Adapting Heuristic Evaluation to Information Visualization  
A Method for Defining a Heuristic Set by Heuristic Grouping

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Abstract: Heuristic evaluation technique is a classical evaluation method in Human-Computer Interaction area. Researchers and software developers broadly use it, given that it is fast, cheap and easy to use. Using it in other areas demands creating a new heuristic set able to identify common problems of these areas. Information Visualization (InfoVis) researchers commonly use this technique with the original usability heuristic set proposed by Nielsen, which does not cover many relevant aspects of InfoVis. InfoVis literature presents sets of guidelines that cover InfoVis concepts, but it does not present most of them as heuristics, or they cover much specific concepts. This work presents a method for defining a set of InfoVis heuristics for use in heuristic evaluation. The method clusters heuristics and guidelines found in a literature review, and creates a new heuristic set based on each group. As a result, we created a new set of 15 generic heuristics, from a set of 62 ones, which we hypothesize that will help evaluators to take into account a broad set of visualization aspects during evaluation with possibly less cognitive effort.

1 INTRODUCTION

Information Visualization (InfoVis) has many intersections with Human-Computer Interaction (HCI). Both areas study interaction between user and system. HCI focuses on improving system interface usability, whereas InfoVis also focuses on an appropriate definition of visual structures and views. Besides, both areas have evaluation procedures. HCI presents usability tests, heuristic evaluation, cognitive walkthrough (Nielsen and Mack, 1994) and semiotic inspection (de Souza et al., 2006). All these methods aim to assess user interface usability, i.e., characteristics such as learnability, efficiency, and user satisfaction. InfoVis also needs to evaluate if a visualization is useful and improves users’ cognition, enabling them to obtain more information about data than if one represents the same data in a raw format (such as a table).

There are two categories of InfoVis evaluation techniques: empirical and analytic (Mazza, 2009). This work focuses on an analytic technique called heuristic evaluation (Nielsen and Mack, 1994). It uses 3 to 5 evaluators that search for usability problems related to a set of heuristics. The original heuristic set proposed by Nielsen and Mack embraces usability aspects of a user interface. This set has the following heuristics: visibility of system status; match between system and the real world; user control and freedom; consistency and standards; error prevention; recognition rather than recall; flexibility and efficiency of use; aesthetic and minimalist design; help users recognize, diagnose, and recover from errors; and help and documentation. This technique is fast, cheap and easy to apply, therefore other areas consider it as interesting to use. Indeed, it is commonly adapted for other areas, which make changes in the heuristic set due to their specificities.

Mazza (2009) points out that the difficulty of creating a heuristic set for visualizations reduces the use of this technique for evaluating InfoVis systems. Nielsen’s heuristics are still relevant for InfoVis applications, but they are not enough for dealing with some aspects, such as evaluating visual mapping and data manipulation.

Despite of this difficulty, there are efforts to adapt heuristic evaluation to InfoVis. We found heuristic sets that are specific for InfoVis, but we observed some problems with them. First of all, only some works use the term “heuristic”. They present guidelines, sometimes without an imperative sentence (not even in their description), which we believe that is necessary to ease the use of heuristics during the evaluation procedure.
Besides, some sets focus only on specific characteristics, such as usability or statistical methods. Therefore, they do not cover a broad set of InfoVis problems. Finally yet importantly, as far as we know, most of these heuristic sets is not frequently used (except Nielsen’s one).

Therefore, this work presents a method for defining a set of InfoVis heuristics for use in heuristic evaluation. The results of applying this method were 15 heuristics that group a set of 62 heuristics available in the literature, which covers many aspects of InfoVis. Our hypothesis is that grouping those heuristics under a set of generic heuristics will help evaluators to take into account a broad set of visualization aspects during evaluation with possibly less cognitive effort.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents works found in literature which have sets for InfoVis (and further used to creating the heuristic set), and also a review of works focused on creating heuristic sets for some areas; Section 3 describes our method for creating heuristics; Section 4 presents the proposed set; Section 5 concludes this paper and presents future works.

2 RELATED WORKS

There are several works in literature about heuristics sets, for different areas, and about evaluation in InfoVis. In this section, we focus on works relative to InfoVis heuristics, in which we based the construction of our heuristic set. We also present some works about creating heuristic sets for many different areas.

2.1 InfoVis Sets

We found in our literature review that, in five years, only Forsell and Johansson (2010) present explicitly an InfoVis heuristic set. Therefore, we expanded our research to include older works that they cite. In these works, we found guidelines, guidance, criteria, tasks, and some important aspects about the area.

Shneiderman (1996) proposes guidelines in a mantra format, i.e., some aspects that visualization design and evaluation must consider; e.g., filters, zoom, and details-on-demand.

Amar and Stasko (2004) present a framework for design and evaluation in InfoVis, focused only in statistical concepts, like correlations and causation data. Their proposed guidance includes: expose uncertainty, formulate cause and effect, and confirm hypotheses.

Freitas et al. (2002) show criteria to evaluate visualization techniques. Among these criteria, some are more related to usability (e.g., state transition; orientation and help; information coding), while others are related to visualization concepts (e.g., data set reduction; navigation and querying; spatial organization). Criteria definition also appears in the work of Scapin and Bastien (1997). Again, two groups of criteria can be noted, one related to usability (e.g., immediate feedback, user control, user’s experience, consistency), and other to visualization concepts (e.g., information density, and grouping and distinguishing items by location and format).

Finally, two works define heuristic sets. Zuk and Carpendale (2006) call their guidelines as heuristics. Most of the proposed heuristics are directly related to visual concepts, like preattentive properties and Gestalt principles. Some heuristics presented in the set are: do not expect a reading order from color; quantitative assessment requires position or size variation; color perception varies with size of colored item; provide multiple levels of detail.

The work of Forsell and Johansson (2010) follows a different way to present a heuristic set. They create a new set based on the five previously commented works, plus the Nielsen’s heuristics. The process occurs in some steps: first, all the chosen heuristics are used to evaluate a set of problems (defined by authors), where each heuristic is related to some problem. They use a rating scale to classify how well a heuristic explain a problem. At the end of this step, the heuristics that better explain the most problems are selected to integrate the proposed heuristic set. This process obeys some conditions; e.g., each heuristic must explain problems yet not related to the previous chosen heuristics. The result is a set of 10 heuristics that explain 86.7% of the problems set up by authors.

2.2 Other Sets

The characteristics of Heuristic Evaluation (being cheap and fast) draws attention for use in other areas. In some cases, the evaluation remains in its original form, without changes. However, as discussed previously, in other cases the usability heuristics proposed by Nielsen are not enough to identify all the problems of the area, demanding the use of specific heuristics. In literature, there are several heuristic sets for specific purposes, such as human-robot interaction (Clarkson and Arkin, 2007; Weiss et al., 2010), software for children (MacFarlane and Pasiali, 2005), smartphones (Inostroza et al., 2016), mobiles...
During the creation of a set, most works do not follow a standard method. Authors apply and combine several techniques for creating heuristics, according to their need or interest.

We did a literature review to identify techniques for creating heuristic sets. Our scope was only the works that proposed a new set, and we grouped them according to their techniques.

We identified three common steps for a method whose goal is to create these sets. First, the method adopts one or more techniques to create the set of specific heuristics. The second step is to use this set in a heuristic evaluation, aiming to assess if the set is good for finding problems. After a result analysis, if the result is not satisfactory, the method repeats the process, in order to refine the set. These steps are not standardized; one can perform them in different ways, but always focused on presenting a final set. Some works have more intermediate steps that aid set creation or evaluation.

The main difference between the works happens in the first step, which defines the heuristic set. In this step, we identified two groups of techniques for heuristic creation: using human resources, and extracting information from literature and other documents. It is important to note that one may apply both techniques simultaneously.

Techniques based on human resources employ people in order to establish the heuristic set. These people can be experts of the area or users of a related system. Experts have knowledge (personal or professional) about the area, and/or usability, and/or system interfaces. They can aid the task of choose heuristics in several ways, e.g., participating on brainstorming reunions (Machado Neto and Pimentel, 2013), answering questionnaire (Mohamed Omar, Yusof and Sabri, 2010; Inostroza et al., 2013), and rating heuristics (Kientz et al., 2010). Other human resources that can be used are users of a system related to the area, and information to create the heuristics can be obtained, e.g., by user observation (Geerts and De Grooff, 2009).

In the other hand, techniques based on literature review embrace analysis of information found in literature and specific documents of the area. One may use this information to transform guidelines in heuristics (Jaferian et al., 2011) or to create heuristics using a set of problems (Papaloukas, Patriarcheas and Xenos, 2009; Pinelle et al., 2009; Park, Goh and So, 2014). Other way is to use a specific methodology based on literature exploration (Rusu et al., 2011; Muñoz and Chalегre, 2012; Quinones, Rusu and Roncagliolo, 2014; Inostroza et al., 2016).

3 METHOD

The proposed method for this work aims to create a small set of heuristics for InfoVis, which cover the other sets found in literature. We considered several methods for heuristic creation, and we picked one according to the available resources.

Our research team have few experts in InfoVis and HCI, and we opted by not contacting other experts in this phase of our research. Therefore, we discarded techniques based on human resources to create heuristics. On the other hand, there are several ways to use information found in literature (including the use of preexisting sets), and this was the approach we chose.

For the meaning of the method, we called “heuristics” all the guidelines, guidance and criteria used. Therefore, we define the proposed method as follows:

1. Select a group of works (preferably for the target area), which have relevant heuristics;
2. List the heuristics found into these works;
3. Group these heuristics according to their pairwise similarity;
4. Name and describe each group, in order that this name be used as a broad heuristic (relative to the group);
5. Put the heuristics of the previous step together, forming a set.

We hypothesize that the amount of heuristics should be small; otherwise, it would demand cognitive effort of the evaluator when applying heuristic evaluation. Indeed, our literature review (Section 2.1) found sets whose size is between six and eighteen heuristics. Besides, equal heuristics or heuristics based on a same concept may happen in this method. Both situations demand a way to reduce this amount, and justify the need of any concept may happen in this method. Both situations demand a way to reduce this amount, and justify the need of Step 3. We defined the following way to perform this step:

1. Compare all pairs of heuristics;
2. Set a similarity grade for each pair of heuristics, based on how the research team understands the heuristics;
3. Create a similarity matrix with these grades;
4. Reorder this similarity matrix for grouping similar heuristics.
We defined the similarity grade as one of these four possible values: 0 = not similar; 0.33 = somewhat similar; 0.66 = resembling, but not equal; 1 = equal.

4 RESULTS

We followed the method presented at previous section. In the first two steps, we chose 62 heuristics of the six different works presented at Section 2.1: five from InfoVis, plus the Nielsen’s original set.

In Step 3, we created a similarity matrix of heuristics. In order to help us to identify groups, we inserted this matrix into Matrix Reordering Analyzer tool (Silva et al., 2014) and reordered it by an algorithm based on Traveling Salesman Problem. The result was a heatmap that visually clustered most of the similar heuristics (Figure 1). We used these clusters as an initial version of heuristic groups.

Next, we refined them and tried to insert into a group each heuristic that was isolated. This situation happens because these heuristics showed no similarity with other heuristics. However, it was possible to include these heuristics in other groups, thinking in the broad characteristics of the group.

An example of this scenario is the “extract” heuristic. It recommends that users must have ways to extract visualizations in alternative files (such as file format to print or sending by e-mail). During the process to input the similarity grades, this heuristic
did not present similarity with other heuristics. However, when we analyzed the groups already created, we perceived that it was possible to include the “extract” heuristic in “Flexibility and Efficiency” group, because one characteristic of this group is to supply users with alternative ways to realize a same task or action.

Other situation we observed during group creation was to identify single heuristics that belongs to two different groups. An example is the “grouping and distinguishing items by format” heuristic, which we related both to “Relations” group (because it tells about grouping similar items and elements) and to “Visual Properties” group (due to using format as a property to distinguish items, referring to preattentive properties and Gestalt principles).

Therefore, we identified 15 groups after this analysis. We present each group as follows: group name (and hence a heuristic for the set), brief description, and a detailed one. The Appendix lists the heuristics (originated from literature review) that belongs to each group.

Group A – Multidimensionality: allow users to visualize three or more dimensions simultaneously. Data often have several dimensions (a.k.a. attributes or variables). The system should support showing several dimensions simultaneously in the visualization, if the users want. In other words, the system should provide scalability with regard to dimensionality. Certain visualization techniques behave well to show one or two dimensions, but in some cases may be necessary to provide complex techniques, that allow viewing more dimensions. However, it is important that the representation of several dimensions does not confuse the data presentation and understanding.

Group B – Data Characterization: assist data understanding. Visualization systems should present clearly to users auxiliary information about the data set, such as, which are the dependent and independent dimensions, and the existence of missing data. The user should be able to identify main domain dimensions, causation data, and uncertainty, in order to have a better understanding of data set. However, in some cases, users may need to have experience in the domain to realize this.

Group C – Data Manipulation: provide tools for data manipulation, such as filters and detailed view. Data set may be extensive. Therefore, visualization systems should provide tools to help users in data manipulation, e.g. filtering only relevant data and hiding the irrelevant ones, searching for specific information not present in visualization, or getting a detailed view upon an item.

Group D – Spatial Organization and Perspective: care the visualization overall layout, as well as provide change of perspective. The visualization overall layout directly influences the easiness of locating an information on a display. Avoid data occlusion, and place data marks in a logical order, in order to help users to locate a desired information. Other concerns are display limitations (like display size or maximum number of elements), and need to provide tools for perspective changing (such as zoom in and zoom out features).

Group E – Visual Properties: perform data mapping correctly, considering preattentive properties and Gestalt principles. Data mapping must be performed correctly, using color, size, shape, position, among others properties, to represent nominal, ordinal, and quantitative data. Take into account Gestalt principles in the visualization (e.g. proximity, similarity, and continuity).

Group F – Relations: allow view relations among data. Relations are important to data set understanding. Therefore, the system must help users to see existent relations among data, for example, by highlighting similar data or showing clusters. It is also important that the user knows which data dimensions determine a given relation.

Group G – Visual Clutter and Data Density: present only relevant information and elements. Systems must minimize user’s workload. They must display only relevant information and elements to the user. All irrelevant and superfluous information displayed will increase the user’s workload and draw attention. Excessive use of colors and contrast also can hamper data reading.

Group H – Real World Equivalency: use familiar signs to the user. All signs (codes, names, texts, figures, and icons) in the interface must be familiar to the user, and must have an expected meaning. Signs also should be clear for all the system users.

Group I – Visible Actions: make all possible actions visible. All actions that the user can realize in the system must be visible and easily identified, as well as the help resources and system instructions. The system must provide means to guide the user, if he does not know what to do, or aid him to choose the best option when several are available.

Group J – Consistency: the interface elements must be coherent. The system must follow the established standards, i.e., different interface elements must not have the same meaning. The system must preserve the meaning of similar elements in similar contexts.

Group K – Flexibility and Efficiency: provide accelerators and customization features. The system
must provide accelerators, which increase user interaction speed with the interface. Accelerators directly benefit experienced users. Examples of accelerators are shortcuts (e.g., allowing experienced users to use keys to quickly do something), interface customization according to user’s particular needs, and multiple options to do (e.g. extract the information displayed to different file formats). System efficiency is also a way to accelerate interaction, for example, by having conciseness in data input, or minimizing steps required to perform some action.

Group L – System Status and Feedback: notify users about the system status, and always provide quick and proper feedback. The system must always inform users about what is happening (status or tasks under execution). All the user actions must have response, given through a proper feedback given in a reasonable time.

Group M – User Control: enable full system control by user. The user must have full system control, and must be able to undo or redo any action (a history with all user’s actions may be used). Besides, the system must not execute any action without user permission.

Group N – Error Prevention: prevent error occurrence, eliminating error-prone conditions. The system must anticipate user’s errors, not allowing them to occur, even before the user execute them. Error prevention strategies include not allowing invalid entries and commands, and requiring user confirmation to an action.

Group O – Error Correction: inform users about errors occurred with clear messages and present means to correct these errors. If the user or the system do an error, the system must inform the user about it with clear and informative messages, detailing the reasons of the problems, as well as the available means to correct them.

Table 1 shows the final set of 15 proposed InfoVis heuristics.

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<tr>
<th>InfoVis Heuristic Set</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multidimensionality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data Characterization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data Manipulation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spatial Organization and Perspective</td>
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<tr>
<td>Visual Properties</td>
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<td>Relations</td>
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<td>Visual Clutter and Data Density</td>
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5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we proposed and used a method for creating a new set of InfoVis heuristics, based on grouping heuristics obtained from literature review. Our grouping strategy enabled us to create a set with 15 heuristics that summarizes 62 other heuristics from six previous works, most of them from InfoVis area and with distinct focus among each other. Our approach covered all these focuses and, at the same time, preserved the heuristic set small enough for use in a heuristic evaluation.

One limitation of our work is that reaching good evaluation results probably relies on evaluator’s experience in InfoVis, which could better understand terms and concepts of this area. Other limitation is that in the current stage of our research, we did not cover guidelines that some InfoVis classical books and usability papers present. A third point is that the similarity grades may be biased because only two researchers (the authors) defined them.

Future works aim to validate these heuristics by using them to evaluate a set of InfoVis systems, and by submitting them to a critical review of InfoVis experts, in order to refine the heuristic set.

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REFERENCES


APPENDIX

List of heuristics within each group:

**Group A – Multidimensionality:**
Multivariate explanation (Amar and Stasko, 2004)
Preserve data to graphic dimensionality; put the most data in the least space (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)
Cognitive complexity (Freitas et al., 2002)

**Group B – Data Characterization:**
Expose uncertainty; formulate cause and effect; determination of domain parameters; confirm hypothesis (Amar and Stasko, 2004)

**Group C – Data Manipulation:**
Filter; zoom; details-on-demand (Shneiderman, 1996)
Navigation and querying; data set reduction (Freitas et al., 2002)
Provide multiple levels of detail (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)

**Group D – Spatial Organization and Perspective:**
Spatial organization; limitations (Freitas et al., 2002)
Overview; zoom (Shneiderman, 1996)
Ensure visual variable has sufficient length; preattentive benefits increase with field of view (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)

**Group E – Visual Properties:**
Consider Gestalt Laws; do not expect a reading order from color; color perception varies with size of colored item; quantitative assessment requires position or size variation; consider people with color blindness (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)
Grouping and distinguishing items by location; grouping and distinguishing items by format (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)

**Group F – Relations:**
Concretize relationships (Amar and Stasko, 2004)
Relate (Shneiderman, 1996)
Grouping and distinguishing items by location; grouping and distinguishing items by format (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)

**Group G – Visual Clutter and Data Density:**
Aesthetic and minimalist design (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)
Cognitive complexity (Freitas et al., 2002)
Information density; legibility (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Remove the extraneous (ink); local contrast affects color & gray perception (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)

**Group H – Real World Equivalency:**
Significance of codes; compatibility (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Match between system and the real world (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)
Information coding (Freitas et al., 2002)
Integrate text wherever relevant (Zuk and Carpendale, 2006)

**Group I – Visible Actions:**
Prompting (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Recognition rather than recall; help and documentation (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)

**Group J – Consistency:**
Consistency (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Consistency and standards (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)

**Group K – Flexibility and Efficiency:**
Minimal actions; flexibility; conciseness; user’s experience (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Flexibility and efficiency of use (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)
Extract (Shneiderman, 1996)

**Group L – System Status and Feedback:**
Visibility of system status (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)
Immediate feedback; explicit user actions (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
State transition (Freitas et al., 2002)

**Group M – User Control:**
User control; explicit user actions (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
User control and freedom (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)
History (Shneiderman, 1996)
Orientation and help (Freitas et al., 2002)

**Group N – Error Prevention:**
Error protection; conciseness (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Error prevention (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)

**Group O – Error Correction:**
Quality of error messages; error correction (Scapin and Bastien, 1997)
Help users recognize, diagnose and recover from errors (Nielsen and Mack, 1994)