Volume Data Mining Using 3D Field Topology Analysis



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Volume visualization has served as an indispensable tool for exploring the inner structures and complex behavior of volumetric objects embedded in large-scale sampled or simulated 3D data sets. However, the rapid increase in data set sizes makes it difficult to adjust visualization-related parameters

We took advantage of a 3D field topology analysis to automate visualization design for volume data mining. A feasibility study used a large-scale 4D

simulated data set.

sufficiently for generating informative images. These representative parameters include the target level for isosurfacing and transfer functions for direct volume rendering. To compensate for the lack of interactivity—and to provide the user with the serendipity¹—requires developing a mechanism for visual data mining that chooses appropriate values for the visualization parameters based on some available quantitative properties of a given volume data set.

This article proposes a novel approach to automating the settings

of visualization parameter values for volume data mining. To this end, we extended the conventional Reeb graph-based approach to topological modeling of 3D surfaces^{2,3} to capture the topological skeleton of a volumetric field. The analyzed results take the form of hyper Reeb graphs,⁴ which give the basic reference structure for designing comprehensible volume visualization.

Representing volume field topology

To represent volume field topology, we can use an extension of Reeb graphs to 3D volume fields, hyper Reeb graphs. Let's look at the original concept first.

Reeb graphs

Shinagawa et al. originally imported the concept of the Reeb graph into computer graphics fields in order to reconstruct a topologically correct surface from crosssectional contours extracted from computed tomography images.² They also applied the Reeb graph to represent the topological skeleton in their surface-coding system.⁵ Others have used the Reeb graph and its variations for characterizing geographical features,^{6,3} designing surfaces,⁷ and extracting iso-contours/ surfaces.⁸

The definition of the Reeb graph follows: Let *h* be the height function of a surface, and let *p* and *q* be points on the surface. The Reeb graph of *h* is obtained by identifying *p* and *q*, if the two points are contained in the same connected component on the cross section of the surface at the height h(p) (= h(q)).

The nodes of the Reeb graph represent one of three kinds of critical points: a peak, a pass, or a pit. Let's consider the topological changes of equi-height contours at a peak, a pass, and a pit, respectively, from the uppermost contour to the lowermost. At a peak, a new contour appears, while an existing contour disappears at a pit. At a pass, a contour splits or two contours merge. In addition, the edge of the Reeb graph corresponds to a set of topologically equivalent connected contours on consecutive cross sections.

Figure 1 shows two simple surfaces, an ellipsoid and a torus, and their corresponding Reeb graphs. Note that for the torus, changing the directions of the height axis may give different Reeb graphs. This means that the Reeb graph provides an unambiguous, but nonunique, representation of the surface topology.

Hyper Reeb graphs

The hyper Reeb graph (HRG) extends the Reeb graph concept to 3D volume fields.⁴ Theoretically, a volume decomposes into an infinite number of isosurfaces with different target values. We can capture the topological features of each isosurface by using the Reeb graph with a common direction for the height function. Therefore, by examining the sequence of isosurfaces in terms of the structure of Reeb graphs, we can find a particular field value—the *critical field value* (CFV)—for which the topological equivalence of consecutive isosurfaces is not maintained.

A hierarchical graph, HRG consists of two layers of

topological data specification. The top layer of the graph is a linearly directed graph connecting, in ascending order, *m* nodes v_i with CFVs f_i (i = 1, ..., m) and two boundary nodes v_0 and v_{m+1} with minimum and maximum field values f_0 and f_{m+1} , respectively. Each edge $e(v_i, v_{i+1})$ retains as its weight the corresponding topologically equivalent Reeb graph at the bottom layer as well as the length of the field interval $l_{i,i+1}$ (= $f_{i+1} - f_i$). Note that if the field interval is open (closed), its boundary nodes are depicted with an open (solid) circle.

As a running example, let us consider the following analytical volume:

$$f(x, y, z) = a^{2} + b^{2}$$

$$a = \exp\left(-\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} + 1 - 2\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}}\right)$$

$$b = \exp\left(-\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} + 1 + 2\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}}\right)$$

A simple arithmetic operation shows that the volume, called the metatorus hereafter, has a single CFV f_1 (= $2e^{-2}$) when and only when a = b. Figure 2 illustrates how we construct an HRG for the volume. From the resulting HRG we observe that

- As the field value increases, ellipsoidal isosurfaces deflate, approaching a donut shape in the direction of the x-axis. Then, passing by the CFV, a single hole appears around the origin, to generate the sequence of nested tori.
- As the field value increases further, the diameter of the rounded tube of the tori becomes smaller.

Comprehensible volume visualization

Now we attempt to take advantage of the HRG-based volumetric-field-topology description in order to enhance conventional volume visualization techniques.

Geometric object fitting

We consider the following two options:

Method 1: Simultaneous display of m+1 semitransparent isosurfaces, each extracted with a field value $(f_i + f_{i+1})/2$ at the midpoint of the topologically equivalent field interval $[f_i, f_{i+1}]$ (i = 0, ..., m). We can determine a plausible value for the opacity of each isosurface so as to reflect the mutual relationships among $l_{i,i+1}$ in order to understand the relative thickness of topologically equivalent field intervals.



1 Reeb graphs for simple 3D surfaces: (a) ellipsoid and (b) torus.



2 Construction of an HRG for the metatorus volume.

Method 2: Decomposition of a given volume V into a sequence of m+1 nonoverlapping interval volumes $IV(f_i + f_{i+1})$ (*i* = 0, ..., *m*); that is,

$$V = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n} IV(f_i, f_{i+1})$$

The interval volume was proposed as a solid data representation of a 3D subvolume for which the associated field values lie within a specified closed field interval.9 Topological equivalence gives the rigid basis for the volume decomposition. In addition, the boundaries of each interval volume convey informative shapes of isosurfaces with CFVs, at exactly the location where the topology of level surfaces changes.

Figure 3 visualizes the metatorus volume with the above two methods in a comprehensible manner. The selected isosurfaces in Figure 3a can also serve as an effective set of basic frames for the flipbook approach to volume rendering. On the other hand, the set of interval volumes in Figure 3b should provide a good initial step for more sophisticated volume segmentation.





3 Geometric object extraction from the metatorus volume based on the HRG in Figure 2. The upper-right4 Design principles of transfer function accentuation. (a) Principle 1 and (b) Principle 2.





Transfer function design

One of the most significant factors for determining the quality of volume-rendered images is the transfer function, which maps physical fields of a given volume data set to optical properties, such as color and opacity. Several methods of (semi-)automating transfer function design for informative volume rendering appear in the literature. These divide into two major categories, image-guided^{10,11} or input-volume content-based.¹²⁻¹⁴ The approach presented here, although novel, fits into the second category.

The basic idea of designing appropriate transfer functions based on the HRG is to accentuate the topological change in volume fields around CFVs in terms of both color (hue) and opacity. We will specify the two transfer functions within the analyzed subdomain $[f_{0}, f_{m+1}]$. Hue and opacity transfer functions are respectively set to be *undefined* and 0 (fully transparent) outside of the subdomain.

We consider the following two design principles:

Principle 1: The color transfer function is designed so that the rate of change in hue is uniform for all field values, except for a constant jump δ_h at each CFV f_i (i = 1, ..., m). On the other hand, the opacity transfer function is designed to be a constant α (> 0), except for a common hat-like, small elevation around each CFV f_i (i = 1, ..., m), whose height and width are δ_o and ω_o , respectively (Figure 4a).

Principle 2: The hue transfer function is designed to be elevated stepwise by a fixed amount δ_h , except for a linear change within a small interval of length ω_h around CFV f_i (i = 1, ..., m). On the other hand, the opacity transfer function is designed to have a small fixed elevation δ_h relative to the base height α within the same interval of length ω_o (= ω_h) around CFV f_i (i = 1, ..., m) (Figure 4b).

Figure 5 compares volume-rendered images of the metatorus volume with the two different designs of transfer functions. The transfer functions designed according to Principle 1 help in visually grasping topologically equivalent interval volumes. On the other hand, the transfer functions designed according to Principle 2 prove beneficial for observing the change in topological structures near CFVs in detail. In addition, this principle suits the bisection search for CFVs in digital settings because, in general, a CFV will likely be specified as an internal point belonging to a field interval of the minimum length.

Implementation

To make the present volume data mining methodology applicable to practical sampled or simulated data sets, we have developed a pilot environment on Advanced Visual Systems' visualization software platform AVS/Express version 5.0¹⁵ running on an SGI O2 system (R5000 CPU, 180-MHz clock, and 192 Mbytes of RAM). All the experiments described here took place in the same environment.

Figure 6 shows a typical AVS/ Express module network used for volume data mining. The HRG constructor is our main in-house module, which inputs a scalar volume and the axis direction for the height function. This module generates the corresponding HRG. Isosurfacing relies on an extended version of the Marching Cubes algorithm combined with an auxiliary algorithm, called Asymptotic Decider, for maintaining the topological consistency in triangle-patch connections.⁹

To reduce the large number of critical points-caused by high-frequency components likely to appear on an isosurface extracted from actual volume data sets-we adopt a Gaussian-type surface low-pass filter algorithm.¹⁶ A robust algorithm³ then constructs the Reeb graph of each isosurface, first extracting all the critical points on a surface correctly in the sense of Euler's formula. It then constructs the surface network¹⁷ by tracing ridge and ravine lines, and finally converts the surface network to the corresponding Reeb graph. While the algorithm was originally limited to topological spheres,¹³ we extended it so that it can characterize surfaces of arbitrary topological type.

The HRG constructor module employs a bisection-based method to find all the CFVs in the user-specified field interval $[f_0, f_{m+1}]$. To judge the homogeneity of Reeb graphs, we compute and compare two characteristic quantities of the graphs, namely, sums of absolute

coefficients of characteristic and distance polynomials.¹⁸ The transfer function (TF) designer module takes the HRG structures as its input and provides accentuated transfer function look-up tables for the in-house ray cast module for standard volume ray casting.

Application: Proton-hydrogen collision

To illustrate the feasibility of our methodology, we explored a large-scale 4D data set consisting of data for 61³ volumes over 10⁴ time steps for simulated intermediate-energy collisions of a proton and a hydrogen atom.⁹ The simulation deals with a fundamental ion-atom collision problem and is very important in that the problem has a wide spectrum of applications such as nuclear fusion, material sciences, and radiology. We wanted to investigate how the positive charge of an incident proton affects the behavior of an electron around the target



5 Volume rendering of the metatorus with accentuated transfer functions. The top row (a-c) shows the volume rendering. In the bottom row (a-c), the bottom left represents the hue transfer function and the bottom right, the opacity transfer function. (a) With continuous hue and flat opacity transfer functions (reference); (b) with accentuated transfer functions according to Principle 1 ($\delta_h = 2/3\pi$, $\alpha = 0.02$, $\delta_o = 0.06$, $\omega_o = 0.04$); (c) with accentuated transfer functions transfer functions according to Principle 2 ($\delta_h = 2/3\pi$, $\alpha = 0.02$, $\delta_o = 0.06$, $\omega_h = \omega_o = 0.03$).







hydrogen atom (Figure 7). To this end, we obtained a comprehensible illustration of the collision by visualizing the 3D distorted electron density distribution.

The stationary electron density distribution around a hydrogen atom constitutes a completely layered structure of spherical isosurfaces. Therefore, without producing volume-rendered animation of the entire time

7 The protonhydrogen atom collision process.

sequence, we can easily identify the approximate timing of a collision by sampling snapshot volumes and searching the simplest structure among the constructed HRGs.

Figure 8 depicts three representative snapshots before, around, and after the collision: HRGs, isodensity surfaces extracted with a common target value throughout the entire time interval, and volume rendering instantaneously accentuated according to Principle 2. The three types of volume viewings allow us to understand more clearly the inner structures of the distorted electron density distribution.

Concluding remarks

Combining sophisticated indirect/direct volume visualization with HRGs provides users with effective visual cues for discovering knowledge about the inner structure and complex behavior of volumetric objects. Our present methodology is quite general, we suggest potential benefits to recombining it with other approaches to volume rendering, such as splatting and cell projection. Moreover, the methodology is independent of the mesh type of an input volume data set, as far as a sequence of isosurfaces can be extracted from the data set. On the other hand, the current implementation of the HRG constructor is very sensitive to the change in topology on volume boundaries, thus narrowing the analyzable field interval. An algorithm to extract a substantial subgraph from a given Reeb graph needs to be developed. In addition, it's crucial to choose an optimal direction for defining height-field functions to adjust the viewing direction. Omnidirectional (spherical) mapping looks like a promising solution to this problem, at the sacrifice of its high temporal complexity.

We view prioritizing CFVs to control the HRGs' level of detail as the key to improving the present methodology to a true volume data mining tool for various disciplines, including the medical and environmental sciences. Candidates for promising strategies include perturbation analysis of the direction for the height function axis and relaxation of topological equivalence of Reeb graphs.

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8 Three types of volume data mining snapshots of a proton-hydrogen atom collision: HRG (first row); isodensity surface with the trajectory of the marching proton (second row); accentuated volume rendering (third row); and definitions of transfer functions (fourth row) with hue transfer on the left and opacity transfer on the right. (a) Before collision, (b) around collision, and (c) after collision.

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