

CD Crea	tion Process - Untitled Recording Phase CD created successfully.	
	OK Details >> Source: UI Hall of Shame CD Creation Process - Untitled	
	Recording Phase Errors reported by output device	
	DK View errors Details >>	
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Our Hall of Shame candidate for the day is this dialog box from Adaptec Easy CD Creator, which appears at the end of burning a CD. The top image shows the dialog when the CD was burned successfully; the bottom image shows what it looks like when there was an error.

The key problem is the **lack of contrast** between these two states. Success or failure of CD burning is important enough to the user that it should be obvious at a glance. But these two dialogs look identical at a glance. How can we tell? Use the **squint test**, which we talked about in the graphic design lecture. When you're squinting, you see some labels, a big filled progress bar, a roundish icon with a blob of red, and three buttons. All the details, particularly the text of the messages and the exact shapes of the red blob, are fuzzed out. This simulates what a user would see at a quick glance, and it shows that the graphic design doesn't convey the contrast.

One improvement would change the check mark to another color, say green or black. Using red for OK seems **inconsistent** with the real world, anyway. But designs that differ only in red and green wouldn't pass the squint test for color-blind users.

Another improvement might remove the completed progress bar from the error dialog, perhaps replacing it with a big white text box containing a more detailed description of the problem. That would clearly pass the squint test, and make errors much more noticeable.



Our second Hall of Shame candidate for the day is this interface for choosing how a list of database records should be sorted. Like other sorting interfaces, this one allows the user to select more than one field to sort on, so that if two records are equal on the primary sort key, they are next compared by the secondary sort key, and so on.

On the plus side, this interface communicates one aspect of its model very well. Each column is a set of radio buttons, clearly grouped together (both by **gestalt proximity** and by an explicit raised border). Radio buttons have the property that only one can be selected at a time. So the interface has a clear **affordance** for picking only one field for each sort key.

But, on the down side, the radio buttons don't afford making NO choice. What if I want to sort by only one key? I have to resort to a trick, like setting all three sort keys to the same field. The interface model clearly doesn't map correctly to the task it's intended to perform. In fact, unlike typical model mismatch problems, both the user and the system have to adjust to this silly interface model – the user by selecting the same field more than once, and the system by detecting redundant selections in order to avoid doing unnecessary sorts.

The interface also fails on **minimalist** design grounds. It wastes a huge amount of screen real estate on a two-dimensional matrix, which doesn't convey enough information to merit the cost. The column labels are similarly redundant; "sort option" could be factored out to a higher level heading. The term "Primary" is not really consistent with "Second" and "Third"; "First" would be simpler.





Widgets are the last part of user interface implementation techniques that we'll look at. Widgets are a success story for user interface software, and for object-oriented programming in general. Many GUI applications derive substantial reuse from widgets in a toolkit.

Widgets generally combine a view and a controller into a single tightly-coupled object. For the widget's model, however, there are two common approaches. One is to fuse the model into the widget as well, making it a little MVC complex. With this embedded model approach, application data must be copied into the widget to initialize it. When the user interacts with the widget, the user's changes or selections must be copied back out.

The other alternative is to leave the model separate from the widget, with a well-defined interface that the application can implement.

Embedded models are usually easier for the developer to understand and use for simple interfaces, but suffer from serious scaling problems. For example, suppose you want to use a table widget to show the contents of a database. If the table widget had an embedded model, you would have to fetch the entire database and load it into the table widget, which may be prohibitively slow and memory-intensive. Furthermore, most of this is wasted work, since the user can only see a few rows of the table at a time. With a well-designed linked model, the table widget will only request as much of the data as it needs to display.

The linked model idea is also called data binding.



Widget reuse is beneficial in two ways, actually. First are the conventional software engineering benefits of reusing code, like shorter development time and greater reliability. A widget encapsulates a lot of effort that somebody else has already put in.

Second are usability benefits. Widget reuse increases consistency among the applications on a platform. It also (potentially) represents *usability* effort that its designers have put into it. A scrollbar's affordances and behavior have been carefully designed, and hopefully evaluated. By reusing the scrollbar widget, you don't have to do that work yourself.

One problem with widgets is that they constrain your thinking. If you try to design an interface using a GUI builder – with a palette limited to standard widgets – you may produce a clunkier, more complex interface than you would if you sat down with paper and pencil and allowed yourself to think freely. A related problem is that most widget sets consist mostly of form-style widgets: text fields, labels, checkboxes – which leads a designer to think in terms of menu/form style interfaces. There are few widgets that support direct visual representations of application objects, because those representations are so application-dependent. So if you think too much in terms of widgets, you may miss the possibilities of direct manipulation.

Finally, widgets can be abused, applied to UI problems for which they aren't suited. We saw an example in Lecture 1 where a scrollbar was used for selection, rather than scrolling.

A great book with tips about how to use common widgets is *GUI Bloopers: Don'ts and Dos for Software Developers and Web Designers*, by Jeff Johnson (Morgan Kaufmann, 2000).



Let's look at some of the ways widgets can be used to solve common interface problems. We'll start by considering **choices**: asking the user to choose from a set of fixed options.

Suppose we're designing the interface for an on-campus sandwich delivery service, and we want to ask what kind of bread the user wants: white, wheat, or rye. This is a **1-of-N choice**, where in this case N=3. Here are the various ways to do it with familiar widgets:

Radio buttons are named after the station preset buttons in old car radios. Pushing one button in popped out all the others, using a mechanical linkage. (Radio buttons are sometimes called option buttons.) Radio buttons are the conventional idiom for making 1-of-N selections. They're fast (all the choices are visible and only one point-and-click makes the choice), but use a lot of screen real estate as N gets large. If we wanted to ask which MIT building the sandwich should be delivered to, we probably wouldn't want to use radio buttons – N is too big.

Toggle buttons look like ordinary buttons, but if you push them, they toggle back and forth between depressed and undepressed states. In Java, you can get a set of toggle buttons to behave like radio buttons just by adding them to a ButtonGroup. Toggle buttons can offer larger targets than radio buttons (Fitts's Law), or tiny targets if screen real estate is at a premium (using icons instead of text labels). Toggle buttons are often used for mode switches, or for 1-of-N choices in toolbars.

A **drop-down menu** shows the current selection, with an arrow next to it for pulling down the list of N choices to choose from. A **single-selection listbox** is a static version of the same thing, where the list of N choices is always visible, and the chosen item is indicated by a highlight. Drop-down menus are very compact, but require two pointing operations (point and click to open the list, then point to the new choice), and possibly scrolling if it's a long list. Drop-down menus and listboxes often support keyboard access, however – you can type the first character (or even a prefix) of your choice, and it will jump to it.

All these widgets are useful for 1-of-N choices, but one problem in many toolkits is that they have radically different APIs – so once you've decided on a widget, changing that decision might affect all the code that interacts with it. In Java, for example, even similar widgets like JList (for single-selection listboxes) and JComboBox (for drop-down menus) have completely different interfaces for providing the list of choices and getting and setting the selected item. HTML is a little better -- the <select> element can generate either a drop-down menu or a listbox using the same code (although web browsers conventionally *only* give you a drop-down menu for a 1-of-N choice, reserving listboxes for K-of-N choices). But if you want N radio buttons instead, you have to radically change your HTML, into N <input type=radio> elements.

Avoid using N checkboxes for 1-of-N choices. Radiobuttons are a visually distinct widget that clearly communicates that the choices are exclusive (i.e., that you can only select one at a time). Checkboxes fail to convey this – so that few people probably realize that the Superscript and Subscript checkboxes in the typical font dialogs are actually exclusive options.



For the special case where N=2, you can also use a single **checkbox** or **toggle button**. Only do this if it's a boolean choice, where the alternative (when the checkbox is unchecked or the toggle button is undepressed) is actually a *negation*. The checkboxes on the bottom show some of the nasty ambiguities that can result.

One mistake often seen here is using an ordinary push button for a 1-of-2 choice, where the *label* of the button is changed when the user pushes it. This raises serious confusion about what the label means: is it the *current state* (am I getting a sandwich right now), or the *future state* (should I push this button to get a sandwich)? Even worse would be using this kind of idiom for a 1-of-N choice, where clicking the button cycles through all the choices. There's no excuse for that kind of interface, given the rich set of widgets available for these kinds of choices.



Here are widgets commonly used for choose any number of items from a set of N fixed choices.

Checkboxes are a natural way to do this.

A multiple-selection listbox is another way to do it. (Most listbox widgets have a property you can set that determines whether it should support multiple selection or not.) This approach has a few problems. First is learnability -- the conventions for multiple selection (click to clear and make one selection, control-click to toggle additional selections, shift-click to select a range) aren't visible or known to all users. Another is errors -- the selection is very fragile. One accidental click can clear a carefully-created selection, and recovering from the error may take a lot of work if the list of choices is long.

Two listboxes are still another way: one listbox for the K selected choices, the other listing all N. It uses lots of screen real estate (more than twice as much as a single listbox), may be slower to use (hopping between listboxes and buttons, although often this idiom allows double-clicking to move an item to the other listbox), but on the plus side, it's far less fragile than multiple selection, and the K choices you've made are clearly visible, rather than being distributed throughout the N items. Here's a design question: when the user moves an item over to the K list, should it disappear from the N list? Maybe not disappear, since that would remove visual search landmarks from the N list; but some indication in the N list of which items have already been selected would improve the visibility of system status and reduce errors (like selecting the same item again).

Alas, no toolkit provides a double-listbox like this as a built-in widget, so you generally have to roll your own.



Many widgets are available for commands.

It's a good idea to put the same command in multiple widgets (menubar item, toolbar item, context menu, keyboard shortcut). But it's not a good idea to put it in different *menus* in the menubar, or to use several different *labels* for the same command, because of consistency.

In most toolkits, the command widgets (unlike the choice widgets) actually have a similar API, so you can easily use multiple different widgets for the same application command. In Swing, this interface is the Action interface, and it represents (among other things) an event handler that actually performs the command, descriptions of the command (like an icon, a label, and a tooltip), and a boolean flag that indicates whether the command is currently enabled or disabled. Using Actions allows you to disable all the widgets that might invoke the command with a single line of code.

In general, don't *remove* command widgets that can't be used at the moment from the UI; just *disable* them. Removing the widgets slows down visual search, because the user might be relying on them as landmarks; it also reduces visibility, since the user can't tell the difference between a command that doesn't exist in the application and one that just isn't available right now.



Most toolkits also have widgets for organizing other widgets and navigating through the organization.

A common problem is grouping an interface into N pages that can be viewed one at a time. **Tabbed panes** are a well-understood idiom for this problem; we've seen in an earlier Hall of Shame, however, that tabs don't scale well, and are largely limited to the number of tabs you can fit into one row. A more scalable solution is a table of contents **listbox** whose single-selection controls which page is visible.

An application window may have several content panes, often separated by **splitters** that allow the user to adjust the share of screen real estate given to each pane. Mail clients like Outlook or Thunderbird, for example, have one pane for the folder list, another for a message list, and another for the current message. One design issue to pay attention to **keyboard focus** and **selection**. Make sure that the pane with the keyboard focus displays its selection in a way that is visually distinguishable from selections in the other panes. Otherwise, actions like Copy, Paste, or Delete become ambiguous – leading to mode errors.

Content that's too large to fit in the window will require scrollbars – and **scrollpane** widgets fortunately make this easy to handle. Be aware that horizontal scrolling is harder than vertical scrolling, first because mouse scroll wheels don't optimize for it (since vertical scrolling is far more common), and second because reading text with a horizontal scrollbar requires scraping the scrollbar back and forth. If you have a choice, organize your UI for vertical scrolling only.

Nested scrollpanes are also problematic – a scrollpane inside another scrollpane -- because the inner scrollbar *can't* bring the inner content fully into view. Text areas and listboxes are often nested inside scrollpanes (like, say, a web browser), and the result may look something like this. Avoid it when possible.



Finally, most toolkits provide widgets for creating dialogs - temporary or long-term satellite windows.

Modal dialog boxes are the most common kind of dialog box. They're called *modal* because the application enters a mode in which the only legal actions are interactions with the dialog box – you can't use any other part of the application. On Windows, you can't even *move* the other windows of the application!

The reason is that modal dialog boxes are often implemented on Windows by entering a *new* event loop, which can only handle events for the dialog box; all events for the main window, including the move-window events that the Windows window manager sends it when the user drags the title bar, are simply queued up waiting for the second event loop to return.

This behavior, incidentally, makes modal dialog boxes trivial to use for an application programmer, even when you're writing single-threaded code: you can just call the dialog box as if it were a function, and the whole application stops responding until the user fills it out and dismisses it. It's like a throwback to synchronous I/O programming: the program pops up a prompt (the dialog box) and waits for the user to answer it, with no other user actions allowed.

Modal dialogs do have some usability advantages, such as error prevention (the modal dialog is always on top, so it can't get lost or be ignored, and the user can't accidentally change the selection in the main window while working on a modal dialog that affects that selection) and dialog closure. But there are usability disadvantages too, chief among them loss of user control, reduced visibility (e.g., you can't see important information or previews in the main window), and failures in task analysis might bite you hard (e.g., forcing the user to remember information from one modal dialog to another, rather than viewing both side-by-side).

On Windows, modal dialogs are generally *application-modal* – all windows in the application stop responding until the dialog is dismissed. (The old days of GUIs also had *system-modal* dialogs, which suspended *all* applications.) Mac OS X has a neat improvement, *window-modal* dialogs, which are displayed as translucent sheets attached to the titlebar of the blocked window. This tightly associates the dialog with its window, gives a little visibility of what's underneath it in the main window – and allows you to interact with other windows, even if they're from the same application.

Modeless dialogs don't prevent using other windows. They're often used for ongoing interactions with the main window, like Find/Replace. One problem is that a modeless dialog box can get in the way of viewing or interacting with the main window (as when a Find/Replace dialog covers up the match). Another problem is that there's often no strong visual distinction between a modal dialog and a modeless dialog; sometimes the presence of a Minimize button is a clue, but it's not very strong. (This is another advantage of Mac sheets – the modal sheet is easy to distinguish from a modeless window.)

A modeless dialog may be better represented as a **sidebar**, a temporary pane in the main window that's anchored to one side of the window. Then it can't obscure the user's work, can't get lost, and is clearly visually different from a modal dialog box. The screenshots here show the Find Files sidebar in Windows Explorer, and the Find pane (actually anchored to the bottom of the window, not the side) in Firefox.



By now, we've looked at all the basic pieces of a user interface toolkit: widgets, view hierarchy, stroke drawing, and input handling. Every modern GUI toolkit provides these pieces in some form. Microsoft Windows, for example, has widgets (e.g., buttons, menus, text boxes), a view hierarchy (consisting of *windows* and *child windows*), a stroke drawing package (GDI), pixel representations (called bitmaps), and input handling (messages sent to a *window procedure*).

Toolkit Exa	Toolkit Examples						
components	<u>Win32</u> windows	<u>Java Swing</u> JComponents	HTML elements				
strokes	GDI	Graphics	<canvas></canvas>				
pixels	bitmaps	Image					
input	messages window proc	listeners	Javascript event handlers				
widgets	button, menu, textbox,	JButton, JMenu, JTextField,	<button>, <input/>,</button>				
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Here's a comparison of three UI toolkits: low-level Microsoft Windows (which few people program in anymore); Java Swing; and HTML.



User interface toolkits are often built on top of other toolkits, sometimes for portability or compatibility across platforms, and sometimes to add more powerful features, like a richer stroke drawing model or different widgets.

X Windows demonstrates this layering technique. The view hierarchy, stroke drawing, and input handling are provided by a low-level toolkit called XLib. But XLib does not provide widgets, so several toolkits are layered on top of XLib to add that functionality: Athena widgets and Motif, among others. More recent X-based toolkits (GTK+ and Qt) not only add widgets to XLib, but also hide XLib's view hierarchy, stroke drawing, and input handling with newer, more powerful models, although these models are implemented internally by calls to XLib.



Here's what the layering looks like for some common Java user interface toolkits.

AWT (Abstract Window Toolkit, usually pronounced like "ought") was the first Java toolkit. Although its widget set is rarely used today, AWT continues to provide drawing and input handling to more recent Java toolkits.

Swing is the second-generation Java toolkit, which appeared in the Java API starting in Java 1.2. Swing adds a new view hierarchy (JComponent) derived from AWT's view hierarchy (Component and Container). It also replaces AWT's widget set with new widgets that use the new view hierarchy.



Cross-platform toolkits face a special issue: should the native widgets of each platform be reused by the toolkit? One reason to do so is to preserve consistency with other applications on the same platform, so that applications written for the cross-platform toolkit look and feel like native applications. This is what we've been calling external consistency.

Another problem is that native widgets may not exist for all the widgets the cross-platform toolkit wants to provide. AWT throws up its hands at this problem, providing only the widgets that occur on every platform AWT runs on: e.g., buttons, menus, list boxes, text boxes, checkboxes, radio buttons. That's about it.



One reason NOT to reuse the native widgets is so that the application looks and behaves consistently with itself across platforms – a variant of internal consistency, if you consider all the instantiations of an application on various platforms as being part of the same system. Cross-platform consistency makes it easier to deliver a well-designed, usable application on all platforms – easier to write documentation and training materials, for example. Java Swing provides this by reimplementing the widget set using its default ("Metal") look and feel. This essentially creates a Java "platform", independent of and distinct from the native platform.



But Swing also supports external consistency – you can change the appearance and behavior of its widgets to make them resemble the native platform widgets. This is possible because each Swing widget delegates its painting and input handling to a *look and feel object*. Different sets of look-and-feel objects copy the appearance and behavior of different platforms, like Windows, Macintosh, and Motif. Unfortunately there's a lot involved in copying look and feel, and some of these platforms are moving targets – so Swing's Windows look and feel has lagged behind the changes being made in the Windows environment, making Swing applications stand out.



SWT is IBM's Standard Widget Toolkit. (Usually pronounced "swit". Confusingly, the W in SWT means something different from the W in AWT.) Like AWT, SWT is implemented directly on top of the native toolkits. It provides different interfaces for widgets, views, drawing, and input handling.



Recall that AWT (and HTML) only offer widgets that are available on all platforms. SWT takes the opposite tack; instead of limiting itself to the **intersection** of the native widget sets, SWT strives to provide the **union** of the native widget sets. SWT uses a native widget if it's available, but reimplements it if it's missing, attempting to match the "style" of the platform in the new implementation as much as possible.



Web browsers also exhibit this kind of layering. HTML, as a user interface toolkit, takes the AWT approach to widgets across platforms: it uses the native widgets, and offers only the *intersection* of the widgets available on common platforms. (Even fewer, in fact, than AWT: HTML supports buttons, checkboxes, radio buttons, listboxes, and textboxes, but has no menubar widgets whatsoever.)



Another kind of cross-platform compatibility is supporting users who speak different languages and have different cultural conventions – e.g., different ways to write dates and times, write numbers, or different units of currency or measurement. Interfaces with international user populations – such as Microsoft Word, shown here – have to be carefully designed to make them easy to adapt to other languages and cultures. The process of making a user interface ready for translation is called **internationalization** (often called **i18n** for short – "18" because it replaces 18 characters in the middle of "internationalization").

Essentially, internationalization separates the language-specific parts of the interface from the rest of the code, so that those parts can be easily replaced. The translation is usually done by nonprogrammers, so their job is easier if the textual messages are separate from the code.

A good translation job is harder than merely knowing what words to substitute (and online translators like Babelfish and Google Translate can only barely do that, so don't rely on them!) You can't necessarily rely on bilingual members of your design team, either. They may be reasonably fluent in the other language, but not sufficiently immersed in the **culture** or **national standards** to notice all the places where the application needs to change. **You are not the user** is especially true in internationalization.

A good source of information about this problem is *Java Internationalization*, by Andy Deitsch and David Czarnecki (O'Reilly, 2001). There's also a trail in the Java Tutorial about Java's internationalization features (http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/i18n/index.html).



Here are some of the reasons why internationalization is hard.

First, *every piece of text* that might be shown to the user is a potential candidate for translation. That means not just properties of components (like menu items and button labels), but also text drawn with stroke drawing calls, and text embedded in pixel images (like this one taken from the MIT EECS web page). Translation can easily change the size or aspect ratio of the text; German labels tend to be much longer than English ones, for example.

Many scripts are not written left-to-right; Arabic and Hebrew are the most common right-to-left languages. CJK (Chinese, Japanese, Korean) characters are usually written left-to-right, but can also appear vertically (top-to-bottom) and occasionally even right-to-left. Reversing the direction of reading requires reversing the entire layout of your screen, since the user is now accustomed to starting from the right edge when they scan. It might even affect the "natural" direction of arrow icons. The picture above shows the Hebrew version of Firefox. Notice that the menu bar is reversed (it starts from the right, and the rightmost menu is the File menu), the toolbar is reversed, and the Back button (which is now the rightmost button) is now pointing to the right! The URL box isn't reversed, however, because it uses the Latin alphabet, not the Hebrew alphabet. This is another common wrinkle in right-to-left languages: when they embed foreign words, or Arabic numbers, the embedded words go in left-to-right order. So the text might be constantly switching direction.



Supporting other languages means you're not just playing with ASCII anymore. The old 7-bit ASCII character set only supports English. The 8-bit Latin-1 adds accented characters for Western European languages among the upper 128 characters, but for serious internationalization, you need 16-bit Unicode, which includes characters from many other alphabets (e.g. Arabic, Hebrew, Cyrillic) and thousands of CJK ideograms. Java uses Unicode, so chars and Strings in Java can represent text in all these languages. Note the difference between **character sets** and **fonts**: a Unicode character is simply a number representing a character. It doesn't actually say how to *draw* the character; a font does that. Also, even though you can represent many different alphabets in a single Unicode string, the *font* you're drawing the string with doesn't necessarily know how to draw all those characters. Many fonts only have glyphs for a small subset of Unicode.

Although Unicode uses 16-bit numbers to represent characters, the most common **encoding** for Unicode text (in files and web pages) is UTF-8, which uses 1, 2, or 3 bytes to represent each Unicode character. Single bytes are used to represent all the 7-bit ASCII characters, so UTF-8 can be thought of as an extension to ASCII.

Unicode represents each character by a number, but the ordering of the numbers doesn't always match the ordering of the characters (also called **collation order**). Sorting text with < or String.compareTo() is almost certainly wrong. It's even wrong for English: ASCII (and Unicode) group the uppercase and lowercase letters together, so that the sort order by < would be ABC...XYZ..., but every English dictionary would order by AaBbCc...

Similarly, in most European languages, accented characters are sorted with the plain version of the character, even though the Unicode characters may be nowhere near each other. (And that general rule is not true in Norwegian, where å actually appears at the *end* of the alphabet, after z.)

Number formats and date formats also vary – not just between languages, however, but even between different countries that otherwise share a language. The target for internationalization is thus typically a language/country pair, or **locale**, such as US English, UK English, or Canadian French.



Localizing a user interface requires knowing about the cultural associations attached to symbols or colors, and making sure you don't send the wrong message.

For example, **colors** have different meanings in different cultures. In East Asia, particularly China, white is associated with death, and is used as a color theme for funerals. In the West, on the other hand, white is a symbol of purity, and brides wear white at their weddings. A wedding planner web site with festive white decorations might be interpreted quite differently by an Asian users.

Icons must also be carefully chosen, or replaced when the interface is localized. Metaphorical icons that refer to everyday objects like mailboxes stop signs aren't necessarily recognizable, because the objects may look different in different countries. (Stop signs are actually pretty universal, however – I had to look hard to find a stop sign that wasn't a red octagon, like this Japanese inverted triangle.) Hand gestures pictured as icons may actually be offensive in some countries. And **visual puns** are always a bad idea – an English-speaking designer might think it's cute to use a picture of a table (the furniture) to represent table (the 2D grid), because the words are the same in English. But the words in German are *tisch* (furniture) and *tabelle* (grid), so a German may find the joke incomprehensible.



Modern UI toolkits provide support for internationalization. Java, for example, has a framework called **resource bundles** that allow textual messages to be stored separately from the code, but as loadable resources in JAR files, so that an application can be localized simply by replacing those text messages. The messages are referred to by names, such as bundle.getString("file-menu-label").