
279 of task completion (i.e., when the cobot returned to its starting position after placing the last
280 pill in the container).

281 **2.4. Analyses**

282 Because age and sex have been related to the stress response (Pulopulos et al.,
283 2018), we used unadjusted correlation analyses to investigate the relationships among
284 primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, HR, and these variables. To test our hypotheses, we
285 applied Linear Mixed Modelling (LMM) to our repeated-measures data nested in 45
286 participants, with the cobot mode (manual and autonomous mode) as a within-subject
287 factor. Due to the similarity of the task in the autonomous and manual modes, we included
288 the cobot mode order variable (first manual vs. first autonomous mode) as a between-
289 subject factor in the LMM in order to control for a possible order or carryover effect. The
290 LMM is a flexible approach to data structured in different levels, missing data, and/or more
291 complex error structures (Heck, Thomas, & Tabata, 2010). To do so, we employed the MIXED
292 package in SPSS v25 (IBM Corp., 2017). Three subjects were missing HR measurement
293 values, and one subject in manual mode was missing primary and secondary stress values.

294 The effect sizes of the LMM were computed in R 3.5.0 (R Core Team, 2013) in
295 conjunction with RStudio 1.1.453 (RStudio, 2012), using linear mixed-effects regression
296 models fitted via the 'lmerTest' package (Kuznetsova et al., 2017) and the MuMIn package
297 (Nakagawa et al., 2017). Using the MuMIn package, we derived the conditional r squared
298 (R_c^2) values, a measure of the proportion of variance explained by both the fixed and
299 random effects. Regarding the post hoc effects, there is no consensus about how LMM
300 effect sizes should be calculated, due to the influence of the random effects. Therefore, in
301 the current study, we calculated the Cohen's d for the significant effects of interest on the

302 post hoc tests. It is important to note that this effect size does not take into account the
 303 random effects, and, therefore, it only considers the effects of the independent variables,
 304 which are cobot modes (i.e., manual and autonomous), and the order of the cobot modes
 305 (first manual vs. first autonomous mode).

306 3. Results

307 3.1. Preliminary analyses

308 Descriptive statistics and correlations between the study variables are shown in Table
 309 1. Next, we analyzed whether age and sex (women = 0, men = 1)² were significantly
 310 associated with the variables of interest in our study. Covariate analyses showed that none
 311 of these variables were significantly associated with primary appraisal ($F = 2.77, p = .11$ and F
 312 $= .48, p = .49$, respectively), secondary appraisal ($F = 3.04, p = .09$ and $F = .61, p = .44$), or HR
 313 ($F = .05, p = .83$ and $F = .01, p = .92$, respectively). Therefore, we did not include age and sex
 314 in further analyses.

315 Table 1.
 316 Descriptive statistics and correlations between study variables.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Correlations				
			Sex	Age	HR	Primary appraisal	Secondary appraisal
Sex	.42	.50	1	-.08	.03	-.10	-.05
Age	23.64	2.84	-.08	1	-.01	.11	-.11
HR	97.64	12.64	.01	-.07	1	.09	.08

² At the psychological level, several studies have suggested that women suffer more stress than men, and that they tend to perceive having inadequate resources for coping with a threatening situation more often than men do (e.g., Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993; Pilar et al., 2004). At the physiological level, although the current evidence suggests that men and women show a similar HR response to stressors, sex differences were observed in other stress markers, such as cortisol and blood pressure (for a review see Puloopulos et al., 2018). Therefore, although sex was not significantly related to the variables of interest, we carried out extra analyses to investigate sex differences in the stress response. We applied LMM to our repeated-measures data nested in 45 participants, with the cobot mode (manual and autonomous) as a within-subject factor and the order of the cobot mode (first manual vs. first autonomous) and sex as between-subject factors. These results show no differences between men and women in the psychological and physiological response to stress, and no interactions between sex and the other two factors (all p s > .323). Although these results indicate no differences between men and women in the psychological and physiological response to a collaboration with a cobot in manual and autonomous modes, these findings should be viewed with caution due to the sample size of men and women. Future research should include more participants to investigate sex differences.

Primary appraisal	6.31	2.42	-.14	.33*	-.12	1	.12
Secondary appraisal	10.08	1.74	-.11	-.35*	.25	-.09	1

317 **Note.** Correlations for the manual mode are below the diagonal; correlations for the autonomous
 318 mode are above the diagonal; * $p < .05$

319

320 **3.2. Primary stress appraisal (H1)**

321 In the next step, we investigated the hypothesized differences in the primary and
 322 secondary appraisal levels and the HR levels in the manual and autonomous modes, while
 323 including the task order as a factor. The direct effect of the cobot mode on primary stress
 324 appraisal was not significant (see Table 2). However, there was a significant interaction
 325 effect between the cobot mode and the task order on the level of primary stress appraisal (F
 326 = 6.34, $p = .016$). Specifically, in participants who first carried out an autonomous task, the
 327 level of primary stress appraisal was significantly lower in the manual mode ($M=5.59$,
 328 $SD=2.42$) than in the autonomous mode ($M = 6.68$, $SD = 2.40$), $F = 4.95$, $p = .032$, Cohen's $d =$
 329 .45. This difference was not statistically significant in the participants who first carried out
 330 the task in the manual mode ($M = 6.77$, $SD = 2.35$ and $M = 6.22$, $SD = 2.49$ in manual and
 331 autonomous modes, respectively ($F = 1.78$, $p = .19$). The R_c^2 of this model indicates that 57%
 332 of the variance is explained by both the fixed and random effects.

333 **3.3. Secondary stress appraisal (H2)**

334 There was a significant effect of the cobot mode on the level of secondary stress
 335 appraisal ($F = 5.46$, $p = .024$, Cohen's $d = .32$). Specifically, the level of secondary stress
 336 appraisal was significantly higher in the manual mode ($M = 10.36$, $SD = 1.59$) than in the
 337 autonomous mode ($M = 9.80$, $SD = 1.85$). The effect of the order and the interaction
 338 between the order and the cobot mode were not significant ($p=.59$). The R_c^2 of this model
 339 indicates that 60% of the variance is explained by both the fixed and random effects.

340 **3.4. Heart rate (H3)**

341 There was a significant effect of the cobot mode on the HR level ($F = 4.74, p = .035,$
 342 Cohen's $d = .16$). Specifically, HR was significantly lower in the manual mode ($M = 96.63, SD$
 343 $= 11.85$) than in the autonomous mode ($M = 98.65, SD = 13.46$). The effect of the order and
 344 the interaction between the order and the cobot mode were not significant ($p = .60$). The R_c^2
 345 of this model indicates that 89% of the variance is explained by both the fixed and random
 346 effects.

347 Table 2.

348 Differences in Heart Rate, and primary and secondary stress appraisal in manual and
 349 autonomous cobot mode.

Dimension	Manual			Autonomous			F	p
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N		
HR	96.63	11.85	42	98.65	13.46	42	4.74	.035
Primary appraisal ^a	6.18	2.43	44	6.44	2.43	45	4.10	.527
Secondary appraisal ^a	10.36	1.59	44	9.80	1.85	45	5.46	.024

350 **Note.** ^arange: 2-12.

351

352 4. Discussion

353 The aim of this research was to study the levels of psychological and physiological
 354 stress of cobot operators in different cobot modes (i.e., manual and autonomous). To our
 355 knowledge, the present study is the first to assess psychological and physiological stress
 356 reactions to collaboration with a real cobot in two different cobot modes (autonomous vs
 357 manual).

358 The results show that the participants had higher levels of secondary stress appraisal
 359 in the manual mode than in the autonomous mode, yielding support for Hypothesis 2. This
 360 means that the cobot users perceived themselves as more capable of coping with and
 361 controlling the situation. This result emphasizes the importance of the perception of having
 362 control over the robotic system, and it coincides with the occupational stress theory of
 363 demand-control (Karasek, 1979), which considers control at work to be a key job resource in
 364 dealing with job demands. Indeed, the essential feature of the manual mode is the

365 operator's prerogative to initiate each step of the task (Kruger et al., 2009), in contrast to
366 the autonomous mode, where the cobot controls all the operations, leaving the human
367 counterpart to merely perform his/her tasks synchronously with it (Gombolay & Shah, 2014;
368 Shi et al., 2012). This finding supports the results showing that autonomous robotic agents
369 with decision-making capabilities can be perceived as more intrusive than other non-
370 autonomous technologies (Gaudiello et al., 2015), and that humans may not be willing to
371 cede control to them (Nikolaidis et al., 2015). Particularly, giving decision-making authority
372 to robots may lead to negative individual emotional and cognitive reactions (Gombolay &
373 Shah, 2014). Furthermore, our results are consistent with reactance theory (Brehm, 1966)
374 and related empirical studies (Kozusznik et al., 2019; McCoy & Evans, 2005) showing that
375 limited control at work has negative consequences for wellbeing. More specifically, in the
376 domain of human-robot collaboration, researchers (Złotowski et al., 2017) explain that user
377 reactance to autonomous robots is based on the notion of the importance of power in social
378 interactions. This reactance stems from the fact that, when people's expectations about the
379 robot's obedience in human-robot interactions are not met, they can feel less certain about
380 the interaction and perceive a threat to their control (Złotowski et al., 2017).

381 We observed that HR levels were higher in the autonomous mode than in the manual
382 mode, which supports Hypothesis 3. This is a noteworthy result because it indicates that the
383 autonomous mode not only affects stress appraisal, but it also provokes a significant
384 physiological reaction. Although the effect size of the difference in HR is relatively small, it is
385 relevant to highlight that the participants in the manual mode were required to carry out
386 more movements (i.e., touch the cobot in order to initiate its actions) than those in the
387 autonomous mode. Despite this increased physical activity in the manual mode, which
388 should translate into an increased HR, the HR levels in the manual mode remained

389 significantly lower than in the autonomous mode. Previous research has shown that a higher
390 physiological reaction to daily stressors is related to important psychological and physical
391 health problems (e.g., Lundberg 2005; Morris, Ciesla, & Garber, 2010; Monroe & Harkness,
392 2005). Importantly, based on the Neurocognitive framework for Regulation Expectations (De
393 Raedt and Hooley, 2016), recent research has shown that individuals with low expectations -
394 understood as the perception of being able to deal with a stressful situation - show worse
395 physiological stress regulation (Pulopulos et al., 2020). Along these lines, our secondary
396 appraisal results suggest that the higher physiological response in our participants may have
397 been due to the fact that they felt less confident about coping with the situation and
398 perceived that they had less control over the situation. Together, workers may benefit from
399 training strategies focused on increasing the perception of control and the ability to deal
400 with their work with the cobot.

401 Finally, our results show that primary stress appraisal was higher in the autonomous
402 mode, but only in those participants who carried out the task in the autonomous mode first
403 and then worked in the manual mode, yielding partial support for Hypothesis 1. These
404 results may be due to a possible effect of the elimination of a threat on perception. In this
405 case, the shift from autonomous cobot mode, where the user has little or no control over
406 the collaboration, to manual mode, may have produced relief that can stem from “a
407 distressing goal-incongruent condition that has changed for the better or gone away”
408 (Lazarus, 1993, p. 13) and “occurs when a threat is removed or avoided” (Carver, 2009, p.
409 125). Future research should further study the role of relief and other positive emotions as
410 potentially affecting individual perceptions of stress in the collaboration with a cobot.

411 Despite the novel results and the methodological strengths of this well-powered
412 within-subject study, some limitations have to be acknowledged. First, because the aim of

413 this experiment was to study within-subject differences in the levels of primary appraisal,
414 secondary appraisal, and HR in two cobot modes, we did not take other stress-related
415 variables into account, such as the role of social support (e.g., emotional, instrumental),
416 coping, or personality. In everyday work, however, workers can seek help from their co-
417 workers or supervisors or employ different coping strategies (e.g., problem-focused,
418 emotion focused) in order to deal with a difficult situation. Hence, future studies on human-
419 robot collaboration should take these factors into account and study their potential
420 mitigating effects on the levels of cobot-induced stress. They should also involve employees
421 who work with cobots on a daily basis and for longer periods of time in order to study the
422 dynamics and long-term consequences of stress when working with a cobot. Moreover,
423 researchers should explore different outcomes of stress (e.g., anxiety, burnout) in order to
424 understand the effects of collaboration with a cobot and yield relevant recommendations
425 for practice. Second, in this study we included young participants. Studies have shown that
426 there are age-related differences in the stress response (for a review see Pulopulos, et al.,
427 2018). Therefore, future studies should investigate the impact of cobot modes on stress in
428 different age groups. Third, the majority of the sample was composed of students with a
429 technical background, whereas a smaller part were students with social and health science
430 backgrounds. Because students with different backgrounds might have different attitudes
431 towards technology, these results should be replicated with different populations. Finally, to
432 draw broad conclusions about human-robot interactions, future studies should take into
433 consideration the changes stemming from the use of social robots. Specifically, future
434 studies could focus on the role of their expression of social behavior (e.g., smiling or gazing)
435 in the stress levels of their human counterparts.

436 5. Conclusion

437 In recent years, the number of cobots implemented in the industrial environment has
438 grown significantly. The impetus for the introduction of autonomous automatic devices is
439 the desire to make work less demanding and safer for their human counterparts. Although
440 successful in many areas, the collaboration between cobots and their operators presents a
441 challenge in terms of control distribution, which, if not managed appropriately, can have
442 serious individual (e.g., stress-related health problems) and organizational consequences
443 (e.g., absenteeism, counterproductive behavior towards robots). The present study makes a
444 noteworthy contribution to the literature on the human-robot interaction because it is the
445 first one to show that the cobot's operating mode is important in the cobot operator's stress
446 levels. It also points to the key role of cobot users' personal control over the outcomes of
447 the human-robot collaboration in their well-being. In line with the present findings, people
448 responsible for designing human-robot interaction stations and processes should pay close
449 attention to giving the human operator the opportunity to switch the robot into manual
450 mode. This could be an attractive feature because the manual mode gives the worker the
451 necessary control to cope with a demanding task or situation, thus impacting his or her well-
452 being. However, if the process does not allow the human worker to make decisions, it is
453 essential to provide the employee with a significant amount of training, coaching, and time
454 to gain experience in working with the robot. This training or coaching should be especially
455 targeted at increasing operators' confidence in coping with the situation and the perception
456 of control in their work with the cobot. All these opportunities can help the operator to learn
457 how to cooperate with the robot, become convinced of its reliability in the interaction, and
458 contribute to a successful cobot-human integration that ensures optimal individual
459 psychological states.

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Highlights:

- Secondary stress appraisal is higher in the manual cobot mode than in the autonomous mode
- Heart rate is higher in the autonomous cobot mode than in the manual mode
- Control when working with the cobot improves the outcomes of the human-cobot collaboration

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