

# Spatial Hypertext: *Designing for Change*



*ypertext,<sup>1</sup> in its most general sense, allows content to appear in different contexts. The immediate setting in which readers encounter a specific segment of material then changes from reading to reading or from reader to reader. Authors collect and structure materials to reflect their own understanding or in anticipation of readers' possible interests, needs, or ability to comprehend the substrate of interrelated content.*

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This powerful underlying concept is usually realized in both research and practical efforts within a node-link model: nodes are the holders of content, and links are the means by which the content is given context. In this model, links are closely associated with navigation and mechanisms for traversal; they are a way to move from node to node, to keep readers focused on the current node or document, until they decide to move on to the next. We refer to this style of hypertext as *document-centered hypertext*.

As systems and applications designers have gained more practical experience with hypertext, models of structure have grown more sophisticated, more expressive, and in many cases, more flexible than conventional node-link models. To address the needs of specialized applications, some models diverge entirely from stan-

dard notions of links; for example, Parunak introduces set-based hypertext for applications that involve taxonomic reasoning [21]. The expressiveness of hypertext models has been extended by adding types to nodes, links, and structures [5, 15, 20]. Finally, for the sake of flexibility, in some applications links are left implicit, computed dynamically by using text analysis methods or other heuristics for determining regular interconnections [2, 6]. Thus we see systems and applications designers broadening the field, in some cases by theory, but also through practical experience. Spatial hypertext has grown out of just such an intertwining of theory- and experience-based extensions to hypertext concepts.

*Spatial hypertext* has arisen through our experiences with applications that explore alternative structures for content and applications in which the domain structure is not well understood at the outset or changes during the course of a task. Many of these applications involve the collection, comprehension,

<sup>1</sup> We use the term *hypertext* broadly, to cover both textual and multimedia content.

and interpretation of diverse materials; they are information-intensive activities, like analysis, design or evaluation, and are often collaborative efforts. *Spatial hypertext is most appropriate when there is no distinction between readers and writers, and more prescriptive design methods might hamper exploratory structuring.*

Spatial hypertext has its origins in browser-based approaches in which the emerging hypertext network is portrayed graphically, in an overview, to promote coherence (see Thüring et al. in this issue); authors and readers interact with the hypertext using a map of its structure. In early conceptions of browser-based hypertext, boxes or other icons symbolized nodes, while lines represented the links among them; hypertext browsers were oriented toward presenting a graph representation of a network. NoteCards [9] and gIBIS [5] are examples of hypertext systems that used such a spatial map. But gIBIS differed from NoteCards in one crucial way: in NoteCards, the browser was used mainly as a means of *visualizing* existing network structure<sup>2</sup>; in gIBIS, the browser was the primary means of *interacting* with the emerging network as well as presenting it.

Extensions to the node-link model, such as types and complex structures, have found their way into browser-based approaches. By watching people use these extensions, our sense of “what matters” in spatial hypertext evolved. The ability to *create and move nodes freely* matters; the ability to *express relationships by spatial proximity and visual cues* matters. If we remove the explicit links from a browser, it can become a dynamic canvas for interaction. Nodes may appear in different contexts through multiple spatial references to the same underlying content; authors may use “any unit of text as a new element in an

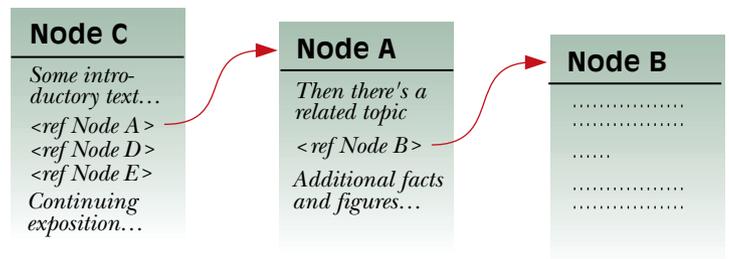
<sup>2</sup> Although NoteCards allowed users to construct links through browser interaction, most users chose other, more document-centered, means of making links.

**Figure 1.** Transitions from document-centered hypertext to browser-based hypertext to spatial hypertext: a) Document-centered hypertext; b) Browser-based hypertext; c) Spatial hypertext

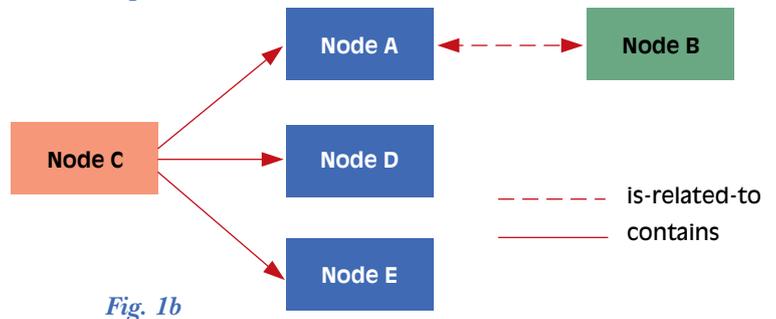
expanding vocabulary of signs” [4].

Thus, spatial hypertext is not only a means of presenting readers and authors with visualizations of existing structures; it is also a way to take advantage of human perceptual abilities in hypertext navigation, and to provide users with a fairly intuitive medium through which they may express new structures and manipulate existing structures.

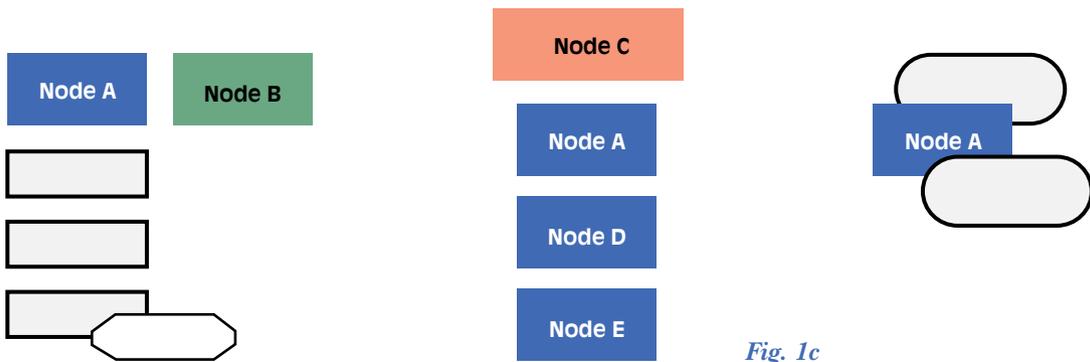
Figure 1 illustrates how hypertextual structures can be realized in a spatial setting by showing the transition from a document-centered hypertext (Figure 1a) to a browser-based hypertext (Figure 1b) to a spatial hypertext (Figure 1c). Imagine Nodes C and A in Figure 1a are documents displayed as in popular interfaces such as NCSA’s Mosaic; clicking on the anchor (or, more precisely, the marker for the anchor) embedded in Node C causes the document corresponding to Node A to be displayed in the window. Node A may replace Node C in the viewer, as it



*Fig. 1a*



*Fig. 1b*



*Fig. 1c*

does in Mosaic's default behavior, or it may open a new window, as it would in many multiple window hypertext systems, but in either case, the links are used primarily as a means of traversal.

Figure 1b shows the same hypertext portrayed in a spatial browser. Nodes A, B, C, D, and E are represented by *visual symbols*—boxes, in this case—that refer to the underlying documents. We have added types to Figure 1b; node types are represented by box colors and link types by line dashed. Arrowheads indicate link directionality. Nodes A, D, and E are all contained by Node C, and Node B is related to Node A. Figure 1b is fairly typical of the style of hypertext network display presented by browser-based hypertext (see Figure 2 in Thuring et al., this issue and Figure 4 in Nanard and Nanard, this issue).

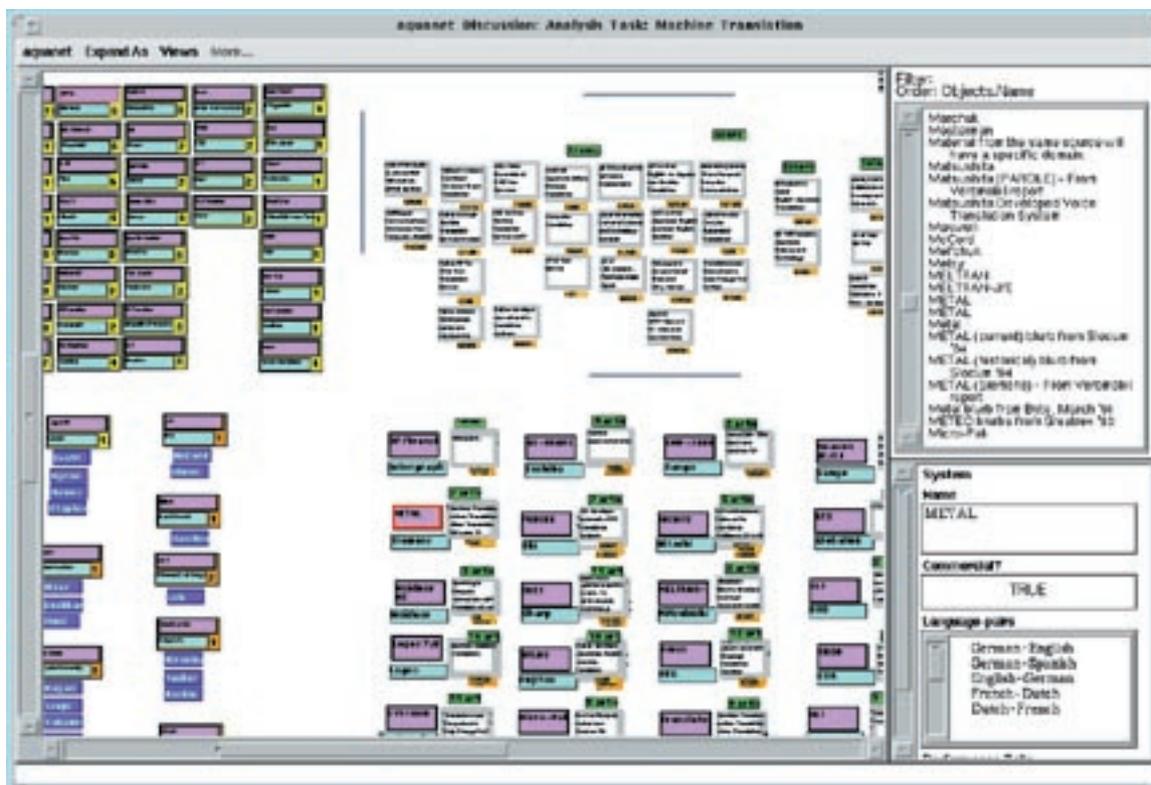
Figure 1c extends and generalizes the browser-based hypertext in Figure 1b to a simple spatial hypertext. Once again, we refer to content of underlying nodes by visual symbols, applying the color-coded types from Figure 1b. First we see that Node A's visual symbol is near Node B's visual symbol, so Node A is very probably related to Node B. From the characteristics of their visual symbols, Nodes A, D, and E are understood to belong to the same set, contained in Node C, whose symbol is at the head of the list; the set relationship is implicitly conveyed through proximity, alignment, and homogeneity of type. To illus-

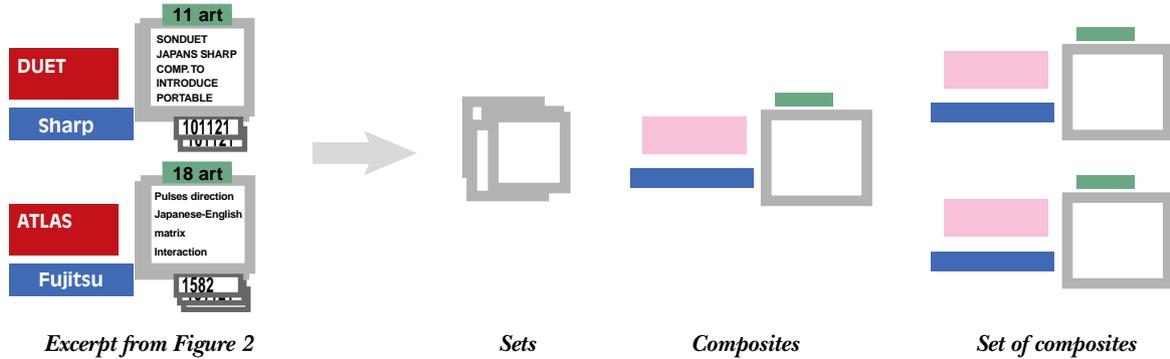
trate one final important property of spatial hypertext, we have populated the space with some gray unlabeled nodes that show Node A as part of other relationships elsewhere in the space—its visual symbol is grouped with some others on the right side of the example hypertext, as well as heading up a list on the left. Thus hypertext—encounters with content in different contexts—is realized through recurrent references that use visual symbols of underlying objects instead of through traversal-oriented links.<sup>3</sup>

Figure 1 illustrates several important characteristics of spatial hypertext: the separation of symbol and underlying content; the use of these visual symbols to create hypertextual meaning; and the ability to leave structure implicit and informal. This final point—the ability to leave structure *implicit* and *informal*—is one of the crucial distinctions of spatial hypertext. Of course, in document-based hypertext, structure may be left implicit and reclaimed through analysis of document content, but the structure that is computed is regular; spatial hypertext allows people to express what DeRose refers to as “extensional structure” [6], idiosyncratic and dependent on the situation at hand, perceived through context, not computed from content. Ambiguity may be left unresolved without compromising the integrity of the structure.<sup>4</sup> For example, in Figure 1c, if we pushed

<sup>3</sup> Rosenberg contrasts the choices a reader must make in traversing links to Node A or D or E (see, for example, Figure 1a) with spatial simultaneities, in which a reader can at once apprehend “A and D and E” [22].

**Figure 2.** A multi-region space created in an Aquanet application





**Figure 3.** Finding structure in a portion of Figure 2

Node E out of alignment with Nodes A and D, we could use the misalignment to express our uncertainty about whether Node E really belongs to the same set as A and D. The characteristics of spatial hypertext allow structure to emerge very gradually, as people work with the visual characteristics and spatial positions of symbols.

Spatial hypertext is thus inherently flexible, decidedly less formal than other models of hypertext, and readily supports volatility and change.

Many of these characteristics are derived from the basic affordances offered by visual and spatial modes of working. People may find it difficult to express how or why content is interconnected, but they are accustomed to arranging media—either physical or electronic—in space. Computational tools like text editors, structured graphics editors, outliners, some hypertext systems, and even multiple window displays (where different documents or different portions of the same document can be readily juxtaposed) all support spatialized content. Office workers frequently shuffle papers to make sense of them, and use the physical space around their offices as important adjuncts to their more organized file cabinets [13, 14].

Sometimes links are noted physically or graphically in these media—in computational media, lines are drawn from one content item to another, or boxes group multiple items; in noncomputational environments, people fasten documents together with paper clips, staple them, put rubber bands around sets of videotapes, or otherwise physically connect related things—but often interconnections are left implicit, to be resolved only if use demands it.

**Looking at Practice**

Instances of spatial hypertext-like constructs appear in many computational and noncomputational settings. How can we learn from practice to design appropriate components for and an interface to a spatial hypertext system? It is crucial to watch users in

action, to look at the results of their work in a variety of environments, and to talk to them about what they are trying to accomplish. Experiences with the Aquanet hypertext system, which uses a browser-based approach, coupled with a survey of the types of spatial structures people created in three different hypertext systems (NoteCards, the Virtual Notebook System, and Aquanet) provided us with a basis for designing a spatial hypertext system and reflecting on directions for spatial hypertext [16].

In our survey, we found that authors sometimes prefer to express relationships among nodes<sup>5</sup> by using geometric cues like proximity and alignment, and visual cues like graphical similarity. These geometric and visual cues correspond to Bertin’s notion of planar and retinal variables [3]. By combining geometric and visual cues, authors may build up surprisingly complex hypertext structures.

Geometrically-based relationships arise from spatial configurations of nodes: nodes may be “close to” or “on top of” each other (be proximate); nodes may be “under,” “over,” “to the left of,” or “to the right of” one another (show deliberate alignment in either the *x* or *y* dimension); or nodes may be clustered or grouped (set apart from other elements of a space). People readily use these spatial configurations to portray relationships. For example, two adjacent or overlapping nodes might be related in a manner analogous to a simple binary link.

Visual characteristics also are used to signify relationships or clarify spatial cues. So nodes of the same color distributed throughout a space might belong to a common set. Or nodes that are similar in appearance might elaborate on the role of a geometrically-perceived link. For example, if we know Node Y is an annotation on its neighbor, Node Z, and Node Y is distinctive because it is yellow, we can perceive the same annotative relationship between Node X and its yellow neighbor, Node W. While we have observed that people develop complex visual codings to represent different properties of nodes, these codings are apt to be

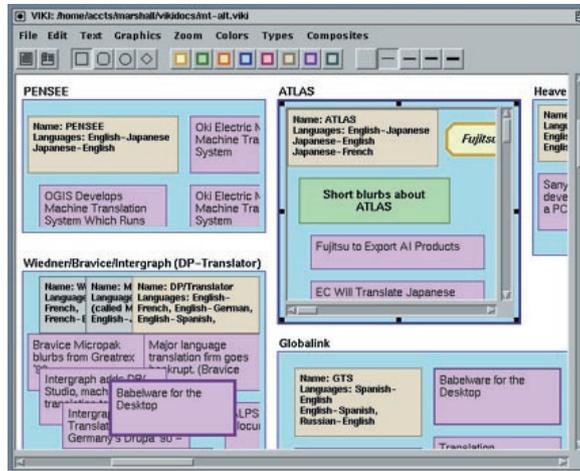
<sup>4</sup> In explicit hypertextual linking, links are either there, or they are not. When links are given weights or may exist independently from nodes, the existence of the link still must be specified unambiguously.

Fig. 4a

undeclared and inaccessible for processing by a spatial hypertext system. Thus from our analysis, we found that the most important and basic visual characteristic to consider is “similar to” (or, equivalently, “different from”). Using homogeneity and analogy as guides, people can portray and perceive different kinds of hypertextual structures.

Taken in combination, visual and geometric characteristics also suggest hypertext *composites*. Composites are higher-level structures that include other nodes [8]. By this definition, any group of visual symbols that appears to be deliberately organized—specific symbols occupying specific relative positions—is a composite. More interesting are node layouts that exhibit repeated patterns of visual and geometric characteristics, which are referred to as *composite types*. We found composite types in many of the layouts surveyed.

**Figure 4.** An example application showing objects, visual symbols, collections, and navigation

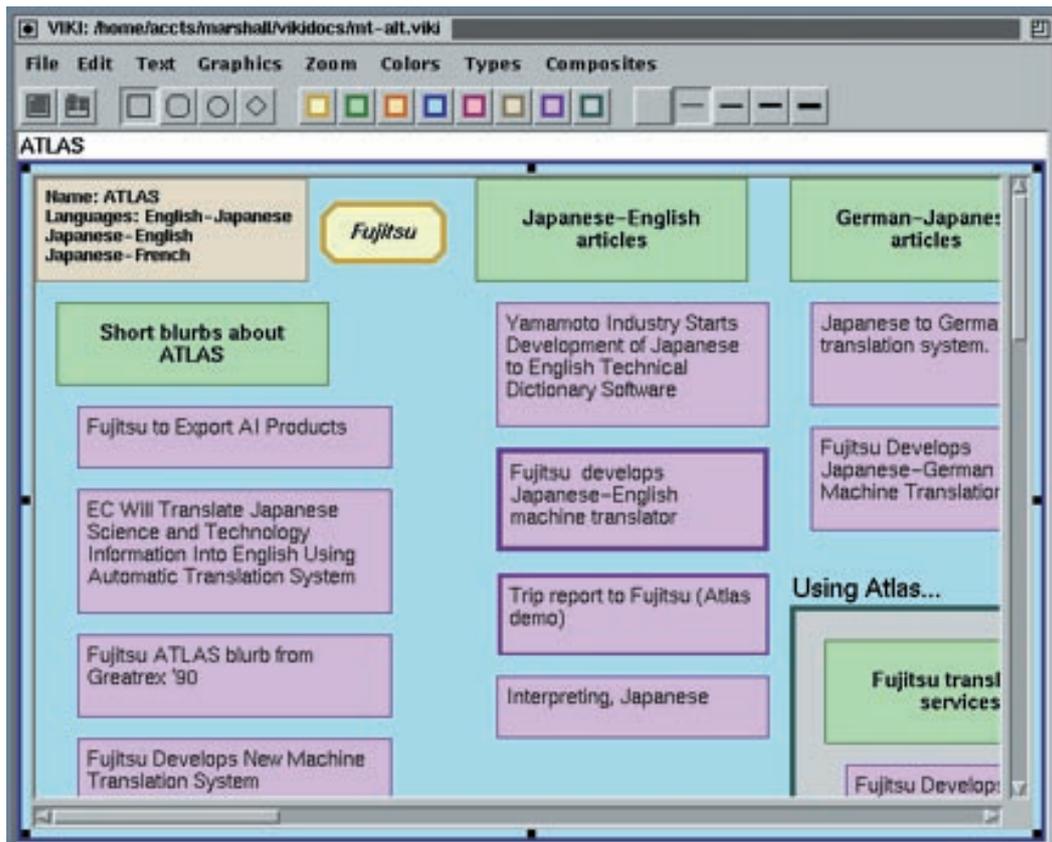


plex spatial structure created in Aquanet as part of a long-term analysis of machine translation systems and technologies. The figure includes graphical objects that are instances of seven different object types; each instance refers to underlying content. What kinds of structure can readers perceive in this information space? First, coupling geometric and visual

characteristics, we can see that each corner of the space seems to be inhabited by different distinct patterns of graphical objects. It is useful to take a closer look at a small portion of one of these regions to examine other common types of hypertextual structure.

Figure 3 shows several structures taken from the lower-right corner of this space. First, we can see that there are overlapping stacks of visually-similar gray-bordered objects; we can consider these to be sets. At a slightly coarser level of structure, we can see two instances of a composite type, the type that consists of four symbols: a purple rectangle above a cyan rectangle next to a green rectangle over a set of gray-bordered rectangles. Since the two instances of the

Fig. 4b





composite type are aligned so regularly, they appear to be a set as well. Although little structure has been declared beyond node types, there is much hypertextual structure to be perceived in this example.

Given the results of this analysis, we can begin to anticipate common kinds of spatial structures and ways people would like to manipulate and interact with these structures. These results can then be used as a basis for designing an experimental spatial hypertext system.

### **An Experimental Spatial Hypertext System**

With Coombs, we have developed an experimental system, VIKI, to explore spatial hypertext as a geometric and visual structuring paradigm [17]. The system is designed to take advantage of the human perceptual system, spatial and geographic memory, and more generally, spatial intelligence; its emphasis is on flexibility, informality, and change. For readers, the system provides an opportunity to read in context, with awareness of the related, nearby nodes. For writers, the system supports the development of a visual language through informal interaction with a user interface similar to a graphics editor. A hierarchy of spaces helps keep complexity tractable for both readers and writers; users traverse through levels of spaces, each containing references to a particular set of nodes and subspaces—an organizational strategy similar to that of Storyspace [2].

### **The Interpretive Task**

In designing VIKI, we focused our efforts on supporting the interpretive process. Interpretation is that part of writing, collaborating, or thinking in which people collect the materials of interest and make sense of them in the light of their tasks and the backgrounds they bring to it. Of course, groups and individuals are neither monolithic nor consistent in their beliefs; to support interpretation, we considered varying ways of recording interpretations of a body of materials, using frameworks or structuring schemes that make very different uses of the same content.

Interpretive use of spatial hypertext is an important avenue of research to pursue. Through the increasing availability of online information sources (including other people, in addition to databases and corpora), people have access to vast quantities of materials relevant to their work. Yet there are relatively few tools that can be used to gather diverse materials and to explore the various ways these materials may be interpreted.

Such tools are needed in many settings. For example, a successful product development organization will collect business-related material relevant to the positioning and viability of a new product. This business-related material may include electronic announcements and reviews of related products; competitors' home pages from the World-Wide Web; relevant patent documents retrieved from an infor-

mation provider's extensive database; internal project-related materials (like engineering documents) created during the course of product development; electronic mail exchanges held within the organization; and, perhaps, information mined from Usenet newsgroup discussions. Once these materials have been gathered, members of the organization must make sense of them—they need to decide which materials are important, extract the salient information, evaluate its veracity, and organize it for their purposes. It is the understanding that a group develops and shares over time that makes a collection of materials valuable; the materials themselves are of limited utility without this shared understanding. The difficulty lies in expressing and recording this mutually-defined, ever-evolving interpretive structure.

Thus, interpretive structure is not inherent in document content, but evolves through work. In practice, interpretive structure may arise through filing, in conversation, in juxtapositions of documents on a desktop, in notes and annotations, in markings and marginalia [12]. All of these methods of expressing interpretations are necessarily partial, since they are not fully articulated; they readily tolerate ambiguity. Relationships among documents, assessments of their content, and interpretive abstractions can remain tacit through the entire interpretive process.

**E**xternalizing these relationships, assessments, and interpretive abstractions is a crucial part of reflecting on one's own understanding of a problem and communicating one's understanding to others during the course of collaborative work. Our experiences demonstrate that such structure is difficult to express, even in hypertext; tensions arise between the tacit knowledge of the expert practitioner (the reader/author), and the means that hypertext tools provide to express interpretations as partial, emerging forms [23]. Spatial hypertext promises to be a good medium to ease these tensions. VIKI forms the basis of our experimentation with the use of spatial hypertext in service of interpretive tasks.

### **VIKI's Spatial Hypertext Model**

VIKI's spatial hypertext model is simple, and follows our survey of practice<sup>6</sup>; it consists of objects, which are node-like holders of content; visual symbols, which are the references to objects that a user manipulates in an information space<sup>7</sup>; collections, which are user-

<sup>5</sup>We use the term *node* here to mean the node itself or a visual reference to a node's full content, since both terminology and functionality varied among the systems and applications surveyed.

<sup>6</sup>Much of our survey centered around information-intensive tasks.

<sup>7</sup>All content and references to content are accessible through this space.

defined subspaces; and composites, which are the groupings of objects that form higher-level structures. Extensible structured types provide users with an abstraction mechanism. We describe each element of the model very briefly to illustrate how spatial hypertext is realized in our prototype. Figures 4 and 5 refer to an analysis of machine translation software, in which retrieved materials and notes are organized according to the systems they cover. The analysis is shown in progress—some portions of the spatial hypertext are more highly structured than others.

**Objects.** Objects are the content-holding entities of VIKI's spatial hypertext model. Objects are semi-structured: they may have no internal structure, or they may have an unlimited number of fields that can be added when users wish to highlight or create content that doesn't fit within the object's existing internal structure. Each object that is part of the information space is referred to by one or more visual symbols. Double-clicking on a visual symbol causes the corresponding object's full content to appear in a separate window.

**Visual symbols.** Visual symbols are manipulable references to an object. Visual symbols each have a graphical appearance, determined either by direct manipulation or through the types mechanism described later. Users can manipulate the size, shape, color, line thickness, and font characteristics of individual visual symbols separately from their content. Indeed, users have much control over what is visible on a visual symbol at a given time. They can use the symbol's size to limit the amount of content revealed; they can specify which fields' contents are shown; and they can scroll through content to focus attention on a specific segment.

In contrast to the tight correspondence between instances of object types and their graphical appearance that is common to most browser-based hypertext systems, VIKI's visual symbols decouple objects and particular references to them in the display space. This decoupling, along with the ability to manipulate the appearance of individual symbols, provides users with an informal way to record different properties of an object according to its spatial context. For example, Figure 4a contains two references to the same content, a lengthy survey article about machine translation software, "Babelware for the Desktop." One reference to the article has a wide, dark border; the other, a narrow, less conspicuous outline. The author has used this convention, line thickness, to indicate how important the information in the article is. Apparently, the article is a more important source of information about Intergraph's DP-Translator system than it is about Globalink's GTS.

**Collections.** Collections contain arbitrary spatial arrangements of objects or other collections, enabling them to form a system-supported hierarchy of spaces. They too are represented by manipulable visual symbols that refer to large, scrollable planes, in

which objects may overlap. Figure 4a includes five collections (each with a blue background) titled according to the systems investigated. The edges of the collections act as clipping regions—collections appear as portals into subspaces. Users may resize or zoom collections to reveal more or less of their contents. In Figure 4a, the collections are sized to reveal the degree to which their contents have been organized; the collection at the lower left is clearly less well organized than the others.

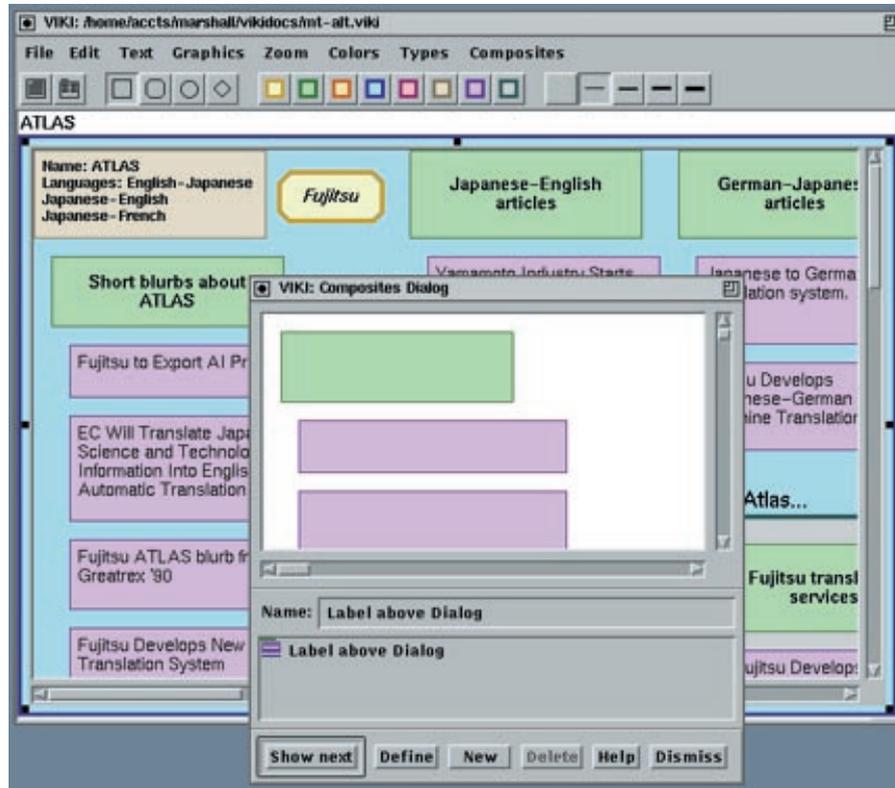
**C**ollections give users the ability to immerse themselves in local meaning without losing global context. A collection may be motivated by the use of a particular visual/spatial structuring scheme (for example, as exhibited by the regions in Figure 2); it may group materials that pertain to a specific subtask (as is the intent of Rooms [10]); or it may indicate semantic cohesion, as in Figure 4.

Since collections are acyclic, visually-nested hierarchical structures, the system provides a navigational mechanism that allows people to move between focal collections. Like Boxer [7], VIKI uses a spatial metaphor for navigation.

Figure 4 shows an example of spatial navigation in VIKI. Figure 4a shows the top level of an information space. Traversing into the collection titled "ATLAS" (by double-clicking on its border) causes it to become the focus. Figure 4b shows the result of this traversal. Now more of the contents of "ATLAS" are visible. Other objects have been revealed by the traversal, and we see that "ATLAS" contains another collection, "Using ATLAS," which is clipped. Multiple levels of the hierarchy may be traversed in a single step by clicking on any collection's border.

**Types.** In our spatial hypertext model, types arise through use; we expect users to work first with the graphical appearance and spatial layout of instances, and build up abstractions from these examples as generalities become apparent (see the description of prototypes and bottom-up design processes in Nanard and Nanard, this issue). A type encapsulates a particular appearance and internal structure, along with how this internal structure is displayed by visual symbols. Because content is often irregular, ad hoc fields may be added to the internal structure of any instance. For example, if one of the machine translation systems used a particular intermediate representation like Esperanto, we might want to add a field and value "Interlingua: Esperanto" to a single object.

**Composites.** Composites are structures that consist of combinations of two or more objects or collections in particular visual/spatial configurations; they closely model the structures we have observed in practice. Composite types are formed through recurrent patterns of constituent types; they may be defined direct-



**Figure 5.** Applying composite type recognition to the collection shown in Figure 4b

### Recognition

Instead of providing a mechanism for defining specific links between objects, VIKI focuses on the relationships that can be noted visually and spatially. These relationships may either remain implicit, or be recognized by structure-finding algorithms that automatically analyze spatial layout and visually salient properties of the constituents of a space [24]. Because structure is not enforced, but available on demand, expressive flexibility is not hampered by the definition of formal interconnections

ly or suggested to authors based on the results of recognition algorithms, as illustrated in Figure 5. We see composites (especially automatically perceived and maintained composites) as a viable way of building up relational structures in spatial hypertext.

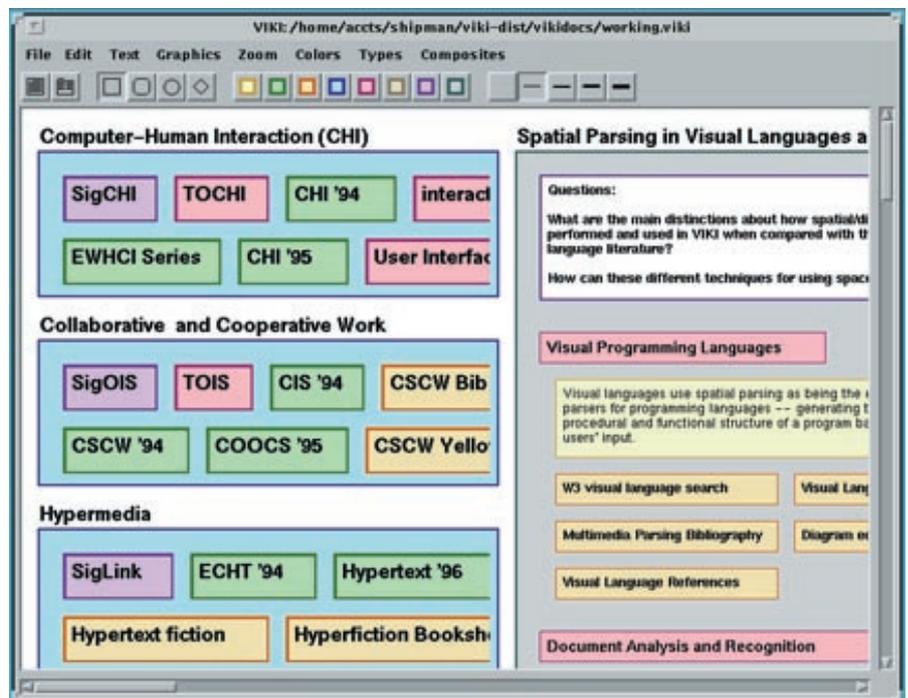
Figure 4b shows an example of four composites that are instances of a composite type, which may be described roughly as, “a green rectangle over a set of purple rectangles.” Several instances of the purple rectangle (an object type) use a visual property—border thickness—to represent an attribute of the underlying objects.

Working within such a spatial hypertext model, authors can use objects, collections, composites, and the visual symbols that refer to them to gradually build up interpretations of the contents of a corpus of collected relevant material, eventually forming types, abstractions, and a sophisticated visual language for performing an analysis of this material.

ations.<sup>8</sup> This approach addresses common problems associated with creating hypertexts, such as the need to articulate tacit knowledge or commit to structure prematurely [25]. In short, structure is created easily, perceived by readers and writers, and, if requested, recognized by the system and used as the basis for further interaction.

<sup>8</sup>This approach is philosophically similar to Moran et al.'s notion of *freeform interaction* [19].

**Figure 6.** A VIKI information space used to organize references to topical World-Wide Web pages and personal notes



Automated structure recognition, as we use it in our spatial hypertext prototype, assists authors in three different ways. VIKI may (1) use undeclared structure as a basis for interaction (for example, users may select and move the entirety of an undeclared structure); (2) help people use the object-collection-composite data model (for example, by locating potential collections and composites); and (3) provide inter-object abstraction (for example, by suggesting composite types) on demand.

Figure 5 shows an example of how the recognition facilities can help users locate and declare composite types, and more generally, incrementally formalize structure. In Figure 5, the structure recognition facilities have identified and suggested a possible composite type, a green rectangle (a type called “Label”) over a set of purple rectangles (a type called “Dialog”). The user has accepted the system’s suggestion, and has declared the new type.

Recognition is an accelerator, and enhances the usability of the basic facilities; it also usefully demonstrates that certain kinds of regular structures do tend to emerge in real use situations and can be made into formal hypertext constructs as needed.

### Spatial Hypertext in Use

We have found that information-intensive applications refer to external materials; for these applications it is important to see spatial hypertext not as the primary holder of content, but rather as a superstructure for organizing, and more importantly, interpreting large-scale information resources. This perspective takes account of the mutability of any external materials, and the role of structuring paradigms in making large-scale information resources serve communities of practice [18].

To demonstrate the use of spatial hypertext in this role, we have extended VIKI so that objects may refer (through automatic processing of user-supplied URLs) to World-Wide Web pages [1]; users can start Web browsers by interacting with VIKI objects. This facility allows people to take advantage of the Web as an information resource, and enables them to interpret and situate Web materials in the context of their work; they are free to mix annotation and source materials, and add as much structure as necessary. Thus VIKI provides an expressive superstructure—a medium for customizing views of the Web.

Figure 6 shows an in-progress VIKI information space that refers to Web pages pertaining to research topics of interest to its author. The author has used collections to gather materials on different topics and has used color to indicate the types of Web pages referred to by the visual symbols. For example, red symbols refer to journals, purple to ACM Special Interest Groups, green to conferences. The author has also annotated materials in several of the collections with his own notes and questions, such as his notes about how visual languages use spatial parsing.

In this example, we see a mixture of structured and unstructured materials, and a mixture of external references and personal annotations. This is a potentially useful way for communities to cull materials from information resources and record their interpretations of these external materials.

### Summary

Spatial hypertext can provide workgroups with a means of recording their interpretations of the large bodies of information relevant to their day-to-day activities; this information is quickly becoming available through a variety of networked electronic resources such as the World-Wide Web, online information services, and various digital library projects.

By addressing the needs of applications in which structure is emerging, changing, or difficult to articulate, spatial hypertext promises to be a useful alternative to traditional node-link models of hypertext. Spatial hypertext uses perceptible characteristics of recurrent visual symbols—references to underlying content—to create structures such as annotative links, sets, and composites. We have observed that these structures arise in practice, through human interaction with computational and noncomputational materials.

Spatial hypertext not only provides the means of visualizing complex structures; it also can provide perceptually-based feedback for navigation and a range of possibilities for expressing emerging relationships. As Kaplan and Moulthrop point out, spatial hypertext need not only reflect an author’s picture of relationships among nodes; it may also be used to represent a reader’s growing conceptualization of meaning [11]. Hyperspace may draw upon physical metaphors (see Dieberger and Bolter in this issue); it may also serve as fertile ground for exploring new kinds of abstract spaces that exhibit characteristics not found in the physical world.

We have begun such an exploration of abstract information spaces with an experimental system, VIKI, which uses a simple spatial hypertext model and a familiar user interface, coupled with mechanisms to support the gradual emergence of structure, such as types and recognition algorithms. VIKI is designed to support the volatility and change we have observed in information-intensive work. By investigating the use of spatial hypertext in such applications, we can extend hypertext concepts to realms in which prescriptive design methods break down.

### Acknowledgments.

This article is dedicated to the memory of our colleague James H. Coombs, who contributed extensively to the development of the VIKI spatial hypertext system. 

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