1984 Proceedings

University Aviation Association
Fall Educational Conference

October 1984
Edited by
James M. Daley

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The professional development of the University Aviation Association members continues with the publication of the 1984 Proceedings. The breadth of interests and the quality of effort demonstrates the dedication of the Association to the advancement of Collegiate Aviation.

This volume could not have been prepared without the cooperation and assistance of the officers and members of the Wichita State University community.

Particular thanks is due to Professors Bill Beckwith and Rita Miller of Georgia State Universy, Mike Schukert of Ohio State University and Bill Geibel for the University of Illinois for their outstanding work in evaluating the fine research papers submitted for consideration. Such efforts are required to continue the professional development of the University Aviation Association membership. From the Wichita State University community, Dr. Frederic Kraft, Chairman of the Department of Marketing and Small Business, and Mr. Blair Sullivan, Graduate Research Assistant, offered enumerable financial or technical assistance to the completion of the project. To all who assisted, thank-you.

September 1984
Wichita, Kansas

James M. Daley
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in the Modal Selection of Air Cargo Transportation

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June 1, 1984

Submitted to:
University Aviation Association
1984 Fall Conference
Aviation Management Track
June 5, 1884

Abstract

The process which industrial shippers use regarding freight modal choice is better understood when analyzed within the marketing models of organizational buyer behavior. These models take their origin from the behavioral aspects of consumer buyer behavior and attitude-attribute theory which allows researchers to measure consumer perceptions, predict preferences and then infer choice.

Perceptions about freight modal alternatives and the relative importance of cost, service, shipment characteristics, and distribution pattern attributes were ascertained via a self-administered mail survey conducted in 1982. Using comparisons between mean response scores and multidemensional scaling techniques, respondent perceptions were measured and analyzed.

The air cargo mode was isolated for specific study. The results indicate that air cargo is perceived as a unique transportation alternative providing a means for shippers to meet their customer's special requirements at a premium freight rate. Industrial class shippers, in general, seek low cost dependable transportation methods for the shipment of low value per unit weight bulk commodities, and do not value short transit time as relatively important. However, when the customer dictates and the shipment allows, the air cargo mode is the ideal method of transportation.

An Assesment of Industrial Shipper's Perceptions in the Modal Selection of Air Cargo Transportation

Today's transportation infrastructure provides a variety of choice alternatives from which industrial firms must choose for the movement of freight between facilities and markets. Bowersox (1978) describes transportation as a means to provide logistical system geographical closure, a necessary link in the industrial economic system. If an industrial firm seeks to exist and remain viable, transportation choice decisions are made; the process cannot be avoided, ignored or denied.

Shippers meet their physical distribution needs for the movement of domestic intercity freight using one or more of the five major modes of commercial freight transportation; railroad, motor carrier, air cargo, water (barge) and pipeline. Traditionally within the air cargo industry the use of air transportation is generally explained through the use of terms such as, "nature of the cargo." Cargo descriptions such as high value per unit weight, perishability, high technology and delicate or fragile product are often used to target markets for air cargo. Service descriptions such as improved customer service levels, speed of product delivery and increased utility are said to result from the use of the air mode. Emery (1983) recognizes the need for a marketing approach to air cargo describing the need for predictable, reliable and dependable service. From earlier research, Jackson and Brackenridge (1971) draw together a listing of some fifteen product/market attributes for air cargo to better explain the nature of commodity movements by air.

Understanding modal choice is vastly more complex than generating listings of revealed modal, product and/or market attributes. Street (1983) emphasizes the changing role of the corporate traffic manager and the need for a more sophisticated process of modal and carrier choice. Cunningham (1982) summarizes freight modal choice analysis techniques into four major categories of which the behavioral approach is the only which offers any comprehensive insight into modal choice. Therefore, in order to expand the understanding of modal choice in relation to the air cargo mode it is the purpose of this paper to draw upon the behavioral aspects of marketing research to 1) determine the salient modal attributes and 2) to assess the attitudes and perceptions of shippers towards air cargo in relation to other competing modes of freight transportation.

The conceptual framework used for this study assumes the process of modal selection to be similar to that suggested by the comprehensive consumer buyer behavior model developed by Engel, Blackwell and Kollat (1978), extended for organizational buyer behavior by Sheth (1973) and Webster and Wind (1974) and adapted to modal choice by Craig (1973), Krapfel and Mentzer (1982), Saleh and LaLonde (1972), Slater (1982) and Stock and LaLonde (1977, 1978). Understanding this process requires the collection and analysis of data concerning the factors shippers consider in modal evaluation, the relative importance of these factors in the selection process, and the perception of shippers with regard to how much of each factor is offered by each modal alternative. This framework is also quite compatible with the concept of trade-offs as described in the physical distribution literature.

Method

Subjects

The subjects for this study were selected from a 1982 survey directed towards a national sample of industrial shippers (users) to acquire perceptual data regarding modal choice. Data were derived from a 274 item self-administered single-wave mail survey. The survey elements were identified as industrial shipper/users of the United States inland waterway system. Segmenting waterway users allowed the gathering of data from multimodal shippers which includes use of each major mode of industrial freight transportation. A total of 407 firms were selected on the basis of their ownership of inland river terminal facilities as listed in the Inland River Guide and River Terminals - Ohio River and Tributaries directories. The survey elements were then cross-referenced with the Official Directory of Industrial and Commercial Traffic Executives to more specifically target the appropriate company official receiving the questionnaire, i.e., traffic manager, manager of physical distribution, etc. As a matter of policy the highest ranking transportation official was chosen to receive the questionnaire in any given instance. Of the 407 questionnaires mailed a usable response rate of 30.45% ($\underline{n}$ = 113) was achieved. The usable responses comprise a significant sample and should provide a reasonably accurate representation of the actual population ($\underline{N}$ = 371).

Procedure

Product choice behavior, whether involving consumer goods, industrial products or services, such as modes of transportation are generally believed to be best described in terms of salient attributes. Freight transportation modes are often described in terms of quantitative attributes such as freight rates, transit time, etc., and qualitative attributes such as dependability, reliability, consistency of service, etc. Previous research conducted by Gilmour (1976), Krapfel and Mentzer (1982), Mallen and Pernotte (1972), McGinnis (1979), Slater (1982), and Stock and LaLonde (1977) have identified and outlined the generally accepted salient transportation attributes used in describing modal alternatives.

Although a collection of standard attributes are consistently used as descriptors of alternative transportation modes the relative importance of each attribute differs depending upon situational variables and individual perceptions. For example, with regard to choice of mode versus choice of carrier within one mode, Mallen and Pernotte (1972) found that cost (freight rate) becomes a recessive attribute in carrier selection and customer service becomes dominant. This emphasis shift results from the generally greater reduction of price competition between carriers than between modes.

Models of modal choice highlight the fact that the transportation decision process is built upon individuals' attitudes and perceptions of information polarized or constrained by internal factors such as management preferences, the product and external factors such as customer specifications, equipment availability and modal presence. Thus "transportation specifications" are established creating boundary conditions within which modal choice decisions are made based upon perceptions of transportation attribute profiles.

Given the attribute profile of the various transportation modes, to predict and/or explain preference, the relative importance of each of the attributes must be determined. An attitudinal approach was used seeking importance measurements directly from survey respondents, as suggested by Wallace and Sherret (1973).

The importance of factors (attributes) shippers use in their evaluation of alternative modes, as well as shipper perceptions of each mode for each factor, influences preferences for alternatives and therefore choice. Factors were identified from an extensive literature review and a pre-test applied to industrial shippers. Importance ratings were obtained form respondents for each of eighteen factors using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 being very unimportant and 5 being very important. Perceptions of the amount of each important factor offered by each modal alternative is a major determinant of choice behavior. These perceptions were also evaluated by the respondents using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being definitely does not offer and 5 being definitely does offer. Mean response scores were calculated for the factors.

The multidimensional scaling (MDS) approach was taken to depict a spatial configuration of respondent perceptions. Data were analyzed using the MDPREF algorithm to develop the perceptual map for shippers as proposed by Carrol and Chang (1970).

Results

The initial research design which targeted users of inland waterways provided data from respondents which are truly multimodal in nature. The reported average transportation mix reflects the recent national domestic intercity freight modal mix with the exception of pipeline which is lower than average. Table 1 shows the average transportation mix used by respondent industrial shippers for inbound, outbound and total movements. Air cargo makes up approximately 0.90% of the shipper's volume compared with a national average of 0.22% in 1982.

Table 1
Industrial Shippers-Transportation Meth Mix
Used to Meet Physical Distribution Needs

Type of Transport	Volume (%) Inbound	Outbound	Total
Motor Vehicles	39.3	46.7	37.4
Railroad	32.3	31.0	33.8
Domestic Barge	21.3	18.9	23.8
Pipeline	2.5	1.5	2.2
Deep Draft Vessel	3.7	1.3	1.9
Air Cargo	0.9	0.6	0.9
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

As a result it can be generally assumed that the respondents were familiar with the physical and operating characteristics of all modes of domestic freight transportation and the respondent mix generally reflects the actual mix occurring in practice.

Shippers were asked to indicate the importance of factors (transportation attributes) used in the evaluation of alternative modes. The most important factors as described by industrial shippers shown in Table 2, include; satisfies customer's requirements, has equipment

Table 2
Shippers' Perceptions
Importance of Factors in selecting a Transportation Method

	Factors	Mean Response Score	Standard Deviati
1.	Satisfies customers' requirements	4.69	0.58
2.	Has equipment available	4.54	0.80
3.	Has low freight charges	4.53	0.63
4.	Provides dependable transit time	4.49	0.74
5.	Provides consistency in service	4.43	0.72
6.	Allows for large shipments	4.16	0.92
7.	Has loading and unloading facilities	4.15	1.29
8.	Satisfies suppliers' requirements	4.07	1.06
9.	Provides a low frequency of cargo loss or damage	4.07	0.96
10.	Offers flexibility in meeting special customers' needs	3.98	0.93
11.	Provides on time pick up and delivery	3.96	1.15
12.	Has employees with positive attitudes and good manners	3.95	1.00
13.	Provides information concerning shipment	3.79	1.02
14.	Has short transit time	3.66	1.18
15.	Offers convenient pick up and delivery times	3.64	1.18
16.	Offers assistance in claims handling	3.57	1.20
17.	Can carry large and/or odd sized freight	2.97	1.40
18.	Offers promotional/entertainment	1.39	0.86

available, has low freight charges, provides dependable transit time, provides consistency in service and allows for large shipments. Other factors were considered important, however, the degree of importance and the large standard deviations indicate considerable variation in the importance of these factors across respondents.

To gain an understanding of modal perceptions and the amount of each important factor offered by each mode, a perceptual map was produced and is shown in Figure 1. With the MDS approach each factor is

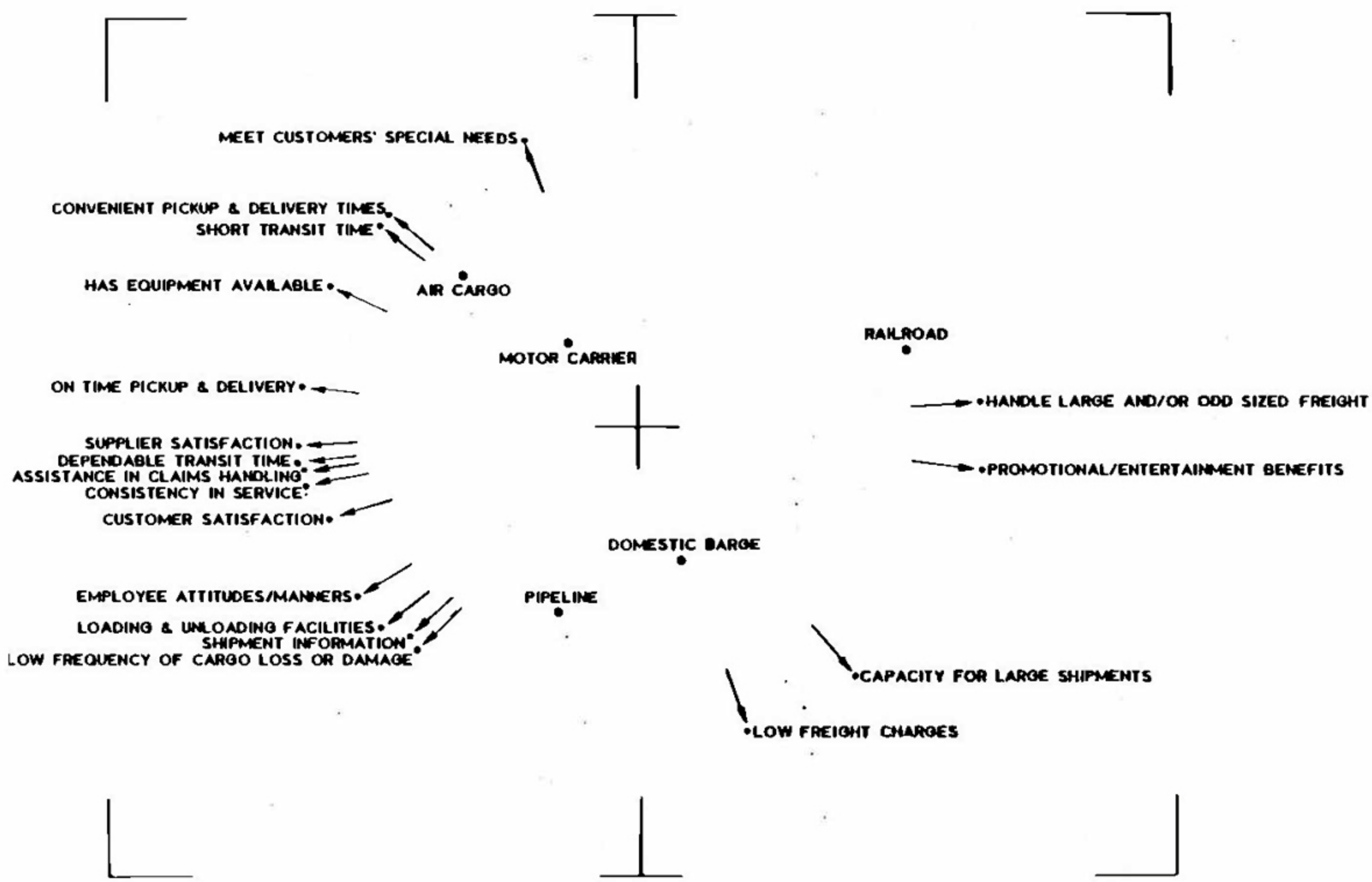

FIGURE 1

MODAL PERCEPTUAL MAP OF INDUSTRIAL SHIPPERS (USERS)

represented by a vector passing through the origin of the two-dimensional space, with the modal alternatives represented as points in the same space. To determine how much of a factor a mode is perceived to offer, draw the vector for the factor through the origin, then draw a line perpendicular to this vector from the mode's position in the space. The relative position of the factor vector represents the relative perception of how much of the factor is offered by the mode. The closer to the head (arrowhead) of the factor vector the more the mode is perceived to offer.

For example, the vector for low freight charges, (see Figure 1) shippers perceive air cargo to have significantly higher freight charges than any other mode. Motor carrier is perceived as having the next highest freight charges followed by railroad, barge and the lowest pipeline. Not only is the ranking relevant, but the distance along the vector provides a measure of similarity. The air cargo mode is perceived as a unique transportation method having distinctly higher freight charges than for example, both pipeline and barge which are perceived together as quite similar.

The respondent profile indicates an average of 15.8 years of seniority with their company having some 18.7 years of transportation experience with 2.2 different companies. While only 16.2% of the respondents had degrees in transportation, 78% had at least a Bachelor's degree of which 31.1% were in business and 14.1% in liberal arts. Most of the respondents were with large firms, 60.8% employed 1,000 or more, 66.7% had annual gross revenues in excess of $100 million and 58.7% exceeded $100 million in total assets. Although shippers were concentrated in the agricultural services, food and kindred products, chemicals, petroleum and coal products and utility sectors, users were spread across all varieties of industry.

Discussion

Using general models of transportation choice as a research framework, buying center members' perceptions become primary to the choice process. Assessing industrial shippers' perceptions via techniques such as multidimensional scaling enables shippers to reevaluate their decision process to insure congruency with corporate goals and objectives and carriers to adjust services and marketing strategy to better meet users needs.

The research indicates that industrial shippers have distinct attitudes on the importance of transportation attributes. Although relatively speaking, the attribute, has low freight charges is an important factor considered in selecting a transportation method, on average shippers place more importance on nontransportation costs through their service requirements needs than transportation costs as reflected by low freight charges. The significance of the mean response scores listed in Table 2 is that for this class of shippers, meeting their customer's transportation requirements is the most important criteria in the selection of a transport mode. Hagan (1983) cites how one carrier, Flying Tigers, has altered its service mix from airport to airport to door-to-door to assist shippers in meeting customer's requirements. In general industrial shippers are not overly concerned about short transit time. Their primary shipments involve the movement of low value per unit weight bulk commodities. Low cost dependable consistent service is the key to this class of shipper. Short transit time ranks 14th out of 18 criteria for the typical freight modal choice decision. However, at any time if customer requirements dictate the use of air cargo that mode would be chosen for nonroutine shipments.

The shippers' perceptual map (Figure 1) provides intereating insight into the modal selection process and how users view alternative modes. The air cargo mode is perceived as a distinctive transportation method, quite dissimilar from other modes. Of particular significance is the relatively large distance between air cargo and motor carrier and more so between air cargo and railroad, barge, and pipeline. The large distance indicates that a very large change in the respective attributes would be required before the respondent(s) would consider the other modes to be similar, therefore, a close substitute. The mode most aligned with air cargo which could be considered as the primary substitute for domestic shipments is motor carrier. Alterman (1984) finds that as a result of recent deregulation within the air cargo and motor carrier industries, traditional air cargo companies have expanded their service to include both motor carrier operations and nationwide surface freight forwarding. Air cargo companies now acting as "full-service" carriers have expanded capabilities consistent with this research in an attempt to capture additional commodity shipments that complement the air cargo mode.

The air cargo mode is perceived as a means to meet special customer needs offering short transit time, convenient and on time pickup and delivery schedules, and is always available. The trade-off is that this bundle of attributes is provided at a premium freight rate. The mode is also perceived as being inflexible with provisions for large and/or odd sized freight and shipments. Air cargo although in general does not meet the requirements of the bulk industrial shipper for the majority of freight types and shipments does provide the ideal mode for certain priority movements.

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AN OVERVIEW OF LITERATURE ON HUMAN FACTORS AND PART-TASK TRAINING WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR VISUAL SIMULATION IN PRIMARY FLIGHT TRAINING

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ABSTRACT

Research issues are identified through the application of a conceptual model of human factors interactions in pilot performance. The application of part-task training concepts and methodology shows that simulation has a great potential to address pilot training research design issues. This and new technologies indicate that the best medium for the cost effective application of part-task training methodology would be a computer generated video graphics display. The U.S. college and university aviation programs have all the ingredients on hand to develop this training device and the best minds with which to do it. Appendices hold collections of references for those interested in these subjects.

1. Introduction:

Great progress in reducing general aviation accidents has been made. These accomplishments are hampered by the fact that the percentage of continuing accidents attributed to pilot error remains at nearly 80%.[1] During the past decade the FAA has undertaken a broad systems approach to study the factors affecting pilot performance. This has led to an embracing of the body of human factors knowledge and the use of a human factors approach to research.[2]

There is a large body of human factors knowledge and research concerning the concept of part-task training. Part-task training involves the practice of some subsets of components of a whole task prior to practice or performance of that whole task.[3] Flight simulation and particularly visual flight simulation shows new promise for enhanced effectiveness using part-task principles.[4]

Major technological advances have greatly reduced the cost of hi-fidelity color video motion recording and playing equipment. Computer generated video systems capable of simulating out-of-cockpit views in flight are presently available even at the personal computer market level.[5] The FAA has waived some of the minimum flight time requirements for specifically approved college level general aviation training programs. This and the high cost of flight training in aircraft has opened the door to innovation in cost effective alternatives that reduce flight time needed to achieve performance standards. Visual simulation appears ripe for innovation.

This work initially presents an overview of recent work that has identified a systematic framework for research into human factors affecting pilot performance A compilation of pertinent references from literature reviews and papers on this subject for general aviation is presented in appendix A. The appendix is for the convenience of those interested in human factors knowledge as it is applied to general aviation . Next an overview of part-task training theory and methodology is presented. Then there is a review of current aviation research on part-task training of pilots with flight simulators that have visual systems. A compilation of pertinent references on part-task training applicable to aviation is presented in appendix B.

Finally the potential for visual simulation to improve pilot performance in primary flight training is discussed. The present use of visual simulation systems in primary flight training is reviewed in the light of a human factors approach. Part-task training methodology applications are hypothesized and recommendations for further research are made.

2. Human Factors Problems In Pilot Performance

The all encompassing "pilot error" cause for accidents may satisfy legal demands but it does little to advance understanding of cause. This simplistic description of pilot performance problems is a poor guide to the prevention of similar accidents. Better schemes employed to classify factors thought to affect pilot behavior are of three general types. "Operational Tasks Executed Incorrectl includes failure to see and avoid aircraft, failure to maintain or the misjudgement of distance, altitude or speed; mismanagement of fuel, and failure to extend landing gear. "Psychological Failures Associated With Procedural, Perceptual-Motor, and Decisional Errors" include workload problems, fatigue, stress, attentio and decision-making. The third scheme is based on "Factors Associated With The Conditions Surrounding The Occurrence" such as phase of flight, type of mission, time of day, geographic location, weather conditions, total pilot flight time, and pilot certificates held.

These schemes help identify existing pilot performance problems but provide no direct guidance toward actions to be taken to prevent the problems. Descriptions of what happened must be followed by an understanding of why an error occur to identify preventative or corrective actions. A research structure based on th concepts of the human factors discipline provides an effective means of developin corrective actions. One model[8] attributes pilot performance problems to incongruities between the level of demands imposed by pilot tasks and the pilot's ability or motivation to perform them. Solutions to these problems require modification of task demands and/or pilot capabilities to eliminate physical, psychological, and physiological incongruities. Incongruities must be identified and one or more elements of an incongruity must be susceptible to change.

A design oriented approach using the body of knowledge of human factors affecting pilot performance has yielded a complex system model. In this model, developed for the FAA by Shelnutt, Childs, Prophet and Spears,[7] three major components interact to produce pilot task demands. Three other major components interact to produce pilot capabilities. The task demands and pilot capabilities interact to produce either effective pilot performance or pilot performance problems. Figure 1. illustrates the model and shows design elements resulting from major design decisions that are associated with each model component.

Shelnutt et al analyzed a broad spectrum of information concerning pilot performance problems and associated human factors design issues using their model. Human factors design issues were formulated from inadequate information about system interrelationships and the effects of design alternatives on pilot performance. Thirty-five design issues were identified as requiring research to generate needed data required to support system design decisions. Figure 2 lists the design issues and shows their relationship to the design elements affecting the model components. Research into the use of part-task training and its enhancement of visual simulation effectiveness provides data for design issues number 23 through 27 and 32 in Figure 2. This data probably contributes to all issues and elements of the training and proficiency assessment component of the system model in Figure 1. Some or all of the issues formulated for components affecting pilot capability will also be enlightened by part-task training research. Appendix A is a compilation of references pertinent to a systematic, human factors, approach to evaluating pilot performance problems.

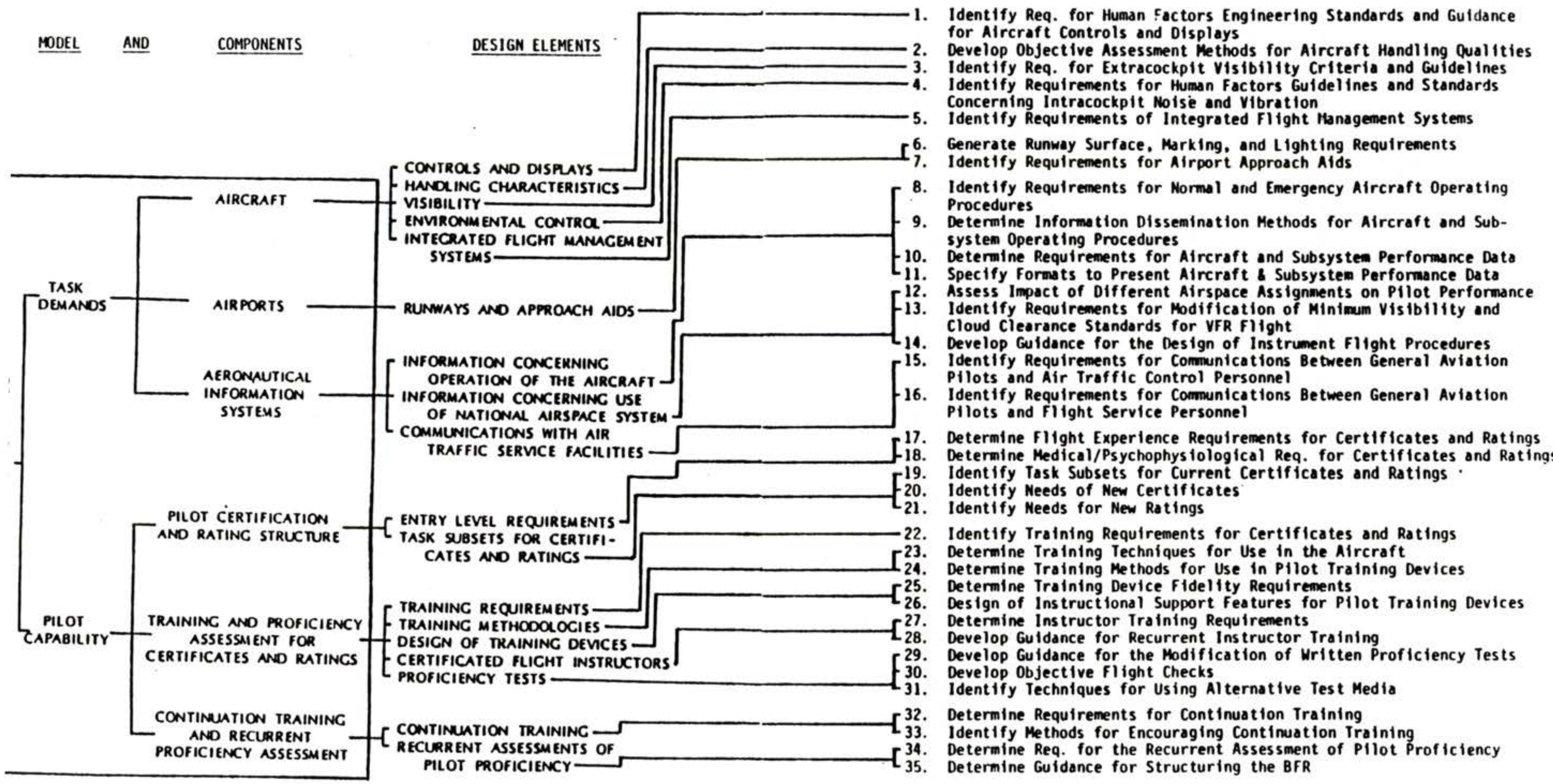

FIGURE 1. -- STRUCTURE FOR ADDRESSING HUMAN FACTORS DESIGN ISSUES.

FIG. 2 HUMAN FACTORS DESIGN ISSUES

3. Part-Task Training Theory

Part-task training is practice on some set of components of a whole task before practice or performance of the whole task. Three general types of part-task manipulation schemes are identified in psychological literature.[9] Simplification makes tasks easier by adjusting one or more characteristic of the task such as the turbulence level adjustments on flight simulators. Fractionation provides independent practice of subtasks that are executed simultaneously for the whole task such as pitch and roll control. Segmentation partitions a whole task either spatially or temporally such as takeoff, climb, cruise, descent, landing.

The schedule used to reintegrate the parts is a crucial variable. Of the three schedules identified for fractionation[10] and segmentation, pure-part training employs isolated practice of parts before whole task practice. In repetitive-part training one part is practiced, a second part is added and both are practiced together before another part is added. Progressive-part training uses isolated practice of new parts before they are added in repetitive fashion to parts that have been practiced. With simplification the number and size of step increases in difficulty could be varied.

Learning has been described as problem solving[11] wherein knowledge of results is information about error that communicates the level of success at the problem solving task. Such information is actively processed generating hypothesis about how to improve performance. Any simplification condition that provides trainees with unambiguous error information should evoke early correct performance.

Current analysis of the process by which people approach learning tracking tasks indicates that it has three stages.[12] First the trainee learns the proper direction of control movements to correct error conditions. Second, the trainee develops facility with timing of error correction response by learning to detect conditions which demand corrective input. Finally the trainee learns the proper magnitude of control movement for any given error condition. Improved early performance should result from simplification matching of the nature of error information to the trainee needs at each stage of learning.

Segmentation practice on critical elements of a perceptual-motor task requiring performance over time or space can lead to early proficiency. This provides a larger amount of practice on the part of the task producing the strongest error information when the trainee needs it most.

4. Part-Task Training Research

Flying tasks can be described as continuous, perceptual-motor tasks characterized by complex multidimensional tracking. The search for new training techniques should follow suggestions from learning principles developed from research on perceptual-motor and tracking learning. However the organization, directions, and nature of motor behaviors studied in psychology laboratories have shortcomings in the application to complex training tasks.[13] The principles need to be tested in a more systematic fashion on more complex and realistic tasks.

Performance differences during training do not imply similar differential learning in relation to the criterion or whole task. Applications research must be designed to evaluate the transfer-of-training (TOT) to substantiate the effectiveness of any specific technique. Appropriate TOT design must have multiple groups with at least one control group that is trained and tested entirely on the whole task. Each group should be trained for equivalent predetermined periods in only one condition prior to criterion testing. A balanced schedule of training periods employed in incremental transfer design[15] is acceptable and can provide supplemental information.

Proper TOT design allows comparison of the transfer effects of prior experience of a specific type on performance of the criterion task. Differential transfer estimates of the relative effects of equal amounts of experience with experimental and control conditions is also possible. Transfer theory and formulae[16] show that transfer can be positive or negative but not greater than 100%. Differential transfer can be greater than 100%. This would indicate that training with the experimental condition is more efficient than the control condition for future performance in the criterion task. A positive differential transfer value below 100% indicates that the experimental condition is less efficient but does teach skills useful in the criterion task. Cost effective application of this experimental training technique could result if it was sufficiently less expensive than training in the control condition.

Besides early proficiency, an effective training strategy must facilitate maximum transfer by meeting three general conditions.[17] First, any changes in response requirements resulting from the training technique must have perceptible changes in stimuli. Second, supplemental feedback should be provided when a task is low in intrinsic feedback. Third, to insure unambiguous error information, trainees should have a clear understanding of any differences between training and transfer tasks.

Wightman and Lintern[18] have recently reviewed the literature and research in valid part-task training applicable to flight simulation. Most of the recent flight simulator work has been done by the Air Force, Navy, and the FAA. Most military work was done on advanced flight tasks such as carrier landings, dive bombing, and night flight in multi engine jet simulators. Most of the research involved the use of visual simulation systems added to an instrument cockpit simulator.

Recent fractionation research, some using visual flight simulation, has uncovered a strong interaction between task complexity and task organization. For tasks with high component complexity and high component interdependence, Fractional progressive part-task training has been less effective than whole task training.[19] Apparently the early proficiency in separate part practice does not transfer well to whole task performance. Since flight control tasks fit the character of these experiments, fractionation may not produce effective primary flight training.

However, fractional progressive part training for high component complexity and low component interaction has showed positive differential transfer greater than 100%. This means the technique was found to be totally superior to whole task training. Other research in similar complex tracking task training has shown high positive differential transfer below 100%.

Fractionation by visual pretraining for teaching landings in an aircraft simulator with a visual display was tested. Passive-preprogrammed landings were viewed by the experimental group before simulator practice with no resultant improvement in their performance.[20] However, the long history of attempts to pretrain perceptual skill (perceptual pre-differentiation) indicate that positive transfer is very possible. Subjects need to actively seek distinguishing perceptual cues or make some decision about the visual stimuli during pretraining. This was not done in the reported study.

Simplification is most effective for tracking tasks that are so difficult that learning is slowed since very little meaningful practice is achieved. Practice at easier tasks extends skills so the criterion task is no longer beyond trainee capability. Practice on easy tasks may establish a high performance standard as a goal that motivates the trainee after transfer to a more difficult task. Manipulations of rotation speed and control-display lag have shown differential transfer values from medium to high difficulty tasks of greater than 100%. Manipulations of system order, gain, lag, forcing function, stability and damping ratio were found to generally not enhance training efficiency in flight tasks. Some general research that indicates the unlikely possibility of greater transfer from difficult-to-easier tasks[18] have found possible correlation in present research.

The concept of augmented feedback is not strictly a simplification or even a part-task training technique. However, simulator studies have shown[21] that it can speed acquisition if trainees are not permitted to develop dependencies on the supplementary cuing. An adaptive withdrawal technique to avoid such dependencies is suggested. Recent visual simulation experiments[22] in a difficult ground reference maneuver task showed a strong effect of adaptive visual cuing. Differential transfer for augmented feedback training was positive and greater than 100%.

With segmentation, difficult parts of a spatial or temporal task can be practiced intensively without spending time on easier or proficient parts. In three out of four recent experiments in segmented part task training of landing type maneuvers[18] positive differential transfer was greater than 100%. Visual simulations of dive bombing and carrier landings used a segmentation reintegration technique called backward chaining where the terminal segment was practiced first. Both pure-part and progressive-part reintegration (backwards) were successful. Only an experiment testing ground position freeze for enhancing carrier visual approach glidescope control produced less than 100% positive differential transfer. This is unexpected as mere isolation of a critical element for extended practice does not appear to be a strong technique. Even when the control group had more total training time, backward chaining produced superior results.

Wightman and Lintern[18] discuss several concepts from perceptual-motor learning literature as hypotheses for the unusual success of backward chaining. In terminal tasks, such as landing an airplane, earlier segments may not be learned quickly because they are separated from the strong feedback of the final result. Activity between an action and the participant's knowledge of results (KR) of that action interferes with the progress of learning. Perhaps the association between the action and errors is obscured. In a backward progression, later task segments, once learned well, become the source of information feedback for earlier segments. Also, the post KR period apparently permits trainees to relate error information to earlier actions. Other activity such as prompt repetition of earlier task segments may interfere with this process. Prompt repetition of the same segment could enhance action-error correlation.

Also, in backward chaining, trainees do not have to cope with the ambiguities resulting from errors accumulated in prior segments. This follows the consistency in stimulus-response relationships concept. Trainees may learn more quickly simply because they experience a correct (errorless) performance more frequently than the whole task control group. Perhaps this results in learning to recognize the correct behavior more quickly.

The effects of individual subject differences has been a source of concern when creating and testing instructional treatments based on task manipulation. Measures of subject aptitude or abilities on the skills in question should contribute to the validity and knowledge gained in experiments. This question was addressed in one carrier-landing experiment previously discussed.[18] A previously established valuable measure of motor skill for research on human perceptual-motor tasks was used to calibrate the subject differences. This allowed tracking of high vs low motor skill subjects throughout the experiment. The results showed that high motor skill subjects performed best in all cases. However lag manipulations hurt low ability subjects and not hi ability subjects while segmentation variations helped the low much more than the hi. This aptitude by treatment interaction shows how transfer performance is influenced by both training technique employed and subject's ability. Appendix B is a compilation of references pertinent to human factors part-task training applications to flight training.

5. Visual Simulation And Primary Flight Training.

To control an aircraft while visually scanning the airspace to navigate and avoid other traffic, a pilot must use an outside visual reference system. This reference system, mostly in the mind of the pilot, relates the aircraft attitude to the natural horizon. Learning and gaining confidence in using this outside visual reference system is difficult for the beginning pilot. There are many sources of distractions, such as noise, new surroundings, and new physical and visual perceptions associated with beginning flying experiences. These distractions are compounded by fluctuations in aircraft attitude induced by atmospheric turbulence and untrained pilot control inputs. Because of these distractions, initial progress in learning to safely control an aircraft in flight is often slow. This discourages students and instructors and can incur significant costs in dollars, time, aircraft operating life, and air traffic control service.

Not only must pilots see and avoid other aircraft in busy airport terminal areas, they must maneuver their aricraft with respect to airports and runways. This has to be done while at low altitudes and slow speeds where margins for error are reduced. Considerable attention is needed to hear and understand radio communications, and make radio transmissions, while maneuvering the aircraft and looking for traffic. Pilots must control the attitude and speed of the aircraft by outside visual references with only occasional reference to the instruments inside the cockpit.

Today most aircraft have a complete set of attitude control instruments in the cockpit and there is widespread use of cockpit instrument flight simulators. For most pilots there is strong emphasis on learning to control the aircraft solely by reference to cockpit instruments early in their training program. The cockpit instruments provide many exact points, marks, numbers and items of information about the aircraft's attitude and performance. Outside visual references of aircraft attitude and performance are usually less discrete, more subtle, often combined, and appear to vary from aircraft to aircraft. Visual references also depend on the pilot's head and body position in the aircraft at any instant of time.

Beginning pilots often find it easier to deal with the discrete cockpit instrument indications than the seemingly more combined outside visual references. There is an early and continued strong emphasis on learning to control the aircraft by reference to cockpit instruments. Many pilots develop the habit pattern of controlling their aircraft primarily by reference to cockpit instruments for all phases of flight. This incorrect aircraft control habit pattern often leads to poor or inadequate visual clearing to see and avoid other air traffic. Erratic airspeed and directional control, loss of navigation orientation awareness, unacceptable maneuvering with respect to the ground, and increased pilot fatigue also result. A thorough understanding of and confidence in the ability to control the aircraft by outside visual references is a necessary step toward becoming a safe and competent pilot.

Visual simulation pilot training devices designed according to the principles described earlier should be more cost effective than purely in flight training. A systems analysis of military, FAA, and collegiate flight training by McDermott[23] developed a list of 756 elements of flight training. Further refinement of elements for visual flight could determine visual flight training tasks that should be addressed with simulation. Effective training devices need not always reproduce the aircraft cockpit inflight conditions with hi-fidelity. Success occurs when performance in required tasks is learned in a manner that transfers to the aircraft at an overall cost savings. Oftentimes, as has been shown, part-task training techniques can produce both cost effective and totally superior training schemes. Until the recent research reviewed here, all aviation simulation strived for maximum fidelity to inflight conditions. Since present simulators emphasize instrument flight conditions, add on visual motion systems have not resulted in effective primary visual flight training.

Recent FAA research[24] has found that a $50,000. price range generic multi-engine flight simulator was ineffective for basic multi-engine flight training. The device tested was a commercially available multi-engine instrument flight simulator with a rudimentary extra-cockpit visual display. Ten (10) hours of simulator instruction preceded eighteen (18) hours of flight training for two experimental groups. The simulator training produced no significant increase in performance either during flight training or on the FAA multi-engine class rating flight test. Simulator training did not even significantly enhance the instrument skills tested over the control group that just received the 18 hours of flight training.

This suggests the possible ineffectiveness of current general aviation simulation trends. Perhaps if the same effort were put into a multi-engine visual flight simulator with rudimentary instrument capabilities, more effective training would occur. It was noted in this study that multi-engine training is primarily visual-flight training. The simulator tested was little more effective than a static cockpit procedure training device that could probably be produced for one tenth the cost. High performance business aircraft training, the airlines, and the military make judicious use of these simple, but cost effective "mock up" training devices.

The military has also used simple motion video recordings of the cockpit view of basic in-flight maneuvers for over a decade. Primary flight students view these real time motion recordings of maneuvers as part of their ground training. The military total systems approach also includes hi-fidelity instrument flight simulators but as yet no primary flight visual simulation. The USAF produces multi-engine ATP level pilots with less than 100 total hours of flight time.

A television video tape program using through-the-cockpit real time scenes enhanced with graphics and voice is in college use.[25] This augmented feedback, pretraining fractionation, pure part reintegration, flight training instrument is now part of a pre-solo simulator course using instrument simulators. The program describes and shows how to control and coordinate the aircraft using only outside visual references. Qualitative response from students and flight instructors indicates favorable learning effectiveness when students transferred to aircraft. Computer interactive video driving of the tape was demonstrated but found ineffective due to the long video tape search times. Computer interactive video disk technology as is being developed by the Jeppeson Sanderson Company holds great promise for increasing the training cost effectiveness of video recordings.

Computer generated video motion scenes appear to hold the greatest promise for flexibility and cost effectiveness in visual flight simulation training. The ATARI Air Combat Maneuvering (ACM) game has been proven to be a reliable, and effective gage of perceptual-motor skill applicable to flight.[18] Several visual flight simulation programs are on the market for a variety of home computers.

The Flight Simulator II computer program marketed by Sub LOGIC Corporation can be purchased for under $50. to run on several home computers. The video display is split between the windshield view and the instrument panel in forward view mode. Eight different directions of view can be selected independently for monitoring during flight. The video scene with a color monitor is realistic enough for useful flight simulation, having a scene projection rate of six (6) frames a second.[26] An initial qualitative hands on assessment of the programs features and capabilities shows the Flight Simulator II has great potential. Sub LOGIC is working to replace the standard computer gaming joystick with aircraft like flight controls to seek FAA certification of the program as a flight simulator. With flight control inputs the program should be able to address all flight maneuvers required for the private pilot flight test.

Innovations in college level pilot training curriculums as have occurred at Daniel Webster College[27] benefit the most from effective training techniques. The program organization and control allows proper analysis of both where and when to use new techniques and their effectiveness. The large number student base also provides the test subjects needed to verify the effectiveness of new training techniques. Large, well organized, flight training programs are the best setting for the research needed to apply the human factors approach to solving pilot performance problems.

College faculty are professionals who can understand the human factors approach and create experiments to exploit it in developing educational techniques. Molenaar[28] has elegantly conceived the need and the potential of part-task visual simulation to enhance aviation education with his "single concept simulation" idea. Maximum effectiveness in this multi-faceted, interdisciplinary type of research requires experts from several areas of expertise. Hutchings[29] shows an excellent example of the enhanced results of professional collaboration between aviation faculty and faculty from other disciplines. All faculty, their students, the university and society benefit from this type of activity.

6. Conclusions

A systems analysis of human factors in pilot performance problems has generated a conceptual model for examining human factors interactions. Human factors design issues identified as needing research include many flight training issues. Human factors part-task training theory and methodology indicates that simulation can be very effective in addressing flight training issues.

Visual flight simulation shows new promise from new technology and recent theoretical and empirical investigations using a human factors approach to training. High fidelity simulation is not a mandatory requirement of an effective training device when theories of learning are applied. Part-task training capabilities have the potential to increase the effectiveness of a visual simulation training device beyond that of hi-fidelity whole task simulation. Part-task training schemes can best be implemented with computer video graphics displays.

College level education institutions have the best setting for the development of visual flight pilot training devices. They have the existing program organization, test facilities, test subjects, and most of all, the college faculty research expertise. The depth and variety of academic and research disciplines available at the college level will be necessary to fully exploit the human factors approach to solving pilot performance problems.

The successful transfer of learning from simulation training techniques to pilot flight performance validates both the training device and the training technique. New training techniques should also be applied to actual inflight training when possible to enhance the overall training program effectiveness. The Cessna 152, Piper Tomahawk, and Beech Skipper are excellent flight simulators.

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APPENDIX B

Selected References On Part-Task Training And Aviation Simulation Applications

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Academic Testing in Aviation Education:

Can a Better Job Be Done?

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Running Head: ACADEMIC TESTING

Abstract

The evaluation of student progress in aviation is one of the most important duties of the aviation instructor. Many persons who have reponsibility in this area have minimal training in accepted test and measurement techniques. The author has been engaged in the last several years in developing test questions for use in private, instrument, commercial and instructor ground training courses at a major four year university. Included in this document are a review of testing theory and its application to aviation education, test item construction, and statistical results obtained from the author's investigation.

Academic Testing in Aviation Education:

Can a Better Job be Done?

Instructors have varying responsibilities for the evaluation of ground school students during the course of an academic term. For those trained in teacher education programs, a basic course in test and measurements may have been part of the curriculum. For those who have not been exposed to the fundamental principles contained in such a course, or have forgotten, a short review of testing procedures, the applications of those procedures to aviation education, and the method by which test items can be author prepared for use with ground training classes may be helpful. The important consideration is that aviation educators make every attempt to do a better job of evaluating their students. Improved evaluation greatly enhances program integrity and credibility.

Evaluation in education is not new by any stretch of the imagination. The sad truth is that testing, particularly in the field of aviation, is a less than exact science. Thorndike (1977, p. 82) states ". . .ever since attempts were made to develop measurement techniques in a systematic way, the procedures have provided a target for a wide spectrum of critics." The brunt of this criticism has fallen on the inappropriate use and/or interpretation of test results.

Purpose of Evaluation

It is appropriate to briefly examine the purpose of evaluation. Remmers and Gage (1955, p. 43) state that evaluation serves six purposes: (1) to maintain standards, (2) to select students, (3) to motivate learning, (4) for instructional guidance, (5) to appraise teachers, teaching methods, books, curricular content, etc., and (6) to furnish educational experience. Each of these purposes has direct application in varying degrees of sophistication in aviation education.

Maintaining Standards

Standards are necessary for society to carry on its social and economic life. Doctors of medicine, lawyers, plumbers, pilots, aircraft mechanics, dispatchers, and instructors must all pass written and practical examinations as a minimum entry requirement for approval to practice in their field. Society deserves nothing less.

Student Selection

There is usually one time in everyone's life when they have/have not been selected on the basis of a written examination. This procedure, often a valid one at that, is an attempt to determine the chance of success of a candidate prior to admittance to a program. Although not widely used in aviation, consider a time when fewer pilot training openings may be available, a qualifying test similar to that employed by colleges and universities might be a viable way to help determine the most likely candidates. There is extensive data available from collegiate admission people that indicates that utilization of testing in combination with other predictors can yield a clearer picture of possible success of an applicant.

Motivation of Learning

"Students who know they are to be tested often will do more studying than would otherwise be the case" (Adkins, 1974, p. 10). Even though this is a subtle application of the "donkey and carrot" approach, it can provide students with a positive source of motivation. As ground instructors, we are all aware of the last minute "cramming" that occurs before virtually any exmaination and particularly before the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) test for a rating.

Instructional Guidance

The use of test scores is as valuable to the aviation instructor as it is to the medical practitioner. A student may be weak in flight computer problems or the Federal Aviation Regulations (FAR) but seems to breeze in weather interpretation. Once the problem area is determined, a timely remedy can usually be determined.

Measuring Instructional Outcome

This is a challenge to aviation instructors to evaluate THEIR performance. If a class is taught in a noisy location or is subject to constant interruptions, lower test scores may be a result. Lack of success in aerodynamics or another area may indicate that the quality of instruction needs to be improved. It is entirely possible that the instructor should spend some time with the Airmen's Information Manual, the Instrument Flying Handbook, or some other source to "bone up" on deficient areas. Instructors must become more sensitive to these signs.

Educational Experience

When students begin training in any area of aviation, they expect to achieve the necessary knowledge to meet minimum experience levels. By carefully guiding and measuring this experience, the goals and objectives that hope to be obtained come closer to being realized.

Effective Test Construction

It is common practice to measure the six previously mentioned reasons for evaluation by development of written tests based on FAA test question guides. Effective March 1984, the same examination booklet that will be utilized for FAA written tests will be available from government bookstores. It would appear that just having a student work all questions in these books would seem to literally guarantee a passing score. This author is under the impression that the purpose of ground school is not necessarily to pass an exam but is rather to equip the student with the knowledge to pass any exam over the same subject matter. It is under this assumption that the author has been actively constructing aviation test questions for use with ground schools so as to provide students with the same experience as other available items but with a local flavor. Questions were generated from course textbooks, local sectional and low altitude charts, and the area Airport Facility Directory. The premise with this approach is that a student will not only gain information for later use but will become better acquainted with the airspace in which their flight training will be taking place.

What makes a good test? The FAA (1979, p. 45) states ". . .if a test is to be effective, it must have reliability, validity, usability, comprehensiveness, and discrimination."

Reliability

Reliability is the accuracy with which a test measures whatever it does measure. If we were to apply the same test, after a sufficient period of time to prevent recall, a test with a high co-efficient of reliability would yield similar results. While this statistic may not be accessable to everyone in the aviation community, many computer programs are now available that will generate this data.

Validity

One of the first questions to be answered concerning validity is does a test "look" as if it measures what it is meant to measure (Nunnally, 1959, p. 66). "The fact that an instrument is reliable does not necessarily mean that it is valid" (FAA, p. 45). We do not test for knowledge of instrument approach procedures by asking about communications.

Although a complete discussion of validity is beyond this study, extensive material is available concerning face validity, correlation between predictors, factorial validity, content validity, and construct validity.

Usability

A usable test instrument must be easy to give, take, and grade. Instructions must be clear, text must be easy to read, and the examination must be neither too short or too long. If any of these characteristics must be sacrificed, the instructor must determine that something is gained to offset any loss (Tuckerman, 1975, p. 303).

Comprehensive

Most instructors are often asked by ground school students, "What will the test cover"? The usual reply, "Everything"! Only by completely sampling each area of instruction can we be certain of accurately assessing the breadth of the experience we are evaluating.

Discrimination

In any evaluation, a test must be able to measure small differences in achievement in relation to the objectives of the experience. "When a test is constructed to identify the differences in the achievement of students, it has three features: (1) there is a wide range of scores, (2) all levels of difficulty are included, and (3) each item distinguishes between the students who are low and those who are high in achievement of the course objectives (FAA, p. 47).

Test Item Preparation

The unanswered question at this juncture is how does the prudent aviation educator answer, with a great deal of caution. If the evaluator wishes to utilize the same format of multiple choice questions that is common in many tests, it might be interesting to consider the following. Thorndike (p. 288) states that ". . .an ingenious and talented item writer can construct multiple-choice items that require not only the recall of knowledge but also the use of skills of comprehension, interpretation, application, analysis, or synthesis to arrive at the keyed answer."

The multiple-choice item consists of two parts: the stem which presents the problem, and the list of possible answers. In the standard form of the item, one of the answers is correct and the other choices are misleaders, foils, or distractors. The stem can be either a question or an incomplete statement. The form of the stem makes little difference in overall effectiveness as long as the stem presents a clear and specific problem (Thorndike, p. 228).

Experts in educational measurement caution that the test maker must be careful that (1) the stem clearly formulates a problem, (2) as much of the item is included in the stem as possible, (3) the stem contains only relevant information, (4) there is only one correct answer, (5) all wrong answer choices are plausible, (6) there are no intentional clues to the correct answer, and (7) the option "none of these" is used only when the answer can be classified as right or wrong.

As an indication of the author's work with test item preparation, the following examples have been selected from more than 100 questions constructed during the past two years. Questions were developed for private, instrument, commercial, and instructor ground school courses taught at a major four year state university.

Example One

Consult the Detroit sectional chart. The obstruction located approximately 8 nautical miles North-northeast of the Mansfield, Ohio Lahm Airport is:

a. 215 feet MSL.

b. 215 feet AGL.

c. 1415 feet AGL.

d. lighted with high intensity lights.

The author was of the opinion that the knowledge required to answer this question included correct use of the plotter, recognition of different types of obstructions, and the need to differentiate between elevations above mean sea level and above ground level. Another impinging factor that is always present in multiple choice format questions, particularly those that require the marking of a separate answer sheet, is can the student accurately mark the correct response on the answer sheet.

Another example requires the student to use both a sectional chart and an Airport Facility Directory.

Example Two

Refer to the Detroit sectional chart and the Airport Facility Directory for the Jackson-Reynolds Airport in Michigan. Select the true statement.

a. The Flight Service Station operates on frequency 126.85.

b. The Unicom frequency is 122.8.

c. The longest runway is 10,000 feet in length.

d. There is a rotating beacon on the airport.

Knowledge required to correctly respond to this question includes an awareness of the function of Air Traffic Control and Flight Service Station functions as well as the ability to correctly interpret chart and directory information.

With the increasing availability of micro-computer and the sophistication of data analysis packages, the aviation educator can readily secure statistical information for post-test evaluation. Additional statistical information is also available to members of university communities through mainframe computers. This author has utilized the latter. Data generated includes frequency distribution, mean, mode, range, standard deviation, discrimination, percentile and percentile rank, item analysis, and reliability based on a Kuder-Richardson 20.

Table A provides basic statistical information related to central tendencies and a measure of reliability. The formula utilized for this table is based on the Kuder-Richardson 20, a measure of reliability considered as statistically robust. The reliability of .70 may not be considered unusually high but the reader should consider that the sample test contained only 20 items. An application of the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula would be appropriate to determine the reliability for a lengthened test instrument. A discusssion of methodology for increasing test reliability is contained in Bartz (1981).

Total score distribution is contained in Table B. Inferences concerning the scattering, the piling up (skewness), and the distribution (kurtosis) of scores may be formulated utilizing this table. Additional statistical inferences, beyond the scope of this document, may be made from this data.

In Table C, an item analysis for a 20 question test given during the Spring of 1983 indicates the item, the number and percent of correct responses, the correct response, and the response distribution for each question. Some post hoc observations that would be appropriate when analyzing such data would be concerned with number of correct/incorrect responses for each item. Of particular note with respect to Table C would be Items 5 and 15. Item 5 had a wide distribution of scores of which more than 50 percent were incorrect. An inspection of the question by the investigator might reveal some ambiguity or error that was not previously noted. Item 15, with only one incorrect

Table D provides information related to the discrimination value of each question. Persons scoring in the extreme 27 percent for the total test are considered as the upper and lower groups. The difference between the percent of each group answering correctly provides a measure of the discrimination of that question. In Item 5, 88.9 percent of the upper group answered correctly whereas 11.1 percent of the lower group selected the correct response. The difference score, determined by subtracting the lower group score from the upper group score, was 77.8 percent.

Conclusions

Aviation education, particularly on many college and university campuses, is under scrutiny. Many members of the academic community consider it as too egalitarian to exist with elitist programs. Only by improving the quality of every area of aviation education can credibility and integrity be maintained.

Instructors have an additional responsibility to provide the student and the aviation community with the best educational experience. Evaluation of academic accomplishments and the meeting and exceeding of instructional goals and objectives is an on-going process.

If the reader has been an advocate of improving academic testing in aviation education, strive for even better evaluation techniques. If the reader has not been aware of proven testing techniques, let this document serve as an introduction to a new area of intellectual investigation. No matter which camp one finds oneself in, acceptance of a status quo does not benefit the student, the institution, or the system. Professionals should always seek new opportunities to improve the learning process, aviation education deserves nothing but the best.

(Art/Pub)

Table A

Initial Statistical Data

AERT 342 Aero Performance SP 83

Number of Students in the Section = 37
Number of Questions Graded = 20
Possible Raw Score = 20
Minimum Score = 7
Maximum Score = 20
Mean = 14.973
Standard Deviation = 3.381
Reliability (KR-20) = 0.704

Table B

Total Distribution of Scores for Course

AERT 342 Aero Performance SP 83

Raw Score	Frequency	Cummulative Frequency	Precentile	Histogram
7	1	1	2	*
8	1	2	5	*
9	1	3	8	*
10	1	4	10	*
11	3	7	18	***
12	1	8	21	*
13	3	11	29	***
14	3	14	37	***
15	6	20	54	******
16	3	23	62	***
17	6	29	78	******
18	2	31	83	**
19	2	33	89	**
20	4	37	100	****

Table C

Total Item Analysis for Course 342 ***

Item	Correct Number	Correct Percent	Correct Response	Response Distribution (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	25	67	2	5	25	5	1
2	20	54	2	10	21	6	1
3	35	94	1	35	1	0	1
4	33	89	4	1	0	3	33
5	18	48	3	3	5	18	11
6	30	81	2	0	30	2	5
7	32	86	4	1	3	1	32
8	28	75	3	5	2	28	2
9	23	62	2	11	23	2	1
10	28	75	1	28	1	1	1
11	26	70	2	5	26	3	3
12	24	64	3	7	6	24	0
13	28	75	1	28	3	2	4
14	31	83	2	1	31	4	1
15	36	97	1	36	0	0	1
16	31	83	1	31	1	4	1
17	24	64	3	6	5	24	2
18	27	72	1	27	5	0	5
19	20	54	2	9	20	8	0
20	35	94	3	0	1	35	1

Table D

Difference Score of Upper and Lower 27%

AERT 342 Aero Performance SP 83

Total Students = 37 Group Size = 9

Item	Percent Upper	Percent Lower	Difference
1	88.9	66.7	22.2
2	88.9	44.4	44.4
3	100.0	77.8	22.2
4	100.0	66.7	33.3
5	88.9	11.1	77.8
6	100.0	66.7	33.3
7	100.0	66.7	33.3
8	100.0	22.2	77.8
9	88.9	22.2	66.7
10	88.9	55.6	33.3
11	100.0	33.3	66.7
12	100.0	22.2	77.8
13	88.9	55.6	33.3
14	100.0	55.6	44.4
15	100.0	88.9	11.1
16	100.0	55.6	44.4
17	100.0	44.4	55.6
18	88.9	44.4	44.4
19	88.9	33.3	55.6
20	88.9	88.9	0.0

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(Art/Pub)

Abstract

"From Buses to Yachts":
The Problems and Prospects of New Entrant Airlines
by
David A. NewMyer

New entrant airlines are an important product of the deregulation of the airline industry of the United States. These airlines are companies which began operations after October 24, 1978 and which utilize turbojet or turbofan equipment. One of the remarkable things about new entrant airlines is that so many of these companies have begun operations(16 are identified in the article)against the historical backdrop of so few new airlines being started in the era before deregulation.

The new entrant airlines reviewed in the article seem to have at least three common features: 1) "Market niche" or their own unique place in the airline markets; 2) Narrow-body equipment. This feature refers to the new entrant's reliance on mostly older DC-9, 727, 737 and BAC-111 aircraft; and, 3) Low labor costs. One very competitive feature of new entrants is that the are usually non-union and are usually able to beat the older established airlines on pricing, in part, because of low labor costs.

Some of the problems faced by new entrants include: financing their start-ups, aircraft availability, slots/air traffic control, terminal gate space, market identity, and competition. With all of these problems facing new entrants, their future depends upon each of them being safe, efficient and well managed.

TEACHING STUDENTS TO PACK THEIR OWN CHUTES

INTRODUCTION

One of the most difficult tasks facing most of our students is the choice of an aviation career path and the best approach in pursuing their goals. Too often, at many schools, students are more or less left to "scramble" for themselves in conjunction with the campus placement office in order to obtain whatever information may be available. There is usually a considerable amount of wasted time and effort; students who are improperly prepared for the process of job and career choice often make many mistakes and experience a great deal of frustration in their efforts to make the transition from the campus to the world of work.

At Broward Community College, this has been a problem which has been approached in various ways over the years, usually on a rather informal and generally disorganized basis. Up until a couple of years ago, the approach was to have one or two Career days in which students were invited to attend career discussion panels made up of industry representatives. During the spring term recruiters were invited to visit the campus and students signed up to be interviewed at selected times. Occasionally, one or more guest speakers were invited to our aviation classes or to an Alpha Eta Rho meeting to talk about career opportunites in various aviation fields. However, this was largely on an ad hoc basis, typically at the initiative of a professor or someone in the career center. Attempts at facilitating the process of orienting students for campus recruiters and alternative career choices were at best only marginally satisfactory because the approach had been consistently on a more or less unplanned basis.

Recognizing this, the director of the career center, working with a number of department chairs representing various career fields, developed two elective courses designed to assist students in making career choice decisions. Since the fall of 1980, these courses have been offered on a regular basis during the fall and winter terms.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the principle features of these courses and to suggest how they might serve as a "model" for similar types of courses at other schools.

COURSE DESCRIPTION AND METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

Under the sponsorship of the Career Center, Broward Community College offers two courses designed to assist students in making career choice decisions. The course titles and descriptions are as follows:

SLS 1321 Career Planning Workshop - 2 semester hours
A course designed for students who desire help in choosing a career. Students will learn the on-going process of life/career planning through self-exploration and exploration of the world of work.

SLS 1341 Employability Skills - 1 semester hour
A course designed to teach the process of locating, applying for, and keeping a job.

The Career Planning Workshop course includes 30 class hours and is normally scheduled in three-hour blocks (meeting once a week) over the first ten weeks of the term. Employability Skills includes 15 class hours during the last five weeks of the term.

Both courses are conducted on a modified seminar basis combining lecture and discussion in order to encourage the maximum sharing of opinions, knowledge and experience. Since the interchange of ideas is essential in career planning and developing employability skills, lectures are minimized and emphasis is placed on the seminar approach supplemented by facilitative exercises. The lecture portion serves to provide students with a conceptual framework for the subjects to be covered.

REQUIRED LEARNING AIDS

The Complete Job-Search Handbook by Howard Figler
Holt, Rinehart and Winston - New York

The Self-Directed Search by John L. Holland
Consulting Psychologist Press
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94306

Helping You Explore Options
American College Testing Program

REFERENCE MATERIAL

What Color is Your Parachute? by Richard N. Bolles
Ten Speed Press
Box 7123
Berkeley, California 94707

The Quick Job-Hunting Map by Richard N. Bolles
Ten Speed Press

Where Do I Go From Here With My Life? by John C. Crystal and Richard N. Bolles
Ten Speed Press

Who's Hiring Who by Richard Lathop
Ten Speed Press

Take Hold of Your Future - A Career Planning Guide by JoAnn Harris-Bowlsby, James D. Spivack and Ruth S. Lisansky - American College Testing Program

Choice or Chance by Harold N. Garner and Sandra L. Stark
Gregg Division - McGraw-Hill Book Company

The following outline has been utilized as the courses have developed over the past several years:

SLS 1321 CAREER PLANNING WORKSHOP

UNIT I - COURSE OVERVIEW (one session)

Unit Goal:

The student will understand the concept of Life/Career Planning.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will be able to define career/life planning and apply this concept to his/her personal life.
2. The student will be able to describe the step-by-step process of rational career decision-making.
3. The student will be able to define "job," "occupation" and "career" and discuss the differences between these terms.
4. The student will be able to describe at least two theories of career/vocational development and be able to relate this to his/her personal development.

This session provides a broad overview of the course and the steps which students will take over the next ten weeks in mapping their career plans. Terminology is stressed. For example, a job is a group of similar, paid positions, needing some of the same qualities, in a single organization. Jobs are defined by an organization. Occupations on the other hand are a group of similar jobs found in different organizations. An aircraft pilot or mechanic are occupations. Of course, different pilots and mechanics in different companies in different industries do different things from day to day. A career is a sequence of major positions held by a person throughout his or her pre-occupational, occupational, and post-occupational life. A position is defined as a group of tasks to be done by one person; in industry, these tasks are done for pay. A position is defined by which tasks are done, rather than by who does them. In this way, employers advertise for someone to fill the position of reservations clerk or cargo sales representative.

The lecture stresses attitudes and positive thinking. The theme is that students individually must make the primary effort to choose a career path. (They must pack their own chutes.)

UNIT II - SELF-ASSESSMENT (three sessions)

Unit Goal:

The student will become aware of his/her personal characteristics and self-concept.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will have acquired the ability to:
    a. define the concepts of values and identify his/her top five (5) values in each category - personal, career and lifestyle ranked in priority order.
    b. define the concept of interests and identify a minimum of five (5) interests ranked in priority order.
    c. define the concept of skills and identify a minimum of five (5) skills ranked in priority order.
2. The student will be able to explain how his/her self-concept affects career choice.
3. The student will be able to integrate the identification of occupations by interests, skills and abilities and develop a list of occupations for personal exploration.

Self-assessment is one of the most important aspects in the career planning process. Students must evaluate who they are and what they have to offer - much the same as a company would do in marketing a new product. Included in this process is the identification and clarification of values, feelings, skills and creativity. The emphasis here is being honest with oneself in evaluating strengths and weaknesses and deciding what factors may become the key to success. Self-assessment is largely a process of clarifying and articulating ideas students may have already had, but hold in a fuzzy or ambiguous form.

Finally, as part of these personal analysis sessions, the student begins to focus in on occupations which are consistent with his/her self-assessment inventory and worthy of career exploration.

Unit Requirements:

Students are required to write a comprehensive report following the self-assessment unit in which they prepare an inventory of themselves. In the report they must identify and clarify the highest priority rewards and satisfactions they hope to obtain in their career, discriminating among competing opportunities. Additionally, they must identify and label their most prominent strengths or abilities and choose the ones they most enjoy using in work situations. Finally, they must translate their self-assessment into an action plan by focusing in on occupations to set the stage for first hand exploration.

UNIT III - CAREER EXPLORATION (four sessions)

Unit Goal:

The student will learn the strategies used in career exploration and the options available in the world of work.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will learn the process of occupational research, including the utilization of written sources and the information interview.
2. The student will be able to identify a minimum of ten (10) sources of career information.
3. The student will be able to use the Occupational Outlook Handbook and the Dictionary of Occupational Titles to compile at least three (3) career research reports.
4. The student will be able to explain the concept of career families or clusters.

This is the detective stage in which students develop their research skills in acquiring:

(a) printed material sources - selecting readily available published materials to obtain data about a target employer, an industry, or a given individual they hope to meet. Aviation students frequently utilize such sources as the World Aviation Directory, company annual reports, ARCO guides to careers in transportation, and other career guides found in the library in preparing their reports.

(b) prospect lists - students learn the techniques of creating contacts by establishing relationships with people who can refer them to other people in building a comprehensive list of people, organizations, and situations that seem most likely to offer the kind of work they desire.

In our area, students have contacted and attended meetings of such organizations as the Greater Miami Aviation Association and the Aviation Task force of the Fort Lauderdale Chamber of Commerce.

(c) interviews and observing employees at work - obtaining information and insight directly from people in careers the student desires to enter; gathering data about an occupational field or a specific employer; and learning what questions to ask and how to conduct the entire exchange. Because of the variety of aviation sources in our area - the airlines (all levels), manufacturing, general aviation (including corporate aircraft operators), aviation insurance and banking, airport authorities as well as federal and state aviation careers - our students have had little difficulty in setting up interviews with various individuals.

Unit Requirements:

Students are required to write a report on each of the three aforementioned areas which must include their plan of action and the results of their career exploration into the real world. Each report is reviewed and critiqued in class towards the end of this unit.

UNIT IV - THE DECISION-MAKING AND GOAL-SETTING PROCESS (two sessions)

Unit Goal:

The student will understand the processes of decision-making and goal-setting and develop a Personal Career Action Plan.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will be able to list and explain the steps in the decision-making process.
2. The student will be able to define the term 'goal,' explain the procedures used in setting goals, and list the characteristics goals should possess.

3. The student will develop his/her own Personal Career Action Plan, including making a tentative career decision and setting short-term and long-term goals for him/herself.
4. The student will be able to describe the specific action steps necessary to reach his/her goals.

Students have clarified their occupational objectives following the self-assessment and career exploration units. Now it is time to set goals to reach their objectives. Short-term goals include those steps which the student expects to take within a time frame to get his/her first job. Long-term goals include those steps necessary to reach longer-term objectives - perhaps in five or ten years in the career/life planning process.

Unit Requirements:

Students are required to prepare a Personal Career Action Plan including short-term and long-term goals necessary to reach his/her short-term and longer-term objectives.

SLS 1341 EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS

UNIT I - COURSE OVERVIEW (one session)

Unit Goal:

The student will understand the concept of employability skills.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will be able to describe the nature of the job market and explain the concept of the "hidden job market."
2. The student will be able to describe the steps in the hiring process.

The first session of this follow-on course is devoted to strategies in locating the first job and steps involved in the hiring process.

UNIT II - THE HIRING PROCESS (three sessions)

Unit Goal:

The student will learn the skills necessary to become a successful job seeker.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will be able to explain the purposes of a resume, compare and contrast the chronological and functional resume, and compose a personal resume for a specific job.
2. The student will be able to explain the purposes of a cover letter and compose a cover letter for a specific job.
3. The student will thoroughly and properly complete a job application and be able to identify three errors commonly made on applications.
4. The student will be able to describe the interview process, explain interviewing tips, and demonstrate successful interviewing skills in class during mock interviews.
5. The student will arrange one mock interview with a prospective employer.

The three sessions included in the hiring process are extremely important. The first, and part of the second session, is devoted to the preparation of resumes, cover letters and applications. The cover letter is, in some ways, more difficult to write than the resume. It must be persuasive, professional, and interesting. Ideally, it should set the individual above and apart from the other candidates for the position. The remaining two sessions are devoted to the interviewing process in preparation for a mock interview with a prospective employer.

Unit Requirements:

Students are required to prepare a resume, cover letter and application for a position. In addition, they must write a report covering their mock interview with a prospective employer. Included in the report is an evaluation form completed by the employer. Students must objectively analyze the interview with regard to the questions asked, the answers given, their overall presentation, and the interviewer's response (interest, boredom, etc.) to specific points.

UNIT III - JOB MAINTENANCE SKILLS (one session)

Unit Goal:

The student will learn the skills necessary to be a successful employee on the job.

Unit Objectives:

1. The student will be able to identify the characteristics of a satisfied and dissatisfied employee.
2. The student will be able to list and explain at least ten ideas for the career advancement process.

The final session in this course is devoted to working effectively as an employee and exploring opportunities for advancement. Generally, one or two recent graduates from one of the technical programs are invited to this session to share with students their experiences on their first job and how they made the transition from school to the world of work. Their presentations are well received by the students since they are able to identify very closely with the students' current apprehensions as they approach the job market.

This final session also includes a brief summary lecture which emphasizes again that students themselves must approach their first job and their long-term careers in a professional manner.

COURSE EVALUATION

The response from our aviation students who have taken these courses has been overwhelmingly favorable. Virtually every student who evaluated the courses thought they were of great benefit to him/her personally. A number of students commented to the effect that the courses should be required for all students in our aviation programs. Although we do not contemplate making these courses required, there seems to be little doubt that a considerable number of our students will sign up for them on an elective basis in the future, particularly if they are planning to enter the job market upon completion of their Associate Degree.

We will continue to encourage our aviation students to consider taking these courses on an elective basis because we feel that a systematic approach to career exploration and job hunting greatly improves their chances of finding a rewarding career opportunity in these competitive times.