

UIMarks: quick graphical interaction with specific targets

Olivier Chapuis, Nicolas Roussel

► **To cite this version:**

Olivier Chapuis, Nicolas Roussel. UIMarks: quick graphical interaction with specific targets. UIST'10, the 23rd ACM Symposium on User Interface Software and Technology, ACM, Oct 2010, New York, United States. pp.173-182, 10.1145/1866029.1866057 . inria-00533398

HAL Id: inria-00533398

<https://hal.inria.fr/inria-00533398>

Submitted on 8 Nov 2010

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

UIMarks: Quick Graphical Interaction with Specific Targets

Olivier Chapuis
LRI - Univ Paris-Sud & CNRS; INRIA
F-91405 Orsay, France
chapuis@lri.fr

Nicolas Roussel
INRIA
F-59650 Villeneuve d'Ascq, France
nicolas.roussel@inria.fr

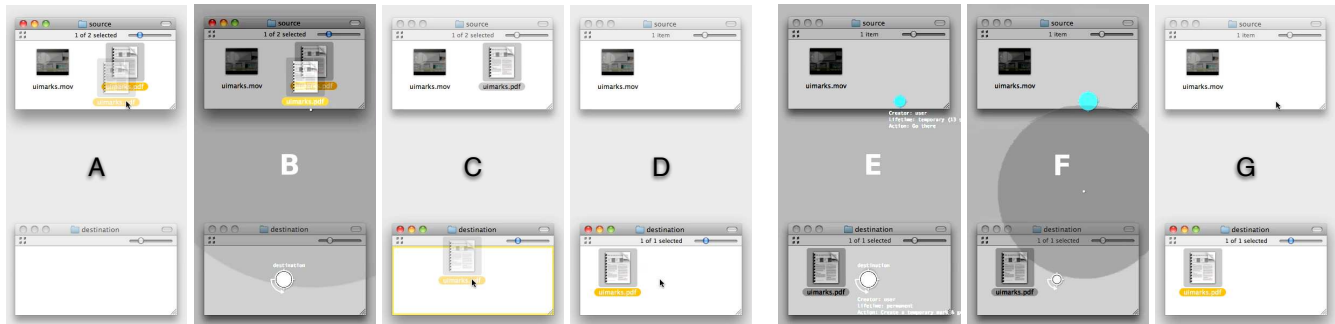


Figure 1: Sample use of UIMarks in a drag-and-drop situation. While dragging an icon (A), the user enters the UIMarks mode, points at a previously marked location using the *bubble cursor* technique (B), leaves the mode (C) and drops the icon (D). Here, the activation of the mark not only moved the cursor but also created a temporary mark at the initial cursor location. The user thus simply has to enter the mode again (E), point at the new mark (F) and leave the mode (G) to return there.

ABSTRACT

This paper reports on the design and evaluation of UIMarks, a system that lets users specify on-screen targets and associated actions by means of a graphical marking language. UIMarks supplements traditional pointing by providing an alternative mode in which users can quickly activate these marks. Associated actions can range from basic pointing facilitation to complex sequences possibly involving user interaction: one can leave a mark on a palette to make it more reachable, but the mark can also be configured to wait for a click and then automatically move the pointer back to its original location, for example. The system has been implemented on two different platforms, Metisse and OS X. We compared it to traditional pointing on a set of elementary and composite tasks in an abstract setting. Although pure pointing was not improved, the programmable automation supported by the system proved very effective.

ACM Classification: H.5.2 [Information interfaces and presentation]: User interfaces - Graphical user interfaces.

General terms: Design, Measurement, Performance, Experimentation, Human Factors

Keywords: Pointing, direct manipulation, macros.

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee.

UIST'10, October 3–6, 2010, New York, NY, USA..

Copyright 2010 ACM 978-1-4503-0271-5/10/10 ...\$10.00.

INTRODUCTION

Pointing facilitation techniques aim at improving the acquisition of on-screen targets with a pointing device. Pointing being arguably one of the most fundamental tasks in HCI [1], research on these techniques is usually motivated by the idea that small improvements in speed or accuracy may result in large efficiency gains. Yet very few of the techniques proposed by HCI researchers are actually used in existing systems. One reason for this is probably that most of them are *target-aware* [25]: they require some knowledge about the size and position of the targets and sometimes the ability to modify them.

Deciding which of the on-screen objects should be considered as potential targets is a complex problem (e.g. windows or widgets, paragraphs or characters). Target-aware pointing techniques also tend to work best on sparse layouts: in dense layouts, occlusion and false activation problems can quickly obviate the potential benefits [1]. Moreover, basic interactions like rubber-band selection also require pointing and clicking on the void space between targets, which can be difficult with some techniques.

Target-aware pointing techniques usually aim at providing quick access to all possible targets at a given time. In this paper we present UIMarks, a system instead designed to facilitate access to a limited and specific set of targets. This system is not intended to replace traditional pointing but rather to supplement it by providing users with an alternative mode they can deliberately activate based on their specific needs. UIMarks supports the creation, configuration and use of *user interface marks*, graphical objects that explicitly locate on-screen targets and provide quick ways to interact with them. This results in a new interaction model that can probably not

be replicated with any other technique, including customized keyboard accelerators. Typical use consists of entering the mode, selecting a mark using a target-aware technique – we use the *bubble cursor* [11] – and leaving the mode, which triggers actions possibly associated to the mark (Figure 1).

The paper is organized as follows. After reviewing some related work, we present the design of the UIMarks system. We describe the techniques through which users interact with it and provide some implementation details. We then report on an experiment that compared UIMarks with traditional pointing on elementary and composite tasks and shows that although it does not improve pure pointing, the programmable automation it supports is very effective. We conclude with directions for future work.

RELATED WORK

A substantial body of literature exists on target acquisition. A fundamental tool in this area is Fitts' Law [10, 19], that models movement time for the acquisition of a target of width W at a distance D as a linear function of the index of difficulty $\log_2(\frac{D}{W} + 1)$. Target-aware techniques usually try to reduce D , to increase W , or both to facilitate pointing [1]. Endpoint prediction can be used to temporarily bring targets closer to the pointer or make it jump to them, for example [2, 12, 21]. The *ninja cursors* [16] reduce the average distance to targets by attaching multiple cursors to a single device and using knowledge about the targets to resolve pointing ambiguities. *Expanding targets* [20] dynamically change W to provide a larger area to interact with at the focus of attention. *Semantic pointing* [5] and *sticky icons* [26] similarly expand the targets, but in motor space only. Another way to enlarge W is to use an *area cursor*, i.e. a cursor with an activation area larger than the standard one pixel hotspot [15, 26]. The *bubble cursor* [11] refines this idea by dynamically resizing the area so that exactly one target is selected at any time.

Area cursors sometimes make it impossible to select the void space between targets (an intrinsic limitation of the bubble cursor, for example). *DynaSpot* [7] overcomes this problem by adapting the size of the cursor's activation area depending on movement speed. Target-aware pointing techniques also tend to work best on sparse layouts, although space partitioning algorithms can be used to alleviate this problem [3]. Lastly, target-aware techniques can be quite visually distracting because of the growing and shrinking of objects, or because of the discontinuities introduced by pointer warping.

Adaptive solutions have been proposed that automatically compute a subset of the targets on which the pointing technique is then applied. *Bubbling menus* [24], for example, accelerate the selection of frequently used items by increasing their activation areas. It has also been suggested to aggregate pointer clicks and drags into a pseudo-haptic magnetic field to make frequently accessed targets easier to select without requiring prior knowledge of them [14].

Target-agnostic techniques similarly focus on user actions instead of possible targets. The *angle mouse*, for example, adjusts the control-display gain based on angular deviation [25]. *MAGIC* uses eye tracking to coarsely define an area of interest in which the pointer is automatically warped [27].

Rake cursor [6] uses the gaze position to select a cursor from a grid of several, obviating the potential disorientation caused by pointer warping at the cost of slightly increased visual clutter. All these techniques have some advantages over the target-aware ones, but have the disadvantage of considering all pixels equal which leads to limited performance improvements [25].

DESIGN PROCESS

The work that led to UIMarks started with the idea that desktop interactions might be facilitated if the pointing device could be used to control more than one on-screen pointer. We did not want the pointers to be system-defined, like with the *ninja* or *rake* cursors [16, 6]. Rather, inspired by works such as the *local tools* [4], we envisioned a system that would make it possible for users to create new pointers anywhere on-screen and to easily choose the one they would like to control at a given time. Different prototypes implementing this idea were shown to several HCI researchers, designers and students (Figure 2). The concept of multiple pointers attached to the same device generated little interest. But users of the prototypes very much liked the ability it provided to mark on-screen places where they might want to return to in the future. Instead of multiple pointers, we thus decided to support the creation, configuration and use of such marks.



Figure 2: Early prototype of a multi-pointer editor. Keyboard shortcuts make it possible to select the pointer actually controlled by the mouse (the black one) by cycling or switching between alternatives.

The marks were initially envisioned as small on-screen colored disks that users could place using their standard pointing device. In order to minimize visual distraction, we decided that they would be accessible only when in a certain mode. *Activating* a mark, i.e. having the pointer automatically moved to the corresponding location, was thus a matter of entering the mode, selecting the mark and leaving the mode. We decided to use a bubble cursor and keyboard shortcuts to support this selection. The bubble cursor was chosen because it is particularly efficient in sparse target layouts and appropriate for interfaces with an explicit selection mode [11]. Note, however, that UIMarks is not conceptually tied to this technique. It is an adaptable system that can be used to define a set of targets on which a chosen target-aware technique is to be applied.

We wanted our work to be easily applicable to existing graphical environments without necessarily requiring the modification of applications. We implemented a first version of UIMarks meeting this requirement on two different platforms: OS X and the experimental X Window system Metisse [8]. The use of these implementations in real-life conditions suggested a number of improvements. Realiz-

ing the potential benefits of the system for big and multiple screens, we added the possibility to increase the acceleration of the bubble cursor to reduce clutching in these configurations. We also noticed that after using a mark, we often wanted to go back to the *entering point*, i.e. the point where we entered the mode.

As our interest shifted from simple pointing tasks to the operations that follow, we got particularly interested in repeated interaction sequences that imply going back and forth between two or more locations. We modified the system so that it automatically created a new mark at the entering point. This made back and forth movements easier but also created a lot of unneeded marks that acted as distractors for the bubble cursor. We tried different ways to alleviate this problem, e.g. by imposing an upper limit on the number of system-created marks or making them temporary. We tried several definitions of that term that combined temporal and activation limits. We also tried to attach marks to specific graphical objects rather than the screen.

Seeing different advantages and drawbacks in the aforementioned possibilities, we concluded there was a need for user-level configuration mechanisms. We created a simple graphical language to represent the different parameters and implemented basic interaction techniques to support their configuration. We then extended these mechanisms to support the specification of actions to be executed when a mark is activated, using some basic forms of end-user programming [18] to go beyond point-and-click interactions.

CURRENT DESIGN

The UIMarks system can be seen as an effort to provide some user programmable automation over direct manipulation interfaces. Marks are somewhat similar to the bookmarklets available in web browsers that trigger the execution of some code whenever an associated URL is visited. They can be placed anywhere on-screen and provide a visual representation of the associated action, which can be customized by the user. As opposed to traditional keyboard accelerators and macros, the system emphasizes recognition over recall and supports compound pointer-based interactions instead of the sole execution of pre-defined commands.

To illustrate the potential of the system, let us consider the simple but common case where one wants to facilitate the selection of tools in a palette. One starts by placing a mark M_1 on the palette. As one usually wants to return to the original locus of interaction after selecting a tool, one can configure M_1 to create a new temporary mark M_2 at the entering point. One can also place M_1 on a tool and configure it so it automatically clicks – i.e. selects the tool – and brings back the pointer to the entering point. This reduces the number of explicit actions but also limits the use of M_1 to the selection of one particular tool. To alleviate this, one can place additional similarly configured marks on other tools and offset them from their target to facilitate their selection with the bubble cursor. Instead of creating multiple marks, another possibility is to configure M_1 so that after moving the pointer over the palette, it gives its control back to the user until a button is clicked – i.e. a tool is selected – and then brings back the pointer to the entering point.

Before providing more details about the actual user interactions with the system and our two implementations, we will define more precisely the concept of a mark by specifying its attributes, the actions that can be attached to it and how it is graphically represented.

Mark attributes

A mark is a uniquely identifiable object associated to an on-screen (x, y) position and further characterized by three attributes: its creator, target and lifetime.

Creator – Marks can be created by the user, in anticipation of future use. They can also be created by UIMarks itself as a consequence of the activation of another mark, or on behalf of other applications. An application might request the creation of a temporary mark on the `OK` button of a dialog box, for example.

Target – Marks can be either attached to the screen, or to a particular graphical object such as a window or possibly a widget. In the latter case, activating the mark will raise the enclosing window and give it the keyboard focus. Moving, resizing, iconifying or closing the window will also impact the mark.

Lifetime – Marks can be permanent or temporary, lasting for only a limited time or number of activations.

Possible values for mark attributes can be summarized as:

$$\begin{aligned} creator &\in \{user, uimarks, otherapp\} \\ target &\in \{screen, window(id)\} \\ lifetime &\in \{permanent, temporary\} \end{aligned}$$

Actions

Each mark has an associated *primary action* that is triggered whenever the mark is activated. Incidental *preceding* and *following* actions can also take place immediately before and after the primary one. When executed, all three actions have access to the mark attributes as well as the location of the entering point.

Preceding action [optional] – The only possible preceding action is the creation of a new mark at the entering point. The characteristics of this mark, however, can be fully specified. Note that this action must be executed first because of the side effects the primary one might have on the initial context (e.g. it might change the window stacking order).

Primary action – It can be as simple as “*go there*”, “*click*” or “*double-click*”. It can consist in a user-defined combination of such basic interactions. But it can also be arbitrarily complex, although it should remain describable to the user in a simple way, either textual (e.g. “*switch to the virtual desktop on the right*”) or graphical.

Following action [optional] – Any action not occurring immediately on activation or taking place at another location. This action might involve user interaction, e.g. “*wait for a user click and come back*”. In that case, specific feedback is added to the standard pointer representation to show that the mark activation is still in progress.

The execution steps triggered by the activation of a mark can be summarized as follows, those between brackets being optional:

1. [create a mark (with a certain configuration) at the entering point]
2. [raise the window relevant to the mark, if any, and give it the keyboard focus]
3. execute the primary action
4. [execute the following action]

Graphical representation

Each mark is represented on-screen when in UIMarks mode by a disk shown at its location. The external and internal borders of the disk and its fill color are used to visualize the basic attributes of the mark (Figure 3).

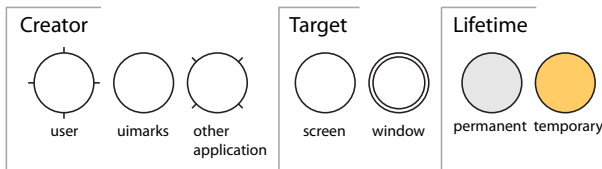


Figure 3: Visual representation of the attributes

The primary action triggered by the mark is represented by drawings inside the disk while incidental actions are represented on the outside (Figure 4). The preceding creation of a new mark is denoted by a forward arrow starting on the left side of the disk. The new mark can be represented with extensive details at the end of this arrow. More compact representations are also possible if it uses standard attribute values and causes no incidental action. Following actions are denoted on the right side of the disk, a backward arrow indicating a pointer translation back to the entering point.

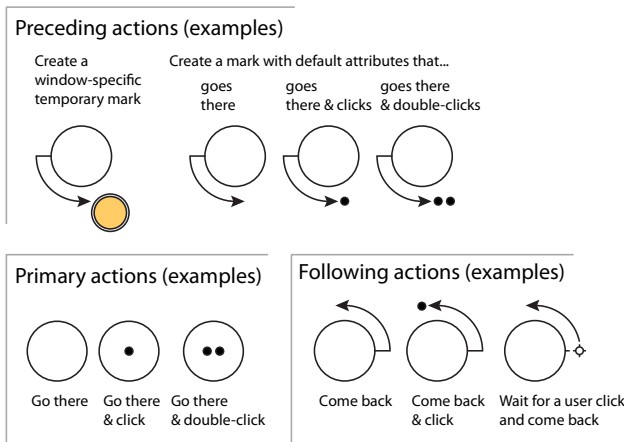


Figure 4: Visual representation of the actions

To facilitate its selection and activation in certain situations, a mark can be offset from its target. In this case, a small unselectable spot is left to indicate the target, connected to the mark by a line segment (Figure 5).

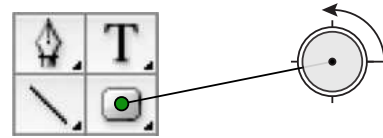


Figure 5: UIMark example. An offsetted, user-created, window-specific and permanent mark that clicks on the rectangle tool and sends the pointer back to the entering point.

INTERACTION DETAILS

In this section, we describe the interactions used to create, select, configure, activate and delete marks. We focus our attention on the principles that guided the design of these interactions rather than implementation details, some of which will be described in the next section.

As previously stated, all UIMarks interactions take place in a specific mode outside which the marks are not visible. In this mode, a semi-transparent overlay is displayed on top of all windows to preserve the user's context but visually differentiate the marks (Figure 1). The mode is associated with continuous pressure with the non-preferred hand on a specific key, `Windows` or `Fn`, for quick and easy access.

We use a slightly adapted version of the bubble cursor: the selected mark is scaled up by a factor of $5/3$ to differentiate it, a small cross locates the entering point and the location of the pointer is indicated by a small dot. Leaving the mode activates the selected mark, if any. Note that since no button of the pointing device is used to enter the mode, select a mark and leave the mode, these operations can be executed during drag-and-drop operations (Figure 1). As the bubble cursor always captures one of the existing marks, two operations allow one to leave the mode without activating it: one that moves the pointer back to the entering point and the other that leaves it where it is. These operations are triggered by pressing the `Escape` and `Enter` keys, or clicking the `Right` and `Middle` buttons of the pointing device.

In addition to pointing-based selection using the bubble cursor, users can circulate between marks using the `Tab` key. By pressing `Shift` followed by an alphanumeric key, they can also bind that key to the selected mark: from that moment forward, pressing the key will leave the mode and activate the mark, and the bound symbol will be shown next to it.

A button click on an empty space with the pointing device creates a new mark with default attribute values. The newly created mark is automatically selected by virtue of the bubble cursor. Whenever a mark is selected, specific interaction techniques make it possible to (re)configure its target, lifetime and associated actions, the latter being chosen from a predefined set or incrementally specified as explained in the next section. The selected mark can be deleted by pressing the `Backspace` key. Marks can be moved by a simple drag-and-drop interaction and offsetted the same way using a keyboard modifier (`Alt`) or alternative button (`Right`).

We have experimented with the use of the system on a laptop with a touchpad and an external mouse. This combination of devices can be used in two ways. One can be specifically

assigned to UIMarks and the other to conventional pointing. Note that although this supports implicit bimodal interaction, it requires good pointing skills with both hands. The devices can also be used in a bimanual rather than bimodal way: the mouse for selecting marks and the touchpad as a mode trigger and to configure them, for example.

We acknowledge that configuring a mark can be time consuming. However, this should not happen too often and the power of the marks resides in their use: their fast selection and activation, which can trigger operations that go beyond simple pointing.

IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

Implementing UIMarks in a window system requires the ability to observe, alter and generate input events, to display a semi-transparent overlay, and to determine target windows and track them. Because Metisse[8] provides full control over its input and output mechanisms, implementing UIMarks on it was pretty straightforward. Specificities of this implementation include the automatic creation of holes in windows overlapping marked ones to show the marks in context and the availability of several primary actions related to virtual desktops. Mouse-based interactions support the incremental configuration of a mark: scrolling the mouse wheel over parts of its graphical representation allows one to specify each attribute or action separately by circulating between possible values.

Our OS X implementation required a somewhat unusual combination of public but unevenly documented APIs. It uses Quartz 2D to create an overlay window that covers the whole display space independently of the number of physical displays. It controls pointer acceleration through the HID System Manager and uses CoreFoundation's distributed notification center to receive mark-related commands from external applications written in any language (two lines of Python code are all it takes to request the creation of a mark, for example). Simple keyboard-based techniques allow users to configure the marks. When creating one, pressing the `Shift` modifier attaches it to the window underneath rather than the screen, and `Ctrl` makes it temporary rather than permanent. Pressing the `t` and `l` keys (for *target* and *lifetime*) later allows to toggle these settings for a selected mark. Pressing the `Space` key also allows to specify the preceding, primary and following actions of a selected mark by cycling through pre-defined combinations, e.g. "go there, click & come back", "create a temporary mark & go there". The window management services offered by Apple's public APIs being quite limited¹, we resorted to using the Accessibility API and the `SetFrontProcess` function to track windows and to raise them. This causes unwanted flashes when we attach marks to windows as we need to temporarily hide the UIMarks overlay to query the Accessibility API, as well as occasional modifications of the window stacking order.

Real use of UIMarks on the two platforms suggests that certain global aspects of it should be left configurable by the user. This includes the default target and lifetime for newly

¹A special connection to the window server is notably required to manage other applications' windows, which is exclusively maintained by the Dock.

created marks, for example, as well as the definition of the *temporary* lifetime: limited in time, in the number of activations or both? The first author's system is configured so that marks are permanent and attached to windows by default. His temporary marks have a lifetime of 30 seconds but are automatically destroyed on activation. Moreover, when one is created, all other temporary marks within a distance of 100 pixels are automatically destroyed. These settings help maintain a balance between facilitating back-and-forth interactions and keeping the number of marks reasonable.

The impact of some window management operations is also difficult to decide. Although it seems reasonable to destroy the marks associated to a window being closed and to move the marks of a window being moved, what should be done when it is iconified, for example? Hiding the associated marks might seem the more coherent thing to do (it is the first author's personal choice), but keeping them visible provides a quick way of deiconifying the window on activation. Resizing and scrolling operations are also problematic. Our current implementations do nothing special about them (we will come back to that at the end of the paper).

EXPERIMENT

Informal use of UIMarks in real-life conditions suggested it might provide advantage over traditional pointing in certain situations. Before considering whether people would want to use our system and whether they would manage to do so, we wanted to clearly establish whether and when they could expect significant performance benefits. We thus decided to evaluate UIMarks from a low-level perspective, in a controlled setting.

The use of a specific mode for target-aware pointing raises a complex question: under which conditions do the potential benefits of the bubble cursor and mark-associated actions outweigh the mode-switching costs? Answering that question is not easy because of the many cases to consider. The target can be directly under, close to or far from a mark, for example, and various actions can be thought of. The tasks to consider are composite ones mixing mode switching, bubble cursor pointing, pointer warping, traditional pointing and automated actions. They are different from the simple tasks used in previous work on the bubble cursor, for example, which makes the results of this work hardly usable in our case.

In the rest of this section, we report on a lab experiment that compared UIMarks to traditional pointing on abstract composite tasks designed after common real-life scenarios. The main factor of the experiment was the technique (TECH): UIMarks (*UIM*) or traditional pointing (*STD*).

Scenarios and Tasks

The first scenario we considered is a simple target acquisition like clicking on a button, for example. In the case of *STD*, the user has to point at the target and click on it. We call this task *SimpleClick*. *UIM* supports this scenario through the following tasks:

- (i) *Simple* - A mark that clicks is over the target. The user just needs to activate it.

- (ii) *SimpleClick* - A mark is over the target. The user has to activate it, then click on the target.
- (iii) *Approach* - There is no mark over the target. The user has to activate a mark close to it, then point at it and click.

The second scenario we considered is the selection of an item in a pull-down or pop-up menu. In the case of *STD*, it is a two-step process: the user has to point at a target and click on it, which reveals a second target within a short distance to acquire in the same way. We call this task *Menu*. A corresponding *UIM* task is:

- (iv) *Menu* - A mark that clicks is on the first target. The user has to activate it, then point at the revealed target and click on it.

The *UIM* definition of *Menu* is very similar to *Approach*. Since we are mainly interested in pointing rather than target search, we can even consider the two tasks as quasi-equivalent if we assume the user knows where the second target will appear. Note however that when comparing the *UIM* and *STD* techniques, *Approach* with *UIM* should be compared to *SimpleClick* with *STD*, not *Menu*.

The third scenario we considered corresponds to *return tasks* consisting of a *forward* and a *backward* sub-tasks, the latter bringing the pointer back to the starting point or close to it. As we already said, after selecting a tool in a palette (*SimpleClick*) or an item in a menu (*Menu*), one indeed often returns to the original locus of interaction to resume it. In the case of *STD*, the backward sub-task can be seen as a new target acquisition: the user has to point at a target close to or at the starting point and click on it to delimit the task. We call this sub-task *Back* and combining it with the forward *STD* tasks gives two return tasks: *SimpleClick|Back*² and *Menu|Back*. For *UIM*, we consider the following return tasks:

- (v) *Back* - Follows a forward sub-task ($i - iv$) on a mark that creates a temporary mark at the entering point. The user comes back by activating the temporary mark and has then to click to delimit the backward sub-task.
- (vi) *AutoBack* - Follows a forward sub-task ($i - iv$) on a mark that automatically moves the pointer back to the entering point. The user simply has to click.
- (vii) *BackApproach* - same as *Back* except the final target is not at the entering point, where the temporary mark is, but close to it. The user has to activate the temporary mark, point at the final target and then click.
- (viii) *AutoBackApproach* - same as *AutoBack* except the final target is again not at the entering point but close to it. The user has to point at the final target and click.

To summarize, for *STD*, we considered 2 forward tasks (*SimpleClick* and *Menu*), 1 backward task (*Back*) and thus 2 return tasks (*SimpleClick|Back* and *Menu|Back*). For *UIM*, we considered 4 forward tasks ($i - iv$), 4 backward tasks ($v - viii$) and thus 16 return tasks. Covering all these tasks is not possible in

²We use the | sign to delimit the forward and backward sub-tasks.

a single reasonably sized experiment. We therefore decided to focus on a few return tasks chosen so that all the forward and backward sub-tasks would be used at least once, taking into account the quasi-equivalence of *Menu* and *Approach* with *UIM*. Table 1 shows the tasks actually used for the experiment and Figure 6 illustrates the environment in which they were performed.

<i>UIM</i>	<i>STD</i>
<i>Menu Back</i>	<i>Menu Back</i>
<i>Simple AutoBackApproach</i>	
<i>SimpleClick AutoBack</i>	<i>SimpleClick Back</i>
<i>SimpleClick BackApproach</i>	

Table 1: Experiment tasks. Rows indicate which *STD* task should be used for comparison for each *UIM* task.

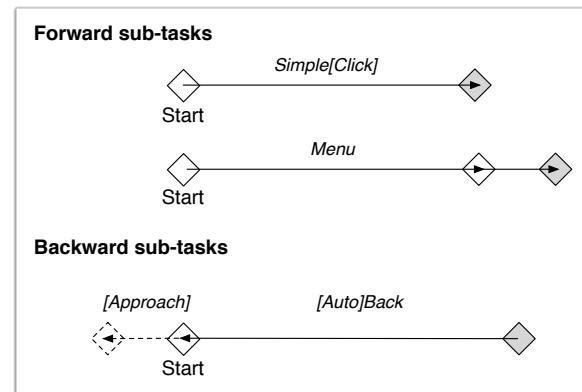


Figure 6: Users need to position the pointer inside the *Start* target to start a trial. They should wait until the target changes color, which indicates they can execute the task. Timing starts on their first action.

Apparatus

We conducted the experiment on a high-end workstation running X Window and a specifically designed OpenGL application. The display was a 30" LCD monitor with a resolution of 2560×1600 (100 dpi). We used a 600 dpi optical mouse making it possible to cross the whole screen without clutching using the default X Window acceleration function.

Distances and Widths

The tasks used in the experiment depended on a series of "factors". Our main factors, besides the technique, were the size of the targets (*SIZE*) and the distance from the starting point to the first one (*DIST*). All the targets in a given instance of a task had the same size: they were either *small* (*ST*, 6 pixels) or *normal* (*NT*, 24 pixels). The distance to the first target was either *small* (*SD*, 512 pixels), *medium* (*MD*, 1280 pixels) or *large* (*LD*, 2048 pixels).

We fixed the distance to the secondary target of the *Approach* and *Menu* sub-tasks to 96 pixels in the movement direction. For *UIM*, we also had to specify the number and arrangement of on-screen marks besides those required for the tasks. To

simplify the experiment and because UIMarks is rather intended for sparse layouts, we used a grid of extra marks arranged every 368 pixels starting from the location of the first target of the task and at least that distance away from the starting point.

Note, that the DIST factor inevitably interacted with the grid of extra marks. When the distance was small (*SD*), there could be no mark between the starting point and the first target. When the distance was medium (*MD*), there were necessarily some marks between the starting point and the first target, and beyond it as well. For large distances (*LD*), we made sure there would be no mark accessible beyond the first target. This made it possible for users to take advantage of the screen edge to facilitate the acquisition of the target.

Design

Twelve unpaid volunteers participated in the experiment (2 female). They ranged in ages from 22 to 35 and were all experienced mouse users.

The experiment was a within-participant 2 (TECH) \times 2 (SIZE) \times 3 (DIST) design for each tasks. Participants always performed the *STD* tasks in the following order: *SimpleClick|Back*, then *Menu|Back* (simple to complex). For *UIM*, two orders were used: *SimpleClick|BackApproach*, *Menu|Back*, *SimpleClick|AutoBack* & *Simple|AutoBackApproach*; and the reverse order.

For each task, we blocked by TECH and then DIST, SIZE being randomly assigned. Participants either began with *UIM* or *STD*, and in the case of *UIM*, either with the first order or the reverse one. That gives four orders that we crossed with three orders of DIST obtained with a latin square to get the required twelve orders for the TECH \times DIST crossing.

The experiment lasted approximately 45 minutes. Participants started each task with a training phase consisting of a series of 4 trials for each full condition. The measured phase then consisted of a series of 6 trials for each full condition. Participants thus performed $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times (4 + 6) = 120$ trials for each task, 72 being measured. Overall, a total of $12 \times 72 = 864$ measures were collected for each task ($12 \times 6 = 72$ for each full condition).

Participants were instructed to perform the tasks as quickly as possible and to minimize click errors. Note that since all the sub-tasks except *Simple* required participants to click on one or more target(s), click errors had to be corrected and thus impacted negatively on the measured time. UIMarks-specific errors in *UIM* tasks invalidated the trial, which the participant had then to redo. These errors include the selection of an incorrect mark, for example, or the use of the UIMarks mode for an incorrect number of times.

Results

Our results were analyzed considering the full factorial model

$$TMT \sim \text{TECH} \times \text{SIZE} \times \text{DIST} \times \text{Random}(\text{PARTICIPANT})$$

for each task, where *TMT* is the task movement time. As we were mainly interested in the potential benefit of UIMarks, we did not take into account invalid *UIM* trials, i.e. those

	TECH	TECH \times SIZE	TECH \times DIST
Box Contents	$F_{1,11}$ p Tukey HSD	$F_{1,11}$ p Tukey HSD	$F_{2,22}$ p Tukey HSD
<i>Menu Back</i>	43.3 <0.0001 <i>UIM</i> > <i>STD</i>	82.6 <0.0001 <i>ST: UIM</i> >+ <i>STD</i> <i>NT: UIM</i> \leq <i>STD</i>	2.21 0.1338 <i>SD</i> > <i>MD</i> \leq <i>LD</i>
<i>Simple AutoBackApproach</i>	131 <0.0001 <i>UIM</i> > <i>STD</i>	353 <0.0001 <i>ST: UIM</i> >+ <i>STD</i> <i>NT: UIM</i> >- <i>STD</i>	2.89 0.0770 <i>STD: SD</i> > <i>LD</i> > <i>MD</i> <i>UIM: SD</i> > <i>MD</i> \leq <i>LD</i>
<i>SimpleClick AutoBack</i>	868 <0.0001 <i>UIM</i> >+ <i>STD</i>	457 <0.0001 <i>ST: UIM</i> >+++ <i>STD</i> <i>NT: UIM</i> >+++ <i>STD</i>	9.70 0.0010 <i>STD: SD</i> > <i>LD</i> > <i>MD</i> <i>UIM: SD</i> \leq <i>MD</i> \leq <i>LD</i>
<i>SimpleClick BackApproach</i>	27.3 0.0003 <i>STD</i> > <i>UIM</i>	25.7 0.0004 <i>ST: STD</i> \leq <i>UIM</i> <i>NT: STD</i> >+ <i>UIM</i>	0.769 0.4753 <i>STD: SD</i> > <i>MD</i> > <i>LD</i> <i>UIM: SD</i> > <i>MD</i> \leq <i>LD</i>

Table 2: Results of the ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey tests for each task. Adding the task as a factor in the ANOVA leads to stricter Tukey tests but does not invalidate the main results. The task named in the left column is the *UIM* one (see Table 1 for the corresponding *STD* task). $A > B$ means that A is significantly faster than B ($\alpha = 0.05$), additional +s mean that the speed-up is of more than 25%, 40% or 60% and - means that the speed-up is of less than 10%. $A \leq B$ means the test does not reveal a significant difference (but that A is faster than B).

during which participants had made a UIMarks-specific error (1.7% of them).

Table 2 shows the results of the ANOVA for the TECH factor and the TECH \times SIZE and TECH \times DIST interactions for *TMT*. The effect of SIZE and DIST are always significant ($p < 0.0001$) and are not included in that table. As one would expect based on the existing literature, participants were faster with the normal-sized targets than with the small ones and *TMT* increased as DIST increased (Figures 7 and 8). We thus turned our attention to the TECH \times SIZE and TECH \times DIST interactions: does SIZE impact the difference between *UIM* and *STD*? Does DIST have the same effect on *UIM* and *STD*?

The differences found between DIST conditions were lower for *UIM* than *STD* (see Figure 8 and the results of the post-hoc Tukey test in the last column of Table 2). However, the TECH \times DIST interactions are not very strong compared to the TECH \times SIZE ones: the TECH \times DIST interaction is never strong enough to change the result of the global post-hoc test between *UIM* and *STD* for a given DIST (second column of Table 2), which is often the case with the SIZE factor. One can indeed see on Figure 7 and in the third column of Table 2 that *UIM* is especially efficient for small targets.

We now detail our results for each *UIM* task of the experiment, providing additional information to Table 2 and Figures 7 and 8 obtained by looking at intermediate times omitted for brevity:

Menu|Back: *UIM* is faster than *STD* (more than 25% faster for small targets). Intermediate times show that the same is true for *Menu* alone. This sub-task's automated clic probably provides the decisive advantage on small targets, accentuated by the precise pointer warping of *Back*.

Note that if we consider the *UIM Menu* sub-task as an *Approach* sub-task and thus compare the *UIM Menu|Back* task time to the *STD SimpleClick|Back* one (instead of *STD Menu|Back*), *STD* be-

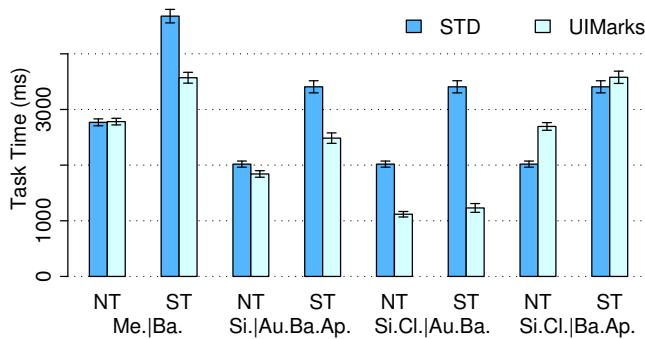


Figure 7: Task time for each TECH by SIZE for the tasks of the experiment (two letters abbreviation notation for the tasks names). Error bars in all the figures represent the 95% confidence limits of the sample mean ($mean \pm StdErr \times 1.96$)

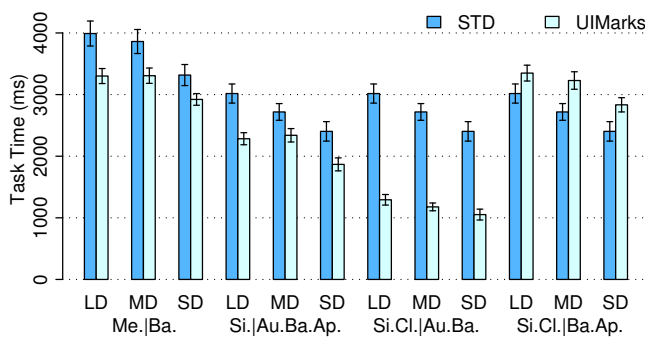


Figure 8: Task time for each TECH by DIST for the tasks of the experiment (two letters abbreviation for the tasks names)

comes faster than *UIM* for both target sizes (more than 25% faster for normal sized targets). In other words, using *UIM* to simply approach a target does not lead to any benefit.

Simple|AutoBackApproach: *UIM* is faster than *STD* (more than 25% faster for small targets and less than 10% for the normal sized ones). Intermediate times show even better performance gains on *Simple*, *UIM* being more than 40% faster for small targets and between 10% and 25% faster for normal sized ones. The manual approach required by *AutoBackApproach* seems again costly, even though it is automatically initiated.

SimpleClick|AutoBack: *UIM* is much faster than *STD* (more than 60% faster for small targets and more than 40% for the normal sized ones). Intermediate times show that *UIM* is more than 40% faster than *STD* for *SimpleClick* alone on small targets, probably because of the precise pointer warping. The same precise pointer warping automatically initiated by *AutoBack* probably accentuates this to provide the decisive advantage for normal sized targets.

SimpleClick|BackApproach: *STD* is faster than *UIM* (more than 25% faster for normal sized targets). The backward approach sub-task again impedes performance, strong enough to reverse the result observed with *SimpleClick|AutoBack* on normal sized targets and cancel the benefit on the small ones.

Summary

Difference in performance between *UIM* and *STD* depends on the nature of the forward and backward sub-tasks and on the SIZE factor. More precisely: (i) *Approach* and *BackApproach* put *UIM* at a disadvantage independently of the target size; (ii) *Simple*, *SimpleClick*, *Menu*, *Back* & *AutoBackApproach* are neutral or slightly advantage *UIM* for normal-sized targets and clearly advantage it for the small ones; and (iii) *AutoBack* provides a strong advantage to *UIM* even in the case of normal-sized targets.

Using *UIMarks* to simply approach a target did not lead to any benefit and was even slower than directly acquiring it. *UIMarks* is not a general-purpose pointing facilitation system: the costs introduced by its use cannot be compensated unless one takes full advantage of the benefits it offers (e.g. precise pointer warping and programmability). However, real-life situations might be more favorable to it than this “pure pointing” experiment. As an example, a *UIMarks* approach performs the additional action of raising the window on which the mark was placed, which can be useful if it is fully or even partially overlapped. Note also that the *UIM Back* task brings the pointer back to the exact location where the user entered the *UIMarks* mode. We believe the benefit of this might be higher in real-life settings where that precise point might be of importance and difficult to locate. More generally, even in cases where precision does not matter, *UIMarks* might provide some benefit by simply reducing the number of possible choices for that location [22].

At the end of the experiment, participants were asked whether they felt they had been faster with *UIMarks* and whether they found it easy to use. They were asked to rate these feelings on a five point scale: very fast/easy (5), fast/easy (4), neither fast-slow/easy-difficult (3), slow/difficult (2) and very slow/difficult (1). All the ratings are ≥ 4 for speed and ≥ 3 for easiness with means of 4.08 and 3.92. This is really encouraging and in accordance with our quantitative results and the very low error rate in *UIM* tasks.

Extrapolation based on an additive model

Given the results of the above experiment, we can estimate the movement times for all the tasks initially considered (cf. *Scenarios and Tasks*) by using a simple additive model: the movement time for a task *A|B* can be estimated by adding the intermediate times for the sub-tasks *A* and *B* measured through two experiment tasks *A|C* and *D|B*. Note however that such a simple additive model can only lead to approximate calculations of the movement times because of chunking and the fact that several tasks are often performed in parallel [17].

As an example, the movement time for *Simple|AutoBack* can be estimated from *Simple|AutoBackApproach* and *SimpleClick|AutoBack*. Doing so suggests a strong advantage for *UIM* on this task (more than 60% speed-up). The movement time similarly estimated for *Approach|BackApproach* suggests a 25% advantage for *STD* independent of the target size (this is presumably the worst case possible for *UIM*, none of the targets being under a mark). The movement time estimated for *Approach|AutoBack* suggests an advantage for *UIM* of at least 10% on both target

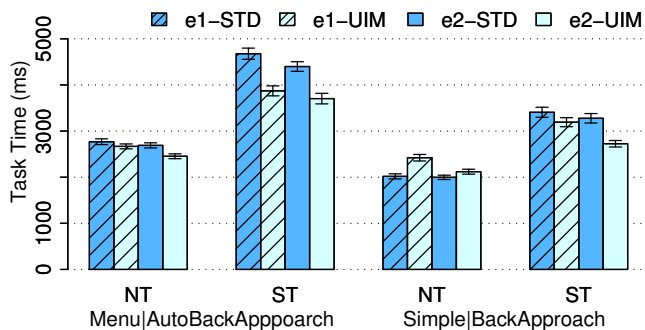


Figure 9: Task time for each TECH by SIZE. Plain bars represent the task time for experiment two, as the hashed bars represent the estimated task time from the first experiment.

sizes. *AutoBack* might thus be able to compensate the cost of a forward *Approach*.

To verify this additive model, we conducted a second lighter experiment similar to the first one using the following tasks: *Simple|BackApproach* and *Menu|AutoBackApproach*. These tasks were chosen for two reasons. First, the estimated differences on them between *STD* and *UIM* were not very important. Second, *Simple* had been combined with an automated task in the first experiment and *Menu* with a non-automated one, so we wanted to invert this choice.

We followed the exact same design and procedure as in the first experiment. The same 12 volunteers participated again. The experiment lasted approximately 25 minutes and we recorded only 1.1% of *UIM* errors. Figure 9 shows the results of this second experiment as well as the estimations obtained from the first one.

Concerning *Menu|AutoBackApproach*, we found an effect of the technique ($F_{1,11} = 50.2, p < 0.0001$), *UIM* being faster than *STD*. We also found a $\text{TECH} \times \text{SIZE}$ interaction ($F_{1,11} = 411, p < 0.0001$). While estimated values suggested no significant difference for normal sized targets, *UIM* was in fact significantly faster than *STD* for both target sizes (16% speed-up for the small ones, 8% for the normal sized ones). A close look at intermediate times shows that participants were slightly faster in experiment 2 than in experiment 1 on each sub-task. The performance improvement using *UIM* might thus be caused by some learning effect.

Concerning *Simple|BackApproach*, we found a significant effect of the technique ($F_{1,11} = 9.02, p = 0.0120$) although it is not very strong compared to most of the other ones we have. We also found a $\text{TECH} \times \text{SIZE}$ interaction ($F_{1,11} = 40.7, p < 0.0001$): *UIM* was significantly faster than *STD* for small targets (17% speed-up), *STD* being faster for the normal sized ones (3.7%) but the difference not being significant. This contrasts with estimations based on the first experiment that suggested no TECH effect and a significant $\text{TECH} \times \text{SIZE}$ interaction (*UIM* 6% faster than *STD* for small targets and *STD* 16% faster for the normal sized ones). Participants were actually faster than expected on this task with *UIM*. A close look at intermediate times shows that most of the differences between estimations and actual measurements are concentrated

in the *Simple* forward sub-task. Considering that we used *Simple|AutoBackApproach* to estimate it, it seems plausible that the automatic pointer warping it triggered slowed down the participants, which in turn suggests that our additive model might be too simplistic. Again, a *UIM* learning effect might also have occurred.

SUMMARY AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we reported on the design, implementation and evaluation of *UIMarks*, a system that lets users specify on-screen targets and associated actions by means of a graphical marking language and provides a quick way to activate these marks.

While target-aware pointing techniques are known to be efficient in controlled settings, very few have been implemented in real systems. Doing so indeed poses two problems: one needs to identify the targets and also to integrate the technique with traditional pointing. With *UIMarks*, we propose a first solution to these problems for the bubble cursor. As demonstrated by our two implementations³, our solution is easily applicable to existing graphical environments without necessarily requiring the modification of applications. And as we explained, our solution is not conceptually tied to the bubble cursor. The first contribution of this work is thus the proposal of a framework that has the potential to leverage existing target-aware pointing facilitation techniques.

The second contribution of this work concerns the evaluation of the proposed solution. The comparative evaluation of traditional pointing and *UIMarks* in a lab experiment allowed us to assess its strengths and weaknesses in an abstract setting. Our results notably show that for normal-sized targets, the mode-switching costs outweigh the benefits provided by the sole bubble cursor. But our results also show that the costs introduced by *UIMarks* can largely be compensated when marks are adequately placed and one takes advantage of their programmability. This is a crucial step towards a better comprehension of the strengths and weaknesses of the system in more complex settings. Future work on the evaluation will probably include contextual factors such as window management configurations or operations, multiple similar targets or huge distances imposing some clutching.

Like most studies of pointing techniques, ours focused on efficiency. We did not consider other usability criteria such as the learnability or memorability of the system, or user satisfaction. Additional user feedback will be useful for improving and extending the system in these respects. It should help us decide, for example, how window-specific marks should behave in case of scrolling and resizing operations. Should marks be associated to inner controls rather than windows, or is the current way of (not) dealing with these operations acceptable? Accessibility APIs, pixel-based reverse engineering techniques or hybrid approaches could be used to provide the structural knowledge required to compare these alternatives [23, 9, 13].

The suitability of our representations and configuration techniques is another question we would like to study in the fu-

³available from <http://insitu.lri.fr/uimarks/>

ture. Should we go on with a graphical language based on composable elements, or should we switch to a set of pre-determined icons? The answer is clearly related to the interaction techniques used to create and configure the marks. Some might prefer to “program” them, as is possible with our Metisse implementation, while others might prefer to just choose them in a predefined set, as on OS X. These questions will probably lead us to more general ones related to multi-attribute data specification and visualization.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank Caroline Appert, Michel Beaudouin-Lafon, Renaud Blanch, Pierre Dragicevic, James Eagan, Nicolas Gaudron, Wendy Mackay, Emmanuel Pietriga and the anonymous reviewers for their feedback.

REFERENCES

1. R. Balakrishnan. "Beating" Fitts' law: virtual enhancements for pointing facilitation. *IJHCS*, 61(6):857–874, 2004.
2. P. Baudisch, E. Cutrell, M. Czerwinski, D. Robbins, P. Tandler, B. Bederson, and A. Zierlinger. Drag-and-pop and drag-and-pick: techniques for accessing remote screen content on touch- and pen-operated systems. *Proc. INTERACT '03*, 57–64. IOS Press, 2003.
3. P. Baudisch, A. Zotov, E. Cutrell, and K. Hinckley. Starburst: a target expansion algorithm for non-uniform target distributions. *Proc. AVI '08*, 129–137. ACM, 2008.
4. B. Bederson, J. Hollan, A. Druin, J. Stewart, D. Rogers, and D. Proft. Local tools: An alternative to tool palettes. *Proc. UIST '96*, 169–170. ACM, 1996.
5. R. Blanch, Y. Guiard, and M. Beaudouin-Lafon. Semantic pointing: improving target acquisition with control-display ratio adaptation. *Proc. CHI '04*, 519–526. ACM, 2004.
6. R. Blanch and M. Ortega. Rake cursor: improving pointing performance with concurrent input channels. *Proc. CHI '09*, 1415–1418. ACM, 2009.
7. O. Chapuis, J.-B. Labrune, and E. Pietriga. Dynaspot: speed-dependent area cursor. *Proc. CHI '09*, 1391–1400. ACM, 2009.
8. O. Chapuis and N. Roussel. Metisse is not a 3D desktop! *Proc. UIST '05*, 13–22. ACM, 2005.
9. M. Dixon and J. Fogarty. Prefab: implementing advanced behaviors using pixel-based reverse engineering of interface structure. *Proc. CHI '10*, 1525–1534. ACM, 2010.
10. P. Fitts. The information capacity of the human motor system in controlling the amplitude of movement. *J. Exper. Psych.*, 47:381–391, 1954.
11. T. Grossman and R. Balakrishnan. The bubble cursor: enhancing target acquisition by dynamic resizing of the cursor's activation area. *Proc. CHI '05*, 281–290. ACM, 2005.
12. Y. Guiard, R. Blanch, and M. Beaudouin-Lafon. Object pointing: a complement to bitmap pointing in GUIs. *Proc. GI '04*, 9–16. CHCCS, 2004.
13. A. Hurst, S. Hudson, and J. Mankoff. Automatically identifying targets users interact with during real world tasks. *Proc. IUI '10*, 11–20. ACM, 2010.
14. A. Hurst, J. Mankoff, A. Dey, and S. Hudson. Dirty desktops: using a patina of magnetic mouse dust to make common interactor targets easier to select. *Proc. UIST '07*, 183–186. ACM, 2007.
15. P. Kabbash and W. Buxton. The “prince” technique: Fitts' law and selection using area cursors. *Proc. CHI '95*, 273–279. ACM/Addison-Wesley, 1995.
16. M. Kobayashi and T. Igarashi. Ninja cursors: using multiple cursors to assist target acquisition on large screens. *Proc. CHI '08*, 949–958. ACM, 2008.
17. Y. Li, K. Hinckley, Z. Guan, and J. Landay. Experimental analysis of mode switching techniques in pen-based user interfaces. *Proc. CHI '05*, 461–470. ACM, 2005.
18. H. Lieberman, F. Paternò, and V. Wulf. *End user development*. Human-Computer Interaction Series, Vol. 9. Springer-Verlag, 2006.
19. I. S. MacKenzie. Fitts' law as a research and design tool in human-computer interaction. *HCI*, 7:91–139, 1992.
20. M. McGuffin and R. Balakrishnan. Fitts' law and expanding targets: experimental studies and designs for user interfaces. *ACM ToCHI*, 12(4):388–422, 2005.
21. T. Nishida and T. Igarashi. Drag-and-guess: drag-and-drop with prediction. *Proc. INTERACT '07*, 461–474. Springer-Verlag, 2007.
22. S. Seow. Information theoretic models of HCI: A comparison of the Hick-Hyman law and Fitts' law. *HCI*, 20(3):315–352, 2005.
23. W. Stuerzlinger, O. Chapuis, D. Phillips, and N. Roussel. User interface façades: towards fully adaptable user interfaces. *Proc. UIST '06*, 309–318. ACM, 2006.
24. T. Tsandilas and m. c. schraefel. Bubbling menus: a selective mechanism for accessing hierarchical drop-down menus. *Proc. CHI '07*, 1195–1204. ACM, 2007.
25. J. Wobbrock, J. Fogarty, S. Liu, S. Kimuro, and S. Harada. The angle mouse: target-agnostic dynamic gain adjustment based on angular deviation. *Proc. CHI '09*, 1401–1410. ACM, 2009.
26. A. Worden, N. Walker, K. Bharat, and S. Hudson. Making computers easier for older adults to use: area cursors and sticky icons. *Proc. CHI '97*, 266–271. ACM, 1997.
27. S. Zhai, C. Morimoto, and S. Ihde. Manual and gaze input cascaded (MAGIC) pointing. *Proc. CHI '99*, 246–253. ACM, 1999.