

Benevolent Deception in Human Computer Interaction

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ABSTRACT

Though it has been asserted that "good design is honest," [42] deception exists throughout human-computer interaction research and practice. Because of the stigma associated with deception—in many cases rightfully so—the research community has focused its energy on eradicating malicious deception, and ignored instances in which deception is positively employed. In this paper we present the notion of benevolent deception, deception aimed at benefiting the user as well as the developer. We frame our discussion using a criminology-inspired model and ground components in various examples. We assert that this provides us with a set of tools and principles that not only helps us with system and interface design, but that opens new research areas. After all, as Cockton claims in his 2004 paper "Value-Centered HCI" [13], "Traditional disciplines have delivered truth. The goal of HCI is to deliver value."



INTRODUCTION

DEFINING DEVEIT

DECEPTION IN HCL

THE MOTIVE

MENTAL MODEL VS. SYSTEM IMAGE

INDIVIDUAL VS. GROUP

INDIVIDUAL VS. GROUP

DESIGN GOAL VS. DESIGN GOAL

MIXED MOTIVE DECEPTIONS

THE MEANS

SYSTEM IMAGE DECEPTIONS

BEHAVIORAL DECEPTIONS

MENTAL MODEL DECEPTIONS

IMPLICATION FOR RESEARCH

THE OPPORTUNITY

GETTING CAUGHT

NOT GETTING CAUGHT

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

CONSTRUCTION OF DECEPTION AND ETHICS

CONDUCTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ARTICLES

Fuck Content	A Too-Perfect Picture	Over the Bridge
Crystal Goblet	A Man of Letters	The Web's Grain
A Typographic Discourse for the Distaff Side of Printing	In Defense of the Poor Image	A Vernacular Web
The Elements of Typographic Style	All Technology is Assistive	

INTRODUCTION

Users generally trust computer interfaces to accurately reflect system state. Reflecting that state dishonestly—through deception—is viewed negatively by users, rejected by designers, and largely ignored in HCI research. Many believe outright deception should not exist in good design. For example, many design guidelines assert: "Do not lie to your users" (e.g., [40, 45]) Misleading interfaces are usually attributed to bugs or poor design. However, in reality, deception often occurs both in practice and in research. We contend that deception often helps rather than harms the user, a form we term benevolent deception. However, the overloading of "deception" as entirely negative coupled with the lack of research on the topic, makes the application of deception as a design pattern problematic and ad hoc.

Benevolent deception is ubiquitous in real-world system designs, although it is rarely described in such terms. One example of benevolent deception can be seen in a robotic physical therapy system to help people regain movement following a stroke [8]. Here, the robot therapist provides stroke patients with visual feedback on the amount of force they exert. Patients often have self-imposed limits, believing, for example, that they can only exert a certain amount of force. The system helps patients overcome their perceptible limits by underreporting the amount of force the patient actually exerts and encouraging additional force.

The line between malevolent and benevolent deception is fuzzy when the beneficiary of the deception is ambiguous. For example, take the case of deception in phone systems to mask disruptive failure modes: The connection of two individuals over a phone line is managed by an enormous specialized piece of hardware known as an Electronic Switching System (ESS). The first such system, the 1ESS, was designed to provide reliable phone communication, but given the restrictions of early 1960s hardware, it sometimes had unavoidable, though rare, failures. Although the 1ESS knew when it failed, it was designed to connect the

As is the case with the 1ESS and placebo buttons, deception sometimes benefits the system designer, service provider, or business owner. However, this does not invalidate the fact that it might also help meet user needs. We believe that by not acknowledging that there is deception, and, more critically, that a line between beneficial and harmful deceptions might exist, research in the area is difficult to pursue—to the detriment of academics and practitioners alike.

A further example of benevolent deception are the "placebo buttons" that allow users to feel as though they have control over their environment when they actually do not. Cross-walk buttons, elevator buttons, and thermostats [33, 47] often provide no functionality beyond making their users feel as though they can affect their environment. Some of these buttons go far to provide the illusion of control; non-working thermostat buttons, for example, are sometimes designed to hiss when pressed [2]. In addition to providing the feeling of control, placebo buttons can signal the existence of a feature to the user. Non-working crosswalk buttons, for example, clearly convey to a pedestrian that a crosswalk exists.

Whether intentional or not, implicit or explicit, acknowledged or not, benevolent deceit exists in HCI. Nonetheless, little is known about the motivation, mechanisms, detectability, effectiveness, successes, failures, and ethics of this type of deception. Researchers have tiptoed around this taboo topic, concentrating instead on malevolent deception (e.g., malware or malicious software [14,17]) and unobjectionable forms of deception described using entertainment metaphors (e.g., magic or theater [32,54]). This limited view of deception does not capture its variety or ubiquity.

As we will see, one of the underlying reasons for the ubiquity of deception is that it can fill the many of the gaps and tensions that emerge with different design concerns (e.g., the good of the individual versus the good of the group), design goals (e.g., conflicting principles), or systems states (e.g., desired system performance versus actual system performance). In any situation where a poor fit exists between desire (e.g., the mental model or user expectations) and reality (e.g., the system itself) there is an opportunity to employ deception. This gap—which is extremely common—both motivates and

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- Deceit occurs when
1. an explicit or implicit claim, omission of information, or system action.
 2. mediated by user perception, attention, comprehension, prior knowledge, beliefs, or other cognitive activity.
 3. creates a belief about a system or one of its attributes.
 4. which is demonstrably false or unsubstantiated as true.
 5. where it is likely that the belief will affect behavior.
 6. of a substantial percentage of users.

Figure 1. A definition of deceit, based on [44].

It is further useful to distinguish between deceit that affects behavior directly or indirectly (by modifying the user's mental model). A test of this impact is whether a user would behave differently if they knew the truth. Though the line is fuzzy, this distinction allows us to separate abstraction from deception. Applying this thought experiment to deception interfaces, one might see that the 1ESS user who was connected to the wrong number might begin to blame and mistrust the system, the rehabilitation user may recalibrate what is on the screen and again be unwilling to push themselves, and so on. Though the line is fuzzy, this distinction allows us to separate abstraction (or simplification), in which user behavior is largely unchanged, from deception, in which it often is changed.

Building on behavioral and legal definitions introduced in earlier work [44] that deal with deceptive advertising, we put forth a working definition of deceit as it applies to HCI work in the Figure 1. Points 5 & 6, on substantial effect, are perhaps the most controversial, and are purposefully left ambiguous. How behavior is affected and what "substantial" means are left open, as there is likely no answer that works in every situation. A deceptive interface that causes physical harm in 1% of the user population may have a substantial effect, whereas an idempotent interface with a button that misleads significantly more users into clicking twice may not pass the substantial test.

In addition to intent, there are many other ontologies of deceit. Bell and Whaley [4] identify two main types of deception—hiding and showing—which roughly correspond to masking characteristics of the truth or generating false information (both in the service of occluding the truth). These forms of deception represent atomic, abstract notions of deceit that we refine in our discussion below. Related to the hiding/showing dichotomy is the split between silent (a deceptive omission) versus expressed deception. Lying, as a special class, is generally considered to be a verbal form of deception [5]. Because HCI need not involve a verbal element, we expand the notion of the "lie" to include non-verbal communication between humans and computers.

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CRYSTAL GOBLET

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THE ELEMENTS OF TYPOGRAPHIC STYLE

A TOO-PERFECT PICTURE

A MAN OF LETTERS

IN DEFENSE OF THE POOR IMAGE

ALL TECHNOLOGY IS ASSISTIVE

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THE WEB'S GRAIN

A VERNACULAR WEB

THE MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

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DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE

ALL END-USERS

MOTIVATIONS FOR DECEPTION

MENTAL MODEL

DESIGN VERSUS DESIGN

INDIVIDUAL END-USER

DESIGNER

SYSTEM IMAGE