Professors d'IDI - UPC

### **IDI – Interaction Design (I)**

### **Motivation**

- Usability & Design Principles
- Perception Laws

#### **DIRECT MANIPULATION INTERFACES:**

- Pointing,
- choice selection
- Interaction Design and Evaluation:
  - Design User Interfaces
  - Measure/Predict performance
  - Design interaction

### **Outline**

#### Session 1:

- Understanding the fundamentals of basic interaction in UI
- Fitts' Law in UI Design
- Exercises

#### Session 2:

- Typing & Keyboards
- Pointing Devices
- Mobile Interaction Design
- Exercises

### **Outline**

#### Session 1:

- Understanding the fundamentals of basic interaction in UI
  - Background (Information Theory)
  - Hick-Hyman Law: Measuring Choice-Reaction Time
  - Fitts' Law: Measuring Pointing Time
  - Crossing and Steering Laws: Continuous Gestures
- Fitts' Law in UI Design
  - Applications in UI Design
  - Accelerating Target Acquisition
- Exercises

### Background. Basics

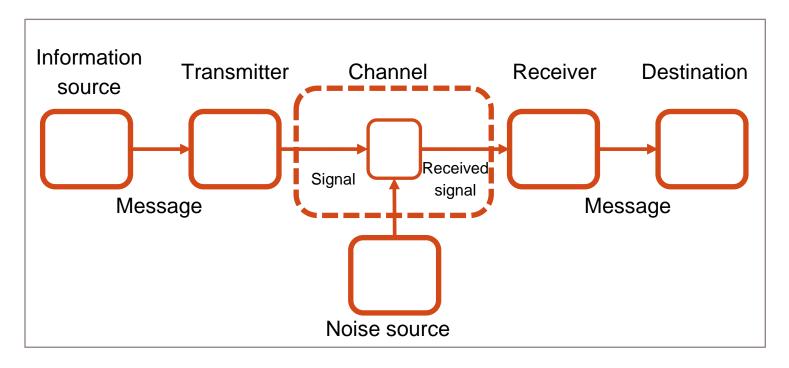
### Information Theory:

- Due to <u>Claude E. Shannon</u>
  - A Mathematical Theory of Communication (1948)
- Based on previous works by Nyquist and Hartley
- Analysis of transmission of electrical signals for telegraphic communication
- Shannon Entropy measures:

The amount of information to be transmitted by a message

### Background. Basics

Information Theory. Elements (telegraph):



### Background. Basics

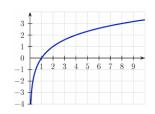
- Information Theory. Elements (telegraph):
  - Information source: The element that produces a message or sequences of message.
  - Transmitter: Operates on the message to make it transmissible through a medium.
  - Channel: The medium that transmits the message.
  - Receiver: The element that reconstruct the message to the destination.

- Let d be a device that produces symbols A, B, C and D with the same probability
  - M = 4 is the total number of symbols
  - Each time a symbol is produced we are <u>uncertain</u> on which symbol is going to be generated
    - This uncertainty is not so big, since there are only four possibilities
  - The probability of a symbol to appear is 1/M: 1/4
- The uncertainty is measured by  $log_2(M) \rightarrow log_2(4) = 2bits$
- Logarithms are commonly taken in base 2, and the units are bits.

- **Example 1**: Let *d* be a device that produces one single symbol: C
  - $\sim$  M = 1 is the total number of symbols
  - We have **no uncertainty** and  $log_2(1) = 0$
  - The probability of getting the symbol C is 1
  - We previously know which symbol will appear!
- **Example 2**: Let *d* and *e* be two devices, one with outputs A, B, C, and the second with outputs 1, 2.
  - We combine words by concatenating one symbol of device d and one with device e.
  - We will have 6 different words: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2
  - 6 symbols  $\rightarrow$  uncertainty of  $\log_2(6) \rightarrow \log_2(2) + \log_2(3) = \log_2(6)$ .
- The uncertainty of combined the signals of a set of devices is the sum of their uncertainties.

- For M symbols with equal probability → each symbol has probability P=1/M
  - Rewriting the uncertainty

$$\log_2(\mathbf{M}) = \log_2\left(\left(\frac{1}{\mathbf{M}}\right)^{-1}\right) = \log_2(\mathbf{P}^{-1}) = -\log_2(\mathbf{P})$$



- -log<sub>2</sub>(P) is called the surprise or surprisal of finding a certain symbol
- We will use  $p_i$  from now on for the probability of a symbol i
- For M symbols that have different probabilities, we may have a different  $p_i$  for each, provided that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M} p_i = 1$$

- Information is the reduction of uncertainty or average surprise of a set of symbols
  - Measuring the surprise for an *infinite* set of N symbols (produced by a device) 
     the frequency of each symbol transforms to the probability.
  - Shannon Entropy measures the amount of information:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{p_i}\right) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i \log_2 p_i$$

- N is the number of alternatives
- $p_i$  is the probability of the *i*th alternative.
- H is the entropy of the message that is to be transmitted,
  - → the amount of information expected to be received (no noise).

- Example 1: Source with two equiprobable symbols: A and B
  - p(A)=0.5, p(B)=0.5
  - $\bullet$  H= -0.5  $\log_2(0.5)$  0.5  $\log_2(0.5)$  =  $\log_2(0.5)$  =  $\log_2(2^{-1})$  = 1
- → The source requires an average of 1 bit per symbol.
- Example 2: Source with two symbols: A and B
  - p(A)=0.1, p(B)=0.9
  - $\bullet$  H= -0.1  $\log_2(0.1)$  0.9  $\log_2(0.9)$  = 0,332 + 0,137=0,47
- → The source requires an average of 0,47 bit per symbol.

$$p(A)=0.1, p(B)=0.9$$

H=0,47 bits  $\rightarrow$  Is it possible? We can achieve it using a smart codification of the information. For instance:

Symbols	Codification	Probability	Bits	Weighted bits
AA = 00	000	0,1*0,1=0,01	3	0,03
AB = 01	001	0,1*0,9=0,09	3	0,27
BA = 10	01	0,1*0,9=0,09	2	0,18
BB = 11	1	0,9*0,9=0,81	1	0,81
		1		1,29bits in average to send 2 symbols
				0,645 bits per symbol

- Information Theory. Shannon entropy:
  - There is interference: Not all information will reach the receiver
  - Average information faithfully transmitted (R):

$$R = H(x) - H_y(x)$$

 H<sub>y</sub>(x) is the equivocation or conditional entropy of x when y is known. Measures the information required to quantify the error.

$$\mathbf{x} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{y} \qquad H_{y}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N} p(x_{i}, y_{j}) \cdot log_{2}(p(x_{i}|y_{j}))$$

$$p: \text{ error probability}$$

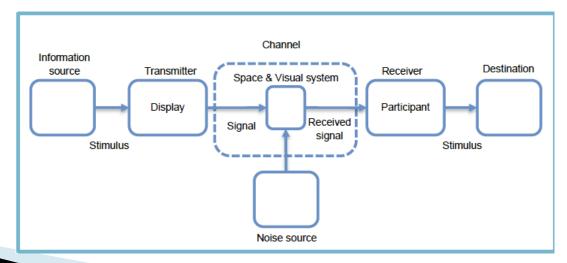
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## Hick-Hyman Law

- Hick-Hyman Law:
  - Initially stated by William E. Hick (1951)
  - Describes <u>human decision time</u> as a function of the information content conveyed by a visual stimulus
  - It takes longer to respond to a stimulus when it belongs to a large set as opposed to a smaller set of stimuli
  - Extended by Ray Hyman (1952)



### Hick-Hyman Law

Time to make a decision (Reaction Time):

$$RT = a + bH_T$$

- a, b constants
- H<sub>⊤</sub> transmitted information

## Hick-Hyman Law

- Hick-Hyman Law:
  - H<sub>T</sub>: Transmitted information:

$$H_T = \log_2(n+1)$$

- n are the equiprobable alternatives
- original formulation did not have the "+1"
   attends for the uncertainty whether to respond or not
- Time to answer is the Reaction Time:

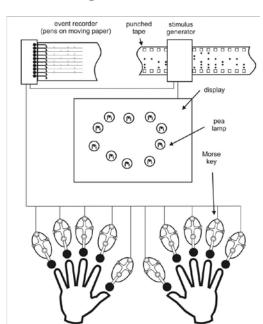
$$RT = a + b \log_2(n+1)$$

# Hick-Hyman Law Experimental assessment

- Hick's initial experiment:
  - 10 pea lamps are arranged in an irregular circle
  - One random lamp is lit every 5 seconds
  - User has to press the correct key corresponding to the lamp that is lit

Stimulus and response encoded in a moving paper in binary

code



# Hick-Hyman Law Experimental assessment

 Time to answer. Reaction Time is a linear function of stimulus information

$$RT = a + b \log_2(n+1)$$

- Hyman [Hyman53] found that it also holds for not equiprobable alternatives
- Experiment:
  - 8 lights (whose names were Bun, Boo, Bee, Bore, By, Bix, Bev, and Bate)
    - The users had to name the one lit
    - A microphone attached to the throat detected the voice and stopped the timer
    - First with equal probabilities
    - Then, with varying probabilities

## Hick-Hyman Law Evidences

- Evidences of Hick-Hyman Law
  - Performance in hierarchical full-screen menu selections is well described by Hick-Hyman [Landauer85]
  - Selection times decay logarithmically with menu length for frequently selected items, but linearly with infrequent ones [Sears 94].
    - Learnt locations (most frequent) fit Hick-Hyman decision times
    - > Non-learnt locations fit a linear search
  - Novice users search linearly while experts decide upon item location and fit a Hick-Hyman curve [Cockburn2008]

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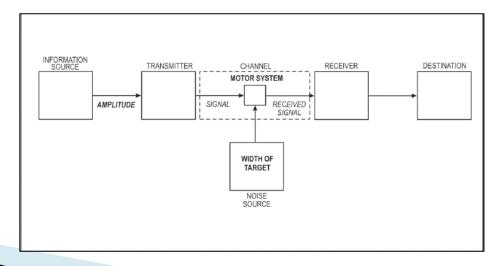
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### Fitts' Law Original Formulation

States a linear relationship between the movement time (MT) and task difficulty

$$MT = a + b ID$$

- Formulation is also based on Information Theory
  - Amplitude of movement is the signal
  - Human motor system is the communication channel
  - Target width is the noise



### Fitts' Law Original Formulation

Task difficulty:

$$ID = \log_2\left(\frac{2A}{W}\right)$$

- ID: Index of difficulty
- A: Amplitude of movement
- W: Target width
- The larger the amplitude the higher the difficulty
- The larger the target the lower the difficulty

### Fitts' Law Original Formulation

Movement Time: Time to point a certain objective (target)

$$MT = a + b ID$$

- a start/stop times in seconds
- b inherent speed of the device

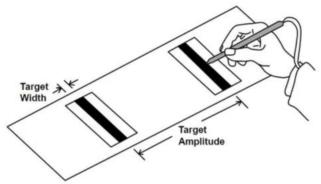
$$ID = \log_2\left(\frac{2A}{W}\right)$$

- A: Amplitude of movement
- W: Target width

# Fitts' Law Experimental Evidences

#### Fitts' Law. Original experiments:

- Experiment 1: Reciprocal tapping:
  - Participants used a metal-tipped stylus:
    - Two experiments with two different stylus: ~ 28.35 and 453.6 gr
  - Tap two strips of metallic targets of width from ~ 0.635 to 5.08 cm
  - At distance 5.08 to 40.64 cm
  - Participants instructed to be accurate!



# Fitts' Law Experimental Evidences

### Fitts' Law. Original experiments:

- Experiment 2: Disk transfer
  - Participants had to transfer stack round plastic disks (with holes drilled trough the middle) from one pin to another
  - Holes of different sizes and pins of different diameters used
- Experiment 3: Pin transfer
  - Participants had to transfer pins of different diameters from a set of holes to another set of holes

# Fitts' Law Experimental Evidences

$$ID = \log_2\left(\frac{2A}{W}\right)$$

10

12

Fitts' Law. Results.

y = 94.7x + 12.8

 $R^2 = 0.9664$ 

ID (bits)

800

700

600

500

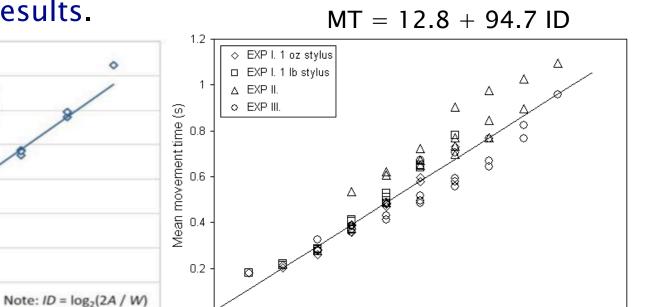
300

200

100

0

0



Index of Difficulty (ID)

> Results show that there is a linear relationship between MT and ID

0

- Most difficult condition: Smaller W and largest A
- Only valid for the experiments carried out
  - One curve per experiment fits better (different a and b values)

## Fitts' Law Variants

- Original formulation fits well to the original experiments
  - But it might fit better
- Other researchers have found different formulations that better model the experimental data
  - Including the experimental data by Fitts
- Welford [Welford68]:

$$MT = a + b \log_2 \left( \frac{D + 0.5W}{W} \right)$$

- D is the distance of movement
- W is the width of the target

## Fitts' Law Variants

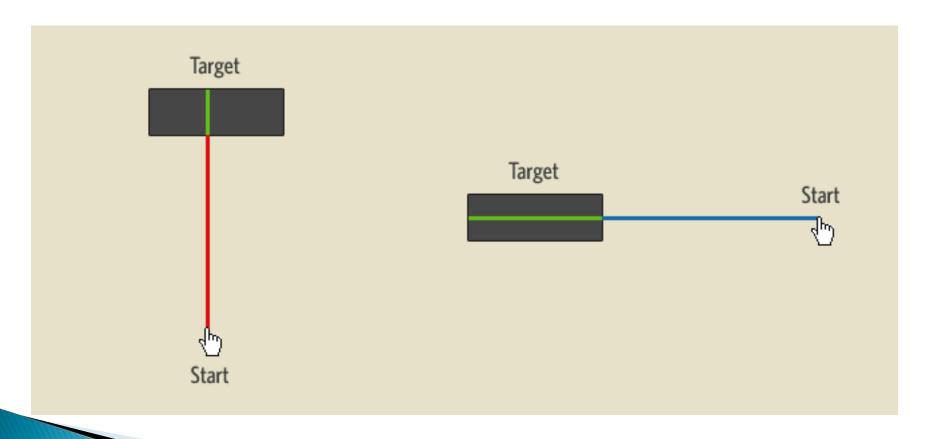
MacKenzie's approach [MacKenzie92] is one of the most accepted:

$$MT = a + b \log_2 \left( \frac{D}{W} + 1 \right)$$

- D is the distance of movement
- W is the width of the target

# Fitts' Law Variants

Vertical and horizontal movements can be treated equally

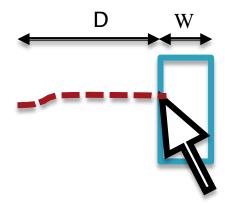


## Fitts' Law Extensions

- Main application of Fitts in HCI is evaluation/design of UI and interaction
- Today's interfaces are much more complex
  - Variety of sizes
  - 2D movements
  - Use of fingers

## Fitts' Law Extensions

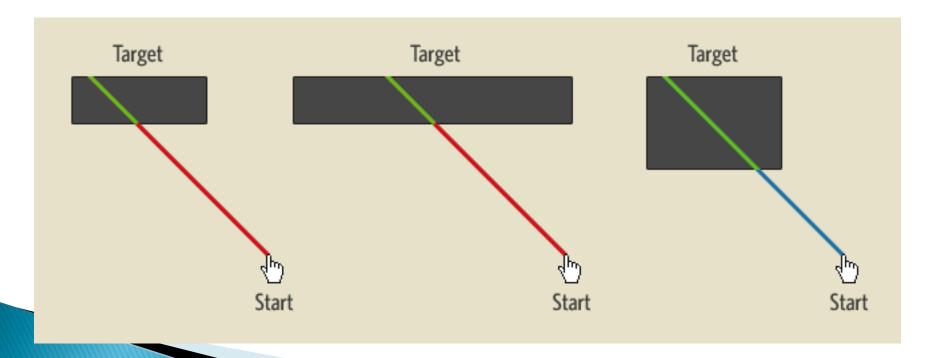
Use in UI design or evaluation:



- D is the distance the pointer (mouse) covers to reach the target (button)
- W is the width of the target (button)

## Fitts' Law Extensions 2D

- Fitts' Law is designed for 1D movements BUT...most movements in a UI are 2D
- Vertical and horizontal movements can be treated equally... or not?



## Fitts' Law Extensions 2D

- Several extensions deal with 2D movements
  - Mimicking Fitts' Law, but changing some of the parameters
  - [Crossman83]:

$$MT = a + b \log_2 \left(\frac{2D}{W}\right) + c \log_2 \left(\frac{2D}{H}\right)$$

• [Accot97]:

$$MT = a + b \log_2 \left( \sqrt{\left(\frac{D}{W}\right)^2 + \eta \left(\frac{D}{H}\right)^2 + 1} \right)$$

# Fitts' Law Extensions: Precision Pointing

- Fitts Law does not model properly very small targets:
  - Extra time devoted to fine adjustment
  - Increase of errors
  - 0
- Very small targets yield a lower fit of the regression curve of the MT function
- Touchscreens also modifies the timing we require to point targets.

# Fitts' Law Extensions: Precision Pointing

Extension of Fitts' Law by analyzing the behavior both in tactile screens and small targets ([Sears 91]):

Named FFitts (Finger Fitts), also PPMT (Precision Pointing Movement Time) by some other authors:

$$FFits = a + bID + dID_2$$

$$FFitts = a + b \left[ \log_2 \left( \frac{cD}{W} \right) \right] + d \left[ \log_2 \left( \frac{e}{W} \right) \right]$$

> The higher number of freedom degrees, the easier to fit in a regression curve

# Fitts' Law Extensions: Precision Pointing

#### FFitts:

$$FFitts = a + b \left[ \log_2 \left( \frac{cD}{W} \right) \right] + d \left[ \log_2 \left( \frac{e}{W} \right) \right]$$

- the first logarithmic factor measures the time to place the finger on the screen initially
- the second factor measures *the time to position the cursor*
- D is the distance, measured in three dimensions, from the original hand location to the location of first contact
- If the task consists of iteratively clicking targets: D is the distance from one target to the next one
- W is some measurement of target size
- a, b, c, d, and e must be determined for each specific case

#### Fitts' Law Assessed Results

- Validation of Fitts' Law may not extrapolate to outside the experiments carried out
  - ➤ Validity Fitts → Experimentation
- Fitts' Law have been formulated in a number of ways, however its prediction is consistent:
  - "the ID to acquire a target is function of the distance to and the size of the target"

#### Fitts' Law Assessed Results

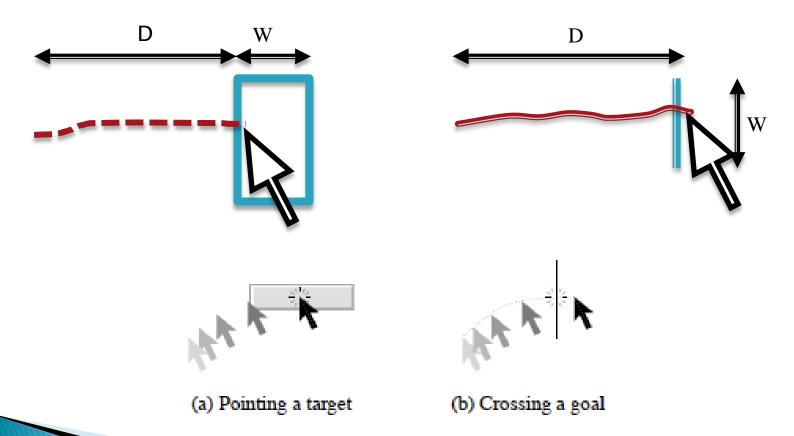
- Fitts' Law has shown its validity in multiple setups and devices:
  - Mouse, joystick, finger, stylus...
  - Different screen types of varying sizes...
  - But the results cannot be extrapolate to data outside the experiment. Validity Fitts > Experimentation
- Fitts' law is a really good predictive model of human movement.
- Precued targets lead to more efficient and precise pointing movements than for non-precued targets [Hertzum2013].
  - Most common case: we know the buttons' positions in advance.
  - The benefit of precuing is larger for the mouse than the touchpad
    - Maybe movement preparation is more effective if the device is more demanding

#### **Outline**

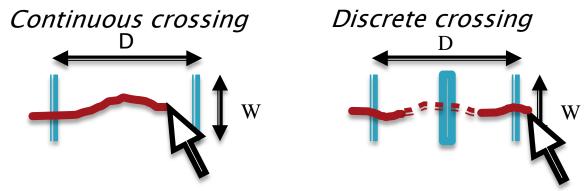
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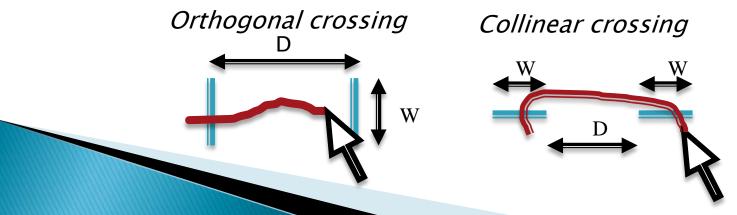
Crossing movement as compared to pointing



- Crossing configurations:
  - Discreteness vs continuity of the movement:
    - Landing and lifting off the stylus



- Direction of the targets vs direction of the movement:
  - If parallel, the trace will be larger



- Stylus or fingers naturally lead to crossing gestures
  - Especially useful in tactile devices
  - Crossing an object is easier than double-clicking.
    - Drag & drop, multiple selections
  - > crossing can be a good alternative for users who have difficulties with clicking or double-clicking.

Several objects can be crossed at the same time within the

same gesture

Multi-links extension for Chrome (LinkClump)



- Crossing performance across two goals [Accot99,Zhai2002]:
  - Follows the same characterization than the Fitts' Law:

$$T = a + b \log_2 \left( \frac{D}{W} + 1 \right)$$

- T is the average moving time between passing the two goals.
- D is the distance between the two goals
- W is the width of each goal
- a and b are constants to be determined

- Results of the experiments:
  - Crossing-based interfaces achieve similar (or faster) times than pointing.
  - The error rate in crossing is smaller than in pointing.
  - Discrete crossing becomes more difficult if the distance between the targets is small.









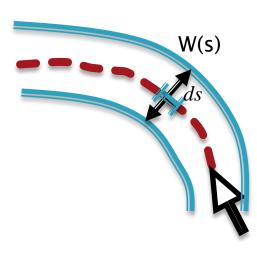
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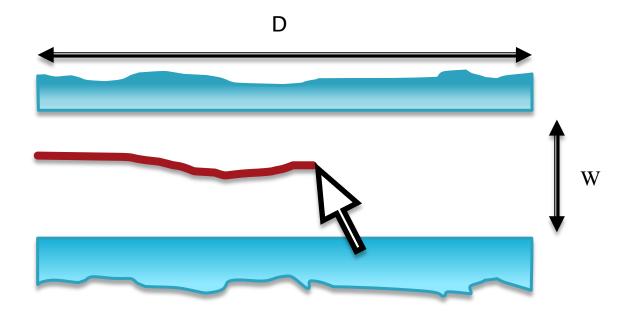
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- Navigating through a constrained path is an useful operation in modern UIs
  - Navigating through nested menus
  - 3D navigation
  - Dragging elements
  - Free-hand Sketching/Drawing





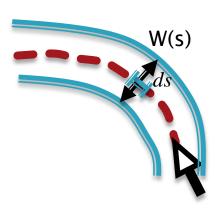
Steering through a straight path:



- Navigating through a generalized path can be expressed as infinite crossings [Accot97]
- Movement time across the path T<sub>s</sub>:

$$T_s = a + bID_s$$
  $T_s = a + b \int_C \frac{ds}{W(s)}$ 

- C is the length of the path
- W(s) is the path width at point s



Time to navigate through a straight path (tunnel) T<sub>p</sub> [Accot97]:

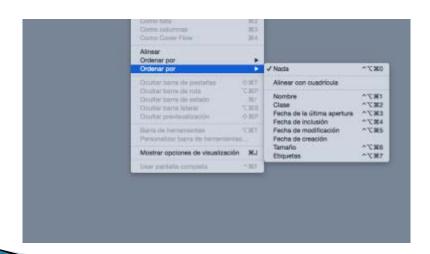
$$T_s = a + b \int_C \frac{ds}{W(s)}$$
  $T_P = a + b \frac{D}{W}$ 

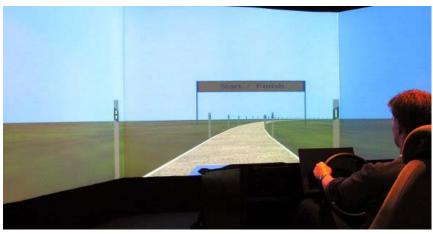
- D is the length of the path/tunnel
- W is the width of the path/tunnel
- Applying Fitts' formatting:

$$T_P = a + b IDP$$
  $ID_P = \frac{D}{W}$ 

Which also applies to circular paths of constant width

- Results [Accot97, Zhai2004] show that the steering law is applicable to different configurations:
  - Different path shapes: cone, spiral, straight
  - Works with different devices, works in VR...
  - Can be used to analyse navigation through nested menus, compare menu designs...





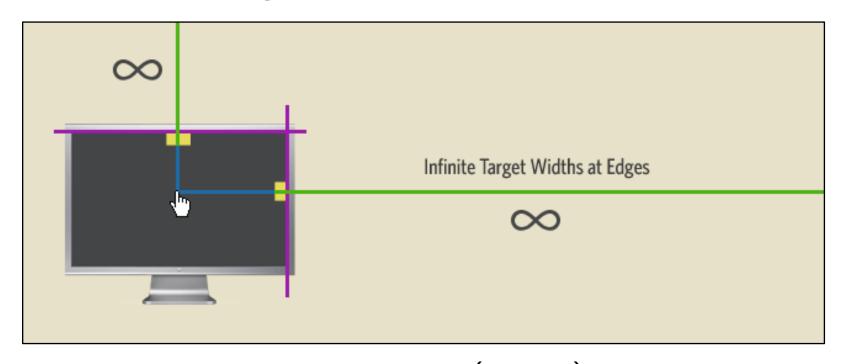
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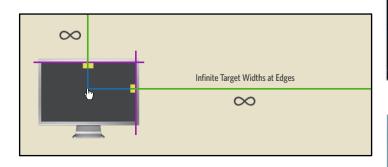
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- Fitts' Law accurately predicts pointing movement
  - Further distance > Harder to select
  - Larger target 
     Easier to select
- If improvement required, it can help us modify our UI
  - Change target width:
    - Increase size for faster reach
  - Change de "virtual distance" or pointer movement:
    - Increase speed, pop-up menus,....
- But visual stimuli must also be taking into account...

The outer edges and corners

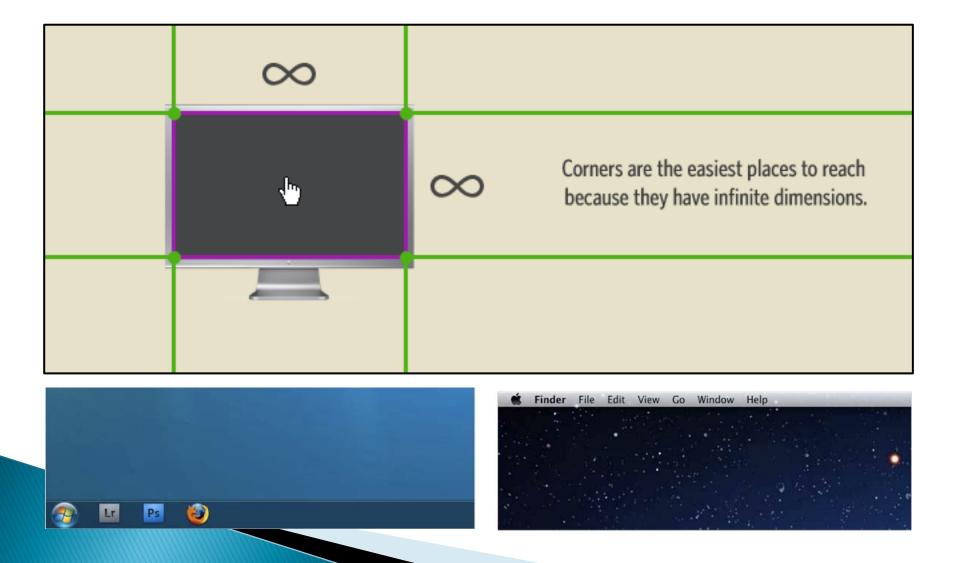


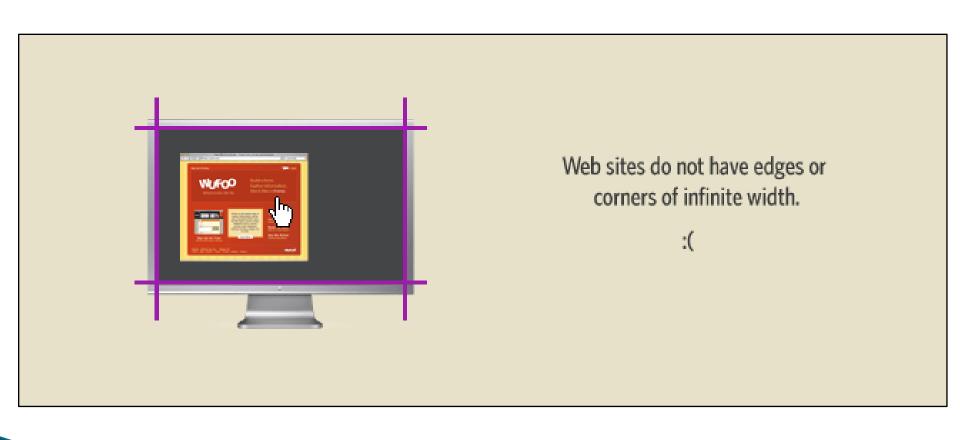
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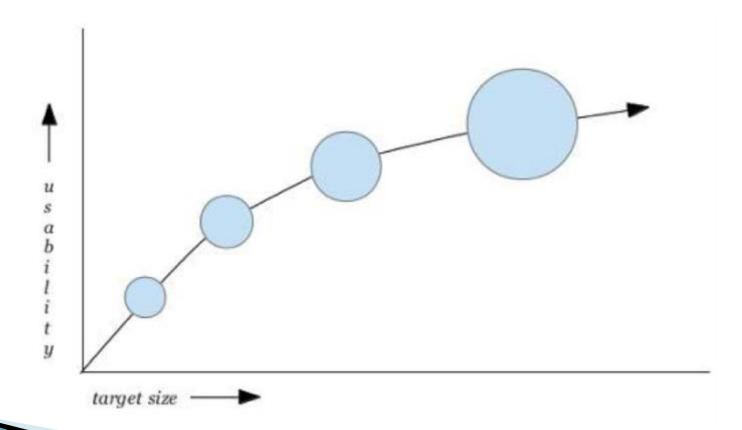








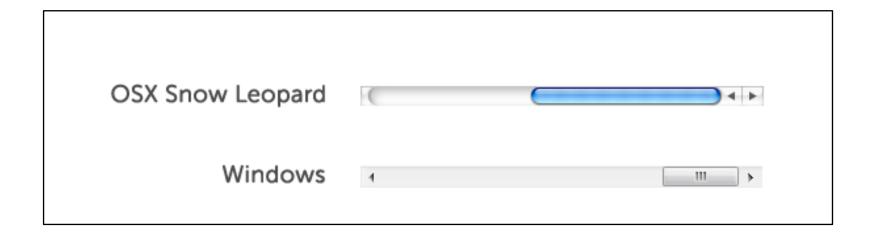
Create larger target size



- Keep related things close
  - Filters should be placed close to the search field



- Keep related things close
  - Mac OS scrolls are faster to navigate



- Keep related things close and Opposite Elements Far
  - These buttons should be placed far away from each other



But...don't forget the usability principles!!!

- Pop-up menus: Reduce travelling distance
- Improve two aspects:
  - Reduction of distance to travel (Fitts)
    - The option is close to the menu emerging place
  - Frequency-enabled may improve the time to pick an option:
    - Based on Hick-Hyman:
       Recall that users are able to point faster objects that are known

Gray

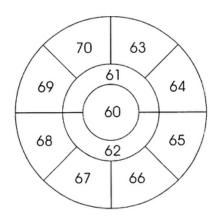
Black

√ Custom

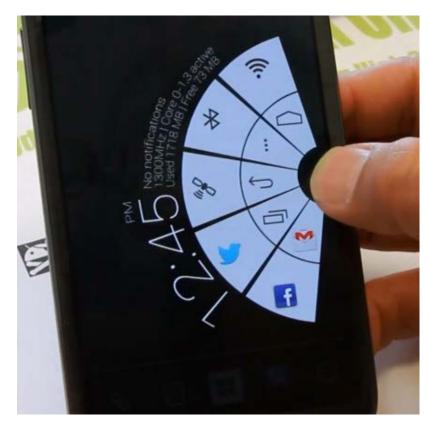
Select Custom Color...

Only used by experts!

What about pie menus?





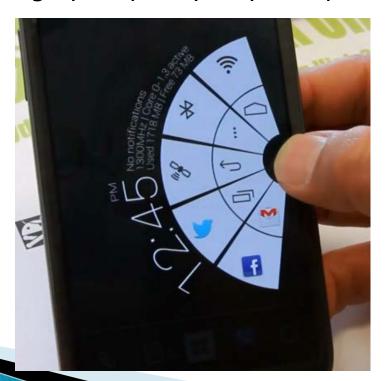


- What about pie menus?
  - Sort of contextual menu
    - Needs to be created on demand
    - Needs some room!
  - Should not have occlusions
    - On mobile half-pie menus better than fully circular





- What about pie menus?
  - Difficult to design!
    - Second layer changes the size and distance
    - Organizing by frequency may be a problem (learning)





+ **Perception**: Grouping things may improve over distance



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- Fitts' Law in UI Design
  - Applications in UI Design

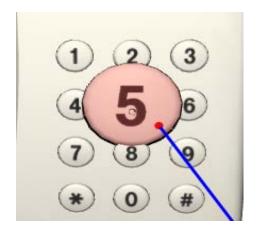
Exercises

- Target Moving
- Control-Display Ratio

#### Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

- Increase the size of targets close to the pointer
  Two implementation approaches:
  - Size-enlargement and position-changing icons
  - Enlarged icons overlap over their neighbours





#### Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

- Increase the size of targets close to the pointer
  - Exemple1: Implemented in Mac OSX Dock:
    - Mix of target size increase and moving target



#### Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

Enlarged icons overlap over their neighbours

Dynamic Scaling (DS)

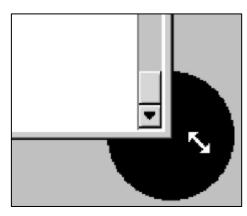
Objects near the selection ray are dynamically scaled

## Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

#### Bubble targets:

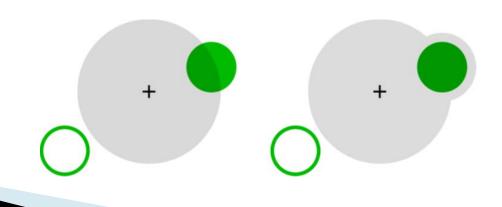
- Increase selectable region around target
  - Only when the mouse is close
  - Improves selection times
- Issues:
  - Bubble appearing may distract users
  - Overlapping targets:

Close selection points may generate several bubbles



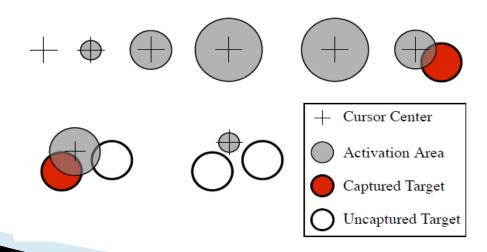
## Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

- ▶ Bubble cursor [Grossman2005] →
  Reduction of amplitude movement
  - Cursor size increases when it is close to objectives
  - It may even grow to absorb the closer target when it is not completely inside the main cursor bubble.
    - Based on position, no speed
    - In experiments Control-Display ratio fixed to 1



## Accelerating Target Acquisition Expanding Targets

- Dynamic Bubble cursor [Chapuis 2009]:
  - Based on the Bubble cursor idea
  - It takes into account the speed of the mouse
    - Area increases according to speed and position
    - Visual cues to indicate the captured target: the target closer to the cursor center.



# Accelerating Target Acquisition Target Moving

Move targets to the user:



Generate targets next to the user: pop-up menus

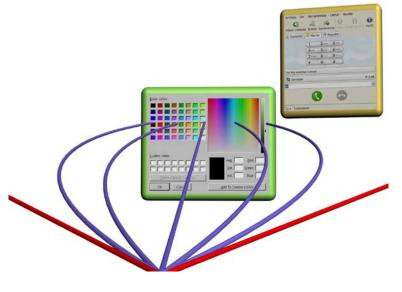


# Accelerating Target Acquisition Target Moving

### Sticky targets:

- Attract pointer
  - When the pointer is close to a selectable area
  - May reduce selection time
    - Precision not required
  - Users adapt easily





# Accelerating Target Acquisition Control-Display Ratio

- Relation between the amplitude of movements of the user's real hand and the amplitude of movements of the virtual cursor
  - Moves in real world (physical move) mapped to moves in virtual desktop (cursor move)
  - Different strategies:
    - Constant
    - Dependent on mouse speed
    - Dependent on cursor position
  - Interpretation according to Fitts Law:
    - Dynamic C-D ratio adaptation can be interpreted as dynamic change of physical motor space

# Accelerating Target Acquisition Control-Display Ratio

- Mac OSX and Windows both use mouse acceleration
  - When mouse moves fast, it is accelerated
    - Reducing the amplitude of movement to cover large distances
  - When mouse moves slow, it is decelerated
    - Magnifying amplitude of movement to improve precision
- No clear how the mapping affects perception and productivity
  - Some studies say it is not intuitive
  - Some studies say it improves some pointing tasks

## **Outline**

#### Session 1:

- Understanding the fundamentals of basic interaction in UI
  - Background (Information Theory)
  - Hick-Hyman Law: Measuring Choice-Reaction Time
  - Fitts' Law: Measuring Pointing Time
  - Crossing and Steering Laws: Continuous Gestures
- Fitts' Law in UI Design
  - Applications in UI Design
  - Accelerating Target Acquisition
- Exercises

5. Donades les constants a = 400 ms, b = 200 ms/bit i un objectiu de mida 2.1 cm a una distància de 10.5 cm. Marca la resposta correcta assumint que fem els càlculs amb la versió de McKenzie de la llei de Fitts.

- a. ID  $\approx 3.4$ .
- b. 2 < ID < 3.
- c. ID  $\approx 4.3$ .
- d. MT està entre 1100 i 1200 ms.

$$MT = a + b \log_2 \left( \frac{D}{W} + 1 \right)$$

#### 6. La llei de Hick-Hyman:

- a. Modela el temps de decisió com una funció de la informació transmesa.
- Modela el temps de selecció d'un element com a funció de la distància a recórrer i la mida de l'element.
- c. Modela el temps de decisió com una funció de la distància a recórrer i l'entropia dels elements a seleccionar.
- d. Utilitza l'entropia de Shannon per a mesurar la distància del recorregut mínim.

### **Els** *expanding targets*:

- a. Es basen en la llei de Hick-Hyman.
- b. Pretenen reduir el temps d'accés als elements basantse en el fet que, segons la llei de Fitts, el temps d'accés es redueix si s'augmenta la longitud del desplaçament.
- c. Si es combinen amb el moviment dels objectius poden causar confusió a l'usuari.
- d. Cap de les anteriors.

- Ens han encarregat fer un disseny d'una interfície per a un sistema tipus desktop en la qual hi haurà botons i menús drop-down.
  - a. Podem predir la dificultat d'accedir als botons utilitzant la llei de Fitts i la dificultat de recórrer els menús amb la llei de crossing.
  - b. Podem analitzar el nombre d'elements a posar en un menú utilitzant la llei de steering i en funció dels digrams.
  - c. Podem analitzar el nombre d'elements a posar en un menú utilitzant la llei de Fitts.
  - d. Podem analitzar la dificultat de recórrer els menús utilitzant la llei de steering.

### La llei de *steering*:

- a. No es pot derivar a partir de la llei de *crossing*.
- Serveix per modelar el temps necessari per recórrer un camí de forma arbitrària.
- c. Diu que hi ha una relació logarítmica entre l'índex de dificultat de creuar un objectiu i el temps que requerit per a fer-ho.
- d. Diu que l'índex de dificultat de creuar un objectiu és D/W.

- Dos elements T1 i T2 a distàncies D1 = 10 cm i D2 = 8 cm en direcció horitzontal i d'amplades 5 cm i 2 cm, respectivament. Per a T1 emprem un dispositiu amb a1 = 200 ms i b1 = 200 ms/bit. Per a T2 utilitzem un dispositiu amb a2 = 200 ms i b2 = 100 ms/bit. Assumint la formulació original de la llei de Fitts:
  - a. ID1 > ID2.
  - b. ID1 = ID2.
  - c. MT1 = MT2.
  - d. MT2 < MT1.

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# **IDI – Interaction Design (I)**