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Cognitive Styles within an Exploratory Search System for Digital Libraries

1. Introduction

Significant amounts of cultural heritage material are now available through online digital library portals to users with varying levels of expertise and ability to find, navigate, interpret and use such information. Increasingly, the providers of cultural heritage (i.e., libraries, museums and archives) are seeking to make their content more widely accessible and in innovative ways. Cultural heritage institutions are seeking to provide richer user experiences that support connectivity between people, content and applications, to support writers as well as readers, and to enable collaborations with and between users. For example, a new generation of cultural heritage portals is encouraging user participation through the tagging of resources and making recommendations to other users (Carmagnola et al., 2008; Trant, 2009). However, this vast amount of material from libraries, museums and archives can also be overwhelming for many users who are provided with little or no guidance on how to find and interpret this information (Johnson, 2008; Skov and Ingwersen, 2008; van den Akker et al., 2013). Potentially useful and relevant content is hidden from the users who are typically offered simple keyword-based searching functionality as the entry point into a cultural heritage collection. The situation is very different within traditional mechanisms for viewing cultural heritage (e.g., museums) where items are organised thematically and users guided through the collection.

In this work we recognise that users of cultural heritage portals have diverse information needs and exhibit highly individualistic information seeking behaviours, which are not well supported by the functionalities offered by standard search interfaces. Recent trends in information access services have recognised the necessity of providing support for more exploratory and serendipitous search behaviours if services are to be effective in helping users with discovering and assimilating knowledge (Eaglestone et al., 2007; Foster and Ford, 2003; Ford 1999; Marchionini, 2006; White and Roth, 2009; Wilson et al., 2010). This article describes and makes use of a novel prototype system (the PATHS system) that seeks to support users with accessing information from digital cultural heritage collections and assisting broader information activities, such as learning and exploration (Stevenson et al., 2013). A key aspect of the system has been the integration of 'paths' (collections of artefacts organised around a theme) to assist users with navigating and interpreting the content. Pathways and trails have previously demonstrated an effective approach for guiding users through online digital collections (Shipman et al., 2000) and items displayed in physical museums (van Hage et al., 2010; Grieser et al., 2011).

Following a lab-based evaluation, user-system interaction data and user feedback have been utilised to study the relation between the user's cognitive style and their interaction behaviour. In particular, we focus on the wholist/analytic dimension of cognitive styles (Riding 1991). Our hypothesis is that these styles affect the way that users interact with the

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3 prototype system when presented with various tasks involving collections accessible via the
4 system. We postulate that users search with the system in different ways, produce different
5 results when asked to create their own paths from the collection, and also evaluate their own
6 experiences differently. To test this theory we analysed a number of detailed experiments in
7 which users were presented with a number of tasks to accomplish using a large digital library,
8 including various types of search and exploratory tasks and also that of creating their own
9 path using items from the library. Our studies lend support to the hypotheses that users with
10 different cognitive styles will: (i) exhibit different navigational behaviours; (ii) assign
11 different levels of value to the various navigational features offered by the system; and (iii)
12 require different kinds of support when interacting with the system. The aim of this work is to
13 provide a basis for future work in which we can predict the cognitive styles of users based on
14 the way that they interact online and tailor their search experiences accordingly.
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19 The work described here differs from previous work on the analysis of cognitive styles in a
20 variety of ways, including the following. Multiple analysis techniques are adopted in the
21 study (transaction log analyses, lab-based evaluation and user feedback). The navigation
22 system offers the user a range tools for exploring the collection, allowing them to adapt the
23 way in which they interact with the system to the one that is most appropriate for their
24 cognitive style. A significant amount of analysis has been carried out on the digital library to
25 which the system is applied and this information is used to support navigation. This level of
26 analysis would not be possible for some collections (e.g. the web).
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29 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides a summary of related
30 work; Section 3 describes the prototype PATHS experimental system used to investigate the
31 interaction behaviours of how different users interact with a system; Section 4 outlines the
32 research problem and methodology used to gather and analyse data; Section 5 presents the
33 main results and analysis of the main findings; Section 6 discusses the results in light of
34 previous research and proposes a tentative model describing unexpected differences between
35 users' attitudes and search behaviours; finally we conclude the paper in Section 7, together
36 with providing suggestions for future work.
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40 **2. Background**

41 *Adapting cultural heritage to the digital age*

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43 Cultural heritage institutions hold an enormous and rich variety of digital content covering a
44 broad range of subjects: natural history, ethnography, archaeology, historic monuments, fine
45 and applied arts which often cross national and linguistic boundaries. There is strong
46 motivation to bring together content from different cultural institutions into aggregated
47 portals, which have typically offered access services based on traditional catalogues used in
48 libraries, museums and archives. Search services have been geared towards subject specialists
49 and experienced users; yet the environment in which users and digital library services are
50 operating has changed. People come to digital libraries with experience of using the web and
51 with new expectations (Connaway, 2009).
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56 Cultural institutions wish to be able to offer users of their portals an experience that is
57 continuous with the way people experience the web. They are seeking to enable richer user
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3 experiences that support connectivity between people, content and applications, to support
4 writers as well and readers, and to enable collaborations with and between users. A new
5 generation of cultural portals is encouraging user participation by offering people with
6 opportunities to interact with content (for example encouraging them to tag resources) and to
7 make recommendations to other users (Carmagnola et al., 2007; Trant, 2007). Institutions are
8 looking for ways to recreate in the digital information space the opportunities that visitors to
9 libraries, museums and archives have of sharing books, objects and ideas with each other.
10 They would like to be able to personalise the experience for their digital library users, for
11 example suggesting content that is more likely to be of interest based on their profile and
12 highlighting associations between related items (Bowen and Filippini-Fantoni, 2004). Issues
13 related to user-adaptivity, such as controllability, trust, privacy, obtrusiveness, predictability,
14 transparency and breadth of user's experience are also important (Jameson, 2003).
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19 *Cognitive Styles*

20 "Human individual differences" have now been the subject of considerable research efforts
21 for a number of decades, particularly in the fields of psychology and education (Jonassen and
22 Grabowski, 1993). More recently, information behavioural aspects of such differences have
23 been the focus of a research in library and information science (Bawden and Robinson,
24 2011). The range of human differences studied from an information perspective has included
25 demographic factors such as age and gender (Ford, Miller and Moss, 2005) as well as
26 cognitive features such as personality types (Heinström, 2011), levels of search experience
27 (Kim, 2011), and cognitive styles.
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32 A cognitive style is a characteristic way in which an individual tends to approach a cognitive
33 task, such as learning or problem-solving. "Learning styles" or "problem solving styles" are
34 examples of a cognitive styles applied to particular activities. Examples of cognitive styles
35 include field dependence/ independence (Witkin et al., 1977); impulsivity/reflectivity (Kagan,
36 1965); holist/serialist (Pask, 1976a; 1976b; 1979; 1988); leveler/sharpener (Holzman and
37 Klein, 1954); simultaneous/successive (Das, 1988); and divergent/convergent (Hudson,
38 1966). The dimension of cognitive style selected for this study is that of wholist/analytic
39 (Riding and Cheema, 1991; Riding, and Rayner, 1998), also known as field-
40 dependence/independence (Witkin, 1976; Witkin and Goodenough 1981, Witkin et al., 1977).
41 This style has been the focus of research study for over 40 years, and has been found to
42 influence a wide range of human activity, from basic perception to career choice. Riding's
43 "wholist" and "analytic" is used in preference to Witkin's "field-dependent" and "field-
44 independent", though as Riding and Cheema (1991) note, the constructs are essentially
45 equivalent.
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51 Witkin et al (1977) published a detailed review of research describing the essential features
52 characterising the two dimensions and their educational implications. Essentially, analytic
53 individuals are more adept at structuring and analytical activity when compared with their
54 wholist counterparts. Wholist individuals thrive more in situations where learning is
55 structured and analysed for them. They tend to prefer a 'spectator' approach to learning rather
56 than the hypothesis-testing approach favoured by more analytic learners. They operate with a
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3 relatively external frame of reference, as opposed to the greater “inner directedness” of the
4 analytic individual. Wholists tend to be more socially oriented than analytics, and this may
5 even be reflected in the type of academic study and employment they choose and in which
6 they excel. Essentially, as their name suggests, relatively analytic individuals tend to
7 experience the components of a structured field analytically, as discrete from their
8 background, and to impose structure on a relatively unstructured field. By contrast, relatively
9 wholist tend to be less good at such structuring and analytic activity, and to perceive a
10 complex stimulus globally as a gestalt.
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14 Wholist/analytic cognitive style differences have been observed in relation to a wide range of
15 human activity. Indeed, this dimension would seem to extend from perceptual through to
16 intellectual and social functioning. Witkin et al. (1977) published an extensive review of
17 studies of the constructs, which appear to underlie a wide range of human activity, from the
18 way people perceive, to problem-solving and social interaction. As Witkin et al. (1977:8)
19 note:
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23 “Extensive evidence, accumulated over the years, shows that the styles we first identified in perception
24 manifest themselves as well when the person is dealing with symbolic representations, as in thinking and
25 problem solving. The individual, who, in perception, cannot keep an item separate from the surrounding
26 field-in other words, who is relatively field dependent-is likely to have difficulty with that class of
27 problems, and, we must emphasise, only with that class of problems, where the solution depends on
28 taking some critical element out of the context in which it is presented and restructuring the problem
29 material so that the item is now used in a different context.”
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32 At a perceptual level, relatively analytic (field independent) individuals are more adept at
33 perceiving a shape embedded in a more complex figure. They are also more analytic in their
34 learning and problem-solving, but are less socially oriented than their more wholistic (field-
35 dependent) counterparts. Thus the dimension would seem to extend from basic perception,
36 through learning and problem solving to social interaction.
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39 Ford et al. (2002) found that analytic researchers were more active and analytic than their
40 wholist counterparts, based on assessments of their problem-solving and information-seeking
41 behavior. The finding that analytic individuals report clearer, more focused thinking is in line
42 with the greater analytical competency associated with them in the research literature. There
43 would seem to be some evidence to support the notion that analytic individuals take a less
44 passive, less reproductive approach to research than their wholist counterparts. They report
45 more of Ellis’s (Ellis, 1989; Ellis and Haugan, 1997) “engaged differentiating” activity, and
46 the higher reported levels of change in perception of the problem they are working on are
47 compatible with the more active transformational engagement with, and questioning of new
48 information characteristic of the relatively analytic person.
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53 *Cognitive styles and effects on search and navigation*

54 A study by Chen and Ford (1998) investigated hypertext navigation. Twenty postgraduate
55 students were tested using Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA), then learned from a hypertext
56 system designed to give an introduction to the field of artificial intelligence. Navigation
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3 patterns were logged for analysis. It was found that relatively wholist individuals made
4 significantly greater use of the main menu, their more analytic counterparts making more use
5 of the relatively sequential previous/next buttons. Analytic students thought the structure of
6 the hypermedia program was clear, while wholist students experienced more disorientation
7 problems. Similar results were also obtained in Kim's (1997) study, which found that wholist
8 users appeared more to become lost and to be distracted on the Web.
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12 Ford and Chen (2000) also found significant differences in navigation strategies used by
13 wholist and analytic individuals in a hypermedia learning environment. Analytic learners
14 made greater use of the index to locate a particular item. Conversely, wholist learners
15 preferred to use the map to get the whole picture of the context. Chen and Macredie (2002)
16 reviewed a number of studies of the wholist/analytic dimension in relation to information
17 processing. They concluded that the research suggests that global individuals prefer more
18 structured linear pathways while more analytic learners prefer freer more exploratory
19 nonlinear pathways through hypermedia systems (Andris (1996); Chang (1995); Durfresne
20 and Turcotte (1997); Reed and Oughton (1997). They also concluded that wholist individuals
21 had a greater need to be provided with structure and guidance.
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26 There is also evidence that the styles of the web users affected their information search
27 strategies. Studies by Ford et al (1994) and Wood et al (1992), for example, revealed
28 significant links between global/analytic differences and search behavior. Postgraduate
29 students conducted searches on Silver Platter's CD ROM-based Library and Information
30 Science Abstracts (LISA) database on subjects related to their coursework. Their searching
31 strategies were classified in terms of relative breadth and depth. A high use of the word OR to
32 link keywords represents a relatively broad strategy: a high use of 'AND' a relatively narrow
33 strategy. Other measures of the breadth or narrowness of search included truncation and
34 generic descriptors (which broaden a search), and use of date or language qualifiers (which
35 tend to narrow a search). Relatively global individuals used significantly broader search
36 strategies than their analytic counterparts.
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41 In a study by Kim (1997), relatively analytic individuals tended to use search engines, the
42 find option, and URLs more frequently to reach the desired Web sites for information. On the
43 other hand, relatively wholist individual students tended to use the home or back/forward
44 keys more frequently. This implies that analytic individuals tend to engage in search tasks
45 with more active and analytic strategies. In contrast, relatively wholist individuals do not feel
46 comfortable with using tools for moving between different nodes and navigating the Web in a
47 linear mode. This finding is similar to those of Liu and Reed's (1995) study.
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51 Wang et al. (2000) investigated cognitive and affective aspects of Web searching by 24
52 Masters students. They found interactions between cognitive style and both difficulty and
53 confusion. Wholist students experienced more difficulty and confusion than their analytic
54 counterparts. Levels of anxiety were linked to negative feelings, which in turn, could affect
55 levels of persistence in searching.
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3 Palmquist and Kim (2000) studied the effects of both experience and cognitive style on Web
4 searching. They investigated searching by undergraduate college students of a university Web
5 site when conducting factual and topic searches. They found that cognitive style interacted
6 with experience of on-line database searching. Wholist novice searchers took longer and
7 traversed more nodes in locating relevant information than analytic novices. Wholist novices
8 also made greater use of embedded links. The authors explained that wholist users prefer a
9 well-structured set of stimuli, and do not enjoy imposing a structure by themselves, so they
10 tended to follow links prescribed by the authors of Web pages. They suggested that wholist
11 users, especially for those who had little or no experience with online databases, might need
12 special attention from the interface designers. No significant cognitive style differences were
13 found among experienced searchers.
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18 In a study by Chen et al (2005), wholist and analytic users displayed different preferences
19 relating to the presentation of subject categories in a web directory. Relative to analytic users,
20 wholists: (i) preferred more main categories with fewer levels of subcategory; (ii) preferred
21 web pages that presented subcategories first, followed by the corresponding results, in
22 comparison with analytics who preferred to have results presented first, followed by
23 subcategories; and (iii) where categories and subcategories were presented before specific
24 results, preferred main and subcategories to be presented on separate pages, whereas analytics
25 preferred both to be presented on the same page. These preferences may reflect wholists'
26 greater concern early to establish a global overview of the information space rather than
27 begin by targeting more specific detail.
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32 *Adapting information systems navigation features to individuals' cognitive styles*

33 The cognitive style literature suggests that stylistic differences in individuals may affect not
34 only the strategies people adopt in learning or information seeking, but also the nature and
35 effectiveness of the results of these cognitive processes – whether in learning (Ford, 1985;
36 Ford & Chen, 2001; Pask, 1988; Witkin et al., 1977) or information seeking (Ford, 2001).
37 Insofar as stylistic differences may affect the nature and effectiveness of the results of
38 cognitive processing, these constructs are potentially relevant to designing information
39 systems capable of helping individuals optimiseoptimize their information seeking
40 performance, such as the PATHS system reported here.
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46 It appears that wholist individuals learn better when adopting a breadth first exploration of an
47 intellectual space. Ford (1995) conducted an empirical study, in which students' cognitive
48 styles were identified with Riding's CSA. Students were asked to learn from computerized
49 versions of a set of teaching materials designed to match wholist and analytic learning styles.
50 He found that learning found in matched conditions was significantly superior to that found in
51 the mismatched conditions. Wholist individuals had higher test scores in their matched
52 learning condition, and analytic individuals obtained higher test scores in their matched
53 condition.
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3 Similar results were reported by Ford and Chen (2001), who examined the effects of
4 matching and mismatching on student learning. Two versions of hypermedia learning
5 systems were designed entailing breadth-first and depth-first explorations. The material was
6 classified into seven levels in depth. In the depth-first version, each topic was presented
7 exhaustively before the next topic, which was presented in the same way (i.e., it was matched
8 to an analytic cognitive style). In contrast, the breadth-first version gave an overview of all of
9 the material prior to introducing detail (i.e., it was matched to a wholist cognitive style) and
10 included 12 categories in breadth. Their results showed that students whose cognitive styles
11 were matched to the design of hypermedia learning systems attained higher post-test and gain
12 scores.
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17 Wholist learners in the breadth-first version performed better than those in the depth-first
18 version. Conversely, analytic students outperformed wholists in the depth-first version. The
19 studies imply that analytic individuals are more adept at adopting a strategy in which they
20 pay early attention to relatively detailed lower level content when processing information in a
21 learning context (Pask, 1976b, 1979). The findings also provide support for the notion that
22 matching and mismatching can have significant effects on learning outcomes.
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26 In summary, different individuals may have different predominant navigational styles. These
27 appear to be linked to more fundamental cognitive styles. High academic achievers, as well
28 as less academically achieving people, may still have a predominant style. These navigation
29 styles translate into different navigation paths.
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32 The implication for the work reported here is that it may be possible to optimise users'
33 performance using an information system if that system is capable of adapting to individuals'
34 cognitive, and consequently navigational, styles. Adopting a navigation path that matches
35 one's predominant style can influence the *effectiveness* of the resultant learning. Where an
36 individual navigates using a path that mismatches their predominant style their learning may
37 be disrupted; matching a navigational path may enhance learning (for a given learning task).
38 However, these results have been found in experimental rather than more natural learning
39 conditions.
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44 Navigation paths adopted by individuals may also vary according to their level of *subject*
45 *expertise* in the area being navigated. Different paths may also be more, and less appropriate
46 for achieving *different types of goal/task* (e.g., relatively convergent fact-finding versus more
47 divergent creative exploration).
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50 Individuals also vary in the extent to which they thrive in navigational conditions
51 characterised by external mediation (guidance) versus autonomy. This difference appears to
52 be linked to fundamental cognitive style. Relatively wholist individuals are more likely than
53 their more analytic counterparts to be more interested in engaging early in broad exploration
54 in order more quickly to establish a conceptual overview, as opposed to narrower
55 investigation of details; be less independent in their thinking and more reliant on structuring
56 and guidance from others; and be more socially oriented.
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3. The PATHS System

Within the context of the EU-funded PATHS (Personalised Access To cultural Heritage Spaces) project¹, we have developed an experimental system to assist users in their exploration of digital cultural heritage (Hall et al., 2014). Navigation in the PATHS system is based around the metaphor of pathways (or trails) through the collection, an approach that has been widely explored as an alternative to standard keyword-based search (Furuta et al., 1997; Reich et al., 1999; Shipman et al., 2000; White and Huang, 2010). Pathways are collections of artefacts organised around a theme, which form access points to the collection. Although the PATHS system could be applied to any document collection, our focus has been on Cultural Heritage since pathways are particularly useful in this context. Users accessing these collections are often unfamiliar with their content, making keyword-based search unsuitable since they are unable to formulate appropriate queries (Wilson et al., 2010). Search interfaces utilising functionalities that go beyond keyword search have shown to be more suitable for exploratory search (Marchionini, 2006). Pathways support this exploration by echoing the organised galleries and guided tours found in museums.

The PATHS system has been applied to a range of cultural heritage collections including Europeana, a commercial photographic archive, and an archive of fairground memorabilia. Our experiments focus on Europeana, the largest collection to which PATHS has been applied. Europeana² is a web-portal that acts as a single access point to collections of cultural heritage artefacts provided by a wide range of European institutions. It currently provides access to over 20 million artefacts including paintings, films, books, archival records and museum objects, provided by around 1,500 institutions, ranging from major institutions, including the Rijksmuseum, the British Library and the Louvre, to smaller local museums. Europeana contains information in a variety of European languages. The majority of content available in English is provided by Culture Grid³ and this was used for the PATHS system. Culture Grid contains information about artefacts from 40 UK content providers such as national and regional museums and libraries. The collection contains around one million items but we found that many of them had insufficient detail to be of general interest. Items lacking sufficient metadata were filtered out to leave around half a million items (Agirre et al., 2013).

The interface for the PATHS system⁴ has three main areas:

1. Search, which supports discovery of both artefacts and pathways via keyword search.

¹ <http://www.paths-project.eu>

² <http://www.europeana.eu>

³ <http://www.culturegrid.org.uk>

⁴ Development of the PATHS prototype followed two iterations cycles of design, prototype and evaluate. The work reported in this paper uses the initial or first prototype system; experiments with a second and more enhanced version of the system are left for future investigation.

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2. Paths, which enables users to navigate via previously (manually) created pathways.
 3. Explore, which enables users to explore the collections using different types of overview.

We now describe each of these areas in more detail with a focus on the aspects of the functionality that are incorporated in the analysis described later. More details about the design of the interface can be found in (Hall et al., 2014).

Search

This area allows users to search for artefacts and pathways using standard keyword-based search. The search screen includes single free-text search field, as well as a list of keywords users can select from and a scrolling field of sample content thumbnails representative of the contents of each of the keywords. These keywords provide useful suggestions for users who are not familiar with the content of the collection or are unable to formulate suitable queries. Figure 1 shows an example of the search screen. The search box is towards the centre, keywords on the left-hand side and sample content towards the bottom. In the search results, each item is presented with a title, short description, thumbnail (if available) and metadata, such as the content provider, location and subject.

[FIGURE 1]

Paths

This area (Figure 2) provides users with access to artefacts from Europeana through pathways or trails. These are manually generated sets of artefacts arranged as a sequence, which are designed to showcase the content available to the user in an organised way. They are created by users and can be published for others to follow. When a user chooses to follow a path and they are shown a set of items in the collection. The PATHS system also provides a workspace area, which supports users who wish to create their own paths. Users have the option of adding an item to their workspace when they view them, and can then organise these into a path and provide some descriptive information, such as a title, brief descriptions, and tags. The screenshot in Figure 3 shows the interface when a user follows a path. It displays the current item in the path ('enamel advertisement') together with information about the path towards the left of the screen. Following the "My Paths" and "Workspace" links to the right of the screen invokes the path building environment in which the user can create their own paths. (This is available in all parts of the interface).

[FIGURE 2]

[FIGURE 3]

Explore

This area allows users to explore the collection without having to rely on keyword-based search by providing two functions. The first of these shows a slideshow from the collection, providing the user with a random selection of content to explore. The second function, the

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3 tag-cloud, provides users with an overview of the collection presented in a visual format.
4 Each item is represented by a thumbnail image, which can be clicked for the users to explore.
5 An example of one of these visual tag clouds is shown in Figure 4. Users can get further
6 information about the items by clicking on them⁵.
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9 [FIGURE 4]
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11 **4. Methodology**

12 *Data Collection*

13 Data collection for this study was carried out during user evaluations of the PATHS system
14 using a comprehensive Interactive Information Retrieval (IIR) style protocol, under
15 controlled conditions in a laboratory environment. The study was completed by 22 users who
16 were recruited according to three scenarios: regular museum visitors who use cultural
17 heritage information for leisure purposes; students who use it in the course of their degree;
18 and, professionals (curators, teachers, researchers) who use cultural heritage materials in their
19 work. These scenarios relate to the primary user groups identified in an earlier user
20 requirements study (Goodale, et al, 2011). Participants were required to use PATHS to
21 complete a number of simulated information and work tasks, including four simple 5-minute
22 information seeking tasks (examples given in Table 1), arranged using a Latin square design,
23 and a longer (30-minute) more complex path creation task. Tasks were derived from a review
24 of the literature on information seeking in cultural heritage (e.g., Skov and Ingwersen, 2008;
25 Clough et al., 2008) and from interviews with cultural heritage expert users during an earlier
26 user requirements gathering study (Goodale et al., 2011). Each user completed all four of the
27 information seeking tasks (rotated according to the Latin square), and the path creation task,
28 with a scenario aligned to their user group (leisure, student, work). The path creation task
29 allowed participants a degree of freedom of interpretation, providing an approximation of a
30 real world task according to the user profile.
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38 [TABLE 1]
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40 Data was collected via (i) a user profile questionnaire, (ii) the CSA cognitive style test
41 (Riding 1991), (iii) observations of the tasks undertaken (screen-recording and transaction
42 logs), (iv) a feedback questionnaire on the tasks, (v) a feedback questionnaire on the overall
43 session, and (vi) a think-after interview for qualitative reflections on the path creation task
44 and the PATHS system in general. Observation data from the screen-recordings provides
45 more fine-grained detail than the transaction log data in some parts of the PATHS system; for
46 example, the extended path creation activity, which takes place in a single screen, but
47 incorporates multiple interactions over several minutes. Transaction log data provides
48 quantitative data that can be more easily analysed for sequences of interactions. Feedback on
49 all tasks comprised responses to three 7-point semantic differential scales (familiarity with
50 the topic, ease of task completion, how enjoyable was the task), and a free text comment box.
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56 ⁵ In a second version of the system we provided more advanced exploration functionalities, including
57 a taxonomy and map-based visualisation of concepts in the collection.
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3 Additional feedback on the path creation task included the user's own rating of their path, and
4 comments on what they would do to improve the path they created, given more time and
5 resources. Session feedback relating to the experience of using the PATHS system as a whole
6 comprised a set of sixteen 7-point semantic differential scales to rate how well the system
7 supported a variety of information seeking and related tasks (Likert scale). Participants were
8 also asked to rate each primary feature of the system according to three 7-point semantic
9 differential scales (easy to use, useful, inventive), a rating of likeliness of using different
10 features of the PATHS system, and comments on how these features could be improved.
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14 *Analysis*

15 Three types of analysis are performed on the data generated from evaluating the PATHS
16 system. First, analysis of task performance and interactions based upon screen-recording
17 observations and related responses in the feedback questionnaires gives a broad
18 understanding of the differences in information seeking behaviour. Second, more fine-grained
19 analysis of the transaction logs generated from the task activity provides additional detail on
20 the sequence of interactions. Third, analysis of attitudinal data from the feedback
21 questionnaires provides further insight into user preferences. All of these analyses are
22 segmented by users' cognitive style on the wholist-analytic (WA) dimension of the Riding
23 CSA test. Scores on this test can be used in two ways. Raw scores can be used to determine
24 an individual's position on a bipolar dimension from analytic to wholist. Alternatively, a
25 classification recommended by the author of the test can be used to group ranges of scores
26 into three categories - analytic / intermediate / wholist. Given a relatively small sample size,
27 the majority of the analyses are based upon cross-tabulations against the three categories. In
28 addition, however, where there was sufficient data available, raw scores on the CSA are used
29 in Spearman's Rank correlation analyses.
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36 **5. Results and Analysis**

37 In this section we present the raw findings from the user evaluation, with analysis by users'
38 cognitive style on the wholist/analytic dimension, along with discussion on the meaning of
39 these findings in the light of the research questions. The findings are presented in three
40 sections: (i) task performance, in terms of time taken, and level of engagement (path creation
41 task); (ii) user interactions, conducted via an analysis of the transaction logs; and (iii)
42 participant feedback based upon an analysis of the session feedback questionnaire.
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46 **5.1 Analysis of Task Performance**

47 Participant performance in terms of time taken on each task was analysed overall, by task,
48 and by the wholist/analytic dimension of their cognitive style. Time taken is a common
49 measure of performance in studies of usability and information seeking and gives an
50 indication of how easily the task was completed, although for browsing and exploration tasks
51 a longer time taken does not necessarily indicate relative failure, due to the higher levels of
52 engagement that may be involved. Time taken to complete the different tasks was measured
53 from the screen recordings and was found to vary by both task type and by cognitive style.
54 For the information seeking tasks, time allowed was capped at 5 minutes; whilst for the path
55 creation task participants were allowed 30 minutes.
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Information seeking tasks

Analysis of time taken of the four short 5-minute information seeking tasks (Table 2) shows that the extended fact-find task had a lower mean (4.07 minutes, lowest mean for all tasks), than the simple fact-find task (4.53), and the mean for the exploration task (4.36) was lower than the mean for the open-ended browsing task (4.78, highest mean for all tasks). Whilst the reason for the difference between the fact-finding tasks is unclear, we may infer that the information need for the exploration task was satisfied more quickly than the information need for the browsing task, on the basis that for the former the requirement was to find one suitable item, and for the latter, the number of items required to complete the task was open to interpretation.

[TABLE 2]

When analysed by cognitive style, there is a difference in the time taken between the wholist/analytic types, with analytics exhibiting the lowest mean time taken (4.33 minutes), and wholists exhibiting the highest mean (4.79); an increase of almost 11% time taken by wholists compared to analytics. This greater amount of time taken by wholists is consistent with the hypothesis that they will exhibit a higher degree of dependence, and consequently lower levels of confidence in undertaking tasks in a novel environment. From analysing the proportion of participants who were prompted to end the task at the 5-minute time limit, it is found that prompting was required overall for 71.4% of tasks, most often for the browsing task, and least often for the extended fact-find task. Analysing the data by cognitive style, it is also found that wholists were more likely to be prompted to end their task (75.0%), than analytics or intermediates (both 68.8%), again, supporting the hypothesis that wholists are more dependent and less confident in completing tasks in a novel environment. Time taken on the short 5-minute information seeking tasks is found to be negatively correlated with the numerical ratio score for the wholist/analytic cognitive style dimension ($r=-0.30$, $n=56$, $p=0.25$, 2-tailed), indicating that time increases, the higher the score on the wholist/analytic scale. This confirms the significance of the finding that wholists, being more dependent, are likely to take more time on information seeking tasks in a novel environment.

However, despite variations in the amount of time taken per task, ratings on the 7-point semantic differential scales for easy/complicated and enjoyable/unenjoyable are broadly similar across all three wholist/analytic categories, and a positive correlation was found between the two scales ($r_s=0.498$, $n=88$, $p=0.000$, 2-tailed), i.e. independent of cognitive style, if tasks are found to be easier, they are found to be more enjoyable. Positive correlations are also found between time taken on the information seeking tasks, and each of the semantic differential scales; easy/complicated ($r_s=0.390$, $n=88$, $p=0.000$, 2-tailed), and enjoyable/unenjoyable ($r_s=0.247$, $n=88$, $p=0.20$, 2-tailed), indicating that tasks that are easier and/or more enjoyable, take less time to complete. It may also be inferred therefore, that since wholists take more time on the tasks overall, that they are likely to find the tasks more difficult to complete and less enjoyable.

Path creation task

A longer, more complex path creation task was undertaken by all participants, with a time allowance of 30 minutes, incorporating elements of sense-making and creativity (see Goodale, et al., 2014, for further analysis). As with the shorter tasks, the mean time taken increases with higher wholist scores, indicating a higher degree of dependence than analytics, and a greater degree of learning required to complete this relatively novel task (not generally supported in other digital libraries), within a novel system. However, the standard deviation for wholists is somewhat lower, and so conversely it is also found that these participants were less likely to use the full 30 minutes (33% prompted) than analytics and intermediates (50% each). This may indicate that wholists 'gave up' more quickly on the task than their analytic counterparts, or that they are less 'analytic' in their behavior, and approached the task in a more simplistic way, thereby reaching a state of task completion before the allocated time had fully elapsed. Conversely, analytics exhibited more analytical and complex behavior, and were therefore more likely to keep working on the task for the full time allocation.

In contrast to the shorter information seeking tasks, user differences are found in the semantic differential ratings by user category for the path creation task. Whilst an overall positive rating of at least 50% was given by all user types for both easy/complicated and enjoyable/unenjoyable, analytic users are much more likely to give a negative rating on both scales than intermediate and wholist users. This ties in with their more analytical approach to the task, and their tendency to keep working on it, fine-tuning the path in an attempt to achieve a more satisfactory outcome.

Analysis of individual elements of the path creation task was undertaken based upon the task feedback responses and screen-recordings, providing insight into the depth of engagement and task success achieved by users at different points on the wholist/analytic dimension. First, users were asked to rate the quality of their path on a scale of 1-10. A negative correlation is found between the rating given and CSA numerical score for the wholist/analytic dimension ($r_s = -0.679$, $n = 23$, $p = 0.000$, 2-tailed) verifying the greater time spent on the task by wholists, as noted above. Inspection of the data by categories shows that ratings were given from 1-7, and further, that only 10% of analytic users gave a rating for their path greater than 5, compared with 40% of users in the intermediate category and 50% of users in the wholist category. This finding shows that analytic users find it more difficult to create a path that matches their exacting standards and indicates a more analytical and detailed approach to the task. It may also indicate that analytic users find it harder to complete more creative tasks, as they are seeking accuracy and completeness, rather than a good overall impression and aesthetic quality that is favoured by wholists.

The number of items added to paths reveals that users in the analytic category are more likely to create shorter paths (75% adding less than 10 items), than intermediate users (50%) or wholist users (33%). This tends to indicate a greater degree of precision in the paths created by analytic users, with more careful selection of items, and in fact, closer inspection of the screen-recordings shows analytic users have a tendency to delete items from their path as they fine-tune the content.

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4 User differences are also found in the strategy used to find items to add to the path. Following
5 inspection of the screen-recordings and log files, interactions were classified in four different
6 modes: serial searching (successive search reformulations, few search results viewed); serial
7 browsing (few searches, many pages of search results viewed); exploration (use of tag cloud
8 and other exploratory features); or, combination (an even mix of two or more of the previous
9 categories). Analytic users exhibited an even split between serial searching and serial
10 browsing strategies, and intermediate users between serial searching and combination
11 strategies, whilst the dominant mode for wholist users (67%) is serial browsing, with no
12 evidence of serial searching strategies in this group. Given their higher levels of dependence,
13 this finding indicates that wholists are less comfortable with searching in a novel system, and
14 in a task which is less prescriptive, relying instead on browsing strategies to find suitable
15 items. It may also indicate a more creative approach to the task, with wholists looking for
16 pleasing images, rather than the more specific, representative items that may be located via
17 searching strategies, as favoured by analytic users.
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24 A review of the augmentation of paths with annotations and keywords reveals further user
25 differences, which overall, were used less by users in the wholist category. For example, all
26 of the analytic and intermediate users added a description to their paths, compared with only
27 67% of wholist users. All analytic users added tags (keywords), compared with 75% of
28 intermediate users and only 50% of wholist users. Descriptions could also be added to each
29 item in the path, which demonstrates a similar pattern of behaviour, with 75% of analytic
30 users adding description to all or most items, compared with 50% of intermediate users, and
31 only 33% of wholist users. A tendency to overlook, or not attempt to use these more complex
32 elements of the path creation task is compatible with the expectation that wholist users are
33 more dependent, requiring more direction or instruction in what is required. It is also
34 illustrates that wholists are less detail-focused and potentially more creative, interested more
35 in the images and overall composition, than in adding detailed annotations and descriptions.
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40 In summary, relative to their analytic counterparts, the activities of wholists include: spending
41 more time on the tasks; needing prompting to end the task (information seeking tasks);
42 finding the path task easier and more enjoyable; producing longer paths; they rated their paths
43 more highly; displaying more serial browsing (few searches with many pages viewed) as
44 opposed to serial searching (many search formulations with few pages viewed) (path creation
45 task); and producing fewer descriptions and tags for their paths.
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48 **5.2 Analysis of User Interactions**

49 To measure if there was any difference in interaction between users identified as wholist and
50 those identified as analytic an analysis of transaction logs was undertaken. Each log
51 comprises a sequence of query URLs generated as users navigated through the web pages
52 while undertaking the evaluation tasks. Each URL effectively corresponds to a different
53 interaction e.g. creating a path, searching by query etc. The analysis in this section relates to
54 the volume of interactions by type, and interaction sequences, excluding the path creation
55 section of the system, which cannot be analysed in detail from transaction logs.
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4 We first investigated whether search/browse behaviour was different between wholist and
5 analytic users. Table 3 shows a breakdown of the frequencies of actions for each type of user.
6 The figures show that wholist users used the tag-cloud feature (12.9%) more than analytic
7 users (0.9%). They also show that analytic users performed more search queries (32.4%) than
8 the wholist users (20.6%). This fits our hypothesis that wholist users more likely to want to
9 get an overview of the whole collection of items rather than immediately focusing in with
10 specific queries. Interestingly, analytic users also preferred to use the facet function (11.3%)
11 more than wholist users (2.7%). This may also suggest that these users were more likely to
12 want to narrow in on more focused data using the facets compared to the wholist users who
13 were happy to view the whole data set. It is also worth noting that the data for the
14 intermediate users fell between the wholist and analytic users for each of these metrics which
15 lends support to these observed patterns.
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21 [TABLE 3]
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24 Next we analysed search behaviour related to the use of the workspace. If the user adds an
25 item to the workspace it suggests that this item is of interest and may possibly be added to a
26 path. We looked at the action that immediately preceded that addition of the item to the
27 workspace. There were three main options: (1) Add the item directly from the search results
28 page, (2) Click on the item to view detailed information before deciding to add the item, and
29 (3) Add the item from a pre-existing path. The breakdown for these actions is shown in Table
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34 [TABLE 4]
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37 It appears that analytic users are somewhat more likely to view items before adding to their
38 workspace: 39.1% of analytics viewed an item before adding it to the workspace, compared
39 with 30.9% for wholists. This supports our hypothesis that these users have a greater
40 tendency to drill down into the data. In contrast, wholist users are more likely to add items to
41 their workspace directly from a path or from search results, where only the thumbnail and
42 title are visible, which suggests they only want a broad overview of items before selecting
43 which to add to their path. Again, the data for the intermediate users fit between the WA
44 groups, supporting this pattern.
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48 Next we looked at the number of pages viewed before an item was added to the workspace.
49 The results of this again show a clear pattern. Wholists seemed to be willing to browse
50 through many pages before selecting items to add to the workspace. The distribution curve
51 for the analytic users shows a far steeper curve, with a large majority of users adding items
52 from the first page, with 6 as the maximum number of pages visited. Again the distribution
53 curve for the intermediate users falls between these two groups, adding supporting evidence
54 for the hypothesis that analytic users have a greater tendency to drill down into the data.
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58 [TABLE 5]
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4 A similar investigation analysed how many search results pages users visited before viewing
5 the detailed record for an item. The results are similar as for the previous investigation with
6 wholists more likely to view more search results pages than analytic users.
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9 [TABLE 6]
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11 In summary, the analysis of transaction logs showed that wholist users tended to use
12 exploratory functions, such as the tag-cloud, more than analytic users suggesting that they
13 prefer to see an overview of the data before focusing in on particular topics. Conversely
14 analytic users performed more specific query searches and used the faceting functions,
15 perhaps demonstrating an eagerness to quickly focus in on the items of interest.
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19 Analysis of the how users found items to add to their workspace showed that wholist users
20 added items directly from the search path while analytic users viewed items first before
21 adding them. This supports the view that wholist users want to put together a broad overview
22 of items before constructing a path. Analysis of the number of page views before looking at
23 items or adding items to a workspace showed that wholists tended to visit far more pages than
24 analytic users, again fitting in with the idea that wholists want to get a good overview of the
25 data while analytics prefer to drill down into specifics quickly, doing more search queries if
26 they don't find what they want straight away.
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30 **5.3 Analysis of User Feedback**

31 A correlation analysis was conducted on the data from the session feedback questionnaire to
32 establish whether there were any significant relationships between aspects of people's
33 reactions to using the system and their attitudes towards it. A number of significant
34 correlations were found, which are summarised in Figure 5.
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37 [FIGURE 5]
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40 In order to maximise the sensitivity of the correlational analysis, raw scores on the
41 wholist/analytic dimension of the Cognitive Style Analysis measure were used, rather than
42 categorising respondents into discrete categories. This approach has been adopted in previous
43 studies (e.g., Ford et al., 2005), and it enables the identification of correlations between user
44 behaviour and the strength of the extent to which an individual is wholist or analytic. This is a
45 bipolar dimension, meaning that the stronger one scores as a wholist, the proportionately
46 weaker one scores as an analytic, and vice versa.
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51 Behaviour that correlates positively with a wholist cognitive style also correlates negatively
52 with an analytic style. Thus, in Figure 5 (top left), the significant *positive* correlation between
53 considering the Explore function in PATHS to be inventive and having an *analytic* style
54 implies that there is also a significant *negative* correlation between considering the Explore
55 function in PATHS to be inventive and having a *wholist* style. Only the correlations between
56 user behaviour and having an analytic style are shown in Figure 5 since in each case the
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3 converse correlation with having a wholist style is necessarily implied. Links between boxes
4 show a significant positive Spearman correlation at $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed). The one exception is
5 the broken arrow, which indicates a trend just under the probability threshold at $p = 0.053$.
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8 As can be seen from Figure 5, the more analytic (as opposed to wholist) the cognitive style,
9 the more positive ratings of the PATHS system were on a number of dimensions, namely
10 considering that PATHS is: inventive; good at supporting serendipity/discovery; good at
11 supporting the development of new ideas; good at finding items related to a topic; good at
12 supporting communication with other people; and the explore function was rated more highly
13 (in terms of inventiveness, usefulness and ease of use). Possible reasons, and implications of
14 the discrepancy between the relationships hypothesised between cognitive style and attitudes
15 and those found are discussed in the following section.
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19 **6. Discussion of the Findings**

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21 In this work we have tested the hypothesis that the behavior and attitudes of individuals to the
22 navigational features of the PATHS system would differ according to cognitive style, as
23 suggested in previous literature (Bawden & Robinson, 2011; Chen & Ford, 1998; Wang et
24 al., 2000). For the questionnaire survey of user attitudes towards the various PATHS features,
25 statistically significant differences were found. In the case of the experiments into user
26 behavior, the sample size was too low to establish statistical significance. However,
27 differences were found in behavior relating to cognitive styles, and the direction of these
28 differences was consistent with that suggested in the hypotheses. We have interpreted these
29 findings as indicative of a trend worthy of further systematic investigation.
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34 The notion that wholists are more likely to want to establish a clear overview of the topic
35 they are exploring prior to drilling down to detail was positively supported. Specifically,
36 wholist users, relative to their analytic counterparts: (i) displayed a higher use of the tag cloud
37 feature; (ii) made fewer specific as opposed to more general queries; (iii) reported a higher
38 preference for using the faceting function; (iv) viewed items less often before adding them to
39 their workspace (as opposed to wholist users' tendency to add items directly from a path or
40 from search results); (v) browsed through more pages before selecting items to add to the
41 workspace. These findings all lend support to the proposition that wholists are more
42 preoccupied than their analytic counterparts with establishing a clear overview of a topic they
43 are exploring, analytics being more concerned with focusing more narrowly on detailed
44 aspects of the information space.
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49 It was also expected that wholist users would express greater preference for: (i) the PATHS
50 facility to support serendipity/discovery (since they are more oriented towards this aspect of
51 exploration); (ii) the facility of the PATHS system to support inventiveness and the
52 development of new ideas; (iii) finding items related to a topic; (iv) communicating with
53 other people (since they are more socially oriented than analytic people); and (v) the PATHS
54 'explore' function. Significant correlations were found between cognitive style and Likert
55 measures of these attitudes, but in a contrary direction to that hypothesised. All of the
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3 preferences listed above correlated significantly and consistently with cognitive style, but
4 with analytics as opposed to wholists.
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7 Thus, paradoxically, whilst in their observed behaviour using the PATHS system
8 corresponded with expectations based on the cognitive styles literature, in their attitudes
9 (what they thought rather than what they did) they displayed the converse of what might be
10 expected. In their attitudes, analysts considered the PATHS system to be strong in supporting
11 the activities in which one would expect them to be most weak: exploring, engaging in
12 relatively divergent (as opposed to more convergent) thinking in the form of being inventive,
13 developing new ideas, discovering things, experiencing serendipity, relating ideas (finding
14 items related to topics) and being socially communicative. This is an interesting paradox;
15 however, can be explained by a descriptive model, such as that shown in Figure 6.
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19 [FIGURE 6]
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22 According to the model, users display *behaviour* which accords with their habitual cognitive
23 style. However, it may be that users display more positive *attitudes* to those aspects of
24 PATHS that support those aspects in which they are *weaker*. In those activities in which they
25 are strongest, they may have less need for, and accord less value to, those features of the
26 PATHS system that support them. Conversely, they need and value features that support
27 them in relation to activities in which they are naturally weaker. We argue that this study has
28 provided at least a *prima facie* case for further investigation of the effects of cognitive style
29 on user in large digital libraries navigation patterns using larger samples. If the model
30 proposed here is supported by more robust evidence, a number of implications for system
31 design would follow.
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36 The wholist/analytic dimension of cognitive style would appear to be worthy of further
37 investigation in the context of personalisation research. The dimension maps well onto
38 meaningful patterns of search and navigation, linking conceptually with the notion of levels
39 of creativity. A number of studies, including that presented here, have found empirical
40 evidence of links between this dimension of cognitive style and users' search and navigation
41 patterns. Furthermore, findings from matching/mismatching studies suggest that matching
42 aspects of user interface design to individuals' style may impact the effectiveness with which
43 they process information in a learning context.
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47 7. Conclusions

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49 In this paper we have investigated the effects of users' cognitive style on their use of a
50 prototype system for exploring digital collections of cultural heritage. Much of the research
51 literature has focused on the notion that individuals display behaviour in accordance with
52 their cognitive style, and in instructional contexts on matching the style of information
53 presentation to each individual's style. There has been less emphasis on individuals' attitudes
54 towards system features designed to support the matching process, and support designed to
55 compensate for the weaknesses of each style, as opposed to matching information
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3 presentation and navigational affordances to an individual's style. The present study provides
4 further evidence of links between style and search/navigation behaviour to support other
5 studies, but in the context of an experimental interface to a large cultural heritage digital
6 library. It also offers a significant contribution to research into cognitive styles by proposing
7 a model suggesting a converse relationship between behaviour and attitudes to support:
8 individual users displaying search/navigation behaviour mapped onto the strengths of their
9 cognitive style, but placing greater value on interface features that support aspects in which
10 they are weaker. This distinction is worthy of further investigation and will be our focus of
11 upcoming investigation with a second version of the system that incorporates a richer set of
12 features for exploring and navigating digital collections of cultural heritage.
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TABLES

Paper: Cognitive Styles in Digital Library Navigation: An Educational Informatics Perspective

Task Type	Example
Simple fact find	Which artist painted 'The Blaydon Races'.
Extended fact find	Identify at least six English towns in which trams were once operational.
Open-ended browsing	Find several items illustrating aspects of daily life during war-time Britain, and save to your workspace.
Exploration	Find an artwork you would like to display in your own home'
Path creation (student user)	Imagine you need to create a path as part of a university assignment. You have been asked to use primary source materials to create a mini online exhibition suitable for a target group within the general public and/or school visitor categories. Your goal is to introduce a historical or art-focused topic in a popular, accessible way, and to encourage further use and exploration of cultural heritage resources.

Table 1: PATHS System Evaluation, Examples of Tasks

Time taken	Task / Cog Style	Mean	Max	Min	Std Dev
By task type	Simple fact-find	4.53	5.00	2.83	0.72
	Extended fact-find	4.07	5.00	1.83	1.04
	Open-ended browsing	4.78	5.00	2.28	0.63
	Exploration	4.36	5.00	2.34	0.99
	Tasks A-D	4.44	5.00	1.83	
Information seeking tasks by cognitive style	Analytic	4.33	1.83	5.00	1.11
	Intermediate	4.59	2.21	5.00	0.82
	Wholist	4.79	2.28	5.00	0.58
Path creation task by cognitive style	Analytic	25.64	15.43	30.00	6.94
	Intermediate	25.88	20.82	30.00	4.82
	Wholist	26.64	19.36	30.00	4.18

Table 2: Time taken on PATHS evaluation tasks, by task type and cognitive style

Interaction	Analytic	Intermediate	Wholist
search-query	32.4	28.5	20.6
search-query-paginate	15.7	17.1	19.8
search-query-facet	11.3	8.8	2.7
search-query-facet-paginate	5.3	3.8	7.0
search-index	11.6	9.5	9.7
search-facet	1.3	0.0	0.6
item	20.1	26.1	23.5
explore	1.3	2.2	3.2
tag cloud	0.9	4.0	12.9

Table 3: Percentage of interactions with the PATHS system by cognitive style

Action preceding workspace-add	Analytic	Intermediate	Wholist
search	55.1	57.4	61.1
item	39.1	36.2	30.6
path-follow	1.4	4.3	6.9

Table 4: Actions preceding 'add to workspace'

Search results pages visited	Analytic	Intermediate	Wholist
1	78.3	64.5	67.6
2	6.7	15.8	6.7
3	10	6.6	3.8
4	3.3	9.2	1
5	0	0	3.8
6	1.7	0	1

7	0	2.6	1
8	0	1.3	0
10	0	0	1
11	0	0	2.9
12	0	0	2.9
13	0	0	1.9
14	0	0	2.9
15	0	0	1
16	0	0	1
28	0	0	1
40	0	0	1

Table 5: Distribution (%) of search results pages visited before adding items to the workspace

Search results pages visited	Analytic	Intermediate	Wholist
1	81.1	75.6	87.2
2	10.8	9.2	1.4
3	4.1	2.3	2
4	2.7	10.7	0.7
5	0	0	3.4
6	1.4	0	0.7
7	0	0	0.7
8	0	1.5	0
11	0	0	2
20	0	0.8	0
38	0	0	2

Table 6: Distribution (%) of search results pages visited before viewing a detailed item record

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FIGURES

Paper: Cognitive Styles in Digital Library Navigation: An Educational Informatics Perspective

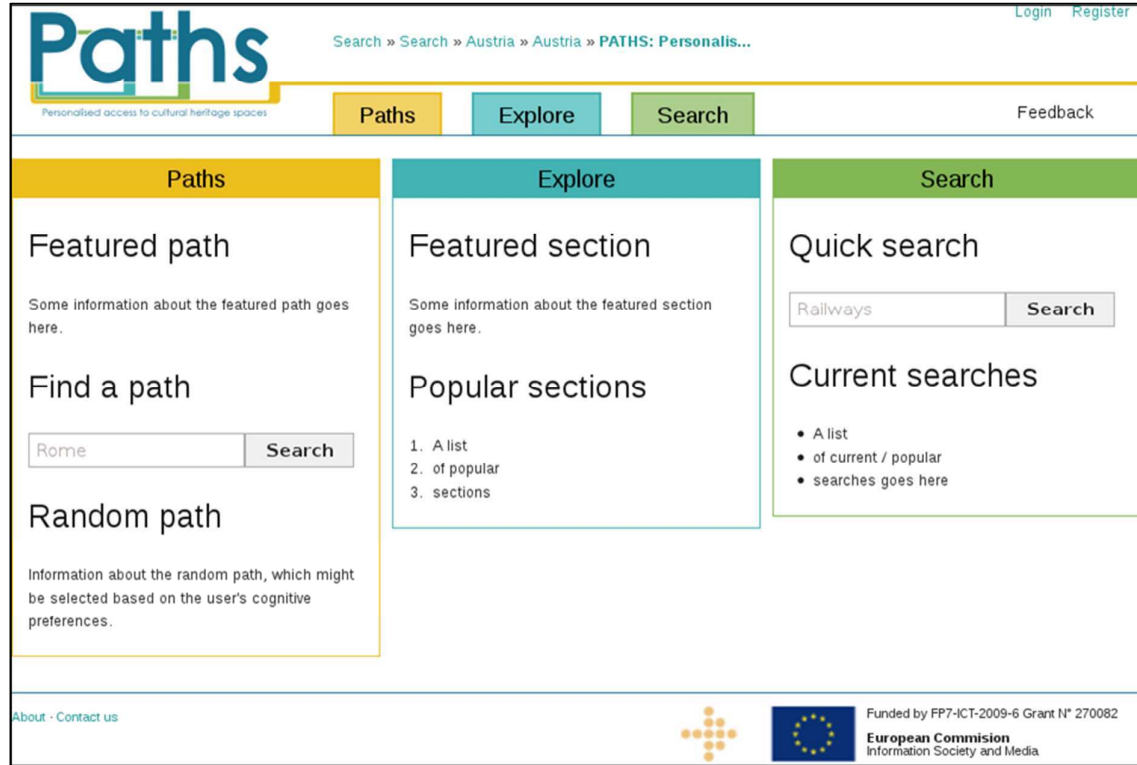


Figure 1: PATHS Prototype 1, Home Page

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Figure 2: PATHS Prototype 1, Search Page

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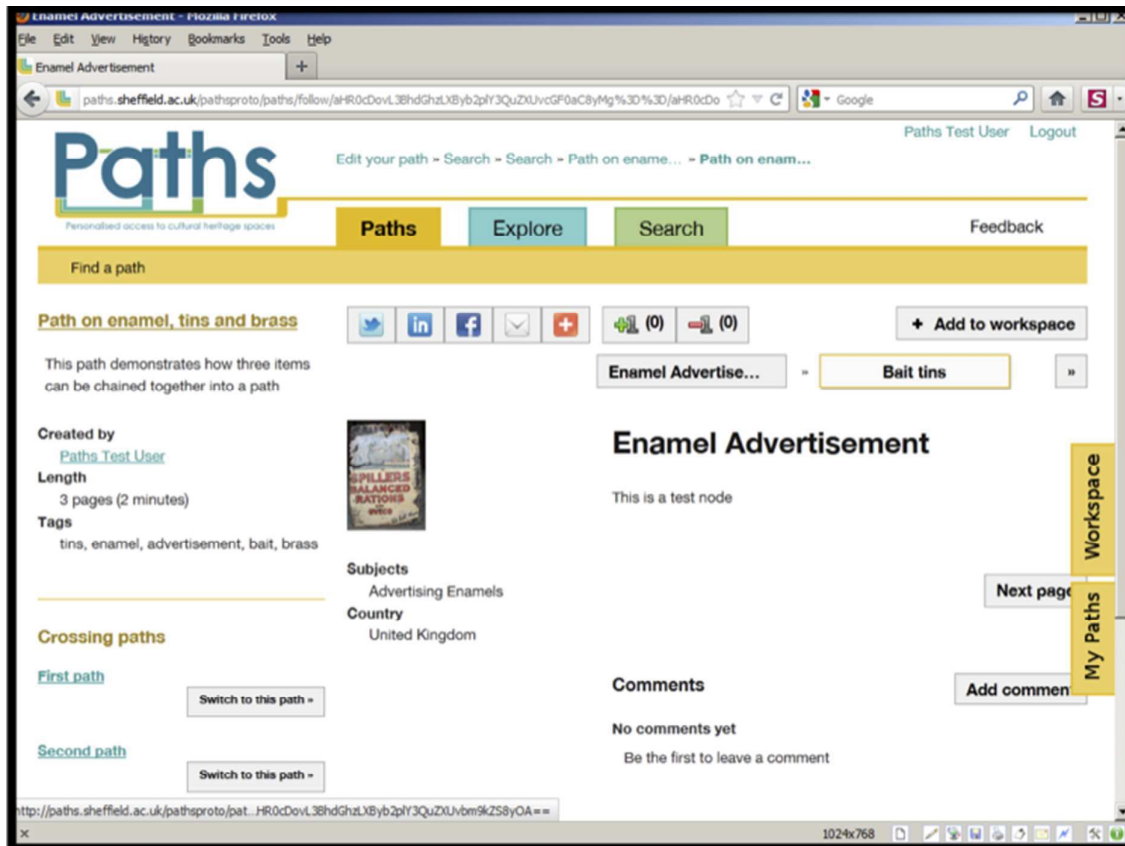


Figure 3: PATHS Prototype 1. Path Node Page

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Review

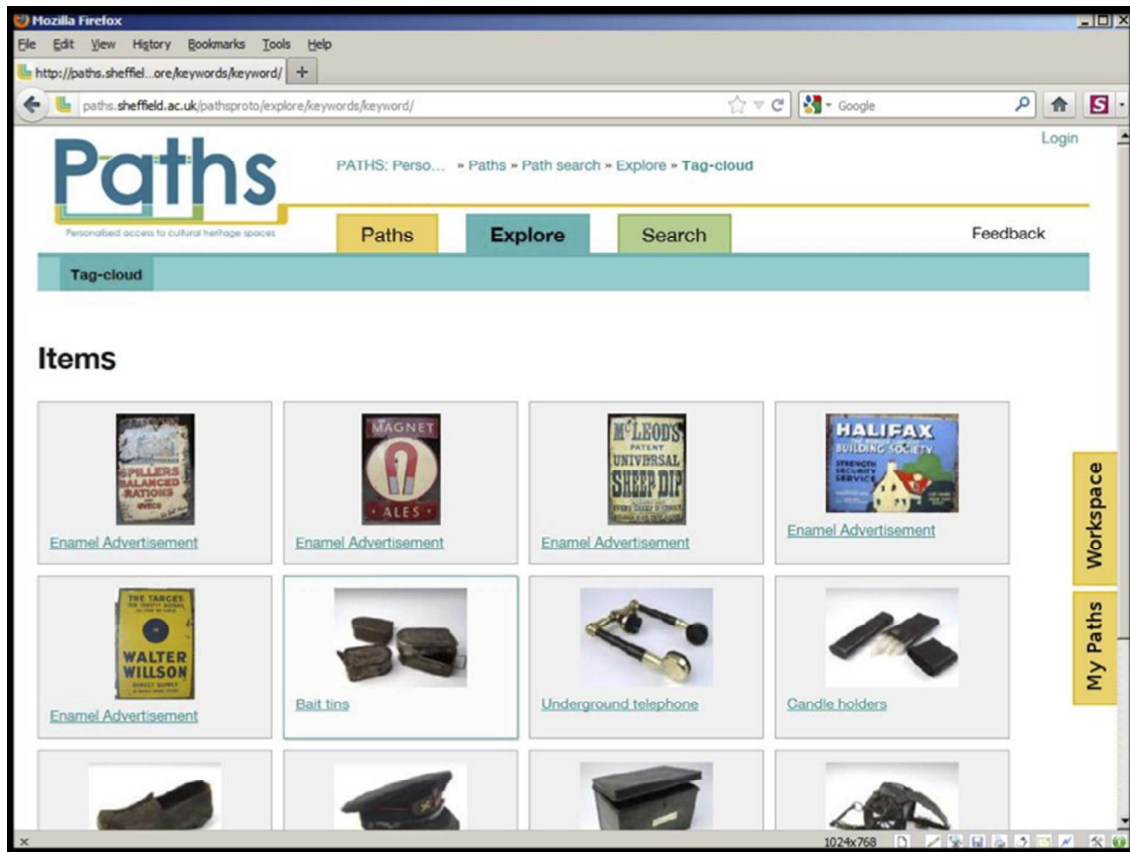


Figure 4: PATHS Prototype 1, Explore Page

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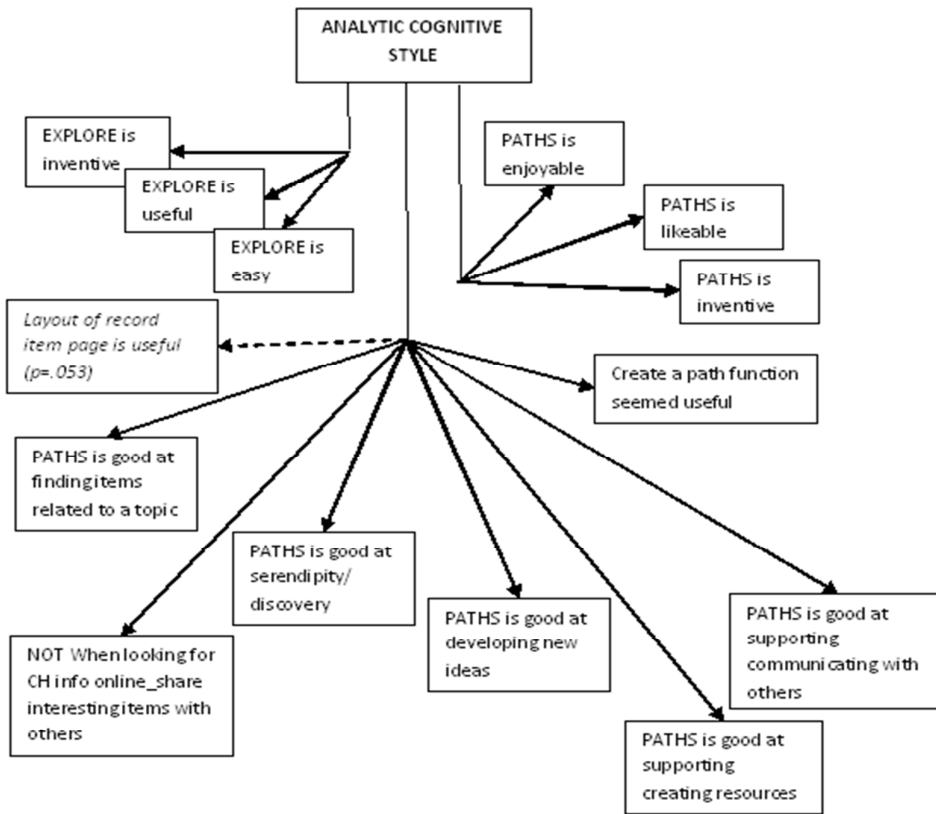
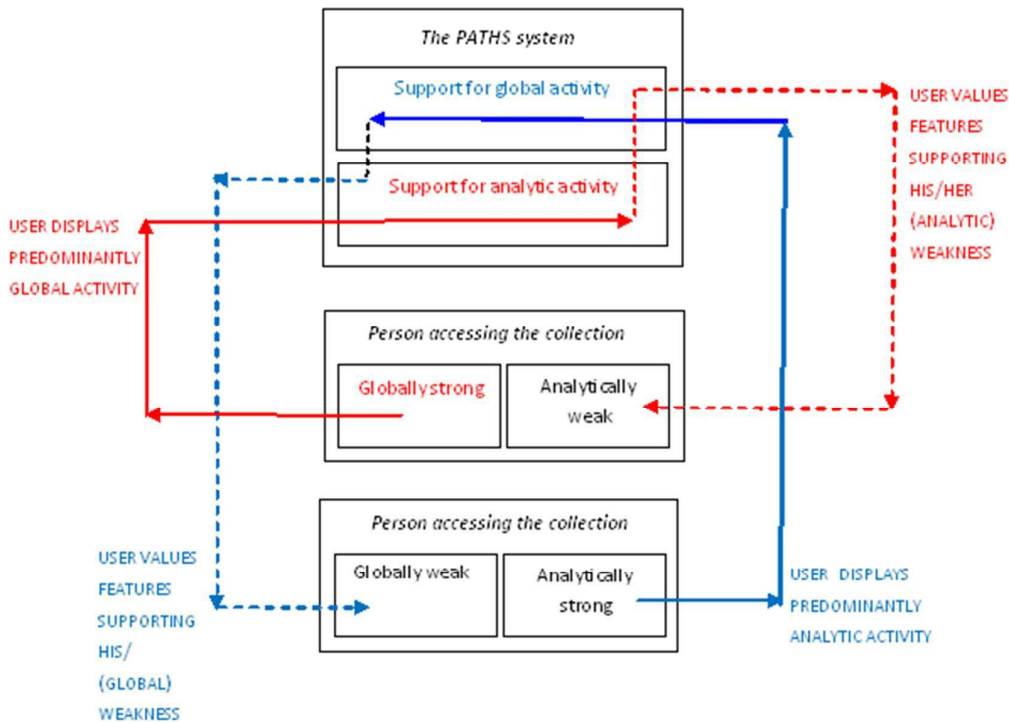


Figure 5: Significant correlations between cognitive style and attitudes to using the PATHS system



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Figure 6: Interactions between cognitive style and interface support features

For Peer Review

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