A Mixed Reality Approach to Contextualizing Simulation Models with Physical Phenomena: an Application to Anesthesia Machines

JOHN QUARLES, PAUL FISHWICK, SAMSUN LAMPOTANG, AND BENJAMIN LOK

University of Florida

The design, manipulation, and implementation of models for computer simulation are key parts of the discipline. Models are constructed as a means to understand physical phenomena as state changes occur over time. One issue that arises is the need to correlate models and their components with the things being modeled. A part of an engine needs to be placed into cognitive context with the diagrammatic icon that represents that part's function. The typical solution to this problem is to display the dynamic model of the engine in one window and the engine's CAD model in another. Users are expected to mentally combine the dynamic model and the physical phenomena into the same context. However, this contextualization is not trivial in many applications.

Our approach expands upon this form of user interaction by specifying two ways in which simulation models and the physical phenomena may be viewed, and experimented with, within the same human interaction space. We illustrate the problem to be addressed and demonstrate an example solution using a machine designed to deliver gas and ventilation during anesthesia.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: I.6 Modeling and Simulation, I.3.7 Virtual Reality Additional Key Words and Phrases: Mixed Reality, Modeling, Simulation, Human Computer Interaction

1. INTRODUCTION

In simulation, the modeler must consider how the simulation model is related to the phenomena being simulated. Understanding this relationship between the simulation model and the phenomena being simulated is integral to the simulation model creation process. For example, to create a simulation based on a functional block model of a real machine, the modeler must know which machine parts each functional block represents -- the modeler must understand the *mapping* from the real phenomenon to each functional block. In turn, the modeler must also understand the mapping from the phenomenon to the visualization of the simulation model. The purpose of this research presented is to offer methods of visualizing this mapping between an abstract simulation model and the physical phenomena being simulated.

Understanding and creating these mappings is not always trivial. In an abstract simulation visualization, complex physical and spatial relationships are often simplified or abstracted away. Through this abstraction, the mapping from the simulation model to the phenomenon being simulated often becomes more ambiguous for the user. For example, consider an abstract 2D simulation of an anesthesia machine (Figure 1.1 top

Permission to make digital/hard copy of part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that the copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage, the copyright notice, the title of the publication, and its date of appearance, and notice is given that copying is by permission of the ACM, Inc. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee.

left), called the Virtual Anesthesia Machine (VAM) [Lampotang 2006]. The VAM gives anesthesia machine users a conceptual understanding of how a generic anesthesia machine operates. Students are expected to first learn the anesthesia machine concepts with the VAM, and later apply those concepts when using the real machine.

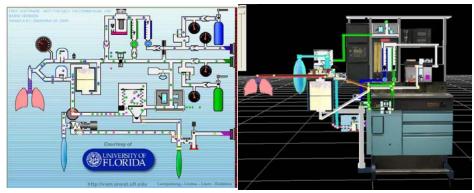




Figure 1.1 (top left) the shockwave based VAM, (top right) VAM icons superimposed over a model of an anesthesia machine. (bottom) a student uses the magic lens to visualize the VAM superimposed over the real machine

To apply the concepts from the VAM when using a real machine, students must identify the mapping between the components of the VAM (the simulation model) and the components of the real anesthesia machine (the physical phenomenon). For example, as shown in figure 1.2, the green knob of A (the gas flow meters) controls the amount of oxygen flowing through the system while the blue knob controls the amount of N_2O , an anesthetic gas. These gases flow from the gas flow meters and into B, the vaporizer. The arrow shows how the real components are mapped to the VAM. Note how the spatial relationship between the flow meters(A) and the vaporizer(B) is laid out differently in the VAM than in the real machine.

Also note that the flow meters have been *spatially reversed* in the VAM. In the VAM, the N_2O meter is on the right and the O_2 is on the left. In the anesthesia machine the N_2O meter is on the left and the O_2 meter is on the right. The purpose of this spatial reversal is to make the gas flow visualization in the VAM easier to visualize and simpler to understand. Because the VAM simplifies spatial relationships, understanding the functional relationships of the components is easier (i.e. understanding that the gas flows from the gas meters to the vaporizer).

However, this simplification can create difficulties for students when mapping the VAM to the anesthesia machine. E.g. a student who is training to use a real machine could memorize to turn the left knob to increase the O_2 . Then, when the student interacts with the real machine, he or she will accidentally increase the N_2O instead. This could lead to negative training transfer and could be *potentially fatal to a patient*. Although understanding the mapping between the VAM and the anesthesia machine is critical to the anesthesia training process, mentally identifying the mapping is not always obvious. Thus, in cases like this, the simulation could offer a visualization of the mapping to help the user visualize the relationships between the simulation model and the real phenomena being simulated.

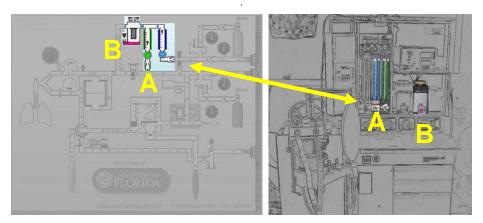


Figure 1.2: Left: the VAM (the simulation model) with the flow meters (A) and the vaporizer (B) highlighted. Right: a real anesthesia machine (the physical phenomenon) with the flow meters (A) and the vaporizer (B) highlighted. Note that the flow meters and vaporizer are spatially reversed in the abstract representation of the Virtual Anesthesia Machine (VAM).

This research presents a method of integrating the simulation model, the physical phenomena being simulated, and the visualizations of the mapping between the two into the same context. To demonstrate this integration, we present the Augmented Anesthesia Machine (AAM), a Mixed Reality based system that combines the VAM simulation model with the real anesthesia machine. First, the AAM spatially reorganizes the VAM

components to align with the real machine. Then, it superimposes the spatially reorganized components into the user's view of the real machine (figure 1.1). Finally, the AAM synchronizes the simulation with the real machine, allowing the user to interact with the simulation through interacting with the real machine. By combining the interaction and visualization of the VAM and the real machine, the AAM helps students to visualize the mapping between the VAM simulation model and the real machine.

2. RELATED WORK

This research came about through a paradigm shift in the simulation community toward visual modeling and integrating the fields of Human-Computer Interaction (HCI) and M&S. This section first describes how research in the simulation community has evolved from *programmatic modeling* to *visual modeling* that incorporates concepts from HCI. This section then describes a new paradigm, *integrative modeling*, which integrates the interface into the simulation model. The foundations laid out in integrative modeling research provided the basis for our research in combining abstract simulation models with the corresponding physical phenomena.

2.1 From Programmatic Modeling to Visual Modeling

M&S evolved from hand-driven mathematical simulation (such as Monte Carlo methods) into the world of computer science where it has been a vital area of research since the 1950s [Nance and Sargent 2002]. Because M&S has been driven by computer science, much M&S research has been towards creating specialized simulation programming languages to aid developers in simulation programming [Pollacia 1989]. These languages provide the programmer with code libraries that support a wide variety of general simulation constructs, such as queuing models and discrete event systems. Many of the earlier discrete event modeling [Zeigler et al 2000] languages, such as SIMULA [Dahl 1966], GASP [Pritsker 1974], and Simscript [Kiviat 1973], have unique syntax and compilers and are optimized for simulation processing efficiency. Because of the unique aspects of the languages, many simulation programmers still prefer the more familiar general-purpose languages (i.e C++). Thus, many simulation programming languages have been extended as modules into the more general and widely used programming languages.

With simulation programming languages, models are represented in program code (for numerous examples see [Law and Kelton 2000]) or mathematical equations [Banks et al. 2001], but many of these models can also have visual representations. Near the end

of 1970s, modeling languages, such as GASP, began to incorporate more interactivity, computer graphics, and animation. For example, GASPIV incorporated model diagrams, which could easily be translated into GASP code. This was one of the earlier efforts to merge simulation programming with visual modeling. The success of languages like GASPIV resulted in a shift in focus from programmatic modeling to visual modeling. A good repository of visual model types can be found in [Fishwick 1995]. Models types such as Petri Nets, Functional Block models, state machines, and system dynamics models are used in many different types of simulations and can be represented in a visual way. They are similar in appearance to a flow chart that non-programmers and non-mathematicians can understand and use.

This shift to visual modeling made modeling tools more accessible and usable for modelers across the field of simulation. For example, Dymola [Otter 1996] and Modelica [Mattsson 1998] are languages that support real-time modeling and simulation of electromechanical systems. Dymola and Modelica both support continuous modeling, which evolved from analog computation [Cellier 1991]. Thus, Dymola and Modelica users create visual continuous models in the form of bond graphs, using sinks, power sources and energy flows as visual modeling tools.

2.2 Visual Modeling Tools and Editors

To aid modelers in building visual models for simulation, there exist a variety of visual tools and editors. These tools allow modelers to use various visual model types to create simulation visualizations. The tools generally consist of a graphical user interface with a wide range of interaction widgets and visual model types, allowing modelers to create fully functional simulations with minimal programming experience. Thus, these tools allow modelers to concentrate more on the model than the underlying implementation.

Many of these visual tools are created for more specific tasks such as multi-agent simulation [Luke et al 2005], [Falchuk and Karmouch 1998] or agro-ecological simulation [Muetzelfeldt and Massheder 2003]. However, many editors have focused on maximizing extensibility and applicability with modular and component model design [Pidd et al 1999], such as Extend [Krahl 2002] or the Virtual Simulation Environment (VSE) [Balci et al 1997]. For example, the VSE allows modelers to build their simulation models graphically (rather than programmatically) using an object-oriented paradigm. Once the model is built, the VSE aids the modeler in simulation, animation and analysis. Thus it integrates modeling, simulation, visualization, and simulation analysis into one graphical package and is targeted toward facilitating the creation of

many types of models and simulations (i.e. education and training, system design, and manufacturing).

2.3 Simulation and HCI

With the shift towards visual modeling with graphical user interfaces, some M&S researchers have begun to consider Human Computer Interaction (HCI) factors, such as usability, in their visual modeling tool designs. *Usability* is defined by the International Standards Organization as: "the degree to which specific users can achieve specific goals within a particular environment; effectively, efficiently, comfortably, and in an acceptable manner." [Booth 1989]. Usability has become a major concern for visual modeling editor developers. For example in [Kuljis 1996], six of the top current Visual Modeling Environments were empirically evaluated for usability. The main finding was that although most of these visual modeling tools had desirable functionality, their user interfaces were deficient in many ways. While the tools were effective and efficient (i.e. they have excellent performance and efficient processing), they were often not accepted by users because the interfaces were uncomfortable or cumbersome to use. To the user, the interface is the system [Hix and Hartson 1993] and the quality of the interaction is just as important as the quality of performance [Jordan 2002], if not more important [Larson 1992]. With a less usable interface, the quality of the model could suffer.

[Pidd 1996] outlines major principles that can aid in designing a discrete event modeling editor with high usability and acceptance by users. According to Pidd, the most usable interfaces are simple, intuitive, disallowing of dangerous behavior, and offer the user instant and intelligible feedback in the event of an error. These principles are derived from more general HCI principles presented in [Norman 1988], and supported by theories about learning and cognitive psychology [Kay 1990]. However, these principles are often overlooked in the creation of visual modeling editors.

2.4 Integrative Modeling

Although M&S has adopted some HCI methodologies to aid in the creation of models and modeling tools, minimal research has been conducted in effectively integrating user interfaces and visualization into the models. *Integrative modeling* [Fishwick 2004] [Park 2004] [Shim 2007] is an emerging field that addresses these issues. The goal of integrative modeling is to blend abstract model representations with more concrete representations, such as a geometric representation. This blending is achieved through a combination of HCI, Visualization, and Simulation techniques. Novel interfaces are

incorporated as part of the simulation model, helping the user to visualize how the abstract and concrete representations are related. For example, [Park 2005] used morphing as a way to visually connect a functional block model of the dynamics of aircraft communication to the 3D aircraft configurations during flight. That work served as a preliminary study into the use of ontologies for generating one particular domain model integration.

The work presented in this paper relies on the concepts laid out by the previous work in integrative modeling. This paper presents an integrative method to combine an abstract simulation with the physical phenomenon being simulated and facilitate visualization of this combination with a display device that has been seamlessly integrated into the simulation, a magic lens (explained in the next section). Much of the technology used in this approach comes from another emerging field of research, Mixed Reality.

3. MIXED REALITY

3.1 Virtual Reality

In 1965, Ivan Sutherland laid out the foundations of virtual reality with his seminal vision of the Ultimate Display [Sutherland 1965]. The display would be a fully immersive room that could control the existence of matter; for example the room could display a chair where the user could actually sit or display a bullet that could actually harm the user. The user would perceive everything displayed to be completely real.

Currently, VR has been able to approximate some aspects such as immersion, auditory feedback, and haptic feedback. VR users of today can put on a tracked Head Mounted Display (HMD) and visualize rendered 3D graphics, hear 3D audio and interact with a 3D haptic device. Virtual Environments (VEs) use this technology to supplement the user's senses, which makes virtual objects inside the VE seem perceptibly real to the user. For example, with the use of a force feedback haptic glove, a user can grasp a virtual object and feel the shape of the object in their hand. The force feedback glove simulates the physical properties of a similar real object.

3.2 Mixed Reality Definition

In 1994, Milgram and Kishino [Milgram and Kishino 1994] laid the framework for a new area of Virtual Reality research called Mixed Reality (MR). MR takes a different approach to interaction and visualization. Instead of simulating a purely virtual world, MR systems *combine* the virtual world with the real world. In MR, users visualize and interact with both real and virtual objects in the same space and context. For example, in

MR, users can visualize some virtual objects but they can also see the real world and interact with real objects. Often the real objects are tracked and are used as interfaces to the virtual world. Then, by interacting with real objects, users can interact with the virtual world.

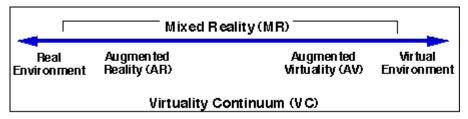


Figure 3.1: The Virtuality Continuum.

Milgram and Kishino proposed the Virtuality Continuum (figure 3.1). The continuum spans from real environments, where all objects have an actual objective existence, to virtual environments, where all objects are virtual or simulated. Mixed Reality encompasses the area of the continuum in between the completely real and the completely virtual. Along with this continuum, Milgram presents a taxonomy of the different categories in which Mixed Reality can "mix" virtual and real objects in a Mixed Environment. The authors laid out two main categories of combining the virtual and real worlds in MR:

- 1. Augmented Reality (AR): Virtual objects and information are superimposed into the real world so that they appear to be real, often by means of superimposing 3D graphics over a live video stream. AR systems use overlaid virtual information to augment the user's perception of the real world. Thus, in an AR environment, users view and interact with a higher proportion of real objects than virtual objects (i.e. a Heads up display (HUD)).
- 2. Augmented Virtuality (AV): Real world objects or information are superimposed into the visualization of a virtual world, often by means of some type of 3D reconstruction of a real object. Thus, AV systems integrate real objects into the virtual world to augment the user's perception of the virtual world. Thus, in an AV environment, users view and interact with a higher proportion of virtual objects than real objects.

3.3 MR Technology Overview

Since the purpose of MR is to combine the virtual world with the real world, much of the previous MR research has focused on engineering the necessary hardware and algorithms

that facilitate this combination. In general, previous MR research has focused on registration, interaction, and displays.

3.4 Registration

Registration research focuses on solving the problem of accurately aligning virtual objects with real objects so that they appear to exist in the same space. Extensive research has been conducted in this area since accurate registration is critical to many MR applications. For example, if a surgeon is performing a laparoscopic surgery augmented with AR, the real surgical tools must align with the virtual representation of the patient's internals (such as live MRI data); even registration inaccuracies of millimeters could cause the surgeon to make a mistake that would be harmful to the patient. As with this example, accurate registration of virtual objects is needed for many MR applications to be usable. Thus, much MR registration research has been conducted to discover how to accurately register virtual objects with real objects. For a good survey of registration and AR research, see [Azuma 1997] chapter 5.

3.5 Interaction: Tangible Interfaces and Real Object Interfaces

One field of research that focuses on using real world objects as interfaces to the virtual world is Tangible Interfaces [Ishii 1997]. A tangible interface is an interface that employs real objects "as both representations and controls for computational media." [Ullmer 2001] For example, a classic interface for a computer simulation is a Graphical User Interface (GUI) in which the user clicks on buttons and sliders etc. to control the simulation. The main purpose of this type of GUI is for control. Like a GUI, a tangible user interface (TUI) is used for control of the simulation, but the TUI is also an integral part of that simulation; rather than just being a simulation control, a TUI also represents a virtual object that is part of the simulation.

One way to combine real and virtual world interaction is to use a real object as a tangible interface to a virtual representation (*virtual correlate*) of that object. In this way, interacting with the real object facilitates interaction with both the real world and the virtual world at the same time. For example, in [Lok 2004b], NASA engineers performed a virtual assembly using real tools in MR. Through interacting with a real tool's virtual correlate, they were able to interact with the virtual objects and complete the assembly. Since these real objects are interfaces to the virtual world, they allow users to interact with the virtual objects more naturally and realistically than traditional VR interfaces such as tracked 6DOF joysticks and 3D mice.

3.6 MR Displays

In addition to creating the Virtuality Continuum, Milgram and Kishino also outlined a taxonomy for MR displays. Like the continuum, these displays range from visualizing the real world to visualizing a purely virtual world. There are six classes of displays listed but this section will only review one type of display that is relevant to the presented work: Magic Lenses.

3.6.1 Magic Lens

Magic Lenses were originally created as 2D interfaces, outlined in [Bier 1993]. 2D magic lenses are movable, semi-transparent 'regions of interest' that show the user a different representation of the information underneath the lens. They were used for such operations as magnification, blur, and previewing various image effects. Each lens represented a specific effect. If the user wanted to combine effects, two lenses could be dragged over the same area, producing a combined effect in the overlapping areas of the lens. The overall purpose of the magic lens, showing underlying data in a different context or representation, remained when it was extended from 2D into 3D [Viega 1996]. Instead of using squares and circles to affect the underlying data on a 2D plane, boxes and spheres were used to give an alternate visualization of volumetric data.



Figure 3.2: A user interacts with a magic lens.

In Mixed and Augmented reality these lenses have again been extended to become, hand-held tangible user interfaces and display devices as in [Looser 2004]. With an augmented reality lens, the user can look through a lens and see the real world augmented with virtual information within the lens's 'region of interest' (i.e. LCD screen of a tablet

based lens). The lens acts as a filter or a window for the real world and is shown in perspective with the user's first-person perspective of the real world. Thus, the MR/AR lens is similar to the original 2D magic lens metaphor, but has been implemented as a 6DOF tangible user interface instead of a 2DOF graphical user interface object.

A magic lens is a tracked, hand-held "window" into the virtual (or augmented) world (figure 3.2). Virtual information is displayed in context with the real world and from a first person perspective. However, unlike the HMD, the magic lens is a non-immersive display; it doesn't block the user's visual periphery. A magic lens allows users to see the real world around them and view the virtual information displayed on the lens in context with the surrounding real world. The non-immersive and portable design of the lens allows it to be viewed by several people at once or easily handed off to others for sharing. Since the lens is easily sharable, it is also ideal for collaborative visualization.

One of the other main advantages of the lens is that it can be used as a tangible interface to control the visualization. Since the lens is hand held and easy to physically manipulate, the user can interact with one lens or multiple lenses to represent different types of viewing or filtering of the real world. In fact, most previous research that has been conducted with magic lenses concentrates on the lens's tangible interface aspects. In [Looser 2004], the researchers use multiple magic lenses to facilitate visualization operations such as semantic zooming and information filtering.

4. THE VAM AND THE REAL ANESTHESIA MACHINE

The purpose of the presented research is to offer methods of combining real phenomena with a corresponding abstract simulation model. A case study with a real anesthesia machine and the corresponding abstract simulation model is presented as an example application. In this application, students interact with a real anesthesia machine while visualizing the abstract simulation model in context with the real machine's components. Before detailing the methods and implementation of this combination, this section describes how students interact with the real machine and the abstract simulation – the VAM – in the current training process. The following example shows how students interact with one anesthesia machine component – the gas flow meters – and describes how students are expected to mentally map the VAM gas flow meters to the real gas flow meters.

4.1 The Gas Flow Meters in the Real Anesthesia Machine

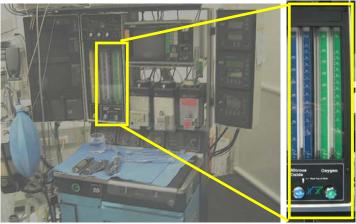


Figure 4.2: a magnified view of the gas flow meters on the real machine.

A real anesthesia machine anesthetizes patients by administering anesthetic gases into the patient's lungs. The anesthesiologist monitors and adjusts the flow of these gases to make sure that the patient stays safe and under anesthesia. The anesthesiologist does this by manually adjusting the gas flow knobs and monitoring the gas flow meters as shown in figure 4.2. The two knobs at the bottom of the right picture control the flow of gases in the anesthesia machine and the bobbins in the meters above them move along a graduated scale to display current flow rate. If a user turns the color-coded knobs, the gas flow changes and the meters read a different measurement.

4.2 The Gas Flow Meters in the VAM

The VAM models these gas flow control knobs and meters with a 2D icon (figure 4.3) that resembles the gas flow knobs and meters on the real machine. As with the real machine, the user can adjust the gas flow in the VAM by turning the knobs. Since the VAM is a 2D online simulation, the user clicks and drags with the mouse in order to adjust the knobs. When the user turns a knob, the rate of gas flow changes in the visualization; animated color-coded gas particles (e.g. blue particles = N_2O ; green particles = O_2) change their movement speed accordingly. These gas particles and the connections between the various machine components are invisible in the real machine. The VAM models the invisible gas flow, invisible connections, interaction, and the appearance of the real gas flow meters. Within this modeling, there is an inherent mapping between the real machine's gas flow meters and the VAM's.

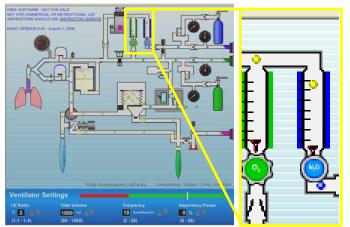


Figure 4.3: A magnified view of the gas flow knobs and level meters in the VAM.

Students are expected to mentally map the concepts learned with the VAM (i.e. visible gas flow) to their interactions with the real machine. Because the VAM and the real machine are complex and spatially organized differently, some students have difficulty mentally mapping the VAM to the real machine. An estimated 10% to 20% of students experience difficulty mapping. This may inhibit their understanding of how the real machine works internally. In order to resolve this issue, this research proposes to combine the visualization of the VAM with the interaction of the real machine. Methods to perform this combination are presented in the following section.

5. CONTEXTUALIZATION

5.1 Contextualization Definition

If the user needs to understand the mappings between the simulation model and the phenomena being simulated, it could be helpful to incorporate a visualization of these mappings into the simulation visualization. One way of visualizing these mappings is to 'contextualize' the simulation model with the real phenomena being simulated. Contextualization involves two criteria (1) *Registration*: spatially superimpose parts of the simulation model over the corresponding parts of the real phenomena (or vice versa) and (2) *Synchronization*: temporally synchronize the simulation with the real phenomena.

5.2 An Example Contextualization: Gas flow meters

5.2.1 Registration

Consider contextualizing the VAM's gas flow meters with the real anesthesia machine's gas flow meters. One method of contextualization is to superimpose the VAM's gas flow meters simulation model visualization directly over the real gas flow

meters (figure 5.1 top). Superimposing the VAM gas flow meters simulation model over the real machine requires us to overlay computer graphics (the VAM gas flow meters) on the user's view of the real world. In effect, the user's view of the real gas meters is combined with a synthetic view of the VAM gas meters.

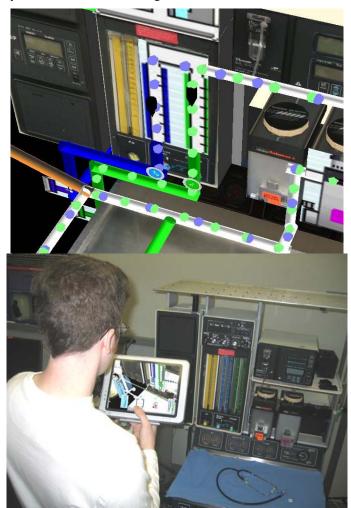


Figure 5.1: Top: The user's view of the AAM. The VAM gas meters icon have been superimposed over the real machine. The gas flow is visualized by particles that flow between the various components in 3D.

Bottom: the user visualizes the overlaid gas meters VAM icon through the magic lens.

To visualize the superimposed gas meters, users look through a tracked 6DOF magic lens (figure 5.1 bottom). Through the lens, they view the real gas meters from a first person perspective with the VAM simulated gas meters shown in-context with the real gas meters. The machine visualization appears on the lens in the same position and orientation as the real machine, as if the lens were a transparent window and the user was looking through it. The relationship between the user's head and the lens is analogous to

the OpenGL camera metaphor. The camera is positioned at the user's eye, and the projection plane is the lens; the lens renders the VAM simulation directly over the machine from the perspective of the user.

This in-context juxtaposition of the VAM gas meters and the real gas meters will help lens users visualize the mapping between the VAM simulation model and the real machine. The magic lens facilitates the first criterion for contextualization -- superimposing the simulation model component over the corresponding real component.

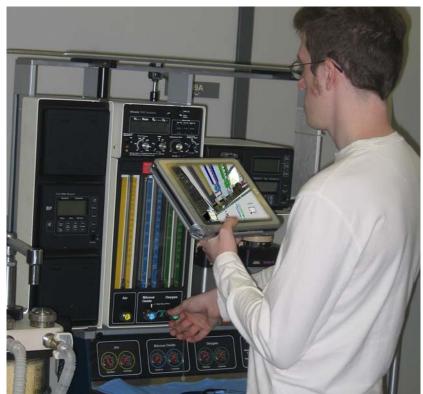


Figure 5.2. A user uses the real machine as an interface to the simulation. Thus, the simulation must be synchronized to the real machine.

5.2.2 Synchronization

To meet the second criterion, the VAM gas meters simulation model visualization (i.e. the gas particles' flow rate) must be synchronized with the real machine. Thus, changes in the rate of the simulated gas flow must correspond with changes in the real gas flow. To facilitate this synergy, this system uses motion detection via computer vision techniques to track the setting of the meters. This setting corresponds to the real gas flow rate of the machine. Then, the gas flow rates (as set by the user on the real meters) are sent to the simulation in order to set the flow rate of the simulated gases. In effect, if a

user turns the O_2 knob on the real machine to increase the real O_2 rate (figure 5.2), the simulated O_2 rate will increase as well. Then the user can visualize the rate change on the magic lens interactively, as the green particles (representing the O_2) will visually increase in speed until the user stops turning the knob. Thus, the real machine is an interface to control the simulation of the machine. The simulation of the gas meters is synchronized to the real machine, which meets the second criterion for contextualization – synchronizing the simulation model visualization (i.e. visible gas flow and machine state) with the real machine.

6. CONTEXTUALIZATION METHODS

Contextualizing an entire simulation model, which may consist of many models and components, is not as simple as contextualizing one component, such as the gas flow meters in the previous example. Simply superimposing an unaltered abstract simulation over the real world (or vice versa) is arguably not enough for the contextualization to make sense to the viewer. For example, the geometric layout of the simulation may differ vastly from the geometric layout of the real phenomena (i.e. figure 1.1). In order to effectively contextualize a simulation model with its real world counterpart, some spatial reorganization of either the simulation model layout or the real phenomenon must occur. To spatially reorganize one object to align with the other, one object must be 'cut out' of its original context and 'pasted' into the corresponding object's context.

With two contexts, there are at least two methods of visualizing the mappings of the contextualization: (1) spatially reorganize the components of the real phenomenon to be registered with the corresponding components of the simulation model or (2) spatially reorganize the components of the simulation model to be registered with the corresponding components of the real phenomenon. These methods are described here through the example of mapping the VAM simulation to the anesthesia machine.

The purpose of these two specific methods is to help students orient themselves to the real machine after learning with the VAM. The students start with the VAM, and proceed through the following contextualization methods before learning with the anesthesia machine. Through interaction with the AAM, it is expected that students will better understand the mapping from the VAM to the anesthesia machine and enhance their overall knowledge of anesthesia machines.

6.1 Contextualization Method 1: VAM-Context

One way to visualize the mapping between a real phenomenon and its simulation model is to spatially reorganize the real phenomenon so that its components are superimposed into the context of the simulation model. Thus, using this method, the components of the real machine (e.g. the gas flow meters, the vaporizer, the ventilation bag etc) are reorganized and superimposed into the context of the VAM simulation (figure 6.1). Each real component is repositioned to align with the corresponding simulated component in the VAM. Through this alignment, the user is able to visualize the mapping between the VAM and the real machine.

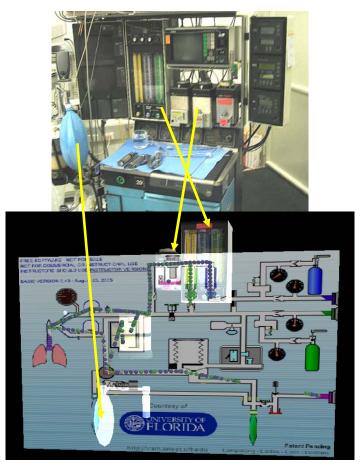


Figure 6.1: the real machine (top) is spatially reorganized to align with the VAM (bottom). The arrows demonstrate how the original machine was spatially reorganized.

However, in many cases, it is not possible to physically deconstruct a real phenomenon and spatially reorganize its various parts. For example, many components, such as the gas flow meters, cannot be disconnected or moved within the anesthesia

machine. Rather, the lens renders a high resolution pre-made 3D scale model of the real machine. This 3D model is readily reconfigurable by performing geometric transformations on its various components. Then, the software can spatially reorganize the real machine's 3D model to align with the components of the VAM, thereby visualizing the mapping between the two.

This method takes a 3D anesthesia machine model and reorganizes it on the 2D plane of the VAM. This mode is different from the contextualization described in the gas flow meters contextualization example in which the user looked through the magic lens like a transparent window. However, in this mode, the magic lens does not function in seethrough mode anymore. After aligning to the VAM, the 3D model of the machine is no longer registered to the real machine and lens tracking is disabled. With this method, the tablet PC lens is just a hand held screen that displays a 2D simulation from a stationary viewpoint, rather than acting as a see-through window. Essentially, this mode couples the 2D VAM visualization with the interaction style of the anesthesia machine (figure 6.2).



Figure 6.2: VAM-Context interaction: A user views how her interactions with the anesthesia machine affect the 2D VAM simulation.

The VAM-Context interaction style stays the same as in the previous gas meters contextualization example. Users can interact with the real machine as an interface to the simulation model. To interact with a specific simulation component, users must first identify the superimposed real machine component on the lens, and then interact with the real component on the real machine. This maintains the second criterion of contextualization, synchronizing the simulation with the real phenomenon, and allows the

users to see how their real machine interactions map to the context of the VAM simulation model.

6.2 Contextualization Method 2: Real Machine-Context

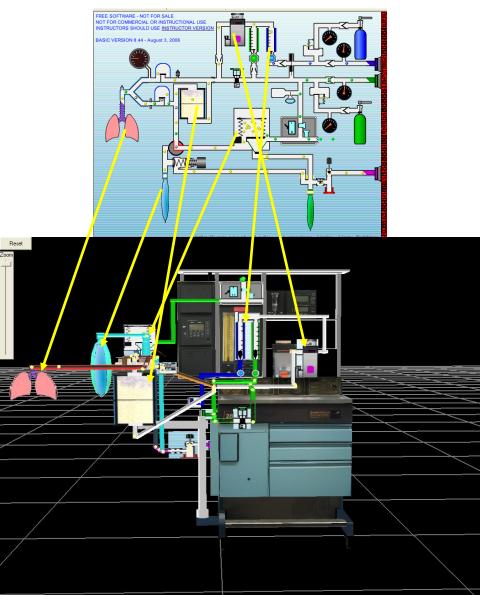


Figure 6.3: The VAM (top) is spatially reorganized to align with the real machine (bottom).

Another way to visualize the mapping between the simulation model and real phenomena is to spatially reorganize the simulation model layout and superimpose the model's components over the corresponding components of the real phenomenon. Thus, using this method, the components of the VAM (i.e. gas meters icon, vaporizer icon, ventilator icon etc) are spatially reorganized and superimposed into the context of the real machine

(figure 6.3). Each model component is repositioned in 3D to align with the corresponding real component. Through this alignment, the user is able to visualize the mapping between the VAM and the real machine.

This method 'cuts out' the 2D model components, and 'pastes' them over the corresponding parts of the real machine. This transforms the components from 2D positions in the VAM to 3D positions in the context of the real machine. The icons themselves remain on 2D planes, realized in the AAM by creating several flat quadrilaterals and texturing each quadrilateral with the graphics of a component from the 2D VAM. These quadrilaterals are then scaled to the relative size of the corresponding component of the real anesthesia machine. Then the quadrilaterals are positioned and oriented (registered) to align with the components of the real machine. Once this process is completed, the VAM components can be visualized superimposed over the real machine as seen in figure 6.3. This overlay helps the user to visualize the mapping between the real machine and the simulation model.

Note that with both contextualization methods presented here, the underlying functional relationships of the simulation model stay the same. For example, in this method, although the reorganized VAM components no longer maintain the original model's spatial relationships, they do maintain the same functional relationships. In the AAM, the gas particle visualization still flows between the same components, but the flow visualization takes a different path between the components -- a 3D path through the real machine.

6.2.2 Visualization with the Magic Lens



Figure 6.4. The real view and the magic lens view of the machine shown from the same viewpoint. This method uses a magic lens as a see-through window into the world of the 3D simulation. The lens allows users to move freely around the machine and view the simulation from a first person perspective by looking through the lens (figure 6.4). The graphics displayed on the lens align to the user's view of the real machine, thereby

augmenting their visual perception of the real machine with the overlaid VAM simulation model graphics.

For the see-through effect, the lens displays a scaled high-resolution 3D model of the machine that is registered to the real machine. To facilitate this registration, computer vision 3D tracking techniques are employed (see section 7 for details). By tracking the lens' position and orientation information along with the known position of the real machine, the lens can display the 3D model of the machine from a perspective that is consistent with user's first-person perspective of the real machine. To the user, the lens appears to be a see-through window.

There are many reasons why the see-though functionality was implemented with a 3D model of the machine registered to the real machine. This method was chosen over a video see-though technique (prevalent in many AR applications) in which the VAM components would be superimposed over a live video stream. The two main reasons for this type of implementation are:

- To facilitate video-see-through, a camera would have to be mounted to the lens.
 Limitations of camera field of view and positioning make it difficult to maintain the
 magic lens' window metaphor.
- 2. Using a 3D model of the machine increases the visualization possibilities. For example, the parts of the real machine cannot be physically separated but the parts in a 3D model visualization can. This facilitates visualization in the VAM-Context method and the visual transformation between the methods as described in the next section.

There are many other types of displays that could be used to visualize the VAM superimposed over the real machine (such as see-though Head Mounted Display (HMD)). The lens was chosen because it facilitates both VAM-Context and Real Machine-Context visualizations. More immersive displays (i.e. HMDs) are difficult to adapt to the 2D visualization of the VAM-Context without obstructing the user's view of the real machine. However, as technology advances, we will reconsider alternative display options to the magic lens.

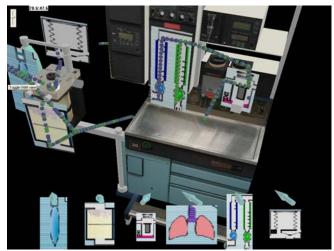


Figure 6.5. The menu at the bottom of the HUD points the user in the direction of each spatially reorganized VAM component in 3D. The tubes have been removed to make the icons more visble.

In the case of anesthesia machine training, students may become familiar with the VAM before ever using the real machine. Thus, since these students are already familiar with the 2D VAM, this Real Machine Context method's spatial reorganization of the VAM could be disorienting. To ameliorate this disorientation, a heads-up-display (HUD) was implemented (figure 6.5). The HUD shows the familiar VAM icons which are screen aligned and displayed along the bottom of the lens screen; each icon has a 3D arrow associated with it that always points at the corresponding component in the anesthesia machine. Thus, if the user needs to find a specific VAM component's new location in the context of the anesthesia machine, the user can follow the arrow above the HUD icon and easily locate the spatially reorganized VAM component. Once the user has located all the reorganized VAM components, the user can optionally press a GUI button to hide the HUD.

6.2.4 Interaction

With this Real Machine Context method, users visualize a spatially reorganized VAM simulation model that has been superimposed over the real machine. Users interact with the simulation through their interactions with the real machine. For example, a user can turn the N_2O knob on the real machine to increase the flow rate of N_2O in the real machine (figure 6.6). Then, the user can look at the flow meters through the magic lens and see the animation of the flow of simulated N_2O particles increase in speed. With this method, users can visualize how their interactions with the real machine affect the simulation model in context with the real machine; the overlaid simulation model allows

users to visualize how the real components of the machine are functionally and spatially related and thereby visualize how the machine works internally. Thus, this coupling of the overlaid VAM visualization and real machine interaction helps the user to visualize the mappings between the VAM simulation model and the real machine being simulated.

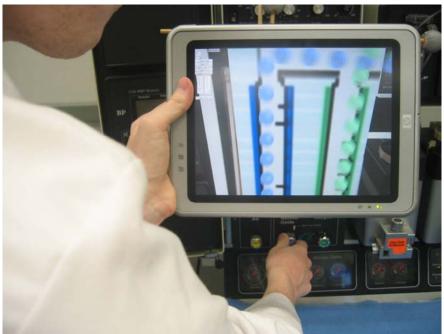


Figure 6.6. A user turns the gas knobs on the real machine and visualizes how this interaction affects the overlaid VAM simulation model.

6.3 Transformation between VAM-Context and Real Machine-Context

Choosing the appropriate contextualization method for a given application is not trivial. In many cases, users might prefer to interactively switch between two methods. If users have the ability to switch between methods, it is beneficial to display a visual transformation between the contextualizations.

To create a smooth transition between VAM-Context and Real Machine-Context, a geometric transformation can be implemented. The 3D models (the machine, the 3D VAM icons) animate smoothly between the differing spatial organizations of each contextualization method. This transformation 'morphs' from one contextualization method to the other with an animation of a simple geometric transformation (figure 6.7).

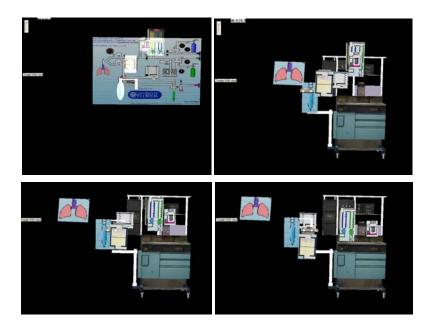


Figure 6.7: Top left: In the Real Machine Context, the VAM components are organized to align with the real machine. Top Right: The transformation to VAM-Context begins. Bottom left: The components begin to take on positions similar to the VAM. Bottom Right: The real components are organized to align with the VAM. The tubes have been removed to make the icons' transformation more visible.

Consider converting from Real Machine-Context to VAM-Context, shown in figure 6.7. Initially, in Real Machine-Context the 3D gas flow meters model are integrated with the 3D model of the real machine. Then the user presses a GUI button on the lens to start the transformation and the 3D model of the gas meters translates in an animation. The gas meters model moves to its respective position just behind the gas meters icon in the VAM (after the VAM is projected onto a quadrilateral in 3D space). Once the transformation into VAM-Context is complete, the simulation visualization becomes screen aligned again - the lens is no longer tracked and displays the simulation in 2D. Similarly, to transform gas meters from VAM-Context to Real Machine-Context, the previous transformations are merely inverted. These transformation animations help to demonstrate the mappings between the real machine and the VAM simulation model.

6.3.1 Transformation Implementation

To facilitate this transformation between the two methods, an explicit mapping between the component positions in each method must be implemented. One way to implement such a mapping is with a semantic network. The semantic network is a graph in which there exists a series of 'links' or edges between the components in each method.

The structure of the semantic network is simple, although, there are many components that must be linked. Each 3D model of a real machine component (i.e. the gas meters) is linked to a corresponding VAM icon. This icon is linked to a position in the VAM and a position in the real machine. Likewise, the path nodes that facilitate the gas particle visualizations (i.e. blue particles representing N_2O) also have links to path node positions in both the real machine and the VAM. Then, when the user changes the visualization method, the components and the particles all translate in an animation to the positions contained in their semantic links. These links represent the mappings between the real machine and the VAM; these links also represent the mappings that exist between the two visualization methods. The animation of the transformation visualizes the mappings between the components in each method.

7. AAM SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

This paper presents methods for contextualizing a simulation model with the real phenomena being simulated by using MR technology. The example application of contextualization described throughout this paper is called the Augmented Anesthesia Machine (AAM). The AAM consists of an anesthesia machine augmented with MR technology (tracking devices, magic lens) to facilitate the contextualization of the VAM with the real machine. This section will describe the implementation details of the AAM system. Specifically, this section will explain the details of tracking and display technology that the AAM uses to enable contextualization.

7.1 Tracking Systems

As described in section 5.1, contextualization involves two criteria: (1) *Registration*: superimpose parts of the simulation model over the corresponding parts of the real phenomena (or vice versa) and (2) *Synchronization*: synchronize the simulation with the real phenomena. To implement both of these criteria in the AAM, computer vision based tracking technology was used. There are two separate tracking systems used. One system tracks the position and orientation of the magic lens, which enables registration. The other system tracks the meters and gauges of the real machine, which is used to drive the simulation and enable synchronization.

7.1.1 Tracking the Magic Lens

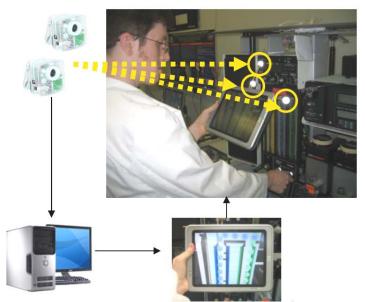


Figure 7.1 This is a diagram of the magic lens tracking system. Two web cams track the 3D positions of 3 retro-reflective markers attached to the tablet PC. This information is sent to a computer, which computes the position and orientation of the lens. Then the pose information is used to compute the user's first person perspective, which is rendered on the lens.

In order to realize criterion (1) in the AAM, the 2D VAM simulation model was converted to 3D (as explained in section 6.2) and superimposed over the 3D machine model. To visualize this contextualization, this system utilizes the magic lens, which can be thought of as a "window" into the virtual world. In order to implement this window metaphor, the user's augmented view had to be consistent with their first-person real world perspective, as if they were looking at the real machine through an actual window (rather than an opaque tablet pc that simulates a window). The 3D graphics displayed on the lens had to be rendered consistently with the user's first-person perspective of the real world. In order to display this perspective on the lens, the tracking system tracked the 3D position and orientation of the magic lens display and approximated the user's head position.

To track the position and orientation of the magic lens, the AAM tracking system uses a computer vision technique called outside-looking-in tracking. The tracking method is widely used by the MR community and is described in more detail in [van Rhijn 2005]. The technique consists of multiple stationary cameras calculating the position and orientation of special markers that are attached to the objects being tracked (in this case the object being tracked is the tablet PC that instantiates the magic lens). The cameras are first calibrated by having them all view an object of predefined dimensions. Then the

relative position and orientation of each camera can be calculated. After calibration, each camera must search each frame's images for the markers attached to the lens; then the marker position information from multiple cameras is combined to create a 3D position. To reduce this search, the AAM tracking system uses cameras with infrared lenses and retro-reflective markers that reflect infrared light. Thus, the cameras see only the reflective balls in the image plane. The magic lens has three retro-reflective balls attached to it. Each ball has a predefined relative position to the other two balls. Triangulating and matching the balls from at least two camera views can facilitate calculation of the 3D position and orientation of the balls. Then this position and orientation can be used for the position and orientation of the magic lens.

The AAM system uses the position and orientation of the magic lens to render the 3D machine from the user's current perspective. Although tracking the lens alone does not result in rendering the exact perspective of the user, it gives a good approximation as long as the user knows where to hold the lens in relation to the user's head. To view the correct perspective in the AAM system, the user must hold the lens approximately 25cm away from their eyes and orient the lens perpendicular to their eye gaze direction. To accurately render the 3D machine from the user's perspective independent of where the user holds the lens in relation to the head, both the user's head position and the lens must be tracked. Tracking both the head and the lens will be considered in future work.

7.1.2 Tracking the Real Machine's Meters and Gauges

In order to synchronize the VAM simulation model to the real machine as in contextualization criterion (2), the AAM tracking system must also track the state (i.e. gas meters, pressure gauges) of the real machine and use it to drive the simulation. When the user turns the N_2O knob, the bobbin in the N_2O level meter floats up. The tracking system detects this change and sends the new N_2O flow rate information to the simulation visualized on the magic lens. Then the simulation changes the speed of the N_2O gas particles and the user can directly observe this change. In order for the tracking system to detect these changes a computer vision based tracking system is employed.

The tracking system used to track the machine's meters and gauges is much less complex than the system used to track the lens. The meter and gauge tracking system consists of stationary webcams that are coupled with OpenCV based software that detects motion from live webcam streams. The image processing routines used to perform motion tracking are built in functions to the OpenCV library [Bradski 2000]. Using these

techniques, the real machine's meters and gauges can be tracked and the simulation can be synchronized to this tracking information.

7.2 Hardware

The system consists of three computers: (1) the magic lens is an HP tc1100 tablet PC (2) a Pentium IV computer for tracking the magic lens and (3) a Pentium IV computer for tracking the machine's meters and knobs. These computers interface with six 30 Hz Unibrain Fire-I webcams. Two webcams are used for tracking the lens. The four other webcams are used for tracking the machine's meters and knobs. The anesthesia machine is an Ohmeda Modulus II. Except for the anesthesia machine, all of the hardware components used are inexpensive and commercially available off-the-shelf equipment.

8. CONCLUSIONS

This paper presented the concept of contextualizing simulation models with the real phenomena being simulated. If a user needs to understand the mapping between the simulation model and the real phenomena, it could be helpful to incorporate a visualization of this mapping into the simulation visualization. One way of visualizing these mappings is to 'contextualize' the simulation model with the real phenomena being simulated. Effective contextualization involves two criteria: (1) superimpose parts of the simulation model over the corresponding parts of the real phenomena (or vice versa) and (2) synchronize the simulation with the real phenomena. This combination of visualization as in (1) and interaction as in (2) allows the user to interact with and visualize the simulation model in context with the real world.

This paper presented two methods of contextualizing simulation model with the real phenomena being simulated, exemplified by an application to anesthesia machine training. An abstract anesthesia machine simulation model, the VAM, was contextualized with the real anesthesia machine that it was simulating. Thus, two methods of contextualization were applied: (1) spatially reorganize the components of the real machine and superimpose them into the context of the abstract simulation model and (2) spatially reorganize the abstract simulation model and superimpose it into the context of the real phenomena. This superimposition is a visualization of the relationship, or mapping, between the simulation model and the real phenomena. Although this mapping is not usually visualized in most simulation applications, it can help the simulation user to understand the applicability of the simulation content and better understand both the simulation model and the real phenomena being simulated.

To facilitate an in-context visualization of the mapping between the real phenomena and the simulation, we used MR technology such as a magic lens and tracking devices. The magic lens allowed users to visualize the VAM superimposed into the context of the real machine from a first-person perspective. The lens acted as a window into the world of the overlaid 3D VAM simulation. In addition, MR technology combined the simulation visualization with the interaction of the real machine. This allowed users to interact with the real machine and visualize how this interaction affected the abstract simulation of the machine's internal workings.

The main contribution of this research is the concept of integrating abstract simulation with the real phenomena being simulated through combining visualization and interaction. The system presented in this paper combines the visualization and interactive aspects of both the simulation and the real phenomena using MR technology. The purpose of this system is to visualize the inherent relationship between the simulation and the real phenomena being simulated. As in the case of anesthesia machine training, this contextualization may enhance the user's overall understanding of both the simulation and the real phenomena.

9. FUTURE WORK

We plan to formally evaluate the system by conducting user studies with anesthesiology residents. By comparing the knowledge acquisition of students who learn with the AAM to students who learn with the current methods (i.e. the VAM and the Anesthesia Machine), we can investigate whether our methods of contextualization are in fact beneficial to the end user. Furthermore, to better generalize this work, we will investigate the needs of other applications besides anesthesiology that could benefit from combining abstract simulation with the real world. In this effort, we will work to engineer a general software framework that aids application developers (i.e. educators rather than MR researchers) in combining simulation and real world phenomena.

10. REFERENCES

- Azuma, R. T. (1997). "A survey of augmented reality." Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual Environments(1054-7460) 6(4): 355-385.
- Balci, O., A. I. Bertelrud, C. M. Esterbrook and R. E. Nance (1997). "The Visual Simulation Environment Technology Transfer." Simulation Conference Proceedings, 1997. Winter: 1323-1329.
- Banks, J. and J. S. Carson (2001). Discrete-event system simulation, Prentice Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Bier, E. A., M. C. Stone, K. Pier, W. Buxton and T. D. DeRose (1993). "Toolglass and magic lenses: the seethrough interface." Proceedings of the 20th annual conference on Computer graphics and interactive techniques: 73-80.

- Booth, P. A. (1989). An Introduction to Human-Computer Interaction, Psychology Press (UK).
- Bradski, G. (2000). "The OpenCV Library." Dr. Dobb's Journal November 2000, Computer Security.
- Cellier, F. E. (1991). Continuous System Modeling, Springer.
- Dahl, O. J. and K. Nygaard (1966). "SIMULA: an ALGOL-based simulation language." Communications of the ACM 9(9): 671-678.
- Falchuk, B. and A. Karmouch (1998). "Visual modeling for agent-based applications." Computer 31(12): 31-38.
- Fishwick, P., T. Davis and J. Douglas (2005). "Model representation with aesthetic computing: Method and empirical study." ACM Transactions on Modeling and Computer Simulation (TOMACS) 15(3): 254-279.
- Fishwick, P. A. (1995). Simulation Model Design and Execution: Building Digital Worlds, Prentice Hall PTR Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA.
- Fishwick, P. A. (2004). "Toward an Integrative Multimodeling Interface: A Human-Computer Interface Approach to Interrelating Model Structures." SIMULATION 80(9): 421.
- Hix, D. and H. R. Hartson (1993). Developing user interfaces: ensuring usability through product & process, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. New York, NY, USA.
- Hopkins, J. and P. A. Fishwick (2000). "Synthetic Human Agents for Modeling and Simulation." Proceedings of the IEEE.
- Insko, B. E., M. Meehan, M. Whitton and F. P. Brooks Jr (2001). "Passive Haptics Significantly Enhances Virtual Environments." Proceedings of 4th Annual Presence Workshop, Philadelphia, PA.
- Ishii, H. and B. Ullmer (1997). "Tangible bits: towards seamless interfaces between people, bits and atoms." Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human factors in computing systems: 234-241.
- Jordan, P. W. (2002). Designing pleasurable products: An Introduction to the New Human Factors., Routledge Press.
- Kato, H. and M. Billinghurst (1999). "Marker Tracking and HMD Calibration for a Video-based Augmented Reality Conferencing System." Proceedings of the 2nd IEEE and ACM International Workshop on Augmented Reality 99: 85-94.
- Kay, A. (1990). "User Interface: A Personal View." The Art of Human-Computer Interface Design: 191-207.
- Kiviat, P. J., R. Villanueva, H. M. Markowitz and E. C. Russell (1973). SIMSCRIPT II. 5: Programming Language, Consolidated Analysis Centers.
- Krahl, D. (2002). "Extend: the Extend simulation environment." Proceedings of the 34th conference on Winter simulation: exploring new frontiers: 205-213.
- Kuljis, J. (1996). "HCI and simulation packages." Simulation Conference Proceedings, 1996. Winter: 687-694.
- Lampotang, S., D. E. Lizdas, N. Gravenstein and E. B. Liem (2006). "Transparent reality, a simulation based on interactive dynamic graphical models emphasizing visualization." Educational Technology 46(1): 55–59.
- Larson, J. A. (1992). Interactive software, Yourdon Press.
- Law, A. M. and W. D. Kelton (2000). Simulation Modeling and Analysis, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Levoy, M. (1999). "The digital Michelangelo project." 3-D Digital Imaging and Modeling, 1999. Proceedings. Second International Conference on: 2-11.
- Lok, B., S. Naik, M. Whitton and F. P. Brooks Jr (2004a). "Experiences in Extemporaneous Incorporation of Real Objects in Immersive Virtual Environments." Beyond Glove and Wand Based Interaction Workshop, IEEE Virtual Reality.

- Lok, B. C. (2004b). "Toward the merging of real and virtual spaces." Communications of the ACM 47(8): 48-53
- Looser, J., M. Billinghurst and A. Cockburn (2004). "Through the looking glass: the use of lenses as an interface tool for Augmented Reality interfaces." Proceedings of the 2nd international conference on Computer graphics and interactive techniques in Australasia and Southe East Asia: 204-211.
- Luke, S., C. Cioffi-Revilla, L. Panait, K. Sullivan and G. Balan (2005). "MASON: A Multiagent Simulation Environment." SIMULATION 81(7): 517.
- Mattsson, S. E., H. Elmqvist and M. Otter (1998). "Physical system modeling with Modelica." Control Engineering Practice 6(4): 501-510.
- Matusik, W., C. Buehler, R. Raskar, S. J. Gortler and L. McMillan (2000). Image-based visual hulls, ACM Press/Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. New York, NY, USA.
- Milgram, P. and F. Kishino (1994). "A Taxonomy of Mixed Reality Visual Displays." IEICE Transactions on Information Systems 77: 1321-1329.
- Muetzelfeldt, R. and J. Massheder (2003). "The Simile visual modelling environment." European Journal of Agronomy 18(3-4): 345-358.
- Nance, R. E. and R. G. Sargent (2002). "Perspectives on the Evolution of Simulation." Operations Research 50(1): 161-172.
- Norman, D. A. (1988). The psychology of everyday things, Basic Books New York.
- Otter, M., H. Elmqvist and F. E. Cellier (1996). "Modeling of multibody systems with the object-oriented modeling language Dymola." Nonlinear Dynamics 9(1): 91-112.
- Park, M. and P. A. Fishwick (2004). "An Integrated Environment Blending Dynamic and Geometry Models." 2004 AI, Simulation and Planning In High Autonomy Systems 3397: 574–584.
- Park, M. and P. A. Fishwick (2005). "Integrating Dynamic and Geometry Model Components through Ontology-Based Inference." SIMULATION 81(12): 795.
- Pidd, M. (1996). "Model development and HCI." Proceedings of the 28th conference on Winter simulation: 681-686.
- Pidd, M., N. Oses and R. J. Brooks (1999). "Component-based simulation on the Web?" Simulation Conference Proceedings, 1999. Winter 2.
- Pollacia, L. F. (1989). "A survey of discrete event simulation and state-of-the-art discrete event languages." ACM SIGSIM Simulation Digest 20(3): 8-25.
- Pritsker, A. A. B. (1974). The GASP IV Simulation Language, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.
- Russell, E. C. (1983). Building Simulation Models with SIMSCRIPT II. 5, CACI.
- Shim, H. and P. Fishwick (2007). "Enabling the Concept of Hyperspace by Syntax/Semantics Co-Location within a localized 3D Visualization Space." Human-Computer Interaction in Cyberspace: Emerging Technologies and Applications.
- State, A., K. P. Keller and H. Fuchs (2005). "Simulation-Based Design and Rapid Prototyping of a Parallax-Free, Orthoscopic Video See-Through Head-Mounted Display." Proceedings of the Fourth IEEE and ACM International Symposium on Mixed and Augmented Reality: 28-31.
- Sutherland, I. (1965). "The Ultimate Display." Proceedings of the IFIP Congress 2(506-508).
- Ullmer, B. and H. Ishii (2000). "Emerging frameworks for tangible user interfaces." IBM Systems Journal 39(3): 915-931.
- van Rhijn, A. and J. D. Mulder (2005). "Optical Tracking and Calibration of Tangible Interaction Devices." Proceedings of the Immersive Projection Technology and Virtual Environments Workshop 2005.

- Viega, J., M. J. Conway, G. Williams and R. Pausch (1996). "3D magic lenses." Proceedings of the 9th annual ACM symposium on User interface software and technology: 51-58.
- Wang, X., A. Kotranza, J. Quarles, B. Lok and B. D. Allen (2005). "A Pipeline for Rapidly Incorporating Real Objects into a Mixed Environment." Proceedings of the 4th IEEE and ACM International Symposium on Mixed and Augmented Reality, Vienna, Austria.
- Ware, C. and J. Rose (1999). "Rotating virtual objects with real handles." ACM Transactions on Computer-Human Interaction (TOCHI) 6(2): 162-180.
- Zeigler, B. P., T. G. Kim and H. Praehofer (2000). Theory of Modeling and Simulation, Academic Press, Inc. Orlando, FL, USA.