MODEL-BASED USER INTERFACE DESIGN
BY EXAMPLE AND BY INTERVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Model-based user interface design is centered around a description of application objects and operations at a level of abstraction higher than that of code. A good model can be used to support multiple interfaces, help separate interface and application, describe input sequencing in a simple way, check consistency and completeness of the interface, evaluate the interface’s speed-of-use, generate context-specific help and assist in designing the interface. However, designers rarely use computer-supported application modelling today and prefer less formal approaches such as story boards of user interface prototypes. One reason is that available tools often use cryptic languages for the model specification. Another reason is that these tools force the designers to specify the application model before they can start working on the visual interface, which is their main area of expertise. We present the Interactive User Interface Design Environment (Interactive UIDE), a novel framework for concurrent development of the application model and the user interface which combines story-boarding and model-based interface design. We also present Albert, an intelligent component within this framework, which is able to infer an application model from a user interface and from an interview process with the designer.


INTRODUCTION

The paper first discusses the design methodology, application model and usage modes of Interactive UIDE. It then explains the use, architecture and capabilities of Albert.

Model-based user interface design uses an application model as an executable specification rather than a paper specification. The key idea is to explicitly represent knowledge that has traditionally been buried in code. For example, objects and operations of an application are represented in code but they are not accessible from outside the application code. An application model is accessible by the user interface, the application, and external tools at design time and at run time. Examples of model-based user interface management systems (UIMS) are UIDE [1,9] and HUMANOID [4,10,11], which both use high-level object-oriented application models.

The original model-based, top-down UIMSs imposed a design methodology on their users which required them to specify a model of the application first which was then used to generate a user interface. Figure 1 illustrates this methodology. This class of UIMS is characterized by the absence of a graphical editor for the user interface so that the designer has little or no control over the end-user interface. The main benefit of this architecture is that the interface is updated automatically if the model changes. However, it has become evident that designers prefer to build visual interfaces in a less formal way.

Phase 1: Write an application model of the intended application in a special-purpose modelling language.

Phase 2: Invoke the automatic user interface generation based on the application model.

Phase 3: Write the application code in a general-purpose programming language.

Figure 1. Phases Of Building An Application Using A Pure, Top-Down UIMS (Examples: original UIDE, original HUMANOID)

Another class of top-down UIMS gives the designer more control over the user interface by incorporating a graphical user interface editor, shown in the lower left-hand corner of Figure 2. The user interface is generated from the model just as before but the designer can edit the generated interface graphically afterwards. However, note the absence of an arrow back to the first phase, application modelling. After modifying the interface by hand, model changes can no
longer be propagated automatically to the interface because the manual changes to the interface would be lost. We believe that these systems are still not flexible enough. First, the designer still has to specify an application model for the initial interface generation. Second, designers will be tempted to abandon application modelling once they start editing the generated interface manually because there is no mechanism for regenerating the user interface from a new version of the model without losing manual changes.

**THE APPLICATION MODEL**

We will now discuss in more detail what an application model is and how our model compares to previous models. This section reviews previous work and explains the structure and use of our model.

MIKE [6] is one of the oldest user interface management systems which supports graphical user interfaces. Its application model consists of actions and their parameters. The parameters are of predefined types like String and Point, or application-specific types such as Resistor and Wire for a circuit design application. However, MIKE does not support defining the structure of an application-specific object. For example, it is not possible to state that a wire is an object which consists of two references to connection points.

UofA*'s [7] application model also consists of actions and parameters and is similar in spirit to MIKE’s model. The designer can define application-specific types only in a very limited sense by specifying ranges. For example, an Angle type can be defined as “\(\text{Angle}=[0:360]\)”. From a programming language perspective, the designer can use predefined simple types like boolean and integer ranges but cannot define classes or records.

ITS [12] is a user interface management environment consisting of four layers: user interface primitives like buttons and choice boxes, a rule-based user interface generator, a dialog control component, and application routines. Its main contribution is the encoding of user interface style rules. ITS has no application-level control model but it has an application data model. For example, an employee record can be declared to consist of a name of type string, an address of type string and a manager of type employee. The interface generator can then create a dialog box for displaying such a record.

HUMANOID’s [10] model consists of commands, objects, global variables and data flow constraints. Commands have associated inputs (parameters) and preconditions for their applicability. An input describes one parameter of a command by defining its type, a predicate for semantic input validation and other properties. Application objects group commands and simple objects (variables) into a semantically meaningful entity. The data flow constraints are the control element in the model; they specify the dependencies between inputs, variables and objects.

Interactive UIDE is based on ideas from the original UIDE [1]. The major differences are the departure from a “model-first” methodology, the concurrent editing of interface and model, and the intelligent component for interactive interface building, model building and consistency checking. The existing components of UIDE such as the textual help generator [9], the animated help generator [8], and the non-interactive user interface generator [2] can still operate within Interactive UIDE. The application modelling language is best explained by an example. We present a
small partial model of a chess application below and discuss its nature and use. Keywords are shown in bold face.

Boolean gameExists := false
Boolean unsavedChanges := false

Action New
Precondition "!unsavedChanges"
Postcondition "gameExists := true"

Action Open
Precondition "!unsavedChanges"
Postcondition "gameExists := true"

Action Discard
Postcondition "gameExists := false; unsavedChanges := false"

Action Save
Precondition "gameExists and unsavedChanges"
Postcondition "unsavedChanges := false"

Action Quit
Precondition "!unsavedChanges"

Class ChessPosition
Enumeration horizontal: 'a'..'h';
Enumeration vertical: 1..8;

Class ChessPiece
Variable ChessPosition pos;
Action move(ChessPosition p)
Postcondition "pos := p; unsavedChanges := true"

Class King SubclassOf ChessPiece
Class Queen SubclassOf ChessPiece
Class Rook SubclassOf ChessPiece
Class Bishop SubclassOf ChessPiece
Class Knight SubclassOf ChessPiece
Class Pawn SubclassOf ChessPiece

The declarative sequencing through pre- and postconditions facilitates reasoning by external tools. These tools can “understand” the sequencing to an extent which would not be possible with a general-purpose programming language. For example, a help generator can do backchaining to find a sequence of actions which enables an unavailable action by recursively evaluating pre- and postconditions. This sequence can then be presented in textual or animated form.

MODES OF INTERACTIVE UIDE

At design time, the designer can concurrently edit the user interface, the application model and the “glue” between them as shown in Figure 4. The glue is a special-purpose language which specifies the linkage between user interface objects and interaction techniques on one side and application model abstractions on the other side. The user interface is edited using an existing interface building tool, SX/Tools [3], which supports designing custom objects in addition to providing predefined standard objects. The application model and the glue are edited in text editors under control of Interactive UIDE so that switching from design mode to run mode is instantaneous.

The designer can then ask Albert, the intelligent component, for advice, for suggestions and for help in inferring an interface or a model. In this mode, the designer reacts to questions and suggestions from Albert which changes the representations based on the designer’s answers. This mode is shown in Figure 5.

After the design activity, the designer can instantly switch to run mode. Figure 6 shows the system in run mode. At initialization, Interactive UIDE’s run-time component reads in the textual specifications of the model and the glue, and is linked to application-specific code if such code exists. The user interacts with the application’s user interface which runs as a separate process under control of SX/Tools. Events which are relevant to the application are passed from the interface process to the run-time process which does computation and updates the user interface by sending events back to the user interface process.
ALBERT - THE INTELLIGENT COMPONENT WITHIN INTERACTIVE UIDE

Albert is the component that can generate questions for building up or for improving the model or the interface. This component needs knowledge about application modelling, user interface design and their relationships. We separate this knowledge into question elements, or knowledge atoms, which encapsulate the information for a single question or suggestion presented to the designer. This knowledge structure is a combination of a rule base and a knowledge base which facilitates system-initiated questions.

There are two basic alternatives for the overall organization of these question elements. The first alternative is a graph-like structure, in which a question element explicitly encodes its follow-up questions. This provides for semantically meaningful sequences of related questions. However, the resulting graph structure is hard to understand and maintain. Figure 7 shows this knowledge base structure.

The second alternative is a flat structure of questions with no provision for sequencing of related questions as shown in Figure 8. The question elements do not specify which question to ask next, so that the questions can be entered and evaluated independently, greatly simplifying the maintenance of the knowledge base. Questions have applicability tests operating on the context of the current user interface and application model. We have endorsed this philosophy but there are situations where it is important to ask follow-up questions to a certain question. Imagine that there are two threads of questions about independent topics. It would be confusing if the presented questions would alternate between the topics. Therefore, we augment the flat structure with a simple mechanism to provide for explicit sequencing of questions by allowing a question to increase the priority of appropriate follow-up questions. This simple mechanism is sufficient for our moderately-sized rule base. We plan to use more sophisticated techniques as the rule base grows.

Figure 9 shows one of Albert’s question elements. The applicability test determines if this question is relevant in the
current context. Albert evaluates the applicable atoms and presents the candidate with the highest priority to the designer, using the parameterized question text. It also presents the atom-specific answers in addition to the generic answers available for all question elements such as “ignore question” and “help”. The designer selects one of these answers and the system executes the associated effect. Albert then re-evaluates the atoms and asks the next question.

USE OF ALBERT
The intelligent component provides support for both novice and expert users. However, the way in which they use Albert differs. Novice users of our system will first build an interface by dragging elements from a palette and customizing them; they then invoke Albert to help them build the application behind the interface. Both of these activities require minimal training. Expert users normally prefer to directly edit the representations instead of going through the interview process but invoke Albert occasionally for design advice and consistency checking.

One of the contributions of the framework is the smooth transition from the novice to the expert level. Throughout the interview process, novice designers watch Albert change the user interface and the textual representations in real time in response to their answers. In this way, they learn what information is needed in the model and how answers are transformed into application model knowledge. They are soon able to edit the model directly instead of waiting for the system to ask questions.

NOVICE USE
We provide an extended novice example session in which a user interface and an application model for a circuit design application are constructed. The assumption is that the designer has no programming experience and no knowledge about application modelling so far. The designer does not have to edit the textual application model directly, nor does the designer have to understand the nature and use of the model at this point.

The designer first constructs the interface using the user interface building component. Figure 10 shows the main window of the combined interface and application model builder in the upper left-hand corner, titled “Interactive UIDE”. The designer has clicked on the “New Interface” button to start a new design and created some elements by dragging from element toolboxes. Figure 10 shows one of the toolboxes on the left (no title) and the user interface design in the center, titled “Circuit Design Application”.

The designer then invokes the intelligent component of the system by clicking on the “Albert” button. This brings up two text editors, one for the application model and the other for the glue, both of which are empty so far besides the two lines in the Glue editor which specify which interface and which model are connected by this glue file. These are shown in the lower right-hand corner of Figure 10, titled
“Application Model” and “Model-Interface Glue”. Finally, Albert computes the applicable question with the highest priority and presents it to the designer, shown in the upper right-hand corner, titled “Albert”. In this case, the system has detected that several objects use the same bitmap and queries the designer if they are occurrences of the same concept. The highlighting of the affected user interface elements has proven helpful for designers to understand the context and nature of the question. Let us assume that the designer affirms and provides “NotGate” as the name for the object. The following initial application model is constructed.

**Class NotGate**

The glue representation is also changed to reflect that these three bitmap objects represent instances of the NotGate class. The next questions inquire about the other iconic objects one at a time (“Would you describe this interface object as an instance of a conceptual object?”). The model now looks like this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class NotGate</th>
<th>Class AndGate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class OrGate</td>
<td>Class ZeroSource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class OneSource</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The system has limited knowledge about typical uses of iconic objects in applications, such as static icons for decoration purposes, icons which represent objects which can be accessed but not moved, and iconic objects which can be created, moved and deleted at run time. The question shown in Figure 11 encodes knowledge of this type. Assume the designer responds by selecting the circuit element objects and pressing the “thumbs up” button. Albert associates a position instance variable and a move action with the affected classes, so that the application model now consists of five classes with the following identical structure.

**Class X**

| Position pos; |
| Action move (Position newPos) |
| Postcondition "pos := newPos"

The identical structure of these classes triggers another rule intended to help novice users structure their application model, which is shown in Figure 12.

**Figure 11. Knowledge About Common User Interface Behavior**

**Figure 12. Structuring the Model**

The designer confirms and gives “Element” as a name for that class. The model creates this class and moves the detected common functionality to it.

```
Class Element
    Position pos;
    Action move (Position newPos)
    Postcondition "pos := newPos"
Class NotGate SubclassOf Element
Class AndGate SubclassOf Element
Class OrGate SubclassOf Element
Class OneSource SubclassOf Element
Class ZeroSource SubclassOf Element
```

We will not further describe the interview process for brevity but it should have become clear how Albert helps novice designers build an application model from a user interface. So far, Albert cannot infer application sequencing so that the pre- and postconditions for sequencing have to be entered in textual form. This shortcoming is discussed in the “Extensions” section.

**EXPERT USE**

The previous section illustrated how novices use Albert. Experts will usually invoke Albert as a consultant only and will not rely on its initiative to build up the application model. Albert is redundant in the sense that a user interface and its corresponding model can be built using Interactive UIDE without invoking Albert (using only the design and run modes but not the interview mode). While the intelligent component is redundant, it is not useless for an expert. Few designers are experts in both graphical user interface design and abstract application modelling. Albert offers advice on both of these topics and can be used for consistency checking similar to automated spell checking in text. It can also be used as a “creativity agent”, a source of inspiration for user interface design. Figure 13 is an example of user interface design knowledge.
QUESTION CATEGORIES

The Interactive UIDE framework provides for generating many questions and suggestions. We have grouped these questions into seven categories. One category builds up the model based on an existing interface, and, symmetrically, another category infers user interface elements from an application model. Then there are questions which improve a representation contextually or independently and questions which check for consistency. Figure 14 summarizes these categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application Model Building</th>
<th>Glue</th>
<th>User Interface</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modify</td>
<td>Modify</td>
<td>Read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User Interface Building</td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>Modify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated Model Improvement</td>
<td>Modify</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated Interface Improvement</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Model Improvement</td>
<td>Modify</td>
<td>Read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Interface Improvement</td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>Read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency Checking</td>
<td>Modify</td>
<td>Modify</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14. Question Categories

Application Model Building

These questions build up a model from the user interface and from the interview process. The model is built by asking questions about the nature of all visible user interface elements one by one. Currently, there are no provisions for support on a higher level. The system should detect that the designer has put in similar information for the last two objects and ask a question at a meta level like "select other objects which have similar behavior and click on the OK button". It could then fill in model information for these objects at once, consequently reducing the number of repetitive questions. The system could also pose another meta level question when the model inference process has just started, one which offers designers a choice of application model prototypes and asks which one is closest to the application they have in mind. It could then use this model and start asking from there, also reducing the overall number of questions.

User Interface Building

These questions derive a user interface from an application model. This process is often referred to as interface "generation". We avoid this term because it implies that this is a fully automated process with little or no options for the designer. The by-interview methodology facilitates a more interactive generation process. Albert is able to generate new elements into an existing interface. For example, it can suggest putting a new operation in the same menu where the other operations on this object reside. In this way, user interfaces do not have to be generated completely but can be updated incrementally.

Isolated Model Improvement

In the process of building a model from the interface, there is a point where all the application information from the visual user interface has been exploited but where it is still desirable to improve the model. These questions suggest changes to the application model such as a restructuring of the class hierarchy. Figure 12 shows such a question.

Isolated Interface Improvement

It is also possible to refine the existing interface independent of the application model. For example, standard user interface design knowledge can be encoded in our questions so that this knowledge can be accessed and applied by people other than user interface designers. This is similar in spirit to ITS style rules [12] but augmented with the interactive interface to the knowledge. In this way, interface design knowledge is not only automatically applied, but the process is also visible and understandable to the designers so that they learn about interface design themselves while using the system. The question in Figure 13 is of this type.

Contextual Model Improvement

These questions suggest model changes based on interface properties. For example, Albert could detect that buttons or menu entries of certain actions are grouped together visually and ask the designer if this represents a semantic grouping that should be captured in the application model.

Contextual Interface Improvement

Albert could suggest improvements to an interface even if the interface is already complete and consistent with the application model. For example, assume that the actions on a certain type of object are all available in the current interface, but that they reside in different locations. The system
could issue a warning about this design and suggest moving them to one location, such as an object-specific popup menu.

**Consistency Checking**

Finally, there is one category of questions concerned with maintaining the consistency of the interface and the application model such as “The application model contains the action Align for class VisualElement which currently cannot be invoked from the interface. Is this intentional?” or “A connection in the glue file refers to a non-existent application action. Do you want me to delete the connection?”.

**DISCUSSION**

We attempt to classify our tool in the context of the established approaches for building user interfaces.

Albert encodes domain-specific knowledge in its questions, but it is different from knowledge bases in that the initiative is with the tool rather than with the user. The user invokes Albert but it is the tool that queries the user in order to extract knowledge about design decisions, a system-driven knowledge acquisition process.

Albert asks natural language questions, but the questions it asks are canned. It has no capabilities in natural language generation and understanding. The designer provides answers through selecting interface objects and filling out forms.

When used to infer an application model, our system starts from a user interface example but it is not a by-example approach such as Peridot [5] in a strict sense because a user interface example alone is not sufficient for inferring a semantic application model. However, our approach still shares a similar philosophy. Examples are inherently easier to understand than abstract concepts, and our system makes use of this fact.

Our system is not a with-example approach. In Myers’ and Halbert’s definition [5], programming with example is a generalized macro recording approach, following the philosophy of “do what I did” rather than the “do what I mean” philosophy of by-example programming. Our system does not follow this approach for inferring the structure of an application because this would translate into demonstrating this static structure in a temporal dimension. However, a demonstration of the sequencing aspect of the model, the pre- and postconditions, is possible and discussed in the “Extensions” section.

Albert is example-based in the above definition, but not exclusively so. One consequence is that we do not experience the problems often found in systems which are exclusively example-based. These systems suffer from the lack of an editable static representation of the demonstrated behavior. Consequently, selective editing and stepwise improvement become impossible. It is also often frustrating to the users that they cannot directly edit a representation even though they know what they want to specify. Instead, they have to demonstrate the intended behavior, relying on the system to infer the intended modification. The inference found in by-example systems and the recording in with-example systems are also limited in their expressiveness; they often cannot handle simple parameters.

Pure by-example approaches infer a program from a few examples. Myers observed that this contradicts modern software testing principles [5]. According to these principles, a program can never be guaranteed to work correctly if it was tested with a few examples. Consequently, a program inferred from a few examples can also not be guaranteed to implement the desired behavior. The designers cannot be sure of what was inferred unless they read the generated representation. Our system alleviates this problem because the user can directly edit the user interface and application model at any time. Albert operates on these editable representations and changes them in response to the designer’s answers, so that the results of Albert’s activity are guaranteed to be visible and editable.

**EXTENSIONS**

Albert is strong in inferring the structure of an application, but it is weak in inferring the sequencing. The designer has to enter pre- and postconditions textually, even when using Albert. This requires proficiency in formal logic which violates Albert’s design goal. Therefore, we are currently investigating ways of deriving pre- and postconditions by easier means. For example, the designer could provide two slightly different interface examples A and B and ask Albert to infer which postcondition would change the interface state from A to B. Or, the designer could draw a visual connection between a button and a popup window so that clicking the button makes the window visible; this could then be translated into the corresponding postcondition for the button and precondition for the window. There could also be support for typical usage of pre- and postconditions. For example, Albert could offer predefined pre- and postcondition templates which cover common usage.

We believe that specifying pre- and postconditions by demonstration is the most promising approach. Its strength is that it lets designers describe sequencing declaratively rather than procedurally - they demonstrate how they want the user interface to behave without having to specify the procedural steps that implement this behavior. We are currently extending Albert with demonstrational capabilities. The extended Albert will be able to infer pre- and postconditions from a series of demonstrations. One demonstration consists of a triggering event and pairs of user interface snapshots. The first snapshot of such a pair describes a possible state of the interface before the triggering event. The second snapshot describes the state that the user interface should go to given that the triggering event happened in the context of the first snapshot. The amount of snapshot pairs required to infer a set of pre- and postconditions depends on the complexity of the functionality they describe. We will report on the demonstrational capabilities of the extended Albert in a future paper.
CONCLUSION

Application modelling is a highly abstract activity. Its abstract nature is the premier obstacle in bringing its power to a wider audience. The major contribution of Albert is that it does not require novice users to be programmers or user interface management experts to learn building an application model.

We also believe that the interactive and concurrent editing and testing of the user interface and its application model in Interactive UIDE will speed up application development, and that leaving it up to the designers if they prefer starting a new project with the user interface or the application model (Figure 15) will attract more visually-oriented designers to application modelling.

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