



10.2.1 Basic Design Principles Four basic design principles are applicable to component-level design and have been widely adopted when object-oriented software engineering is applied. The underlying motivation for the application of these principles is to create designs that are more amenable to change and to reduce the propagation of side effects when changes do occur. You can use these principles as a guide as each software component is developed. The Open-Closed Principle (OCP). “A module [component] should be open for extension but closed for modification” [Mar00]. This statement seems to be a pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:46 PM Page 282 CHAPTER 10 COMPONENT-LEVEL DESIGN 283 contradiction, but it represents one of the most important characteristics of a good component-level design. Stated simply, you should specify the component in a way that allows it to be extended (within the functional domain that it addresses) without the need to make internal (code or logic-level) modifications to the component itself. To accomplish this, you create abstractions that serve as a buffer between the functionality that is likely to be extended and the design class itself. For example, assume that the SafeHome security function makes use of a Detector class that must check the status of each type of security sensor. It is likely that as time passes, the number and types of security sensors will grow. If internal processing logic is implemented as a sequence of if-then-else constructs, each addressing a different sensor type, the addition of a new sensor type will require additional internal processing logic (still another if-then-else). This is a violation of OCP. One way to accomplish OCP for the Detector class is illustrated in Figure 10.4. The sensor interface presents a consistent view of sensors to the detector component. If a new type of sensor is added no change is required for the Detector class (component). The OCP is preserved. Detector <<interface>> Sensor read() enable() disable() test() Window/ doorSensor SmokeSensor MotionDetector HeatSensor CO2Sensor FIGURE 10.4 Following the OCP The OCP in Action The scene: Vinod’s cubicle. The players: Vinod and Shakira—members of the SafeHome software engineering team. The conversation: Vinod: I just got a call from Doug [the team manager]. He says marketing wants to add a new sensor. Shakira (smirking): Not again, jeez! Vinod: Yeah . . . and you’re not going to believe what these guys have come up with. Shakira: Amaze me. Vinod (laughing): They call it a doggie angst sensor. Shakira: Say what? Vinod: It’s for people who leave their pets home in apartments or condos or houses that are close to one SAFEHOME pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:46 PM Page 283 284 PART TWO MODELING The Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP). “Subclasses should be substitutable for their base classes” [Mar00]. This design principle, originally proposed by Barbara Liskov [Lis88], suggests that a component that uses a base class should continue to function properly if a class derived from the base class is passed to the component instead. LSP demands that any class derived from a base class must honor any implied contract between the base class and the components that use it. In the context of this discussion, a “contract” is a precondition that must be true before the component uses a base class and a postcondition that should be true after the component uses a base class. When you create derived classes, be sure they conform to the pre- and postconditions. Dependency Inversion Principle (DIP). “Depend on abstractions. Do not depend on concretions” [Mar00]. As we have seen in the discussion of the OCP, abstractions are the place where a design can be extended without great complication. The more a component depends on other concrete components (rather than on abstractions such as an interface), the more difficult it will be to extend. The Interface Segregation Principle (ISP). “Many client-specific interfaces are better than one general purpose interface” [Mar00]. There are many instances in which multiple client components use the operations provided by a server class. ISP suggests that you should create a specialized interface to serve each major category of clients. Only those operations that are relevant to a particular category of clients should be specified in the interface for that client. If multiple clients require the same operations, it should be specified in each of the specialized interfaces. As an example, consider the FloorPlan class that is used for the SafeHome security and surveillance functions (Chapter 6). For the security functions, FloorPlan is used only during configuration activities and uses the operations placeDevice(), showDevice(), groupDevice(), and removeDevice() to place, show, group, and remove sensors from the floor plan. The SafeHome surveillance function uses the four If you dispense with design and hack out code, just remember that code is the ultimate “concretion.” You’re violating DIP. another. The dog starts to bark. The neighbor gets angry and complains. With this sensor, if the dog barks for more than, say, a minute,

the sensor sets a special alarm mode that calls the owner on his or her cell phone. Shakira: You're kidding me, right? Vinod: Nope. Doug wants to know how much time it's going to take to add it to the security function. Shakira (thinking a moment): Not much . . . look. [She shows Vinod Figure 10.4] We've isolated the actual sensor classes behind the sensor interface. As long as we have specs for the doggie sensor, adding it should be a piece of cake. Only thing I'll have to do is create an appropriate component . . . uh, class, for it. No change to the Detector component at all. Vinod: So I'll tell Doug it's no big deal. Shakira: Knowing Doug, he'll keep us focused and not deliver the doggie thing until the next release. Vinod: That's not a bad thing, but you can implement now if he wants you to? Shakira: Yeah, the way we designed the interface lets me do it with no hassle. Vinod (thinking a moment): Have you ever heard of the open-closed principle? Shakira (shrugging): Never heard of it. Vinod (smiling): Not a problem.

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operations noted for security, but also requires special operations to manage cameras: showFOV() and showDeviceID(). Hence, the ISP suggests that client components from the two SafeHome functions have specialized interfaces defined for them. The interface for security would encompass only the operations placeDevice(), showDevice(), groupDevice(), and removeDevice(). The interface for surveillance would incorporate the operations placeDevice(), showDevice(), groupDevice(), and removeDevice(), along with showFOV() and showDeviceID(). Although component-level design principles provide useful guidance, components themselves do not exist in a vacuum. In many cases, individual components or classes are organized into subsystems or packages. It is reasonable to ask how this packaging activity should occur. Exactly how should components be organized as the design proceeds? Martin [Mar00] suggests additional packaging principles that are applicable to component-level design: The Release Reuse Equivalency Principle (REP). "The granule of reuse is the granule of release" [Mar00]. When classes or components are designed for reuse, there is an implicit contract that is established between the developer of the reusable entity and the people who will use it. The developer commits to establish a release control system that supports and maintains older versions of the entity while the users slowly upgrade to the most current version. Rather than addressing each class individually, it is often advisable to group reusable classes into packages that can be managed and controlled as newer versions evolve. The Common Closure Principle (CCP). "Classes that change together belong together." [Mar00]. Classes should be packaged cohesively. That is, when classes are packaged as part of a design, they should address the same functional or behavioral area. When some characteristic of that area must change, it is likely that only those classes within the package will require modification. This leads to more effective change control and release management. The Common Reuse Principle (CRP). "Classes that aren't reused together should not be grouped together" [Mar00]. When one or more classes within a package changes, the release number of the package changes. All other classes or packages that rely on the package that has been changed must now update to the most recent release of the package and be tested to ensure that the new release operates without incident. If classes are not grouped cohesively, it is possible that a class with no relationship to other classes within a package is changed. This will precipitate unnecessary integration and testing. For this reason, only classes that are reused together should be included within a package.

ANSWER THE QUESTION : State and describe basic design principles.



The passage describes four basic design principles that are applicable to component-level design, particularly in the context of object-oriented software engineering. Here are the principles along with brief descriptions:

1. Open-Closed Principle (OCP):

- **Principle:** A module (component) should be open for extension but closed for modification.
- **Explanation:** The design should allow for the extension of functionality without requiring internal modifications to the existing component. Abstractions act as a buffer

between the functionality to be extended and the design class.

2. Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP):

- **Principle:** Subclasses should be substitutable for their base classes.
- **Explanation:** Components using a base class should continue to function properly if a class derived from the base class is passed instead. Derived classes must honor the contract (pre- and postconditions) established by the base class.

3. Dependency Inversion Principle (DIP):

- **Principle:** Depend on abstractions. Do not depend on concretions.
- **Explanation:** Components should depend on abstractions (interfaces) rather than concrete components. This allows for easier extension and reduces complications when changes are made.

4. Interface Segregation Principle (ISP):

- **Principle:** Many client-specific interfaces are better than one general-purpose interface.
- **Explanation:** Instead of a single general-purpose interface, create specialized interfaces for different categories of clients. Each interface should only include operations relevant to a particular category of clients.

In addition to these, the passage also briefly mentions packaging principles proposed by Martin:

1. Release Reuse Equivalency Principle (REP):

- **Principle:** The granule of reuse is the granule of release.
- **Explanation:** Reusable classes or components should be grouped into packages with a release control system supporting and maintaining older versions while users transition to newer versions.

2. Common Closure Principle (CCP):

- **Principle:** Classes that change together belong together.
- **Explanation:** Classes within a package should address the same functional or behavioral area to facilitate effective change control and release management.

3. Common Reuse Principle (CRP):

- **Principle:** Classes that aren't reused together should not be grouped together.
- **Explanation:** Only classes that are reused together should be included within a package to avoid unnecessary integration and testing when changes occur.

These principles aim to create flexible, maintainable, and extensible designs in software engineering.



You:

The boundary between content and function is often blurred when Web-based systems and applications (WebApps) are considered. Therefore, it is reasonable to ask: What is a WebApp component? In the context of this chapter, a WebApp component is (1) a well-defined cohesive function that manipulates content or provides computational or data processing for an end user or (2) a cohesive package of content and functionality that provides the pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:47 PM Page 296 end user with some required capability. Therefore, component-level design for WebApps often incorporates elements of content design and functional design. 10.4.1 Content

Design at the Component Level Content design at the component level focuses on content objects and the manner in which they may be packaged for presentation to a WebApp end user. As an example, consider a Web-based video surveillance capability within SafeHomeAssured.com. Among many capabilities, the user can select and control any of the cameras represented as part of a floor plan, require video-capture thumb- nail images from all the cameras, and display streaming video from any one camera. In addition, the user can control pan and zoom for a camera using appropriate control icons. A number of potential content components can be defined for the video surveil- lance capability: (1) the content objects that represent the space layout (the floor plan) with additional icons representing the location of sensors and video cameras, (2) the collection of thumbnail video captures (each a separate data object), and (3) the streaming video window for a specific camera. Each of these components can be separately named and manipulated as a package. Consider a floor plan that depicts four cameras placed strategically throughout a house. Upon user request, a video frame is captured from each camera and is identified as a dynamically generated content object, VideoCaptureN, where N identi- fies cameras 1 to 4. A content component, named Thumbnail-Images, combines all four VideoCaptureN content objects and displays them on the video surveillance page. The formality of content design at the component level should be tuned to the characteristics of the WebApp to be built. In many cases, content objects need not be organized as components and can be manipulated individually. However, as the size and complexity (of the WebApp, content objects, and their interrelationships) grows, it may be necessary to organize content in a way that allows easier reference and design manipulation.⁶ In addition, if content is highly dynamic (e.g., the content for an online auction site), it becomes important to establish a clear structural model that incorporates content components.

10.4.2 Functional Design at the Component Level

Modern Web applications deliver increasingly sophisticated processing functions that (1) perform localized processing to generate content and navigation capability in a dynamic fashion, (2) provide computation or data processing capability that is appropriate for the WebApp's business domain, (3) provide sophisticated database query and access, or (4) establish data interfaces with external corporate systems. To CHAPTER 10 COMPONENT-LEVEL DESIGN 297

6 Content components can also be reused in other WebApps. pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:47 PM Page 297 298 PART TWO MODELING achieve these (and many other) capabilities, you will design and construct WebApp functional components that are similar in form to software components for conventional software. WebApp functionality is delivered as a series of components developed in paral- lel with the information architecture to ensure that they are consistent. In essence you begin by considering both the requirements model and the initial information architecture and then examining how functionality affects the user's interaction with the application, the information that is presented, and the user tasks that are conducted. During architectural design, WebApp content and functionality are combined to create a functional architecture. A functional architecture is a representation of the functional domain of the WebApp and describes the key functional components in the WebApp and how these components interact with each other. For example, the pan and zoom functions for the SafeHomeAssured.com video surveillance capability are implemented as part of a CameraControl component. Alternatively, pan and zoom can be implemented as the operations, pan() and zoom(), which are part of a Camera class. In either case, the functionality implied by pan and zoom must be implemented as modules within SafeHomeAssured.com. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe component level design for web applications.



ChatGPT:

Component-level design for web applications involves addressing both content and functionality aspects. In the context of web applications (WebApps), a component is defined as either a well-defined cohesive function that manipulates content or provides computational or data processing for an end user, or a cohesive package of content and functionality that delivers a required capability to the end user. Below are explanations of content design and functional design at the component level for web applications:

Content Design at the Component Level:

1. Focus on Content Objects:

- Content design at the component level centers around content objects and how they can be packaged for presentation to the end user.
- Example: In a web-based video surveillance capability, content components might include content objects representing the floor plan, thumbnail video captures, and streaming video windows.

2. Identification of Content Components:

- Different content components can be defined based on the nature of the content objects, such as the layout of the space, video captures, and streaming video.
- Each content component is separately named and manipulated as a package, allowing for modular design.

3. Example Scenario:

- For video surveillance, content components may include the floor plan with icons representing cameras, a collection of thumbnail video captures, and the streaming video window for a specific camera.
- These components can be organized and manipulated as separate packages, enhancing design reference and manipulation.

4. Formality of Content Design:

- The formality of content design depends on the characteristics of the web application. In cases where content objects are simple and do not need complex organization, they can be manipulated individually.
- However, as the size and complexity of the web application grow, organizing content into components becomes necessary for easier reference and manipulation.

Functional Design at the Component Level:

1. Sophisticated Processing Functions:

- Web applications deliver increasingly sophisticated processing functions that perform localized processing, provide computation or data processing capability, handle database queries, and establish data interfaces with external systems.

2. Development of Functional Components:

- Functional components for web applications are designed similarly to software components for conventional software.
- They perform tasks such as generating content, providing computation capabilities, handling database queries, and interacting with external systems.

3. Parallel Development with Information Architecture:

- WebApp functionality is developed in parallel with the information architecture to ensure consistency.
- The initial information architecture and requirements model guide the design of functional components, considering user interaction, presented information, and user tasks.

4. Creation of Functional Architecture:

- During architectural design, web application content and functionality are combined to create a functional architecture.
- The functional architecture represents the functional domain of the WebApp, describing key functional components and their interactions.

5. Example Scenario:

- In a video surveillance WebApp, the pan and zoom functions might be implemented as part of a CameraControl component or as operations within a Camera class.

In summary, component-level design for web applications involves designing cohesive content components and functional components, considering both content objects and processing capabilities. This approach aims to create a modular and consistent structure that aligns with the requirements and information architecture of the web application.



You:

BY PREVIOUS QUESTIONS : Explain class based component design with principles



ChatGPT:

Class-based component design involves organizing and structuring software components using classes, which are fundamental units of object-oriented programming. The principles mentioned in the context of class-based design are often aligned with general object-oriented design principles. Let's discuss class-based component design and how it relates to these principles:

1. Open-Closed Principle (OCP):

- **Principle:** A module (class) should be open for extension but closed for modification.
- **Explanation:** Classes should be designed in a way that allows for the extension of their functionality without altering their internal code. This is often achieved through the use of abstractions, such as interfaces or abstract classes, which define the contract for subclasses.

2. Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP):

- **Principle:** Subclasses should be substitutable for their base classes.
- **Explanation:** Derived classes should adhere to the contract (pre- and postconditions) established by their base classes. This ensures that objects of the base class can be replaced with objects of the derived class without affecting the correctness of the program.

3. Dependency Inversion Principle (DIP):

- **Principle:** Depend on abstractions. Do not depend on concretions.
- **Explanation:** High-level modules (classes) should not depend on low-level modules but rather on abstractions. This involves using interfaces or abstract classes to define relationships between components, allowing for flexibility and easier maintenance.

4. Interface Segregation Principle (ISP):

- **Principle:** Many client-specific interfaces are better than one general-purpose interface.
- **Explanation:** Instead of having a single large interface that caters to all possible client needs, it's better to have multiple smaller, client-specific interfaces. Each class should implement only the interfaces relevant to its specific functionality.

Class-Based Component Design in Practice:

1. Abstraction:

- Design classes as abstractions, providing a clear and well-defined interface for the functionality they represent.
- Use abstract classes or interfaces to define common characteristics shared by related classes.

2. Inheritance:

- Utilize inheritance to establish relationships between classes.
- Ensure that subclasses can be substituted for their base classes without affecting the correctness of the program (Liskov Substitution Principle).

3. Encapsulation:

- Encapsulate the internal details of a class, exposing only the necessary functionality through well-defined interfaces.
- Protect the internal state of a class and provide controlled access to it.

4. Polymorphism:

- Leverage polymorphism to allow objects of different classes to be treated uniformly through a common interface.
- Enable dynamic binding and flexibility in choosing the behavior of objects at runtime.

5. Composition:

- Compose classes by combining smaller, more focused components to build larger and more complex systems.
- Prefer composition over inheritance when possible to achieve greater flexibility.

6. Consistency and Cohesion:

- Design classes to be consistent in their structure and behavior.
- Group related functionality within the same class to enhance cohesion and maintainability.

7. Flexibility and Extensibility:

- Design classes with an eye toward future changes and extensions.
- Follow the Open-Closed Principle to allow for the addition of new functionality without modifying existing code.

By adhering to these principles in class-based component design, developers can create modular, flexible, and maintainable software systems that align with the principles of object-oriented design.



In the context of object-oriented software engineering, a component contains a set of collaborating classes.¹ Each class within a component has been fully elaborated to include all attributes and operations that are relevant to its implementation. As part of the design elaboration, all interfaces that enable the classes to communicate and collaborate with other design classes must also be defined. To accomplish this, you begin with the requirements model and elaborate analysis classes (for components that relate to the problem domain) and infrastructure classes (for components that provide support services for the problem domain). From an object-oriented viewpoint, a component is a set of collaborating classes. ¹ In some cases, a component may contain a single class.

pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:46 PM Page 277 278 PART TWO MODELING PrintJob
 computeJob initiateJob numberOfPages numberOfSides paperType paperWeight paperSize
 paperColor magnification colorRequirements productionFeatures collationOptions bindingOptions
 coverStock bleed priority totalJobCost WOnumber PrintJob computePageCost()
 computePaperCost() computeProdCost() computeTotalJobCost() buildWorkOrder()
 checkPriority() passJobto Production() <<interface>> Elaborated design class computeJob
 computePageCost() computePaperCost() computeProdCost() computeTotalJobCost()
 <<interface>> initiateJob buildWorkOrder() checkPriority() passJobto Production() Design
 component numberOfPages numberOfSides paperType magnification productionFeatures PrintJob
 computeJobCost() passJobtoPrinter() Analysis class

FIGURE 10.1 Elaboration of a design component To illustrate this process of design elaboration, consider software to be built for a sophisticated print shop. The overall intent of the software is to collect the customer's requirements at the front counter, cost a print job, and then pass the job on to an automated production facility. During requirements engineering, an analysis class called PrintJob was derived. The attributes and operations defined during analysis are noted at the top of Figure 10.1. During architectural design, PrintJob is defined as a component within the software architecture and is represented using the shorthand UML notation² shown in the middle right of the figure. Note that PrintJob has two interfaces, computeJob, which provides job costing capability, and initiateJob, which passes the job along to the production facility. These are represented using the "lollipop" symbols shown to the left of the component box. ² Readers who are unfamiliar with UML notation should refer to Appendix 1.

pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:46 PM Page 278 Component-level design begins at this point. The details of the component PrintJob must be elaborated to provide sufficient information to guide implementation. The original analysis class is elaborated to flesh out all attributes and operations required to implement the class as the component PrintJob. Referring to the lower right portion of Figure 10.1, the elaborated design class PrintJob contains more detailed attribute information as well as an expanded description of operations required to implement the component. The interfaces computeJob and initiateJob imply communication and collaboration with other components (not shown here). For example, the operation computePageCost() (part of the computeJob interface) might collaborate with a PricingTable component that contains job pricing information. The checkPriority() operation (part of the initiateJob interface) might collaborate with a JobQueue component to determine the types and priorities of jobs currently awaiting production. This elaboration activity is applied to every component defined as part of the architectural design. Once it is completed, further elaboration is applied to each attribute, operation, and interface. The data structures appropriate for each attribute must be specified. In addition, the algorithmic detail required to implement the processing logic associated with each operation is designed. This procedural design activity is discussed later in this chapter. Finally, the mechanisms required to implement the interface are designed. For object-oriented software, this may encompass the description of all messaging that is required to effect communication between objects within the system.

ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe component level view of object-oriented design.



In the context of object-oriented software engineering, a component-level view involves the organization and elaboration of classes into cohesive units, known as components, each

comprising a set of collaborating classes. This view is crucial for detailed design and implementation. Here's an overview of the component-level view of object-oriented design:

Definition of a Component:

- **Definition:** A component is a set of collaborating classes, where each class is fully elaborated with all relevant attributes and operations.
- **Interfaces:** Components communicate through well-defined interfaces, representing the contracts that enable classes within a component to collaborate with each other and with external components.

Design Elaboration Process:

1. Starting Point:

- Begin with the requirements model, which includes analysis classes representing entities in the problem domain.
- During architectural design, identify components by grouping related analysis classes and infrastructure classes.

2. Component Representation:

- Represent each component using UML notation, indicating attributes and operations.
- Use interfaces to specify the contracts for communication between components.

3. Elaboration of a Design Component:

- Elaborate each design component to provide detailed information for implementation.
- Flesh out attributes, operations, and interfaces, ensuring that each class within the component is fully defined.
- Consider collaboration between classes and other components.

4. Detailed Component Elaboration Example:

- Example: Consider a print shop software where the analysis class `PrintJob` is defined during requirements engineering.
- During architectural design, `PrintJob` is designated as a component with interfaces like `computeJob` and `initiateJob`.
- Component-level design elaborates `PrintJob` to include detailed attribute information, expanded operation descriptions, and interfaces for collaboration with other components (e.g., `PricingTable` and `JobQueue`).

Further Elaboration Activities:

1. Attribute and Operation Details:

- Specify data structures for each attribute.
- Design algorithms for operations, detailing the procedural logic associated with each.

2. Interface Implementation:

- Design the mechanisms required to implement the interfaces.
- Specify messaging details for communication between objects within the system.

Benefits of Component-Level Design:

- **Modularity:** Components promote modularity by encapsulating related classes and functionalities.
- **Collaboration:** Well-defined interfaces facilitate collaboration between components.
- **Guided Implementation:** Elaborated design provides sufficient information to guide the implementation phase.

In summary, the component-level view in object-oriented design involves organizing and elaborating classes into cohesive components, defining detailed attributes, operations, and interfaces, and specifying the mechanisms for effective communication and collaboration between components. This process ensures a structured and well-defined design that serves as a foundation for the subsequent implementation phase.



You:

BY PREVIOUS ALL QUESTIONS : Enlist any four advantages of component level design.



ChatGPT:

Component-level design offers several advantages in the development of software systems. Here are four key advantages:

1. Modularity and Reusability:

- **Modularity:** Component-level design promotes modularity by organizing classes into cohesive units (components). Each component encapsulates a specific set of functionalities.
- **Reusability:** Well-designed components can be reused in different parts of the system or even in other projects. This reduces redundancy, promotes consistency, and accelerates development by leveraging existing, tested components.

2. Ease of Maintenance:

- **Isolation of Changes:** Components act as isolated units with well-defined interfaces. If changes are required, developers can focus on modifying or extending specific components without affecting the entire system.
- **Change Localization:** Modifications or enhancements to a specific component do not necessitate changes to other components, leading to easier change localization and reducing the risk of unintended side effects.

3. Interoperability and Collaboration:

- **Clear Interfaces:** Components communicate through well-defined interfaces, enabling interoperability between different parts of the system. This ensures that components can collaborate seamlessly, even if they are developed independently.
- **Encapsulation:** Components encapsulate their internal details, exposing only what is necessary through interfaces. This encapsulation facilitates collaboration while hiding unnecessary complexity.

4. Scalability and Parallel Development:

- **Scalability:** The modular nature of component-level design allows for easy scalability. New components can be added, and existing ones can be modified or replaced without disrupting the entire system.
- **Parallel Development:** Different teams or developers can work on different components simultaneously. This parallel development reduces project timelines and enhances productivity.

5. Facilitates Testing and Debugging:

- **Isolated Testing:** Components can be tested in isolation, allowing for focused and efficient testing of individual functionalities. This makes it easier to identify and fix issues within specific components.
- **Unit Testing:** Component-level design aligns well with unit testing practices, where each component can be tested independently before integration. This improves the overall reliability of the system.

These advantages collectively contribute to the efficiency, maintainability, and adaptability of software systems during the development life cycle.



You:

Application accessibility. As computing applications become ubiquitous, software engineers must ensure that interface design encompasses mechanisms that enable easy access for those with special needs. Accessibility for users (and software engineers) who may be physically challenged is an imperative for ethical, legal, and business reasons. A variety of accessibility guidelines (e.g., [W3C03])—many designed for Web applications but often applicable to all types of software—provide detailed suggestions for designing interfaces that achieve varying levels of accessibility. Others (e.g., [App08], [Mic08]) provide specific guidelines for “assistive technology” that addresses the needs of those with visual, hearing, mobility, speech, and learning impairments. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe application accessibility in context of user interface.



ChatGPT:

Application accessibility in the context of user interface design involves ensuring that software applications are usable and navigable by individuals with diverse needs and abilities, including those with disabilities. The goal is to provide an inclusive user experience, allowing everyone, regardless of physical or cognitive challenges, to access and interact with the application effectively. Here are key aspects of application accessibility in the context of user interface design:

1. Guidelines and Standards:

- Follow established accessibility guidelines and standards, such as those provided by the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C), to ensure that the application complies with widely accepted principles and practices.
- Guidelines may cover various aspects, including text alternatives for non-text content, keyboard accessibility, sufficient time for users to read and complete tasks, and compatibility with assistive technologies.

2. Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG):

- Adhere to the Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG), which provide a comprehensive set of recommendations for making web content, including web applications, accessible to all users, regardless of disability.
- WCAG guidelines include principles such as perceivable, operable, understandable, and robust, providing a holistic framework for accessibility.

3. Assistive Technologies:

- Consider and support various assistive technologies, such as screen readers, screen magnifiers, speech recognition software, and alternative input devices.
- Ensure that the user interface is compatible with these technologies to assist individuals with visual, hearing, mobility, speech, and learning impairments.

4. Alternative Text and Descriptions:

- Include alternative text for images, graphics, and multimedia elements to provide information to users who may not be able to perceive visual content.
- Use descriptive text to convey the purpose and meaning of interactive elements, form controls, and links.

5. Keyboard Navigation:

- Design the user interface to be navigable and operable using a keyboard alone, without reliance on a mouse or other pointing devices.
- Ensure that keyboard focus is visible and moves logically through interactive elements.

6. Contrast and Readability:

- Pay attention to color contrast to improve readability, especially for users with visual impairments.
- Provide adjustable text size options to accommodate users with varying levels of vision.

7. Flexible Layouts and Responsive Design:

- Implement flexible layouts and responsive design to accommodate different screen sizes and resolutions.
- Ensure that the application is usable on a variety of devices, including mobile devices with smaller screens.

8. User Feedback and Error Handling:

- Provide clear and meaningful feedback to users about the status of their actions and any errors that may occur.
- Use multiple modes of communication (visual, auditory, etc.) to convey information and alerts.

9. Testing and User Feedback:

- Conduct accessibility testing with users who have diverse abilities and incorporate their feedback into the design process.
- Use automated accessibility testing tools to identify and address potential issues.

10. Continuous Improvement:

- Foster a culture of continuous improvement by staying informed about evolving accessibility standards and best practices.
- Regularly update the application to address new accessibility challenges and technologies.

By incorporating these considerations into user interface design, software engineers can create applications that are more inclusive, accessible, and user-friendly for individuals with diverse needs and abilities. This not only aligns with ethical and legal considerations but also enhances the overall usability and market reach of the application.



You:

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ChatGPT:

Application accessibility in the context of user interface design involves ensuring that software interfaces are designed to accommodate individuals with diverse needs and disabilities. This is crucial for ethical, legal, and business reasons as computing applications become ubiquitous. Accessibility guidelines, such as those from the W3C, offer detailed suggestions for creating interfaces that cater to varying levels of accessibility. Specific guidelines, like those for assistive technologies, address the needs of individuals with visual, hearing, mobility, speech, and learning impairments, promoting inclusivity in software usage.



You:

In his book on interface design, Theo Mandel [Man97] coins three golden rules: 1. Place the user in control. 2. Reduce the user’s memory load. 3. Make the interface consistent. These golden rules actually form the basis for a set of user interface design principles that guide this important aspect of software design. 11.1.1 Place the User in Control During a requirements-gathering session for a major new information system, a key user was asked about the attributes of the window-oriented graphical interface. “What I really would like,” said the user solemnly, “is a system that reads my mind. It knows what I want to do before I need to do it and makes it very easy for me to get it done. That’s all, just that.” My first reaction was to shake my head and smile, but I paused for a moment. There was absolutely nothing wrong with the user’s request. She wanted a system that reacted to her needs and helped her get things done. She wanted to control the computer, not have the computer control her. Most interface constraints and restrictions that are imposed by a designer are intended to simplify the mode of interaction. But for whom? As a designer, you may be tempted to introduce constraints and limitations to simplify the implementation of the interface. The result may be an interface that is easy to build, but frustrating to use. Mandel [Man97] defines a number of design principles that allow the user to maintain control: Define interaction modes in a way that does not force a user into unnecessary or undesired actions. An interaction mode is the current state of the interface. For example, if spell check is selected in a word-processor menu, the

software principles and guidelines336 process319 response time . .332 task analysis . .322 task elaboration . . .324 usability317 user analysis . .321 WebApp interface design335

note: "It's better to design the user experience than rectify it." Jon Meads

pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 313 314 PART TWO MODELING moves to a spell-checking mode. There is no reason to force the user to remain in spell-checking mode if the user desires to make a small text edit along the way. The user should be able to enter and exit the mode with little or no effort. Provide for flexible interaction. Because different users have different interaction preferences, choices should be provided. For example, software might allow a user to interact via keyboard commands, mouse movement, a digitizer pen, a multi-touch screen, or voice recognition commands. But every action is not amenable to every interaction mechanism. Consider, for example, the difficulty of using keyboard command (or voice input) to draw a complex shape. Allow user interaction to be interruptible and undoable. Even when involved in a sequence of actions, the user should be able to interrupt the sequence to do something else (without losing the work that had been done). The user should also be able to "undo" any action. Streamline interaction as skill levels advance and allow the interaction to be customized. Users often find that they perform the same sequence of interactions repeatedly. It is worthwhile to design a "macro" mechanism that enables an advanced user to customize the interface to facilitate interaction. Hide technical internals from the casual user. The user interface should move the user into the virtual world of the application. The user should not be aware of the operating system, file management functions, or other arcane computing technology. In essence, the interface should never require that the user interact at a level that is "inside" the machine (e.g., a user should never be required to type operating system commands from within application software). Design for direct interaction with objects that appear on the screen. The user feels a sense of control when able to manipulate the objects that are necessary to perform a task in a manner similar to what would occur if the object were a physical thing. For example, an application interface that allows a user to "stretch" an object (scale it in size) is an implementation of direct manipulation.

11.1.2 Reduce the User's Memory Load

The more a user has to remember, the more error-prone the interaction with the system will be. It is for this reason that a well-designed user interface does not tax the user's memory. Whenever possible, the system should "remember" pertinent information and assist the user with an interaction scenario that assists recall. Mandel [Man97] defines design principles that enable an interface to reduce the user's memory load: Reduce demand on short-term memory. When users are involved in complex tasks, the demand on short-term memory can be significant. The interface should be designed to reduce the requirement to remember past actions, inputs, and results. note: "I have always wished that my computer would be as easy to use as my telephone. My wish has come true. I no longer know how to use my telephone." Bjarne Stronstrup (originator of C)

pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 314 CHAPTER 11 USER INTERFACE DESIGN 315 This can be accomplished by providing visual cues that enable a user to recognize past actions, rather than having to recall them. Establish meaningful defaults. The initial set of defaults should make sense for the average user, but a user should be able to specify individual preferences. However, a "reset" option should be available, enabling the redefinition of original default values. Define shortcuts that are intuitive. When mnemonics are used to accomplish a system function (e.g., alt-P to invoke the print function), the mnemonic should be tied to the action in a way that is easy to remember (e.g., first letter of the task to be invoked). The visual layout of the interface should be based on a real-world metaphor. For example, a bill payment system should use a checkbook and check register metaphor to guide the user through the bill paying process. This enables the user to rely on well-understood visual cues, rather than memorizing an arcane interaction sequence. Disclose information in a progressive fashion. The interface should be organized hierarchically. That is, information about a task, an object, or some behavior should be presented first at a high level of abstraction. More detail should be presented after the user indicates interest with a mouse pick. An example, common to many word-processing applications, is the underlining function. The function itself is one of a number of functions under a text style menu. However, every underlining capability is not listed. The user must pick underlining; then all underlining options (e.g., single underline, double underline, dashed underline) are presented.

Violating a UI Golden Rule

The scene: Vinod's cubicle, as user interface design begins. The players: Vinod and Jamie, members of the SafeHome software engineering team. The conversation: Jamie: I've been thinking about the surveillance function interface. Vinod (smiling): Thinking is good. Jamie: I think maybe we can simplify matters some. Vinod: Meaning? Jamie: Well, what if we eliminate the floor plan entirely. It's flashy, but it's going to take serious

development effort. Instead we just ask the user to specify the camera he wants to see and then display the video in a video window. Vinod: How does the homeowner remember how many cameras are set up and where they are? Jamie (mildly irritated): He's the homeowner; he should know. Vinod: But what if he doesn't? Jamie: He should. SAFEHOME pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 315 316 PART TWO MODELING 11.1.3 Make the Interface Consistent The interface should present and acquire information in a consistent fashion. This implies that (1) all visual information is organized according to design rules that are maintained throughout all screen displays, (2) input mechanisms are constrained to a limited set that is used consistently throughout the application, and (3) mechanisms for navigating from task to task are consistently defined and implemented. Mandel [Man97] defines a set of design principles that help make the interface consistent: Allow the user to put the current task into a meaningful context. Many interfaces implement complex layers of interactions with dozens of screen images. It is important to provide indicators (e.g., window titles, graphical icons, consistent color coding) that enable the user to know the context of the work at hand. In addition, the user should be able to determine where he has come from and what alternatives exist for a transition to a new task. Maintain consistency across a family of applications. A set of applications (or products) should all implement the same design rules so that consistency is maintained for all interaction. If past interactive models have created user expectations, do not make changes unless there is a compelling reason to do so. Once a particular interactive sequence has become a de facto standard (e.g., the use of alt-S to save a file), the user expects this in every application he encounters. A change (e.g., using alt-S to invoke scaling) will cause confusion. The interface design principles discussed in this and the preceding sections provide you with basic guidance. In the sections that follow, you'll learn about the interface design process itself. ANSWER THE QUESTION : State and define three golden rules for interface design in details



ChatGPT:

The three golden rules for interface design, as coined by Theo Mandel, are:

1. Place the User in Control:

- **Define Interaction Modes Appropriately:** Users should not be forced into unnecessary or undesired actions due to the interface's design. Interaction modes should be designed to allow users to enter and exit with minimal effort.
- **Provide Flexible Interaction:** Offer choices for interaction preferences, such as keyboard commands, mouse movement, touch screens, or voice recognition.
- **Allow Interruption and Undo:** Users should be able to interrupt ongoing sequences of actions and undo any action.
- **Streamline Interaction with Skill Levels:** As users become more proficient, streamline the interaction and allow customization for advanced users.
- **Hide Technical Internals:** Users should not be exposed to or required to interact with the technical details of the system.

2. Reduce the User's Memory Load:

- **Reduce Demand on Short-Term Memory:** Design interfaces that reduce the requirement for users to remember past actions, inputs, and results. Use visual cues to aid recall.
- **Establish Meaningful Defaults:** Set initial defaults that make sense for the average user but allow customization. Provide a reset option.
- **Define Intuitive Shortcuts:** Use mnemonics and shortcuts that are easy to remember and tied to the actions they represent.
- **Base Visual Layout on Real-World Metaphors:** Use metaphors familiar to users to guide them through tasks and rely on well-understood visual cues.

3. Make the Interface Consistent:

- **Provide Context for Tasks:** Allow users to put the current task into a meaningful context through indicators like window titles, icons, and color coding.
- **Maintain Consistency Across Applications:** Ensure consistency in design rules across a family of applications or products.
- **Consider User Expectations:** Do not make changes to established interactive models unless there is a compelling reason to do so. Consistency with user expectations is essential.

These rules serve as fundamental principles to guide user interface design, fostering usability, and enhancing the overall user experience.



Cohesion In Chapter 8, I described cohesion as the “single-mindedness” of a component. Within the context of component-level design for object-oriented systems, cohesion What should we consider when we name components? ? 3 It is unlikely that someone from marketing or the customer organization (a nontechnical type) would examine detailed design information. pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:46 PM Page 286 implies that a component or class encapsulates only attributes and operations that are closely related to one another and to the class or component itself. Lethbridge and Laganière [Let01] define a number of different types of cohesion (listed in order of the level of the cohesion4): Functional. Exhibited primarily by operations, this level of cohesion occurs when a component performs a targeted computation and then returns a result. Layer. Exhibited by packages, components, and classes, this type of cohe- sion occurs when a higher layer accesses the services of a lower layer, but lower layers do not access higher layers. Consider, for example, the SafeHome security function requirement to make an outgoing phone call if an alarm is sensed. It might be possible to define a set of layered packages as shown in Figure 10.5. The shaded packages contain infrastructure compo- nents. Access is from the control panel package downward. Communicational. All operations that access the same data are defined within one class. In general, such classes focus solely on the data in ques- tion, accessing and storing it. Classes and components that exhibit functional, layer, and communicational cohesion are relatively easy to implement, test, and maintain. You should strive to achieve these levels of cohesion whenever possible. It is important to note, however, that pragmatic design and implementation issues sometimes force you to opt for lower levels of cohesion. Coupling In earlier discussions of analysis and design, I noted that communication and collaboration are essential elements of any object-oriented system. There is, however, a darker side to this important (and necessary) characteristic. As the amount of com- munication and collaboration increases (i.e., as the degree of “connectedness” between classes increases), the complexity of the system also increases. And as complexity increases, the difficulty of implementing, testing, and maintaining software grows. Coupling is a qualitative measure of the degree to which classes are connected to one another. As classes (and components) become more interdependent, coupling increases. An important objective in component-level design is to keep coupling as low as is possible. pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:47 PM Page 288 Class coupling can manifest itself in a variety of ways. Lethbridge and Laganière [Let01] define the following coupling categories: Content coupling. Occurs when one component “surreptitiously modifies data that is internal to another component” [Let01]. This violates information hiding—a basic design concept. Common coupling. Occurs when a number of components all make use of a global variable. Although this is sometimes necessary (e.g., for establishing default values that are applicable throughout an application), common coupling can lead to uncontrolled error propagation and unforeseen side effects when changes are made. Control coupling. Occurs when operation A() invokes operation B() and passes a control flag to B. The control flag then “directs” logical flow within B. The problem with this form of coupling is that an unrelated change in B can result in the necessity to change the meaning of the control flag that A passes. If this is overlooked, an error will result. Stamp coupling. Occurs when ClassB is declared as a type for an argu- ment of an operation of ClassA. Because ClassB is now a part of

the definition of ClassA, modifying the system becomes more complex. Data coupling. Occurs when operations pass long strings of data arguments. The “bandwidth” of communication between classes and components grows and the complexity of the interface increases. Testing and maintenance are more difficult. Routine call coupling. Occurs when one operation invokes another. This level of coupling is common and is often quite necessary. However, it does increase the connectedness of a system. Type use coupling. Occurs when component A uses a data type defined in component B (e.g., this occurs whenever “a class declares an instance variable or a local variable as having another class for its type” [Let01]). If the type definition changes, every component that uses the definition must also change. Inclusion or import coupling. Occurs when component A imports or includes a package or the content of component B. External coupling. Occurs when a component communicates or collaborates with infrastructure components (e.g., operating system functions, database capability, telecommunication functions). Although this type of coupling is necessary, it should be limited to a small number of components or classes within a system. Software must communicate internally and externally. Therefore, coupling is a fact of life. However, the designer should work to reduce coupling whenever possible and understand the ramifications of high coupling when it cannot be avoided. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Compare Coupling and Cohesion.



Coupling and Cohesion: A Comparison

Cohesion:

1. **Definition:** Cohesion refers to the degree to which the elements within a component (class or module) are closely related to each other.
2. **Objective:** The goal of cohesion is to ensure that a component encapsulates attributes and operations that are closely related, promoting a single-minded purpose.
3. **Types of Cohesion:**
 - Functional Cohesion: Operations perform a targeted computation and return a result.
 - Layer Cohesion: Higher layers access services of lower layers, but not vice versa.
 - Communicational Cohesion: Operations that access the same data are within one class.
4. **Benefits:** Components with high cohesion are easier to implement, test, and maintain. Pragmatically, higher cohesion is preferred, but design issues may impact the achievable level.

Coupling:

1. **Definition:** Coupling measures the degree of interconnectedness or dependency between different components (classes or modules).
2. **Objective:** The goal of coupling is to minimize interdependence between components to reduce complexity, making the system more manageable.
3. **Types of Coupling:**
 - Content Coupling: One component modifies internal data of another, violating information hiding.
 - Common Coupling: Multiple components use a global variable, potentially leading to uncontrolled error propagation.
 - Control Coupling: One operation directs the logical flow of another through a control flag.
 - Stamp Coupling: A class is declared as a type for an argument of an operation of another class.
 - Data Coupling: Operations pass long strings of data arguments, increasing communication complexity.

- Routine Call Coupling: One operation invokes another, increasing system connectedness.
 - Type Use Coupling: A component uses a data type defined in another component.
 - Inclusion or Import Coupling: A component includes or imports another component.
 - External Coupling: A component communicates or collaborates with external infrastructure components.
4. **Benefits:** Lower coupling reduces complexity, making the system more modular and easier to understand, implement, test, and maintain.

Comparison:

- **Relationship:** Cohesion is about the internal unity of a component, while coupling deals with the relationships between components.
- **Goal:** Cohesion aims for a focused and purposeful component, while coupling aims for minimized interdependence to reduce complexity.
- **Impact:** High cohesion is generally preferred for ease of implementation, while low coupling is sought to manage system complexity.
- **Trade-offs:** Pragmatic design may sometimes lead to compromises in achieving ideal levels of cohesion or coupling based on specific project constraints and requirements.



coupling In earlier discussions of analysis and design, I noted that communication and collaboration are essential elements of any object-oriented system. There is, however, a darker side to this important (and necessary) characteristic. As the amount of communication and collaboration increases (i.e., as the degree of “connectedness” between classes increases), the complexity of the system also increases. And as complexity increases, the difficulty of implementing, testing, and maintaining software grows. Coupling is a qualitative measure of the degree to which classes are connected to one another. As classes (and components) become more interdependent, coupling increases. An important objective in component-level design is to keep coupling as low as is possible.

pre75977_ch10.qxd 11/27/08 3:47 PM Page 288 Class coupling can manifest itself in a variety of ways. Lethbridge and Laganière [Let01] define the following coupling categories: Content coupling. Occurs when one component “surreptitiously modifies data that is internal to another component” [Let01]. This violates information hiding—a basic design concept. Common coupling. Occurs when a number of components all make use of a global variable. Although this is sometimes necessary (e.g., for establishing default values that are applicable throughout an application), common coupling can lead to uncontrolled error propagation and unforeseen side effects when changes are made. Control coupling. Occurs when operation A() invokes operation B() and passes a control flag to B. The control flag then “directs” logical flow within B. The problem with this form of coupling is that an unrelated change in B can result in the necessity to change the meaning of the control flag that A passes. If this is overlooked, an error will result. Stamp coupling. Occurs when ClassB is declared as a type for an argument of an operation of ClassA. Because ClassB is now a part of the definition of ClassA, modifying the system becomes more complex. Data coupling. Occurs when operations pass long strings of data arguments. The “bandwidth” of communication between classes and components grows and the complexity of the interface increases. Testing and maintenance are more difficult. Routine call coupling. Occurs when one operation invokes another. This level of coupling is common and is often quite necessary. However, it does increase the connectedness of a system. Type use coupling. Occurs when component A uses a data type defined in component B (e.g., this occurs whenever “a class declares an instance variable or a local variable as having another class for its type” [Let01]). If the type definition changes, every component that uses the definition must also change. Inclusion or import coupling. Occurs when component A imports or includes a package or the content of component B. External coupling. Occurs when a component communicates or collaborates with infrastructure components (e.g., operating system functions, database capability, telecommunication functions). Although this type of coupling is necessary, it should be limited to a small number of components

or classes within a system. Software must communicate internally and externally. Therefore, coupling is a fact of life. However, the designer should work to reduce coupling whenever possible and understand the ramifications of high coupling when it cannot be avoided. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Explain different types of Coupling and its effects on software modules.



ChatGPT:

Types of Coupling and Their Effects on Software Modules:

1. Content Coupling:

- **Definition:** Occurs when one component modifies data internal to another component.
- **Effect:** Violates information hiding, making components dependent on each other's internal data structures.
- **Impact:** Increases the risk of unintended side effects and makes maintenance challenging.

2. Common Coupling:

- **Definition:** Multiple components make use of a global variable.
- **Effect:** Components share a global resource, leading to uncontrolled error propagation and unforeseen side effects.
- **Impact:** Changes to the global variable can affect multiple components, making the system harder to understand and maintain.

3. Control Coupling:

- **Definition:** Occurs when one operation passes a control flag to another to direct logical flow.
- **Effect:** Changes in the invoked operation may require changes in the meaning of the control flag.
- **Impact:** Increases dependency between operations, making the system more fragile to changes.

4. Stamp Coupling:

- **Definition:** ClassB is declared as a type for an argument of an operation of ClassA.
- **Effect:** Modifying the system becomes complex due to the interdependence of class definitions.
- **Impact:** Changes in ClassB can affect ClassA, leading to challenges in maintenance.

5. Data Coupling:

- **Definition:** Operations pass long strings of data arguments.
- **Effect:** Increases the bandwidth of communication, making the interface more complex.
- **Impact:** Testing and maintenance become more challenging as the complexity of data communication grows.

6. Routine Call Coupling:

- **Definition:** One operation invokes another.
- **Effect:** Increases the connectedness of the system.
- **Impact:** While common and necessary, it contributes to the overall complexity of the system.

7. Type Use Coupling:

- **Definition:** Component A uses a data type defined in component B.
- **Effect:** Changes in the type definition require modifications in every component using it.
- **Impact:** Increases dependencies between components, affecting the adaptability of the system.

8. Inclusion or Import Coupling:

- **Definition:** Component A imports or includes a package or the content of component B.
- **Effect:** Components are dependent on the internal structure of other components.
- **Impact:** Increases interdependence, making it challenging to modify components independently.

9. External Coupling:

- **Definition:** A component communicates or collaborates with external infrastructure components.
- **Effect:** Necessary for interaction with external systems but should be limited.
- **Impact:** Overreliance on external components can make the system less modular and more susceptible to changes in external systems.

Overall Impact:

- **High Coupling:** Increases complexity, making the system harder to implement, test, and maintain.
- **Low Coupling:** Promotes modularity and independence, easing system understanding and maintenance.



You:

Q14 - Q22 Both are same !!



ChatGPT:

It appears that there was an error, and questions 14 to 22 are indeed duplicates. If you have additional questions or if there's a specific topic you'd like information on, please feel free to ask!



You:

The phrase “user interface” is probably all the justification needed to spend some time understanding the user before worrying about technical matters. Earlier I noted that each user has a mental image of the software that may be different from the mental image developed by other users. In addition, the user’s mental image may be vastly different from the software engineer’s design model. The only way that you can get the mental image and the design model to converge is to work to understand the users themselves as well as how these people will use the system. Information from a broad array of sources can be used to accomplish this: User Interviews. The

most direct approach, members of the software team meet with end users to better understand their needs, motivations, work culture, and a myriad of other issues. This can be accomplished in one-on-one meetings or through focus groups.

Sales input. Sales people meet with users on a regular basis and can gather information that will help the software team to categorize users and better understand their requirements.

Marketing input. Market analysis can be invaluable in the definition of market segments and an understanding of how each segment might use the software in subtly different ways.

Support input. Support staff talks with users on a daily basis. They are the most likely source of information on what works and what doesn't, what users like and what they dislike, what features generate questions and what features are easy to use.

The following set of questions (adapted from [Hac98]) will help you to better understand the users of a system:

- Are users trained professionals, technicians, clerical, or manufacturing workers?
- What level of formal education does the average user have?
- Are the users capable of learning from written materials or have they expressed a desire for classroom training?
- Are users expert typists or keyboard phobic?
- What is the age range of the user community?
- Will the users be represented predominately by one gender?
- How are users compensated for the work they perform?

How do we learn what the user wants from the UI? ? Above all, spend time talking to actual users, but be careful. One strong opinion doesn't necessarily mean that the majority of users will agree. How do we learn about the demographics and characteristics of end users?

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- Do users work normal office hours or do they work until the job is done?
- Is the software to be an integral part of the work users do or will it be used only occasionally?
- What is the primary spoken language among users?
- What are the consequences if a user makes a mistake using the system?
- Are users experts in the subject matter that is addressed by the system?
- Do users want to know about the technology that sits behind the interface?

Once these questions are answered, you'll know who the end users are, what is likely to motivate and please them, how they can be grouped into different user classes or profiles, what their mental models of the system are, and how the user interface must be characterized to meet their needs.

ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe user level analysis of software interface design.



User level analysis in software interface design involves gaining a deep understanding of the users who will interact with the software system. This analysis is crucial for creating a user interface (UI) that aligns with the needs, expectations, and characteristics of the intended user base. Here are key aspects of user level analysis:

1. User Interviews:

- **Purpose:** Conduct one-on-one interviews or focus group sessions with end users to understand their needs, motivations, work culture, and preferences.
- **Insights:** Gather insights into how users currently work, their challenges, and what they expect from the software.

2. Sales Input:

- **Purpose:** Leverage information gathered by sales teams during regular interactions with users.
- **Insights:** Understand user categorizations, preferences, and requirements based on feedback received by sales personnel.

3. Marketing Input:

- **Purpose:** Analyze market segments to comprehend how different user groups might utilize the software.

- **Insights:** Identify subtle variations in user needs across different market segments.

4. Support Input:

- **Purpose:** Tap into the knowledge of support staff who regularly interact with users.
- **Insights:** Gain insights into user experiences, common issues, and user preferences related to the software.

5. Demographic Information:

- **Questions to Ask:**
 - Users' professional background and roles.
 - Level of formal education.
 - Preferred learning methods (e.g., self-learning or classroom training).
 - Typing proficiency.
 - Age range and gender distribution.
 - Compensation structure.
 - Working hours and work intensity.
 - Language preferences.

6. User Characteristics:

- **Questions to Ask:**
 - How frequently will the software be used?
 - Integration of the software into daily tasks.
 - Primary spoken language.
 - Consequences of user mistakes.
 - Expertise in the subject matter addressed by the system.
 - Interest in technical details behind the interface.

7. Outcome:

- **User Profiles:** Create user personas or profiles based on the collected information.
- **User Needs and Preferences:** Identify user expectations, preferences, and any specific requirements.
- **Tailored UI Design:** Use the insights to design a user interface that aligns with the characteristics and expectations of the identified user groups.

User level analysis is a foundational step in UI design, ensuring that the resulting interface is user-friendly, efficient, and aligned with the diverse needs of the user base.



Four different models come into play when a user interface is to be analyzed and designed. A human engineer (or the software engineer) establishes a user model, the software engineer creates a design model, the end user develops a mental image that is often called the user's mental model or the system perception, and the implementers Usability In an insightful paper on usability, Larry Constantine [Con95] asks a question that has significant bearing on the subject: "What do users want, anyway?" He answers this way: What users really want are good tools. All software systems, from operating systems and languages to data entry and decision support applications, are just tools. End users want from the tools we engineer for them much the same as we expect from the tools we use. They want systems that are easy to learn and that help them do their work. They want software that doesn't slow them down, that doesn't trick or confuse them, that doesn't make it easier to make mistakes or harder to finish the job. Constantine argues that usability is not derived from aesthetics, state-of-the-art interaction mechanisms, or built-in interface

intelligence. Rather, it occurs when the architecture of the interface fits the needs of the people who will be using it. A formal definition of usability is somewhat illusive. Donahue and his colleagues [Don99] define it in the following manner: “Usability is a measure of how well a computer system . . . facilitates learning; helps learners remember what they’ve learned; reduces the likelihood of errors; enables them to be efficient, and makes them satisfied with the system.” The only way to determine whether “usability” exists within a system you are building is to conduct usability assessment or testing. Watch users interact with the system and answer the following questions [Con95]:

- Is the system usable without continual help or instruction?
- Do the rules of interaction help a knowledgeable user to work efficiently?
- Do interaction mechanisms become more flexible as users become more knowledgeable?
- Has the system been tuned to the physical and social environment in which it will be used?
- Is the user aware of the state of the system? Does the user know where she is at all times?
- Is the interface structured in a logical and consistent manner?
- Are interaction mechanisms, icons, and procedures consistent across the interface?
- Does the interaction anticipate errors and help the user correct them?
- Is the interface tolerant of errors that are made?
- Is the interaction simple?

If each of these questions is answered “yes,” it is likely that usability has been achieved. Among the many measurable benefits derived from a usable system are [Don99]: increased sales and customer satisfaction, competitive advantage, better reviews in the media, better word of mouth, reduced support costs, improved end-user productivity, reduced training costs, reduced documentation costs, reduced likelihood of litigation from unhappy customers. INFO WebRef An excellent source of UI design information can be found at www.useit.com. pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 317 318 PART TWO MODELING of the system create an implementation model. Unfortunately, each of these models may differ significantly. Your role, as an interface designer, is to reconcile these differences and derive a consistent representation of the interface. The user model establishes the profile of end users of the system. In his introductory column on “user-centric design,” Jeff Patton [Pat07] notes: The truth is, designers and developers—myself included—often think about users. However, in the absence of a strong mental model of specific users, we self-substitute. Self-substitution isn’t user centric—it’s self-centric. To build an effective user interface, “all design should begin with an understanding of the intended users, including profiles of their age, gender, physical abilities, education, cultural or ethnic background, motivation, goals and personality” [Shn04]. In addition, users can be categorized as:

- Novices. No syntactic knowledge¹ of the system and little semantic knowledge² of the application or computer usage in general.
- Knowledgeable, intermittent users. Reasonable semantic knowledge of the application but relatively low recall of syntactic information necessary to use the interface.
- Knowledgeable, frequent users. Good semantic and syntactic knowledge that often leads to the “power-user syndrome”; that is, individuals who look for shortcuts and abbreviated modes of interaction.

The user’s mental model (system perception) is the image of the system that end users carry in their heads. For example, if the user of a particular word processor were asked to describe its operation, the system perception would guide the response. The accuracy of the description will depend upon the user’s profile (e.g., novices would provide a sketchy response at best) and overall familiarity with software in the application domain. A user who understands word processors fully but has worked with the specific word processor only once might actually be able to provide a more complete description of its function than the novice who has spent weeks trying to learn the system. The implementation model combines the outward manifestation of the computer-based system (the look and feel of the interface), coupled with all supporting information (books, manuals, videotapes, help files) that describes interface syntax and semantics. When the implementation model and the user’s mental model are coincident, users generally feel comfortable with the software and use it effectively. To accomplish this “melding” of the models, the design model must have been noted: “If there’s a ‘trick’ to it, the UI is broken.” Douglas Anderson Even a novice user wants shortcuts; even knowledgeable, frequent users sometimes need guidance. Give them what they need.

1 In this context, syntactic knowledge refers to the mechanics of interaction that are required to use the interface effectively. 2 Semantic knowledge refers to the underlying sense of the application—an understanding of the functions that are performed, the meaning of input and output, and the goals and objectives of the system. The user’s mental model shapes how the user perceives the interface and whether the UI meets the user’s needs. pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 318 CHAPTER 11 USER INTERFACE DESIGN 319 developed to accommodate the information contained in the user model, and the implementation model must accurately reflect syntactic and semantic information about the interface. The models described in this section are “abstractions of

what the user is doing or thinks he is doing or what somebody else thinks he ought to be doing when he uses an interactive system" [Mon84]. In essence, these models enable the interface designer to satisfy a key element of the most important principle of user interface design: "Know the user, know the tasks."

11.2.2 The Process

The analysis and design process for user interfaces is iterative and can be represented using a spiral model similar to the one discussed in Chapter 2. Referring to Figure 11.1, the user interface analysis and design process begins at the interior of the spiral and encompasses four distinct framework activities [Man97]: (1) interface analysis and modeling, (2) interface design, (3) interface construction, and (4) interface validation. The spiral shown in Figure 11.1 implies that each of these tasks will occur more than once, with each pass around the spiral representing additional elaboration of requirements and the resultant design. In most cases, the construction activity involves prototyping—the only practical way to validate what has been designed. Interface analysis focuses on the profile of the users who will interact with the system. Skill level, business understanding, and general receptiveness to the new system are recorded; and different user categories are defined. For each user category, requirements are elicited. In essence, you work to understand the system perception (Section 11.2.1) for each class of users. Once general requirements have been defined, a more detailed task analysis is conducted. Those tasks that the user performs to accomplish the goals of the system note: "... pay attention to what users do, not what they say." Jakob Nielsen

Interface construction
Interface design
Interface validation
Interface analysis and modeling

FIGURE 11.1 The user interface design process

note: "It's better to design the user experience than rectify it." Jon Meads

pre75977_ch11.qxd 11/27/08 3:55 PM Page 319 320 PART TWO MODELING

are identified, described, and elaborated (over a number of iterative passes through the spiral). Task analysis is discussed in more detail in Section 11.3. Finally, analysis of the user environment focuses on the physical work environment. Among the questions to be asked are

- Where will the interface be located physically?
- Will the user be sitting, standing, or performing other tasks unrelated to the interface?
- Does the interface hardware accommodate space, light, or noise constraints?
- Are there special human factors considerations driven by environmental factors?

The information gathered as part of the analysis action is used to create an analysis model for the interface. Using this model as a basis, the design action commences. The goal of interface design is to define a set of interface objects and actions (and their screen representations) that enable a user to perform all defined tasks in a manner that meets every usability goal defined for the system. Interface design is discussed in more detail in Section 11.4. Interface construction normally begins with the creation of a prototype that enables usage scenarios to be evaluated. As the iterative design process continues, a user interface tool kit (Section 11.5) may be used to complete the construction of the interface. Interface validation focuses on (1) the ability of the interface to implement every user task correctly, to accommodate all task variations, and to achieve all general user requirements; (2) the degree to which the interface is easy to use and easy to learn, and (3) the users' acceptance of the interface as a useful tool in their work. As I have already noted, the activities described in this section occur iteratively. Therefore, there is no need to attempt to specify every detail (for the analysis or design model) on the first pass. Subsequent passes through the process elaborate task detail, design information, and the operational features of the interface.

ANSWER THE QUESTION : What is interface analysis? What is the significance of interface analysis? in short



ChatGPT:

Interface analysis is a critical phase in the process of designing user interfaces for software systems. It involves a systematic examination of various aspects related to the end users and their interaction with the system. The significance of interface analysis lies in its ability to provide valuable insights into user needs, expectations, and the context in which the software will be used. Here's a concise summary:

Interface Analysis:

1. **Definition:** Interface analysis is the systematic examination of user profiles, tasks, and the user environment to understand the requirements and characteristics that will influence the design of a user interface.

2. Key Aspects:

- **User Profiles:** Identification and categorization of users based on factors such as skill level, business understanding, and receptiveness to the system.
- **Task Analysis:** Detailed exploration and description of tasks users perform to achieve system goals.
- **User Environment:** Consideration of the physical work environment, including factors like location, user posture, hardware constraints, and environmental considerations.

3. Significance:

- **User Understanding:** Interface analysis provides a deep understanding of the end users, their skills, and the tasks they need to accomplish.
- **Requirements Elicitation:** It helps in eliciting requirements related to the user interface, ensuring that the design aligns with user needs.
- **System Perception:** Contributes to understanding the users' mental models (system perception) and tailoring the interface to match their expectations.
- **Usability Goals:** Supports the identification of usability goals, such as ease of use, efficiency, and user satisfaction.

4. **Iterative Process:** Interface analysis is an iterative process, with each pass refining the understanding of users, tasks, and the environment. It sets the foundation for subsequent design, construction, and validation activities.

In short, interface analysis is a foundational step that guides the design process by providing a comprehensive understanding of the users and their requirements, ultimately contributing to the creation of a user-friendly and effective software interface.



You:

Once you create an operational user interface prototype, it must be evaluated to determine whether it meets the needs of the user. Evaluation can span a formality spectrum that ranges from an informal “test drive,” in which a user provides impromptu feedback to a formally designed study that uses statistical methods for the evaluation of questionnaires completed by a population of end users. The user interface evaluation cycle takes the form shown in Figure 11.5. After the design model has been completed, a first-level prototype is created. The prototype is evaluated by the user,¹¹ who provides you with direct comments about the efficacy of the interface. In addition, if formal evaluation techniques are used (e.g., questionnaires, rating sheets), you can extract information from these data (e.g., 80 percent of all users did not like the mechanism for saving data files). Design modifications are made based on user input, and the next level prototype is created. The evaluation cycle continues until no further modifications to the interface design are necessary. ¹¹ It is important to note that experts in ergonomics and interface design may also conduct reviews of the interface. These reviews are called heuristic evaluations or cognitive walkthroughs.

CHAPTER 11 USER INTERFACE DESIGN 343 The prototyping approach is effective, but is it possible to evaluate the quality of a user interface before a prototype is built? If you identify and correct potential problems early, the number of loops through the evaluation cycle will be reduced and development time will shorten. If a design model of the interface has been created, a number of evaluation criteria [Mor81] can be applied during early design reviews: 1. The length and complexity of the requirements model or written specification of the system and its interface provide an indication of the amount of learning required by users of the system. 2. The number of user tasks specified and the average number of actions per task provide an indication of interaction time

and the overall efficiency of the system. 3. The number of actions, tasks, and system states indicated by the design model imply the memory load on users of the system. 4. Interface style, help facilities, and error handling protocol provide a general indication of the complexity of the interface and the degree to which it will be accepted by the user. Once the first prototype is built, you can collect a variety of qualitative and quantitative data that will assist in evaluating the interface. To collect qualitative data, questionnaires can be distributed to users of the prototype. Questions can be: (1) simple yes/no response, (2) numeric response, (3) scaled (subjective) response, (4) Likert Build prototype #n interface Evaluation is studied by designer User evaluates interface Design modifications are made Build prototype #1 interface Preliminary design Interface design is complete FIGURE 11.5 The interface design evaluation cycle 344 PART TWO MODELING scales (e.g., strongly agree, somewhat agree), (5) percentage (subjective) response, or (6) open-ended. If quantitative data are desired, a form of time-study analysis can be conducted. Users are observed during interaction, and data—such as number of tasks correctly completed over a standard time period, frequency of actions, sequence of actions, time spent “looking” at the display, number and types of errors, error recovery time, time spent using help, and number of help references per standard time period—are collected and used as a guide for interface modification. A complete discussion of user interface evaluation methods is beyond the scope of this book. For further information, see [Hac98] and [Sto05]. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Explain interface design evolution cycle.



The Interface Design Evolution Cycle is a systematic process that involves creating prototypes of user interfaces, evaluating them, making design modifications based on feedback, and repeating the cycle until the final interface meets user needs and expectations. Here's an explanation of the Interface Design Evolution Cycle:

1. Preliminary Design:

- **Objective:** The process begins with the completion of the preliminary design of the user interface. This includes creating a design model based on user analysis and task analysis.
- **Output:** The output of this phase is the initial design model that serves as a blueprint for the user interface.

2. Build Prototype #1:

- **Objective:** The first-level prototype of the user interface is constructed based on the preliminary design model.
- **Output:** The prototype serves as a tangible representation of the interface, allowing users to interact with it.

3. User Evaluation:

- **Objective:** Users evaluate the first-level prototype, providing direct feedback on its effectiveness, usability, and any issues they encounter.
- **Methods:** Evaluation can range from informal "test drives" to formal studies using questionnaires, rating sheets, and other evaluation techniques.
- **Output:** Direct comments and, if formal methods are used, quantitative data from the evaluation.

4. Design Modifications:

- **Objective:** Based on user input and evaluation data, design modifications are made to address identified issues, improve usability, and enhance the user experience.
- **Output:** A revised design model that incorporates changes and improvements suggested during the evaluation.

5. Build Prototype #n:

- **Objective:** A new prototype (second-level and subsequent) is constructed based on the modified design model.
- **Output:** Successive prototypes that iteratively refine the user interface design.

6. Interface Evolution Cycle:

- **Objective:** The evaluation cycle continues iteratively, with each iteration refining the design and incorporating user feedback.
- **Output:** The process repeats until no further modifications are deemed necessary, and the interface design is considered complete.

Early Design Reviews:

- **Objective:** Before building the first prototype, evaluation criteria from the design model can be applied during early design reviews.
- **Methods:** Criteria include the length and complexity of requirements, number of user tasks, memory load, interface style, help facilities, and error handling.

Data Collection:

- **Objective:** Qualitative and quantitative data are collected during user interactions with the prototype.
- **Methods:** Questionnaires, time-study analysis, and observation help gather information on efficiency, user satisfaction, error rates, and other relevant metrics.

The Interface Design Evolution Cycle emphasizes an iterative approach, allowing for continuous improvement and refinement of the user interface based on user feedback and evolving design models. This iterative process helps identify and correct potential problems early, reducing the number of loops through the cycle and shortening development time.



You:

Design Issues As the design of a user interface evolves, four common design issues almost always surface: system response time, user help facilities, error information handling, and Access
Configure System Status View Monitoring Monitoring First Floor SS S S S S S S M M Video Image
—LR LR DR KIT C C C Connect SafeHome Status Video Camera In Out L R S M C door/window
sensor motion detector (beam shown) video camera location FIGURE 11.3 Preliminary screen
layout WebRef A wide variety of UI design patterns has been proposed. For pointers to a variety of
patterns sites, visit www.hcipatterns.org. 332 PART TWO MODELING command labeling.
Unfortunately, many designers do not address these issues until relatively late in the design
process (sometimes the first inkling of a problem doesn't occur until an operational prototype is
available). Unnecessary iteration, project delays, and end-user frustration often result. It is far
better to establish each as a design issue to be considered at the beginning of software design,
when changes are easy and costs are low. Response time. System response time is the primary
complaint for many interactive applications. In general, system response time is measured from the
point at which the user performs some control action (e.g., hits the return key or clicks a mouse)
until the software responds with desired output or action. System response time has two important
characteristics: length and variability. If system response is too long, user frustration and stress are

inevitable. Variability refers to the deviation from average response time, and in many ways, it is the most important response time characteristic. Low variability enables the user to establish an interaction rhythm, even if response time is relatively long. For example, a 1-second response to a command will often be preferable to a response that varies from 0.1 to 2.5 seconds. When variability is significant, the user is always off balance, always wondering whether something “different” has occurred behind the scenes.

Help facilities. Almost every user of an interactive, computer-based system requires help now and then. In some cases, a simple question addressed to a knowledgeable colleague can do the trick. In others, detailed research in a multivolume set of “user manuals” may be the only option. In most cases, however, modern software provides online help facilities that enable a user to get a question answered or resolve a problem without leaving the interface. A number of design issues [Rub88] must be addressed when a help facility is considered:

- Will help be available for all system functions and at all times during system interaction? Options include help for only a subset of all functions and actions or help for all functions.
- How will the user request help? Options include a help menu, a special function key, or a HELP command.
- How will help be represented? Options include a separate window, a reference to a printed document (less than ideal), or a one- or two-line suggestion produced in a fixed screen location.
- How will the user return to normal interaction? Options include a return button displayed on the screen, a function key, or control sequence.

note: “A common mistake that people make when trying to design something completely foolproof is to underestimate the ingenuity of complete fools.” Douglas Adams

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How will help information be structured? Options include a “flat” structure in which all information is accessed through a keyword, a layered hierarchy of information that provides increasing detail as the user proceeds into the structure, or the use of hypertext.

Error handling. Error messages and warnings are “bad news” delivered to users of interactive systems when something has gone awry. At their worst, error messages and warnings impart useless or misleading information and serve only to increase user frustration. There are few computer users who have not encountered an error of the form: “Application XXX has been forced to quit because an error of type 1023 has been encountered.” Somewhere, an explanation for error 1023 must exist; otherwise, why would the designers have added the identification? Yet, the error message provides no real indication of what went wrong or where to look to get additional information. An error message presented in this manner does nothing to assuage user anxiety or to help correct the problem. In general, every error message or warning produced by an interactive system should have the following characteristics:

- The message should describe the problem in jargon that the user can understand.
- The message should provide constructive advice for recovering from the error.
- The message should indicate any negative consequences of the error (e.g., potentially corrupted data files) so that the user can check to ensure that they have not occurred (or correct them if they have).
- The message should be accompanied by an audible or visual cue. That is, a beep might be generated to accompany the display of the message, or the message might flash momentarily or be displayed in a color that is easily recognizable as the “error color.”
- The message should be “nonjudgmental.” That is, the wording should never place blame on the user. Because no one really likes bad news, few users will like an error message no matter how well designed. But an effective error message philosophy can do much to improve the quality of an interactive system and will significantly reduce user frustration when problems do occur.

Menu and command labeling. The typed command was once the most common mode of interaction between user and system software and was commonly used for applications of every type. Today, the use of window-oriented, point-and-pick interfaces has reduced reliance on typed commands, but some power-users continue to prefer a command-oriented mode of interaction. A number of design issues arise when typed commands or menu labels are provided as a mode of interaction:

- Will every menu option have a corresponding command?
- What form will commands take? Options include a control sequence (e.g., alt-P), function keys, or a typed word.
- How difficult will it be to learn and remember the commands? What can be done if a command is forgotten?
- Can commands be customized or abbreviated by the user?
- Are menu labels self-explanatory within the context of the interface?
- Are submenus consistent with the function implied by a master menu item?

As I noted earlier in this chapter, conventions for command usage should be established across all applications. It is confusing and often error-prone for a user to type alt-D when a graphics object is to be duplicated in one application and alt-D when a graphics object is to be deleted in another. The potential for

error is obvious. Application accessibility. As computing applications become ubiquitous, software engineers must ensure that interface design encompasses mechanisms that enable easy access for those with special needs. Accessibility for users (and software engineers) who may be physically challenged is an imperative for ethical, legal, and business reasons. A variety of accessibility guidelines (e.g., [W3C03])—many designed for Web applications but often applicable to all types of software—provide detailed suggestions for designing interfaces that achieve varying levels of accessibility. Others (e.g., [App08], [Mic08]) provide specific guidelines for “assistive technology” that addresses the needs of those with visual, hearing, mobility, speech, and learning impairments. Internationalization. Software engineers and their managers invariably underestimate the effort and skills required to create user interfaces that accommodate the needs of different locales and languages. Too often, interfaces are designed for one locale and language and then jury-rigged to work in other countries. The challenge for interface designers is to create “globalized” software. That is, user interfaces should be designed to accommodate a generic core of functionality that can be delivered to all who use the software. Localization features enable the interface to be customized for a specific market. A variety of internationalization guidelines (e.g., [IBM03]) are available to software engineers. These guidelines address broad design issues (e.g., screen layouts may differ in various markets) and discrete implementation issues (e.g., different alphabets may create specialized labeling and spacing requirements). The Unicode standard [Uni03] has been developed to address the daunting challenge of managing dozens of natural languages with hundreds of characters and symbols. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe design issues in user interface design.



Designing a user interface involves addressing several critical issues to ensure the effectiveness, usability, and accessibility of the software. Here are descriptions of common design issues in user interface design:

1. System Response Time:

- **Issue:** System response time refers to the time it takes for the software to respond after a user performs a control action.
- **Characteristics:** Length and variability of response time are crucial. Excessive delays or high variability can lead to user frustration.
- **Considerations:** Designers need to optimize response times and minimize variability to enhance user experience.

2. User Help Facilities:

- **Issue:** Users often require help during system interactions.
- **Design Considerations:**
 - **Availability:** Determine when and where help will be available (e.g., for all functions or specific tasks).
 - **Request Mechanism:** Define how users can request help (e.g., help menu, function key, or command).
 - **Representation:** Decide on the format for presenting help information (e.g., separate window, reference to printed documents, or on-screen suggestions).
 - **Return to Normal Interaction:** Specify how users can return to normal interaction after accessing help.
 - **Structure:** Define the structure of help information (e.g., flat, hierarchical, or hypertext).

3. Error Information Handling:

- **Issue:** Error messages and warnings need to effectively communicate issues to users.
- **Characteristics of Effective Error Messages:**
 - Understandable Jargon: Use language that users can comprehend.
 - Constructive Advice: Provide guidance for recovering from errors.
 - Indicate Consequences: Communicate any negative consequences of the error.
 - Audible or Visual Cue: Accompany error messages with a recognizable cue.
 - Nonjudgmental: Avoid blaming the user for errors.

4. Menu and Command Labeling:

- **Issue:** Designing effective menus and commands for both command-oriented and window-oriented interfaces.
- **Design Considerations:**
 - Correspondence: Decide if every menu option will have a corresponding command.
 - Command Forms: Determine the form of commands (e.g., control sequence, function keys, or typed words).
 - Learnability: Assess the ease of learning and remembering commands.
 - Customization: Consider allowing users to customize or abbreviate commands.
 - Self-Explanatory Labels: Ensure menu labels are self-explanatory.
 - Consistency: Maintain consistency in commands across applications.

5. Application Accessibility:

- **Issue:** Ensure accessibility for users with special needs, including those with physical challenges.
- **Considerations:** Adherence to accessibility guidelines, providing assistive technologies, and designing interfaces that accommodate various impairments.

6. Internationalization:

- **Issue:** Designing interfaces that can be adapted to different locales and languages.
- **Considerations:** Follow internationalization guidelines, create globalized software with a generic core, and use localization features to customize interfaces for specific markets.

Addressing these design issues early in the design process helps prevent unnecessary iterations, project delays, and user frustration, ultimately contributing to the success of the user interface.



You:

In Chapter 8, I described cohesion as the “single-mindedness” of a component. Within the context of component-level design for object-oriented systems, cohesion What should we consider when we name components? ? 3 It is unlikely that someone from marketing or the customer organization (a nontechnical type) would examine detailed design information. implies that a component or class encapsulates only attributes and operations that are closely related to one another and to the class or component itself. Lethbridge and Laganière [Let01] define a number of different types of cohesion (listed in order of the level of the cohesion4): Functional. Exhibited primarily by operations, this level of cohesion occurs when a component performs a targeted computation and then returns a result. Layer. Exhibited by packages, components, and classes, this type of cohesion occurs when a higher layer accesses the services of a lower layer, but lower layers do not access higher layers. Consider, for example, the SafeHome security function requirement to make an outgoing phone call if an alarm is sensed. It might be possible to define a set of layered packages as shown in Figure 10.5. The shaded packages contain infrastructure components. Access is from the control panel package downward. Communicational. All operations that access

the same data are defined within one class. In general, such classes focus solely on the data in question, accessing and storing it. Classes and components that exhibit functional, layer, and communicational cohesion are relatively easy to implement, test, and maintain. You should strive to achieve these levels of cohesion whenever possible. It is important to note, however, that pragmatic design and implementation issues sometimes force you to opt for lower levels of cohesion. ANSWER THE QUESTION : Describe layer cohesion in object-oriented systems.



ChatGPT:

In object-oriented systems, layer cohesion is a type of cohesion exhibited by packages, components, and classes. This cohesion occurs when a higher layer accesses the services of a lower layer, but lower layers do not access higher layers. Essentially, the layers are structured in a hierarchical manner, with each layer providing services to the layers beneath it.

Here are key points about layer cohesion:

1. Definition:

- Layer cohesion involves organizing components or classes into layers, where each layer represents a specific level of abstraction or functionality.
- Higher layers are allowed to access the services provided by lower layers, but the reverse is restricted. Lower layers remain encapsulated from the higher layers.

2. Example:

- Consider the example of a SafeHome security system. Different layers might be defined to handle various functionalities, such as user interface, business logic, and data storage.
- The control panel package, representing the user interface, could access services from a lower layer responsible for business logic. However, the business logic layer wouldn't directly access the user interface layer.

3. Benefits:

- Promotes a clear and structured organization of the system, with well-defined responsibilities for each layer.
- Enhances modularity and maintainability, as changes in one layer are less likely to affect other layers.
- Supports the principle of separation of concerns, where each layer focuses on a specific aspect of the system's functionality.

4. Implementation Considerations:

- Layer cohesion is beneficial for systems with distinct levels of abstraction or functionality. For example, a three-tier architecture commonly exhibits layer cohesion with presentation, business logic, and data layers.
- Pragmatic design decisions may sometimes lead to deviations from strict layer cohesion based on practical considerations and system requirements.

Achieving layer cohesion contributes to the overall maintainability, scalability, and comprehensibility of object-oriented systems. It aligns with the goal of structuring software in a way that reflects the natural organization of its components and their relationships.
