# The Influence of Stressors on Usability Tests An Experimental Study

Monique Janneck<sup>1</sup> and Makbule Dogan<sup>2</sup> <sup>1</sup>Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Luebeck University of Applied Sciences, Luebeck, Germany <sup>2</sup>eparo GmbH, Hamburg, Germany

Keywords: Usability Testing, Laboratory Tests, Stressors, Validity.

Abstract:

In this study we investigated whether the experience of stressors would influence the *performance* of users in usability tests as well as their subjective rating of the *usability* of an interactive system. To that end, an experimental study was conducted comparing a usability test that was performed in the lab under quiet, relaxed conditions with a test situation where several stressors (time pressure, noise, social pressure) were applied. Results show that participants in the stress condition did considerably worse regarding the completion and correctness of the tasks. The stress and negative feelings the participants experienced also influenced their view of the tested software. Participants in the stress condition rated the usability of the software and their user experience considerably more negative. Implications for the practice of usability testing are discussed.

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

Usability tests are an important method to determine the usefulness of interactive systems and products in realistic settings and with real users: In usability tests, participants solve tasks that they would typically work on with a certain system. By observing the interaction, problems and difficulties can be determined and corrected in the software. Furthermore user acceptance and satisfaction can be measured.

Usability tests are often conducted in usability labs, which are equipped with specialized hardware and software for audio and video recording, mouse tracking, screen recording or eye-tracking analysis.

Usability tests usually cover 'normal' use cases and conditions: It is observed what works well and what problems arise in a regular use situation. Supported by the analysis techniques named above, experimenters are able to gain manifold insights into user behavior and possible improvements of the software.

However, in the laboratory important context factors might not be as present as in the real situation or even suppressed altogether (cf. Greifenender, 2011), such as noise, presence of other people, interruptions, bad or bright lighting, special hardware etc.

Imagine, for example, an electronic train ticket vending machine. People typically use such systems in a public situation, possibly in a hurry because the train is leaving shortly, pressured by others waiting in the queue. It is easy to imagine that testing a vending machine under such conditions will yield other results that in a quiet and relaxed usability lab.

In many areas simulations are used to specifically test how users and systems perform under difficult conditions or in risky situations, e.g. when training pilots or staff of safety-critical facilities and equipment.

In this paper we investigate the use of *stressors* in regular usability tests (i.e., not especially regarding safety-critical systems) to find out how they possibly influence users' performance and also their evaluation of the product or system they tested. To that end, we conducted an experiment to compare usability tests under regular laboratory conditions with a situation where several stressors were induced, such as time pressure, noise, and social pressure.

ISBN: 978-989-8565-54-9

DOI: 10.5220/0004501405810590 In Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Web Information Systems and Technologies (STDIS-2013), pages 581-590

Janneck M. and Dogan M..

The Influence of Stressors on Usability Tests - An Experimental Study.

Copyright © 2013 SCITEPRESS (Science and Technology Publications, Lda.)

# 2 BACKGROUND

# 2.1 Usability Testing

According to ISO 9241-11 (ISO, 1998) *usability* is defined as the extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals in a specified context of use (users, tasks, equipment and environment). It can be established by measuring the *effectiveness* of use (if a certain task can be completed), *efficiency* of use (i.e. the time and effort necessary to complete the task) and also the *satisfaction* with use as reported by the users.

Furthermore for several years the concept of *user experience* (UX) has been discussed as an expansion of the traditional usability definition. User experience relates to the emotional experience of using an interactive product: Positive and negative feelings, attitudes, beliefs, biases and preferences of users. Therefore usability is only one factor influencing user experience (cf. Tullis & Albert, 2008).

Usability is measured with a variety of different methods, such as heuristic evaluation, walkthrough or inspection methods, and usability questionnaires (e.g. Shneiderman & Plaisant, 2010). Especially for measuring user experience, a number of specialized questionnaires have been developed, such as *AttrakDiff* (Hassenzahl, 2008) or *UEQ* (Laugwitz et al., 2008).

Usability tests in the lab, however, are still seen as the 'silver bullet' of usability evaluation, as stated by Jakob Nielsen as early as 1993: "User testing with real users is the most fundamental usability method and is in some sense irreplaceable" (Nielsen, 1993, p. 165). The popularity of the method is due to the exactness and scope of results, even if it's often more costly and time-consuming than other evaluation methods. The sophisticated recording and analysis methods and tools that are available, as mentioned in the introduction, contribute to the quality of the results.

Nevertheless, *mobile* or *remote* usability tests are increasingly popular (cf. Bosenick et al., 2007). Mobile usability tests take the laboratory to the field by testing systems in a real use context, e.g. using a mobile lab on a notebook. Remote tests offer even more flexibility: The test persons carry out the test via Internet at their own computers with the experimenter not being present (however, a test supervisor might be available online).

While mobile or remote usability tests might be able to capture the actual conditions of use better than a lab test (at the expense that some recording and analysis methods are not available), they still do not explicitly incorporate simulations or stressors. On the opposite: Most guidelines for conducting usability tests recommend establishing a quiet, relaxed atmosphere for users to work in without feeling anxious or pressured. Instructions for test users often emphasize that the system is being tested and not the user – therefore the user is not to blame for anything that might go wrong (e.g. Dumas & Loring, 2008, Dumas & Redish, 1999).

However, in everyday use, errors and stress are frequent occurrences when dealing with computer systems (e.g. Ayyagari et al., 2011).

## 2.2 Stress and Errors

*Stress* is defined as an individuals' reaction to events that threaten to cause an imbalance by overstraining his or her resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, Janssen et al., 2001). In the short run, physical reactions to stressors support an individual to face the stressful situation by mobilizing bodily resources. However, in the long run stress can have serious negative consequences for physical and psychic health, such as high blood pressure, heart diseases, sleeping disorders, fatigue, anxiety or depression (Ogden, 2007).

There are many different types of *stressors*. Stressors include major life crises, such as a divorce or loss of job, as well as small nuisances, so-called 'daily hassles', such as paper jams, minor conflicts and quarrels, a delayed bus and so forth, that nevertheless might build up to a substantial experience of stress (Kanner et al., 1981). Especially at work, factors that hinder people to successfully complete their tasks are known to induce stress. Among them are time pressure, lack of necessary resources, over- or non-taxing demands or social stressors, such as a lack of support by others (Frese and Zapf, 1994, Semmer, 1984, Sonnentag and Frese, 2003).

It is important to note that different people might experience the same stressors very differently, depending on the resources they have available (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, Frese and Zapf, 1994) or factors of resilience (Robertson, 2012).

As is known from work psychology stress has an impact on performance (e.g. Driskell and Salas, 1996). Stress especially increases error and leads to a lack of concentration. Regarding the use of computer systems this might result in simple sensomotor errors like typos or wrong clicks as well as careless mistakes, misconceptions or a lack of control (cf. Reason, 1990).

Quite surprisingly, stress in usability testing has seldom been researched so far. One of the few existing studies conducted by Andrzejczak and Liu (2010) compared the effect of the test location (lab vs. remote) on user anxiety, finding no meaningful differences. Some authors explored the use of biological and psycho-physiological measures in usability testing to detect arousal (Stickel et al., 2008, Lin et al., 2005). However, to our knowledge, the experimental use of stressors has not been investigated systematically so far.

Given the relevance of stressors in daily life on the one hand and the lack of research regarding stressors in usability tests on the other hand the following research questions are framed:

- Can stress be successfully induced in a laboratory setting of usability tests?
- Does stress substantially influence users' performance in usability tests?
- Does the experience of stress affect users' evaluation of the interactive products they are testing?

# **3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

#### **3.1** Sample and Procedure

To test the influence of stressors on the test person's performance in a usability test and their subjective evaluation we conducted an experiment with a total of N=20 participants (50% male, 50% female; age 20-35 years). Participants were told that they were supposed to test the search and checkout procedure of a large online shop (Amazon). We selected test persons who were frequent Internet users and also experienced online shoppers to be able to separate the effects of stressors from general usage problems. All test persons had shopped at Amazon before.

The test persons were assigned at random to one of the following conditions:

- Regular usability test (N=10, 5 male, 5 female): The participants took part in a usability test in a quiet, undisturbed environment. They received a list of items they were supposed to search at Amazon and add to the shopping cart. After they had completed the search task they were given the required log-in data and were asked to complete the checkout procedure. Before finalizing the purchase, they were asked to remove some of the items from their shopping cart and add some other products.
- Usability test with stressors (N=10, 5 male, 5 female): The participants were asked to complete

the same tasks as in the first condition. However, during the usability test several stressors were applied:

- *Time Pressure*. Participants were told that there was a 5-minute time limit for the search as well as the checkout task. A stopwatch was put up visibly on the table.
- *Noise and Disturbance*. During the test a person enters the test room and angrily asks for a cable. The test supervisor hectically searches for the cable in a locker, making noise and dropping several items. Then the test supervisor leaves to fetch the cable from another room.
- *Social Pressure*. After the test supervisor left the room, the unknown person takes a seat directly next to the test persons, observing them while they are working on their tasks and constantly drumming with his fingers on the table.

Upon return, the test supervisor apologizes for the disturbances and politely asks the test persons to complete the tasks, reminding them of the time limit.

### 3.2 Measures

In both conditions the tests were conducted in a usability lab equipped with audio and video recording as well as eye tracking. Morae<sup>©</sup> software was used for audio, video, mouse and screen recording. Nyan<sup>©</sup> was used for eye tracking analysis.

For performance measures, *task completion* and *correctness* were recorded. Furthermore the time that participants needed to complete the tasks was measured.

For measuring the perceived *usability* of the product all test persons rated Amazon using the *AttrakDiff* questionnaire (Hassenzahl, 2008) after completing the usability tests to measure whether the stress experience had an influence on user ratings. *AttrakDiff* measures usability of interactive products as well as user experience and joy of use by means of a semantic differential, i.e. pairs of words (the word pairs can be seen in figure 5). The questionnaire addresses four dimensions:

- *Pragmatic Quality*, measuring the usability of the interactive product,
- *Hedonic Quality*, which refers to the user experience and is split up in two subscales of '*Identity*' (measuring identification) and '*Stimulation*' (measuring innovativeness and originality of the product).

- *Attractiveness*, referring to the overall attractiveness of the product.

Validity and reliability of the instrument were established in several studies (Hassenzahl, 2008). AttrakDiff was chosen since it is especially suitable to measure subjective and also emotional aspects of use.

Furthermore the participants filled out a questionnaire containing several items related to the test situation and the stress they possibly experienced (see table 2) measured on a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1='not at all' to 5='very much').

Table 1: Items measuring participants' experience of the test atmosphere and possible stress.

Please indicate how much you agree to the following
statements:
I did not care about the test.

- I felt distracted.
- I had difficulties concentrating.
- I felt pressured.
- I was stressed by the situation.
- I was anxious to fail.
- I wanted to leave the situation.
- · I was annoyed.
- I would have liked to get support.

After completing the questionnaires the test persons who had participated in the stress condition were also *interviewed* by the test supervisor to gain a deeper understanding of their experiences and their emotions during the test situation. At the beginning of the interview the real purpose of the study and the deliberate nature of the disturbances was revealed to the participants.

### 4 RESULTS

The general observations made by the test supervisors revealed remarkable differences between the two test conditions. In the regular condition participants worked on the tasks in a relaxed manner and had no serious problems completing the tasks.

In the stress condition, test persons showed a considerable amount of frustration as a reaction to the stressors applied in the situation. Most test persons appeared nervous, distracted, and sometimes aggressive. Many of them had remarkable difficulties when working on the tasks. These general observations were confirmed by the performance and usability measures as well as the measures related to the stress experiences. Results are reported in the following sections.

#### 4.1 Performance Measures

#### 4.1.1 Task Completion and Correctness

Test persons in the regular and the stress condition showed remarkable differences regarding their performance.

In the regular condition, all test persons were able to complete both the search and the checkout task. Error rates were low (as reported further on).

In the stress condition, all test persons made a substantial amount of errors in the search phase. Only two persons were able to complete the checkout procedure.

Table 2 shows the percentage of items that were correctly identified and added to the shopping cart. In the regular condition, almost all purchases were correct. In the stress condition, test persons chose the wrong items in more than half of all cases.

Observations by the test supervisor during the tests add to the impression that participants in the stress condition were generally much more errorprone (e.g. regarding typos and careless mistakes) and at the same time less likely to recognize their mistakes, while participants in the regular condition often noticed their errors and were able to make corrections themselves right away.

	<b>Regular</b> condition	Stress condition
Correct products in shopping cart	91%	48%
Incorrect products in shopping cart	9%	52%
Overall number of errors in checkout phase	8 [merely typos]	15 [mainly problems in comprehension]
Persons completing all tasks	10 (out of 10)	2 (out of 10)

Furthermore, eye-tracking analyses reveal much more 'scattered' and unorganized track paths among participants in the stress conditions (figure 1).

Also, participants in the stress condition tended to focus on parts of the screen that were irrelevant for the current task (see figures 2 and 3).

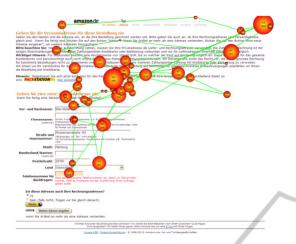


Figure 1: Scattered scan path of participant in the stress condition.

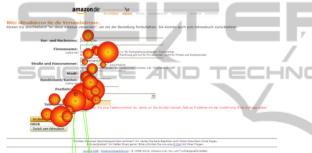


Figure 2: Relevant focus (on fields of address form) in scan path of participant in the regular condition.



Figure 3: Irrelevant focus in scan path of participant in the stress condition: The error message and the corresponding text fields are not recognized by the person.

#### 4.1.2 Time Measures

Since time restrictions were placed on the participants in the stress condition while in the regular condition test persons were free to work on the tasks as long as they wished, it was not reasonable to compare task completion times directly.

Instead, regarding the search task we compared the number of items that participants identified and placed in their shopping carts in five minutes (the time limit imposed in the stress condition). Regarding the checkout task – as most participants in the stress condition failed to complete this task altogether – we compared the time the test persons needed to fill out the address form, as this was a relatively simple task.

Results (table 3) show that in the regular condition test persons were faster and identified more items (and more often the correct items, as was pointed out in section 4.2.1). Even though the differences were small, this is quite remarkable since the participants in the regular condition could be expected to work in no hurry.

Interestingly, standard deviation was much higher in the stress condition than in the regular condition. This reflects that obviously some test persons were affected more by the stressors than others.

Table	3:	Time	measures

LOGY PUBLI	Regular condition	Stress condition
Average number of products in shopping cart after 5 minutes	6.9	5.6
Average time for address completion (in seconds)	61.5 (SD=7.4)	65.6 (SD=19.0)

### 4.2 Usability Measures

In the following section the AttrakDiff ratings of the participants in the regular vs. the stress condition are compared as a measure of perceived usability.

Again, remarkable differences can be found. In the regular condition, the 'pragmatic quality' (PQ), i.e. the usability of the Amazon online shop, was rated very positively. 'Hedonic quality', i.e. the user experience, was rated above average. In the stress condition, ratings were much lower: Values for both usability (PQ) and HQ (user experience) were below average.

Figure 4 shows the mean values of the four AttrakDiff dimensions (PQ=Pragmatic Quality; HQ-I=Hedonic Quality/Identity; HQ-S=Hedonic Quality /Stimulation; ATT=Attractiveness). Regarding all of the four dimensions the Amazon website was rated more negatively (with values below average) by participants in the stress condition. Differences were especially large regarding Pragmatic Quality and general Attractiveness. These differences were statistically significant (p<0.05).

Furthermore, the confidence interval for the stress condition is much larger, indicating a wide

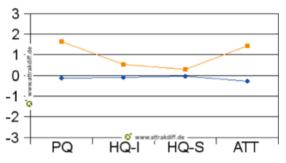


Figure 4: Mean values for regular condition (upper curve) and stress condition (lower curve) regarding the four dimensions of AttrakDiff.

range of ratings among the participants. Again, this shows that the test persons were affected differently by the stressors.

Figure 5 shows the differences between the regular and the stress condition regarding all items of the questionnaire.

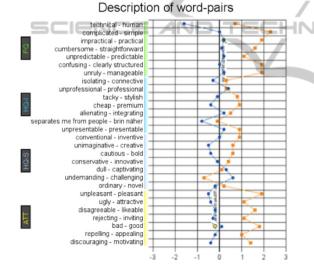


Figure 5: AttrakDiff profile for regular condition (right curve) and stress condition (left curve).

## 4.3 Experience of Stress

In the following sections the results of the questionnaire measuring the participants' perception of the test situation and the interviews with those participating in the stress condition are depicted.

#### 4.3.1 Questionnaire

Figure 6 shows the mean ratings for both conditions. For all items except for 'I did not care about the test' and 'I wanted to leave the situation' participants in the stress conditions gave significantly more negative ratings (p<0.05).

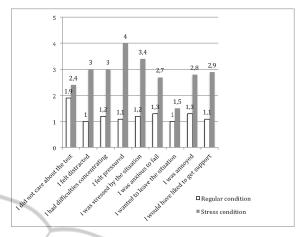
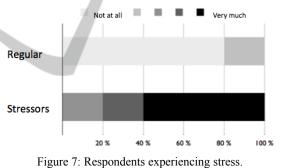


Figure 6: Mean values for items measuring stress during the test.

Especially large differences can be found regarding the experience of pressure, feelings of stress, distraction and difficulties concentrating. Also, participants in the stress condition longed for more support. Figures 7 and 8 give some especially impressive examples.



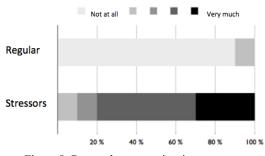


Figure 8: Respondents experiencing pressure.

#### 4.3.2 Interviews

The interviews that were conducted with the participants in the stress condition clearly reflect the results of the performance measures as well as the stress questionnaire.

All respondents said that they had experienced

some form of negative emotions during the test, some of them very gravely:

"I was almost freaking out. I was nervous and had difficulties concentrating. That was totally absurd." (Person 3, female)

Several persons reflected on the experience that they failed to complete seemingly easy tasks:

"Everything was so difficult. Usually I would handle that." (Person 2, female)

Regarding the different stressors, the interviews indicate that time pressure and social pressure were experienced as especially stressful:

*"Without the time pressure I would have looked more closely at the products." (Person 5, male)* 

"That man. He was really annoying, simply because he sat next to me. I thought he was surely looking over my shoulder and thinking, 'Oh, she can't do it'. That was really disturbing." (Person 2, female)

"I had even more difficulties concentrating after your colleague came in. I was on the verge of saying, 'please go out, can't you wait somewhere else?" (Person 6, female)

The interviews also show interindividual differences regarding the perception of stressors. Especially noise and distraction were handled differently according to prior experiences:

"I know that kind of situation from my home. I have two smaller siblings. I can switch that off." (Person 7, male)

"I worked as an online journalist for three years, therefore I can handle noise. It was always noisy there, everybody was shouting, the telephone was ringing, visitors around..." (Person 8, female)

### **5 DISCUSSION**

### 5.1 Interpretation of Results and Methodical Issues

In this study we investigated if stress could be induced in a usability test and whether the experience of stressors would influence the *performance* of users as well as their subjective rating of the *usability* of an interactive system. To that end, an experimental study was conducted comparing a usability test that was performed in the lab under quiet, relaxed conditions with a test situation where several stressors (time pressure, noise, social pressure) were applied.

All three research questions can be answered with 'yes':

Regarding their *performance*, participants in the stress condition did considerably worse regarding the completion of the online shopping tasks. More than half of the items that were added to the shopping cart were incorrect, compared to only 9% in the regular condition. They made numerous mistakes and were mostly unable to recognize and correct them. Furthermore, stressed participants were less efficient: They needed slightly more time and identified less products even though they had been given a time limit and therefore were trying to work fast.

This is especially remarkable since all participants were experienced and frequent Internet users. All of them were familiar with online shopping in general and had also particularly used Amazon before. That means in prior situations they had successfully performed the very tasks that they were failing during the test.

The stress and negative feelings that the participants experienced also influenced their view of the software they tested. Participants in the stress condition rated the usability of the software and their user experience considerably more negative: Obviously, negative emotions of test users are projected on products they use. To put it the other way around: To a certain degree positive usability ratings might reflect not only the actual product quality, but also the positive well-being of the users.

Given the research from work psychology regarding the influence of stressors on work performance, it is not surprising as such that stress also influences computer-related tasks. Nevertheless, the magnitude is remarkable: The test persons failed to complete simple tasks that they had done numerous times before and that were solved easily by the participants in the regular condition. During the checkout procedure the total number of errors almost doubled. What is more, while test persons in the regular condition merely produced typos, which they were able to correct themselves right away, participants in the stress condition showed a general lack of understanding or chose wrong strategies that caused them to fail the task altogether (only two out of 10 persons in the stress condition were able to complete the checkout procedure).

The variance regarding performance measures as well as usability ratings was much higher in the stress condition. This reflects the finding that people experience stress quite differently (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, Frese and Zapf, 1994, Robertson, 2012). In the interviews conducted with the participants in the stress condition some test persons also emphasized that they had not been disturbed as much because they were used to working in noisy and turbulent environments.

Quite interestingly, especially the female test persons felt extremely bothered by the (male) person disturbing and observing them. Whether gender is an issue here needs to be clarified in further studies.

However, the present study has several shortcomings. First of all, the number of participants was relatively low. While testing 20 persons can be expected to yield good results in a 'real' usability test (Faulkner, 2003), the results cannot be considered representative in a scientific study. Also, we purposefully included especially younger people who were experienced Internet users to make sure the participants would be principally able to complete the tasks with ease. It is quite impressive that even experienced users were affected by the stressors to such a large extent. However, further research is needed to show whether the effects identified in this study also hold for other groups of computer users.

Due to the small number of participants we were also unable to conduct more differentiated analyses. For example, it would be interesting to investigate whether the *amount* of stress that is experienced by a person is correlated with performance and usability measures. Also, the gender differences that were suggested by the interview results could not be analyzed in detail because the number of participants in the stress condition was too low.

Furthermore, we did not separate the distinct effects of the different stressors used in this study. In the interviews the test persons indicated that especially time pressure and social pressure (i.e. the presence of an unknown and unfriendly observer) were experienced as stressful and annoying. Whether certain types of stressors have specific effects on performance and product evaluation needs to be clarified in future research.

#### 5.2 Implications

The results of our study have several serious implications for usability research as well as the practice of usability testing.

First of all, it has to be stated that stress can easily be invoked during usability tests. Often, this might be unintentional and go unnoticed by the experimenters. Especially when using remote usability tests or questionnaires to assess usability or user experience of an interactive product, it seems hard to assess whether stress that the users were possibly experiencing might have influenced the results.

Furthermore, measures and methods that are regularly used in usability testing might induce stress – at least in some test persons – without the intention to do so.

Imposing a time limit, for example, proved to be a simple and effective stressor making test persons anxious and nervous and also causing them to work less effectively and efficiently compared to the nostressors condition. As time measures are a regular method in usability studies and time limits are frequently announced for simple administrative reasons this might be an important source of error when interpreting the results.

Likewise, social stressors (i.e. the presence of an unknown person observing the participants) had a strong effect on the test persons. Again, supervisors and observers participating in usability tests might have an irritating effect on the test persons and their performance, especially if the presence of observers is not adequately explained and justified.

While stress can be seen as a confounding factor in usability studies, including stressors might also have a beneficial effect. As was already stated in the introduction, some interactive products are typically used in stressful situations (e.g. buying a train ticket at an electronic vending machine while other people are watching and waiting and the train is about to arrive). Assessing the usability of such products in a relaxed atmosphere is likely to produce false results. Likewise, safety-critical systems need to function well in emergency situations. Therefore it should be tested how users perform under stress.

Apart from such special scenarios, our results suggest that stressors should be regularly included in usability testing as a control variable to get a broader and more complete picture of how users interact with a system. This is especially important when conducting usability tests in the lab, where users typically experience a quiet and relaxed atmosphere (cf. Bosenick et al. 2007, Dumas and Loring, 2008, Dumas and Redish, 1999).

Of course, stressors in usability tests should not be used arbitrarily, but rather need to be related to the expected use scenarios. Time constraints, for example, might be especially relevant for all interactive systems used in a work context, since people are usually expected to work fast and efficiently. On the other hand, it might seem odd to impose a time limit when testing a product or system that is primarily intended for private, leisure-time use when people can be expected to be somewhat relaxed. Social pressure, of course, is relevant for all kinds of systems used in public, including public information systems, vending and teller machines, and also mobile devices. Also, people working in open-plan offices or generally with other colleagues or customers around might experience social pressure that should be considered when planning usability tests. Likewise, the occurrence of noise, interruptions and other kinds of disturbances can be derived from use-cases and scenarios.

Furthermore, interindividual differences regarding the level of stress should be considered when trying to assess the effect of stressors on usability tests. While some people might be hardly affected, others experience profound stress and anxiety. Simple and short questionnaires like the one we used in our study can help to judge the impact that such feelings had on test results.

One might argue that our results indicate that we should leave the lab altogether and conduct usability evaluations in the field instead to achieve really meaningful results. Indeed, on-site investigations and observations of actual work processes and user experiences are particularly valuable, especially regarding usability engineering and socio-technical design: When developing or implementing a new system in an organization it is crucial to involve real users in their real environments. Nevertheless, the lab might be preferred in several situations; e.g. in early stages of product design when actual users are not yet available, for test cases where sophisticated observation and recording technologies are desirable, to simulate certain occurrences, or simply because on-site testing is not possible for administrative or other reasons. In these cases inducing stressors in lab tests can enhance results. However, the question of external validity should always be asked when working in the lab.

Of course the deliberate use of stressors raises ethical issues and considerations. We were surprised about the strong effects the stressors used in our study had on the participants. Many of them experienced a substantial amount of stress, anger and frustration. How to handle these feelings, e.g. by clarifying the goals and intentions of the study in a follow-up interview as we did in our study, needs to be carefully planned in advance.

#### REFERENCES

Andrzejczak, C., Liu, D. (2010). The effect of testing

location on usability testing performance, participant stress levels, and subjective testing experience. *Journal of System Software* 83, (7), 1258-1266.

- Ayyagari, R., Grover, V., Purvis, R. (2011). Technostress: technological antecedents and implications. *MIS Quarterly* 35, (4), 831-858.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demandsresources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22 (3), 309-328.
- Bosenick, T., Kehr, S., Kühn, M., Nufer, S. (2007). Remote usability tests: an extension of the usability toolbox for online-shops. In *Proceedings of* UAHCI'07, Berlin: Springer, 392-398.
- Driskell, J., Salas, E. (Eds) (1996). *Stress and human performance*. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dumas, J.S., Loring, B.A. (2008). Moderating Usability Tests: Principles and Practices for Interacting. San Francisco: Morgan Kaufmann.
- Dumas, J.S., Redish, J.C. (1999). A practical guide to usability testing (revised). Willmington: Intellect.
- Faulkner, L. (2003). Beyond the five-user assumption: Benefits of increased sample sizes in usability testing. Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers, 35 (3), 379-383.
- Frese, M., Zapf, D. (1994). Action as the core of work psychology: A German approach. In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 271-340). Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Greifeneder, E. (2011). The impact of distraction in natural environments on user experience research. In *Proceedings of TPDL'11*, Berlin: Springer, 308-315.
- Hassenzahl, M. (2008). The interplay of beauty, goodness, and usability in interactive products. *Human-Computer Interaction* 19, (4), 319-349.
- International Standards Organization (1998): Ergonomic requirements for office work with visual display terminals, part 11 (ISO 9241-11).
- Janssen, P. P. M., Bakker, A. B., De Jong, A. (2001). A test of the demand-control-support model in construction industry. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 8 (4), 315-332.
- Kanner, A.D., Coyne, J.C., Schaefer, C., Lazarus, R.S. (1981). Comparison of two modes of stress measurement: Daily hassles and uplifts versus major life events. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 4, 1-39.
- Laugwitz, B., Held, T., Schrepp, M. (2008). Construction and evaluation of a user experience questionnaire. In *Proceedings of USAB 2008*, Berlin: Springer, 63-76.
- Lin, T., Omata, M., Hu, W., Imamiya, A. (2005). Do physiological data relate to traditional usability indexes?. In *Proceedings of OZCHI '05*, Narrabundah, Australia, 1-10.
- Ogden, J. (2007). *Health Psychology: a textbook* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Reason, J. (1990). *Human Error*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Robertson, D. (2012). Build your Resilience. London: Hodder.

IGY PUBLICATIONS

Shneiderman, B., Plaisant, C., (2010). Designing the user interface. Strategies for effective human-computer interaction. Boston: Addison-Wesley, 5<sup>th</sup> edition.

Sonnentag, S., Frese, M. (2003). Stress in Organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), Handbook of psychology: Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Vol. 12, pp. 453-491). New York: Wiley.

Stickel, C., Scerbakov, A., Kaufmann, T., Ebner, M. (2008). Usability Metrics of Time and Stress -Biological Enhanced Performance Test of a University Wide Learning Management System. In *Proceedings* of USAB '08, Berlin: Springer, 173-184.

AND

INOL

SCIENCE