A Design Framework for Awareness Cues in Distributed Multiplayer Games

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ABSTRACT
In the physical world, teammates develop situation awareness about each other’s location, status, and actions through cues such as gaze direction and ambient noise. To support situation awareness, distributed multiplayer games provide awareness cues—information that games automatically make available to players to support cooperative gameplay. The design of awareness cues can be extremely complex, impacting how players experience games and work with teammates. Despite the importance of awareness cues, designers have little beyond experiential knowledge to guide their design. In this work, we describe a design framework for awareness cues, providing insight into what information they provide, how they communicate this information, and how design choices can impact play experience. Our research, based on a grounded theory analysis of current games, is the first to provide a characterization of awareness cues, providing a palette for game designers to improve design practice and a starting point for deeper research into collaborative play.

ACM Classification Keywords
H.5.m. Information Interfaces and Presentation (e.g. HCI): Miscellaneous

Author Keywords
Awareness cues; situation awareness; workspace awareness; game design; distributed multiplayer games.

INTRODUCTION
Teams working together in the physical world develop situation awareness [13, 14] about teammate location, status, and actions through cues such as body language, gaze direction, and ambient noise [29, 31, 61]. Distributed games help players coordinate by providing awareness cues—information that systems automatically make available to collaborators to support cooperative actions [44]. Distributed games are played together by players on separate devices typically arranged so that players cannot see each others’ screens. Thus, it is primarily through awareness cues that teammates’ status, characteristics, actions, experience, etc. are represented and understood. Because gameworlds, the virtual worlds that players experience as the interface to games [35], are artificial and lack the sensory cues that make coordination as natural as it is in the physical world, awareness cues must be designed to provide the right information at the right time. Game designers have additional latitude to create detailed and complex representations of actions and events that occurred in past, present and future, and are not limited only to approximating cues that exist in the physical world.

Since teammates in distributed games are largely experienced through awareness cues, the principal challenge for game designers is to create tools that will provide the right information at the right time [62]. The design tension is to balance this information with ensuring that the game remains challenging, so giving a player omniscience is undesirable. If a game designer provides too little information, coordination will be cumbersome, awkward, and slow; if they provide too much information, cues could be overwhelming, difficult to learn, and distract from gameplay. On the other hand, some games opt to purposely limit awareness cues to increase uncertainty and realism, and some even provide this as a separate game mode (e.g., Left 4 Dead 2 [LAD2] [G21], Rainbow Six: Siege [G19]). In contrast, other games try to raise the ceiling on performance by providing many rich awareness cues and tools, which can be initially overwhelming and increase the game’s learning curve (e.g., League of Legends (LoL) [G17], Dota 2 [G23]). Despite the importance of awareness cues in distributed games, there is currently little information about what information game designers provide, how it can be provided, and what trade-offs might exist with particular designs.
Using a grounded theory approach, we examined 24 games, selected for maximum variability, from which we identified and analyzed 100 awareness cues. Our research provides a characterization of the range of awareness cues currently in use through game mechanics, interface components, and other information displays. We do this by first articulating the information made available through awareness cues to teammates. Second, we describe the essential design dimensions of awareness cues and how they make teammate information available. Third, we discuss potential consequences for games and play experience when particular design choices are made.

While prior work has considered synchronous verbal communication and cooperative work and helped address several coordination challenges [17, 36]. Players want and need the ability to collaborate and share relevant information to have fun and to succeed [18, 38, 72]. Players want and need the ability to collaborate and share relevant information to have fun and to succeed [17, 36]. Players communicate through many channels: verbally through voice [56] or text chat; or using specialized tools such as virtual gestures, pings, or annotations [60, 70]. Prior research has investigated how such communication channels are used in games [60, 70], how they provide a shared awareness of teammates [8], and what other communication channels exist in cooperative games [60]. However, there is little work investigating how awareness cues that are automatically shared by the game support cooperative play.

Prior Awareness Frameworks
Because of the importance of awareness in remote collaboration, there has been substantial research into frameworks that describe its nature and characteristics [8, 24–27]. For example, studies have investigated team awareness in collaborative environments, including shared workspaces [12, 24, 25, 46], software development teams [26, 54], and gaming [8, 43, 58].

In co-located and distributed collaborative environments, people need to gather information from the environment around them and make sense of it to maintain situation awareness. In these collaborative environments, several tools and widgets are used to help maintain awareness [26]. Research on workspace awareness has proliferated in the field of computer-supported cooperative work and helped address several coordination challenges [24, 26]. This prior research provides insights into how to design tools to support awareness and collaboration.

Gutwin and Greenberg define Workspace Awareness (WA) as the up-to-the-moment understanding of another person’s interaction with the shared workspace [25, p. 412]. They
proposed a framework that provides designers with a common understanding of how to support awareness and foster collaborative activities. The framework is structured around three questions: WHO we are working with; WHAT they are doing; and WHERE they are working. WA supports successful collaboration and helps reduce the effort needed to coordinate tasks and resources. We focus specifically on distributed multiplayer games, which are a form of workspace.

Cheung et al. [8] classified awareness cues in co-located games. Co-location allows players to, for example, look at one another’s screens or overhear one another to gain and maintain awareness. However, this is not possible in distributed games as remote players cannot view others’ displays. Thus, these cues need to be designed specially for remote players in order to provide them with needed awareness information.

**A Framework of Gamespace Awareness**
While the existing WA literature is extensive, Teruel et al. found that gameplay involved a superset of activities from those observed in group work [58]. Seeking to unify WA with observed game activities, including social and group dynamics, they developed the Gamespace Awareness (GA) framework through a thematic analysis of previous workplace awareness research. GA frames existing awareness research in the awareness questions introduced by games and considerably expands on Gutwin’s WA framework. Furthermore, GA includes social and group dynamic awareness (group membership, group awareness, roles and communication awareness) necessary for multiplayer games. We use GA as a reference frame for understanding and classifying awareness cues.

One shortcoming of GA is that it does not specifically identify how awareness can be provided in cooperative games. Therefore, we develop a design framework to describe how to develop cues that encode and represent awareness information.

**METHODOLOGY**
We conducted a grounded theory study of cooperative games to identify and characterize the range of awareness cues currently used in these games. Grounded theory is a set of qualitative practices aimed at exploring and characterizing a new domain by developing a related set of codes from data [21, 22]. It is a common methodology for extracting structured frameworks from video game components and mechanics [60, 68].

In grounded theory, researchers build up codings and characterizations from a series of rounds of data collections and open coding, followed by structuring. The proposed framework was the result of a fairly standard Glaserian approach to grounded theory [20–22]. This is in similar style to previous studies (e.g., [60, 69]). Our process involved three phases, with frequent iterations both within and between phases:

- **Phase 1**: finding and selecting distributed, cooperative games via an iterative inclusion criteria;
- **Phase 2**: initial observations and open coding; and
- **Phase 3**: revising the coding scheme to develop axial codes.

During each phase, the researchers engaged in discussions to explore the relationship between the examples and their codes, the emergent concepts, and the initial awareness cues.

**Phase 1: Finding and Selecting Games**
Our iterative process started with a collection of games researchers were familiar with. However, not all distributed games included awareness cues, so discussion and iteration was required. Games with awareness cues were recorded in a spreadsheet that was updated frequently during discussions. These discussions also resulted in a set of inclusion criteria that were applied to the existing list as well as future additions to determine if games fit the dataset:

- the game must include a cooperative play mode;
- the game must automatically render a player’s state or perception to another cooperating player (i.e., information should come from a teammate not an enemy); and
- the game must be designed for distributed play.

Since our goal was to maximize variability in the set, we excluded new games that were similar to ones in our existing set. Our final data set includes 24 games, drawn from a range of genres, including first-person shooters (FPS), multiplayer online battle arenas (MOBAs), real-time strategy (RTS), and role-playing games (RPGs). Co-located cooperative games were excluded to focus on awareness cues that were designed without any additional local context.

After initial coding (Phase 3) researchers often returned to this phase seeking out specific types of cues that were hypothesized about as potential codes and dimensions emerged. This also resulted in the following natural stop criteria:

- the absence of games that demonstrate new awareness cues
- existing axial codes and design dimensions did not suggest new potential cues that we did not have in our dataset

**Phase 2: Initial Observations and Awareness Information**
As games were added to the dataset, each was evaluated for any awareness cues that it might provide. Data were drawn from personal play experiences and observations of players, both in-person and through gameplay videos from Internet sources (e.g., Let’s Play videos on YouTube and Twitch). As games were added to the dataset, we identified awareness cues and collected the following details: game name, genre, player count, co-op / competitive mode(s), awareness cue description, screenshot, and comments.

For each cue, we identified whether and how each addressed awareness questions, such as: WHO players are playing with, WHAT they are doing, WHERE they are in the gameworld, and HOW these events would occur. As more games were added, we began to see saturation in the dataset: new games were not adding new insights. Consequently, the final dataset contained 100 cues from 24 games. While there are other games that fit the inclusion criteria, we expect there to be substantial overlap.

**Phase 3: Axial coding and design dimension classification**
Through a series of discussions, we iteratively identified potential design dimensions. At each stage, we conceptually decomposed the cues using descriptive labels, and determined their positions on each dimension. We refined these dimensions until we had eliminated redundant dimensions, and the dimensions remained relatively stable as we added new games.
to the set. During this process, we noted any implications and trade-offs we identified based on the awareness interpretations of the cues and their design dimensions.

THE DESIGN FRAMEWORK FOR AWARENESS CUES
Awareness cues encode information that games make available to players to support cooperative gameplay. Awareness cues address individual questions (e.g., WHERE is my teammate? WHAT are they doing?) and are often combined into larger tools and widgets such as character embodiments\(^1\), hit point (HP) bars, usernames, and user icons (Figure 1).

While work has been done to provide a unified \[58\] framing of awareness in games, existing frameworks provide little insight into the design of tools that support awareness. To fill this gap, we present a framework for awareness cues in distributed games. To understand awareness cues and the proposed design framework, we consider two perspectives:

1. what information awareness cues provide; and,
2. the design dimensions behind these awareness cues.

For the former, we consider how cues answer questions related to awareness (e.g., state of my teammates); for the latter, we develop a set of properties that describe interface elements of cues (e.g., animated icons with status information). Our discussion of current awareness tools in games is not exhaustive and should be seen as an exploration of common tools in games and the awareness information they communicate.

The Information Provided by Awareness Cues
Prior research on WA [24] and GA [58] identified four types of information that team members use when collaborating:

- **WHO**? – Presence and identity
- **WHAT**? – Status and tasks and social structure
- **WHERE**? – Location, positioning, and gaze
- **HOW**? – Communicating the way important events occur

In the following sections we use this organizational framework to provide an overview of the awareness information provided by current distributed multiplayer games. For each question, we indicate the range of ways that the information is conveyed, introduce game design factors that relate to that awareness element, and discuss temporal aspects to the questions.

WHO? – **Presence and Identity**
In traditional groupware systems, identity information is relatively static; while team composition may change as people come and go, individual members’ names and capabilities do not. Many distributed multiplayer games are fundamentally different: although players may be continuously present, their embodiment (i.e., their in-game avatar) may go in and out of existence in the game world multiple times during a single play session as they die and respawn. Thus, WHO information is characterized both by identity of the player as well as the avatar the player embodies.

\(^1\)Embodiments are how players exhibit agency in gameworlds (e.g., avatars or cursors) \[2, 53\].

![Figure 1. Two examples of WHO information (among others). A: Diegetic presence and identity information through embodiments in Team Fortress 2 \[G20\]. From the perspective shown, the player can tell what classes teammates are playing, what weapons they are using, and the health of the character in the crosshairs. B: X-ray vision of teammates in Lad2 \[G21\] demonstrates how games solve the problem of obstructed vision of teammate embodiments.](image)

Presence and identity of players is typically shown in non-diegetic displays, such as a list view, which shows the identity of teammates and sometimes also shows information about their embodiments (i.e. dead or alive). Some games show this team list in a fixed location on the interface \[G3, G6, G7, G21\] (as seen at the bottom of Figure 1.B), while others allow this information to be called up on demand (i.e. holding Tab in Overwatch shows Figure 2.B).

A player’s embodiment in the game is the primary way that others perceive the player’s (and the avatar’s) presence. WHO information about presence can be shown diegetically\(^2\) by their existence. Additional information about the character’s abilities and roles is also often shown diegetically (e.g., via the character model or adornments on the avatar). Finally, the player controlling the embodiment is often shown using a text label above the avatar. Since players can change their avatar through a gameplay session, tracking this WHO information is a critical part of successful team coordination.

This embodiment-based display of WHO information can be limited by the player’s field of view, distance, or occlusion. In a departure from the physical world, game designers address this problem in two ways: with markers on or over an embodiment (e.g., Tribes: Ascend \[G13\], Team Fortress 2 \[G20\]), or sometimes by showing outlines of teammates through game-world obstacles (e.g., Figure 1.B).

WHO information can also be found elsewhere in the interface. A radar view that primarily shows locations (as described below) also implicitly indicates which teammates’ embodiments remain in the game. Some games identify fellow teammates using unique icons. We also see authorship awareness in some places. For example, some games show an icon in the interface or above the avatar to indicate who is talking.

WHAT? – **Status, and Tasks & Social Structure**
Status: As with identity, games are typically concerned with the in-game embodiment’s status, rather than that of the player.

\(^2\)“The narrative presented by a cinematographic film or literary work; the fictional time, place, characters, and events which constitute the universe of the narrative.” \[45\].

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\(^1\)Embody
Embodiments in games have several attributes that vary during a game (e.g., HP, powers, equipment), and these elements are often part of a game’s awareness displays.

Many games present multiple pieces of status information as augmentations around or above a player’s avatar. For example, Realm of the Mad God (RotMG) [G24] displays an HP bar below embodiments, a line of icons indicating positive or negative effects currently in place for the embodiment (e.g., powerups, detriments), and numbers showing the rate of HP and mana regeneration (Figure 3.D). Although previous work has shown that people are able to interpret a large number of these augmentations [53], RotMG is a good example of how visual effects can quickly clutter the display when there are many embodiments in view.

Status information can also be conveyed through automatic chat messages. For example, when an Overwatch embodiment reaches a critical health level and the player requests healing by pressing a button, a “Critical Health!” phrase is automatically added to the usual “I need healing!” chat message. We consider this an awareness cue as it automatically supplies extra information about this teammate to another player.

Some status information is also presented about the players. Nickname display is shown in most games and is often part of the avatar or player-list augmentation (e.g., Figures 1.A; 3.C; 3.D); player experience is less common, but is important in some games because experience level determines how players will form their strategy. One example of this is the “level borders” decoration in the Overwatch [G6] player list: as players demonstrate skill, their portrait is given additional levels of decoration (e.g., Figure 2.B).

Tasks and social structure: Maintaining awareness of other players’ actions, activities, and intentions is a critical part of successful teamwork. Much has been written in CSCW about how coordination depends on an understanding of what others are doing—for example, the idea of social protocols that act as access-control mechanisms over shared resources [23]. Information about what others are doing can include a character’s low-level activity (e.g., their movements and detailed actions), their higher-level activity (e.g., the task they have taken on in the game), or their plans for the future (e.g., a division of labor for a future group activity). Given the importance of this type of awareness information, and the many examples of augmentations and external widgets for showing other kinds of awareness, it is somewhat surprising to see how reliant games are on in-view representations of activity, and voice communication [56, 67]. That is, the primary vehicles for conveying information about what a person is doing are in the embodiment itself, and through the player’s spoken messages.

There is, of course, much that can be conveyed about activity through an embodiment—for example, where an embodiment is (and where they are going) in the gameworld gives strong clues as to a player’s destination and task (particularly in games that are oriented around location-based objectives); similarly, what equipment they are holding (e.g., a sniper rifle) and what they are doing with that equipment (e.g., shooting) clearly shows their current activity. In addition, many games’ visual representations of embodiment actions and equipment are often highly recognizable—for example, the weapons used in Team Fortress 2 [G20] are large and visually obvious (Figure 1.A); similarly, many actions have characteristic visual effects, such as a smoke trail from firing a rocket, or a particle effect from casting a spell (Figure 2.A). However, relying on embodiments to convey awareness information has the limitation that characters must be in view. Additionally, some games provide an awareness of the capabilities of teammates. For example, in Dota 2 [G23] players can see detailed information regarding the spells and abilities of their teammates.

Some games provide a kind of automatic commentary in the team chat channel that provides information about others’ activities. For example, many games produce text or voice notifications when teammates have reached a new level of achievement (e.g., “NickFury8 is on a scoring streak!” or “NickFury8 has levelled up!”) [G14, G17, G23]. However, the automatic display of information about activities, tasks, and future plans is still limited, which means that many games must rely on players talking to each other through verbal channels (voice or chat) about what they are doing. It may be that planning and executing coordinated group strategies in games are complicated enough that automatic displays cannot provide enough information, and so human communication is necessary. This is an area where experienced teams rely on practice and prior planning—that is, if a team already knows what to do when executing a group action (because they have practiced it many times), people are much less dependent on up-to-the-moment displays of others’ activities. Such a change represents a shift toward implicit coordination [15, 16, 63].

Where – Location, Positioning and Gaze

Conveying other players’ locations in the gameworld is primarily accomplished in one of three ways: first, within the field of view of the player; second, through radar (or bird’s eye)
views; and, third, through abstract widgets such as icons on a compass. For example, in *PlayerUnknown’s Battlegrounds* [G7] players can see map markers for their teammates in a compass at the top of the screen (see Figure 5.C).

Some games make a considerable effort to increase the visibility of location information—for instance, by highlighting or outlining embodiments so they are visible through obstructions (e.g., Figure 1.B), or by simply indicating their location via icons when a straight view of them is impossible. Additionally games may display icons on the edge of the screen when the other players’ embodiments are outside of one’s viewport. Beyond this, some games append distance information about other players next to the icons or names. Another common widget used in multiplayer games represents an abstract “birds eye view” of the environment in which other players’ embodiments are represented by icons or glyphs.

**Temporal Component: Past, Present, and Future Awareness**

Situation awareness requires the integration of past and present events in order to predict future events [13, 14]; thus, it is necessary to maintain an awareness of all three temporal states (past, present, and future). Indeed, all of the awareness elements discussed above have temporal components.

Historical traces and change awareness have been explored in other areas for many years (e.g., [1, 30, 55]). Some games represent the past through persistence of changes to the gameworld. This is integral to construction-based games like *Minecraft* [40] (where the purpose of the game is to change the world), but has also been used in other game genres such as shooters, many of which make certain effects of acting in the world persistent (e.g., in the *Halo* series [G8], bullets create holes in walls and battle traces such as blood spatters persist for several minutes). These persistent visuals can be used by other players to determine what has occurred in a particular location (and can also be repurposed as an emergent CCM—such as firing a bullet to mark a particular location).

Second, several games provide indications of future activity, including displays such as effect timers and spawn timers. For example, *Dota2* [G23] shows “stun bars” that indicate the time when a stun effect will wear off (Figure 3.A); several other games use similar spawn timers (both for teammates and monsters) and almost all player-versus-player games inform the team of how long a teammate will be dead before respawning.

Third, games often provide automatic chat messages that provide information about past and future events. Kill feeds are nearly ubiquitous in player-versus-player games (Figure 3.C) as are voice prompts and/or head-up display (HUD) messages reporting on the state of the current match (e.g., “Only 15 kills remaining!” [G6] as a team nears a quota to win).

### Design of Awareness Cues

After a designer decides what awareness information to include, they must decide how that information should be represented. Above, we presented what information games share in order to support situation awareness, with examples. Awareness tools and widgets are often made up of several awareness cues working together or providing complementary information. For example, Figure 3.A shows how multiple cues can be combined. In this case it consists of text, a progress bar, an embodiment animation and an icon animation.

Rather than exhaustively list individual awareness cues and relate them to widgets, our analysis instead allows us to characterize the design space of awareness cues. This presentation allows game designers to better understand and differentiate awareness cues, and to identify how different decisions in the

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3 Radar views show the relative locations of cooperating players (and, usually, enemies). Some are combined with a mini-map showing topology and/or points of interest.

4 The HUD is an information overlay through which the player experiences the game.
We identified two sets of decisions that must be made when information is represented as a cue. First, awareness information must be **encoded** (i.e., decisions must be made about how the cue can be represented). Second, decisions must be made about how a cue can be **composed** (i.e., how individual cues are combined, displayed and accessed).

**Cue Encoding**

Cue encoding refers to how game designers represent awareness information to be accessed by a player. Our analysis resulted in three decision points in that must be made to encode awareness information as a specific representation, and five further properties of cue composition. Figure 4 displays a thematic tree connected to specific exemplar data points. Also, Table 1 provides illustrative examples from our figures described by their **cue encodings**.

**Modalities:** refers to the two main sensory channels through which players can receive cue information: **visual** and **auditory**. Many designers (and HCI researchers) are likely familiar with the notion of representing information visually; however, we also found many uses of auditory cues that may be somewhat less familiar (see Figure 4). Visual and auditory cues are often used together and are often so tightly coupled that they might be considered a single cue. It should be noted that while it may also be possible to use haptics to encode awareness information (e.g., a vibrating controller to denote when a player bumps you), we did not encounter any instances.

**Consistency:** refers to whether a visual cue changes or not. Visual cues can be **static** or **dynamic** cues. Static cues do not change during a game session. For example, a player’s username would usually be static throughout a match. Dynamic cues change during the course of gameplay. For example, it is common for HP bars to increase and decrease depending on in-game events. Auditory cues by their nature are dynamic, in that they have a short duration; their pitches and envelopes are modulated to encode information (as described below).

**Representation:** refers to the specific design that encodes awareness information. Similar to information visualization problems designers are presented with a variety of channels that can encode and communicate different types of data. While there are potentially other possible encodings, Figure 4 contains the specific representation found through our analysis.

While some representations are straightforward and familiar, (e.g., **color**, **text**, **icons**), others warrant further explanation. **Avatar** cues refer to a player’s in-game embodiment. For example, an animation showing an embodiment reloading her weapon. **Glyphs** refer to specifically designed visual representations. For example, a triangular wedge glyph on a mini-map is a frequent representation of the location and the direction that players are facing. **Charts** are most frequently seen as simple bar charts to represent health. **Borders** are graphics surrounding other icons, glyphs or avatars. They often represent a secondary attribute of the thing they surround.

While speech and ambient audio cues are straightforward, audio icons and earcons require more explanation. **Audio icons** are short sounds that correspond directly to an action or
event [4, 5] (e.g., a teammate moving close by is represented by a unique character-specific footstep sound in *Overwatch* [G6]). *Earcons* are abstract sounds whose characteristics are varied corresponding to the underlying data they represent, so they can be used to build complex notifications [4, 5]. Learning to identify and make effective use of audio representations is challenging, but useful, for players [34].

**Cue Composition**

While cue encoding (described above) concerns itself with the auditory and visual representations of awareness information, cue composition describes how the cues fit into the game experience. It should be noted that some encoding combinations and compositions are unlikely or impossible. A non-diegetic, dynamic avatar awareness cue makes little sense. For example, it is unclear how (or why) one would make a game embodiment move without it being considered part of the embodiment’s narrative experience of the gameworld.

**Cue Accessor:** refers to the means by which a player can access an awareness cue. Cues can be either *push* or *pull*. *Pull* cues refer to cues that are not initially available, but can be made visible or triggered through some input action by a player (e.g., players view the *Overwatch* [G6] scoreboard, Figure 2.B, by holding the TAB key). By using *pull* accessors, designers can enable access to a large amount of information that would not be otherwise feasible to display.

*Push* cues are information that is provided without player input. Here designers must balance the needs of players. Information that players must be aware of constantly or that has important time constraints may best be *pushed* to players, while information that is less critical can be *pulled*. Oftentimes games combine cues that *push* coarse information and allow more fine-grained details to be *pulled* through interaction (e.g., seeing a player’s character name over their avatar, mousing over it provides more detailed status). *Pushed* awareness cues are very common, and include passive displays such as HP bars, usernames, or the avatars themselves.

**Cue Context:** refers to the time at which a cue is visible or available, and its duration. For many sufficiently complex games making all information available at all times would be overwhelming and provide little utility. Designers typically limit cue availability, allowing only certain cues to persist for the entire game, while other cues are made available based on particular events occurring. Cues that are *global* are available at all times; these cues tend to persist and can be accessed at all times. *Global* cues typically contain information that needs to be frequently accessed, or critical information that could be needed at any time (e.g., HP bars, team lists).

*Situational* cues provide information after certain events, because it is superfluous (and even distracting) until those events occur. Typically, situational cues are ephemeral and only persist while the information is relevant. For example, stun animations in *Dota 2* [G23] are situational as they are only shown when a teammate is in a stunned state (Figure 3.A).

**Cue Diegesis:** describes how the awareness cue relates to the narrative gameworld [32]. If an awareness cue is perceivable by in-game characters (as if the embodiment were a living entity in the gameworld) it is *diegetic*. If the cue is instead part of the interface or non-visible to the characters, then it is *non-diegetic*. A common example of diegetic cues are speech audio uttered by an in-game character (e.g., in *LAD2* [G21], characters automatically announce to teammates when they find a stash of ammo: “Ammo Here!”). However, cues that are placed in the environment (i.e., attached to an in-game object; see Cue Attachment below) are not necessarily diegetic (e.g., a stun bar in *Dota 2* [G23] is placed over the head of an avatar but is not perceivable by characters). Using diegetic cues can increase the feel of realism in a game, but a cue must make sense within the theme and narrative of the game.

**Cue Interdependence:** describes the relationships that individual cues can have. *Solitary* cues exist independently of other cues, providing a sole source of information. For example, HP bars provide information on their own. However, individual cues are often combined making them *additive* cues. Figure 5.D shows the “On Fire” border around the identity avatar of the player in *Overwatch*. This cue would not make much sense without the identity cue it surrounds.

Cues frequently provide important information and aid in the interpretation of another related cue. For example, Figure 5.B shows how a numeric representation of a player’s HP enhances the already-present HP bar below it. Individual cues that provide redundant information are considered additive, since this dual representation of the information frequently changes the nature of the cue (for example, by making the awareness information more salient).

**Cue Attachment:** refers to the placement of cues relative to the interface: they may either be connected to the HUD (so, relative to the screen) or embedded in the gameworld through environmental cues. Environmental cues can make critical information fast and easy to access (especially in time-sensitive situations; e.g., HP bars during a team fight). However, cue placement must be done carefully, while players can learn to recognize and understand a larger number of cues attached to in-game objects or characters, these can become distracting and can be overwhelming for novices [2, 53].
Designers often leverage the HUD as a means to offload some of this information. HUD cues are a part of the interface and are typically in a fixed location. Diegetic cues may appear in the HUD or the environment [32]. Diegetic HUDs will only appear when the player’s embodiment in the gameworld would have the same experience (common in FPS games where embodiments can wear head-mounted displays).

**DISCUSSION**

Our framework provides a toolbox for game designers to tackle common awareness challenges in multiplayer games. In this section we discuss the implications of the design framework for several design tensions faced by game designers: fun vs. challenge, novices vs. experts, and streamers vs. their audiences. Further, we discuss these implications in relation to game designers and games researchers.

**User Characteristics**

Players and viewers (collectively users) bring different concerns for the game designer. We describe how these characteristics impact and are impacted by awareness cue design.

**Novices and Experts**

A hallmark of experts in a domain is “chunking,” the ability to recognize underlying patterns in an apparently chaotic situation [6]. Complex awareness cues that are impenetrable to novices can be not only interpreted by experts, but interpreted quickly and efficiently. Novices, on the other hand, may be aware of the cue but not able to interpret its meaning; they may get little practice with situational cues that arise infrequently, and they may not realize that they can activate cues accessed through a pull accessor. Designers must consider how to train novices in the effective use of awareness cues and scaffold their transition to expertise.

**Viewers as Stakeholders**

Many players learn to play new games by watching videos and live streams [7, 50]. However, other viewers in the same audience may already be experts. In designing cues, designers must therefore consider how they can be interpreted by game viewers at varying levels of expertise as well as by players. Since viewers cannot control where the player is looking or what cues they choose to display, environmental and pull cues may introduce particular challenges for streaming gameplay. At the same time, cue designs that make for good viewing are not necessarily the ones that make for high-quality play.

**Game Literacy**

Games within a genre often share conventions for conveying information, such as HP bars. Understanding and reproducing these conventions is part of what it means to be literate in games [52]. However, these conventional/generic design patterns may or may not serve the designer’s goal for a specific game. Our framework allows designers to analyze and characterize existing patterns of awareness cues, and to identify the most productive axes along which to diverge from a conventional approach.

**Cue Modality**

Our framework enumerates different representations of awareness cues, such as visual, auditory, and haptic. Game designers must choose not only in which modality to provide awareness cues, but also how many. Providing cues in all available channels can accommodate the broadest range of play styles, such as players who prefer to play with the sound off or who do not have haptic controllers. However, information provided across multiple modalities can generate unnecessary cognitive load, at the same time, and requiring players to customize the modality in which they access awareness cues could be overwhelming and frustrating unless it is carefully designed [41, 48].

**Tolerance for Uncertainty**

One function of awareness cues is to manage the level of uncertainty in the game by making certain information salient or showing the player that there is information they don’t know [10, 59]. However, different people have different levels of tolerance for uncertainty [33]. A level of uncertainty that is satisfying for one player may be anxiety-provoking for another. Designers must consider whether their awareness cues are useful or frustrating for players.

**Player Goals and Motivation**

Research on player motivation shows that different players in the same game may have different goals and find different activities satisfying (e.g. [47, 71]). Players may also play for a range of social reasons, such as connecting to real-world or online friends, retaining an online streaming audience, or practicing for professional competition. Awareness cues that address some players’ goals may interfere with or even demotivate others. However, unlike with game roles, it is difficult to identify a given player’s motivation—particularly as players may play the same game for different reasons on different days. Finally, players’ goals may sometimes be transgressive or anti-social [9]. These motivational differences should be taken into account when designing awareness cues.

**Adapting the Play Experience**

Awareness cues are a key consideration in how players approach the play experience, heavily influencing how difficult a game is. Players may deactivate or add awareness cues to their game clients to change the experience.

**Adjusting Difficulty**

Many games can be played at different levels of difficulty, whether manually adjusted by the player or automatically by the game [51]. Awareness cues are one method for performing difficulty adjustments. For example, many FPS games contain “hard-core” modes in which the amount of awareness information is decreased. Our framework allows designers to articulate the dimensions of the awareness cues that can be manipulated to adjust game difficulty, and to define and study which dimensions they expect to have the highest impact.

**Interface and Awareness Mods**

Players often customize their user interface experience in games using modifications, or mods [57]. For example, many World of Warcraft [G3] mods take diegetic game information and convert it to a non-diegetic form, while simultaneously taking environmental information and placing it in a HUD. These choices help players perform their in-game roles more effectively. Designers must therefore consider not only how their awareness cues are designed, but what data they are exposing.
for players to design their own cues with. Player-generated awareness cues are designed by players to serve player goals, and can therefore serve as implicit sources of data about what player needs are not being met by the designers’ choices.

Asymmetric Gameplay
In asymmetric games, different players take on different game roles or capacities [11, 28]. For example, in many games players can serve as tank, DPS, or healer [69]. A given piece of information may be much more valuable to the player of one role than another, such as which enemy is doing the most damage or which ally has the lowest health. Designing cues targeted at the responsibilities a given player faces can decrease the amount of clutter and increase the amount of relevant awareness information available. Since the amount of relevant information available to players impacts their chances of success [66] awareness cues must take game roles into account; different player roles may need the same awareness cues expressed differently, or need different cues entirely.

Implications for Game Designers
We demonstrate that our awareness framework ties to awareness-related problems that game designers already face, such as supporting new players and designing for uncertainty. Our framework allows designers to describe their existing problems more effectively, and see how these problems relate to one another. This can help game designers identify design tradeoffs and how they might affect different stakeholders.

Our framework can also help designers iterate and identify design directions that they might otherwise not consider. Using concepts from our framework, they can more carefully articulate the underlying rather than only the apparent differences between alternative implementations of awareness cues. Consideration of awareness cue design can be incorporated into existing ideation or production methods.

Implications for Researchers
Our work has implications for researchers who want to use games as settings in which to study team coordination or other issues related to awareness. First, our framework can help researchers select appropriate games to use as probes or in studies by providing a way to articulate the awareness cues featured in the game. Second, our work can also inform the design of experimental materials for the study of awareness in games or other CSCW software.

Because we propose a common language for describing awareness cues, we can now articulate differences and similarities between studies allowing us to more effectively survey and combine knowledge from different sources.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK
In this paper we have provided a framework for awareness cues in distributed multiplayer games. In order to effectively collaborate during gameplay, players need information about teammates’ identity, location, activities, status, and more. The amount of team awareness information available to players influences the difficulty of coordination and, therefore, play. This means that design choices regarding what, when, and how awareness information is made available directly influence the way players experience the game.

We see this paper as setting out a research agenda for awareness cues in distributed multiplayer games, improving the relevance of our work to both designers and researchers.

First, existing team awareness cues build on common design patterns, both within a particular game genre and across different genres. From this basic language for awareness cues, we can begin to describe the existing set of design patterns for awareness cues that already exist. Game design patterns are useful to facilitate and analyze designs [3], and can also be used to identify negative space in a design space: places where patterns ought to exist but do not. Game design patterns can therefore improve existing distributed awareness cues as well as driving discovery of new patterns and designs.

We can use these patterns to analyze, improve, and push forward specific aspects of games. One clear axis is looking at different categories of games—either looking at specific genres such as MOBAs, or looking at games that share common features, such as turn-based play. Another direction is to compare different categories of players, for example understanding what awareness cues are associated with different player roles or how they are deployed differently for experts and novices. Finally, we can look at different types of information, such as how nominal versus continuous information is deployed.

Second, we can extend our framework beyond team awareness. When players make decisions, they need to understand their teammates, but, their decisions also incorporate information about themselves, their adversaries, the environment, non-player characters (NPCs) and the game system.

Finally, we expect to bring this work full circle, by applying these insights in other types of distributed workspaces. Specifically, we expect fast-response organizations, like disaster responders, to benefit from this work. Further, we expect other types of groupware (e.g., distributed document editing) can use our work to identify new awareness cues.

The present research contributes to our knowledge of how team members work together, and how teamwork can be supported. We expect our framework to be of value to game designers and researchers, and hope that, through this work, we discover new ways to support team coordination.

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**LUDOGRAPHY**


