

Virtual Reality Aids Game Navigation: Evidence from the Hypertext Lostness Measure

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Abstract

Instead of traditional free movement, node-based movement can be used in virtual reality (VR) games. In node-based movement systems, players navigate by jumping to set locations. Node-based movement is similar to hypertext navigation. We show that the hypertext lostness measure can be used as a game analytic to evaluate navigational efficiency. In a randomized controlled trial with 25 adolescent participants, an immersive desktop game environment and a VR game environment were compared on the transmission of in-game educational content and navigational efficiency. Results show that the hypertext lostness measure is also valuable outside its original hypertext domain: in VR. VR did not improve players' retention of factual knowledge, but did significantly improve players' spatial knowledge and navigational efficiency. We conclude (a) the hypertext lostness measure is also valuable for node-based VR games and (b) VR games add to spatial learning, even when compared with already immersive desktop games.

Keywords: virtual reality (VR), knowledge, serious games, learning, lostness, navigation

Introduction

NOWADAYS, VIRTUAL REALITY (VR) is used successfully across many different industries for information acquisition and skill improvement; for example, in surgery,¹ the military,² and education.³ The next step is to explore one of VR's next levels: storytelling.⁴ However, navigation in VR can be overwhelming for its users.⁵ A possible remedy was recently found: node-based movement, where players move between predefined positions.⁶

A key aim of many educational games is information acquisition, without explicit teaching, where items must be discovered to proceed further in the game. In particular, narrative-centered discovery games have considerable learning potential. In these games, players are transported to another place and time period and must explore the environment to discover items and hear audio narratives that reveal the in-game story.^{7,8} This stimulates players to construct appropriate mental models.^{9,10} Narrative-centered discovery games combine the learning affordances of two distinct game genres: (a) discovery games, where learning occurs by solving problems through exploration rather than being directly presented with learning content¹¹; and (b) narrative-centered games, which use strong and emotive storylines, often presented auditorily.

These games involve two types of knowledge: story knowledge, knowledge constructed from a story a person has been told or experienced¹²; and spatial knowledge, knowledge constructed from observations gathered while traveling through an environment.¹³ This leads to higher and deeper learning than expository learning^{14,15} as well as enhanced retention of information^{16–18} as these games provide a motivating, engaging, and organized learning experience.^{8,11,19–21} This is expected to lead to positive learning results as focused attention and an increased effect during encoding have been found to enhance retention of information.^{16–18}

As in VR, navigation in hypertext systems, responsive node-based systems with branches leading to text and other media,²² can be challenging and is frequently characterized by disorientation, where users lose their sense of location and direction.^{23,24} This happens when navigation is too much of a cognitive burden and leads to cognitive overload²⁵ (i.e., an excessive amount of load placed on a person's working memory when carrying out a task²⁶). Similar effects are known from VR.^{5,27–29} Cognitive overload leads to inhibited learning³⁰ as a user simultaneously devotes limited cognitive resources to both navigation and comprehension.^{31,32}

We pose that *lostness*,³³ a measure that is used to identify disorientation and has been shown to be successful in

predicting success in information-seeking tasks in hyper-text,^{34–36} can also be used in VR games that use a node–link approach due to the similarity in process and structure. For a given task, lostness (L) is defined as follows:

$$L = \sqrt{\left(\frac{N}{S} - 1\right)^2 + \left(\frac{R}{N} - 1\right)^2},$$

where R is the minimum number of nodes needed to be visited, N is the number of unique nodes a player has visited, and S is the total number of nodes a player has visited. L results in a value of between 0 and $\sqrt{2}$; 0 indicates that the task has been completed perfectly (not disoriented) and $\sqrt{2}$ indicates that a user was completely disoriented, illustrating poor navigational efficiency.

VR might have the disadvantage of disorientation. In parallel, it also has many benefits³⁷ in addition to its key feature: natural observation through its head tracking enabled stereoscopic three-dimensional rendering³⁸; most noteworthy benefits are as follows: (a) greater presence³⁹ (i.e., a player feeling being physically present in VR⁴⁰), which aids learning outcomes in VR⁴¹; (b) improved engagement⁴² (i.e., heightened concentration, interest, involvement, and enjoyment⁴³), which catalyzes learning^{44,45}; and (c) cognitive interest⁴⁶ (i.e., understanding topics and becoming more interested⁴⁷), which serves as intrinsic motivation to explore and experience new and unfamiliar things,⁴⁸ a key part of narrative-based discovery games. Although these three aspects are known to positively influence learning,⁴⁹ there is no consensus on the differences in in-game experience between VR and non-VR games.³⁹

There is general agreement on VR's contribution to visual (spatial) information processing.^{50–52} However, there is disagreement on VR's contribution to learning.^{27,51,53–55} This can at least partly be explained by two factors: (a) most research compared VR with traditional educational methods rather than comparing the same game presented in VR with a non-VR/desktop environment⁵⁶ and (b) the vast majority of studies did not make use of fully immersive VR by using either low-end headsets or primitive controls or both.^{27,51,53} This study deviates from existing studies as it (a) gives a direct comparison between VR and a non-VR/desktop game and (b) uses fully immersive VR and hence aids natural observation^{38,57} and natural control.⁵⁸

Research Questions

We will examine possible differences between a node-based non-VR and VR game on navigational efficiency and knowledge retention. We will control for possible differences in experienced presence, engagement, and cognitive interest (see the previous section). This brings us to the following research questions: Compared with a node-based non-VR game (control condition), will VR have a positive effect on

- navigational efficiency?
- retention of the educational story content?
- retention of spatial knowledge?

We expect that each of these three research questions will be answered in the affirmative.

Methods

Participants

Twenty-five adolescents (i.e., 12 males and 13 females) aged 13–18 years (mean: 15.00, *SD*: 1.32) participated. They represent the target audience for the game used. Participants were randomly assigned to either the VR (six males and seven females) or non-VR (six males and six females) condition. Given the design of the study and our previous experiences with a similar setup,⁵⁹ this number of participants is expected to be adequate to both verify the results and unveil sufficient power to generalize the results.

None of the participants had a medical reason disqualifying them from using VR. All were recruited from a University Technical College in the United Kingdom. This college is open to new, alternative technical methods of teaching, which minimized the risk that eventual differences between VR and non-VR would be caused by a negative attitude. Both individual and parental informed consent was obtained.

VR game environment

A Sony PlayStation VR game, *The Chantry*,⁶⁰ a narrative-centered discovery game using a node-based movement system, was used. This game takes place in the house of Dr. Edward Jenner and tells the story of the invention of the smallpox vaccine. Players are required to find items related to descriptions on a list (Fig. 1), which reveal the story information through audio narratives. The tasks can be completed in a predefined minimum number of steps, so the lostness measure can be applied.

Apparatus

In both conditions, the game ran at 60 Hz, reprojected to 120 Hz, and was rendered identically. A DualShock 4 controller (model: CUH-ZCT1) was used to control the game. Standard over-ear headphones provided the audio.

In the VR condition, participants wore a Sony PlayStation VR headset (model: CUH-ZVR1) to play the game on a Base PlayStation 4 Development Kit (DUH-D1000AA). In the non-VR condition, participants were seated 50 cm away from a standard 22" HD screen (resolution: 1920 × 1080).

To specify the level of the immersion in the non-VR/desktop setting, we calculated participants' horizontal instantaneous field of view (IFOV) as follows⁵⁶:

$$2 \times \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{D_c + d_e}{2l} \right),$$

where D_c is the screen size, d_e is the standard eye separation parameter of 0.63 cm, and l is the distance from the eyes to the screen. This resulted in an IFOV of 55 degrees.

To control the VR condition, participants used natural observation to look at a node and used a button on the controller to move to that node or pick up an item. The item was moved and rotated naturally by tracking the controller, which moved with the participants' hands. In the non-VR condition, participants used the controller's left analog stick to move the game camera to look at nodes and the right analog stick to rotate an item after it was picked up. The key difference



FIG. 1. Using node-based movement to complete the Gloucestershire task in *The Chantry*. The two objectives shown on the list are completed when the player picks up the relevant items and hears the information attached to it. Color images are available online.

between conditions was that both the natural head and hand controls in the VR condition were replaced by traditional game controls in the non-VR condition. The navigation mode and node-based movement remained the same across conditions, enabling the use of the lostness measures.

Measurements: calculating lostness

To assess different aspects of navigation behavior, two versions of the lostness measure, global and local, were developed. These reflect global and local path analysis, respectively,⁶¹ also see the Introduction section.

Global lostness compares the path followed throughout to complete a task with the optimal path multiplied by the number of subtasks that the task included (e.g., see Gloucestershire in Fig. 1). This is done throughout the complete game. Subsequently, all global lostness values are summed and divided by the sum of the number of subtasks per task. This way, the tasks are normalized within the full game.

Local gathering compares the path followed throughout to complete a subtask with the optimal path (e.g., see County Map in Fig. 1). Throughout the complete game, the R , S , and N values are calculated for each subtask and summed. After the full game is finished, the summed R , S , and N values are used in the original lostness equation to determine the local lostness. No normalization is needed.

Measurements: questionnaires

Knowledge retention was measured through a bespoke knowledge test consisting of 24 randomized true/false statements (50 percent true and 50 percent false). Sixteen were related to the story (e.g., “Vaccination was already popular in England by 1800.”) and eight to spatial aspects

(e.g., “The library was very close to the dining room and located on the first floor.”).

Three standard in-game questionnaires were used: the Game Engagement Questionnaire⁶² (example item—“I feel like I can’t stop playing”), the iGroup Presence Questionnaire⁶³ (example item—“I felt present in the virtual space”), and the Perceived Interest Questionnaire⁶⁴ (example item—“I thought the game’s topic was fascinating”). Each of these questionnaires consists of 5-point Likert scales, with high Cronbach’s coefficient alphas being, respectively, 0.85, 0.85, and 0.91.

Procedure

Upon being seated, participants were given health and safety information, as well as instructions on how to play the game, both in oral and written form. In addition, an informed consent form was given. They were asked whether or not everything was clear to them. If not, additional explanation was provided. After this, they signed the informed consent form.

The participants were given 30 minutes to play the game. Next, they completed the knowledge test and the three experience questionnaires. Finally, participants were debriefed and informed about the nature of both the study and the game.

Results

Given the rather small sample size and the accompanying non-normal data distribution, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare the VR and non-VR/desktop conditions on lostness (both local and global) and both story-based and spatial-based knowledge. Additionally, we controlled for effects on presence, engagement, and cognitive interest. The

TABLE 1. MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ALL MEASURES FOR BOTH NON-VIRTUAL REALITY AND VIRTUAL REALITY CONDITIONS

	Non-VR		VR	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Local lostness	0.62	0.13	0.47	0.11
Global lostness	0.71	0.13	0.57	0.15
Spatial correct (max 8)	3.67	1.30	4.92	1.38
Fact correct (max 16)	7.75	1.78	9.23	2.68
Presence (1–5)	3.11	0.43	3.01	0.35
Cognitive interest (1–5)	3.71	0.54	3.65	0.52
Engagement (1–5)	3.04	0.53	2.91	0.52

SD, standard deviation; VR, virtual reality.

means and standard deviations of these measures in each condition are provided in Table 1.

Participants in the VR condition showed a higher navigational efficiency (i.e., were less disoriented) when carrying out the in-game tasks than in the non-VR/desktop condition. This is shown by both the global lostness (desktop median=0.758, VR median=0.617, $Z=10$, $p=0.023$) and local lostness (desktop median=0.627, VR median=0.511, $Z=5$, $p=0.008$) measures (Fig. 2).

Participants in the VR condition performed better on spatial-based knowledge questions (desktop median=0.5, VR median=0.75, $Z=55.5$, $p=0.041$). In contrast, no significant difference was found for story-based knowledge (Fig. 3).

No significant differences were found with regard to the presence, cognitive interest, and engagement.

Discussion

Using a game employing a node-based movement system, fully immersive VR and non-VR/desktop were compared on both learning and navigational efficiency parameters.

Compared with the non-VR/desktop game, the VR game leads to both higher navigational efficiency (confirming research question a) and to higher retention of spatial information (confirming research question c). In contrast, no difference was found on the retention of story-based educational content (denying research question b). As expected, none of the control variables, presence, engagement, and cognitive interest, unveiled any difference between VR and non-VR/desktop.

Compared with the participants playing the game in a desktop/non-VR environment, participants in VR had both lower local and global lostness values, identifying that they were more efficient in navigation. This implies that VR aids spatial information processing on both a local level (i.e., fact finding) and a global level (i.e., information gathering). Moreover, this finding confirmed the value of lostness as a measure for in-game navigation. Further research is required to investigate the full potential and validity of both measures as both gave the same effect. For future research, we recommend using these measures as game analytics to enable real-time game adaptation based on player performance.^{65–67}

Retention was also higher for spatial knowledge in the VR condition than in the non-VR/desktop condition. This reaffirms the view that VR has a positive effect on spatial memory^{50–52} and vindicates its use in disciplines that rely heavily on spatial knowledge.^{1,2} Moreover, the combination of higher spatial knowledge retention and higher navigational efficiency found in VR compared with the non-VR/desktop condition mirrors hypertext findings that spatial ability is a predictor of navigational performance.^{68,69}

In contrast to spatial information, no significant difference was found for retention of story-based information. A simple explanation is that no significant difference, across conditions, was found in two of the control variables: cognitive interest and engagement, which are thought to be related to learning.^{70,71} An additional explanation for the lack of difference in retention scores could be related to previous findings that visual information is retained better in VR than

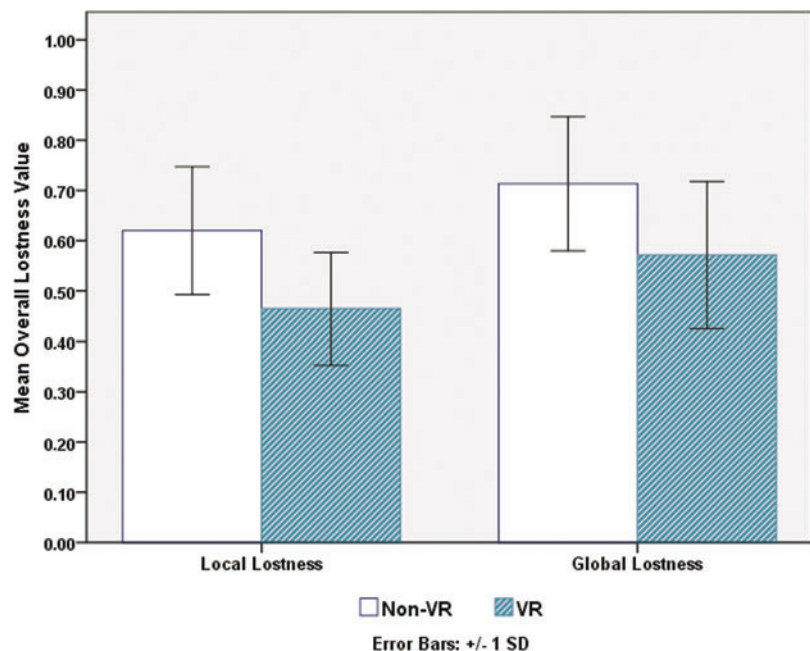


FIG. 2. Comparison of the local (left) and global (right) lostness measures for the desktop and VR environment. Error bars indicate standard error. VR, virtual reality. Color images are available online.

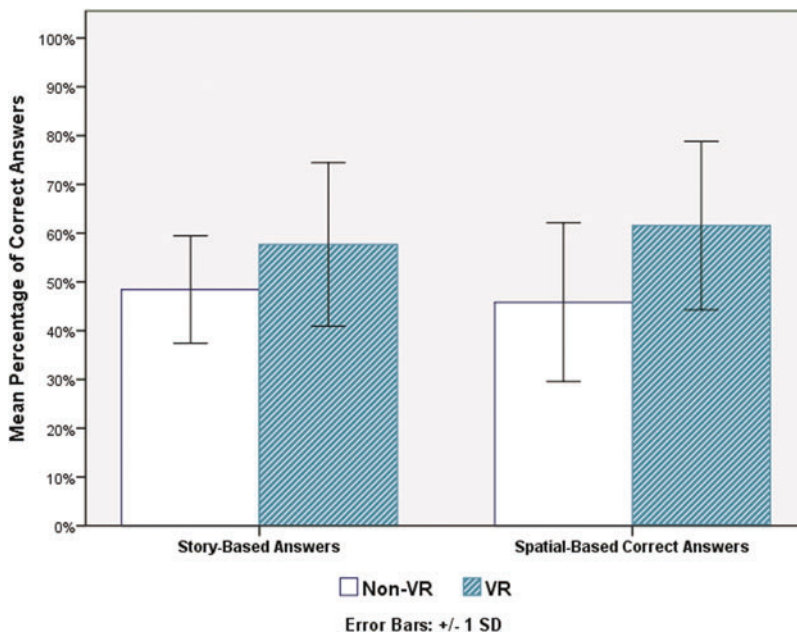


FIG. 3. Comparison of the percentage of correct answers on the story (*left*) and spatial (*right*) knowledge questionnaire. Error bars represent standard errors. Color images are available online.

in non-VR due to the increased visual information, but at the expense of information presented in other ways.⁵¹ Previous research also suggested that multimodal synergy (i.e., the synergy of information originating from multiple modalities⁷²) could improve with increasing IFOV.⁵¹ In this study, multimodal synergy was likely already maximally exploited with the non-VR/desktop condition, which already had a large IFOV, and VR could not improve the synergy effect further.

When it comes to learning, cognitive overload is often mentioned as being a problem with VR.^{5,27–29} Although we did not examine this directly, our data do not suggest this when a VR game is compared with a non-VR/desktop game. Nevertheless, as knowledge test scores were relatively low in both conditions, it could be argued that cognitive overload occurred in both conditions as participants were not familiar with the game and the node-based movement system. With more experience in using these games and VR, the cognitive load could reduce. Again, this encourages followup research on adaptivity to assist a disoriented and overloaded player using the lostness measure. This would be in line with previous research, which found significantly higher retention of educational story content when players were guided through the environment, reducing the cognitive burden of navigation.⁵⁹

Finally, it should be noted that this study's participants are from a University Technical College and study technical subjects rather than the subject addressed by the game (history). These students follow education on a level less advanced than university students, which are often used as participants. This could explain their relatively low knowledge test scores. A followup study is needed to reliably generalize the findings to a larger population.

In conclusion, we integrated the hypertext lostness measure in an educational game that uses a node-based movement system and features goal-directed information-seeking tasks. The lostness measure showed that VR improves in-game navigational efficiency compared with non-VR. Additionally, we found that VR also improves spatial knowledge acquisition. In contrast, in addition to a lack of effect on in-game experience: engagement, presence, and cognitive interest, VR did not

aid in story-based knowledge retention. This partially supported findings that only visually presented information is better retained in VR,⁵¹ while differing from other research that found that VR hindered learning.²⁷ Followup research should examine the best way to present learning content in VR for better learning. Finally, this study showed the value of hypertext lostness measures in node-based games and VR and showed that even within a gaming context, VR's merit is significant.

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