

# CS160: Lecture 19

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# Human Learning and Help Systems

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 Why study human learning for HCI?

# Why Study Human Learning?

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Ans: People need to \*learn\* new applications, often using various forms of Help.

Ans: The way people learn should influence the design of help systems, and perhaps the entire system e.g.

- 📄 Knowledge is "situated" in particular contexts, so help should reflect that (scenarios/common tasks)
- 📄 Learning is layered on old knowledge in a roughly novice → expert trajectory
- 📄 Learning involves a concrete → abstract progression
- 📄 Fluency with abstraction varies across the population, esp. with degree of schooling

# Transfer Learning




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- 📄 Learning is a process of building new knowledge using existing knowledge.
- 📄 Knowledge is not acquired but constructed out of existing "materials".
- 📄 The process of applying existing knowledge in new settings is called *Transfer*.



# Transfer Learning examples

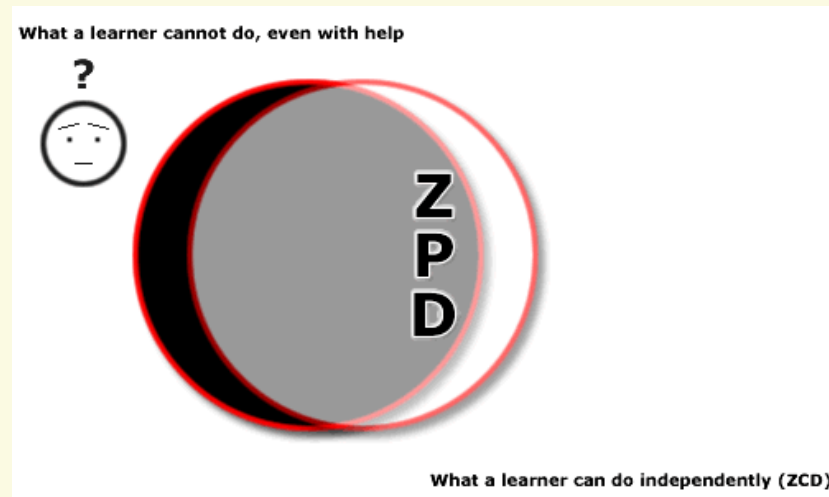
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-  You've learned basic edit commands from MS Notepad, and you transfer to MS Word.
-  You've installed a simple program (lets say Quicktime), and you transfer that knowledge to an MS Office installation.
-  You've done a mail merge in MS Office 2000 and you transfer to Office XP.

# ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

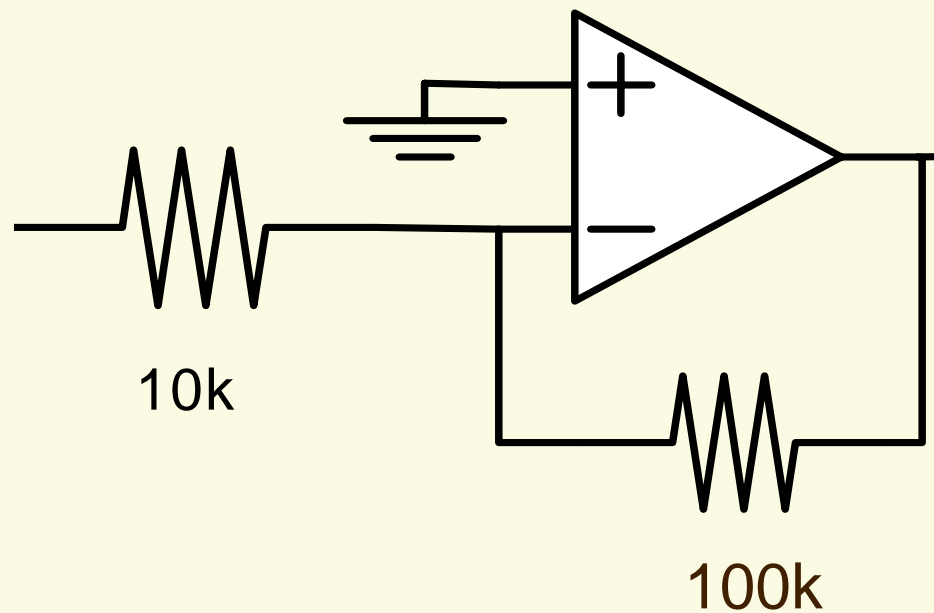
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- Learning is layered and incremental.
- In societies, learners are helped by others.
- In fact learners have a "zone" of concepts they can acquire with help.
- This is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).



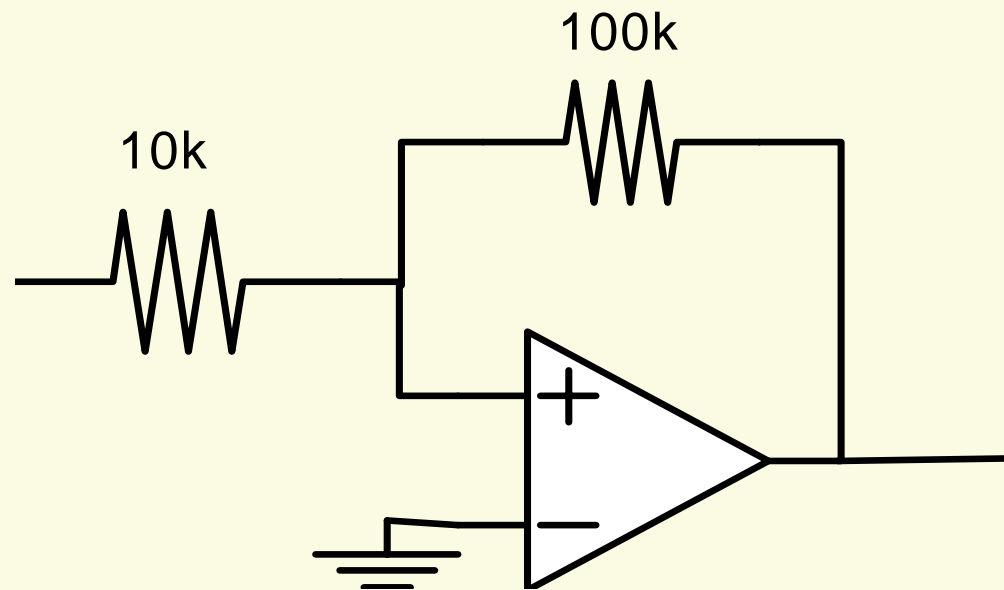
# ZPD example

Who knows what this is?



# ZPD example

What about this?





# Learning new applications

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- 📄 Applications should be designed to fit in the target users' ZPD: it should assume the knowledge they typically have, and a realistic amount of "support."
- 📄 People often learn how to use computer systems with the help of others, but you have to be realistic about this in your application context.



# Learning by doing

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People learn best by *doing*:

- 📄 It marshals all of their "processors" (cognitive, perceptual, sensori-motor).
- 📄 It forces them to apply a conceptual model to figure out how the system will behave.
- 📄 It allows them to observe differences between the system's actual behavior, and what they anticipate from their conceptual model. This helps them refine and improve their model.

Q: What's a good example of this?

# Learning by doing

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Q: What's a good example of this?

A: Programming!

Imagine a computer engineering course where you learn how to program only "by being told."

In contrast, medical schools and some CS departments are experimenting with "Problem-Based Learning," where there are only projects (no lectures). Lecture-style material is only available as a "library" resource to help with project work.

# Learning and experience

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- 📄 Learning is most effective when it connects with the learner's *real-world* experiences.
- 📄 The knowledge that the learner already has from those experiences serves as a foundation for new knowledge.



# Learning and transfer

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- Transfer is certainly enhanced by similarity between the old and new contexts.
- What other factors affect transfer?



# Transfer and understanding

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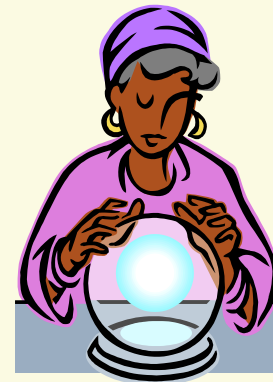
- Transfer depends on thorough learning in the first situation (learning with understanding\*).
- The more thorough the understanding in the first situation, the more easily knowledge will transfer.



# Understanding

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- 📄 By understanding we mean that a person has a mental model of why a thing behaves as it does.
- 📄 This model allows the person to predict how the thing behaves in other situations, and to “explain” their reasons for that conclusion.



# Transfer and Generality

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- 📄 Generality of existing knowledge: has the learner already seen it applied in several contexts?





# Transfer and Motivation

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- 📄 Motivation: is the new knowledge useful or valuable?
- 📄 Motivation encourages the user to visualize use of the new knowledge, and to try it out in new situations.
- 📄 Students are usually motivated when the knowledge can be applied to everyday situations.



# Transfer and Abstraction

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- Is the existing knowledge abstract or specific?
- Abstract knowledge is packaged for portability. Its built with virtual objects and rules that can model many real situations.

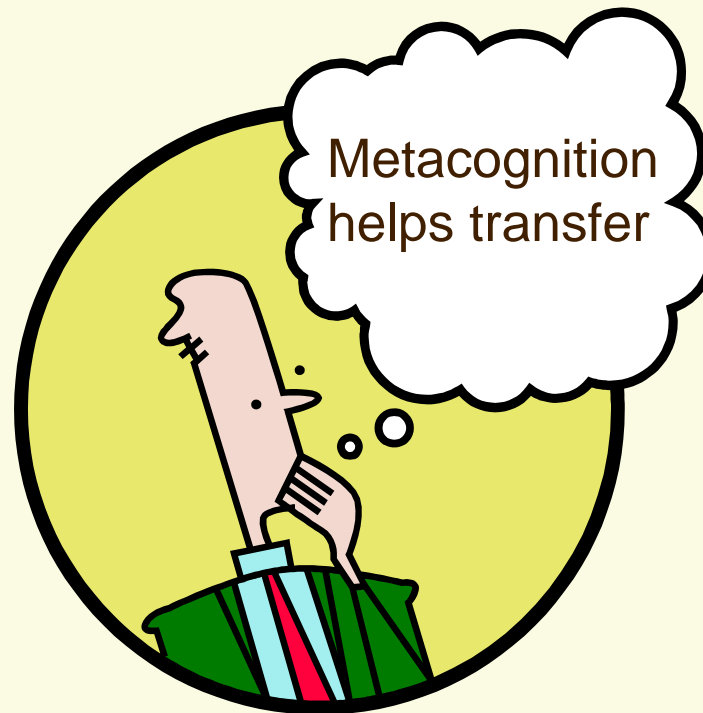
E.g. clipart



# Metacognition

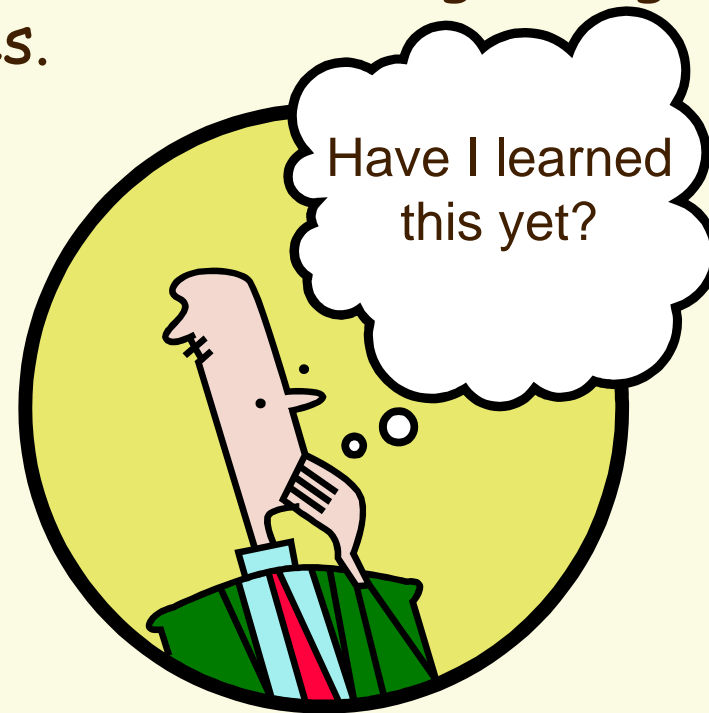
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- 📄 Metacognition is the learner's conscious awareness of their learning process.



# Metacognition

- Strong learners carefully manage their learning.
- For instance, strong learners reading a textbook will pause regularly, check understanding, and go back to difficult passages.
- Weak learners tend to plough through the entire text, then realize they don't understand and start again.



# Piaget: Stages of learning

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Jean Piaget observed very systematic progression of knowledge in children through stages:

1. Sensori-motor (acting, observing, remembering)
2. Semiotic or symbolic (naming things)
3. "Concrete" operations (relationships, transformations)
4. Propositional or formal thought

# Piaget: Stages of learning

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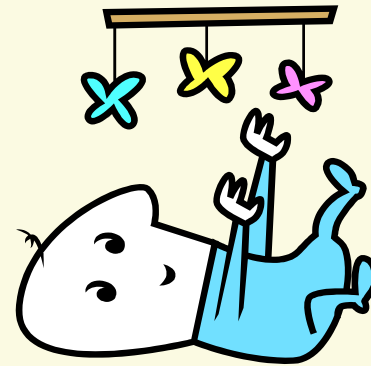
Jean Piaget observed very systematic progression of knowledge in children through stages:

1. Sensori-motor (< 2 years)
2. Semiotic or symbolic (> 1.5 years)
3. "Concrete" operations (2-7,7-11 years)
4. Propositional or formal thought (> 7 years)

# Sensori-motor stage (< 2 years)

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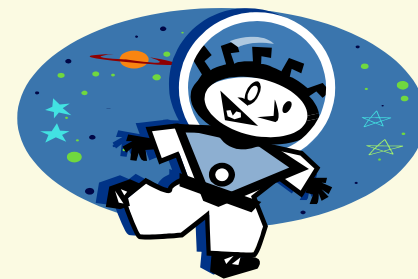
- ❏ Conditioned behaviors, and first hand-eye coordination.
- ❏ Grasping, manipulating things.
- ❏ Some indirect manipulation.
- ❏ Object persistence.



# Semiotic stage (>1.5 years)

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- ☞ Children continue to play with “missing” objects, and may use gesture to invoke them.
- ☞ This soon turns to imaginary play.
- ☞ Drawing.
- ☞ Speech - naming first the things that are present.
- ☞ Then referring to things that are not present, and to the past and future.





# Concrete thought (2-7,7-11 years)

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- Concrete thought: a system of (real) objects, relationships, and operations on them.
- Children “understand” things by being able to relate them to similar things, and to predict the consequences of their actions.
- They can plan and act to achieve a desired outcome.



# Concrete thought

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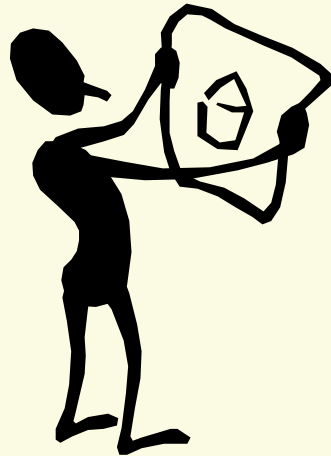
- ❏ But early concrete thought is still tied to direct experience - it is not "de-centered."
- ❏ E.g. children in this stage can navigate through their neighborhood, changing their route if needed.
- ❏ i.e. they can mentally model and predict the results of their actions.
- ❏ But they cannot indicate that route abstractly, say on a map.



# Concrete thought

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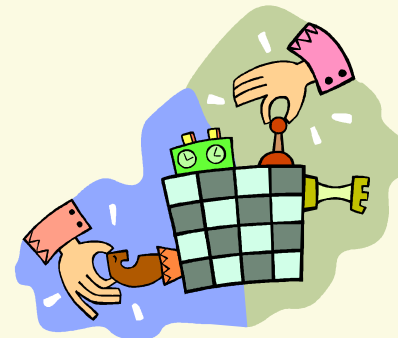
- Concrete thought includes rich spatial and temporal relationships.
- Visual design is a "concrete" process.



# Formal thought (11+ years)

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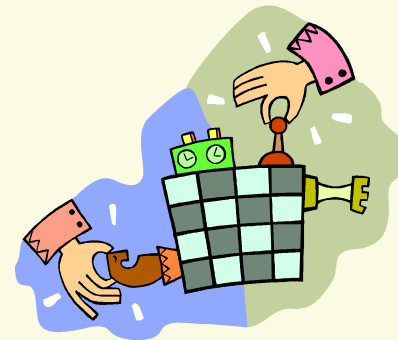
- 📄 Objects and operations no longer need to relate to the world. Things don't need to be true or consistent. Thinking is a "game".
- 📄 "Operations" are more abstract, and often complementary e.g. joining-separating.
- 📄 Children learn a number of principles, like reversibility, proportion, chance.



# Formal thought caveats

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- 📄 Researchers have found that the transition to formal thought is not as reliable as Piaget had thought.
- 📄 Many features of this stage are missing in children who do not attend school.
- 📄 This stage corresponds with the transition from learning from experience (pre-school), to learning from texts (school).



# Thought styles

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- 📄 Designers and other visually-oriented people usually favor concrete thought - context-dependent, rich representations.
- 📄 Technologists and mathematically-oriented people favor formal thought - context independent, sparse representations, rich consequences.

# A mismatch

Many interface researchers (technologists) tried to build UI design tools using abstract interface specs (UIMSeS)



\* the designer specifies rules about the interface and the system finds a solution satisfying them.



Real designers hated this idea. They lost control over spatial relationships and overall layout which was lost in the rules.

# Piaget's progression

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-  The Piagetian progression can be a good model for the progression in learning new concepts, like how to use a computer program.
-  Look for a Sensori-motor → Symbolic → Concrete → Abstract progression in your own learning, and in your users'.



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Break

# Help models

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- 📄 What kind of help works best for you?
- 📄 Do you ever “read the manual”?
- 📄 Is help usually “where you need it?”
- 📄 What are some differences between help you get from people and from systems?

# Types of Help

## Quick Reference:

- \* Reminders of common command names or options.
- \* Good to place on a card, or for small devices, on the device itself.
- \* Use a few main categories to avoid long search..
- \* E.g. for an editor, categories like "basic", "search/replace", "load/save", etc.



# Types of Help

## Task-specific help

- \* User needs help on how to apply a command, or to complete a task.
- \* Can be part of a "how-to" system for common tasks.
- \* Should be easily accessible from the command line (if text).
- \* Make "options" windows *obvious* and *easy* to find!
- \* E.g. add "advanced" button in the dialogue to apply any command.



# Types of Help

## Full explanation

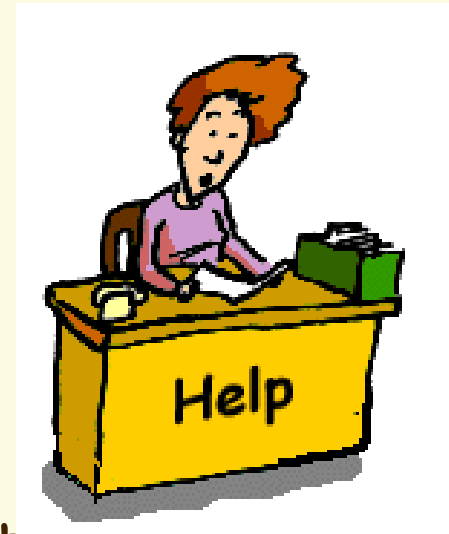
- \* User wants complete understanding, to get best value out of the application.
- \* This part explains the "why" more than the "how".
- \* E.g. How do compiler options affect performance?
- \* What are various installation components used for? What are the *uncommon* commands?
- \* Probably need a chapter in the help system for this. More system-centric than task-centric.



# Types of Help

## Tutorial

- \* The tutorial leads the user through a task, scaffolding their actions.
- \* Should allow users to act as well as watch (sandboxing).
- \* The "best" way to teach!
- \* More work to build into the system, but you should leverage your company's other effort:
  - + E.g. most software houses conduct regular training sessions for customers - these are ideal tutorial content.



# More advanced ideas

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📄 Help is a kind of ongoing learning environment.

📄 Minimalist instruction (Carroll '92) is a learning approach

- \* It shows users what to do,
- \* then gives them realistic tasks to solve.
- \* It eliminates conventional exercises, tedium and repetition, and encourages users to explore.
- \* It also has extensive coverage of error recovery.
  - + - users feel confident exploring.



# More advanced ideas

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📄 Help could be enjoyable? - at least it's a special case of computer-supported learning..

📄 "Training wheels" (Sandboxing)

- \* Advanced commands are removed until user gains some experience with the system.
- \* Also some "dangerous" commands.
- \* Users explore freely in this sandbox.
- \* Users gained better understanding (IBM trial).





# Desiderata for help

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## **Availability**

- \* Should be accessible anywhere (always include a help key on each major window).

## **Accuracy and Completeness (hard!)**

- \* Make sure it matches program version, and that it covers all the commands.
- \* As well as commands, common tasks should be described.

# Desiderata for help

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## Consistency

- \* Content, terminology, style.
- \* These days, online and printed manuals are often the same.

## Robustness

- \* Help shouldn't crash if the program does (need another thread).
- \* Program exceptions can bring up the help system.

# Desiderata for help

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## Flexibility

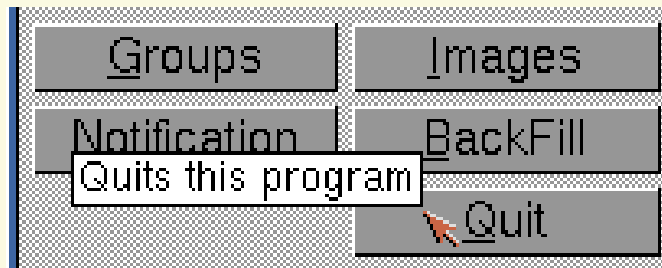
- \* Includes adaptation to context or user skill. Multi-level help is a good idea.

## Unobtrusiveness

- \* Shouldn't disrupt users work (like the annoying help characters in MS Office). A separate help screen is often good - supports rapid switching.

# Context-sensitive help

- Help depends on where it is used:
- Tool tips ↓ or the windows ? symbol:



- Save the user the burden of synchronizing program state with help system state.
- Almost always a good idea to do this.
- Just make sure the user can easily find the main help contents and index.

# Online tutorials

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 Can be useful, BUT:


- \* Users are not the same, some need minimal help.
- \* Forcing the user to execute a particular command is boring and annoying, and doesn't help learning.

 So..

- \* Make sure users can skip steps.
- \* Show users multiple ways of doing things.
- \* Give partial information on what to do, with more information available if the user requests it.

# Adaptive Help Systems

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 Adaptation is a good idea because:

- \* It avoids information that is too detailed or not detailed enough for a particular user.
- \* It avoids repetition of info the user has already seen.
- \* Can make suggestions of new ways to do tasks that the user may not know.

 Weaknesses:

- \* Information can disappear (bad if the user forgot it too!).
- \* System needs to know user identity and user must use the system for some time.

# Initiative

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- ☞ A Help system works with the user, and ideally should allow a spectrum of control:
- ☞ "Help me", "tell me what to do", "show me what to do", "OK, I'll take over now..."
- ☞ This is called "mixed initiative".



# Initiative

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- ☞ A good mixed-initiative help system requires links between all parts of the system including a tutorial.
- ☞ User should be able to “take over” at any time, then give back control.





# Design issues

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- 📄 Help system design is like other parts of the interface.
  - \* Start with task analysis.
  - \* Do paper prototypes.
  - \* Do user tests at informal and formal stages
    - look for errors.
  - \* Use errors as the "objects" to guide the design of the help system.

# Summary

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## Human Learning:

- \* Transfer
- \* Zone of Proximal Development
- \* Meta-cognition

## Piaget's stages in children's learning.

- \* Concrete vs. abstract thought

## Help system design principles and types