On the Development of Smart Adaptive User Interfaces for Mobile e-Business Applications
Towards Enhancing User Experience – Some Lessons Learned

Andreas Holzinger, Michael Geier and Panagiotis Germanakos
Research Unit Human–Computer Interaction, Institute for Medical Informatics, Statistics and Documentation, Medical University Graz, Graz, Austria

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Abstract: Mobile end users usually work in complex and hectic environments, consequently for mobile e-Business applications the design and development of context aware, smart, adaptive user interfaces is getting more and more important. The main goal is to make the user interface so simple that the end users can concentrate on their tasks – not on the handling of the application, the main challenge is its adaptation to the context. A possible solution is smart adaptation. Consequently, developers need to know the limits of both context and systems and must be aware of mobile end users different interaction. In this paper, we follow the hypothesis that simple user interfaces enhance performance and we report about some lessons learned during the design, development and evaluation of a smart, adaptive user interface for an e-Business application.

1 INTRODUCTION

For mobile applications, there is growing recognition for intelligent user interfaces offering products that are highly attuned to the user’s ever changing context (Marca et al., 2012), (El-Bakry et al., 2010). Consequently, User interfaces (UIs) have become an essential part in the development of mobile applications (apps). End users expect not only well designed but also intuitively operable and simple and at the same time powerful UI’s. Current smartphones and tablets, for example, often provide a large touchscreen for most of the user input. A successful UI must satisfy the expectations of the end users, when they intuitively touch the screen.

Mobile devices are meanwhile standard equipment for mobile workers, who are increasingly requiring access to services similar to their corporate services as they move to new locations, without having to configure their working environment explicitly (Badidi and Esmahi, 2010), i.e. e-Business applications must be context aware and able to adapt to changing environments (Abowd et al., 1999), (van Sinderen et al., 2006).

However, mobile workers are often in very complex and hectic work places (Holzinger and Errath, 2007) and for those who work outdoors, potentially under rough conditions, it is particularly important to be supported by easy, quick and intuitive UI. Moreover, such workers are not necessarily computer literate; most of them from small and medium enterprises of high heterogeneity (Decker et al., 2006). In such areas the main challenge is to design the user interface in such a simple manner, that the end user can completely concentrate on his/hers task and not the device; at the same time not losing functionality.

What makes a UI simple? Expert end users might feel patronized by too simple user interfaces which hide advanced features, where at the same time novice end users are confused, overwhelmed and distracted by the complexity. Consequently, “simple” does not necessarily have the same meaning for all types of end users. Some might consider a simple UI as one which does not hide any features; others might consider a simple UI as one which does hide unimportant features.

One possible solution for this challenge is on smart adaptation (El-Bakry et al., 2010). Adaptive user interfaces are user interfaces which are modified dynamically in a way that the special demands/requirements/needs of individual end users are satisfied. Adaptive user interfaces can be used to present the end user a UI which is tailored to the
special needs of the end user (Germanakos P., 2009). Smart adaption means that adaptive user interfaces should not arbitrarily make certain parts less accessible by hiding functions in submenus. Instead the system should take the context into account for deciding which parts of the UI are currently needed and which are not.

The term context has many different meanings (Yuan-Kai, 2004, Schmidt, 2000) and includes the end user’s experience, special abilities of the users, current needs and feelings as well as environmental factors (surrounding light, noise, location, …) and the system’s or the device’s current state; (Schmidt, 2000) called the latter “situational context”.

Often the importance of time is neglected, when referring to the context. According to Schmidt et al. (1999) the term context is defined as “that which surrounds, and gives meaning to something else”. All relevant contextual factors should be taken into account when designing adaptive user interfaces.

For getting information about the situational context a large amount of sensors is available in current smartphones and tablet computers. However, one of the big challenges in this area is to determine the variables used as basis for developing different adaptions (Germanakos P., 2009). Consequently, the designer needs to know the limits of context and systems that mobile end-users interact differently (Holzinger and Errath, 2007).

Today location is mostly used for determining the environmental context. But location-awareness is only one part of context-awareness (Schmidt et al., 1999). Combined data from different sensors can give a more holistic understanding of the current context (Gellersen et al., 2002).

The goal of applying smart context-based adaption is to enhance the end-users performance. Performance usually relates to the speed and the accuracy a certain task can be accomplished by the end-user. In other words enhancing the performance of end users means that end users are able to perform a task in a less amount of time and/or with fewer errors. But the key question is: can simpler user interfaces which were created using smart adaption enhance the performance of end users? The assumption is that smart adaption for simplifying user interfaces which meet the special requirements of the current context does enhance the performance and try to support this statement by conducting an experiment. Hiding unused fields in forms or adapting the form to the current context (e.g. pre-selection and adaption of the expected format of zip-code fields based on the device’s location) might speed up data entry, for example.

Within this paper we compare the performance and the acceptance of an adaptive user interface (AUI) to a non-adaptive user interface (non-AUI). As contextual information the application’s state is taken into account. Based on previous inputs the application’s state is changed.

The goal of this paper is to point out the advantages and disadvantages of smart adaption and the special importance of smart adaption in mobile applications. The paper also gives an overview of the current situation in terms of context-sensitive UIs in the area of smartphone and tablet applications from the lessons learned during cooperation with an e-Business company.

2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

There are many potential sources for collecting contextual information. Regarding the state of the application or the user’s input can be one piece of the puzzle. Another piece includes the environmental context. Current smartphones and tablet computers have a large amount of different sensors to “sense” their environment, starting from location sensors and accelerometers up to temperature sensors and light sensors. However, one challenge is to give the bare sensor data a meaning (Schmidt et al., 1999). What does it mean if a brightness sensor reports 20 per cent lightness and an acoustic noise sensor reports a sound pressure level of 20 dB? These values must be translated to a higher-level contextual meaning such as “indoors/outdoors”, “engaged in conversation”, “in a meeting” so that the application can react accordingly. Koripaa et al. (2003) present a framework for the Symbian platform which implements such a mapping from low-level sensor data to a high-level representation of context.

Instead of just using snapshots of the current sensor data analysing time series of sensor data can be useful for forming higher-level contexts (Himberg et al., 2001).

2.1 Sensor Usage

Looking at the permissions Android applications request, we can see that on a phone with 237 different, randomly selected apps for different purposes (including games) 69 (29.1%) require permissions for accessing fine or coarse location data such as GPS data or location data from the
cellular network, 29 (12.2 %) access the camera for recording images (including barcode scans) or videos, 13 (5.5 %) access the Bluetooth module, 12 (5.1 %) record audio, four (1.7 %) require access to NFC technologies (RFID reader) and 203 (85.7 %) require full access to the internet. However, we have to keep in mind that some apps need the internet access permission just for downloading advertisement. This means that the number of applications actually needing internet access for their main functionality is slightly lower.

The fact that more than 29 % of the tested apps access location data supports the statement by (Schmidt, 2000) that location is a concept that is well understood. Apps for displaying the public transport schedule, for example, make use of the location data for create an ordered list of nearest bus stops. Within the study NFC was mostly used for scanning RFID tags which inform the app about the situational context. Using fixed tags in different rooms, for example, informs the app in which room the device currently is. This can be used, for example, to mute the phone when entering the conference room. Krishnamurthy et al. (2006) show the possibilities of the NFC technology in combination with mobile phones.

The camera and audio recording devices are often used for replacing manual text input. Avoiding manual text input is recommended wherever possible as applications that require text input annoy users (Longoria, 2001).

An Internet connection in combination with sensors can be used to download more information about the current context, such as information about the current location, and therefore may improve the adaption of the user interface.

A similar analysis of the usage of sensors was made by investigating Austria’s 27 top-ranked Android applications (excluding games). The popularity ranking is determined by Google using a secret ranking algorithm. Certainly, the ranking is influenced by the user's current location. Therefore Austria-related apps could be found in the ranking, such as the OEAMTC app (Austrian automobile club) or the Krone.at or Kleine Zeitung app (the app of popular Austrian newspapers). Other investigated apps include YouTube, Google Maps, Facebook, Skype, WhatsApp Messenger, Barcode Scanner, Shazam, wetter.com, TuneIn Radio and the IMDb app. One third of the investigated apps requires or allows using a user account in order to receive personalized information. More than 75 per cent of the investigated apps use an internet connection for their main functionality. This means that apps which try to access the internet just for downloading advertisement did not count. More than 60 per cent of the apps using the internet are not working at all without network access. The remaining apps using the internet are usable without internet connection, but often only with limited functionality or cached data.

22 per cent of the investigated apps use the geo-location hardware capabilities either for their main functionality (map applications) or for prefilling input controls so that the end user does not have to type or select his/her current location by himself/herself. 18.5 per cent of the apps use the built-in camera to scan barcodes or QR tags in order to speed up user input.

Buttons, Lists, Text input controls are the most frequently used controls in current popular smartphone applications. Tabs are often used to structure screen contents. Context menus and gestures are less frequently used. One reason might be that they are often overlooked by the end-users as there is no visual clue that they are available.

2.2 Adaptive versus Adaptable Uis

We have to differentiate between adaptive and adaptable user interfaces. Adaptable UIs are adapted by the software developers at design or implementation time manually while adaptive software adapts itself at runtime automatically based on the dynamic user profile and contextual data gained from the end-user or the environment.

Easily adaptable UIs make it possible for enterprises to customize the UI of an application without extra effort such as time and cost. Through the process of customization, enterprise software is built on a framework which allows creating adaptable UIs tailored to the needs of the customer by combining existing components of the whole system. In addition, mash-ups (i.e. web application hybrids) allow end-users to customize a UI by re-combining existing UI components (widgets) to a more personalized UI. Such a customized UI allows end users to focus on their special needs. Taptu (http://www.taptu.com) is a popular social network aggregation application which makes use of UI mash-ups.

On the other hand, adaptive UIs enable the provision of dynamic and simpler UIs appropriate for the current context of use. As stated before, the hypothesis is that simple UIs enhance performance. But what does performance exactly mean and how can performance be measured on mobile devices? Better performance not only means less time in
execution of a certain task, but also that a lower error rate will occur accordingly. On mobile as well as on desktop devices the performance can be measured by the time needed for a certain task to be performed as well as to what extent the task was accomplished. One of the main challenges when measuring performance on mobile devices is the screen and input capturing because of the lack of tools, computational power and storage capacity. Also, touchscreen features are harder to track than other input methods such as the ones from the keyboard. Usually adaptive UIs are designed in a modular way where single independent components can be combined forming a totally new end-product.

2.3 Context-aware Software

The idea of context-awareness is not new. Schilit et al. (1994) introduced context-awareness for ubiquitous computing. However, the capabilities of mobile devices have changed drastically since 1994.

Nowadays smartphones with powerful processors and large, bright touch screens can be found in the pockets of many professionals, students, and even children. Software providing different modes for different user groups is available, such as ArcheoApp (Holzinger et al., 2011), which provides modes for students, tourists and children as tourists have other needs than people who use the app for learning. The topic context awareness and adaptation in mobile learning is also discussed in Yuan-Kai (2004). Schmidt (2000) describe an application for PalmPilot called Context NotePad. They also define the term implicit human-computer interaction which describes the concept of interaction based on situational context rather than on explicit GUI manipulation.

Comprehensive user profiles where also visual, cognitive, and emotional-processing parameters are included may improve the performance of adapted Web-based content. Evaluation results demonstrate the effectiveness of incorporating human factors in Web-based personalized environments (Germanakos et al., 2009).

Text input is widely used for interacting with software although it should be avoided (Longoria, 2001). Therefore, it should be made less annoying as possible. Adaptive soft (on-screen) keyboards, such as the default keyboards used by Android and iOS, support text entry by changing their buttons based on the expected text input type. For enabling this feature, software developers must define an expected input type for text boxes (e.g. “text”, “email”, “number”). Based on this contextual metadata the keyboard layout is adapted in a way that symbols which are not likely to be used are replaced by other, more likely needed symbols or characters. This works not only for native mobile applications but also for web pages using HTML5.

According to the “engadget” Weblog (Melanson, 2010) Microsoft developed a hardware keyboard which has an adaptive keyboard layout, similar to the mentioned soft keyboards on current smartphones and tablets.

3 EXPERIMENT

An experiment was designed and conducted to measure the performance and the acceptance of an adaptive user interface in contrast to a non-adaptive user interface on mobile devices in order to test the hypothesis that that simpler user interfaces created by smart adaption enhance the performance of end users (Figure 1). Adaptive systems employ adaptivity with various techniques, i.e. manipulating the link structure or by altering the presentation of information, based on a basis of a dynamic understanding of the individual user, represented in an explicit user model. However, adaptation effects vary from one system to another (i.e. educational hypermedia, on-line info systems, retrieval systems, institutional hypermedia and systems for managing personalized view in information spaces). In the current study we have utilized adaptivity techniques under the following considerations: The adaptation is made by regarding the current state of the application, i.e. the previous input. The input button array is adapted by reducing the selection space, i.e. only offering appropriate options in current context (Schmidt, 2000).

For the experiment a smartphone application named AdaptiveCalc for the Android operating system was developed. The application is a mathematical calculator for basic mathematical expressions. The user interface (Figure 1) mainly consists of (a) a TextView (an area to display text) for displaying the entered mathematical expression at the top of the screen, (b) another TextView for displaying the result and (c) an array of buttons which - when pressed – append the pictured number, function, operator, or symbol to the mathematical expression and display the new expression in (a). If the currently displayed expression is valid (e.g. balanced parenthesis, all binary operators having two operands, and other criteria) the result is calculated and displayed immediately in (b). Otherwise “Invalid Expression” is displayed.
Two different versions of the button array area (c) were implemented: a non-adaptive version and an adaptive version. On first start of the application a random UI is selected. In a message box the user can decide by unchecking a checkbox not to participate in the experiment. In the preferences screen the user can choose to switch the user interface from adaptive to non-adaptive or vice-versa.

There was a choice to be made when designing the experiment whether to let the user make the decision of choosing the user interface or to disallow the change of the UI. The reasons for the decision to allow the user to change the UI were the following. First, by letting the user choose the user’s UI preferences can be found out. If users use a certain UI more often it is likely that the more often used UI is the one which is better accepted by the users. Secondly, as the app should be distributed via the Android Market, the goal was to make the app attractive for as many potential end users as possible. Restricting the functionality to one UI, however, does not support the attractiveness of an application.

Using this model of letting the end-user choose the desired UI might, however, bias the performance measurements. The knowledge of using the adaptive or the non-adaptive user interface might influence the behaviour of the end-users and lead to unnatural typing behaviour.

The goal of the experiment is to find out the favoured UI by the end users and to take and to compare performance measures, keeping in mind the biasing issues mentioned above.

The adaptation is the modification of the keyboard layout in AUI mode, depending on the current mathematical expression. More precisely, only the last character (digit, operator, symbol) of the current mathematical expression is used for determining what keyboard layout to show. Only certain characters (digits, operators, symbols) can follow certain characters.

### 3.1 Test Users

The application was published on the Android market. Anyone interested could and still can download and use the application. Measurements are taken automatically during normal operation of the calculator. These measurements are sent to a web service via Internet which stores the collected results for subsequent analysis.

End users are informed about the background measurement activities via the app description and can disable the measurements without affecting the features of the calculator.

### 3.2 Collecting Results

The following measurements are taken: Pressed buttons, time between button presses, selected mode (adaptive or non-adaptive), and result of the calculation.

A string of the form

\[
<\text{ui}\text{mode}>(;<\text{ms}>;<\text{button}>)+;<\text{ms}>;<\text{result}>
\]

is recorded for each session. A session starts when bringing the calculator activity into view or when starting a new calculation (expression) and ends when the activity is left by the user or when the entered expression is cleared. \(<\text{ui}\text{mode}>(\text{ui}\text{mode})\) is the placeholder for a string representing the current mode (auiport (AUI portrait), auiland (AUI landscape), or nonaui (non-AUI)), \(<\text{button}>(\text{button})\) is a string representing the pressed button and \(<\text{ms}>(\text{ms})\) is the timestamp of the key press. The last \(<\text{ms}>\) represents the time of clearing the expression. \(<\text{result}>(\text{result})\) is either the string \(\text{ok}\) or \(\text{nan}\) (not a number).

After a session has ended, the recorded session measurement string is sent to the web service if a network connection is available. Otherwise, the string is stored in a local database on the device for later transmission. The next time the app tries to send a session measurement string to the web service it also checks the local database for previously unsent data.

Within a time period of approximately one month 408 single calculations (sessions) were recorded. For analysis of the results all 408 single session strings (records) were separated into four groups. The first group only contains records from the adaptive user interface (portrait) version; the
second group only contains records from the adaptive user interface (landscape) version; the third group only contains records from the non-adaptive user interface version; the fourth group contains invalid records.

Then, certain values were calculated from the collected records in order to evaluate the end-user’s performance and acceptance of the user interface types.

As performance measures the average time between button presses was calculated for the single user interface types as well as the error rate.

For evaluating the user acceptance interviews were conducted and the number of calculations made with each user interface was counted.

## 4 RESULTS

Both the user acceptance and the performance of each user interface were evaluated during the experiment. The acceptance was evaluated by interviews and by recording the number of calculations made with each of the user interfaces. The performance was measured by calculating the average time between button presses (TBBP) on the one hand and by calculating the error rate by counting the number of clear button presses on the other hand.

Figure 2 and Figure 3 show the cumulated values of the medians of the TBBPs and Error rate for the AUI (portrait) and the non-AUI. The figures illustrate that after about 240 calculations both values stabilized around the presented values (i.e., the cumulated values after 408 calculations).

### 4.1 User Acceptance

#### 4.1.1 Interviews

Interviews with six test users were conducted for gaining information about the strengths and the weaknesses of the single user interfaces. Before the interviewing the six test users three of the test users were asked to do several calculations with the non-adaptive UI, the other three test users were asked to do the same calculations with the adaptive UI (Figure 4). When finished, the UI was switched and the users were asked to do several more calculations with the other user interface. The predefined calculations included simple summations as well as calculations using functions.

During the interviews the users were asked to describe which user interface they liked more and why. Four users reported to prefer the AUI, one user reported to prefer the non-AUI, and one did not decide for one certain UI. Table 1 summarizes the thoughts of the users.
Table 1: Summary of the user’s answers during the interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUI (+)</th>
<th>The buttons are larger</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AUI (+)</td>
<td>I like that you only see what is currently relevant.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUI (-)</td>
<td>It is confusing that the buttons (dis)appear.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-AUI (+)</td>
<td>All buttons are always visible – it is clear what functions are available.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-AUI (-)</td>
<td>Buttons are quite small.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 Number of Calculations

During the test period 408 calculations were reported to the server. 198 of the counted calculations were made with the AUI in portrait mode (8 in landscape mode) while 133 calculations were made with the non-AUI (only portrait mode possible). 69 calculations were filtered out because of very short and/or invalid calculations (for example when users only entered an opening parenthesis or only one number). These numbers are illustrated in Figure 5.

Including the invalid calculations 249 sessions were started in AUI (portrait mode (61 %), 9 in AUI (landscape mode (2.2 %), and 150 in non-AUI mode (36.8 %)).

As on the first run of the application the user interface was selected randomly with an equally distributed likelihood, it can either be concluded that users tend to switch to and stay in the AUI mode or that the users which started with the AUI had significantly more to calculate or simply preferred calculating with AdaptiveCalc than with another calculator.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Total number of calculations} & = 198 \\
\text{AUI (portrait)} & = 8 \\
\text{non-AUI} & = 69 \\
\text{AUI (landscape)} & = 133 \\
\text{not considered} & = 69
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 5: Total number of calculations with AdaptiveCalc.

4.2 Performance

As performance measures both the error rate \( e \) and the typing speed was used. The error rate \( e \) was calculated in number of clear button presses \( |c| \) divided by the total number of button presses \( |b| \).

\[
e = \frac{|c|}{|b|} \quad (1)
\]

The typing speed \( s \) was determined by calculating the average of the medians of the times between single button presses \( b \) of each single recorded calculation \( R \).

\[
s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\vert R \vert} \hat{x}(R_i)}{\vert R \vert} \quad (2)
\]

where

\[
R_i = \{t_{b_2} - t_{b_1}, ..., t_{b_{\vert R_i \vert}} - t_{b_{\vert R_i \vert - 1}}\}
\]

and \( \hat{x} \) refers to the median function. \( t_{b_j} \) refers to the time when button press \( j \) was made during a calculation \( R \). \( b_1 \) denotes the first button press within one calculation, \( b_{\vert R \vert} \) denotes the last button press within one calculation. The difference \( t_{b_{j+1}} - t_{b_j} \) is the time between single button presses (TBBP) \( b_j \) and \( b_{j+1} \). One single calculation is also called record and identified by a unique index \( i \). \( \vert R \vert \) represents the total number of calculations (records).

Using the median has the advantage that spike values are flattened. Spike values might result from thinking times or waiting times of the end users. These times must not be considered in the performance evaluation.

The time between single button presses was used as performance measure because the single tasks and therefore the total time needed for one calculation differed as there were no predefined tasks to accomplish for the end users.

The reason for using the median for the calculation of the times between the button presses within one record was to filter out spikes (Figure 6).

Spikes of large values are often caused by thinking times or reading times for copying values from paper sheets. Additionally, very large TBBPs (> 5000 ms or 3500 ms, see later) were ignored. Very large TBBPs are associated with long thinking times or breaks by the user but certainly not with looking for certain buttons.

Incomplete calculations were filtered out. The following example shows a record of an incomplete calculation. The user only entered an opening parenthesis and then pressed the clear button two times. “nan” (not a number) in the end of the line
Figure 6: Comparison of Average and Median of TBBPs. The average time in s of the median times between single button presses (TBBPs) were calculated as described above. The results were 836.1 ms for AUI (portrait) mode, 947.5 ms for non-AUI mode (Figure 7). The values for AUI (landscape) mode are not included as there were only eight results collected. In average the TBBPs were 111 ms lower in AUI mode than in non-AUI mode. Therefore an average calculation including 10 button presses is performed more than one second faster in AUI mode than in non-AUI mode. A cut-off of 5000 ms means that all TBBPs larger than 5000 ms were ignored as larger TBBPs can be considered as thinking times or calculation breaks.

When using a lower cutoff of 3500 ms the values were 803.4 ms for AUI (port) and 917.9 ms for non-AUI.

4.2.2 Error Rate

The error rate (number of clear button presses divided by total number of button presses) was slightly higher in AUI mode: 0.069 in AUI (portrait) mode and 0.062 in non-AUI mode (Figure 8). This means that on 100 button presses the clear button is in average pressed 6.9 times in AUI mode, while in non-AUI mode clear is only pressed 6.2 times.

Looking at the number of “perfect calculations” (calculations where no “clear” button press was involved, except for clearing the whole calculation in the end of the calculation) the AUI (portrait) UI has 83.33 % perfect calculations while the non-AUI only has a number of 79.7 % perfect calculations (Figure 9).
4 DISCUSSION

The results of the experiment indicate that there is a higher acceptance for the AUI amongst the test users than for the non-AUI. Additionally the overall typing speed with the AUI was higher than with the non-AUI.

One limitation of this study is the assumption, that the relative clear button press count is higher in the non-AUI mode – this was not validated. The results for the relative clear button press count are even slightly higher for the AUI. A possible correlation between the higher typing speed and the slightly higher error rate is subject for further investigation.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Mobile UIs must be friendlier enabling active involvement (information acquisition), giving the control to the user (system controllability), providing easy means of navigation and orientation (navigation), tolerating users’ errors, supporting system-based and context-oriented correction of users’ errors, and finally enabling customization of multi-media and multi-modal UIs to particular user needs. Adaptivity is a particular functionality that embraces the abovementioned considerations by alleviating navigational difficulties by distinguishing between interactions of different users within the information space.

In this regards, this paper describes a smartphone application (a mathematical calculator for basic mathematical expressions), namely AdaptiveCalc, developed for the Android operating system. The application employs two UI states, one adaptive and one non-adaptive version, and has been evaluated by users using a within approach. The results of the experiment suggest that the overall acceptance of the simple AUI is better than the acceptance of the complex non-AUI. Also the typing speed when using the AUI was better in average. The overall performance of the AUI at least was not worse than when using the non-AUI.

6 FUTURE WORK

For further investigations, we can think of more sophisticated adaptions, such as adaptions based on the application’s context, i.e. adaptions based on other apps the user installs on his/her device. Users who also use apps for measuring distances, for example, might require more frequent access to trigonometric functions than the average user.

In future work it is not only planned to address the previously mentioned issues with the experiment, but also to apply the described approach in more complex environments. Furthermore, it is planned to evaluate the current study by comparing the current adaptive approach with traditional mobile applications to show the validity of the experiment.

More open questions include how can we create effective and useful mobile systems from a user-centric perspective focusing on user goals, attitudes and behaviours? Furthermore, how can we keep UIs simple given the increasing complexity of information spaces and contexts? Next steps of this research include further experimentation with the current application in order to extract more concrete results with regards to the adaptivity control factors and the evaluation metrics utilized. Furthermore, the incorporation of human factors into the whole process of mobile adaptive UIs design, i.e. based on the theory of individual differences, reconstructing a content based on users’ cognitive styles (i.e. verbalizer/imager, wholist/analyst) can help them to absorb information faster and more efficiently regulating at the same time their cognitive load. Therefore, it is a promising challenge to identify design guidelines and adaptation mechanisms that will help us to create UIs adapted to users’ unique cognitive typologies, minimizing the complexity (in terms of content presentation or navigation) and increasing usability during a task execution time. In such a way, users will be able to maintain the expected performance and accuracy while at the same time enhancing their experience.

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