Eye movement patterns under exposure to spatial disorientation illusions during simulated flight

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Abstract

Objective

To analyze eye-tracking patterns contributing to or mitigating spatial disorientation (SD) during flight, providing insights to reduce its impact.

Background

SD is a significant contributor to aviation mishaps, often resulting from misinterpreted sensory cues, leading to an incorrect understanding of the aircraft's position, attitude, or motion. Understanding eye-scanning behaviors associated with SD can improve training and reduce incidents.

Method

Eye movements of 45 participants (30 aircrew members, 15 cadets) were recorded using Tobii Pro Glasses 2 during SD-inducing flight simulations in the Gyro-IPT SD simulator. Metrics such as fixations, saccades, and visits were compared between SD and non-SD groups, and statistical analyses were performed to identify differences.

Results

Among 284 flight profiles, 136 SD events were recorded across 30 aircrew and 15 cadets. Some illusions targeted navigators, F-15 aircrew, or active aircrew instead of cadets. SD

events during visual illusions were more likely with frequent instrument panel checks. In

contrast, vestibular illusions showed the opposite effect and had a higher probability of

causing an SD event among participants who examined the HUD in greater frequencies.

Conclusion

Efficient SD mitigation requires task-specific eye-scanning strategies: visual illusions

demand greater instrument focus, while vestibular illusions benefit from HUD

engagement.

Application

Implementing the knowledge and training based on the current results can improve

performance in flight profiles with high SD risk. There is potential to develop a real-time

alert system installed on aircraft during real flights, helping to mitigate or entirely eliminate

the fatal results of SD events.

Keywords

1. Pilot, crew behavior

2. Situation awareness

3. Simulation and training

4. Eye movements, tracking

5. Flight displays

Precis

This study examined eye-tracking patterns during flight to identify mechanisms underlying

spatial disorientation (SD) and strategies for SD avoidance. Findings reveal that to avoid

visual illusions instrument focus is required, while HUD engagement is beneficial to avoid

vestibular illusions. Results could be applied to training programs to enhance flight safety

and reduce SD incidents.

58 Background

Spatial orientation refers to correctly perceiving one's position or motion relative to the

earth, achieved through visual and vestibular cues or intellectually constructed from focal

visual, verbal, or other symbolic data (Gillingham, 1992). During flight, spatial orientation

pertains to an aircrew member's ability to identify the aircraft's velocity, altitude, heading

direction, rotation, and pitch angle. Spatial Disorientation (SD) occurs when these

elements are misperceived, leading to errors in interpreting motion, position, or attitude

due to lack or misleading cues, primarily from the visual or vestibular systems (B Cheung

& Hofer, 2003).

SD in flight is a leading cause of aircraft mishaps attributable to operator error (Gillingham,

1992). It is responsible for 5–10% of all mishaps, 90% of which are fatal (Antunano, 2005).

A USAF report found SD was a factor in 30% of mishaps from 1990–1999 and 26% from

1999–2009 (R. Gibb et al., 2011). Similarly, SD contributed to 20% of fatal mishaps in the

U.S. Navy between 1990–2000 and 38% between 2000–2017 (Meeks et al., 2024). SD

mishaps are frequently caused by undetected illusions, with 80% of incidents occurring

without aircrew awareness (Gregg, 1955)

Several visual and vestibular illusions that can occur during flight were identified with the

potential risk of developing SD in aircrew members. The main illusions are described as

follows:

Somatogravic Illusion (Dark Takeoff, DT)	A false sensation of body tilt resulting from a perception of a nonvertical gravitational force as vertical (Davis et al., 2008). When aircrew members take off in reduced visibility surroundings, they might perceive the pitch to be higher than it is due to the combination of inertia. This sensation can lead the pilot to unneeded lower the pitch angle and even to a crush.
Somatogyral Illusion (SGI)	A straightening movement following a long rotation will initiate movement in the semicircular canal in that direction, creating a sensation of a rotation opposite to the initial rotation. An aircrew member following this feeling will try to straighten their flight while actually entering the original rotation (Boril et al., 2020).
Graveyard Spin (GS)	Similar to the Somatogyral Illusion, after a prolonged spin, a straightening motion can initiate a reaction in the opposite direction in the semi-circular canals, an attempt to Correct this feeling can lead to a spin in the initial direction (Guzy et al., 2008).
Black Hole Approach (BHA)	When approaching a runway with absent ambient cues, estimating the distance from the runway is difficult. The lack of global and local objects fails to produce the perception of the runway as a surface plane on the ground, it allows the runway to "float". This causes the aircrew member to experience glide path overestimation so that they initiate an inappropriately steep descent. The result is a shallow approach that lies below the correct glide path for obstacle clearance (R. W. Gibb, 2007).

Ground-Light and Stars (GLS)	On a dark night, the ground lights and the stars' lights can appear similar, creating confusion about where the horizon line is. Trying to rely on exterior display in this situation can significantly change the aircraft's altitude (Sánchez-Tena et al., 2018).
Coriolis	Head movements during rotation activate multiple semicircular canals, causing disorientation and nausea (Houben et al., 2022).
False Horizon (FH)	The external view of the horizon can be misleading as the tilted ground line of a mountain or a tilted cloud deck could be misinterpreted as the horizon, and the aircraft is based on the tilted clouds (Zhdan'ko et al., 2012)

Simulators replicating these conditions with high fidelity are recommended for SD training

(B Cheung & Wong, 1998).

An SD simulator is a flight simulator that combines: 1) Visual stimuli using screens that

stimulate the aircraft's surroundings as the aircrew member would have experienced

during a flight, and screens that present the aircraft's instruments, which provide an

objective understanding of the aircraft's state; 2) Vestibular stimuli: the simulator has a

motion ability in the 3 motion axes: pitch, roll, and yaw. The aircrew member within the

simulator controls the motion by operating the throttle lever and flight control stick.

An SD simulator combines visual and vestibular stimuli to replicate flight conditions,

enhancing SD training. Simulators allow researchers to study physiological and

perceptual changes during SD events. Studies have found that vestibular stimulation can

alter heart and respiration rates (Ilbasmis & Yildiz, 2017). Other studies found that

nighttime climbing perception was influenced by optokinetic and cervico-ocular reflexes

(Tamura et al., 2016); (Maurice & Gioanni, 2004). Additionally, participants were found to

react to the motion and can consistently indicate a roll tilt during a turn, yet they show a

slower and inconsistent pitch response during a takeoff (Tribukait et al., 2013). Moreover,

a study showed that an attempt to straighten following a long turn when no visual

indication is available often results in a return to the original turn direction (Nooij & Groen,

2011).

Eye-tracking (ET) technology provides insights into pilots' visual scanning patterns,

revealing attention to critical instruments and external cues. Focus is measured using

fixations (Valliappan et al., 2020), which usually indicate sustained attention (Unsworth et

al., 2020) and perhaps a thorough processing of critical information (Just & Carpenter,

1976), (it can hint at a cognitive overload (Hauland, 2019)). Prolonged fixations on critical

instruments were associated with better situational awareness, as pilots spent more time

interpreting vital information needed to maintain safe flight operations (Goldberg & Kotval,

1999). In contrast, the *Visit* measure might provide a broader view of how often a pilot re-

engages with a particular area, with frequent visits suggesting a high level of monitoring

and reassessment of critical information. *Saccades* are rapid eye movements between

fixations (Barfield & Furness, 1995). Frequent and large saccades typically indicate active

scanning behavior, and reduced saccadic activity may suggest a narrowed focus or

cognitive tunneling, where the pilot becomes overly reliant on a single instrument,

potentially leading to the neglect of other critical information (Di Stasi et al., 2013). *Pupil*

diameter measurement is linked to higher cognitive load (Filipowicz et al., 2020) effort

(Joshi et al., 2016), and surprising sensory outcomes (Yokoi & Weiler, 2021).

Eye tracking can help us understand the way aircrew members respond to physiological

effects, it is at once an objective physiological response indicator - as it gives us

information about saccades and pupil diameter - as we can measure the scanning

patterns of the visual stimuli in the surroundings, and a subjective indicator of experience

- as it provides fixation areas that indicate to which areas of interest the subject gave

attention.

When examining visual scanning patterns in pilots using imagery that stimulates the

external visual environment of the cockpit, it was found that efficient scanning across

multiple AOIs, supported by well-timed saccades, is crucial for maintaining situational

awareness and preventing SD (Thomas & Wickens, 2016). Similarly, prolonged fixations

and visits on critical instruments were associated with better situational awareness, as

pilots spent more time interpreting vital information needed to maintain safe flight

operations (Goldberg & Kotval, 1999).

Research conducted in the Korean Air Force examined differences between scanning

patterns across flight instruments between a group where a verbal report was required

and one that wasn't (Kang et al., 2021). That study found that the verbal report group

focused more on areas of interest (AOI) and had higher fixation frequency in the altitude

measure in the Head-Up Display (HUD) in Coriolis, FH, and GS illusions. A Japanese Air

Force study examining eye movements during DT illusions found an automatic downward

motion during the pitch-up motion, a reflexive response meant to stabilize the visual input

(Tamura et al., 2016). When comparing experienced pilots and non-pilot participants in

FH, SGI, and Coriolis illusions, the research found that experienced pilots were as

susceptible to SD as non-pilots (Bałaj et al., 2018). It also found that the pilots had a

shorter fixation on aircraft instruments, except during landing.

Previous studies have focused on a limited range of AOIs and illusions although a broader

range of scenarios is required to perceive a more comprehensive understanding of SD

mechanisms. As Cheung claims, there is a need for improved training that will improve

pilots' physical and mental performance during sensory conflict. Special attention should

be drawn to the properties of various flight displays that may contribute to SD (Bob

Cheung, 2013).

Previous studies have also focused only on one aircrew member population –

experienced pilots, comparing those to navigators and flying cadets can help us create

better learning paradigms to help prevent SD events. A predictive model including

different populations can add a data-driven angle to identify underlying mechanisms.

Therefore, in this study, we aimed to use ET to understand the mechanisms leading to

SD events and to understand what separates those who experience SD events and those

who do not.

Based on the above literature in the current study we aimed to examine the eye-scanning

patterns of aircrew members in scenarios that have the potential to create an SD event

will help us identify the mechanisms underlying their occurrences and create more

targeted training against their effects. The current research is exploratory and aims to

identify significant differences in eye-scanning parameters as they relate to flight

measurements within scenarios with SD events potential. It also analyzes interpersonal

factors such as flight experience and role that can affect eye-scanning parameters. It is

aimed to identify what separates aircrew members who experience the SD effect and

react incorrectly to the illusion versus those who do not identify the desired action to help

avoid SD events.

Methods

Study Design

161 We collected participants as part of their pre-existing training program. The participants

162 were from two groups: flying cadets and experienced pilots. The study was approved by

163 the Ethics Committee of the Israeli Defense Forces based on the ICH-GCP principles.

164 This is an exploratory pilot and was not pre-registered, yet the procedure and sample size

165 were predetermined by the ethics protocol.

Apparatus and measurement

Eye tracking glasses: The Tobii Pro Glasses 2 Live View Wireless 100 were used to

collect data, the parameters extracted from the glasses are elaborated Table 1 – Eye-

tracking and SD trainer parameters in the variables section.

SD trainer: The Gyro-IPT simulator (Environmental Tectonics Corporation, Inc.,

Southampton, US), located at the Israeli Air Force Aeromedical Center was used. This

dynamic motion-based simulator has 3 degrees of freedom (roll ±25°, pitch ±25°, yaw

360°, and Heave =/- 25cm) has a one-channel, non-collimated out-the-window visual

display (120*40 3 windows wide field of view, real image). The flight instruments panel

displayed in the cabin represents typical indicators that are applied in the pilots' aircraft

(Military Institute of Aviation Medicine, Warsaw, Poland et al., 2023).

Figure 1 - SD simulator

(1) Left: the SD simulator from the outside, has a motion ability in 3 axes. (2) Right:
internal view of the SD simulator containing a visual external display and the
cockpit instruments panel.

Procedure

Forty-five participants were recruited. Thirty active aircrew members and fifteen flying

cadets. They were approached when they arrived to train in the SD simulator according

to the Israeli Air Force training regulations. Before the beginning of the training session,

they were presented with the study's aims and the procedure. They were explained the

study would not change the course of the mandatory training they arrived for and would

only add the eye-tracking glasses. Those who agreed to participate signed the consent

form. Then, a briefing session was provided for each participant about the simulator and

the training procedure. The participants were equipped with the Tobii glasses, and a

calibration process was conducted using the internal calibration algorithm of Tobii

Glasses 2. During the calibration process, the participant had to wear the Head Unit while

focusing on the center of the calibration target (Figure 2 - calibration target) located about

one meter from the participant

Figure 2 - calibration target

Then the participants entered the SD trainer and underwent the training procedure, which

contained up to 8 flight profiles:

a. Free flight

b. Dark takeoff (DT) – a takeoff simulation during a dark night. 4 seconds after

201   takeoff the Head-Up Display (HUD) is shut down.

202   c. Somatogyral illusion (SGI) – a prolonged turn during a dark night for 40

203   seconds, followed by a straightening instruction.

204   d. Black hole approach (BHA) – an approach to landing during a dark night

205   with no ground light around the landing strip except for the landing lights.

206   e. Ground-lights and stars (GLS) – during a prolonged turn on a dark night, all

207   the instruments (HUD and regular flight instruments panel) are shut down.

208   The external view consists of starlight and its reflection in the sea.

f. Coriolis – during a prolonged turn an instruction to look backward is played.

g. Graveyard spin (GS) – within a cloudy environment an instruction to enter

a downward spin is given, and after a prolonged spin a straightening

instruction is given.

h. False horizon (FH) – the subject is requested to climb and enter a turn

simultaneously. During the climb, the aircraft enters a heavy cloud area.

While the aircraft exits the cloud line the Artificial Horizon display on the

HUD is shut down. The cloud line is at an angle of 7 degrees compared to

a straight horizon, creating a false horizon. Instructions to straighten are

given.

Participants

Aircrew members (n=30): operational experienced high-performance aircrew members:

pilots and navigators, 30-50 years old (average 37.74±5.46 years 1 SD), with 12-22 years

of experience.

Flying cadets (n=15): pilot cadets and navigator cadets, during the second year of the

flying academy (average 19.84±0.01 years 1 SD). The training profile for cadets included

only 4 out of the 7 illusions (SGI, BHA, GLS, and Coriolis) in the aircrew member training

profile, as elaborated below.

Variables

The demographic parameters: Aircraft type (F-15, F16, or T-6), Aircrew member role

(navigator or pilot), and age were collected and are reported in the results.

Eye-tracking parameters were extracted from the eye-tracking glasses using the Tobii

Pro lab program. Flight parameters were extracted from the Gyro IPT program per flight

profile. The data consisted of the aeromodel parameters (Table 1).

Table 1 – Eye-tracking and SD trainer parameters

Apparatus	Key indicator	Unit
Eye-tracker	The total duration of fixation and visits in AOIs and the total	ms
Eye-tracker	Time to first visit in AOI	ms
Eye-tracker	Number of fixations in AOIs and total.	
Eye-tracker	Number of visits in AOIs and total.	
Eye-tracker	Number of saccades in AOIs and total.	
Eye-tracker	Maximum peak velocity of saccades	(°)/s
Eye-tracker	The average amplitude of saccades	(°)
SD trainer	Altitude	m
SD trainer	Velocity – ground speed, airspeed, North velocity, east velocity	m/s
SD trainer	Heading Position	(°)
SD trainer	Pitch, Roll, and Yaw positions	(°)
SD trainer	Pitch, Roll, and Yaw velocity	(°)/s

Each sortie timeline was marked with TOIs as described in Table 2 (pre-SD window, SD

window, and SD events if occurred). For each illusion SD events and SD windows were

marked based on criteria appearing in Table 3 using the flight measures mentioned above

from the SD trainer produces (altitude, velocity, heading position and pitch, roll and yaw

position, and velocity).

Table 2 - TOI categories

Key indicator	Explanation
Pre SD window	5 seconds before the onset of the illusion (SD event)
SD window	The time when the illusion is active
SD event	The aircrew members reacted as expected from the illusion.

240 *Table 3 - Flight profiles TOI marking*

Illusion	SD window	SD events	Explanation
Dark takeoff (DT)*	4 sec from takeoff, for 20 sec	Altitude <=1000 m Pitch Position <= 0°	A descent when the aircraft is still too low
Somatogyral illusion (SGI)	40 sec from roll start, for 20 sec	Roll Position > 0° and Roll Velocity >= 3 °/s	A motion toward the original roll
Black hole approach (BHA)	No SD window	Y position > 4000m and Altitude < 60 m or a crash	The aircraft lowers below 60 m when its steel is 4 km from the landing strip or a crash.
Ground-light and stars (GLS)	4 sec from the second heading position is 359, for 15 sec	Altitude changes of 152 m, or Speed changes of 26 m/s	Drastic changes in the aircraft's status – 152 m in altitude or 26 m/s in velocity

Coriolis	Head movement (taken manually from recording), for 10 sec	Roll Velocity < -7	A drastic stick movement due to the roll sensation
Graveyard spin (GS)*	No SD window	Roll Position > 0° and Roll Velocity >= 3 °/s	A motion towards the original spin
False horizon (FH)*	Altitude > 2590 m, for 12 sec	Roll position <= -5 and Roll Velocity <=0	A straightening according to the object's slope

241   **Illusions not included in the SD training of cadets*

242   AOIs

243   AOI was marked for each instrument, HUD element, and external aircraft display (Figure

244   3):

External display	Instruments panel	HUD
Middle Up Down Left Right	Altitude Direction Velocity Pitch Ball (Indicates both pitch and roll angles) Engine Fuel Radar Flaps Radio	Center Altitude Direction Velocity

Figure 3 – AOI marked over aircraft's display.

From left to right: (A) The T-6 aircraft does not have a HUD display, the marked AOIs are

the external view and the instruments panel. (B) F-15 aircraft display of the instruments

panel, the HUD, and the external view. (C) F-16 aircraft display of the instruments panel,

HUD, and the external view.

Statistical analyses

The initial analysis of the eye-tracking was performed using the statistical analysis

program of Tobii (Tobii PRO LAB) producing the eye-tracking parameters elaborated in

Table 1 for each TOI and AOI (Figure 4). The parameters were then entered into Python

3.11 to create t-tests. Due to multiple comparisons made between SD and non-SD groups

in the different illusions and AOIs, statistical significance was defined as 0.05 divided by

the number of comparisons – 100, thus being $p < 0.0005$.

Figure 4 - Tobii PRO Lab

The Tobii PRO lab statistical analysis program: (A): video recording from the eye-tracker.

(B): a reference snapshot for the compatible aircraft display. (C): recording timeline with

the following marks (up to down) - relevant event marks, interval, SD time, SD window

and TOI marks, gaze mapping from video to snapshot affinity.

Results

Demographics

Data were collected from cadets and active aircrew members. Within these groups, they

were divided into navigators and pilots. The active aircrew members were further divided

into F-15 and F-16 aircraft (Table 4).

Table 4 - participants demographics

Position	Navigator cadet	Pilot cadet	Navigator	Pilot	Navigator	Pilot
Aircraft	T-6		F-15		F-16	
n	5	10	3	4	10	13
Percentages	11%	22%	7%	9%	22%	29%
Average age	19.5	19.5	38.2	40.4	36.0	38.1
Number of flight profiles	20	42	20	28	81	92
Profiles details	All 5 participants overwent the 4 profiles.	All 10 participants overwent the 4 profiles, 2 performed BHA twice.	2 of the participants overwent the 7 profiles, 1 performed BHA twice, 1 performed DT twice, 1 did only 4 profiles*.	All 4 participants overwent the 7 profiles.	All 10 participants overwent the 7 profiles, 7 performed BHA twice, 4 performed DT twice.	All 13 participants overwent the 7 profiles, 1 performed DT twice.

*Due to an eye-tracker malfunction one navigator only performed 4 profiles (DT, SGI,

GLS, and BHA)

Active aircrew members (n=30, average age = 37.74±5.46) performed all 7 profiles. Some

participants performed BHA and DT twice, and 1 did not complete the entire procedure

(as elaborated above in Table 4), summing to 221 profiles. Flying cadets (n=15) did only

4 of those profiles as elaborated above in Table 3, and 2 pilot cadets performed the BHA

profile twice, summing to 62 profiles. Overall, 283 profiles were taken for analysis. The

flight experiment of the aircrew members was deduced from their age, as they started the

pilot course at 18, the flight experiment of the flying cadets is when undergoing the SD

training is 1.5 years.

Out of the 283 profiles, 136 profiles contained an SD event. The percentages of flight

profiles containing an SD event were calculated per group (Figure 5).

Figure 5 - percentages for SD events by aircraft and position.

The total number of flight profiles for each category is shown at the bottom of each graph

bar. Of them, the percentage of SD events induced out of the total flights is presented.

Eye-scanning patterns

The eye gaze throughout the flight was analyzed to create heatmaps (see Figure 6).

Figure 6 - gaze heat map

Heat map of each cockpit display as calculated in the Tobii pro lab program using the

Tobii I-VT (Fixation) gaze filter, from left to right: T-6, F-15, F-16. Colors closer to red

indicate more fixation in the area throughout all flight profiles.

The heat map showed that T-6 pilots and cadets, visit the instruments more than the

external view, particularly on the ball instrument that indicates the roll and pitch degree,

while F-15 and F-16 pilots visit the HUD more. The percentage of the intervals spent

fixating on the different AOI categories is brought in Table 5:

Table 5 - fixation time to AOIs

	Instruments	HUD	Outside view
Nav	3.92%	28.26%	36.77%
Pilot	11.63%	25.20%	34.53%
Nav Cadet	38.87%	0	9.24%
Pilot Cadet	40.14%	0	10.40%

SD window analyses:

When examining differences in eye scanning patterns in GLS illusion among active pilots

(11 SD cases out of 17 sorties) we found that there was a higher average duration of

fixation to the altitude measure among those who didn't experience SD (p=7.84E-05).

Across all participants (21 SD cases out of 45 sorties) it was found that those who

experienced SD fixated and visited less the instruments AOIs, as they had less fixations

and visits (respectively) on the ball (p=5.20E-05, 8.83E-06) and to the direction measure

(p=1.13E-4, 2.66E-05), and a lower total duration of fixations and visits (respectively) to

the ball (p=6.77E-05, 6.33E-05) and the direction (p=2.83E-4, 2.88E-4).

Across all participants in the SGI illusion (14 SD cases out of 45 sorties), preceding the

SD window the group not experiencing SD had higher total duration visits on HUD

(p=2.45E-4).

When splitting the illusions into two groups: visual illusions (DT, GLS, and FH) and

vestibular illusions (SGI and Coriolis), and using both the pre-SD-window and the SD-

window combined, three effects were shown for the number of visits measurement

(Figure 7).

First, In the visual illusions, the HUD measurement was higher for the SD group (p=4.25E-

5). Second the instruments' measurement was lower (p=2.19E-5) and finally in the

vestibular illusions, the HUD measurement was higher for the instruments' measurement

(p=6.46E-5)

330   *Figure 7 - a summation of illusion categories*

333 Discussion

In this study, we investigated eye-tracking patterns during exposure to common illusions

that cause spatial disorientation (SD) during flight. We aimed to identify which eye-

tracking patterns can be related to SD avoidance.

Among 284 flight profiles performed by 30 active aircrew members and 15 flying cadets,

136 SD events were identified across 7 flight profiles (Dark Takeoff, Somatogyral illusion,

Black-Hole approach, Ground-lights and Stars, Coriolis, Graveyard Spin, and False

Horizon). Dark takeoff and Somatogyral illusion were affected only and mainly

(respectively) in navigators. False Horizon and Coriolis illusions had a higher effect on F-

15 aircrew than F-16, and Ground-lights and Stars affected only active aircrew members

as opposed to cadets. Visual illusions had a higher probability of causing SD events within

participants who examined the instruments' panel measurements (altitude, pitch, and ball)

in greater frequencies than the HUD. In contrast, vestibular illusions showed the opposite

effect.

The study shows that no population avoided SD events completely, as they affected

cadets and active pilots, and some illusions even affected active pilots to a greater degree

than cadets. This result is similar to Bałaj's research showing that SD cues affected pilots

and nonpilots similarly (Bałaj et al., 2018).

In a previous study performed on transportation pilots, HUD usage increased in critical

flight stages, particularly in difficult weather conditions when there was an increase in the

amount of time the pilot spends looking out of the front window (Dill & Young, 2015). While

the transportation pilots in that study used the HUD only 4% of the overall time, combat

pilots in the current research engaged heavily on the HUD, around 90% of the overall

time. This might be due to the need for high surrounding awareness as they must

constantly assess external threats thus requiring a dynamic use of external visual

information (Zhang et al., 2014), (Martins, 2016). This effect might have occured because

the HUD allowed them to maintain visual contact with the external environment while

monitoring critical flight data (Cummings et al., 2016), (Johnson et al., 2006).

Previous research identified efficient oculomotor strategies to minimize repetitive

saccades to already analyzed or irrelevant stimuli and aligning attention with the task

requirements. (Shapiro & Raymond, 1989). Our results across the two types of illusions

presented to the aircrew members – visual vs. vestibular, it could be deduced that the

HUD is irrelevant in visual illusions and those who visited it numerous times for longer

durations and with larger pupil diameter succeeded less in the event of instruments shut

down (GLS). Furthermore, higher perceptual efficiency was classified with more and

shorter dwells at relevant AOI (Lounis et al., 2021). This finding is similar to our findings.

In BHA it was found that more saccades and shorter duration of visits in the HUD, and in

FH more and shorter visits, are linked to people who experienced SD, hence the HUD

cannot be considered as beneficial to a better perception in those visual illusions.

In the vestibular illusions (SGI and Coriolis) an increased time spent examining the HUD

and a decreased time examining the instruments panel was related to better performance

and SD avoidance. This finding is supported by Yang's comparison of how experts' and

novices' scanning patterns change between easy and difficult routes (Yang et al., 2013).

For the easy routes, experts spent less time scanning out the window (OTW) and had

shorter OTW dwellings. In contrast, for the difficult routes, experts appeared to slow down

their scan by spending as much time scanning out the window as the novices while also

having fewer Map fixations and shorter OTW dwellings.

The focus specifically directed to the HUD rather than generally examining the OTW is

supported by another study that found that experienced pilots have better SA

performance and pay more attention to the HUD, but focus less outside the cockpit when

compared with novice pilots (Yu et al., 2016). Another supporting finding to the increased

need for HUD scanning during vestibular illusions comes from research where Coriolis

was found to elevate the use of the HUD compared to other illusions and yielded a higher

attentional load score (Kim et al., 2021).

Applications

Repeated spatial training using a simulated environment is beneficial to reduce spatial

disorientation, as was shown by a study conducted on neurologic patients (Kober et al.,

2013), as well as in pilots (Landman et al., 2018), (Qiu et al., 2023).

It was found that training eye movements based on knowledge acquired about which eye

movement type was the most efficient for a specific task can improve performance in said

task (Shapiro & Raymond, 1989). Thus, implementing the knowledge and training based

on the current results can improve performance in flight profiles with high SD risk.

Another application of the learned differences between eye-scanning patterns leading to

SD and avoiding them is a real-time alert system installed on aircraft during real flights,

helping eliminate the fatal results of SD events (Peysakhovich et al., 2018).

398 Limitations

399 Although the procedure and sample size were pre-determined in the ethics protocols, the

400 study was exploratory and not pre-registered, leading to multiple comparisons which

401 weakened the significance of the results. Using the knowledge gained in this study

402 research can create a more accurate procedure to create stronger effects and means to

403 address them.

404 Conclusions

This study highlighted the role of targeted eye-scanning behaviors in mitigating SD,

revealing that dynamic, broad scanning across instruments may reduce SD experience

in various flight illusions. It found that flight profiles involving limited visual cues and thus

a potential for visual illusions required higher attention to the HUD, while those with

prolonged turns, thus a higher potential to vestibular illusions required greater attention

to the instruments panel. It also found that SD risk remains throughout all experience

levels. Training that involves lessons from the study regarding the importance of different

instruments in different flight situations could improve SD resilience. Further research

should broaden the findings beyond the scope of combat pilots only. In addition,

examining whether training using the knowledge accumulated in the study could

potentially improve SD resilience.

Key points

• **SD Events**: 136 SD events across 7 flight profiles; specific effects varied by role
and aircraft type.
• **Illusions and Eye-Scanning**: Visual illusions (DT, GLS, FH): Frequent HUD focus
increased SD risk. Vestibular illusions (SGI, Coriolis): Increased HUD use
improved performance.
• **HUD Usage**: Combat pilots rely heavily on HUD (90% usage). HUD is effective
during vestibular illusions but less so during visual illusions.
• **Experience and SD**: Experience does not prevent SD; active pilots can be as
affected as cadets.
• **Applications**: Simulated training and efficient eye-scanning strategies can reduce
SD. Real-time alert systems may help mitigate SD during flights.
• **Conclusion**: Training focused on tailored eye-scanning and instrument use can
enhance SD resilience.

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