Human Machine interfaces for ATM: objective and subjective measurements on human interactions with future Flight deck and Air Traffic Control systems

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1. Introduction

New technologies like digital datalinks and advanced software assistance to the human operators are investigated to accommodate the growth in travel and maintain/improve safety to such levels that an airplane crash will remain a relative rare event. The occurrence and prevention of human errors is a main issue in the design and validation of new technology applications.

Studies and experiments with applications of new technology for datalinking, Air traffic management and flight deck automation, will be discussed. The emphasis is on human interactions with future technologies as observed during realistic simulations of the possible operational applications and studying human operator behavior with objective performance and workload measurements when working with these systems. The role and importance of contrasting subjective and objective measurement techniques for human performance and workload will be illustrated and discussed. Finally, implications for future work and some fallacies experienced by the industry will be highlighted.

2. Challenges for the future

2.1 Accommodating more air traffic

The progression in Air Traffic Control is generally considered to have (temporarily) fallen behind the state of the art of modern aircraft and major improvements are needed. However, the investments will be high and there is no room for failure. As a result there are multiple perspectives on how to proceed towards establishing so-called Air Traffic Management. These perspectives have a high impact on considerations concerning the Human Factors and cognitive activities required of its participants.

2.2 The ground versus airborne perspective

The renewal of present day ATC procedures and technologies brings many issues to resolve and organize (for a review see Jorna 1994). A first issue is that there will be (and are) actually ‘two types of ATC existing today and in the future namely a ‘High Tech−’ and a ‘Low Tech’ ATC environment. Both are served by the same aircraft. The need for future updates will not only be challenging for the Western world, but will also place other sectors under economical pressure for increasing investments in facilities to accommodate air travel. A common, globally accepted ATM concept has not been established yet. The most prominent technology that will both change the flight deck as well as the ATC system is the digital data link. This link will provide aircraft better access to information available in ground computers and ATC can receive better data on aircraft positions and intents. Also the congested radio frequencies can be freed from routine communications.

More aircraft means either a reduced separation or the exploitation of more airspace. The present fixed route structures lead to traffic jams just as on the roads. Reduced separations can be realized when aircraft fly very accurately as planned and on time within say 5 seconds. This way of thinking lead a.o. to the so−called 4D concept where the aircraft should be at a certain location within a narrow specified time window, so another aircraft can be allowed to pass right behind. Amongst the most successful scenario's are the European PHARE (Program for Harmonized ATM Research in EUROCONTROL) concept of efficient (re−) negotiations with ATC and accurate adherence to the contracted trajectories by means of an airborne based 4D FMS. The United States CTAS (Center TRACON Automation System) environment allows the ground system itself to provide 4D type of guidance to non−equipped aircraft and seems particularly suited for a transitory phase.
Human centered design in aviation: validating operator behavior with future systems

Recently, however, the so called 'Free Flight' concept, took another perspective on using the airspace differently. It proposes some level of aircraft responsibility for en–route separation while flying free, or preferred routes. It has gained considerable visibility in the media and bounded numerous advocates to its (quick) development. The role of ATC is now intentionally reduced and involves a role of providing 'arbitration' only when needed.

'Free flight’ thinking will have a major impact on ATM thinking as it is very attractive from an economical point of view. The airlines earn money with flying and will invest in on–board technologies. The alternative is to wait for all the ground systems to be updated. Using Global Positioning Systems (GPS) and digital maps allow aircraft to find their way and if robust, is tempting to be adopted as it can be fairly quick and at relative low cost. The issue however is ‘will it be safe’ and what is the role of operators involved and how will tasks be shared, monitored and executed by computers and humans.

Considering the issues, more efficient and timely validation methodologies should be developed and practiced to allow such systems to operate.

3. Evaluating Human performance

3.1 Performance shaping factors

Human performance and workload evaluations need a specific set–up of experiments. The quality of the experimental design, the test conditions, realism of the simulations etc. will all influence the quality and impact of the results on the aviation community. Many of the’ human factors’ issues that were discovered after the fielding of so–called advanced systems in both military and civil applications, showed unanticipated problems and relationships between task or equipment design, the particular work environments and the responses of the human operators concerned. Many accidents and incidents bare the witness of such events. In many cases additional effort was required to make the system work, like providing more extensive training or equipment upgrades. Very often the systems were not tested under simulated conditions that resembled the final working environment and circumstances. One old lesson learnt was the use of expert subjects like test pilots or special ‘engineering’ controllers not representative of the final population. Individual differences in aptitude and skill levels between pilots, controllers etc. are known to affect the day to day manageability of operations. Such occurrences should ofcourse be valued against the ‘wisdom of hindsight’ principle, but preventive action is mandatory.

The so–called ‘validation process’ of equipment has to deal with the increased complexities in technology, and the changing external circumstances under which operators have to perform their duties. The process itself is however depending on the economical restraints, so not all can be tested even if there is agreement on the fact that it should be tested. In order to support the definition of experiments, we use a simple checklist known as the ‘T.E.S.T.’ approach ( Jorna 1993).

Table 1. The T.E.S.T. acronym lists the variables and possible mutual influences (interactions) that have to be addressed or controlled in the design and validation process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T = Task</th>
<th>E = Environmental</th>
<th>S = Subject</th>
<th>T = Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task parameters that influence difficulty and limit human performance.</td>
<td>Environmental factors that complicate task execution or limit the operators ability.</td>
<td>Characteristics that influence individual performance, acceptance or availability.</td>
<td>Training and practice requirements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Task:** In the design process it is ‘task analysis’ that provides a definition of actions and duties to be performed. Experience has learned that such an analysis is often not available or not carried out at the most effective level of detail. The human factors researcher confronted with an existing system to be evaluated or assessed, is often required to perform an ‘ in–field’ approximation of such analysis. In the course of up front validation, it is practically difficult but essential to incorporate all possible task levels for measuring the effects of interactions between tasks on operator performance.

**Environment:** For example, a flight deck can contain acceptable instruments when read in static conditions, but they prove to be impossible to read when disturbed by vibration in flight. The problem is even worsened when pilots are allowed to fly with reading glasses or impaired colour vision. During short and long haul flight, interruptions of on–going activities occur by instances in the working environment that can distract the crew and leave tasks unattended or unfinished, especially when the display formats do not indicate such omissions. The working conditions experienced during cruise flight are generally not very loading, leading to vigilance and alertness problems, this in contrast with the hectic terminal area operations were crews are loaded with (too) many tasks. Additional environmental factors like noise levels, humidity, extreme exposures to time zones, or G–forces for military pilots can all affect the mental fitness level of the crew.

**Subjects:** A classical pitfall in design or demonstrations is the use of highly skilled subjects like test pilots or very experienced instructors. The effect will be twofold: if there is a negative transfer of old working habits to new designs, than the potential of the new
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design will be underestimated. Alternatively, a test pilot will not be fatigued, jet−lagged, bored, or otherwise impaired as with people who have to operate under normal daily life circumstances. Another bottleneck is that most task analysis methods will specify tasks as they are, meaning independently from the kind of operator.

**Training:** Long term exposure to a new design is typically not performed. Training changes the locus of the human limitations from conscious information processing, like cognition or knowledge based performance, to the limits of particular sensory or response capabilities that are associated with practiced, skill−based and more ‘automatic’ ways of performing, like the reliance on routine planning, data entry or use of input devices.

Often the wording ‘tasks’ and ‘skills’ are used interchangeably, but there is a distinct difference. Performing the same task like hammering a nail in a piece of wood under different circumstances can involve totally different skills. Imagine hammering in the open air (no problem for most people) as compared to hammering ‘under water’ by a diver (wood floats and it is a bit dark). Similarly, the task of landing an aircraft requires different skills when performed under bad weather or night, or involves severe cross winds. In addition to these factors, time restrictions play a role in determining the required level of skill. When landing a general aviation aircraft, completing a ‘circuit’ and performing down wind checks with a slow airplane requires different skills, or levels of skills, as compared to a fast airplane. If the circuit cannot be extended for noise abatement reasons, time pressure will be imposed on all the checks and communications required. Planning and anticipation are suddenly even more critical as the are normally.

As a rule of thumb, a ‘skill’ can only be defined if:

1. the task to be executed is known;
2. the working environment and context, including other tasks, is known and
3. the timing pattern required is known.

The checklist can assist the selection of experimental conditions, subjects etc.

### 3.2 Human data measurements

The following (raw) data is obtained to evaluate human performance, workload and effort, situational, meaning traffic awareness, systems awareness and user preferences:

- sampling of visual data on displays by ‘Point of gaze’ head mounted eye trackers which are calibrated to the particular simulator in order to depict active use of the displayed information. The system provides the following information in real time, with a sampling rate of 50 Hz:
  - Point of gaze, expressed in X and Y co−ordinates relative to the viewing plane;
  - Fixation dwell time, in msec;
  - Millisecond−accurate time stamp (i.e., starting time of fixation), to permit referencing to simulation events;
  - Transitions between display elements and other displays;
  - Surface identification, for translating pre−defined planar co−ordinates into viewing surfaces (e.g., separate dials of a simulated cockpit display).

- Pupil diameter, supporting mental effort evaluation, which can be converted into micrometers;
- analyzing changes in heart rate to assure that the information ‘looked at’ is also actually processed by the crew or controller in order to make sure that information is also ‘seen’.
- heart rate changes are linked to events in the scenarios to study ‘event related’ responses.
- calculating heart rate variability to monitor the mental state and effort exerted during processing of the information.
- analyzing vocal communications within the crew or between controllers as well as communication outside. So−called voice key’s (electronics that indicate both onset and duration of speech) are combined with ‘press to transmit’ switches to discriminate between types of communications like internal or external..
- recording respiration to control for breathholds influencing heart rate and control over the occurrence of murmured speech not detected by voice keys
- other detailed measures on project specification, like EEG, bloodpressure etc.
- an extensive battery of questionnaires and subjective ratings depending on the goals of the study, but standard work load ratings are always used.

With this set of measurements it is possible to quantify the use of information displays, measure head down/ head up times, sampling
strategies etc., complemented by the corresponding physiological effort and subjective feelings. All data is logged on a single time base to allow for so-called event related measurements (Jorna 1997). Concepts like ‘situation awareness’ etc. are quantified by multiple means involving specific measures for looking at traffic (traffic awareness) and complemented by interviewing methods etc. The data covers all stages of human information processing from perception, processing to action and keeping a cognitive overview.

3.3 The Human–Machine Co–operation ‘ATM Test platform’

The future Air traffic control solutions all seem to depend on an improved exchange of data between aircraft and/or ground equipment to allow different and more innovative ways of problem solving, either by the controller, the crew or software tools. The establishment of digital datalinks was a key technology for realizing such options. However, the working conditions of the crews and controllers will change drastically and require thorough evaluation and validations. The interactions that will occur between Human–machine ‘team’s in the air and on the ground are still largely unknown and are under intense debate.

Experiments should involve both parties in possible scenario’s that allow these interactions to actually occur and study them for effectiveness and safety issues. For this reason, the simulation of experimental aircraft cockpits was expanded by connecting similar experimental controller working positions containing advanced tools for Air Traffic Management. The ‘experiment manager facility’ will in that case have to control events and monitor the status of two sophisticated simulations in full context. The resulting ‘ATM testbed’ is illustrated in figure 1.

![Diagram of Human–Machine Co–operation ‘ATM Test platform’](image)

*Figure 1. Linked simulation facilities for Human factors experiments and associated equipment.*

4. Working with new technologies

4.1 Tools for the air traffic controller
4.1.1 ATC datalink

Datalink communication can involve computer—computer interfacing as well as Air—Ground human operator communications. Pilot can request route changes, ask for information etc. while the controller can detect possible conflicts in the future and provide the aircraft with instructions. Finding and implementing a solution in the present day systems often requires vocal communications with the pilots as well as inputting data (the instructions) into the ATC computers in order to display the overall status to the controller.

![Pop-up menu’s for single and multiple ‘on screen’ inputs](image)

*Figure 2. Examples of datalink user interfaces that allow direct selections and transmissions of solutions of problems and instructions to the aircraft.*

A datalink user interface can accommodate both these functions at the same time. In an experiment different versions were developed and implemented for testing under high and low traffic loads (Hooijer & Hilburn, 1996). The datalink can be implemented as a separate communications window on the controller’s display or as an integrated part of the so-called radar plot symbol that is associated with a particular aircraft. Examples of such selectable pop-up menu's are depicted in figure 2.

Similarly, the feedback of actual status of the negotiations with the aircraft need to be provided as datalinks have a time delay in transmitting the data, depending on the particular medium used i.e. radio frequencies, radar signals etc.

The feedback can be provided through different means. Integrated with the radar plot data block or as a separate communications window. Examples are shown in figure 3.
Figure 3. Examples of means for providing feedback on the datalink status for communicating and receiving confirmations from many different aircraft.

From these options three combinations were designed that will be designated as user interface combinations ‘A’, ‘B’ and ‘C’. The mapping of the particular features that were combined is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Input method</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>pop-up menus</td>
<td>DSP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>pop-up menus</td>
<td>label symbols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>combined pop-up menu</td>
<td>label symbols</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The conditions A, B, and C were intended to represent an increasing level of integration of task elements and feedback onto the screen of the Air traffic controller. The higher the level of integration, the lower the number of on-screen search actions and required subsequent integration of data and information. Also, these options have different disadvantages. As an example the data link status window will change in content (ir-) regularly, thereby attracting the controllers attention at a time that such information would not strictly be required for mental processing. Alternatively, the pop-up or better, pop down menu’s of the radar data block can obscure some of the other traffic data, although at a moment selected by the controller who decides to take an action.

The experiment used the following measurement techniques: Eye point of gaze measurements, head tracking, pupil size, heart rate and respiration, heart rate variability, logging of system inputs and responses and extensive use of subjective ratings. The subjects in this experiment were, like in the cockpit data link study, normal professionals in this case regular controllers.

The results showed the following:

Heart rate variability normally decreases when working under working conditions that are cognitively loading or stressful (for a review see Jorna 1992). So a user interface that is more easy to work with could result in a relative increase as compared to more cumbersome interfaces. However, no very explicit results were expected as Heart rate variability is especially sensitive to more extreme overall working conditions that are associated with particular distinctive mental states as associated with mental work and stress. The results obtained in this experiment proved very promising as indicated in figure 4.
The impact of traffic density on heart rate variability is quite consistent and a little bit to our surprise, also quite distinct for type of user interface. Also, as an experiment, the pupil size was calculated and analyzed. The results of this initial analysis are depicted in figure 5.

The size of the pupil(s) normally is modified by physical factors like the amount of light present, but it can also be influenced by the required visual information sampling and mental processing of visual data. In that case, its size will increase as a function of the amount of visual information processing.
The results indicated that accurate measurements of small differences in size can be realized. Similarly to the heart rate variability data, the pupil decreased in size as a function of level of integration in the controller data link interface while it increased markedly with an increase in traffic density (difference between Low or High traffic samples). Note that more traffic implies more radarplots on the screen which should tempt the pupil to downsize as a function of amount of light in the display.

An example of the subjective ratings provided by the controllers is summarized in figure 6.

![Subjective measures: NASA TLX](image)

**Figure 6.** Ratings provided after the experimental sessions as a function of controller data link interface and traffic density (Low or High).

The subjective ratings displayed a marked sensitivity to the amount of traffic present, but revealed a quite less spectacular difference between user interfaces. So, in this experiment the objective results all pointed to the possibilities of designing effective controller datalink interfaces, but the subjective data did not reflect this to the same extent.

4.1.2 Software assistance

The mental processing capabilities of the air traffic controller are generally considered to represent a major bottleneck in expanding the amount of air traffic. One reason is the communication process that is of a serial nature and has to address each plane individually. Also, the controller has to build an overview over the traffic streams in order to be able to predict and anticipate possible separation issues. In case of a possible overload, the traditional procedure is to subdivide more sectors so more controller teams can share the work. The disadvantage is of course that the communication requirements also increase dramatically, thereby limiting the overall effectiveness.

Alternatively, the use of datalinking allow the controller to issue messages more quickly and both individual aircraft and groups of aircraft can be addressed if relevant. Also, clearances with multiple parameters or complete route instructions can be issued. Software tools can provide assistance in conflict detection and resolution of aircraft route or altitude infringements. The effectiveness of such possible assistance was investigated by means of simulations and extensive objective and subjective measurements (Hilburn et al. 95, Hilburn et al. 96).

The results of a comparison of a stepwise increase in the level of assistance provided with a ‘manual’ baseline are depicted in figure 7 for pupil size measurements.
The data obtained in this study seem very promising for extended applications of these measures. Also, the results for Heart rate variability revealed an almost identical trend with heart rate variability increasing systematically when more assistance is provided to the controller.

An additional technique applied was the principle of ‘dual tasking’ but with the purpose of acquiring an objective measure of situation awareness, in this case defined as awareness of communication and aircraft status. Incidentally, aircraft would fail to acknowledge their up links and the controller had to detect these occurrences. In case of an increased overall task load, more options are present to perform this particular task more timely. The results are depicted in figure 8.

Apparently, the tools do allow the controller to scan the display more effectively, resulting in better overall performance. So, overall
the objective measures clearly indicate the potential of the tools in helping the controller. But how do the controllers rate them subjectively? That data is depicted in figure 9.

![Figure 9. Controller estimates of workload effects as a function of more software tools.](image)

Surprisingly, the controllers rate the effects of the tools quite contrary to the picture provided by the objective measurements. Possibly, the addition of extra functionality is experienced as more work to be handled.

A mediating factor in these ratings could be the particular strategy employed by the controllers in using these tools. Controllers have very particular strategies in handling their traffic and these ‘controller methods’ could influence adaptation to the new controller working position. An illustration can be provided by analyzing the eye scanning during high and low traffic density samples.

![Figure 10. Display lay out of the Plan View Display with Arrival scheduler at the left, aircraft hand-off area and data link communication status panel. The area’s are used by the point of gaze equipment to provide area related data on eye scans, duration’s, transitions etc.](image)
The present study (Hilburn et al 1995, 1996) investigated the human use of possible tools in a future ATC scenario with present (low) and future (high) traffic loading. Arrival traffic approaching Schiphol was displayed on a Plan View Display (PVD), see figure 10. It contained:

**Timeline window**– the controller must monitor this area for scheduling information, if he/she is to ensure that the arrival sequence is as desired, and that ETA and STA agree;

**Traffic area**– the region of the screen in which controlled aircraft appear, including both the aircraft location plots, and the flight labels that display all relevant flight parameters;

**Data link Status Panel**– displays all recently–uplinked messages, together with elapsed time since transmission, and whether the clearance has yet been acknowledged by the aircraft;

**Hand–off region**– general area in which the PVD displays the plots and flight labels of aircraft around the time that they are handed off to Amsterdam approach (APP) control;

**Pre–acceptance region**– the general PVD region that displays aircraft before they are accepted from the previous sector. Viewing this region provides the controller an indication of impending traffic load changes.

The results of the ‘point of gaze’ measurements are depicted in figure 11.

Comparing the results in figure 11 gives an indication of how traffic load influenced the visual scanning of the task–relevant surfaces. It appears that average dwell times were slightly influenced by differences in traffic load. Surfaces 1, 2, and 4 (i.e., the timeline, traffic and hand–off regions) showed a decrease of 0.8% to 1.3% from low– to high–traffic conditions, whereas increased dwell times were seen for the data link (3.4%) and pre–acceptance (12.9%) regions.

Fixation frequency, however, seemed much more sensitive to the effects of traffic load. The net change from low to high traffic conditions ranged from −6.3% (for the pre–acceptance region) to −75.7% (for the timeline).

The pattern of scanning can change drastically as illustrated in the next two figures.
The results indicate that a tool as the scheduler for Arrivals by means of a time line is used especially under the low traffic conditions, but the moment traffic builds up, controllers seem to drop the tool and revert to the classic ‘on screen’ controlling methods. The paradox that occurs is that tools with technology designed to ease the job of the controller are being discarded especially in the situations where they were anticipated to benefit the most.

4.2 Tools for the Flight crew

4.2.1 Cockpit datalink

The advent of data link capabilities resulted in the issue of what kind of human–machine interfaces would be acceptable (certifiable) for handling ATC communications at the flight deck. An existing application is the so-called ACARS unit (Aircraft Communications and Reporting System) located in the aft part of the pedestal, so in a sub optimal location considering positioning with respect to the crew members. This unit was compared with possible alternatives like using the Multi–function displays and/or the Control and
Display Unit (CDU) of the FMS. These systems have a favorable position but share other functionality’s in a single device.

These three systems were compared during a realistic simulation with the NLR research simulator with Glass cockpit instrumentation and representative operational conditions using normal line–crews (Van Gent et al. 1994). In these studies, the following measurements were included: Head tracking for both crew members, heart rate and respiration, communications analysis with the ground and within crew, logging of systems inputs and outputs etc. and subjective assessments of usability and acceptability per flight phase (for a review of the methodologies involved see Jorna 1997).

The principles of crew resource management dictate that the Pilot Non Flying (PNF) is handling the communications, in order to allow the Pilot Flying (PF) to concentrate on primary flight instruments and the outside world. Translated into expected head tracking data, this means that the PF should be head–up most, if not all of the time. The following data was however obtained as illustrated in figure 14.

In case the PNF prepares and sends a message, his colleague does take notice, but maintains attention primarily according to the requirements and normal procedures. However, in case of an up–link, the Pilot flying goes head down significantly while this behavior is not according to best rules of practice. From a cognitive point of view, this behavior is quite understandable as any uplink means significant information and everybody will be curious about what is going to take place. As a result of this work synthetic speech applications for auditory presentations to the PF were re–visited to ameliorate this type of behavior, especially during the more critical flight phases (Van Gent 1996).

In determining the ‘Good versus Bad’ characteristics of user–interfaces, task completion times seem to be a natural criterion to be considered. Analyses of the logging of ‘button interactions’ combined with head tracking data, revealed a phenomenon that could be described as ‘interruptions’ in task execution or breaches in procedures for handling certain tasks. The number of occurrences per time period are depicted in figure 5. for each of the human machine interfaces investigated in the experiment.

The expected result was that the ACARS Interactive Display Unit (IDU) would produce slowest task completion times due to location and touch control characteristics. This only proved to be partially true. What was observed is that the user has a tendency to, whatever happens, finish the job. The reason was that in case of a non–supportive interface, the user will loose track when interrupted. Interfaces that provide feedback and status of work information, however, actually allow tasks to be interrupted and that was what happened. The lesson learnt is that a new design will also elicit new human behaviors that, although unexpected beforehand, prove to make sense from a cognitive standpoint.
4.2.2 ‘Tunnel in the sky’ displays

In flying under anticipated Air Traffic Management scenario’s as described by EUROCONTROL programs like PHARE (Program for Harmonized Air traffic management Research in EUROCONTROL) so-called 4D scenario’s are envisaged (for more information see Jorna & Nijhuis 1996). Aircraft negotiate a preferred route that is defined in the normal three dimensions, but now precise timing is linked with certain locations and altitudes of the aircraft in the airspace. The plane now has to fly through a virtual Tube to maintain the conflict free route depicting both lateral and vertical navigation information. Within this tube they have to stay in a ‘Time box’ that moves along the tube as required to maintain conflict free.

A possible ideal display for the flight crew is the well known ‘High way in the sky’ representation, but adapted to ATM purposes by designing it as a virtual ‘Tunnel in the sky’ concept to guide the crews ‘in time’ and ‘on time’.

In preparation for a validation experiment pilots (Huisman & Karwal 1995) were asked to comment on the display candidates involving a Tunnel display and a modified baseline display comprising a normal Primary Flight Display (PFD) with additional indicators for timing aspects integrated at vertical scales depicting values for altitude and speed (so-called speed and altitude tapes). As a result a hybrid display version was designed comprising the tunnel display combined with speed and altitude tapes. This version could possibly ease the transition from one display type to the other.

The experiment (Huisman & Flohr 1997) was performed in a moving base research flight simulator as mentioned in the earlier research. Twelve line pilots participated and extensive ‘Human Factors measurements’ were collected as discussed earlier. The following (preliminary) results were obtained for a flight involving a failure of the auto pilot which necessitated the pilots to revert to ‘hands on’ manual control. The performance data obtained revealed a very consistent superior performance for the Tunnel display in general. However, the following subjective ratings were noted as depicted in figure 16.
The results indicate that the tunnel display was favored as compared with the traditional display. Surprisingly, the hybrid display or ‘Tunnel with tapes’ was rated less favorably while it was proposed originally by members of the pilot community. The rating values themselves can be denoted as being low to average on the RSME scale.

In order to investigate the nature of this apparent change in opinion, the total group was split in two sub groups. One group consisted of pilots who clearly expressed their preference for the Tunnel (n=9) and a second group (n=3) that clearly did not! This last group was however quite small, indicating the potential for pilot acceptance of the tunnel display.

When the data was recalculated and explored, the following results were observed as depicted in figure 17.
The tunnel display for the ‘tunnel’ group was rated as requiring less effort. The traditional display was rated worst, but the addition of ‘tapes’ to the tunnel apparently initiated a cost in its effectiveness with respect to estimated mental effort. This result seems quite in accordance with data from laboratory experiments of University of Illinois investigating the effects of conformal and non-conformal symbologies on Head up type of displays.

The pilots who preferred the traditional display, did this quite strongly as the results depicted in figure 18 illustrate. The traditional display was very easy for them while the tunnel display scored fairly high on costs of mental effort. To explore the underlying reasons for the quite different ratings obtained from (some) individuals, other detailed questionnaires were explored.

The results are depicted in figure 19.
Figure 19. Pilot ratings for crews favoring the traditional display (n=3) on a rating scales for Mental Processing—Understanding—Recognition—Success in task and Satisfaction with their performance.

Note that for this group some extreme scores were obtained. The mental processing of the traditional display was rated extreme low, indicating high familiarity as confirmed by the scores on ‘Understanding’ and ‘Recognition’. Also success was rated higher although satisfaction achieved was expressed firmly but less explicit as compared to the other aspects rated.

If the results for the tunnel group are contrasted with the PFD group, a more balanced distribution in ratings is observed as depicted in figure 20.
5. Lessons to be learned

5.1 Unexpected user behaviors

If experiments allow the use of fine-grained objective measurements at both the performance and workload level, unexpected user behaviors can be identified and explored to understand and learn their cognitive origin and nature. The cockpit data link study revealed unwanted head down behavior for the Pilot Flying and the task completion without allowing interruptions seemed to be pursued especially for the lesser optimal display. Supporting the user by providing more access and feedback will allow a different kind of user interaction as known beforehand. Understanding why this occurs is of crucial importance for improved designs.

The air traffic controllers were found to drop the use of new tools especially when the traffic load was high. Apparently, the tool did not help them or the training was insufficient to overcome the old habits'. More validation studies are clearly required before fielding such equipment, even when high investments in developing its technologies have been made.

Similarly, the pilots that did not favor the tunnel display as the majority of their colleague’s could also be influenced by these ‘old habits’. Preference is always personal, but its dimensions have to be understood intensely in order to facilitate transitions to new technology and optimize training. An individualized approach seems to be indicated by the data obtained, imposing specific requirements to training design and tools required.

5.2 Objective versus subjective measurements

In several of our studies, objective measurements based on physiological and other data suggested a reduction in workload in most if not all of the measures taken. Subjective appreciation’s however, pointed in the other direction and sometimes quite explicitly. The ATC datalink studies and the Automation assistance studies revealed this pattern of ‘dissociation’. The major implication seems to be that the inclusion of objective measurements is essential to gain a full understanding of the processes involved in working with new interfaces, including adaptations and transitioning problems to be expected. Furthermore it is sometimes hard to estimate workload for complex systems and its components. Perhaps that is the reason for a possible bias in the direction of ‘More tools or equipment must mean more work’!

6. Misconceptions and Fallacies

From these, and many other, studies it became apparent that certain assumptions and perhaps common sense believes are in fact not true and need to be reconsidered carefully.

- **Automation will always be beneficial**: the data obtained in experiments employing fine grained performance and workload measurements indicate that many ‘tools’ will not be used as predicted or even at all, especially under high task loading conditions.

- **Training will compensate for poor design**: this is an ‘oldie’ but still relevant. Without adequate testing and human validation studies, designs will be maintained that will provide difficulties during transitioning form old to new technologies. Even certain groups of users could feel, or actually be, excluded from the future work force. This aspect is detrimental for the individuals but also for a system that has to cope with decreasing numbers of potential candidates for operators.

- **Function allocation can be best based on machine capabilities**: this has been a trend for a long time because of obvious (selling) reasons. It works out better if designs appreciate the cognitive strategies that people employ generally.

- **Users are the best designers**: this is most often not true as users will be used to particular equipment and procedures and gain pride in having mastered them. The transition to new technology will often require persuasion and re-training will prove ineffective some of the time.

- **Human modeling is valid for future behavior**: these models are especially appreciated by designers who do not want, or can not afford, the assumed burden of taking complex and extensive measurements. However, since these models are based on known behavior patterns they will not include or cover unexpected behaviors and will not be valid for ‘certifying’ new systems.

- **Ergonomics are checked after the design**: in many cases basic technologies have been developed and the behavioral scientist is tasked to incorporate ergonomics. The task structure and working philosophies or sub task sequences will not fit anyway, leaving a sub optimal design for the user to master.

- **Design is delayed by Human factors and increases costs**: if planned from the start, Human Factors can help and even take the lead in defining the design strategies for technology development. In all experiences known to me where engineers and
physicists were teamed with behavioral scientists, clearly some adaptation problems occurred with respect to language and strategies pursued, but eventually everybody felt more secure about the quality of the products delivered. Overall costs of the total product development cycle and its introduction will be lowered instead of increased considering the early prevention of ‘after fielding’ problems like modifications or mid−life updates, excessive training requirements or even user resistance.  

- **Human Factors is a work area, not a behavioral science:** with the increased recognition of the importance of ‘Human Factors’ for overall performance, acceptance and endurance of a system as a whole, an apparent market was opened with many contenders. It is often not realized that working with a display and computers is not sufficient to qualify as ‘Human Factors’ research. Due to the inherent individual differences between humans, adequate scientific standards are simply essential to gain interpretable results. Also the use of questionnaires is not sufficient and when not complemented by high quality objective measurements, such a strategy should be qualified as an ‘easy way out’.

## 7. References


Huisman H. and Karwal A.(1995), 'Design and initial evaluation of two 4D PFD format prototypes.' NLR CR 95229 L.  


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