

SPATIAL AUDITORY INTERFACES COMPARED TO VISUAL INTERFACES FOR MOBILE USE IN A DRIVING TASK

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Abstract: This paper reports on a user study of simulated cell phone use in a driving simulator. The main questions we were seeking to answer were concerning the effectiveness and efficiency of the auditory interfaces in comparison to a standard visual interface. In our experiment we tested two audio interfaces; one with many spatial audio sources and one with a single source. These were compared against a visual interface. Both of the auditory interfaces were as effective as each other but they were not better than the visual interface. However users made more errors while using the visual interface than in the two audio conditions. So although both types of interface were as effective as each other the visual interface was less efficient as it distracted strongly from the primary driving task.

1 INTRODUCTION

Mobility is more and more a way of life. Some of the tasks that we used to accomplish in the office or at home are now being done on the go. In reaction to the requirements of a highly mobile and information-dense domain our handheld communication devices are getting smaller while at the same time their functionality dramatically expands.

Mobility requires a high degree of visual attention. Visual interfaces are therefore not ideal in that context, as they distract the user's attention from primary tasks such as steering a vehicle (Wierwille, 1998; Sodhi, 2004). Moreover, mobile devices are often put in pockets, bags or otherwise placed out of sight. As a result, the displayed cues cannot be immediately seen.

In this paper we explore the use of user centred spatial auditory interfaces in a mobile phone environment. Before presenting our interfaces and experimental results, in the next section we review previous related work followed by sections on our user study, experimental methods and results. We conclude the paper with a discussion section and some conclusions and future work.

1.1 Related Work

Several researchers have used a ring or dial metaphor for designing auditory interfaces. Crispin et al. (Crispin, 1996) have designed a user centred spatial interface for navigating and selecting from a hierarchical menu structure. Auditory objects can be reviewed and selected by using 3D-pointing, hand gestures or speech input.

Sawhney & Schmandt (Sawhney, 2000) created the nomadic radio. Worn on the shoulder it uses audio cues to notify the user about current events such as incoming e-mails or calendar entries, and system messages. Audio messages are positioned in a circle around the listener, according to their time of arrival. The user interacts with the nomadic radio by voice commands and tactile input.

Some researchers have explored the combination of spatial visual and auditory cues. Frauenberger and Stockman (Frauenberger, 2006) positioned the user in the middle of a virtual room with a big, horizontal dial in front of her. Menu items were presented on the edge of the dial facing the user while most of the dial disappears behind a wall. The user could turn the dial in either direction by using a gamepad con-

troller. Only the item in front of the user could be selected or activated. All items are synthesised speech.

As can be seen from these projects, spatial audio has been successfully applied in a number of interfaces, particularly using a ring metaphor. However, there have been fewer examples of this being applied in a mobile phone setting, and no previous work that compares audio interfaces to purely visual conditions in a mobile phone task.

In the next section we describe our interface in more detail and then the user study we conducted.

2 USER STUDY

We have been exploring audio interfaces that are suitable for driving situations. In our study we were concentrating on a comparison of task completion times and anomalies in driver performance under one visual and two auditory conditions. While driving in a car simulator the participants were asked to perform five different tasks:

- MSG: Write a message to a specific person
- PRF: Change the active profile of the device
- CAL: Make a call to a specific person
- IMG: Delete an image from the device
- SNG: Play a specific song

All tasks were performed with three different interfaces. The interaction was based on hierarchically ordered menus which were controlled and accessed via a small scrolling wheel and two buttons (left and right) attached to the steering wheel. Different items of the menu were selected with the scrolling wheel and the selected option was confirmed with the left button. The right button enabled a step back or up in the menu. In addition a small phone-like keyboard was attached next to the steering wheel, which was used for entering letters and text messages in the visual condition (Fig. 1).

The first interface was a visual interface (V) with the menu shown on the small LCD screen (15cm x 12cm). The screen was positioned at about 40° to the lower left side of the dashboard where it could easily be seen while driving.

In the case of the auditory interfaces all items and commands of the menu were presented with spatial sounds and played to the driver via speakers installed in the simulator. All sound items were spoken words, recorded by a female native speaker. As under the visual condition, participants could hear also other co-occurring auditory events in the simulator (sound of the car engine, braking, environment

sounds, etc.) As shown in Fig. 2 the menu items were placed on a virtual circle around the user's head with constant differences in the angles between them.



Figure 1: Visual interface, keyboard, and steering wheel.

In the first audio interface (A1) 1-6 sound sources were put on one level of the menu and played simultaneously. The selected item was the loudest, positioned directly in front of the user. In the second acoustic interface (A2) only one item was played at a time. The text input was also realized with an acoustic interface. Single letters were ordered to two bigger groups (vowels and consonants) and then to smaller groups of three letters.

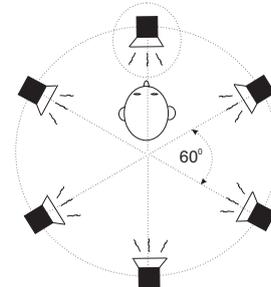


Figure 2: The virtual circle with 6 spatial sound sources.

The same menu structure was used with all three interfaces. The items and the levels of the menu were based upon a simplified Nokia 60-series mobile phone menu.

As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, we were interested in observing the participants operating the car (primary task) and performing different tasks (secondary tasks) with the in-built mobile device. Our main research questions were:

- Which interface will distract the user least from the primary task?

- Which interface will cause the user to make more errors?
- Which interface will have the fastest task completion times?

3 METHODS

3.1 Participants

A total of 18 participants (8 female, 10 male) took part in our experiment. Their average age was 27.7 years with 8.7 years of driving experiences. They all reported normal sight and hearing.

3.2 Experiment Procedure

All participants were first asked to fill a questionnaire on their age, sex, driving experiences, hearing and visual disabilities. Then they were given a five minute test drive, followed by performing all five tasks under the first condition, taking a 15 minute break and then repeating all tasks under the next condition and so forth. The tasks were read aloud to the participants and they were asked to start after a request to do so. After each condition participants were asked to complete a questionnaire on user satisfaction (QUIS, 2006).

In order to eliminate learning effects, three randomly assigned groups of six participants were formed. Each group performed the tasks with the interfaces in a different sequential order. The study was filmed for later analysis.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Task Completion Times

The task completion time was measured between the initial command "Please start now." and the final notification "Task completed".

Fig. 3 shows the average task completion times for the five tasks in the three different interface conditions. There is a significant difference for the message composition task (MSG). The visual menu with mobile phone keyboard proved to be the fastest way to write a txt message. A within subject ANOVA test for MSG task resulted gave: $F_{MSG}(2, 51) = 8.52$, $MSE = 2796.52$, $p = 0.001$. A post-hoc Bonferroni test with a .05 limit on familywise error rate confirmed the significant difference between visual (V) and auditory menus (A1 and A2) but no significant difference between A1 and A2. The mean values of MSG tasks are shown in Table 1.

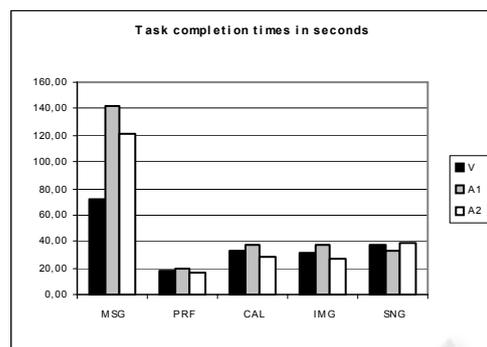


Figure 3: Mean task completion times of all tasks.

Table 1: Mean task completion times (M) for MSG task.

Interface	M	Std. Dev.
V	71.22	32.24
A1	120.50	63.54
A2	142.22	57.55

We believe that the reason for this lies in the fact that most of the participants were skilled in writing messages with mobile phone keyboards. The acoustic interface for entering text messages turned out to be too slow and inappropriate for such conditions.

The ANOVA tests for the other four tasks showed no significant difference:

$$F_{PRF}(2, 51) = 0.358, MSE = 125.07, p = 0.701;$$

$$F_{CAL}(2, 50) = 0.550, MSE = 637.06, p = 0.581;$$

$$F_{IMG}(2, 51) = 1.213, MSE = 435.67, p = 0.306;$$

$$F_{SNG}(2, 50) = 0.211, MSE = 609.17, p = 0.811.$$

These results did not confirm our expectations that the auditory menus should support faster task completion times.

4.2 Driving Performance

The driving performance was evaluated on the basis of video recordings. The participants' driving was observed and penalty points were assigned according to the error severity.

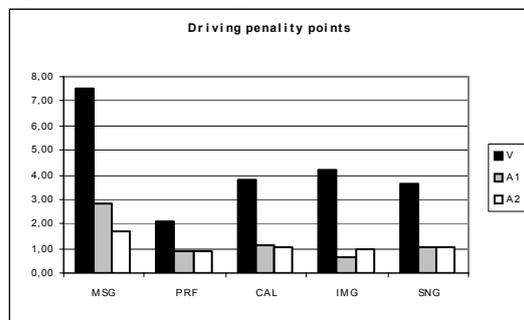


Figure 4: Mean driving penalty points of all tasks.

The penalty points for each driver were summed and the average penalty points for all users were calculated for each task (see Fig. 4).

The number of penalty points is much greater in the case of visual menu condition for all tasks. This was confirmed with the ANOVA test: $F(2, 202) = 29.169$, $MSE = 8.480$, $p < 0.001$. A post-hoc Bonferroni test with a .05 limit on familywise error rate confirmed the significant difference between the results of visual and auditory interfaces, but no difference between the individual auditory interfaces. The mean values are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean driving penalty points (M) of all tasks.

Interface	M	SD
V	4.27	4.95
A1	1.14	1.42
A2	0.93	1.18

In this case we can confirm our expectation that participants were more focussed on driving when completing tasks with auditory interfaces than with the visual interface.

5 DISCUSSION

We did not find any significant difference in task completion times apart from text message completion. Although all participants reported previous experiences with hierarchical visual interfaces they did not complete tasks much faster than with the new auditory interfaces. The much longer task completion time with messaging is a consequence of the use of different and unequally efficient interaction devices (mobile phone keyboard and auditory menu for writing messages). We believe the similar task completion times in the other three cases are encouraging since the entirely new auditory interfaces were compared to a type of well known and widely used visual interface.

Our high expectations on the significant improvement of driving performance were justified. The users drove the car much more safely when operating the auditory interfaces. The results of the modified QUIS showed that participants found performing the tasks with the visual menu difficult, dangerous and unpleasant. On the other hand participants found it more difficult to orientate within the menu structure in the auditory conditions.

Most of the participants reported a learning effect, especially with the auditory interfaces.

In the experiment we also studied the significance of the presence of more simultaneous sounds in the interface. Participants reported the A2 (one sound played) option to be more effective. As used in A1 all additional sounds at different virtual positions were perceived as a distracting background noise than as additional information.

6 CONCLUSION

The auditory interfaces used in this study offer an effective alternative to classic visual interfaces, currently used in cars. Although an auditory menu could sometimes be confusing to use it offers significant improvement in the driver behaviour. The possibly complicated menu structure could be learned fast and consequentially be as effective as the commonly used visual menu.

As this was only a pilot study further research has to be done on comparing auditory interfaces to more novel visual interfaces, for example a head-up display or to a speech interface. A more realistic and demanding driving scenario should be tested such as a major street in an urban environment, or driving under different weather conditions.

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