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Design and Implementation of an Interface Editor for the Amadeus Multi-Relational Database Front-end System

> by James Phillip Hargrove Lieutenant Commander, United States Navy BA, University of California, Berkeley, 1981

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN COMPUTER SCIENCE

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL March, 1993

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Design and implementation of this thesis was accomplished using the Prograph programming language and development environment, which provided a basic set of system classes essential to the implementation of the Form object and the Graphical User Interfaces developed for this thesis.

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I. INTRODUCTION

This thesis investigates two separate topics, object-oriented programming and Human-Computer Interface (HCI) design. Knowledge gained from each is applied to the design of a Form-based interface for database data entry and display to be used in conjunction with a new relational database query language called Dataflow Query Language (DFQL). Central to the Form-based interface is the design of a Form object which is an abstract representation of a computer generated Form (and its component parts). Forms of various types are common in everyday life. Examples include income tax forms, questionnaires, job applications, invoices and order forms. Form-based interfaces are popular for database applications since they extend the paper form by creating a new computer metaphor for these familiar objects. Users are thus able to manipulate form images through a Graphical User Interface (GUI) in a similar manner as they would a paper form. This ability greatly assists user interaction with the system, since users see a display of all related fields and have a feeling of control over the data entry process [Schneiderman92 page 71; pages 132–133]. Additionally, few instructions are necessary since the computer-displayed form so closely resembles familiar paper forms [Schneiderman92 page 132].

The Form-based interface discussed above actually consists of two separate applications: The *Interface Editor* module and the *Form Use* application program. The Interface Editor is one of six modules which, together, comprise a prototype multi-relational database front-end system called *Amadeus*.¹ The purpose of the Interface Editor module is to provide users with a tool for creating and editing custom data entry and display Forms for use by Amadeus' Query Editor module. The Query Editor uses the DFQL query language for database manipulation, providing an "improved interface to the relational

^{1.} Amadeus and DFQL will be discussed further in Chapter II.

model of database management" [Clark91 p. 25]. Forms are used in conjunction with DFQL queries to make data entry and display more efficient for the system user.

The Interface Editor module is a stand-alone application program which is intended to be used separately from the Amadeus database definition and manipulation modules. This separation results in important advantages:

- 1. First, a clear distinction between Form creation and use is realized, simplifying the user interfaces for both the Interface Editor and other Amadeus modules.
- Secondly, separating the Interface Editor functions from the remainder of the Amadeus modules keeps application size to a minimum while supporting general objectoriented programming goals by assisting in modular program development, testing and debugging.

The Form Use application program is used to validate the Interface Editor's Form creation capability, and incorporates control functions for displaying and controlling Form objects used for data entry and display. The component parts of the Form Use application will ultimately become part the Amadeus Query Editor module, which contains query editing and execution methods for the entire system. The Query Editor module is currently the topic of another thesis project, and integration of the Form Use functions will be accomplished as part of that work.

All design and programming for this thesis was accomplished using the Prograph^{™2} programming language and development environment. Prograph is a visual language based on the dataflow paradigm. Since Prograph uses the Macintosh ROM-based toolbox and operating system managers, the Interface Editor and Form Use interfaces take on a distinctive Macintosh "look and feel".

Prograph language features relating to program development and source code listings for this thesis are discussed in Chapter II and Appendix B. Relevant Human Computer Interface design and implementation issues are discussed in Chapter III. The design and

^{2.} Prograph is a trademark of The Gunakara Sun Systems, Ltd.

implementation of the Form object, Interface Editor and Form Use application are detailed in Chapter IV. Chapter V provides a summary of this thesis, complete with conclusions and recommendations for further research. Source code listings for the Interface Editor and Form Use applications are contained in Appendix E.

II. TERMINOLOGY, BACKGROUND AND BASIC CONCEPTS

This chapter provides background information on the Prograph programming language and development environment, DFQL and the Amadeus system. Each of these concepts will be discussed briefly. An introduction to the Prograph language will then be presented to assist in the interpretation of code listings found in Appendix E. Finally, DFQL and Amadeus will be described. Additional information on these subjects may be found in Appendices B and C.

A. HIGH-LEVEL PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

One way of classifying a programming language is by the language's level of *abstraction*. A language is considered higher-level than another if it can express a program with less detail than the second language. This means that a high-level language enables a programmer to concentrate more on *what* is to be done and less on *how* to do it [MacLennan87 p. 485-486]. The authors of Prograph assert that it is a "very high level" language. This implies that Prograph is about as far removed from machine language as is practical, and is more abstract than traditional high-level programming languages such as Ada, Fortran or Pascal.

B. VISUAL PROGRAMMING

S. K. Chang describes two general categories of visual languages: those that process visual information and those that make use of visual expression (known as *Visual Programming Languages*). Languages that are used to process visual information are usually traditional, linear languages that have been specifically enhanced to handle visual

information or objects. Visual Programming Languages, on the other hand, deal with objects which are not normally expressed visually, but which are *themselves* visual in nature. Prograph is a example of a visual, very high-level programming language.

C. OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) differs from traditional procedural programming by the way in which data and action are treated. In procedural programming, data and action are treated separately. Typically, data structures are first defined, and then a set of procedures are developed to manipulate the data structures. With OOP, however, action and data are closely coupled (i.e., data and the actions associated with the data are defined together).

This section discusses the general characteristics of Object-Oriented Programming Languages (OOPLs), and defines basic terms and concepts.

1. Data Hiding (Encapsulation)

Data hiding is a process by which data can only be accessed by code which is specifically associated with the data. Data hiding is also called *encapsulation* because data and its associated code are placed together in a package or "capsule". Encapsulation is an important feature of OOP languages, and is also incorporated into certain procedural languages such as Modula-2 and Ada. By encapsulating code and data, the programmer guarantees that portions of a program which do not relate to specific data remain separate, and cannot access that data.

Data hiding aids in modular program construction, since details of the inner workings of a package are not required by anything outside of the package. When applied properly, modular program design enables packages (modules) to be added, modified or removed from a program with no impact on other modules. This is generally not the case with procedural languages which do not support encapsulation. In such languages, making a change to one part of a program may impact other parts of the program, producing a

"ripple" effect of program and data dependencies. Encapsulation has been implemented in the design of both programs developed for this thesis. Portions of the Interface Editor have been incorporated into the Form Use application, which will, itself, ultimately be incorporated into the Amadeus Query Editor.

2. Classes and Objects

An *object* is an entity that contains data and an associated set of actions that operate on the data. Every object belongs to a *class*, which defines the implementation of a particular kind of object. An individual object of a class is referred to as an *instance* of the class. Classes can be thought of as templates for creating objects.

In object-oriented programming, when a class is created, *attributes* and *methods* are defined for the class. Attributes are a type of place holder for a specific value. Objects may have zero, one or many attributes. Methods represent known behaviors of instances of a class, and are roughly analogous to subroutines in more traditional languages. [TGS90b p. 146, TGS90c p. 4, Symantec91 p. 19-20] The objects, classes and methods developed as part of this thesis are discussed in Chapter IV.

3. Messages

In object-oriented programming, objects communicate with other objects by sending and receiving *messages*. Messages are analogous to sub-routine calls in a procedural programming language, and are used to tell an object to perform a specific action.

4. Inheritance

New classes can be defined in terms of existing classes through a process called *inheritance*. The new class is called a *subclass* or *child*, and the existing class (from which the subclass was defined) is called a *superclass* or the *parent* class. A subclass inherits all of the attributes and methods of its parent class. The parent, in turn, may have inherited attributes and methods from *its* parent class. A class inherits the combined attributes and

methods of its ancestors. However, a subclass does not actually copy this information. Rather, it refers to the information as a parent class or superclass [Smith91 p. 65].

Subclasses are normally created when a new class is needed which differs slightly from an existing class. This is possible because a subclass can have its own attributes and methods not contained in the parent class. Prograph supplies a core of system-defined classes that describe Macintosh interface data structures such as menus, windows and window items. Subclasses of these system classes are developed by the programmer to define specific program actions. Figure 1 shows the Prograph System Class Hierarchy.



Figure 1: The Prograph System Class Hierarchy

5. Polymorphism

Simply stated, *polymorphism* allows the same message to be sent to objects of different classes. Each object invokes a method appropriate for its particular class [Smith91 p. 8, 109; TGS90b, p. 93]. Using the Macintosh Finder as an example, the effect of the *Open* command depends on the icon which has been selected. If a folder icon is selected, a folder is opened. If an application icon is selected, the application is opened. In effect, an Open message is being sent to various Finder objects, with each object applying its own Open method, as appropriate. [Symantec91 p. 22-23]

D. DATAFLOW DIAGRAMS & DATAFLOW PROGRAMMING

1. Dataflow Diagrams

A dataflow diagram is a modeling tool that is used extensively in operations research and computer science as an aid in systems analysis and design. A dataflow diagram makes use of distinct graphical symbols to convey meaning, is inherently visually oriented and is closely related to the directed graph.

2. Dataflow Programming

Dataflow programming is a natural extension of the dataflow diagram. A dataflow program is itself a dataflow diagram, so this type of programming allows the construction of two-dimensional graphical dataflow models that are directly translatable into computer executable instructions. Thus, a dataflow program is, simultaneously, a system model and an executable program.

Dataflow programming does not impose a specific ordering on program events. Rather, data can be thought of as actively flowing throughout a program, triggering events in a non-sequential manner as various data dependencies are satisfied, and corresponding program instructions are executed. This active flow of data implies more than one

instruction can be evaluated simultaneously, making dataflow programming inherently concurrent. [TGS90b]

E. PROGRAPH

Prograph is an object-oriented, graphic programming language and development environment that supports the entire software design process. Prograph consists of the following integrated components [TGS90a p. 1]:

- (1) pictorial language,
- (2) graphic editor/interpreter development environment,
- (3) Application Builder object-oriented interface building toolkit, and
- (4) 680x0 code compiler

Prograph's visual environment makes it different from other programming languages. The language syntax is entirely pictorial, with text used only for comments and assigning names to objects, classes, methods, etc. Code for Prograph applications are composed of a series of dataflow diagrams consisting of operations (represented by icons) connected by datalinks. Data flows into an operation at a *terminal* node located at the top of the operation icon, and flows out of an operation from a *root* node located at the bottom of the operation icon. Datalinks provide the paths along which data flows into and out of operations. Dataflow diagrams in Prograph are displayed in *case windows*. Figure 2 shows a typical case window.

Prograph, as implemented on the uni-processor Macintosh, does not support concurrency. Although the Macintosh's uni-processor architecture limits program execution to a single instruction at a time, there is no sequential ordering placed on the execution of operations in a Prograph program. Therefore, the overall character of a dataflow program is preserved.



Figure 2: Prograph Case Window

1. Application Builder

Prograph incorporates an object-oriented, graphical application-interface toolkit (the *Application Builder*) which seamlessly integrates the Prograph development environment with the Macintosh ROM-based Toolbox¹ and operating system managers [TGS90a, TGS90b]. Traditional User Interface Management Systems or Interface Toolkits, which separate the user interface from the application program, require a complex, sequential edit-link-compile-run cycle whenever changes are made to an application.

^{1.} The Macintosh Toolbox is a collection of low-level routines that implement the Macintosh operating system and user interface. See also [Apple85].

However, since Prograph's Application Builder facilities are an extension of the editor and interpreter, a dynamic run-edit-design-run program development cycle is employed which significantly reduces application development time. Thus, the Application Builder provides a seamless integration between the processes for developing user interfaces and the classes and methods that implement the fundamental behavior of the application itself [TGS90b p. 215-216].

F. DATAFLOW QUERY LANGUAGE

The Dataflow Query Language (DFQL) is a visual, relational algebra which is used to manipulate relational databases. Like Prograph, DFQL is a dataflow language, possessing sufficient expressive power and functionality to allow a user to easily express database queries. DFQL operators are constructed using three basic components: input nodes, a body and output nodes. These components correspond to the Prograph constructs terminal, node and root, respectively, and possess the same underlying principles and characteristics as their Prograph counterparts. Figure 3 compares three DFQL primitive operators with their equivalent *Structured Query Language (SQL)* queries. SQL has become the *de facto* industry standard query language for relational Database Management Systems (DBMS'). However, SQL has problems with both its design and implementation [Codd88a, pages 45-48, Codd88b pages 71-74, Codd90]. DFQL was developed to "allow users to achieve the maximum utility from the relational model" by providing an "improved interface to the relational model of database management" [Clark91 page1; page 25].

DFQL operators can be grouped into two basic categories: *primitive* and *user-defined*. Primitive operators have a one-to-one correspondence with methods in the implementation language of the interpreter. User-defined operators are created from primitive operators and possibly other user-defined operators which have been created previously. This provides a great deal of freedom and flexibility when constructing queries, since commonly used queries can be combined into compact, user-defined queries, eliminating the need to reconstruct them each time they are needed. Figure 4 shows a sample DFQL query, involving both primitive and user-defined operators. Additional database concepts are briefly discussed in Appendix C.



Figure 3: DFQL Primitive Operators and Their Corresponding SQL Queries



Figure 4: DFQL Query using Primitive and User-Defined Operators

G. AMADEUS

SQL has become the *de facto* industry standard query language for Relational Database Management Systems. Although ANSI and ISO standards exist for SQL, each RDBMS vendor normally supports its own SQL dialect. This presents a problem for the user of a multiple back-end² RDBMS, since SQL queries for one RDBMS may not necessarily run on a second RDBMS. A single front-end system that can act as an interface between users and assorted back-end RDBMS is required. *Amadeus* is a prototype for such a system, which takes an object-oriented approach for federating relational databases. The objectives of Amadeus are [Wu91 pages 8-9]:

- 1. Provide an easy to use, yet powerful common language for accessing different types of RDBMS, and
- 2. Shield the complexity of the underlying RDBMS.

Figure 5 compares the traditional DBMS arrangement and Amadeus.



Figure 5: Comparison of Traditional DBMS and Amadeus

The key features of Amadeus are its use of the DFQL high-level visual query language and an object-oriented architecture. By using DFQL as the front-end query language, users do not have to learn different dialects for each RDBMS connected to the system. Rather, DFQL provides a consistent, easy-to-use visual front-end interface for each back-end RDBMS. Additionally, the object-oriented design of Amadeus ensures an easy to modify,

^{2.} Typically, a DBMS is separated into two distinct parts: the 'front-end" or user interface, and the "back-end" which comprises the actual database. A multiple back-end system allows users to connect to a number of different DBMS' from a single front-end.

extensible system, which is demonstrated by the designs of both the Interface Editor module and Form Use application. Amadeus is composed of a number of modules which can be tailored to support individual user requirements. The six modules include:

1. Database Engine

This module performs all database operations by either carrying out the operations internally (by using the kernel database engine) or by delegating the operations to a back-end RDBMS. In the latter case, generated SQL statements are passed to the back-end for processing. Each supported RDBMS has its own corresponding Amadeus database engine module (e.g., Oracle database engine, Ingres database engine, DB2 database engine, etc).

2. Interface Editor

The Interface Editor module is used to design input forms, output screen displays and hardcopy reports. The Interface Editor allows or disallows certain types of control objects according to the types supported by the connected RDBMS. The design and implementation of the Interface Editor module comprises a major portion of this thesis.

3. Database Editor

The Database Editor module is used to define and modify databases. This module adjusts itself to allow different access controls to each database, depending on the connected back-end RDBMS.

4. Relation Editor

The Relation Editor module is used for defining and modifying relations. The module allows users to define relations according to the rules of the connected back-end RDBMS.

5. Query Editor

The Query Editor module is used to perform all aspects of database operations. The module allows identical DFQL diagrams to be used for querying different connected

back-end RDBMS. Since each RDBMS employs its own dialect of SQL, the Query Editor generates appropriate SQL statements tailored to the connected RDBMS. All of this is transparent to the user who is formulating the query. Forms created by the Interface Editor module are used by the Query Editor to support data input and output (display). Objects required for data input, display and type checking have been developed and implemented as part of this thesis, and will ultimately be integrated into the Query Editor.

6. Program Editor

The Program Editor module is used for creating database application programs. The module is not yet implemented.

III. HUMAN-COMPUTER INTERFACE DESIGN ISSUES

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a brief discussion of Human-Computer Interface (HCI) design issues relevant to the design and implementation of the Interface Editor module and Form Use application program. Additional HCI issues are discussed in Appendix D.

Human-Computer Interface (HCI) design is a constantly evolving, multi-disciplinary field of study that focuses on computer systems and the way in which people interact with them. Contributions from the fields of computer science, human factors, psychology, graphic arts and education, play an essential role in the HCI design process. The field is relatively new¹, and is being influenced "by the tide of development - by the persistent flood of hardware and software products in the marketplace, and by the changing nature of how they are created, purchased and put into use." [Winograd90, p. 443]

1. A Brief History

Grudin identifies evolutionary stages of user interfaces by describing the following five levels of user interface *focus*. These levels correspond to general characteristics of user interfaces at various evolutionary stages, from the 1950's (level one) into the future (stages four and five) [Grudin90 p. 261-265]:

- 1. The interface as hardware.
- 2. The interface as software
- 3. The interface as terminal.
- 4. The interface as dialogue.
- 5. The interface as work setting.

^{1.} The Association of Computing Machinery (ACM) held its first conference on Computer and Human Interaction (CHI) in 1981. The ACM special interest group on Computer-Human Interaction (SIGCHI) was founded shortly thereafter, and held its first annual conference in 1983.

The first user interfaces were developed in the 1950's, and were tied directly to computer hardware. This did not present a problem, since engineers were the primary users of computers and were quite comfortable working at the machine-level. In the 1960's and 1970's, user interfaces began taking on forms which better assisted computer programmers. These new interfaces included high-level programming languages, operating systems, compilers, debuggers and assemblers. During this period (level two), the standard teletype was the preferred means of communicating with a computer. Bit-mapped graphics and cathode-ray tubes (CRTs) gradually replaced the more primitive interface devices, but for the most part, the governing concept of the time remained "the 'friendliest' user interface was the briefest user interface" [Ambler89 p. 19].

The proliferation of the personal computer in the mid-1980's saw the emergence of new computer markets aimed at the non-programmer. This was accompanied by a shift of focus in user interfaces towards visual displays and interactive computing systems (level three). This focus is intact today; is dominated by research into basic perceptual and cognitive processing issues [Grudin90 p. 264], and influences the design of the interfaces developed for this thesis.

The last two levels of user interface focus (levels four and five) involve more abstract concepts and relationships. At these levels interface actors, agents, dialogs and Virtual Reality/Virtual Environments enter into the realm of user interface design. Specifically, level four involves a higher-level cognitive focus and attempts to model enduser goals and plans, develop a sense of dialogue with the user, and create adaptive user interfaces. Level Five is directed towards the work setting, where computers are expected to play an important role in supporting group working environments. Examples of such "groupware" systems include electronic mail, co-authorship, distributed project management and group decision support. [Grudin90 p. 264-265]

The five levels of interface focus are summarized in the following table [Grudin90 p. 265]:

Table 1: SUMMARY OF THE DISTINCTIONS ACROSS LEVELS OF INTERFACE FOCUS

	Level 1 Interface as hardware	Level 2 Interface as software	Level 3 Interface as terminal	Level 4 Interface as dialogue	Level 5 Interface as work setting
Principal users	Engineers/ programmers	Programmers	End users	End users	Groups of End users
Interface specialist disciplines	Electrical engineering	Computer science	Human factors cognitive psych graphic design	Cognitive psychology, cognitive science, (dra- matic arts?)	Social psych., anthropology, organizational, etc.
Research Methods	Largely infor- mal	Largely infor- mal	Laboratory experiment	Wizard of Oz, thinking aloud, data capture	Ethnographic, contextual, participant observer
Duration of basic events studied	Microseconds/ hours	Milliseconds/ hours	Seconds	Minutes	Days
Cost of evaluation	Lowest	Low	Moderate	High	Highest
Precision, generality	Highest	High	Moderate	Low	Lowest
Major focus	1950's	1960's-1970's	1970's-1990's	1980's-	1990's-

B. TYPES OF USER INTERFACES

1. Command Languages and the Command Line Interface

Command languages originated with operating system commands, and can be distinguished by their immediacy and by their impact on devices or information [Schneiderman92 p 144]. Commands are generally brief, transitory and produce an immediate result on some object of interest. Command languages can be extended somewhat through the use of *macros* which allow constructing reusable sequences of

commands. Command languages may consist of single commands or have complex syntax. Operations may number into the thousands.

The *command-line* interface was the dominant form of user interface until the early-1980's. Despite its recognized problems (including the potential for increasing cognitive load by requiring a user to memorize a potentially large set of (not necessarily logical) commands, flags, formats and associated syntax) the command-line interface survives today in many popular systems². One reason for this is simplicity. The command-line interface is not as dependent upon high-speed computer architecture as are Graphical User Interfaces (GUI). Additionally, command-line interfaces are relatively easy to program. However, this does not necessarily translate into an intuitive, easy to use interface, as evidenced by the following Unix command which blanks lines from a file:

GREP - V ^\$FILEA > FILEB

Schneiderman provides the following summary of command languages in [Schneiderman92 pp. 174-175]:

Command languages can be attractive when frequent use of a system is anticipated, users are knowledgeable about the task domain and computer concepts, screen space is at a premium, response time and display rates are slow, and numerous functions that can be combined in many ways are supported. Users have to learn the semantics and syntax, but they can initiate rather than respond, rapidly specifying actions involving several objects and options.

While command languages are appropriate for certain types of interfaces, they are inappropriate for the implementation of the Interface Editor module and Form Use application. The desired interface must be able to represent real-world objects (Forms) in a graphical environment, and allow manipulation of these objects in much the same way as a real-world Form object is manipulated. This requires a *Graphical User Interface*.

^{2.} MS-DOS and Unix are examples of command-line based interfaces which still enjoy wide popularity today.

2. Graphical User Interfaces

In the command-line interface, the user was restricted to working only with textual information. The evolution of hardware (and accompanying software) technology enabled researchers to move beyond the confines of the text-based interface by translating familiar every-day objects into the Human-Computer Interface. For the first time, users could manipulate information on a computer monitor in much the same way as they did in the real-world. The computer screen became a metaphor for a *desktop* which contained windows, icons, menus and other graphical objects. The concept of What-You-See-Is-What-You-Get (WYSIWYG) was introduced in word-processing, so that the representation of a page on a computer screen was identical, in nearly every respect, to the printed output. Multiple windows could be overlaid onto the desktop. Each window could be a terminal (or shell) on the computer, a terminal onto another machine, or the interface to a software application (such as word-processing/desktop publishing, database, spreadsheet, or graphics design packages). [Schneiderman92 page 198; Locke page 11]

There are two major consequences (from a user's perspective) of the graphical user interface. The first is that the user is more isolated from the operating system, and is better able to concentrate directly on performing a task rather than having to interact with the operating system in order to perform the task. For example, to open a file in a graphical interface a user might select the document by clicking on its icon with a mouse key. The underlying operating system commands for opening the document are invoked by *the interface*. In a command-line interface, operating system commands to open the document are invoked explicitly by the user.

Secondly, the graphical interface lead to the concept of *consistency*, whereby certain properties of an application program's user interface possess predictable characteristics and behaviors. Thus, a consistent interface is one in which specific commands always result in the same action(s) and produce the same result(s). The Interface Editor module presents a consistent interface for designing and editing Form objects.

3. Direct Manipulation

Direct manipulation refers to a type of graphical user interface in which the user operates on a representation of the objects(s) of interest [Schneiderman92 p. 33]. Typically, some type of a pointing device (such as a mouse, track-ball or pen and tablet) are employed to permit user interaction with objects which appear on the computer screen. The Interface Editor module employs a direct manipulation interface, which is discussed in Chapter VI.

C. EVALUATION AND USEABILITY OF USER INTERFACES

This section presents evaluation guidelines and usability parameters which have been incorporated into the design of the Interface Editor module and Form Use application. Usability parameters tend to reflect a user's attitude towards a specific interface, while evaluation guidelines outline key principles for good HCI design.

1. Evaluation

Jakob Nielsen proposes the following four methods for evaluating a user interface [Nielsen90a]: *formally, automatically, empirically* and *heuristically*. Of these methods, the heuristic method has been applied to the design of the interfaces developed for this thesis.

Heuristic evaluation essentially entails looking at an interface and deciding what is good and what is bad about it. To be consistent the evaluation should be based on a set of established guidelines which, in practice, can easily number in the hundreds or thousands. This is especially true if the guidelines define a specific interface standard. In order to make the heuristic evaluation process more manageable, Nielsen and Molich propose using the following set of heuristics which were chosen for their ability to explain a large proportion of the problems encountered in interface designs [Nielsen90a].

- 1. Simple and natural dialogue
- 2. Speak the user's language
- 3. Minimize user memory load³
- 4. Be consistent

- 5. Provide feedback
- 6. Provide clearly marked exits
- 7. Provide shortcuts
- 8. Good error messages
- 9. Prevent errors

2. Usability

Nielsen discusses five generally accepted *usability parameters* for computer systems while applying them specifically to hypertext⁴ systems. [Nielsen 90b] These five parameters are:

- 1. Easy to learn. A new user can quickly get some work done with the system.
- 2. Efficient to use. Once a user becomes familiar with the system, a high level of productivity is possible.
- 3. Easy to remember. After an absence from the system, the average user can quickly get back "up to speed" on the system with little effort or re-training required.
- 4. Few errors. Use of the system does not in itself promote errors. A user can easily recover from an error if/when one occurs and the system must be immune to catastrophic errors.
- Pleasant to use. Users like using the system (or, possibly more common, users do not dread using the system).

D. DIALOG DESIGN

Dialog is essential to the successful interface design for interactive systems. Dialog encompasses everything related to a user's interaction with a system, including user input

^{3.} Studies of human information processing indicate that human channel capacity or processing power is limited to roughly 2.5 bits of information, which translates to about seven (plus or minus two) items.

^{4.} Hypertext refers to a text system consisting of non-sequential text nodes and connecting links.
and command selection, system feedback (such as alert, error and status messages) and system error handling.

1. Dialog Design Rules

Schneiderman provides the following *Eight Golden Rules of Dialog Design*: [Schneiderman92 pages 72-74] which have been incorporated, to varying degrees, into the design of the user interface developed for this thesis.

- 1. Strive for consistency. Consistent sequences of actions should be required in similar situations; identical terminology should be used in prompts, menus and help screens; consistent commands should be employed throughout. The interface which controls Form design and editing in the Interface Editor module are essentially identical, presenting a consistent interface. Help windows are identical, although the topics for each window differ depending on the window (Design Form, Edit Form, Tab Order, Form View) which the user is currently working in.
- 2. Enable frequent users to use shortcuts. This is supported in the Interface editor by the inclusion of *command keys* and an *icon bar* (discussed in chapter IV).
- 3. Offer informative feedback. For every operator action, there should be some system feedback. Each action in the Interface Editor and Form Use applications provides some form of user feedback. Icon Buttons invert when selected, dialogs sound an alert when activated, the name of the active Form (in the Form View window) changes as a Form is opened or closed.
- 4. Design dialogs to yield closure. Sequences of actions should be organized into groups with a beginning, middle, and end. This principle is incorporated into the command sequence required to design and edit a Form object.
- 5. Offer simple error handling. Design the system so the user can't make a serious error. The system should be able to detect errors and offer simple, comprehensible mechanisms for handling the error.

- 6. Permit easy reversal of actions. As much as possible, actions should be reversible. This is the most difficult rule to implement. Reversal of actions is permitted only to a limited extent in the Interface Editor module. Users have the option of saving or discarding (without saving) Forms from the Design Form window. While editing a Form, changes can be discarded without saving (essentially reversing a sequence of editing commands). Certain actions, such as deleting a Form from disk, can not be reversed.
- 7. Support internal locus of control. Users want to feel in control. Surprising system actions, tedious sequences of data entries, incapacity or difficulty in obtaining necessary information, and the inability to produce the action desired all build anxiety and dissatisfaction.
- 8. **Reduce short-term memory load**. Keep displays simple. Offer on-line help and assistance to the user. A simple on-line help system has been implemented in the Interface Editor and Form Use applications. Additionally, program control features have been kept to a minimum without sacrificing the power and flexibility of the interface.

2. User Feedback

System feedback should be concise, descriptive and informative. A user should not have to question the meaning of a system-generated error or status message. Interfaces which isolate a user from the underlying operating system (such as the Macintosh Finder) have the potential to confuse a user with poorly phrased dialogs which assume (or require) intimate knowledge of the operating system. The user feedback features of the Interface Editor and Form Use applications have been designed to avoid this type of problem. In addition to the eight rules of dialog design listed in the last section, system feedback to the user (including alerts, dialogs, prompts and error messages) for these two interfaces also includes the following guidelines [Apple85]:

- 1. Use plain language.
- 2. Use an active voice.
- 3. Phrase messages so that they are unambiguous.
- 4. Use icons whenever possible. Graphics can describe some errors better than words, and familiar icons can help users better distinguish their alternatives.
- 5. Dialogs should be informative, providing enough information to enable the user to take the appropriate action.
- 6. Never refer the user to external documentation for further clarification.

IV. DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

A. DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The Prograph programming environment lends itself extremely well to both structured and evolutionary development processes [TGS90b, pages 230-231]. Structured development is normally associated with a "top-down" design strategy employing a structured, analytic approach to system design. Program code is not written until the project has been completely specified. All documentation associated with the system (e.g., requirements, design and test documents as well as the actual program code), is rigorously maintained. Any changes to the system are implemented in a manner similar to the original design effort, and can be considered a mini-development process.

Evolutionary development, on the other hand, is usually associated with creative prototyping styles such as those found in research settings where the goal is to explore new ideas without being bound by rigid documentation and specification rules. Thus, changes can be made quickly and easily.

Prograph's seamless editor/interpreter environment provides the tools necessary to create and edit applications "on the fly", easily accommodating the evolutionary approach to systems development. For this reason, and the fact that interface design in general requires a great deal of flexibility while trying out new ideas, an evolutionary design approach was chosen for this thesis. The visual nature of Prograph makes an application both a system model and an executable program. In this respect, the application code provides up-to-date dataflow diagrams of the Interface Editor module at each stage of development.

B. USER INTERFACE CONSIDERATIONS

Two user interfaces were developed for this thesis: the *Interface Editor* module interface and the *Form Use* application program interface. A central feature of the Interface Editor's user interface is the incorporation of the following four separate methods for controlling program action:

1. A menu bar (with associated pull-down menu commands).

- 2. Window Buttons.
- 3. Command-key equivalents to menu commands.
- 4. An Icon Bar.

The first three methods are included to conform to existing Macintosh user interface guidelines. Most casual users of graphical user interfaces are familiar with button objects and the menu bar, while more experienced users are generally comfortable with command key equivalents for menu bar items. The fourth method is the *icon bar*, which is located at the top right-hand corner of the Interface Editor's main window. The decision to include an icon bar was based on a desire to extend the traditional Macintosh interface, provide an alternative means of program control for the user and to explore icon development issues in general. Icon buttons are also included as the control mechanism for the data input and display windows developed for the Form Use application, and provide a consistent control interface for all Amadeus-related Form manipulation actions.

Icon design presents a number of difficulties, chief among them the fact that what may be clear to one person may be completely obscure to another. Alan Kay describes this problem as a consequence of *semantic focus*, having to do with the amount of meaning and connectivity that can be solved by looking at a diagram [Kay in Laurel91, p. 202].

Poorly-designed icons do not readily suggest the underlying metaphor or associated program action. In such cases, a user is forced to learn what the icon actually does rather than what it suggests. This can be a difficult undertaking given an interface with dozens of icons, a popular practice in a growing number of commercial software products today.

C. THE INTERFACE EDITOR

1. Program Control Decisions

Menu bar commands (and their command-key equivalents) remain hidden from view until the appropriate menu item is selected, at which time its associated menu items become visible. The icon bar, however, remains visible whenever the main module window is active. Users are generally more comfortable in an environment where objects are brought to them instead of having to search for the objects. This is referred to as *usercentered design* [Tognazzini91 p. 172]. The inclusion of the icon bar satisfies this usercentered design criteria, eliminating the requirement for a user to constantly search pulldown menus or remember command-key combinations to select specific program control actions.

Commands relating to Form management (New, Open, Close, Save, Save As, Print) are found in both the icon bar and the *Forms* menu bar menu. Similar commands are found in other Amadeus modules in a *Database* menu (for database management). The *Forms* and *Database* menu contents are similar to the *File* menu commands found in the Macintosh Finder. This presents a consistent interface across the Amadeus application and Finder. Thus, there should be no confusion, for example, as to the meaning of the *Open* command (which opens a *Form* in the Interface Editor Module, a *Database* in the Amadeus database definition module, and a *File* in the Macintosh Finder). This is also consistent with general object-oriented programming concepts, since a single command (message), in this case *Open*, results in different actions depending on the receiving object (*Forms* menu, *Database* menu or *File* menu).

Not all Interface Editor icon bar commands are available as menu bar selections. Commands without parallels in Amadeus' *Database* and the Macintosh Finder's *File* menus are found only in the icon bar, and include Edit Form, Delete Form, Help and user Preferences controls. The decision not to include these commands in the *Forms* menu contributes to the overall consistency of the user interface.

2. Icon Design

Icons included in the Interface Editor present images commonly found on the Macintosh desktop. Where no desktop correlations could be found, text was incorporated as much as possible in an icon's graphic design. The intent of including icons in the user interface was not to introduce a completely new set of metaphors, but to build on what a user is (theoretically) already familiar with. The choice of individual icons was made after examining commercial software products which employ icons for program control and a survey of literature on icon design. The icon buttons themselves were given color and three-dimensional shading to make them stand out against the rest of the interface. Muted colors were chosen to avoid overpowering the user's senses.

It is not reasonable to assume that every user will correctly identify the purpose of each icon the first time the interface is used. For this reason, consideration was given to including text labels under each icon button identifying its function (e.g., "open" beneath the open icon button). However, this tended to clutter the icon bar and required the use of very small text which proved difficult to read. Ultimately a decision was made not to include identifying text for each icon button. To compensate for the lack of amplifying text, the Macintosh System 7 Balloon Help feature (which is supported by Prograph version 2.5) is used to provide a brief synopsis of each interface object (buttons, icons, menus, menu items and other window items).

Space has been left in the icon bar to accommodate additional icon buttons should the need arise. ResEdit¹ and Prograph's *Icon Button class* (discussed later in this section) provide a straightforward means of adding icon buttons to the interface, or modifying existing icons, as required.

^{1.} ResEdit is a resource editor utility available from Apple Computer, Inc. which allows editing, creation and deletion of a Macintosh application program's resource data.

3. End-User Views

The Interface Editor module's design assumes two general types of users: database administrators (who create databases and data entry/display Forms) and data entry/retrieval personnel (who use the Forms). This distinction led to a decision to implement the Interface Editor as a separate application rather than integrate it into the Query Editor. One consequence of this decision was the loss of a straight-forward connection to the database definition of the active database. The solution to this problem was the creation of an external database definition disk file to substitute for the ability to read information directly from an active database's class attributes. However, the decision lead to a more manageable and maintainable system, due to the smaller program size and accompanying modular design.

4. Class Descriptions

This section describes classes unique to the Interface Editor module. Prograph System Classes will not be discussed. Figure 1 shows the Interface Editor module class hierarchy.



Figure 1: The Interface Editor Module Class Hierarchy

a. IE Window

This class controls the user's view of the Interface Editor module. The main module window is an instance of this class. All menu, button and icon bar selections from the main window are handled by methods defined in this class.

b. Help

Help windows are defined for the following Interface Editor windows: Interface Editor Window, Define Form, Edit Form. All help windows are instances of this class.

c. Tab Order

This class allows the user to define the tab order of a Form. The tab order of a Form is determined by the order in which a field appears in a Form's field list. Altering the order of a field in this list changes the tab order of the Form. The tab order window is an instance of this class.

d. Preferences

This class allows the user to change the foreground and background colors of a Form. Supported colors include: black, white, red, green, blue, cyan, magenta and yellow. The User Preferences window is an instance of this class.

e. Design Form

This class allows the user to define new input Forms. The Design Form window is an instance of this class.

f. Edit Form

This class allows the user to edit the Form which is displayed in the Interface Editor's main window (the currently active Form). The Edit Form window is an instance of this class. The Edit Form Class is a descendant of Design Form, and inherits its methods.

g. Credits

Each Macintosh application program has an *About* menu item in its Apple Menu. Selecting this item displays general information about the application. The About window is an instance of the *Credits* class, and displays programmer credits.

h. Display Info

This class controls display of field information. Double-clicking on a field of the active Form in the *Form View* window opens a window which lists the characteristics (attributes and attribute values) of the particular field. The Display Info window is an instance of this class.

i. Dialog

The Dialog class contains the methods for displaying dialog boxes in response to user actions.

j. OK Dialog

This class provides the window definition for a dialog which contains only one user choice (OK), which is used to alert the user to a specific program condition.

k. Yes/No Dialog

This class provides the window definition for a dialog which contains two user choices (YES and NO), and is used to obtain user confirmation before a specific program action is executed.

5. User Interface

This section describes the user interface for the Interface Editor module. Dialog design rules and guidelines for evaluation and usability of user interfaces, discussed in Chapter III, have been applied to the overall design and implementation of the user interface for both the Interface Editor and Form Use application program.

a. Menu Commands

The Interface Editor contains three separate menus in its menu bar: FILE. WINDOW and FORMS. Figure 2 shows the menu bar.

FILE WINDOW FORMS

Figure 2: The Menu Bar

The FILE menu is a default menu item created by the Prograph Application Editor. It contains only one command: QUIT, which closes all active windows and terminates program execution. The Interface Editor module is activated by selecting the INTERFACE EDITOR command from the WINDOW menu. The FORMS menu enables a user to perform certain basic Form management operations. The FORMS menu includes the following commands:

- 1. New. This command opens a window titled *Design Form* which allows the user to create a new, untitled Form. The new Form is given a name the first time it is saved.
- 2. **Open.** This command displays a standard Macintosh Open dialog containing a scrolling list of files. Clicking the *OPEN* button or double-clicking on a File name from the scroll list will open the selected (highlighted) Form in the Interface Editor's Form View Window.
- 3. Close. This command closes the active Form. If the Form has been modified since the last time it was saved, a dialog is displayed which allows the user to save the Form, or dismiss the dialog and close the current form without saving it.
- 4. Save. This command saves the active Form to a disk file. If a file already exists with the same name as the active Form, the file is overwritten.
- 5. Save As. This command opens a standard Macintosh Save dialog which allows the user to specify a new name for the active Form. If the Form is saved under a new

name, the active Form is renamed, saved to disk (with the new name), and the old file is closed (retaining its old file name and Form definition).

- 6. **Page Setup.** This command allows the user to specify printing parameters such as paper size and orientation.
- 7. Print. This command prints the active window.

b. The Icon Bar

The icon bar consists of ten icon buttons which allow the user to access Interface Editor commands independent of the FORMS pull-down menu. In addition to the commands found in the FORMS menu, a number of other commands are included in the icon bar. Figure 3 shows the icon bar.



Figure 3: The Interface Editor Icon Bar

Icon buttons descriptions (from left to right, top to bottom) are:

1. New. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

2. Open. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

3. Edit. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

4. Save. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

5. Save As. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

6. Print. This command is the same as described in the FORMS menu.

7. Delete. This command allows the user to delete the active Form from disk. The Delete command can not be undone. A dialog prompt is displayed giving the user the

opportunity to cancel the command or confirm the selection before a Form is permanently deleted.

- 8. **Preferences.** This command allows the user to select background and foreground colors for displaying a Form in the Interface Editor. These preferences do not become part of the Form's definition, and are used only by the Interface Editor.
- 9. Help. This command opens a user help window.

6. Windows

The Interface Editor window is the main window for the Interface Editor module, and is shown in Figure 4. In addition to the icon bar described earlier, the following items appear in the window:

Interfees Editor Illindow	
(Form View window)	3/15/93 9:23 DB. Form: <no active="" currently="" form=""> Quit</no>

Figure 4: The Interface Editor Window

- 1. Current Form Title. This command displays the name of the active Form.
- 2. Data and Time. The current date and time are displayed at the top right of the window, just below the icon bar. The date and time are controlled by the Interface Editor Window's *Idle Method* which is defined in the Application Builder's Window editor.
- 3. Active DB. This box displays the name of the database which the Form is being designed for.
- 4. Form View Window. This window occupies about two-thirds of the Interface Editor window area, and is actually a Macintosh *canvas* object which supports Quickdraw² editing and graphics. When the Interface Editor module is first activated, the form view window appears black in color, signifying an empty form view window (i.e., no active or open Form). Additionally, the Form name display reads "<no currently active form>. When a Form is opened, the form view window background changes to the user-defined background color, and rectangles representing fields of the current Form appear, along with corresponding labels. When the active Form is closed or deleted, the form view window once again becomes black in color. Each field of a Form is a descendent of the Prograph Window Item class. In order for objects of this class to be visible in a window, they must first be included in the window's item list (a list of all window items belonging to the window). Displaying a Form in the form view window is a two-step process. The location of each Form field is determined relative to the window, and appropriate field attributes are set to reflect this data. Once field locations have been determined, each field object is added to the item list of the Interface Editor window (the owning window of the canvas object). This is not sufficient, however, to permit graphical manipulation of field objects. Graphical operations such as *dragging* and *resizing* of objects is accomplished in a canvas object. Since a canvas object is itself a descendent of Window Item, it can not contain other Window Item objects. The solution to this problem is to place a canvas (the form

^{2.} Quickdraw is the part of the Macintosh Toolbox that supports creation of complex graphic operations [Apple85 p. I-137].

view window) on top of the Interface Editor window. Canvas objects (in this case, *rectangles*) are then added to the *canvas* directly on top of each field object. Thus, a Form is displayed as a 2-layer screen display. The bottom layer contains the actual field object and the top layer contains the rectangle which bounds the field objects. Whenever a field is moved or resized, only the canvas object is actually manipulated directly. The corresponding field object (in the window item list), is updated using positional information obtained from its corresponding canvas rectangle object. This layering process is not required when Forms are displayed in Input and Display Form windows by the Query Editor, since graphical operations on fields are not permitted in these windows.

- 5. Quit Button. Selecting this button quits the Interface Editor module.
- 6. Close Box. A close box is located in the upper left-hand corner of the window. Clicking in this box is equivalent to selecting the Close command in the FORMS menu or clicking the QUIT button.

a. The Design Form Window

The Design Form window is activated when a user selects the New menu item, types a command-N sequence from the keyboard, or selects the New Form icon from the icon bar. Figure 5 shows the Design Form window. This window allows a user to create a new form object, and consists of the following objects:



Figure 5: The Design Form Window

- 1. Field Names. This is a scroll list which contains the names of the fields defined for the form being designed.
- 2. Name. This is an edit text object which is located directly below the Field Names scroll list and allows a user to enter field names from the keyboard. If a field name is too long to fit into the viewable portion of the edit text object, the text automatically scrolls to the right as the user types. Each field name must be unique.
- 3. Field Type. This is a radio set object which allows a user to select the object type of the field. The values of the radio set are static, independent on any database definition and can not be changed by the user.

- 4. **Relations.** This is a pop-up menu object which contains the names of the relations of the database which the Form is being designed for.
- 5. Attributes. This is a pop-up menu object which contains the names of the attributes associated with the relation which is currently visible in the relations pop-up menu.
- 6. Data Type. This is a pop-up menu object which contains the name of the data type associated with the attribute which is currently visible in the attributes pop-up menu.
- 7. Font. This is a pop-up menu object which contains font names. The font name effects the appearance of data entered into the associated Form field.
- 8. Font Size. This is a pop-up menu object which contains font sizes. The font size effects the appearance of data entered into the associated Form field.
- Add New Field Button. Selecting this button activates the Name field to accept text from the keyboard.
- 10. Enter Data Button. Selecting this button enters the description of the field whose name is currently highlighted in the *Field Names* scroll list. A field's description is defined by the text which appears in the Name field, the values which appear in the windows pop-up menus, and the selected value of the Field Type radio button set.
- 11. Delete Field Button. Selecting this button deletes the field whose name is currently highlighted in the *Field Names* scroll list from the Form.
- 12. **Tab Order Button.** Selecting this button activates a separate modal window (the *Tab Order Window*) which allows the user to define the order in which fields are accessed when the Tab key is selected.
- 13. Cancel Button. Selecting this button cancels all changes made to the Form and closes the *Design Form* window without saving the Form.
- 14. Done Button. Selecting this button activates a dialog box which prompts the user to name the Form which is being designed. The user has the option of naming and saving the Form, cancelling the dialog and returning to the *Design Form* window, or closing the *Design Form* window without saving the Form.

15. Help Button. Selecting this button activates a help window associated with the Design Form window.

b. Edit Form Window

The *Edit Form* window is similar in appearance and function to the *Design Form* window with transparent differences in the underlying implementation of the controlling methods and the window title which appears at the top of the window. The *Edit Form* window can only be accessed if a Form is currently active in the *Form View* window, and allows editing of the active Form object. When the window is opened, it contains a list of the active Form's fields (in the currently defined tab order). Selecting a field name in the Field Names scroll list causes the values of the field (*Name, Field Type, Relations, Attributes, Data Type, Font* and *Font Size*) to be displayed in their respective edit text box, radio set and pop-up menus. *Edit Form* control buttons are identical to those described for the *Design Form* window. Figure 6 shows the *Edit Form* window.

Field Names	Edit Form
Iname fname ssn	Ŷ
	₽
relation s	employee 🔻
attributes	ssn 🔻
data type	int 🔻
font	Courier 🔻
font size	12 🔻
Field Type	Edit Text Scroll List
Add Delete Field Field	Enter Data Order Done Cancel

Figure 6: The Edit Form Window

c. Tab Order Window

The *Tab Order* window displays the names of the fields of a Form in the currently defined tab order. The purpose of the window is to allow the user to modify the tab order of a Form. Figure 7 shows the Tab Order window. The window contains the following objects:



Figure 7: The Tab Order Window

- Field Names. This is a scroll list identical to the *Field Names* scroll list contained in both the *Design Form* and *Edit Form* windows. Selecting a name in this list causes the field associated with the name to be the object of the window's manipulation buttons.
- 2. First Button. Selecting this button causes the field which is highlighted in the *Field Names* scroll list to be moved to the top of the scroll list (i.e., it becomes the first field in the tab order defined for the Form).
- 3. Last Button. Selecting this button causes the field which is highlighted in the *Field Names* scroll list to be moved to the bottom of the scroll list (i.e., it becomes the last field in the tab order defined for the Form).
- 4. Move Up Button. Selecting this button causes the field which is highlighted in the *Field Names* scroll list to be moved up one position in the scroll list.
- 5. Move Down Button. Selecting this button causes the field which is highlighted in the Field Names scroll list to be moved down one position in the scroll list.

- 6. Cancel Button. Selecting this button cancels all tab order changes made to the Form and closes the *Tab Order* window.
- 7. Done Button. Selecting this button closes the *Tab Order* window and displays the field names in the new tab order within the *Design Form* or *Edit Form* window (depending on the window which was active when the Tab Order window was opened). The new tab order will not actually be saved until the Form is subsequently saved.

d. The Help Window

Help windows provide on-line user help relating to the currently active window. Help topics are selected from the list of Help Topics by double-clicking on a topic title. Text for the selected topic appears in a scroll window. The Help window is dismissed by selecting the Done button. Figure 8 shows the Help window for the Interface Editor main module window.

Select a help topic by clicking on a subject heading in the "Help Topics" list to the right. Text for the chosen topic will appear in this window. Dismiss the help window by selecting the DONE button.	¢	Help Topics Forms New form Open form Edit form Tab Order	\$
		Done	D

Figure 8: The Help Window

e. Field Information Window

The *Field Information* window is activated by double-clicking on a field of the active Form (the Form currently displayed in the *Form View* window), and displays information about the selected field. The window is dismissed by selecting the OK button. Figure 9 shows the Field Information window.

	Field Info
name:	name
<u>relation;</u>	relation 2
<u>attribute:</u>	attribute 1
<u>data type:</u>	Integer
<u>field type:</u>	Edit Text
<u>font:</u>	Courier
<u>font size:</u>	12
	OK

Figure 9: The Field Information Window

D. THE FORM USE APPLICATION

The Form Use application program simulates the user interface of the Query Editor module and the module's interaction with a disk-resident Form. Objects defined for this application will form the basis of the Query Editor's Form display, data entry and data validation (type checking) functions.

1. Program Control Decisions

Since this application will ultimately be incorporated into the Query Editor module, menu bar commands have been kept to a minimum. The *Input Form* and *Display Form* menus allow a user to open either data entry or data display windows. Additionally, users must retrieve Form objects from disk through the standard Macintosh Open dialog. Window activation and Form retrieval will become transparent to system users once the Form Use functions have been integrated into the Query Editor.

In order to provide consistency for Form creation, editing and use, icon buttons were included in the Input Form and Display Form windows to control data entry and display functions.

2. Class Descriptions

This section describes classes unique to the Form Use application. Prograph System Classes will not be discussed. Figure 10 shows the application's class hierarchy.

a. Form Window

This class defines the basic window in which Forms are displayed.

b. Input Form Window

This window inherits the basic window properties from the Form Window class, and adds control objects and methods for inputting data into a Form.



Figure 10: The Form Use Application Program Class Hierarchy

c. Display Form Window

This window inherits the basic window properties from the Form Window class, and adds control objects and methods for displaying data from a DFQL query in a Form.

d. Form

This class has been imported directly from the Interface Editor module, and contains the definition for a Form object.

e. IE Edit Text

This class has been imported directly from the Interface Editor module, and contains the definition for IE edit text objects. Methods have been added which support data input and display via IE edit text objects.

3. User Interface

The menu bar contains two items: FILE and FORM. The FILE menu contains only one item: QUIT. This is a standard default Prograph menu item, and allows the application user to terminate program execution. The FORM menu contains two items: INPUT FORM and OUTPUT FORM. The INPUT FORM command displays a Form (specified by the user) in an *Input Form* window. The OUTPUT FORM command displays a Form (specified by the user) in a *Display Form* window.

The Form Use user interface is limited to a set of icon control buttons in the Input Form and Display Form windows.

4. Windows

a. Input Form Window

Figure 11 shows the Input Form window. Forms created by the Interface Editor module are displayed in this window for data entry purposes. The window contains the following control buttons:

- 1. Clear All. This button clears all data entered into the displayed Form.
- 2. Clear Form. This button clears all data currently visible in the displayed Form.
- 3. Enter Data. This button adds the data currently visible in the displayed Form into the attribute *result* of class *Form Window*.
- 4. Done. This button is essentially the same as the Enter Data button, except that the Input Form window is closed after the displayed data has been added to the list.
- 5. Cancel. this button cancels the data entry process, deletes all data currently contained in the attribute *result* of class *Form Window* and closes the Input Form window.

Clear Clear Enter Force Done			Inp	ut Form	Window			
Clear Form Forer Concel Done								7
Clear Ener Date Date								
Clear Frier Concel Done								
Clear Clear Faier Data Done								
Clear Clear Faier Cancel Done								
Clear Clear Fater Data Done	6							h
Clear Clear Form Dola Concel Done								
Clear Clear Form Data Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Dolo Done								
Clear Clear Enter Dola Done								
Clear Clear Form Dola Concel Done								
Clear Clear Fater Cancel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Cancel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Cancel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Cancel Done								1.
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done								
Clear Clear Enter Concel Done							_	
All Form Data Lancel Done		Clear	Clear	Enter				
		All	Form	Dola	Lancel	Uone		

Figure 11: Input Form Window

b. Display Form Window

Figure 12 shows the Display Form Window. Forms created by the Interface Editor module are displayed in this window for data display purposes. The window contains the following control buttons (from left to right):

- 1. First. This button displays the first element of a data list.
- 2. Last. This button displays the last element of a data list.
- 3. Previous. This button displays the previous element of a data list.
- 4. Next. This button displays the next element of a data list.
- 5. Done. This button closes the Display Form window.



Figure 12: Display Form Window

E. THE FORM OBJECT

1. Form Object

A *Form* is an object composed of one or more *fields*, and defines a template for entering and displaying data in response to DFQL queries specified in the Amadeus Query Editor module. The Interface Editor module provides a means of defining, modifying and saving Form objects.

A Form object consists of the following attributes:

- name. The Form's name is assigned by the user in the Interface Editor module. The name attribute is used as an input to a DFQL query, and identifies which Form is to be opened in response to the query.
- 2. fields. This is a list of *field* objects associated with the Form.
- 3. **end user**. Identifies the owner of the Form (i.e., the name or identifier of the user or class of user who created the Form).
- 4. **protected?** This attributed identifies whether the Form is protected (e.g., read-only, read-write, etc.). User access and security issues are being addressed separately, and are beyond the scope of this thesis.

2. Field Object

Each Form *field* is a Prograph Window Item object (a descendent of the Window Item class). Fields supported by the Interface Editor are considered *display fields* [Gibson90], and consist of an editable area on the screen used for editing, displaying, or updating a database. Currently, the Interface Editor creates fields consisting of descendents of the *Edit Text* Window Item class (called *IE edit text*). Extending the module to allow additional types of fields requires defining new subclasses within the Interface Editor class hierarchy (subclasses of *Window Item*) for each new field type. Each field object consists of the following attributes:

- 1. name. This value identifies the field with a unique character string. The field name is assigned by the user in the Interface Editor module at the time the field is defined.
- 2. relation. This value identifies the database relation which the field is associated with. This value is assigned by the user in the Interface Editor module at the time the field is defined.
- 3. attribute. This value identifies the database attribute which the field is associated with. This value is assigned by the user in the Interface Editor module at the time the field is defined.

- 4. font. This value identifies the font name of the field. Data displayed in the field will appear in this font.
- 5. font size. This value identifies the font size of the field. Data displayed in the field will appear in this font size.
- 6. position. This value identifies the position of the field in a Form object relative to the coordinate system of the window in which it is displayed.

3. Windows

Forms are displayed in either the *Form View window* of the Interface Editor module or the *Input Form window* or *Display Form window* of the Form Use application program. Each window is a descendent of the Prograph system class *Window*, and inherits the attributes and methods of its parent classes.

4. User Interaction

User interaction with Forms is limited to keyboard and mouse input/selection. For data entry, an insertion cursor identifies the active field. The cursor is moved from one field to another either by selecting the destination field with a mouse, or by repeatedly pressing the tab key. The order in which the insertion cursor moves from field to field is determined by the *tab order* of a Form. The tab order is defined in the Interface Editor module at the time a Form is created.

5. Form Methods

Methods for defining and editing Form objects are contained in the Interface Editor module. Methods for data manipulation (entering and displaying data in a Form) are contained in the Form Use application.

6. Data Validation

Data validation (type checking) is performed by methods defined in the Form Use application program. These methods will ultimately be incorporated into the Query Editor by using Prograph's *selective load* feature, which allows loading individual classes from one application into another.

Type checking is possible since each Form is associated with a specific database and database relation. Each field of a Form is further associated with a specific relation attribute (and corresponding attribute data type). This knowledge is obtained from a database definition file which resides on disk and is available to the Interface Editor during Form definition. Type checking takes place as data is entered into a Form by a method that compares the type of the inputted data against the *data type* of the field's associated relation. Data validation methods have not yet been fully implemented.

7. Input Form

Forms used for entering data are displayed in a separate Input Form Window (a descendent of the class *Form Window*). The window is activated in conjunction with a DFQL query. Control objects (icon buttons) are included in the window.

8. Display Form

Forms used for displaying the results of database queries are displayed in a separate *Display Form* window (a descendent of the class *Form Window*). The window is activated in conjunction with a DFQL query. Control objects (icon buttons) are included in the window.

9. Form Creation and Editing

Forms are created and edited in the Interface Editor module's Design Form and Edit Form windows, respectively.

10. Form Use

Forms are used by the Amadeus Query Editor module as part of DFQL queries. Although Forms can be used for both input and data display, there is only one Form class. Depending on the intended use, the Form is opened in either an Input Form or a Display Form window.

a. Input Forms

Figure 13 shows a DFQL operation which opens an Input Form (specified by *Form name*) and inserts data entered via the Form into a relation specified by *relation name*.



Figure 13: DFQL Use of an Input Form

Forms permit a user to enter data one *tuple* at a time. As data is entered, it is maintained in an attribute called *result* of class *Form Window* as a list of tuples. Each tuple represents the set of data entered into the fields of a Form. This relationship is shown in Figure 14.



Figure 14: Representation of Data Entered via an Input Form Window

The ordering of elements (i.e., individual pieces of data) in a tuple corresponds to the order of attributes in a relation's definition. The first element corresponds to the first attribute, the second element to the second attribute, and so on. When a Form object is created, each of its component fields is associated with a specific attribute name. Since the position of each element of a tuple corresponds to a specific attribute position, and each field of a Form corresponds to a specific attribute name, this information can be used to determine the proper position of inputted data in a tuple.

These same relationships are used to support type checking of inputted data. Since each attribute has an associated data type, this value can be compared with the type of the data entered into a Form field. If a type mis-match is identified, the user must correct the data before it can added to a tuple. Figure 15 shows the field-to-element mapping. The notation: *field*₁, *field*₂, *field*₃, etc. in Figure 15 refers to the tab order of a particular field (e.g., field₁ is the first field in the Form's tab order, field₂ is the second, etc.).



Figure 15: Example of Field-to-Element Mapping

As an example, assume that the Form specified by *Form name* (see Figure 13) contains the following fields: Name, Address, Age, Birthdate and Phone. When the query shown in Figure 13 is processed, an *Input Form* window is opened, and *Form name* displayed as depicted in Figure 16.

If relation name has been defined in the database as:

relation name (Name, Age, Address, Birthdate, Phone)

where *Name*, *Age*, *Address*, *Birthdate* and *Phone* are the attributes of *relation name*, then data entered into *Form name* will be stored in *result* as:

((Name value₁, Age value₁, Address value₁, Birthdate value₁, Phone value₁)
(Name value₂, Age value₂, Address value₂, Birthdate value₂, Phone value₂)

(Name value_n, Age value_n, Address value_n, Birthdate value_n, Phone value_n))

When the user closes the *Input Form* window, the data contained in *result* becomes available to the Query Editor module.

	📕 Input Form Window
Name	
Marik	
Address	
Age	Birthdate
Phone	
Clear All	Clear Form Data Cancel Done

Figure 16: Input Form Window

.

b. Display Forms

Displaying data from a DFQL query follows a similar logic to that described above for *Input Form*. Figure 17 shows a portion of a DFQL query that might be used to display query results in a *Display Form* window:



Figure 17: DFQL Use of a Display Form

In this example, list of tuples consists of a list of list of strings, and can be expressed as:

((tuple) (tuple) (tuple) ... (tuple))³

Since

tuple \rightarrow (element₁, element₂, element₃, ... element_n)

and

element -> string

then

list of tuples -> ((list of strings) (list of strings) ... (list of strings))

where

(list of strings) \rightarrow (string₁, string₂, string₃, ..., string_n)

^{3.} The notation () indicates a list. Thus a list of lists is represented as (()()...())

Each tuple represents a set of data generated as a result of a DFQL query. A DFQL query can produce zero, one or many such tuples. The individual elements (in this case, strings) of a tuple contain the data which is actually displayed in the *Display Form* window.

Just as the field-Attribute mapping is used to build tuples during data entry, the same relationships are used to determine the proper field in which to display each tuple element. Using the definitions and mapping from Figure 15, the mapping from tuple element to Form field can be expressed as:



Tuples are displayed in a *Display Form* window which contains the Form specified by the left-hand input (*Form name*) to the DFQL operation shown in Figure 17. Data is displayed in the *Display Form* window one tuple at a time. Users can page through the data (list of tuples) using control buttons (*First* tuple, *Last* tuple, *Previous* tuple, *Next* tuple) defined in the *Display Window* class (see Figure 18).
1	Display Form Window
Name	
Address	
Age	Birthdate
Phone	

Figure 18: Display Form Window

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The purpose of this research was to design and implement an Interface Editor module and a Form-based interface for the Amadeus multi-relational database front-end system. The research provided the initial stage of development for a complete Form creation and manipulation capability for Amadeus users.

A. SUMMARY

An extensive literature review was accomplished in which object-oriented programming, the Prograph development environment and Human-Computer Interface design issues were researched. The design and specification for a Form object, a Form creation application (the Interface Editor module) and a Form-based user interface (the Form Use application) were successfully implemented. The feasibility of the Form object and application programs were demonstrated by simulating the Amadeus Query Editor module's use of Forms for data entry and display.

B. CONCLUSIONS

The appropriateness of the user interfaces developed for this thesis can be most effectively measured through formal testing by representative groups of system end-users. Informal testing provided insights into the overall interface design, and lead to improvements in program control functions while identifying areas requiring further development. The Interface Editor, as currently implemented, is limited in scope and functionality. It extends the traditional Macintosh user interface by incorporation of icons for program control. However, the Form objects created by the Interface Editor are limited, at present, to only a single field type. Additionally, the Form Use interface provides a single record-at-a-time view for data entry and the display of DFQL query results. While impacting overall system performance, these limitations are not considered critical. Rather, they provide a point of departure for continued research into enhancing the user interface for the Amadeus system.

C. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Further research into the topics presented in this thesis should include, but not be limited to, the following: expansion of the Interface Editor module to allow incorporation of additional window item class objects in a Form field; expansion of the user help facility; implementation of more extensive data validation beyond simple type checking; development of a dynamic Form generation procedure which allows Forms to be generated "on-the-fly" in response to the output of DFQL queries; extending the Form object to allow multiple record-at-a-time viewing; and revising the Interface Editor module to provide a more efficient direct manipulation interface.

1. Expansion of the Interface Editor

The Interface Editor module should permit the inclusion of all window items supported by Prograph as field objects. This capability will provide a more flexible Form object, enhancing the Query Editor module user interface for both data entry and display. Additionally, data representation will become more responsive to user needs, since some information is more appropriately represented as a graphic object, such as radio button sets or check boxes. Expanding the Interface Editor module to meet this capability will require defining new window item subclasses in the same manner as the *IE edit text* subclass of *edit text* was defined. The object-oriented design of the module is well suited for this task.

2. Expansion of the User Help Facility

The Interface Editor module user help facility is very basic in its content and functionality. As currently implemented, only the Interface Editor's main module window has a fully functional help facility. Implementation of the help facility for each module

window is still required. Additionally, it may be desirable to develop a context-sensitive help facility which provides more responsive user help for the system.

3. Extension of Data Validation Procedures

The current data validation procedures employed by the Form Use application consist of simple type checking of input data against attribute data types defined for each database. A more robust data validation facility is required which is capable of supporting database unique data types, including formatted data such as *date fields*. Consideration should also be given to the inclusion of range checking (checking for out of range values vice simply verifying the correctness of the associated data type).

4. Dynamic Form Generation.

Currently, all Forms used by the Query Editor must be defined prior to use, requiring a priori knowledge of DFQL queries and their results. This is sufficient for processing data using "canned" queries. However, the ability to dynamically generate a Form based on DFQL query results will provide much greater system flexibility.

5. Extension of the Form Object

The current Form object is only capable of displaying query results one record at a time. This provides a useful, but limited view for the user. The Form object should be extended to permit simultaneous display of multiple records on a single Form.

6. Extension of the Interface Editor Direct Manipulation Interface

The Interface Editor module interface makes use direct manipulation features for dragging and resizing Form fields. However, Form creation and editing takes place in separate modal windows. The use of modal windows restricts, to a certain degree, the user's actions. A more effective interface might be realized if all Form manipulation (including creation and editing) occurs in the Form View window rather than separate modal windows. This would, however, require extensive modifications to the underlying

functionality of the interface. User testing may determine whether the efforts required to provided such a feature are worth the cost associated with re-designing the interface.



APPENDIX A

DEVELOPMENT NOTES

The Interface Editor Module, Form object and Form Use application were developed using Prograph version 2.5.2 on a Macintosh IIfx computer with 8 MB of RAM, a 210 MB hard disk and an Apple 21" color monitor. The operating system was System 7.0 (with System 7 Tuner installed). This configuration is considered adequate for developing medium to large-sized Prograph applications.

Version 2.5.2 of Prograph fixes a number of "bugs" present in earlier versions. Additionally, version 2.5.2 replaces two Prograph Extensions and two Window Class methods found in version 2.5.1. For these reasons, the applications and classes developed for this thesis may not work properly on systems running Prograph versions 2.5 or 2.5.1. Version 2.5.2 update patches are available directly from TGS or from commercial electronic bulletin board systems (such as America OnLine and CompuServ).

The Icon Button Class (a descendent of Click Item) was used to implement the icon buttons used in the applications developed for this thesis. This class is not part of the standard Prograph system release, and is available separately from TGS as part of the *Prograph Goodies Disk*. Icon bar icons were created using ResEdit, and are stored as PICT resources in the resource fork of the Interface Editor application.

A large-screen color monitor (19" or larger) is recommended when developing Prograph applications. It is not unusual to have a dozen or more windows open simultaneously, each displaying a method, case, attribute or class window. The larger screen size allows simultaneous viewing of multiple windows, especially when debugging a program using Prograph's single-step mode for animating data-flow diagrams. Additionally, Prograph uses color coding to distinguish icon and dataflow states, which complicates program development on a black and white or grey-scale monitor. Figure 1 shows a typical 21" screen during program development.



Figure 1. Multiple Windows Open During Application Development

The interface for the Interface Editor module was developed for a 13" (or larger) monitor (ideally 8-bit color, however the effect of color icons will not be degraded when viewed on a grey scale monitor). Although the module will run on a compact Macintosh computer (compact-mac) which is capable of running Prograph¹, the compact-mac's 9" black and white monitor will not correctly display icon buttons (a consequence of attempting to display 8-bit graphics on a 1-bit monitor). Additionally, the Interface Editor main window exceeds the dimensions of a 9" monitor.

Prograph is, essentially, a list processing language. Prior experience with list processing is not necessary in order to use Prograph. However, in order to take full

^{1.} Minimum system requirements for Prograph are: Macintosh Plus generation with 128K ROM and 1MB of RAM. Prograph can be run from floppy disks, however a hard disk is recommended.

advantage of the language, familiarity with lists and list processing techniques is strongly recommended.

Prograph implements most of the Macintosh Toolbox calls described in Apple Computer Inc's *Inside Macintosh* [Apple85] and *Macintosh Technical Notes* (published separately from *Inside Macintosh*). However, Prograph's accompanying Toolbox documentation (Tutorial and Reference Manuals [TGS90b and TGS90c] and on-line help facilities) are incomplete. Serious Prograph development efforts require access to the complete set of *Inside Macintosh* and *Technical Notes*, the definitive reference sources for Macintosh program development.

APPENDIX B

PROGRAPH BASICS

A. LANGUAGE BASICS

1. Pictorial Representation of the Language

Prograph programs are composed entirely of icons and amplifying text. Figure 1 shows common icons used in constructing Prograph programs.



Figure 1. Examples of Prograph Icons

2. Control Structures

Prograph Control Structures control the flow of execution within a program. Control structures are composed of icons (either an 'X' or a ' $\sqrt{}$ ') that are attached to the right-hand side an operator, and are activated on either the success or failure of the associated operation. The default control structure is *success*. Operations *fail* in one of three ways: (1) in a match operation, the items being compared do not match, (2) a Boolean operation returns a FALSE value, or (3) a *FAIL* condition is propagated to a particular operation. Operations may also generate errors under certain conditions, including: type mis-matches, syntax errors, or a specific program condition which can not be satisfied by the particular control structure. Figure 2 shows typical Prograph control structures. An 'X' within a control structure indicates that it is activated if the associated operation fails. A check mark ($\sqrt{}$) indicates that the control structure is activated if the associated operation within a control structure indicates that it is activated if the associated operation fails. A check mark ($\sqrt{}$) indicates that the control structure is activated if the associated operation succeeds. Other graphics inside the control structure icon indicate additional action to be taken.



Figure 2: Prograph Control Structure Icons

The most basic Prograph conditional execution format is the *Next Case* with an accompanying match operation or conditional test. Figure 3 depicts a conditional test with a *match on success* control structure which tests for a specific condition to determine which of two case windows will be executed.



Figure 3: Example of the Next Case on Success Control Structure

3. Classes and Inheritance

Classes of objects, and all inheritance relationships, appear on the screen as trees of icons. The Prograph class system provides a means for constructing a new class from an existing class through inheritance. A Prograph class can inherit from at most one parent. This is referred to as *single inheritance*.

The class icon is a hexagon which is divided into two parts: *attributes* on the left, and *methods* on the right. Double-clicking on the left half of a class icon displays the attributes of the class, while double-clicking on the right half displays the class methods. Figure 4 depicts this relationship.



Figure 4: Prograph System Class Icons and Component Parts of "Window Item Class"

4. Attributes

Prograph attributes are displayed in an *Attributes Window*. There are two types of Prograph attributes: *instance* and *class*. An instance attribute may have a different value for each instance of a class. Class attributes, however, have one value for the class as a whole. Therefore, the value of a class attribute is shared by all instances of the class. The attribute icon is a downward pointing triangle.

5. Methods and Cases

A Prograph method consists of a sequence of one or more dataflows, called *cases*. A case consists of an input bar, an output bar, operations and datalinks, Data flows into a case via the input bar, and out through the output bar.

Methods are referenced in one of four ways: *universal*, *data-determined*, *explicit* and context-determined (see figure 5). These terms correspond to the terms global, regular, early-bound and self, which are more commonly used in object-oriented programming literature [Wu91c p. 71]. Essentially, the calling format determines where Prograph looks for the referenced method in the class hierarchy.

(1) Universal. This is a call to a global method.

(2) Data-determined. Prograph looks for the referenced method in the class of the object which flows into the leftmost terminal of the method.

(3) Explicit. Prograph looks for the referenced method in the class which is explicitly listed to the left of the "/" in the method icon. If the method is not found in the explicitly listed class, then Prograph uses inheritance links to check ancestor classes for the method.

(4) Context-determined. Prograph looks for the referenced method in the same class as the current method that contains the method referencing operation. This allows a method to send a message to itself.



Figure 5: Method Calling Formats

6. Operations

An operation is the basic executable component of a case. Operations have a name, zero or more inputs, zero or more outputs and a distinctive icon. Data flows into an operation through terminals located on the top of the operation icon, and out through roots located on the bottom of the icon. Prograph provides a special icon, called a *synchro link* which forces a specific execution *order* on a pair of operations (see figure 6). However, the synchro link does not guarantee that the operations will execute consecutively, only that one will execute before the other. [TGS90c p. 7] In the example shown below, A will execute before B. However, there is no guarantee that B will execute *immediately* after A, since there is no way to determine when C will execute.



Figure 6: Synchro Link

7. Message Passing

Message passing in Prograph is similar to most other object-oriented languages. Some differences occur, however, because of the dataflow nature of the Prograph language. Essentially, in Prograph objects flow into operations to initiate actions. In a "standard" object-oriented programming language, a stationary object sends a message to another stationary object. Although the models are somewhat different, the basic concepts are the same. [TGS90b p. 93]

8. Primitives

Prograph primitives are calls to compiled methods, and are categorized into sixteen groups, including: Application, Bit, Data, File, Graphics, Instances, Interpreter Control, I/O, Lists, Logical/Relational, Math, Memory, Strings, System, Text and Type.

Primitives comprise the kernel of Prograph's functionality. Unlike other object-oriented programming languages, Prograph primitives do not belong to any class. This, and the fact that the language supports regular data types such as *string*, *integer*, *Boolean* and *real* make Prograph a hybrid object-oriented programming language. [Wu91c p. 72]

B. THE PROGRAPH ENVIRONMENT

The Prograph language is seamlessly integrated with the Prograph development environment. An editor provides a visual interface for creating and modifying programs, while an interpreter contains features which allow dataflow diagrams to be displayed during execution, in effect graphically animating the flow of data throughout a program as each operation is executed [TGS90a p. 21].

1. Editor

The Prograph editor is context sensitive, so syntax errors are caught at the time they are created, eliminating the need for a traditional debugger. During program execution, run-time errors are flagged, program execution is halted and the appropriate dataflow diagram displayed. This enables the user to correct the error and immediately resume execution. An on-line help system is also available and is fully integrated into the editor.

2. Interpreter

The Prograph interpreter is highly interactive. Program execution may be paused at any point and dataflow diagrams and data values examined, allowing simultaneous execution and editing of applications. Additionally, program execution may be traced step by step, allowing the flow of data through a program to be traced visually. If a dataflow diagram is changed while execution is paused, the interpreter backs up to the change and continues execution from that point.

C. COMPILER

The Prograph compiler generates stand-alone application programs, and allows linking to modules developed with other programming languages such as MPW C and Think C. The compiler also includes an intelligent *Project Manager* which keeps track of the files needed to build a particular application. The Project Manager selects only the code actually required when building a stand-alone application and informs the user of any missing code. If the compiler detects an error in a Prograph file, the user can enter the editor/interpreter to see the operation that generated the error.

A certain amount of overhead is normally introduced when creating stand-alone applications. In Prograph, stand-alone applications which do not use system classes require an additional 50Kbytes of overhead, while those with system classes require an additional 130Kbytes. However, the execution speed of compiled Prograph code is, on the average, 15 times faster than the same interpreted code [TGS90a p. 33-36].

APPENDIX C

DATABASE BASICS

A. DEFINITIONS

1. Database

In a general sense, a *database* is a collection of related, recordable facts that have implicit meaning. To be more precise, however, a database may be defined as a "shared collection of inter-related data designed to meet the varied information needs of an organization" [Falby91 p. 14]. Databases have the following properties [Elmasri89 p. 3-4]:

1. Logically coherent collection of data with some inherent meaning.

2. Designed, built and populated with data for a specific purpose.

3. Represents some aspect of the real world (referred to as the mini-world).

2. Database Management System (DBMS)

A DBMS is a general-purpose software system for defining, constructing and manipulating a database.

3. Relational model

The relational model for Database Management Systems was first introduced in 1970. The model is founded solidly on mathematical principles and provides simple, uniform data structures. The relational model represents a database as a collection of tables. Each row in a table represents a collection of related data values which can be interpreted as a fact describing an entity or a relationship instance. The table name, and the names of the table columns, provide additional meaning to the values in each row of the table. Each row in a relational database relation is called a *tuple*, and each column title is called an attribute. The Table itself is referred to as a relation. [Elmasri89 p. 135-137]. Figure 1 shows a relation, named EMPLOYEE, from a relational database.



Figure 1: Table from a Relational Database

4. Data Manipulation Languages & Database Query Languages

Database Management Systems can provide two types of *Data Manipulation Languages* (DML) which allow users to manipulate data in the database: *high-level* or *nonprocedural* and *low-level* or *procedural*. High-level DML's can be used either as standalone languages or can be embedded in a general-purpose programming language. When used as a stand-along language, high-level DML statements are entered interactively from a terminal by a DBMS user, and the DML is called a *database query language*. Low-level DML's must always be embedded in a general-purpose programming language. Casual DBMS users normally use a high-level query language to manipulate the database, while programmers use a DML which has been embedded in a general-purpose programming language.

APPENDIX D

INTERFACE DESIGN GOALS AND CONCERNS

The goal of interface design should be to empower people, leading to an increase in user experience, productivity and creativity [Dertouzos90, Butler90 p. 349]. Users are empowered when they have "a clear predictive model of system performance and a sense of mastery, control, and accomplishment" [Don92 p. 69]. To truly empower a user, however, the interface designer must fully understand the difference between "efficiency" in terms of computer science and "productivity" in terms of getting more value from work [Winograd90]. A well designed interface should be practically transparent, allowing users to concentrate directly on the task at hand [Shneiderman92].

A. THE DESIGN PROCESS

The design process should typically begin with an understanding of the system's intended users to develop a *user profile*. It is not uncommon to characterize system users into different groups or classes. This may result in different design goals for each user class. For example, classifying users as *novice, intermediate* and *advanced* will require unique features for each user class. [Schneiderman92 pages 145-148]

After completing the user profile, task analysis should be conducted to identify the functionality required of the proposed system. Good task analysis means continual user testing, starting as soon as the work begins. Key elements of the design should emerge from the task analysis, rather than being shaped to fit the results of the user testing [Norman in Laurel90 page 9].

Change is important to good interface design. Procedures that allow incorporation of changes, up to a point, are considered critical to successful design. Ideally, this should include an Iterative design methodology involving user testing and prototyping tools to rapidly produce non-functional and functional models of the system to elicit user feedback

at key stages of the design process [Mountford90]. Iterative design is a process of identifying a problem area, modifying the appropriate portion(s) of the application, and retesting. The iterative process continues until a decision is made to accept the prototype. Most problems will disappear by the second or third iteration [Tognizzini92 page 86].

The cost of user testing has been a topic of debate in recent years. Historically, elaborate test scenarios, complete with high-tech equipment for recording and analyzing user actions and perceptions, reinforced the belief that user testing was a costly undertaking. Newer approaches described in [Tognazzini91 pp. 79-91] stress simplicity and common sense, promising to make user testing more acceptable both in terms of cost and end-user productivity. These approaches include:

- 1. Develop test scenarios that incorporate situations that users may face, then build prototypes that enable evaluation of the situations. Two types of prototypes can be built: *horizontal* and *vertical*. Horizontal prototypes allow testing overall design concepts by displaying all or most of an application's menus, windows and dialogs without going into depth in any one area. Vertical prototypes allow greater examination of specific parts of an application, and are used when new design concepts and/or technology are involved.
- 2. Prototypes can and should be created in a matter of days, not weeks or months. A wide variety of prototyping tools are available which greatly aid prototype development.
- 3. Choose test subjects carefully. In the initial stages, user testing should focus on interface issues. Content testing (testing the actual performance and applicability of a system such as an accounting package or CAD package) is generally not a concern during iterative design testing. Studies have shown that a maximum of three test subjects per design iteration is sufficient [Tognazzini page 82]. Any more than that will simple serve to confirm problems already identified. Each iteration should involve new test subjects [Tognazzini page 270]. Once the interface design has been finalized, validation testing should be conducted. Validation testing requires a

carefully chosen representative sample of the intended user population, and may be applied to late alpha or early beta versions of the application.

4. Apply a standardized methodology for observing test subjects. Apple Computer uses a methodology called *User Observation Through Thinking Out Loud* [Gomoll in Laurel90 pages 85-90]. This process does not yield statistical results. Rather, it allows an observer to identify areas where test subjects are having problems using the product, and provides information necessary to improve it.

B. FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE INTERFACE DESIGN

In general, interface design problems can be easy to describe, but extremely difficult to actually solve [Erickson91]. A good deal of thought, insight, ingenuity, understanding of the original problem and knowledge of the end-user are required; however this still may not be enough to satisfy everybody that a solution is good.

1. Lack of Standardized Methodology

There is no standard method of looking at interface design. This lack of standardization can lead to confusion in design, testing and implementation of user interfaces. Russel summarizes this problem in [Russel92 p. 71-72]:

As the state of graphical user interface design theory continues to mature from its beginnings in the mid-eighties, emphasis on reducing the burden of interface programming has become more prevalent. Across the many popular computer platforms used professionally today, a myriad of interface building packages have been designed with this concern in mind. Currently, however, no standard design methodology exists and more importantly, no construction package has emerged that significantly reduces programming effort while still providing the application interface programmer with full control over the design process....

2. Compromise

Interface design is largely a compromise [Erickson91]. Software and hardware must complement each other; an elegant software solution implemented on the wrong platform will not necessarily function the way the designers intended. Human factors must also be addressed (i.e., the interface must take into account human capabilities and limitations). Sophisticated features of an interface may not be practical if the human user cannot take advantage of them.

Additionally, an interface design team is usually inter-disciplinary. Different disciplines have different priorities, thinking styles and values. When people from different disciplines get together, values tend to collide. [Kim in Laurel90 page 32] Thus, competing concerns must constantly be balanced in order to arrive at a mutually acceptable solution.

3. Appropriateness of the Interface

A common design error is to include too much functionality into a system, producing a number of undesirable side-effects, including: excessive code to test, debug and maintain, more complicated user manuals and help facilities and a steeper learning curve and potentially higher cognitive loading on the user. Problems also arise if insufficient functionality is included. In such cases, users may become frustrated because of a perception that the system does not adequately support specific functions or features. [Schneiderman92]

4. Pressure to Produce

Interface designers are often under a great deal of pressure to ship a product quickly, resulting in a tendency to accept the first promising design idea and forego proven testing and development procedures [Mountford90].

APPENDIX E

PROGRAM LISTINGS FOR:

THE INTERFACE EDITOR MODULE

AND

THE FORM USE APPLICATION



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Form/default position 1:1calculate position defaults 1:2



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ØForm/add field 1:1



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⊠Dialog/warning 1:1show warning dialog 1:1display lex1 1:1



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Dialog/warning 1:1 show warning dialog 1:1 display pict 1:1



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22Dialog/dialog type 1:1select dialog type 4:4show warning dialog 1:1



Dialog/dialog type 1:1 select dialog type 1:4show alert dialog 1:1 display pict 1:1



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Design Form/read db 1:1set relation pop-up 1:1



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Design Form/build form 1:1build form 1:1sel file info 1:1



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@Design Form/get name 1:1retrieve associated data 1:1update edit window 1:1



§1 ("Field Type" "Relation" "Attribute" "Data Type" "Font" "Font Size")



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§1 ("Relation" "Attribute" "Date Type" "Font" "Font Size")



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Bolesign Form/okay edit field i:ireset text field 2:2











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Design Form/okay edit field 1:1 replace old field data 1:1 update display 1:1 get current field names 1-1



Design Form/okay edit field 1: Treplace old field date 1. Tupdate dieplay 1: Tupdate acroit bat 1.1





\$1 ("Field Name" "Field Type" "Relation" "Attribute" "Data Type" "Font" "Font Size")



20 Design Form/get field data t:tget data t:tget value t:2



51 ("Relation" "Attribute" "Data Type" "Font" "Font Size")







Design Form/add field 2:2

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Design Form/add field 1:2field listing 2:2





§1. That field name is already in use





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Design Form/collect data 1:1get data 1:1







reset the attributes of class Form, which acts ssis temp placeholder for field data

\$1 (** () ** FALSE)





Design Form/cancel dialog 1:1



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§1 Cancel *Design Form* operation?



Design Form/delete name 2:2

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Item> Record

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@Design Form/update list t:tupdate field name scroll list 1:2



Design Form/update list 1:1 update field name scroll list 2:2

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22Design Form/new field input 1:1 de-select scroll list 1:1



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Design Form/set attribute pop-up t: tretrieve attributes 1:1



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IE Window/save as 1:2perform housekeeping 1:1



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§1 Save Form As



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IE Window/delete form 1:1/delete form 1:2perform housekeeping 1:1



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IE Window/delete form 1:1/delete form 1:2 perform housekeeping 1 1reset Form & Temp 1:1



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51 ("Field Name" "Data Type" "Relation" "Attribute" Field Type" Fork' Fort Size")









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perform housekeeping



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§1 <no currently active form>



I:1 Window/check for unsaved changes 1:3perform housekeeping 1:1



I Window/check for unsaved changes 2:3



write the current form to disk

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§1 <no currently active form>



§1 <no currently active form>



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§1 * must be closed before opening a new form. Close the form?







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IE Window/edit form 2:2update IE Window 1:1update form 1:1reset canuas 1:1

















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E Window/new 1:1new form dialog 1:1get database definition 1:2



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\$1 <no currently ective form> \$2 You can only close the currently active form. There is no active form to close















§1 Save Form As



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§1 Select a help topic by clicking on a subject heading in the scroll list. Text will appear in this window dismiss the help window by selecting the DONE button §2 Help Scroll Text



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22Help/help info t:1disptay help text 1:tretrieve text 1:3

\$1. A form is an object which anables a user to easily input data into the Amadeus Query Window. Forms are created by selecting the "Creats Form" icon from the icon bar, or by selecting "New" from the Forms menu in the menu bar. Form: are stored on dials, and can be retrieved for use, edibing or deleting, as necessary.



§1 Forms are stored on disk. Vaid Interface Editor forms can be identified by the suffix ".fm" This suffix is added by the system automatically. However, if you change the name of a form using the Macritosh finder (clicking on a form icon and highlighting the name, then typing a new name), IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOU ADD THE SUFFIX .fm YOURSELF Amedeus will only recognize forms that end in this suffix.

OPENING a form is accomplated in one of two ways

(1) select Open from the file menu, or (2) select the Open Form icon (the second icon from the left in the icon bar)

A Macintosh hierarchical file dialog window will open, allowing you to select the form file to open. You can access all connected volumes (dask drives) from this window. Select the file to open by highlighting the file name and pressing the OPEN button, or you can double-click on the file name. Choose the CANCEL button if you wish to demiss the dialog windo without opening a form file.

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§1 There are no fields defined for the current form

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set the attribute "current" in class Window to reflect the instance of "Tab Order" This attributa acts like a stack, maintaining a list of open windows, with this leftmost name in the list being at the top of the stack (ie the topmost window)





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Tab Order/move up 1:2move scroll list 1:2



Tab Order/move up 1:2move scroll list 2:2







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Tab Order/move up 1:2move scroll list 1:2move field up 3:3




















§1 Unsaved changes well be lost. Continue with selection and close *



Tab Order/first 2:2

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§1 Unsaved changes will be lost. Continue with selection and close *



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§1 Interface Editor Window



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51 Interface Editor Window



Preferences/okay prefs 1:1apply colors 1:1



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Preferences/user prefs 1:1set values 1:1



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IECanvas/build object 2:2

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no fields have been defined for this form, no action required













(IIII)

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1:1 do drag 1:1 do drag 1:1







sava the new field (rectangle) position in the field attribute "Position"

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201ECanuas/create 1EObject 1:1generate iEObject 1:1









§1 <no currently active form>





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IECanuas/blank canuas 1:1reset IEObjec1 luar 1:1



IECanuas/blank canuas 1:1grey canuas 1:1



51 (0 0 32000 32000)

IECanuas/IE Click 1:4

window canvas pt EventRecord [sective form?]]check to see if there s a form in the canvas









§1 <no currently active form>





IECanuas/IE Click 2:4process command-click 2:2

Contraction of the second second <set> point

click fell outside of all field rectangles No action required



IECanuas/IE Click 3:4process simple click 2:2

Companya and Companya and

Window Canvss Point Event Record

click is outside of s field no action requirs d





ECenves/IE Click 2:4process command-click 1:2inside rect? 1 1get rect frame 1 1







IECanuas/IE Click 2:4process command-click 1:2process 1:1do draw 1:1











IEConvar/E Clock 2 4process command-click 1:2process 1:1 resize rect 1:1update field position 1:1update object



IECanvas/IE Click 3:4process simple click 1:2click inside rect? 1:1



IECanuas/IE Click 3:4process simple click 1:2process 1:2







E Canvas/E Click 3 Aprocese emple click 1 2 click mede rect? 1:1 made rect? 1 1 get rect frame 1.1





IECanuas/IE Click 3:4process simple click 1:2process 2:2do draw 1:1



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Becanves/IE Click 34process simple click 12procese 2.2do drag 11subtract rect frame 1.1













IECanvas/IE Click 4:4process double-click 1:2click in rect? 1:1



IECanvas/IE Click 4:4process double-click 1:2highlight the rect 1:1







Contractor Contractor Contractor





1:1 Inside rect?



ECanves/IE Click 4:4process double-click 1:2click in rect? 1:1 inside rect? 1:1 get rect frame 1.1



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on canvas, rect is framed. add the insetRect amount to Position to ensure proper rect is presented to PtinRect



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§1 (background foreground)







(minimum minimum minimum)





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IECanvas/update witems t:tremove from list 2:2

item

item is not a canvas object, no action required



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It edit text/init 1:1calculate label 1:1find label point 1:1calculate text box 1:1



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51 Interface Editor Window





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§1. Interface Editor Window





51 Interface Editor Window



§1. Interface Editor Window



§1. Interface Editor Window



§1 Interface Editor Window



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opens the IE Window and initializes module editor









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PROGRAM LISTING FOR:

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@Form Window

reset result attribute to empty list

redraw field labels in canvas

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read date from database definition file in response to user selection from open file dalog





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Display Form Window/previous 2:2



Display form Window/previous 2:2sound alert 1:1



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Oisplay Form Window/first 2:2



Display Form Window/first 1:2check for beginning of list 1:1



Display Form Window/first 2:2sound alert 1:1

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Display Form Window/open 1:1get form name 1:2



Display Form Window/open 1:1get form name 2:2



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Display Form Window/open 1:1get form name 2:2sound alert 1:1



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§1 Unable to load form. Please verify form name and location.









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Display Form Window/open 1:1 display form in window 1 1add field to window 1 1 draw label 1 1





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Display Form Window/display 11 display dats in Form 1-1 assign elements to fields 1.1 match field to element 1.1



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Deplay Form Window/deplay 1:1deplay date in Form 1.1sssign elements to fields 1 1match field to element 1 1 n

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Display form Window/get data t:tinit attributes 1:treset display pointer 1:1



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@input Form Window/okay clear form 1:1



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∭inpul Form Window/okay clear form 1:1clear fields 1:2determine type 1:1



these items belong to the window, and don't need to be removed

∭input Form Window/okay clear all 1:1



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@input Form Window/open t:idisplay form in window i:i



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Input Form Window/open 1:1get form name 2:2sound alert 1:1



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^{§1} contents of attribute "result" of class "Form Window" is



Input Form Window/okay done 1 1 check for left-over data 1 1 are fields empty? 1:1 collect data 1 2



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mot form Window/okay enter t:1collect data 1:2determine type 1:1



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∭input form Window/Close 1:1





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IE edit text/assign value 1:1





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