
There's More to Interaction
Than Meets the Eye:
Some Issues in Manual Input

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USER CENTERED SYSTEM DESIGN

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Imagine a time far into the future, when all knowledge about our civilization has been lost. Imagine further, that in the course of planting a garden, a fully stocked computer store from the 1980s was unearthed, and that all of the equipment and software was in working order. Now, based on this find, consider what a physical anthropologist might conclude about the physiology of the humans of our era? My best guess is that we would be pictured as having a well-developed eye, a long right arm, a small left arm, uniform-length fingers and a "low-fi" ear. But the dominating characteristics would be the prevalence of our visual system over our poorly developed manual dexterity.

Obviously, such conclusions do not accurately describe humans of the twentieth century. But they would be perfectly warranted based on the available information. Today's systems have severe shortcomings when it comes to matching the physical characteristics of their operators. Admittedly, in recent years there has been a great improvement in matching computer output to the human visual system. We see this in the improved use of visual communication through typography, color, animation, and iconic interfacing. Hence, our speculative future anthropologist would be correct in assuming that we had fairly well-developed (albeit monocular) vision.

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In our example, it is with the human's effectors (arms, legs, hands, that the greatest distortion occurs. Quite simply, when compared her human-operated machinery (such as the automobile), today's computer systems make extremely poor use of the potential of the human's sensory and motor systems. The controls on the average computer system are probably better human-engineered than those of the computer on which far more time is spent. There are a number of reasons for this situation. Most of them are understandable, but none of them should be acceptable.

My thesis is that we can achieve user interfaces that are more natural, easier to learn, easier to use, and less prone to error if we pay more attention to the "body language" of human-computer dialogues. I believe that the quality of human input can be greatly improved through the use of *appropriate gestures*. In order to achieve such benefits, however, we must learn to match human physiology, skills, and capabilities with our systems' physical ergonomics, control structures, and functional organization.

In this chapter I look at manual input with the hope of developing a better understanding of how we can better tailor input structures to fit the human operator.

NEW WORDS ON APPROACH

Due to constraints on space, I restrict myself to the discussion of manual input. I do so fully realizing that most of what I say can be applied to other parts of the body, and I hope that the discussion will encourage the reader to explore other types of transducers.

Just consider the use of the feet in sewing, driving an automobile, or in playing the pipe organ. Now compare this to your average computer system. The feet are totally ignored despite the fact that most users have them, and furthermore, have well-developed motor skills in their use.

Despite the temptation to discuss new and exotic technologies, I want to focus on devices that are real and available, since we haven't come to using the full potential of those that we already have.

Usually, my approach is somewhat cavalier. I will leap from example to example, and just touch on a few of the relevant points. In the process, it is almost certain that readers will be able to come up with examples that are less counter to my own, and situations where what I say does not

But these contradictions strengthen my argument! Input is complex and deserves great attention to detail: more than it generally gets.

That the grain of my analysis is still not fine enough just emphasizes how much more we need to understand.

Managing input is so complex that it is unlikely that we will ever totally understand it. No matter how good our theories are, we will probably always have to test designs through actual implementations and prototyping. The consequence of this for the designer is that prototyping tools (software and hardware) must be developed and considered as part of the basic environment.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE TRANSDUCER

When we discuss user interfaces, consideration of the physical transducers too often comes last, or near last. And yet, the physical properties of the system are those with which the user has the first and most direct contact. This is not just an issue of comfort. Different devices have different properties, and lend themselves to different things. Are gestures as important as I believe, then we must pay careful attention to the transducers to which we assign them.

An important concept in modern interactive systems is the notion of *device independence*. The idea is that input devices fall into general classes of what are known as *virtual devices*, such as "locators" and "valuators." Dialogues are described in terms of these virtual devices. The objective is to permit the easy substitution of one physical device for another of the same class. One benefit in this is that it facilitates experimentation (with the hopeful consequence of finding the best among the alternatives). The danger, however, is that one can be easily lulled into believing that the technical interchangeability of the devices extends to usability. Wrong! It is always important to keep in mind that even devices within a class have various idiosyncrasies. It is often these very idiosyncratic differences that determine the appropriateness of a device for a given context. So, device independence is a useful concept, but only when additional considerations are made when making choices.

Example 1: The Isometric Joystick

An "isometric joystick" is a joystick whose handle does not move when it is pushed. Rather, its shaft senses how hard you are pushing it, and in what direction. It is, therefore, a pressure-sensitive device. Two isometric joysticks are shown in Figure 15.1. They are both made

springloaded joystick shown in Figure 15.2A. In many ways, it is very similar to the isometric joysticks seen in the previous example. It is made by the same manufacturer, and it is plug-compatible with respect to the X/Y values that it transmits. However, this new joystick moves when it is pushed, and (as a result of spring action) returns to the center position when released. In addition, it has a third dimension of control accessible by manipulating the self-returning, spring-loaded rotary pot mounted on the top of the shaft.

Rather than contrasting this to the joysticks of the previous example (which would, in fact, be a useful exercise), let us compare it to the 3-D trackball shown in Figure 15.2B. (A 3-D trackball is a trackball constructed so as to enable us to sense clockwise and counter-clockwise "twisting" of the ball as well as the amount that it has been "rolled" in the horizontal and vertical directions.)

This trackball is plug-compatible with the 3-D joystick, costs about the same, has the same "footprint" (consumes the same amount of desk space), and utilizes the same major muscle groups. It has a great deal in common with the 3-D joystick of Figure 15.2A. In many ways the joystick in Figure 15.2A has more in common with the trackball than with the joysticks shown in Figure 15.1!

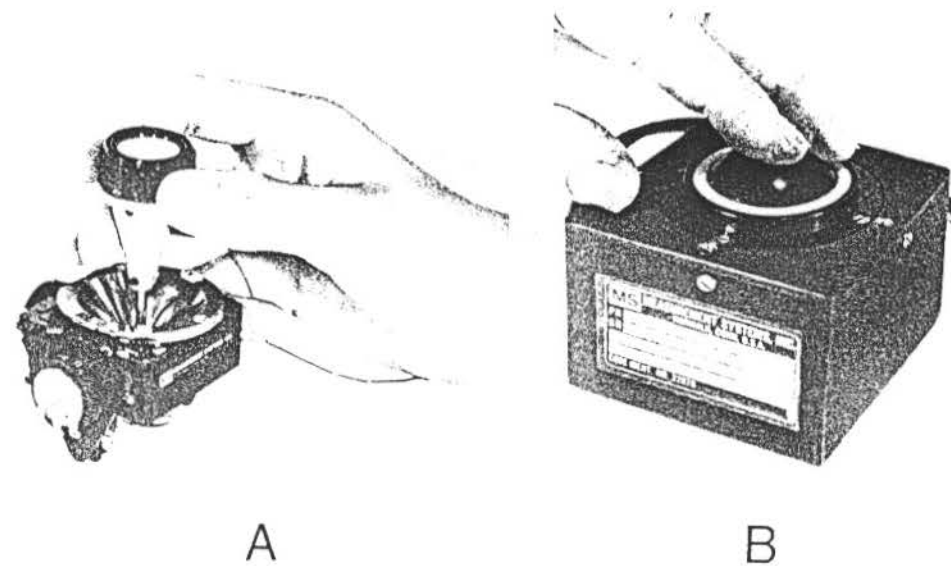


FIGURE 15.2. Comparison of joystick (A) and trackball (B). (Measurement Systems, Inc.)

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Two isometric joysticks. (Measurement Systems, Inc.)

manufacturer. They cost about the same, and are electronic. In fact, they are plug compatible. How they differ is in the muscle groups that they consequently employ, and the force required to get a given output.

member, people generally discuss joysticks vs. mice or trackballs. Here we are not only comparing joysticks against trackballs, we are comparing one isometric joystick to another.

Should one be used rather than the other? The answer obviously depends on the context. What can be said is that their differences may be more significant than their similarities. In the absence of one, it may be better to utilize a completely different type of device (such as a mouse) than to use the other isometric joystick.

2: Joystick vs. Trackball

As an example in which subtle idiosyncratic differences have an effect on the appropriateness of the device for a particular transaction, in this example we look at two different devices. One is the

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you are starting to wonder about the appropriateness of ways characterizing input devices by names such as "joystick" or "mouse," then the point of this section is getting lost. It is starting to seem that we should lump devices together according to some "dimension of maximum significance," rather than by some (perhaps irrelevant) similarity in their mechanical construction (such as being a mouse or joystick). The prime issue arising from this recognition is the problem of determining which dimension is of maximum significance in a given context. Another is the weakness of our current vocabulary to express such dimensions.

their similarities, these two devices differ in a very subtle, but important way. Namely, it is much easier to simultaneously control all dimensions when using the joystick than when using the trackball. In applications this will make no difference. But for the moment, there are a few instances where it does. We look at two scenarios.

Scenario 1: We are working on a graphics program for doing VLSI layout. The chip on which we are working is quite complex. The only way the entire mask can be viewed at one time is at a very small scale. To examine a specific area in detail, therefore, we must "pan" over the surface and "zoom in." With the joystick, we can pan over the surface by adjusting the stick position. Panning direction is determined by the direction in which the spring-loaded stick is off-center, and zoom is determined by its distance off-center. With the trackball, we can control by rolling the ball in the direction and at the speed at which we want to pan.

Scenario 2: Panning is easier with trackball than the spring-loaded joystick. This is because of the strong correlation (or compatibility) between stimulus (direction, speed, and amount of roll) and response (direction, speed, and amount of panning) in the second example. With the spring-loaded joystick, there was a one-to-one mapping rather than the motion-to-motion mapping seen with the trackball. Such cross-modality mappings require learning and impede achieving optimal human performance. These issues address the properties of an interaction that Hutchins, Hollan, and Norman (Chapter 5) call "modal directions."

interaction demands that we be able to zoom and pan simultaneously. We have to reconsider our evaluation. With the joystick, it

is easy to zoom in and out of regions of interest while panning. One need only twist the shaft-mounted pot while moving the stick. However, with the trackball, it is nearly impossible to twist the ball at the same time that it is being rolled. The 3-D trackball is, in fact, better described as a 2+1D device.

Scenario 2: I am using the computer to control an oil refinery. The pipes and valves of a complex part of the system are shown graphically on the displays, along with critical status information. My job is to monitor the status information and, when conditions dictate, modify the system by adjusting the settings of specific valves. I do this by means of *direct manipulation*. That is, valves are adjusted by manipulating their graphical representation on the screen. Using the joystick, this is accomplished by pointing at the desired valve, then twisting the pot mounted on the stick. However, it is difficult to twist the joystick-pot without also causing some change in the X and Y values. This causes problems, since graphics pots may be in close proximity on the display. Using the trackball, however, the problem does not occur. In order to twist the trackball, it can be (and is best) gripped so that the finger tips rest against the bezel of the housing. The finger tips thus prevent any rolling of the ball. Hence, twisting is orthogonal to motion in X and Y. The trackball is the better transducer in this example *precisely because of its idiosyncratic 2+1D property*.

Thus, we have seen how the very properties that gave the joystick the advantage in the first scenario were a liability in the second. Conversely, with the trackball, we have seen how the liability became an advantage. What is to be learned here is that if such cases exist between these two devices, then it is most likely that comparable (but different) cases exist among all devices. What we are most lacking is some reasonable methodology for exploiting such characteristics via an appropriate matching of device idiosyncrasies with structures of the dialogue.

APPROPRIATE DEVICES CAN SIMPLIFY SYNTAX

In the previous example we saw how the idiosyncratic properties of an input device could have a strong affect on its appropriateness for a specific task. It would be nice if the world was simple, and we could consequently figure out what a system was for, find the optimal device for the task to be performed on it, and be done. But such is seldom

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Computer systems are more often used by a number of people on a number of tasks, each with their own demands and characteristics. One approach to dealing with the resulting diversity of tasks is to supply a number of input devices, one optimized for each task. However, the benefits of this approach would break down as the number of devices increased. Usually, a pragmatic solution is to attempt to get as much generality as possible from a smaller number of devices. Devices, then, are chosen for their broad range of applicability. This is, for example, a major attraction of digitizing tablets. They can emulate the behavior of a mouse. But a digitizing mouse, they can also be used for tracing artwork to digitize a drawing machine.

When I raised the issue, I continue to discuss devices in such a way as to focus on their idiosyncratic properties. Why? Because by doing so, I am able to identify the type of properties that one might try to emulate, and the type of emulation be required.

It is often useful to consider the user interface of a system as being composed of a number of horizontal layers. Most commonly, syntax is separated from semantics, and lexical issues independent of syntax. Much of this way of analysis is an outgrowth of the work practiced in the design and parsing of artificial languages, such as the design of compilers for computer languages. Thinking of the user interface in this way has many benefits, not the least of which is helping to avoid "apples-and-bananas" type comparisons. There is a problem, however, in that it makes it too easy to fall into the belief that each of these layers is independent. A major objective of this section is to show how wrong an assumption this is. In particular, I illustrate how decisions at the lowest level, the choice of input devices, can have a significant effect on the complexity of the system and on the user's experience.

Figure 15.2: Two children's toys. The *Etch-a-Sketch* (shown in Figure 15.3A) is a children's drawing toy that has had a remarkably long presence in the marketplace. One draws by manipulating the controls so as to move a stylus on the back of the drawing surface to trace out the drawing. There are only two controls: Both are rotary pots. One controls the left-right motion of the stylus and the other controls its up-down motion.

The *Wiggly doodle* (shown in Figure 15.3B) is another toy based on very similar principles. In *computerese*, we could even say that the two toys are functionally identical. They draw using a similar stylus mechanism and have the same "erase" operator (turn the toy upside down and shake it). However, there is one big difference. Whereas the *Etch-a-*

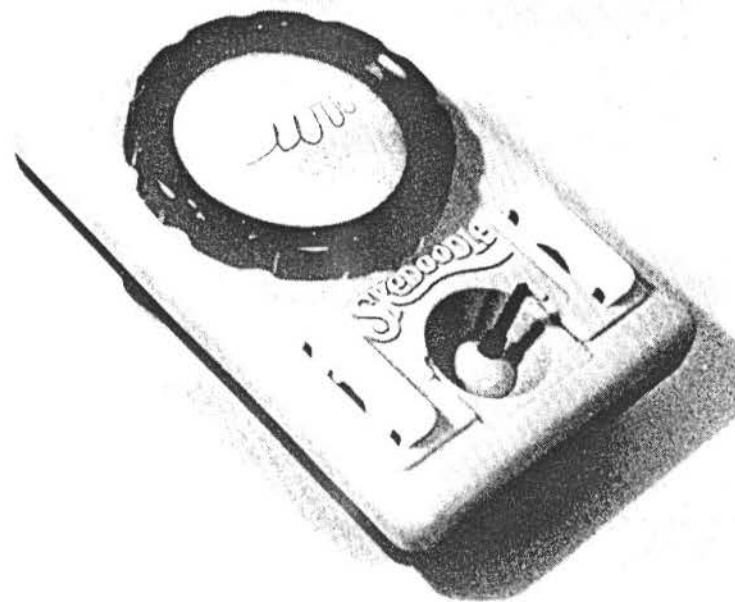
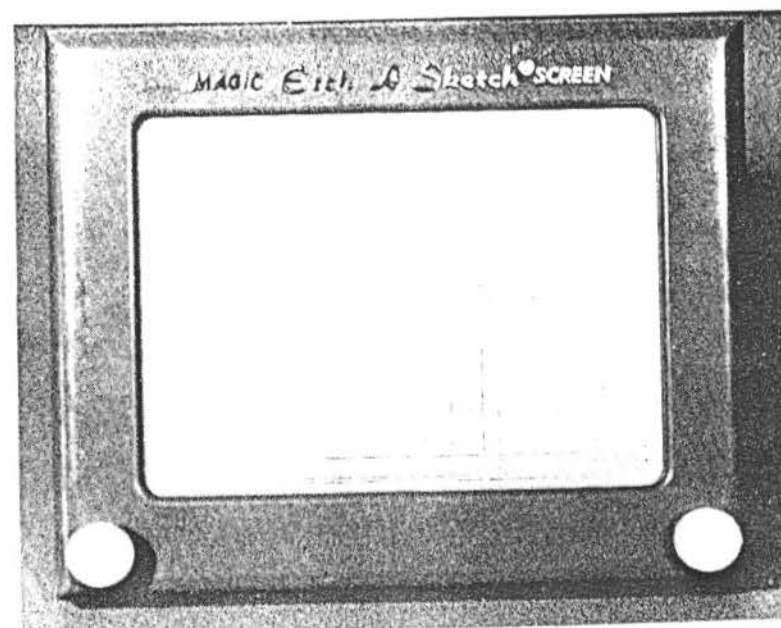


FIGURE 15.3. Two "semantically identical" drawing toys.

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