

Scientific Visualization

Foundations and Applications

Siegener Graduate School

Development of Integral Heterosensor Architectures for
n-Dimensional (Bio)chemical Analysis

Prof. Dr. Andreas Kolb



Institute for
Vision and Graphics (IVG)

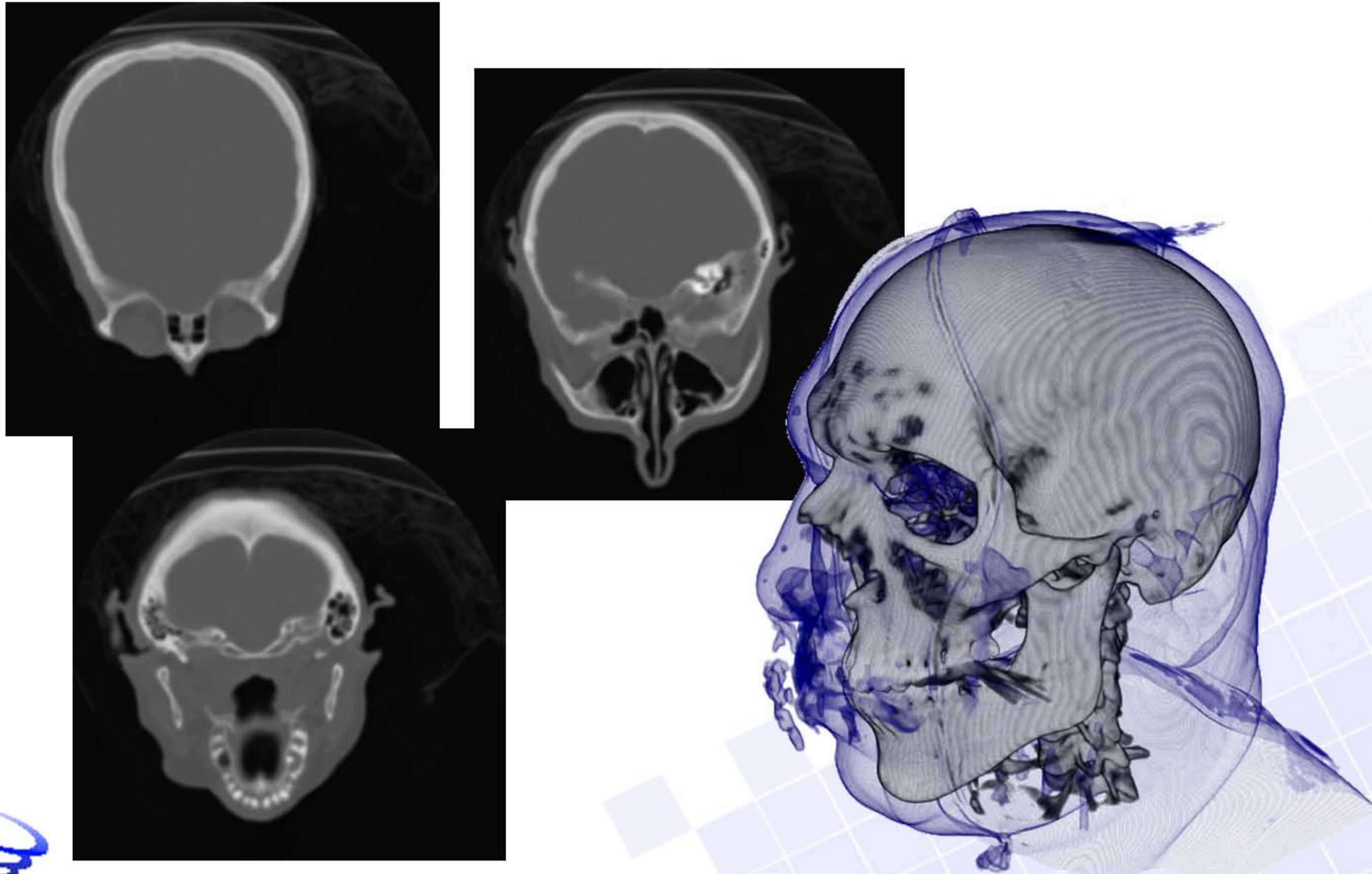


Computer Graphics and
Multimedia Systems Group

What is Visualization about?

- Visualizing =
making something visible; find visual expression
- Why should data/information be visualized?
 - numbers are useless without a context

Example



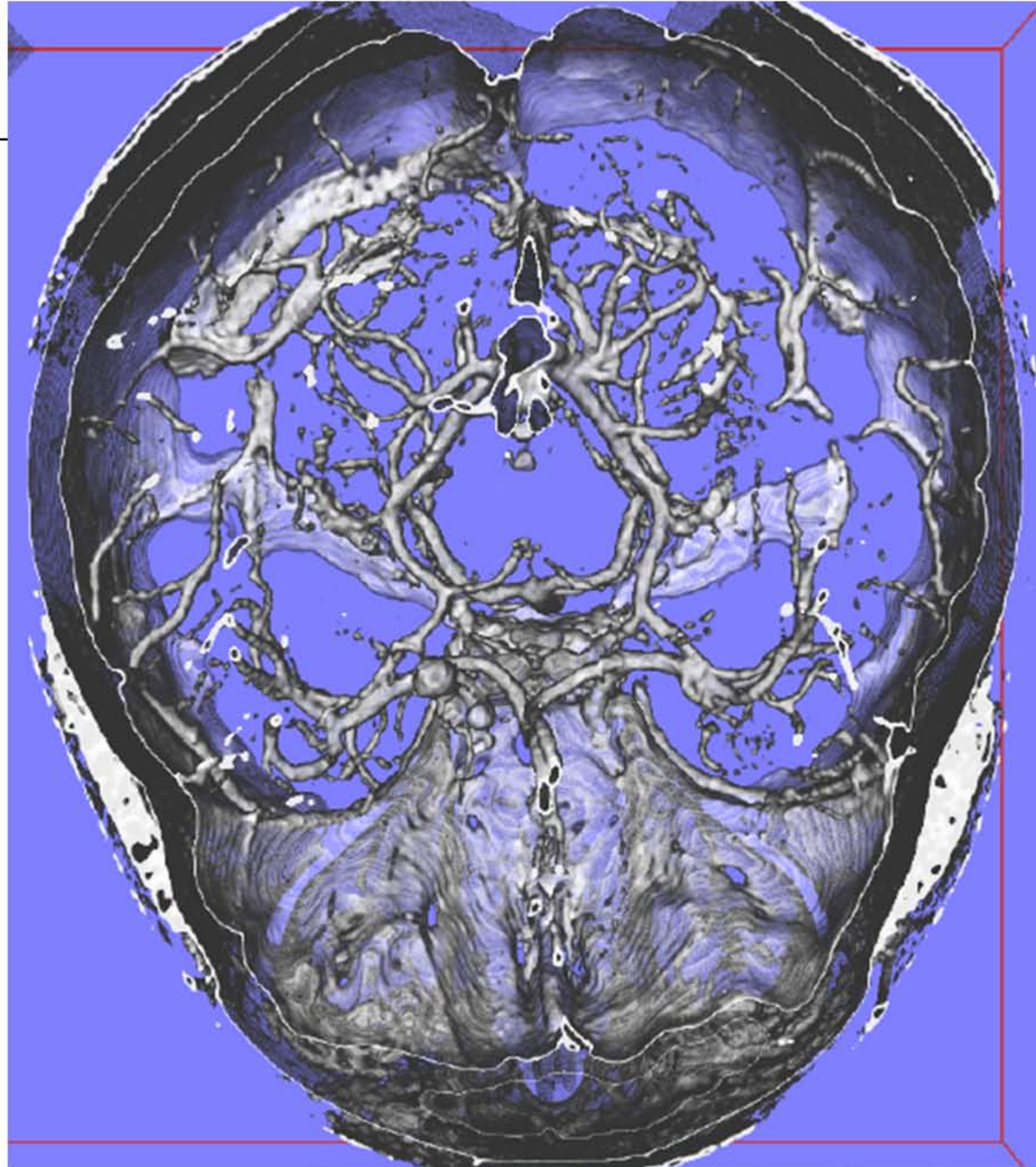
What is Visualization about?

- Visualizing =
making something visible; find visual expression
- Why should data/information be visualized?
 - numbers are useless without a context
 - data is useless without interpretation
 - information is useless without understanding

„One picture is worth ten thousand words“

Fred R. Barnard

Beispiel



Overview

- Introduction
- Grids, Sampling and Interpolation
- 2D Scalar-Fields
- 2D Vector-Fields
- Volume Rendering (3D Scalar-Fields)
- 3D Vector-Fields

Challenges and Benefits

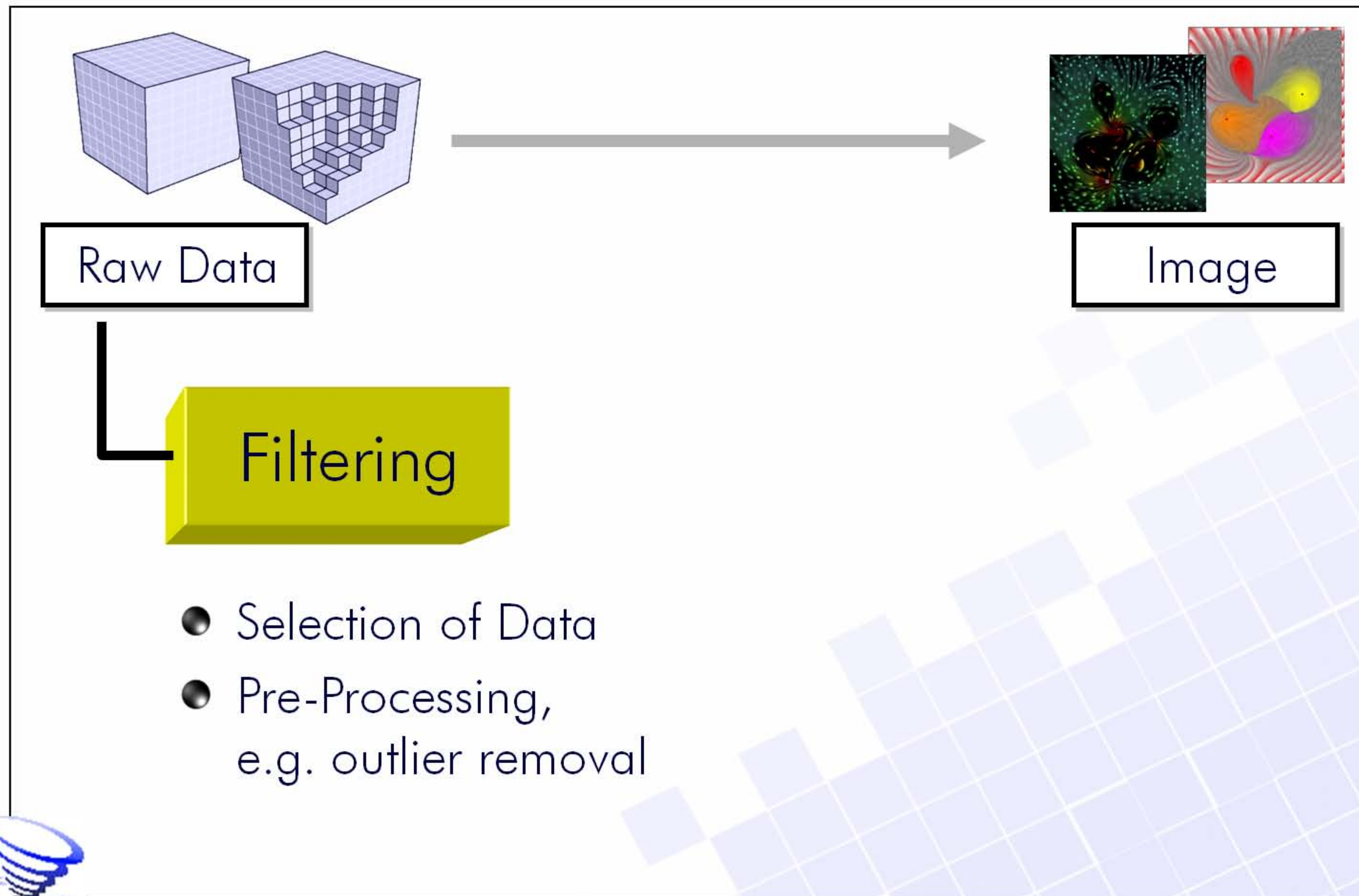
● Challenges

- High amount of data from sensors or simulation
- High data complexity
- Need for interactivity and real-time

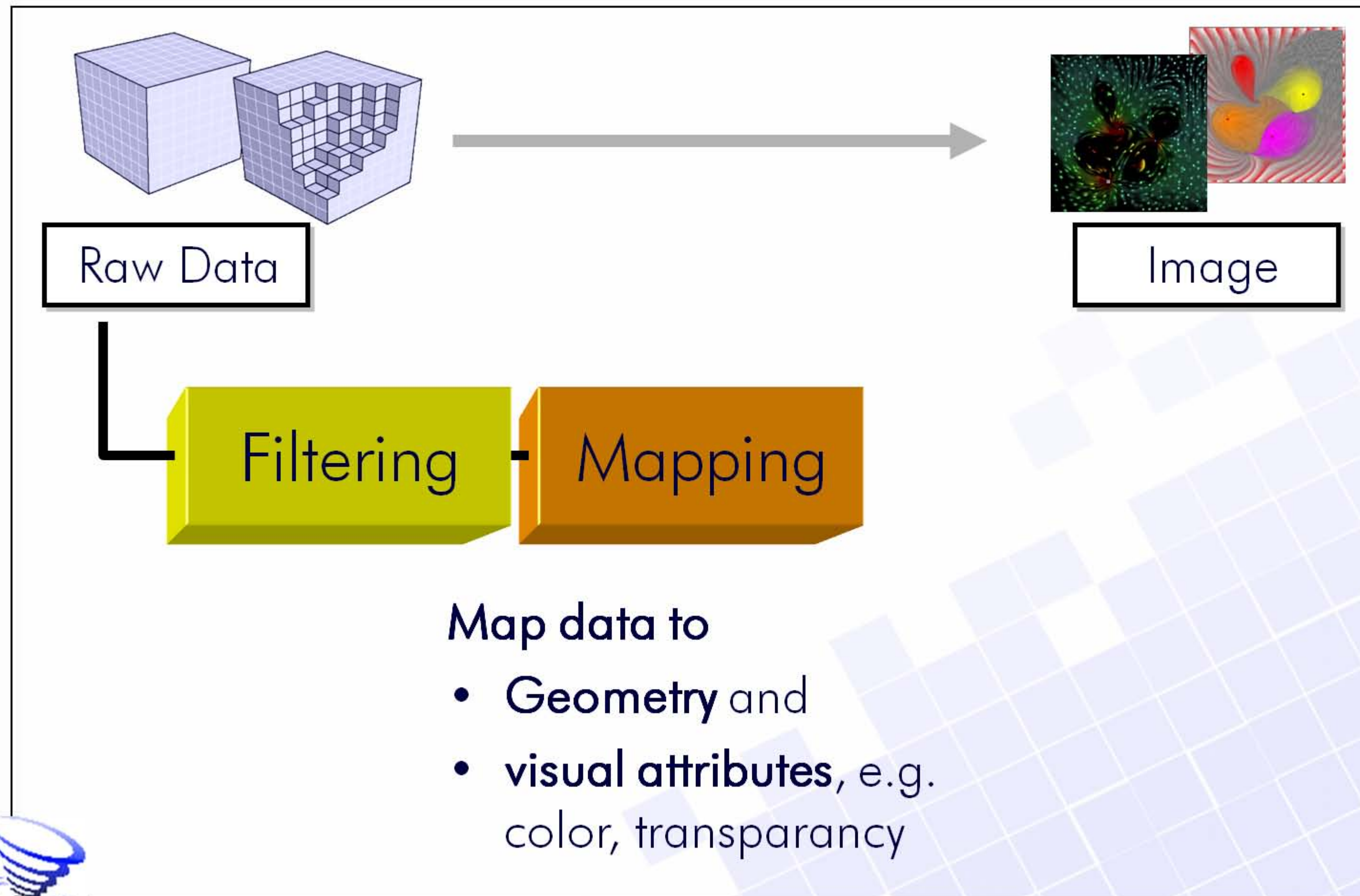
● Benefits

- Faster and better understanding of scientific processes
- Thus: more security, efficiency and quality in engineering and production processes
- Thus: shorter production cycles and products with more functionality and higher quality

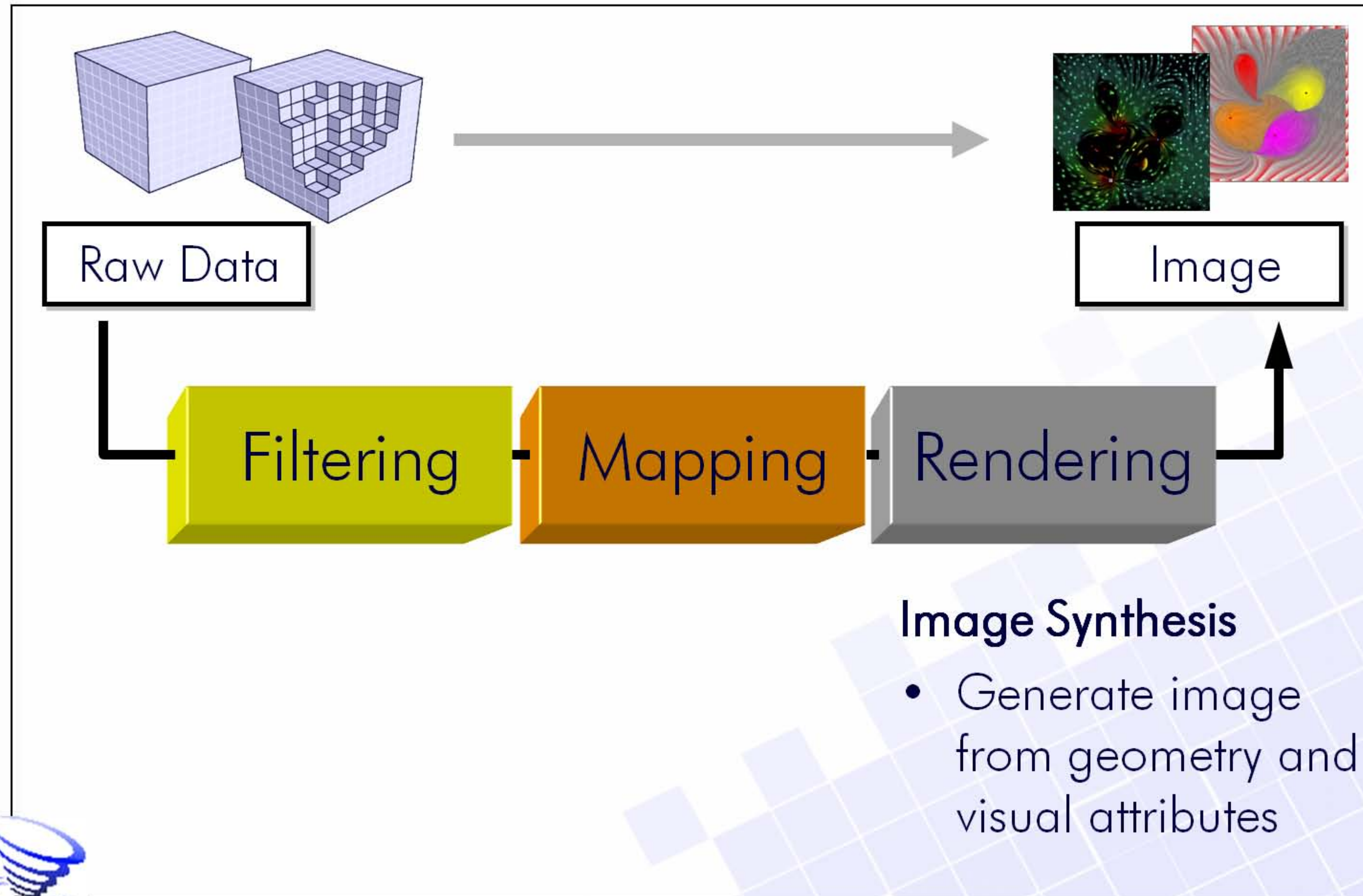
Visualization Pipeline



Visualization Pipeline



Visualization Pipeline



Raw Data

Categorization of raw data using:

- **Spacial Dimension**

(with respect to the structure of the sample/data points)

1D: e.g. electro-magnetic signal

2D: e.g. temperature on a surface

3D: e.g. flow velocity in space

- **Dimensionality of the Data Values**

(related to the information at the data points)

Scalar: e.g. pressure, density, temperature

Vector: e.g. flow

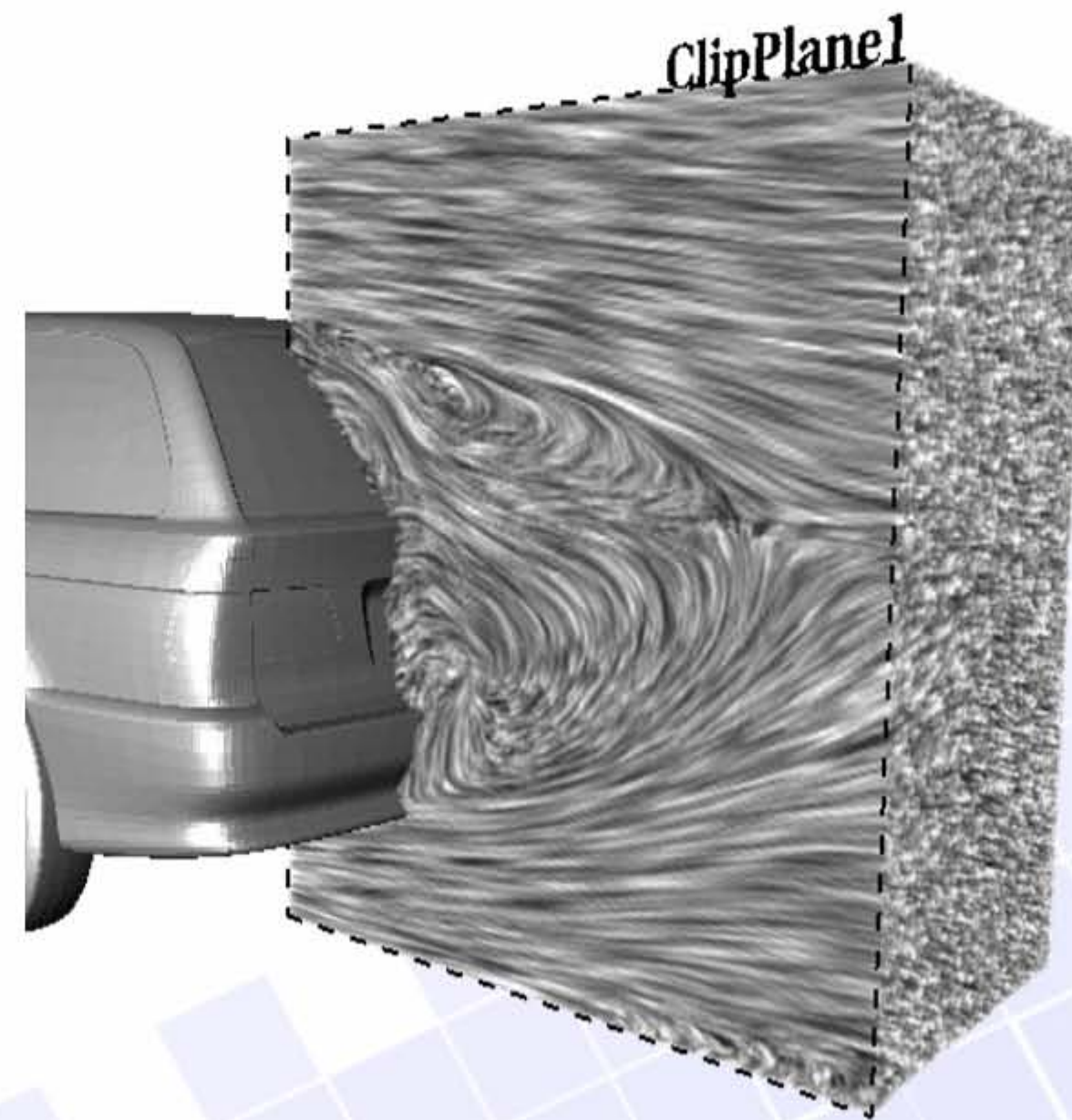
Tensor: e.g. stress-tensor

Multivariate Data: combination of several scalar, vector and tensor data

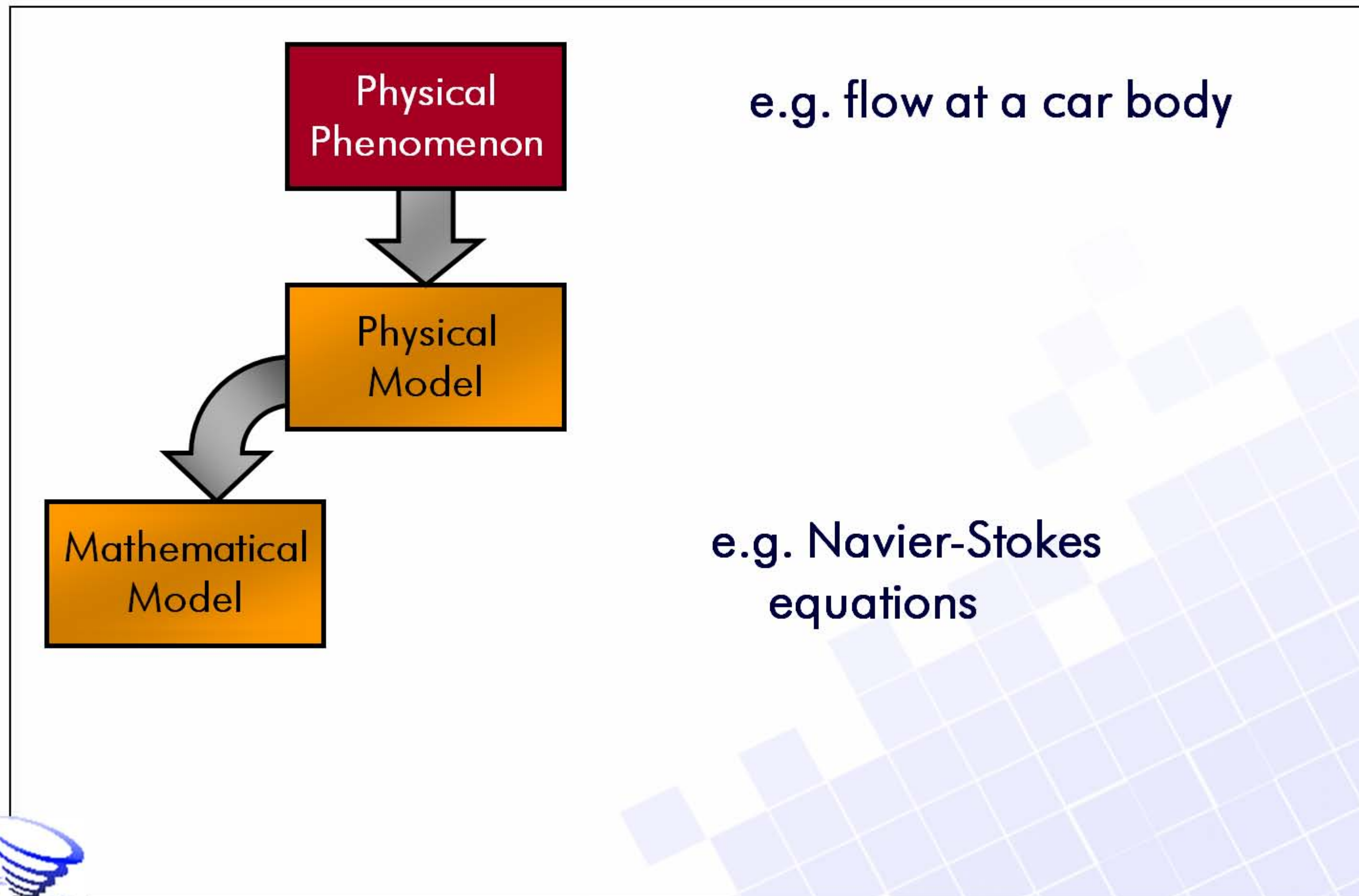
Simulation as Data Source

Physical
Phenomenon

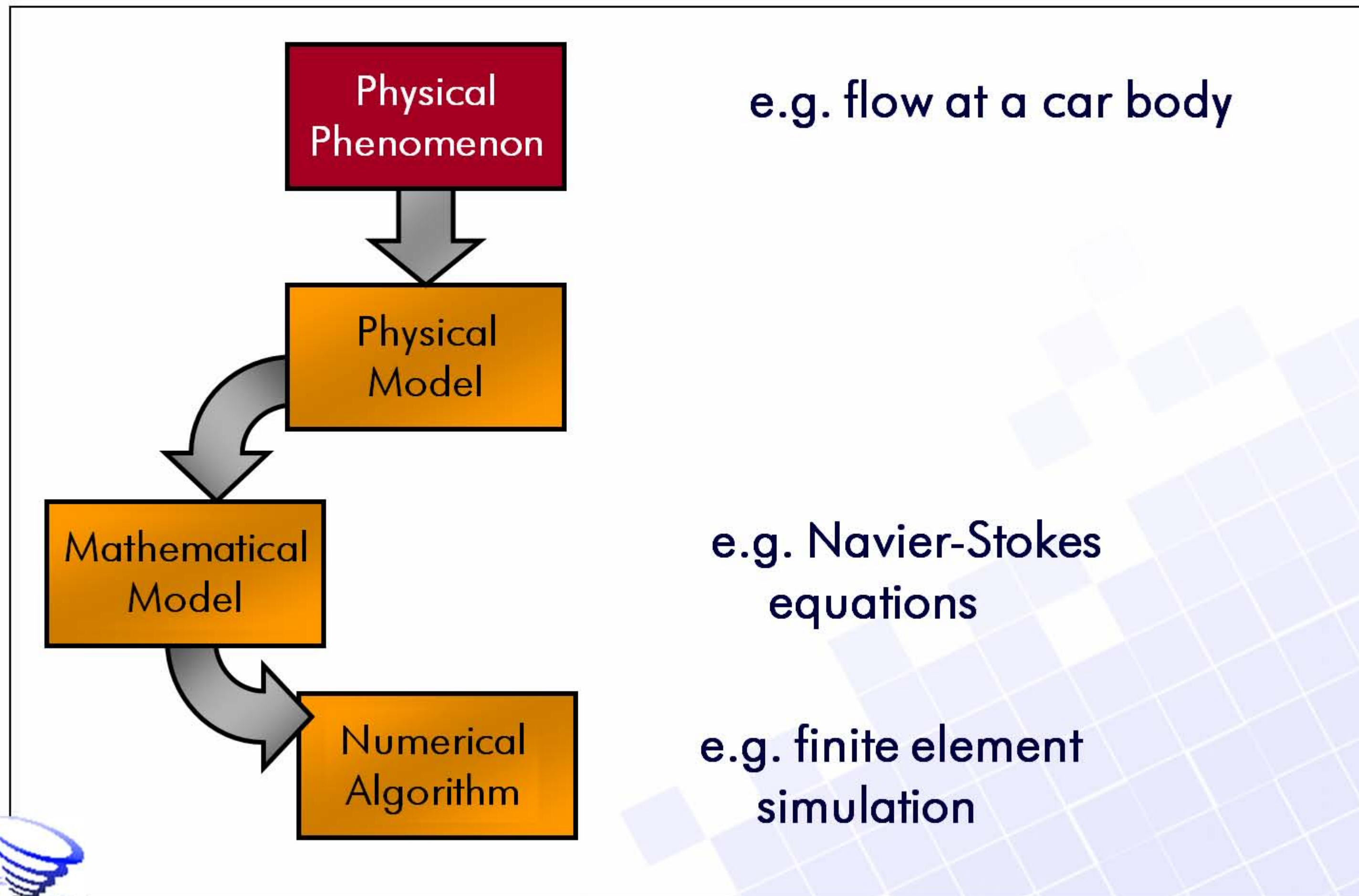
e.g. flow at a car body



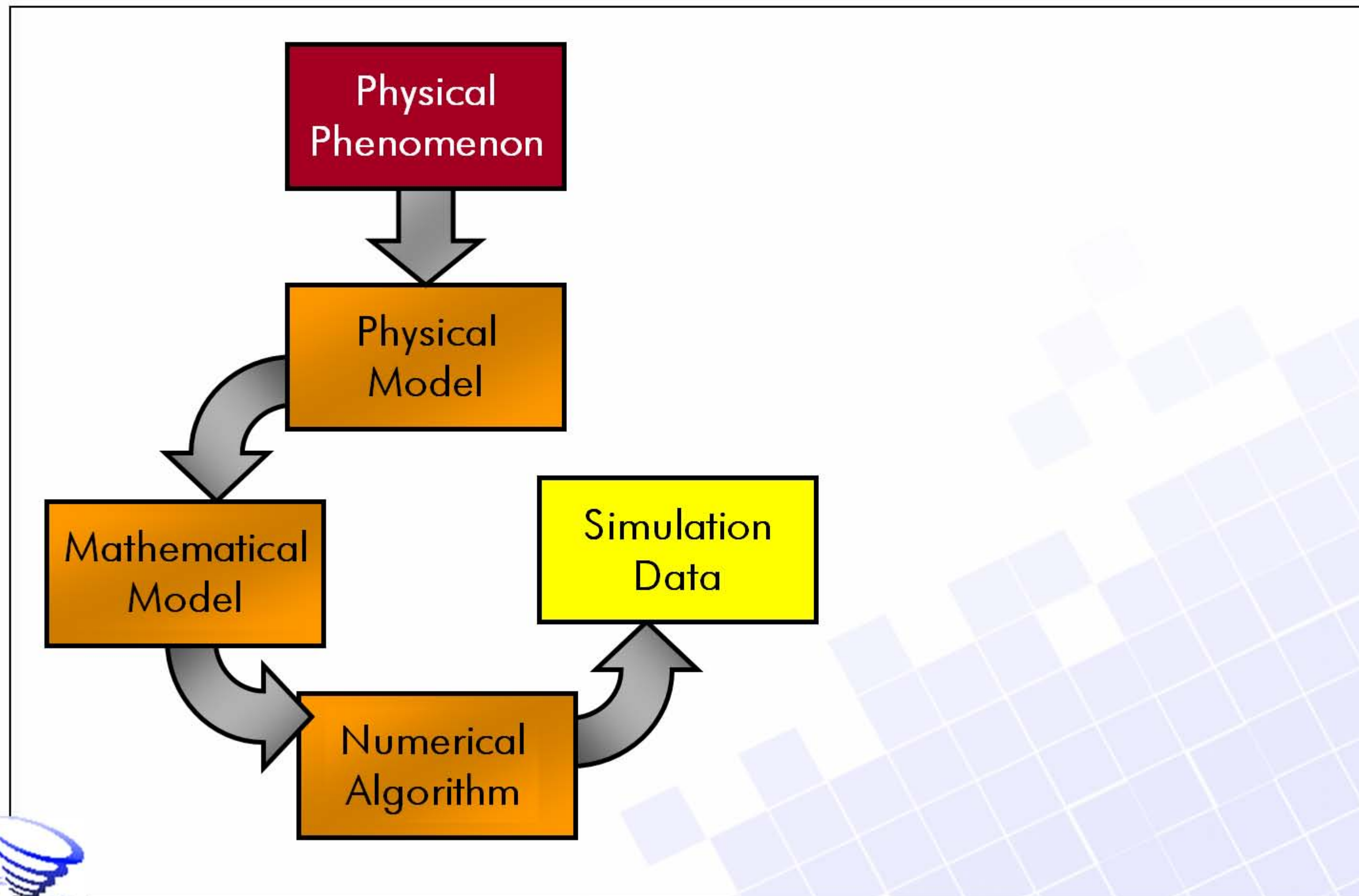
Simulation as Data Source



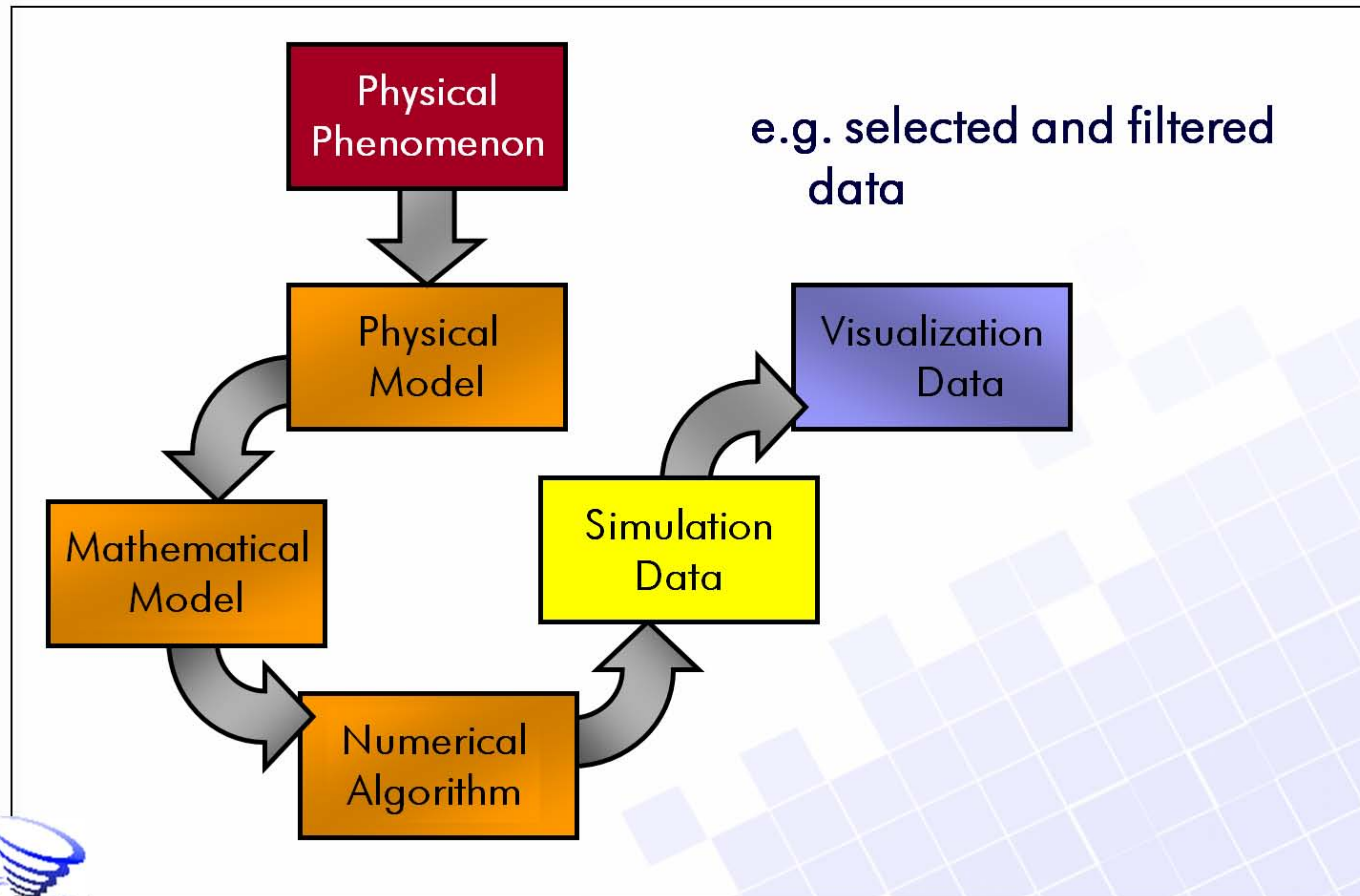
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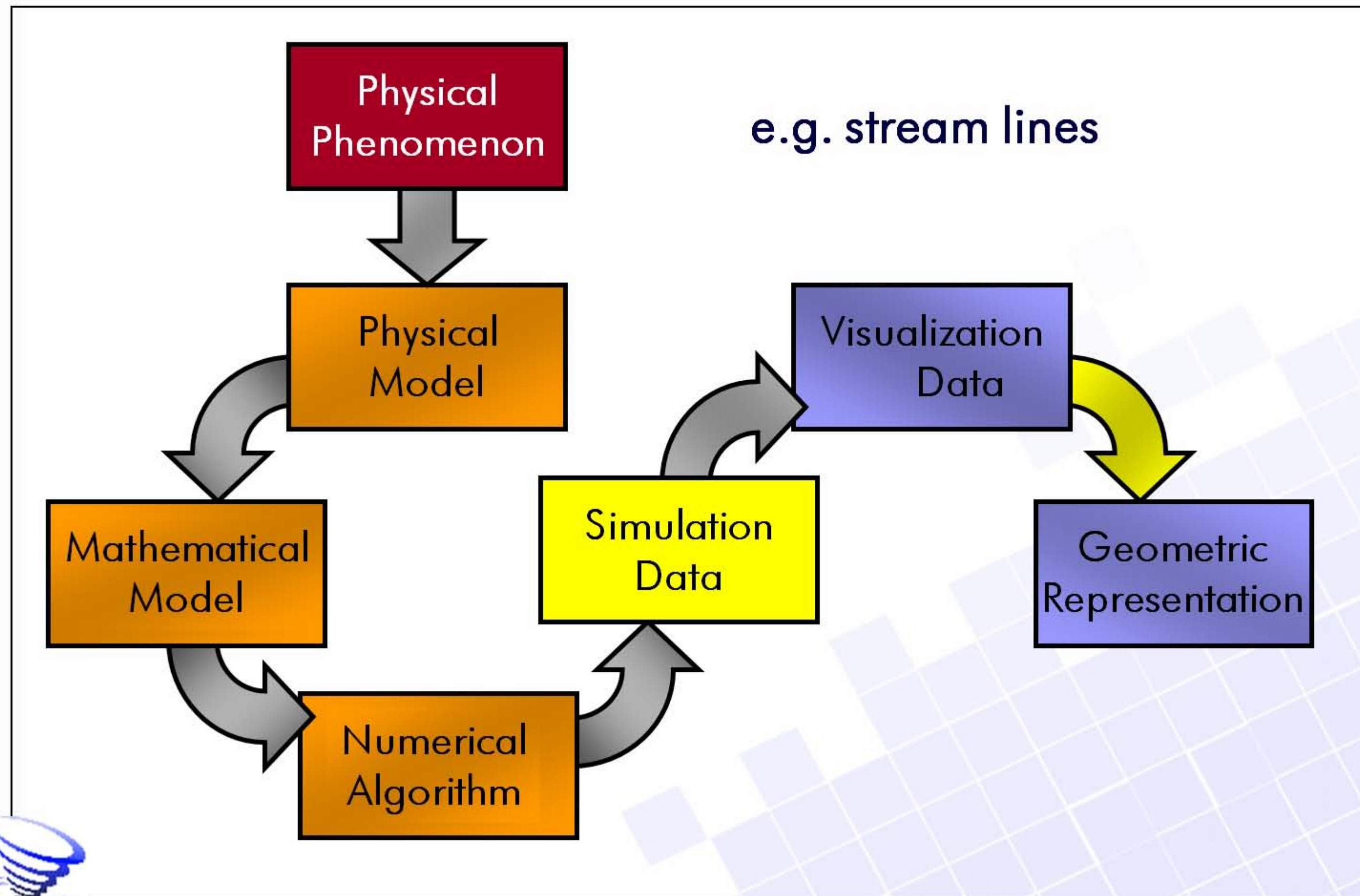
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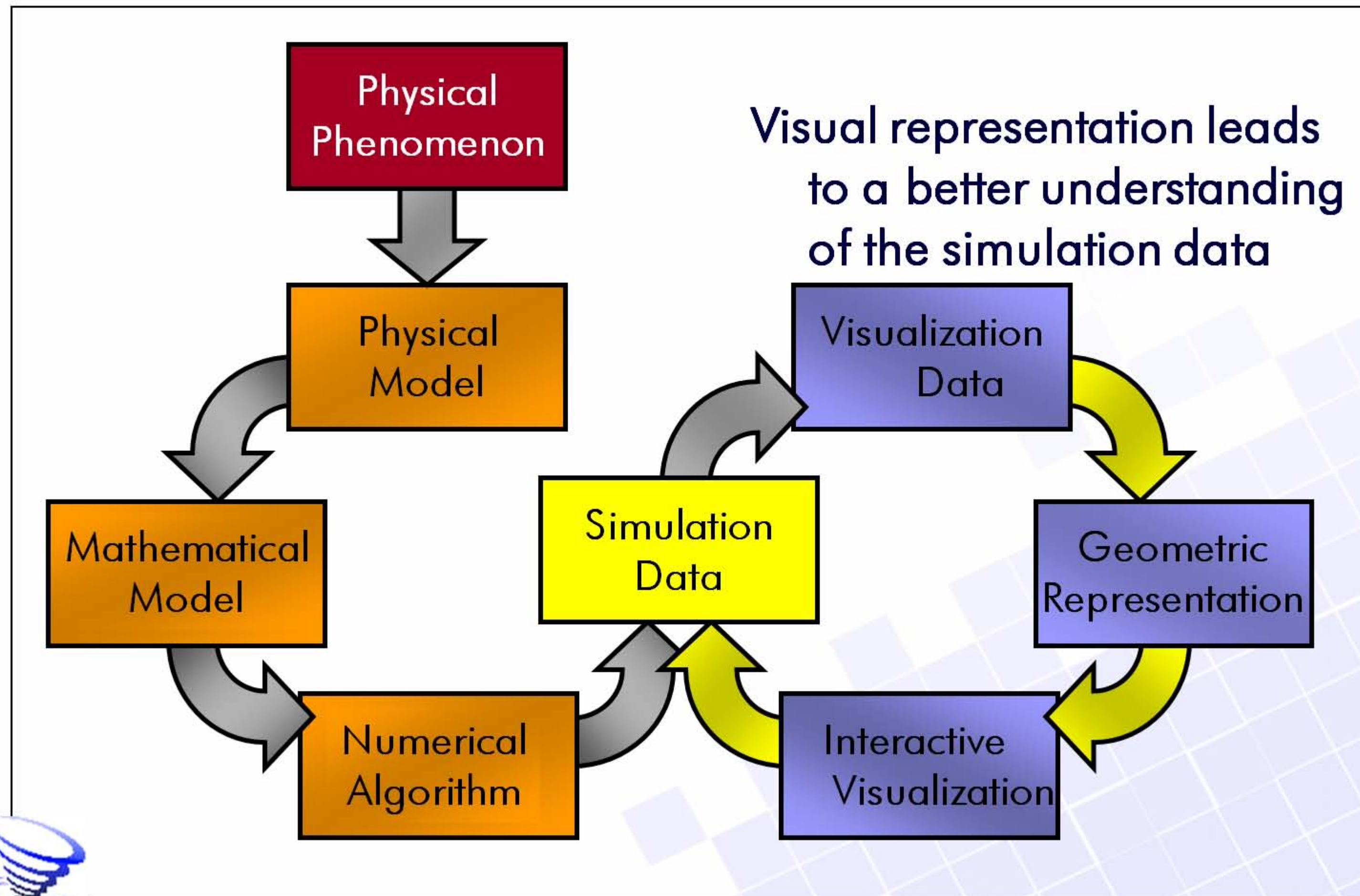
Simulation as Data Source



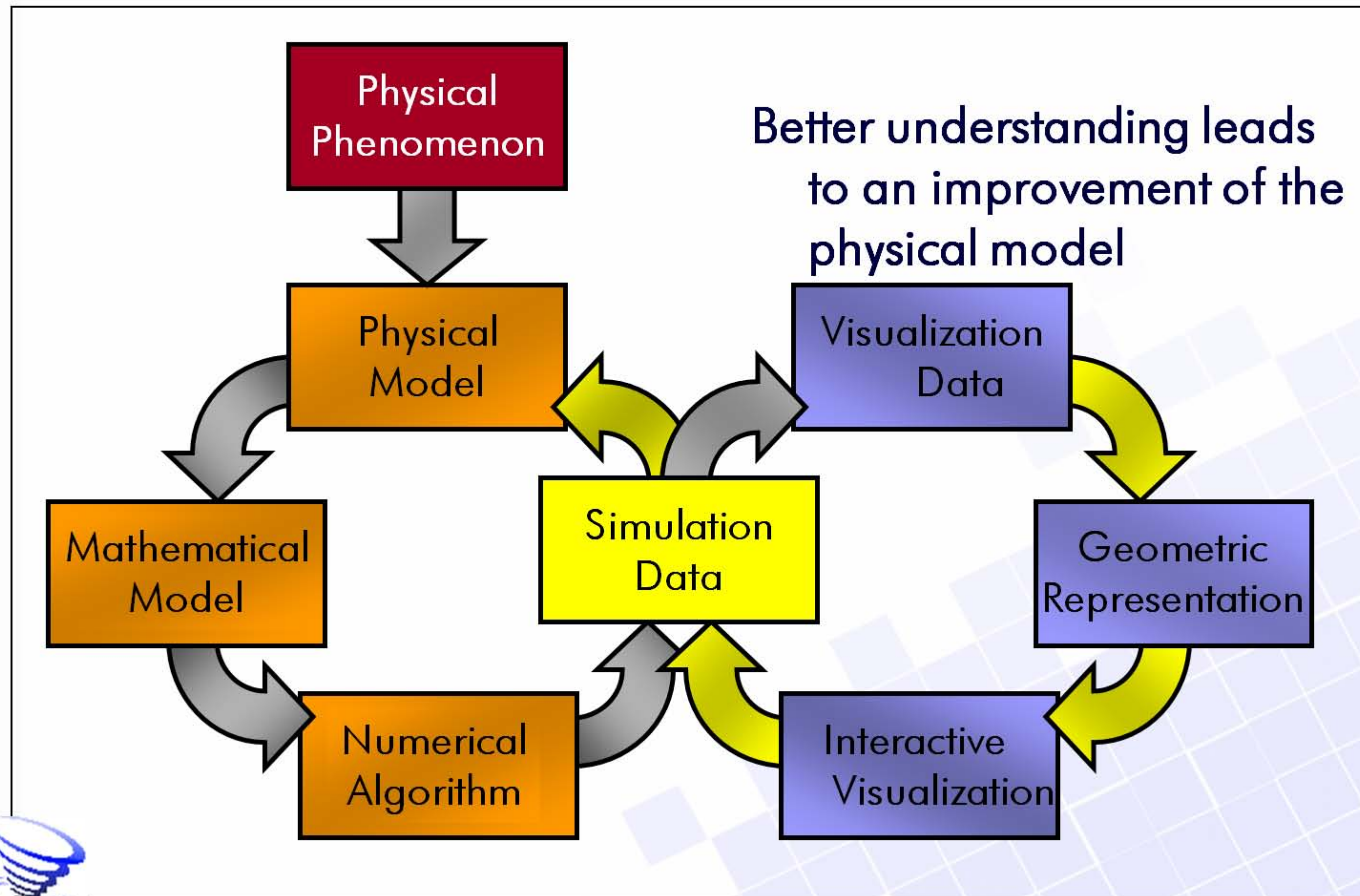
Simulation as Data Source



Simulation as Data Source



Simulation as Data Source

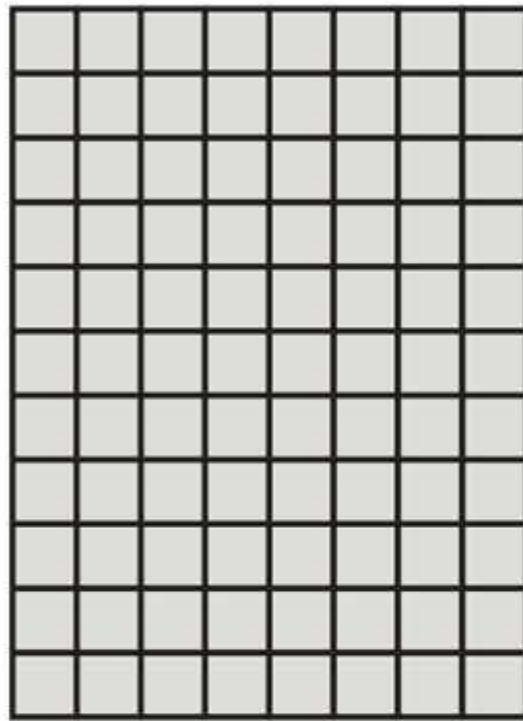


Grids

- What are grids good for?
 - Natural phenomena are in general continuous, i.e. data values are “present” everywhere
 - Computer can handle only a finite amount of data
 - Therefore: continuous data needs to be sampled (digitized, rasterized) in order to be processed in a computer

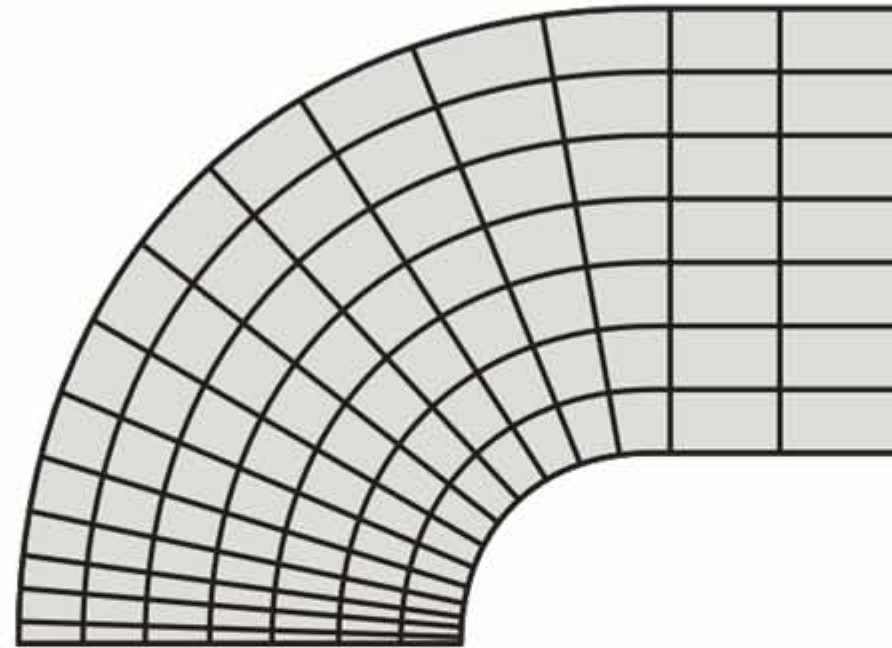
2D Grid Types

uniform rectilinear



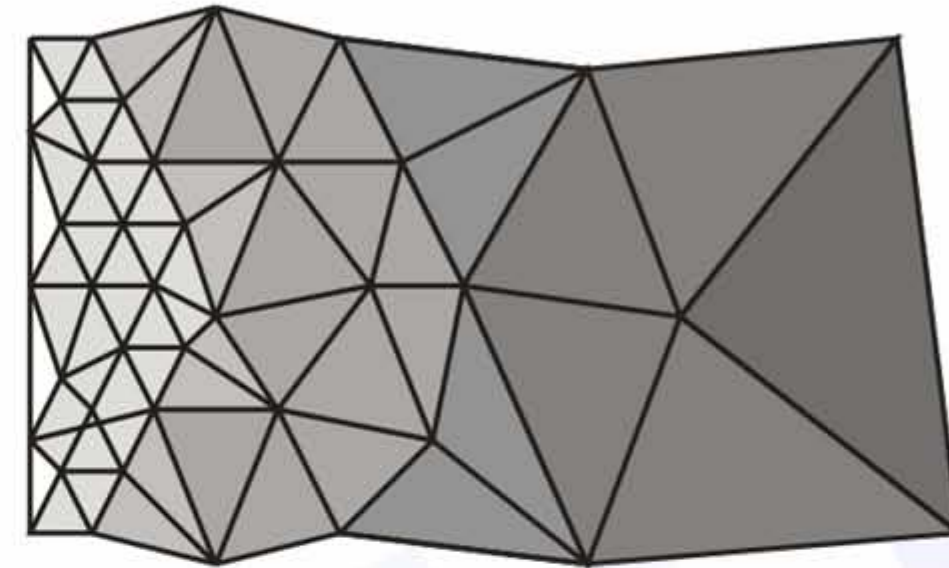
- **Cells:**
equal sized rectangles or squares
- **Arrangement:**
uniform regular

curvilinear



- **Cells:**
quadrangles with varying shape
- **Arrangement:**
non-uniform, but regular topology

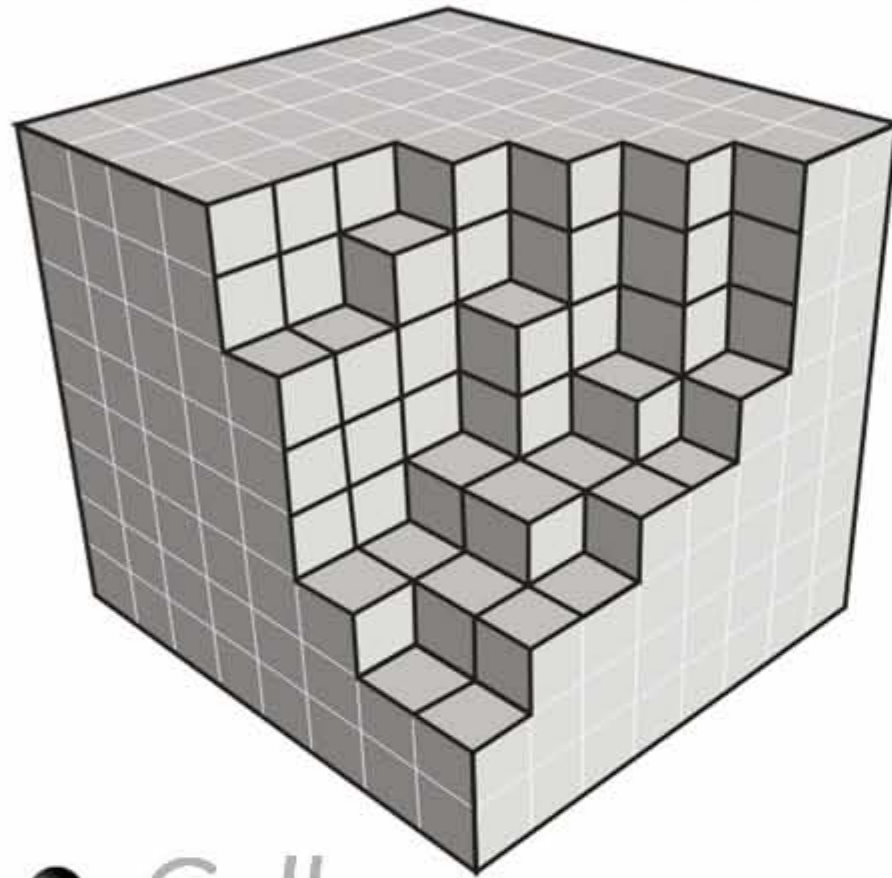
unstructured



- **Cells:**
mainly triangles, (sometimes quads or polys)
- **Arrangement:**
unstructured

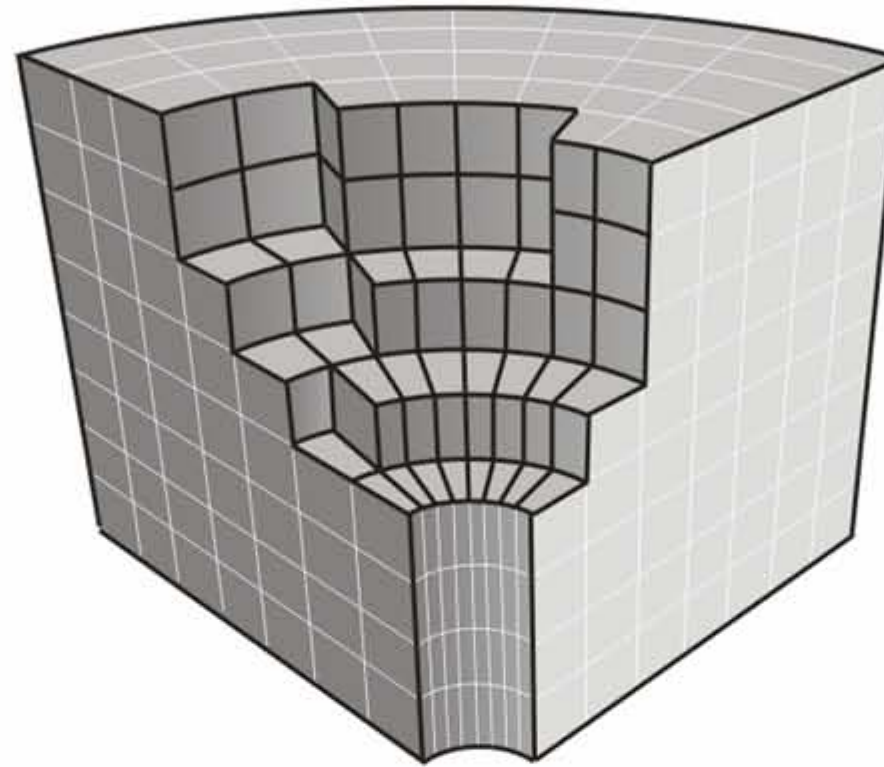
3D Grid Types

uniform rectilinear



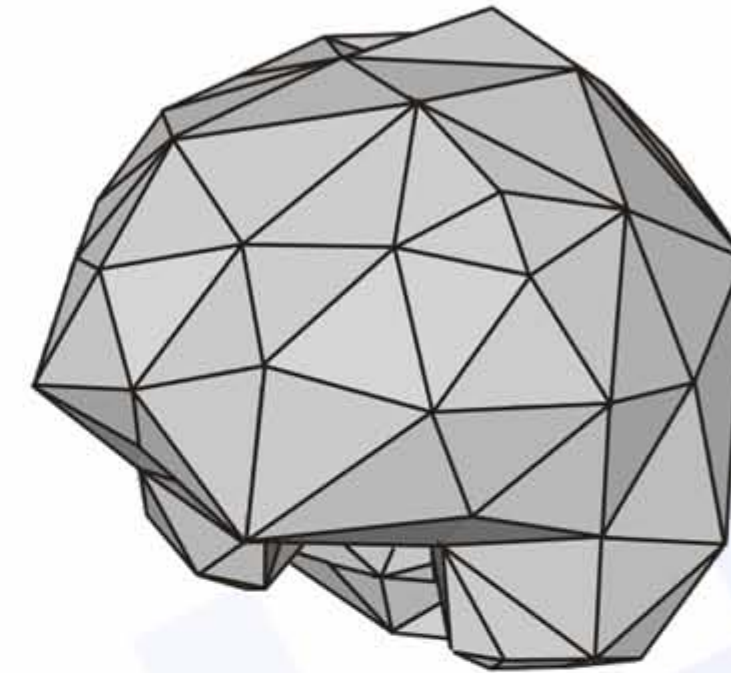
- *Cells:*
equal-sized
cubes,
- *Arrangement:*
uniform regular

curvilinear



- *Cells:*
non-equal
hexahedras,
- *Arrangement:*
non-uniform,
but regular
topolgy

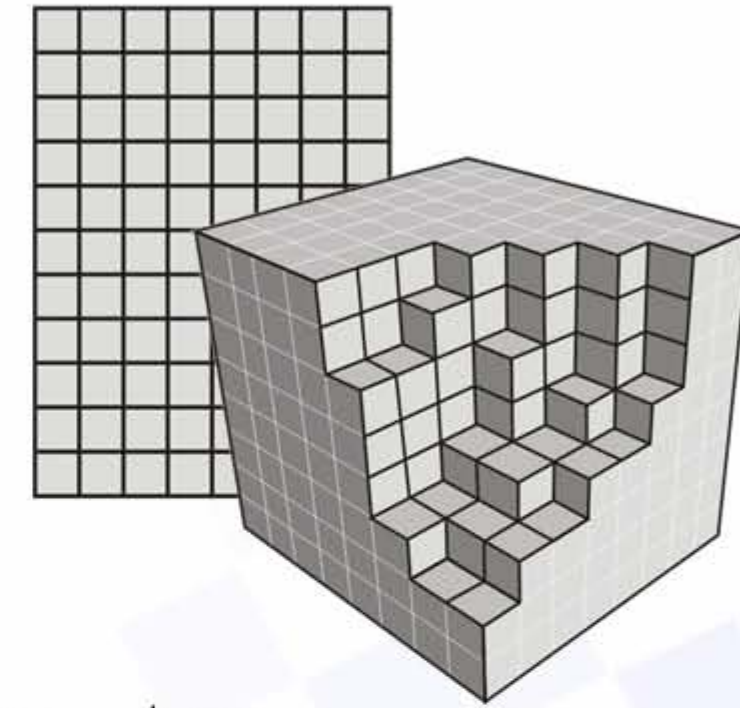
unstrukturiert



- *Cells:*
tetrahedra,
hexaheder,
pyramids,
prismas
- *Arrangement:*
unstructured

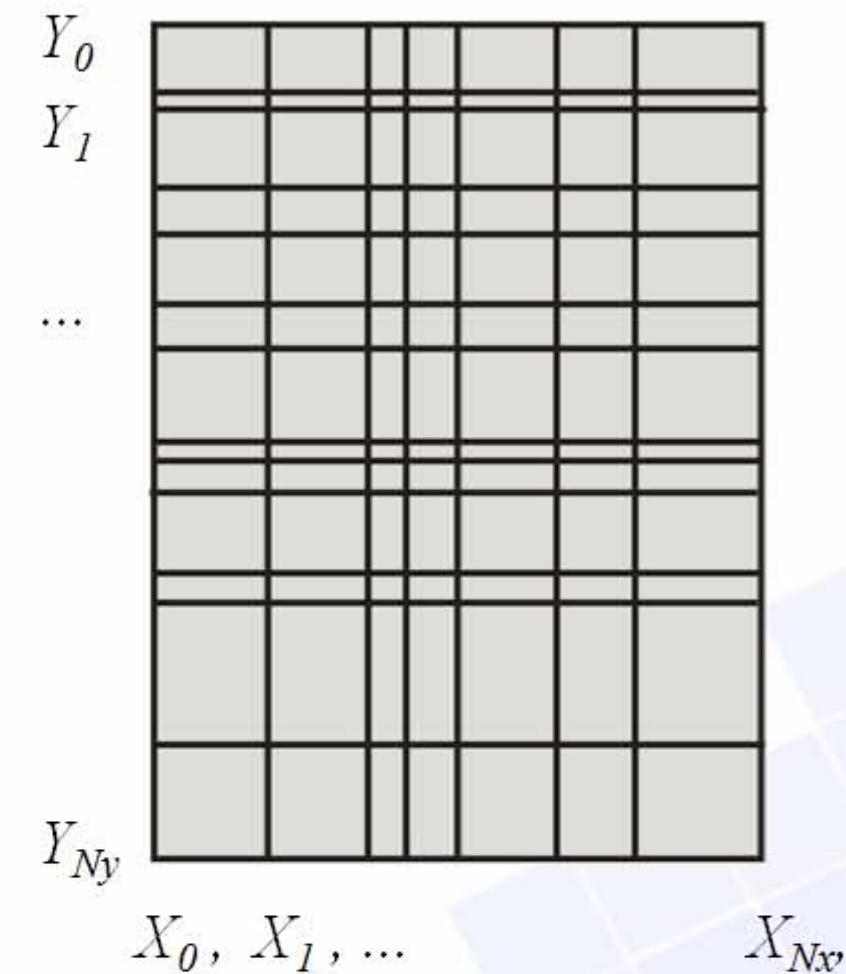
Representation of Uniform Grids

- Implicit storage of cells and vertices:
 - Store number of samples N_x , N_y , N_z in x-, y- and z-direction
 - Store cell size, i.e. grid spacing Δx , Δy , Δz :
Distance between samples in x-, y- and z-direction
 - Store data in a linear Array with length $N_x \cdot N_y \cdot N_z$
 - Array-index of cells (x,y,z) can be computed by
$$n = N_x \cdot N_y \cdot z + N_x \cdot y + x$$



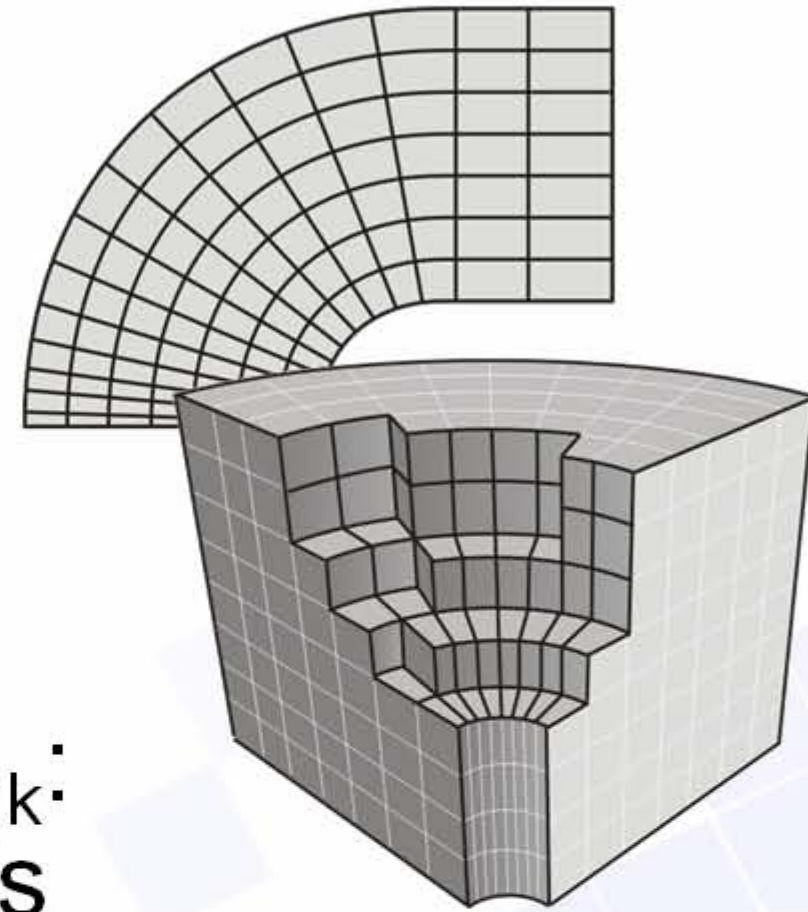
Representation of Rectilinear Grids

- Implicit storage of cells, explicit storage of vertices:
 - Store number of samples N_x , N_y , N_z in x-, y- and z-direction
 - Store coordinates along axis:
 - $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{N_x}$,
 - $Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_{N_y}$,
 - $Z_0, Z_1, \dots, Z_{N_z}$,
 - Store data as linear Array with length $N_x \cdot N_y \cdot N_z$
 - Array-index of cells (x,y,z) can be computed by
$$n = N_x \cdot N_y \cdot z + N_x \cdot y + x$$



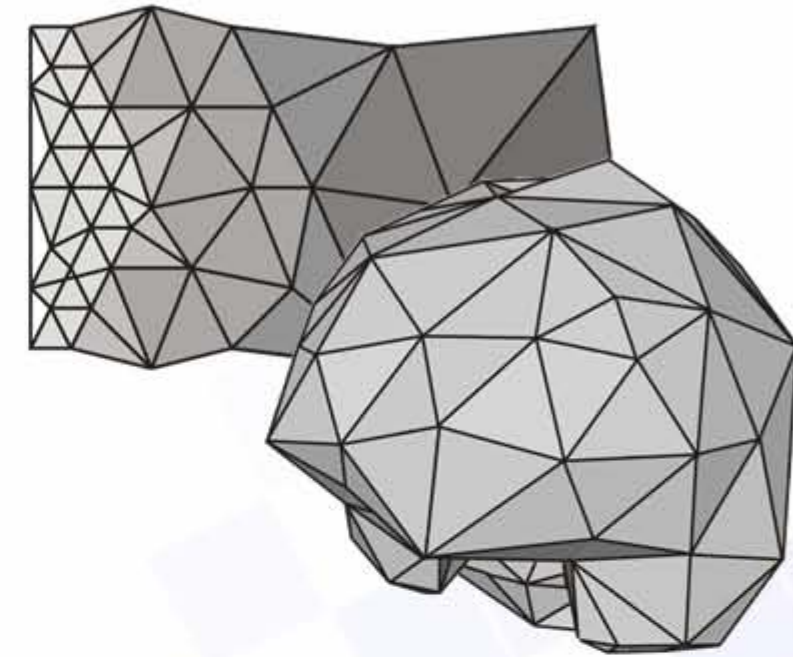
Representation of Curvilinear Grids

- Implicit storage of cells, explicit storage of vertices:
 - Store number of samples N_x , N_y , N_z in x-, y- and z-direction
 - Store list of all vertex coordinates P_{ijk} : x-, y- and z-coordinates of grid points
 - Store data in a linear Array with length $N_x \cdot N_y \cdot N_z$
 - Array-index of cells (x,y,z) can be computed by
$$n = N_x \cdot N_y \cdot z + N_x \cdot y + x$$



Represent. of Unstructured Grids

- Explicit storage of cells and vertices:
 - Store number of grid points N
 - Store number of cells Z
 - Store list of grid points P_{ijk} :
x-, y- and z-coordinates
 - Store cells by referencing the indices to the grid points:
e.g. tetrahedron: 4 indices



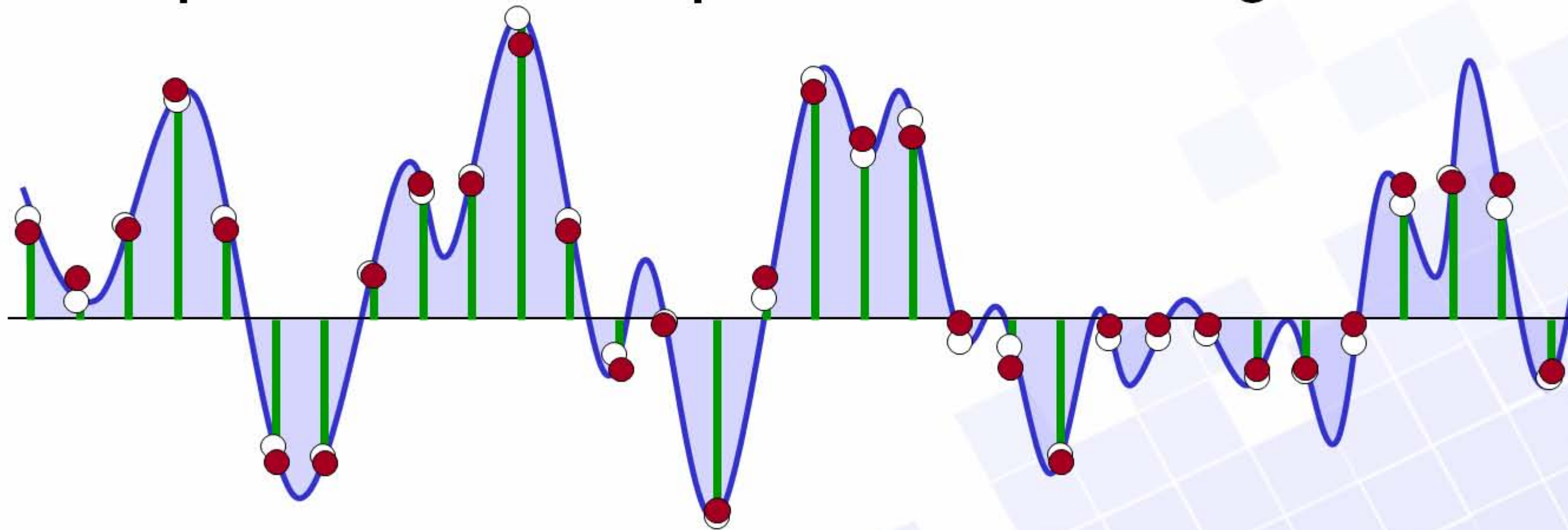
Comparison

- **Uniform rectilinear:**
Pro: simple and efficient storage and data access, cell-search is trivial
Con: constant resolution, no local adoption possible
- **Curvilinear:**
Pro: more flexible than rectilinear grids
Con: Explicit storage of point locations, cell-search is required (time consuming)
- **Unstructured:**
Pro: Maximal flexibility and local adoption
Con: Additional storage requirements (cells, i.e. topology), cell search (time consuming)

Signal Discretization and Quantization

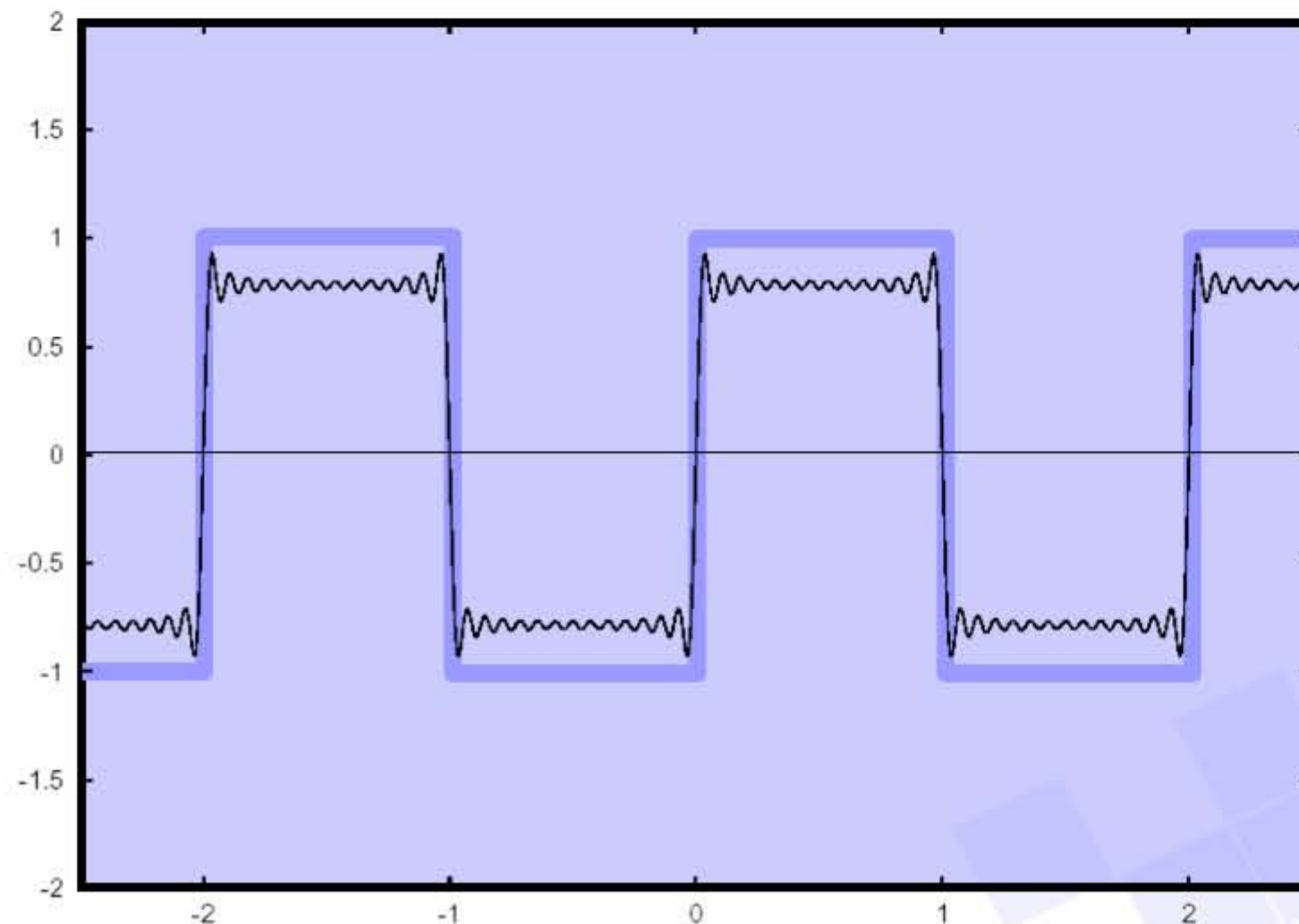
Continuous signals are sampled, yielding a **discrete** signal parameters

Quantization assigns the **values** for the parameter computer internal representations, e.g. 32 Bit



Frequency Spectrum

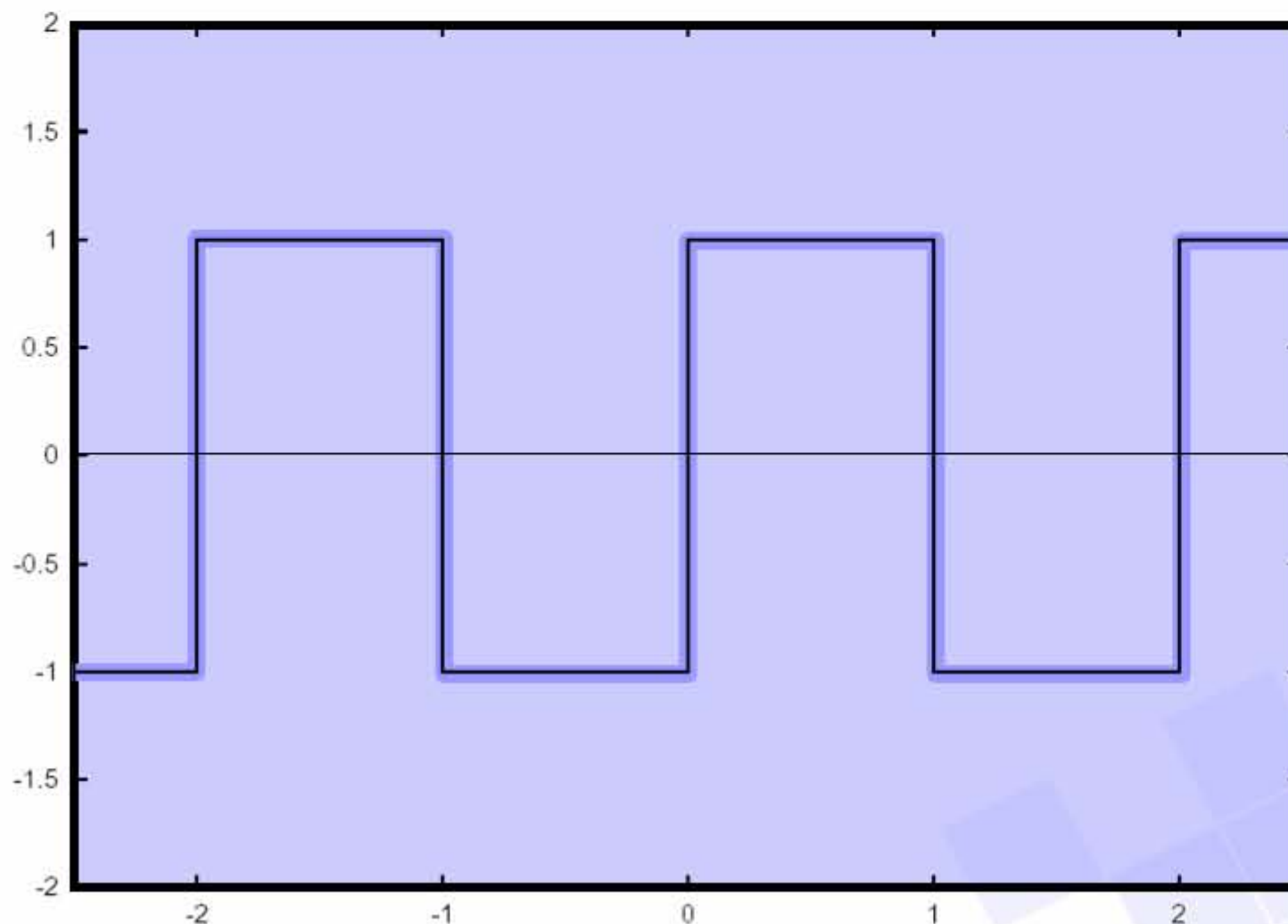
- Each continuous signal $f(x)$ can be represented as superposition of **harmonic (sinusoidal) functions with varying frequency**
- Example:



$$\begin{aligned} & \sin(x) + \frac{1}{3} \sin(3x) \\ & + \frac{1}{5} \sin(5x) + \frac{1}{7} \sin(7x) \\ & + \frac{1}{9} \sin(9x) + \frac{1}{11} \sin(11x) \\ & + \frac{1}{13} \sin(13x) \end{aligned}$$

Frequency Spectrum

- Each continuous signal $f(x)$ can be represented as superposition of **harmonic (sinusoidal) functions with varying frequency**
- Example:

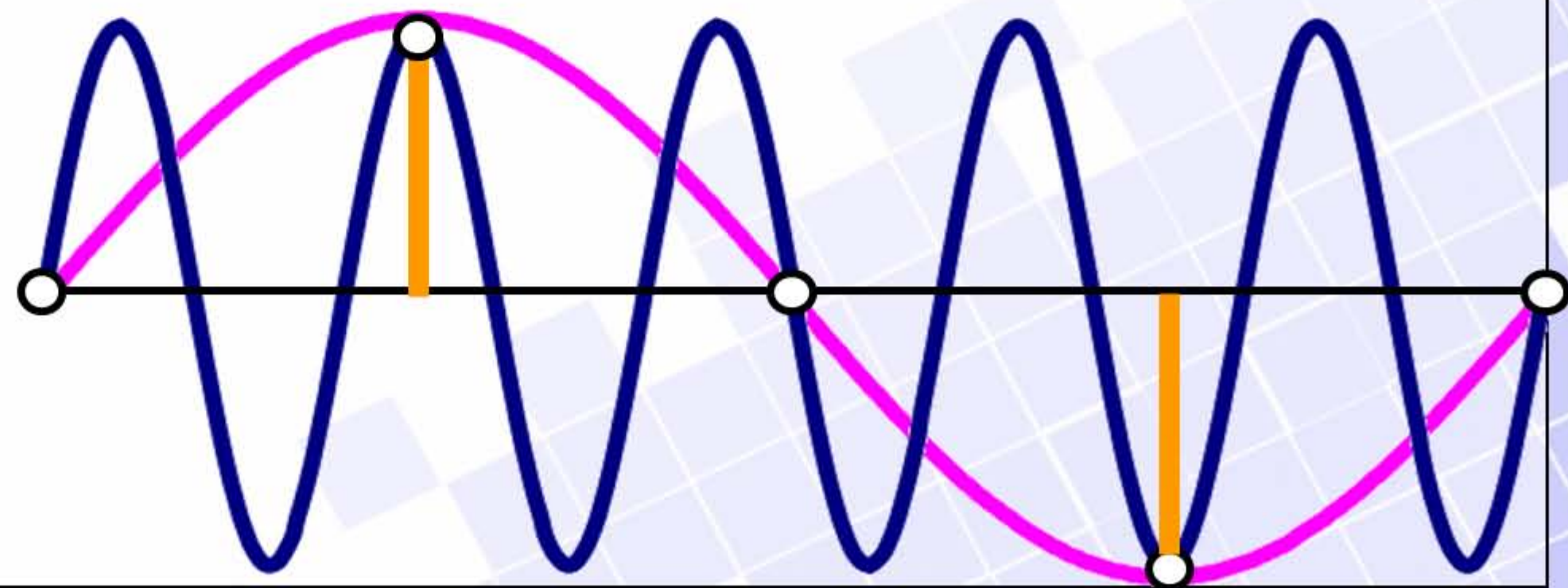


$$\sum_{n=1,3,5\dots}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \sin(n \cdot x)$$

Signals with
„sharp edges“
contain infinitely
high frequencies

Sampling Theorem

- Question: How do discrete and continuous signal relate to each other?
- If the continuous signal $f(x)$ has a bounded spectrum $F(t)$, e.g. $F(t) = 0$ for $|t| > t_{max}$ then the continuous signal can be reconstructed from the discrete signal, if sampled at step-size $\tau < 1/2t_{max}$
- Otherwise **aliasing** occurs



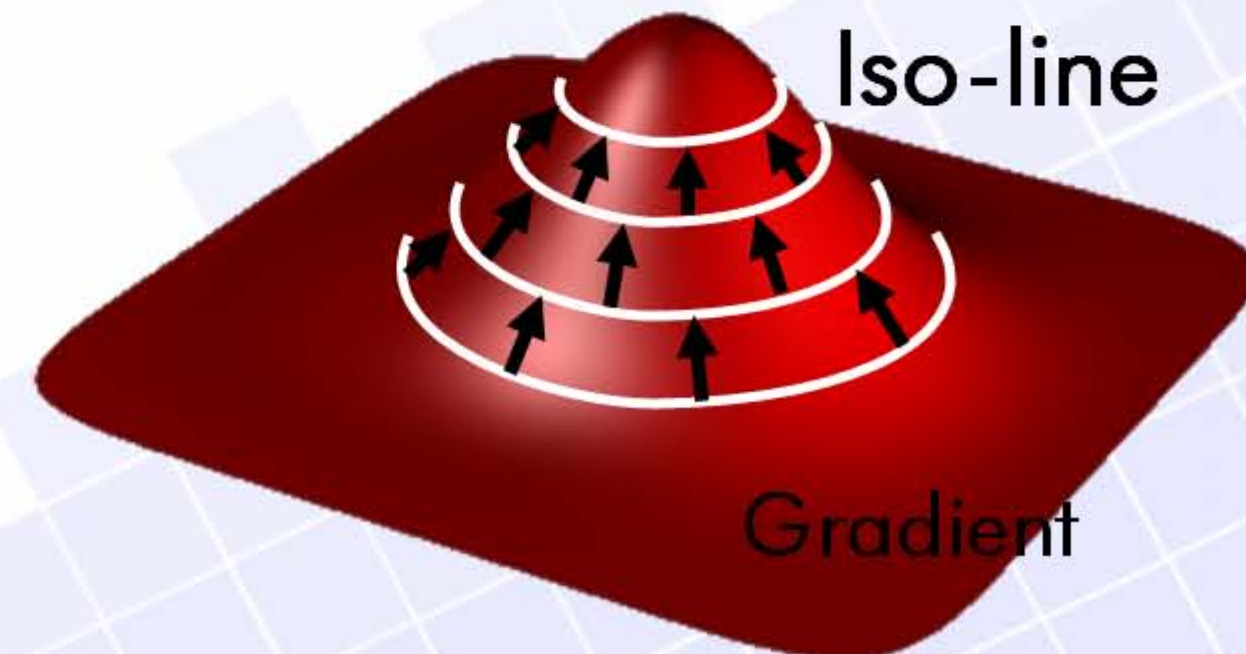
Derivatives and Gradient

- Gradient:
Vector consisting of
partial derivatives

$$\text{grad} f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Properties of the gradient-vector:
 - points in direction of max. ascent
 - is perpendicular to iso-lines
 - is zero at (local) extremal points

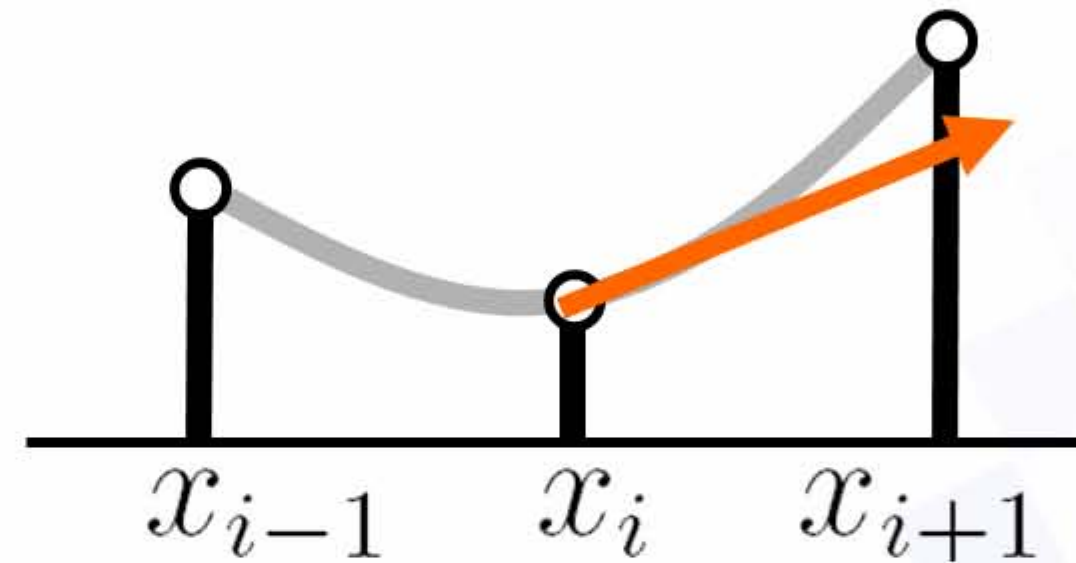
Example:
2D Hightfield



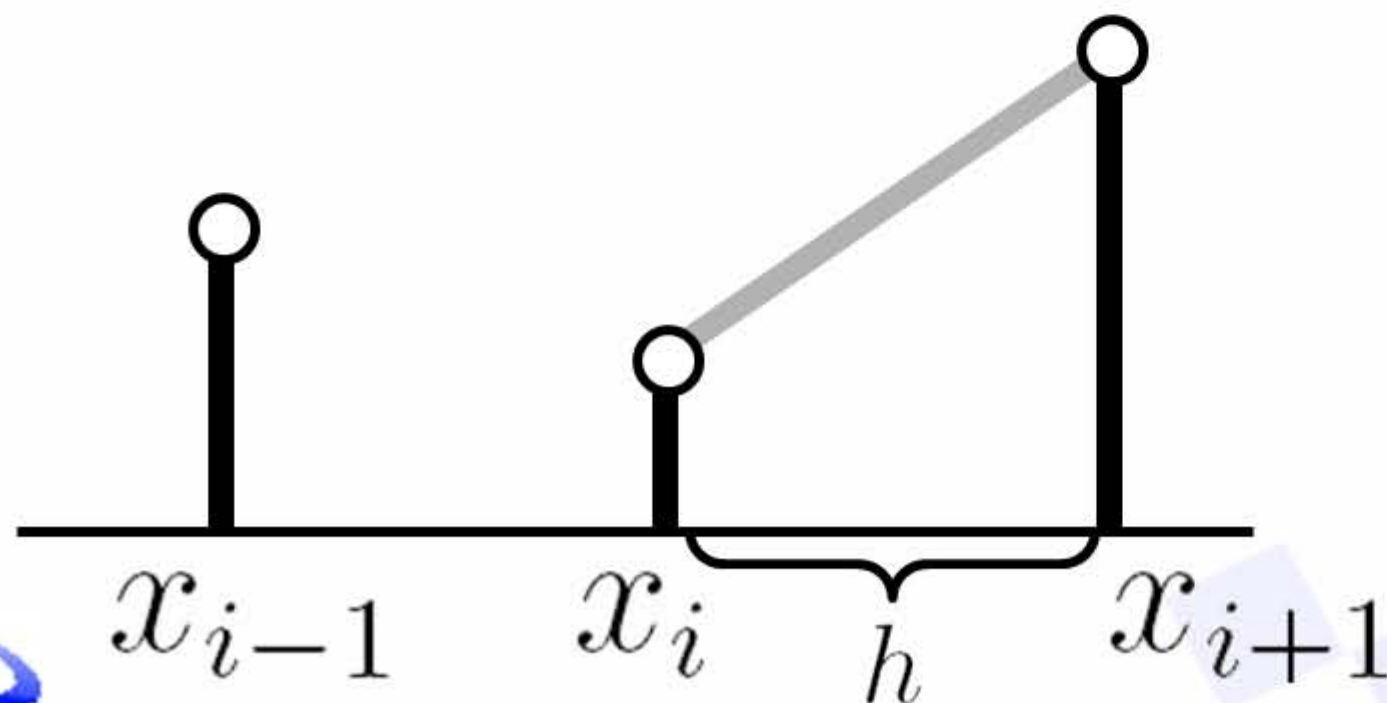
Differentiation on Grids

How to compute derivatives on a grid?

- **Approach 1:** Determine a (local) interpolating function and differentiate it



- **Approach 2:** Use finite differences



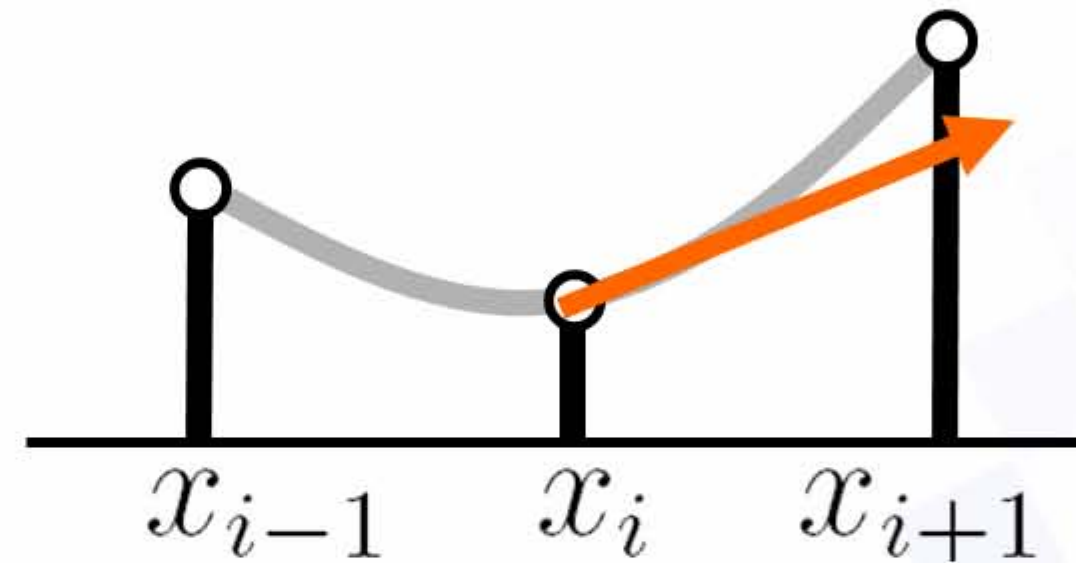
Forward:

$$f'(x_i) \approx \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h}$$

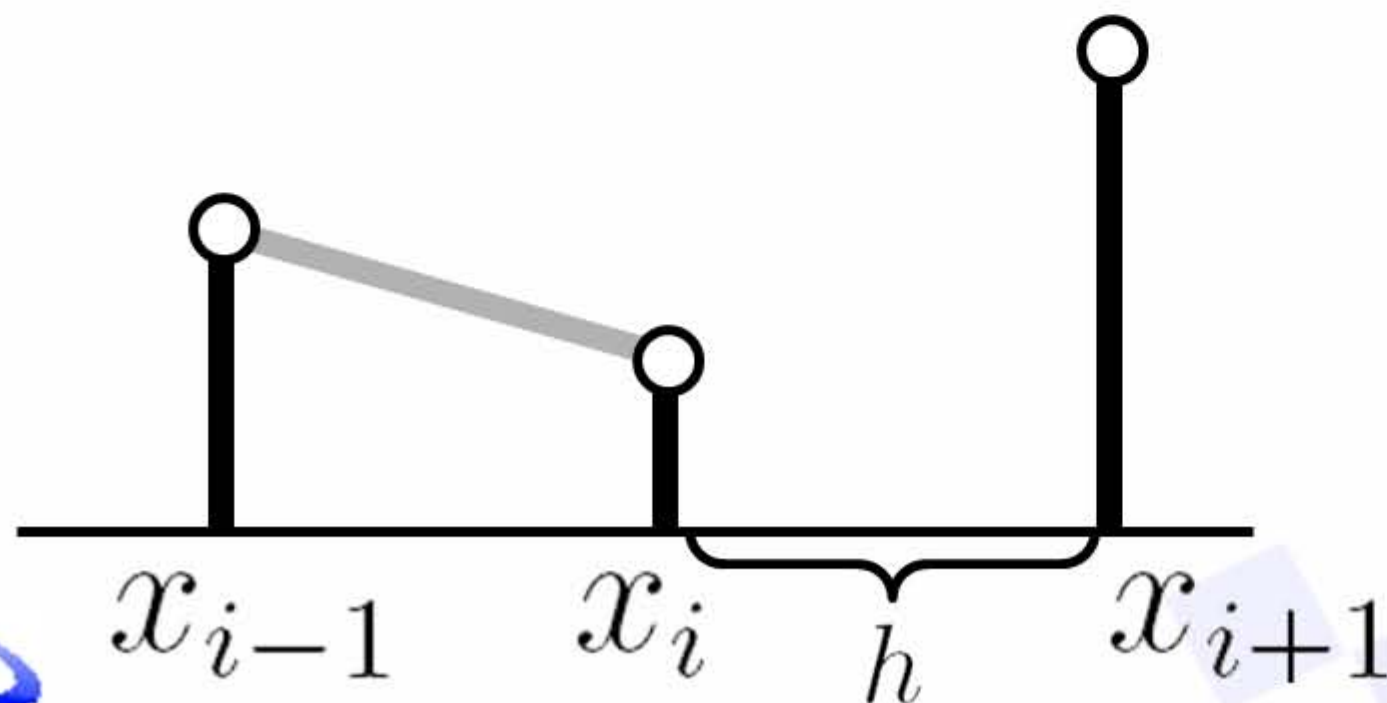
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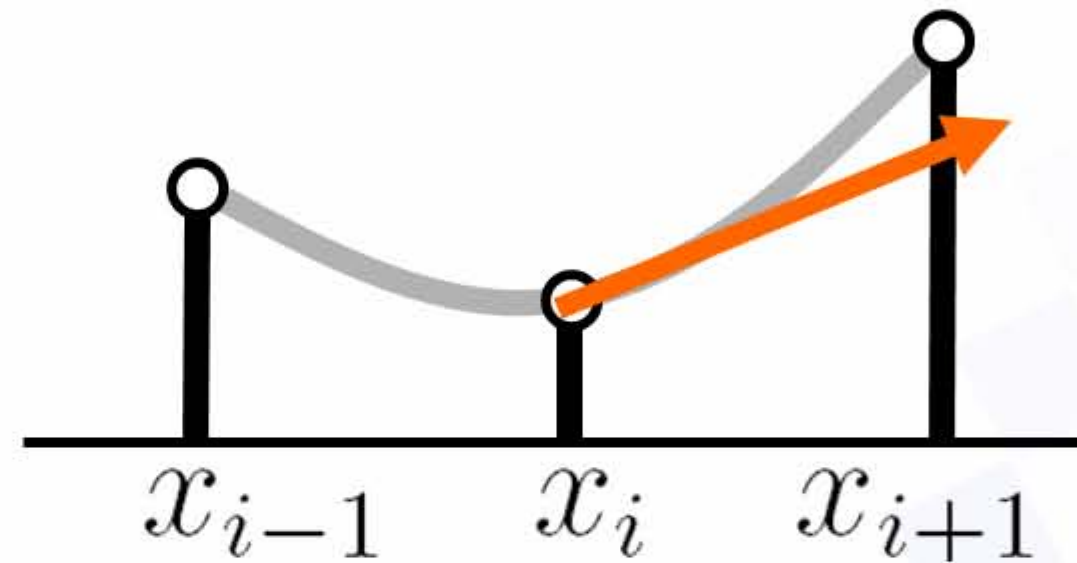
Backward:

$$f'(x_i) \approx \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{h}$$

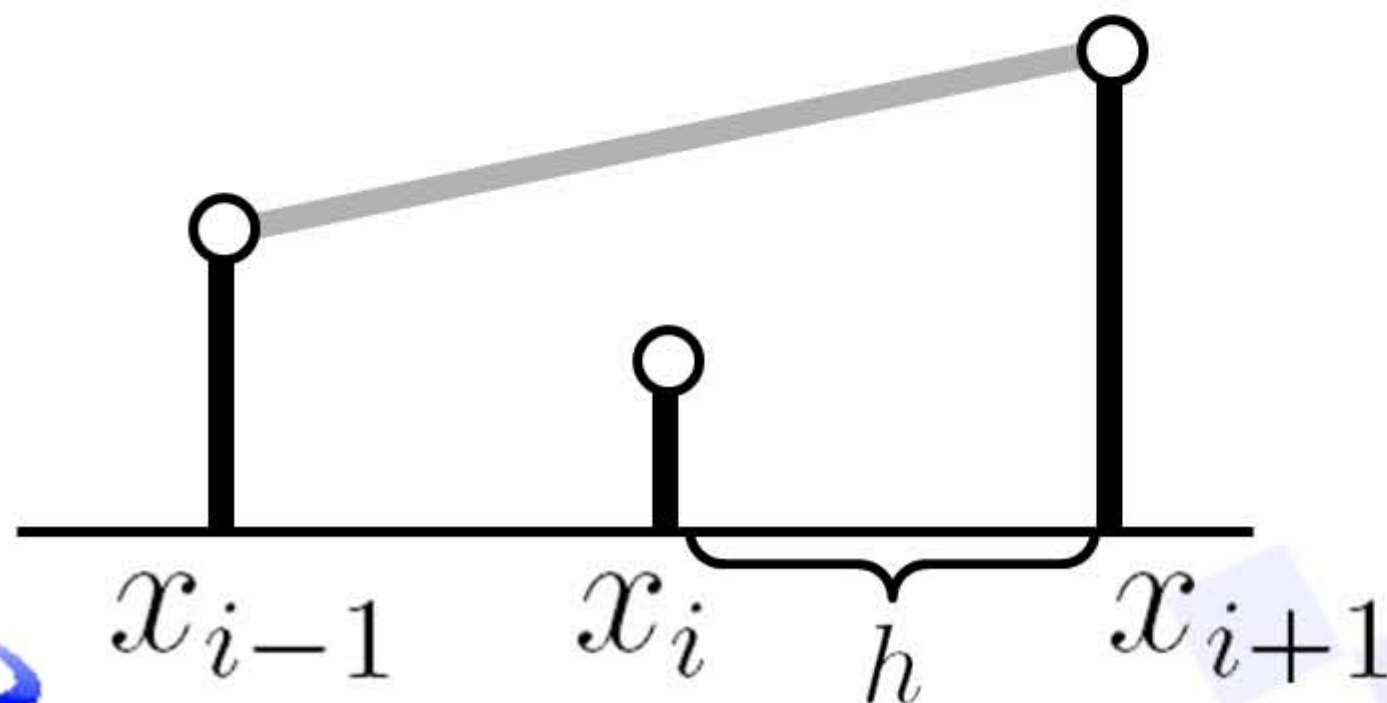
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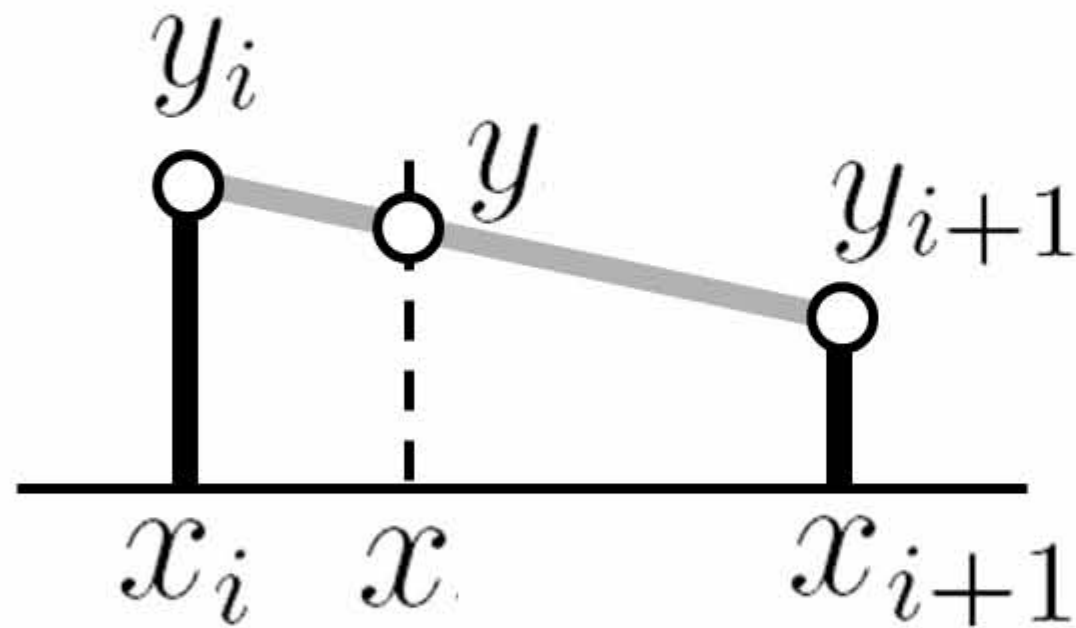
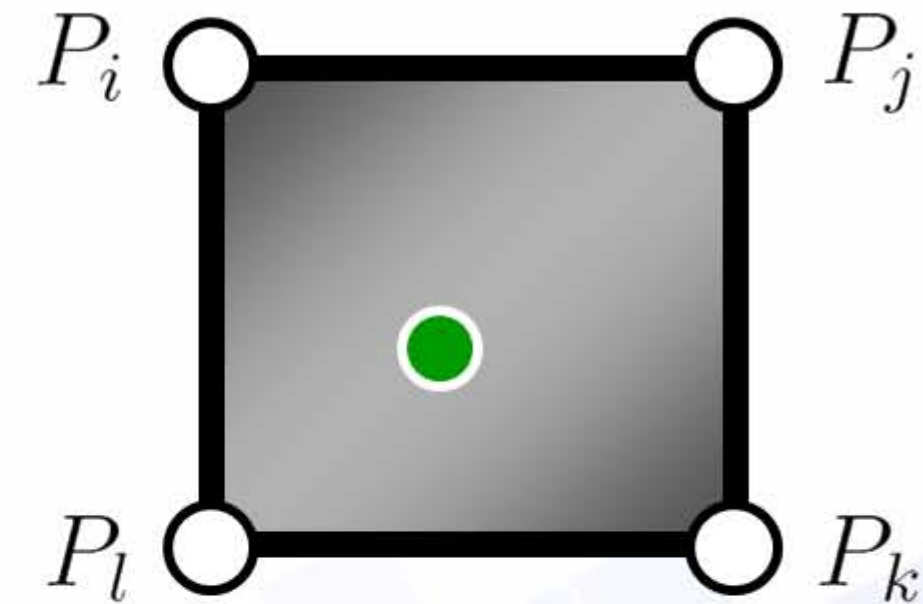


Central:

$$f'(x_i) \approx \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))}{2h}$$

Local Interpolation

- Given: Data values at the grid points
- Needed: Data value at an interior point
- Approach:** Linear Interpolation



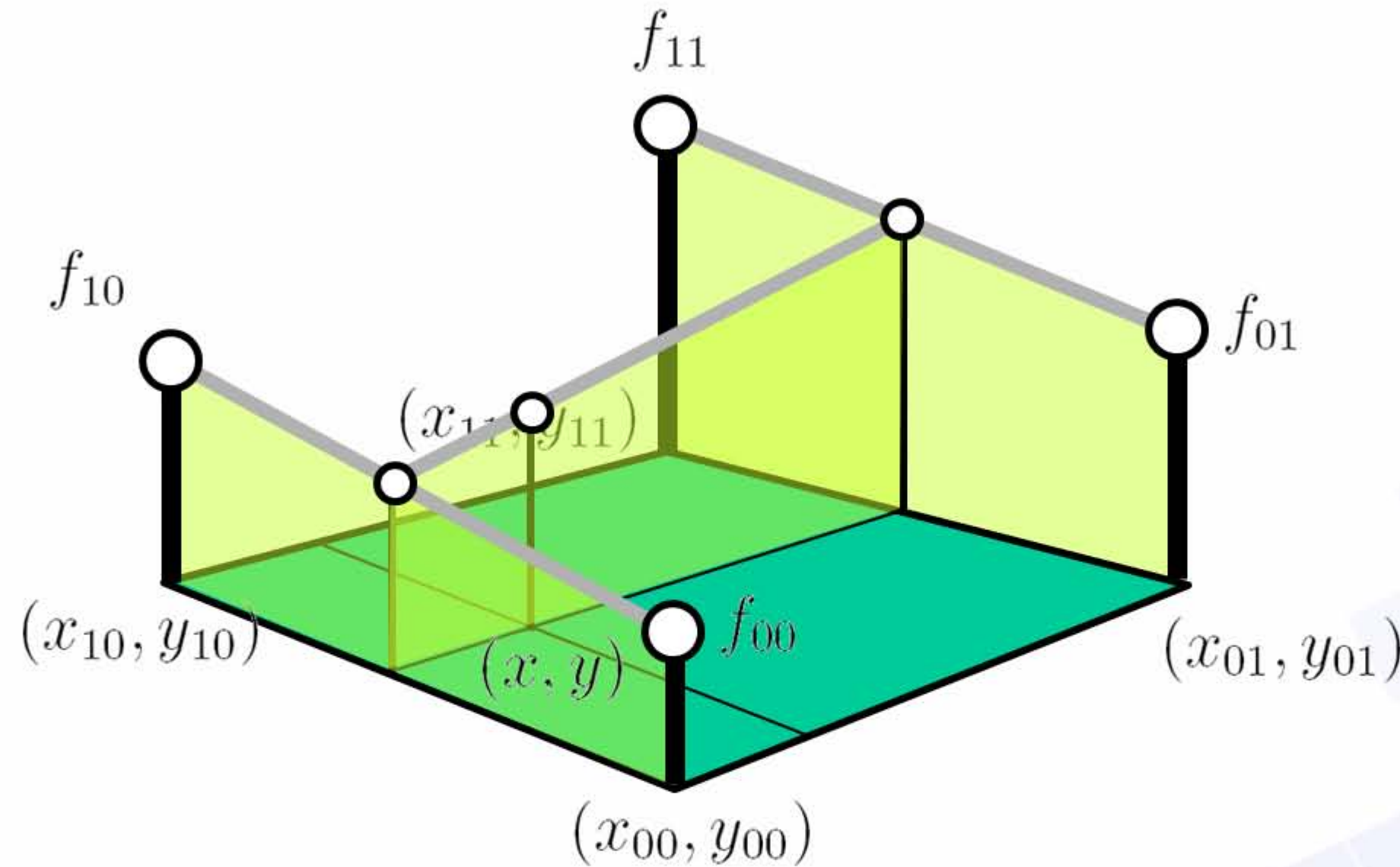
Linear *combination*,

$$f(x) = \alpha y_{i+1} + (1 - \alpha)y_i$$

with

$$\alpha = \frac{x - x_i}{x_{i+1} - x_i}$$

Bilinear Interpolation (2D)



$$f_0 = \alpha f_{10} + (1 - \alpha) f_{00}$$

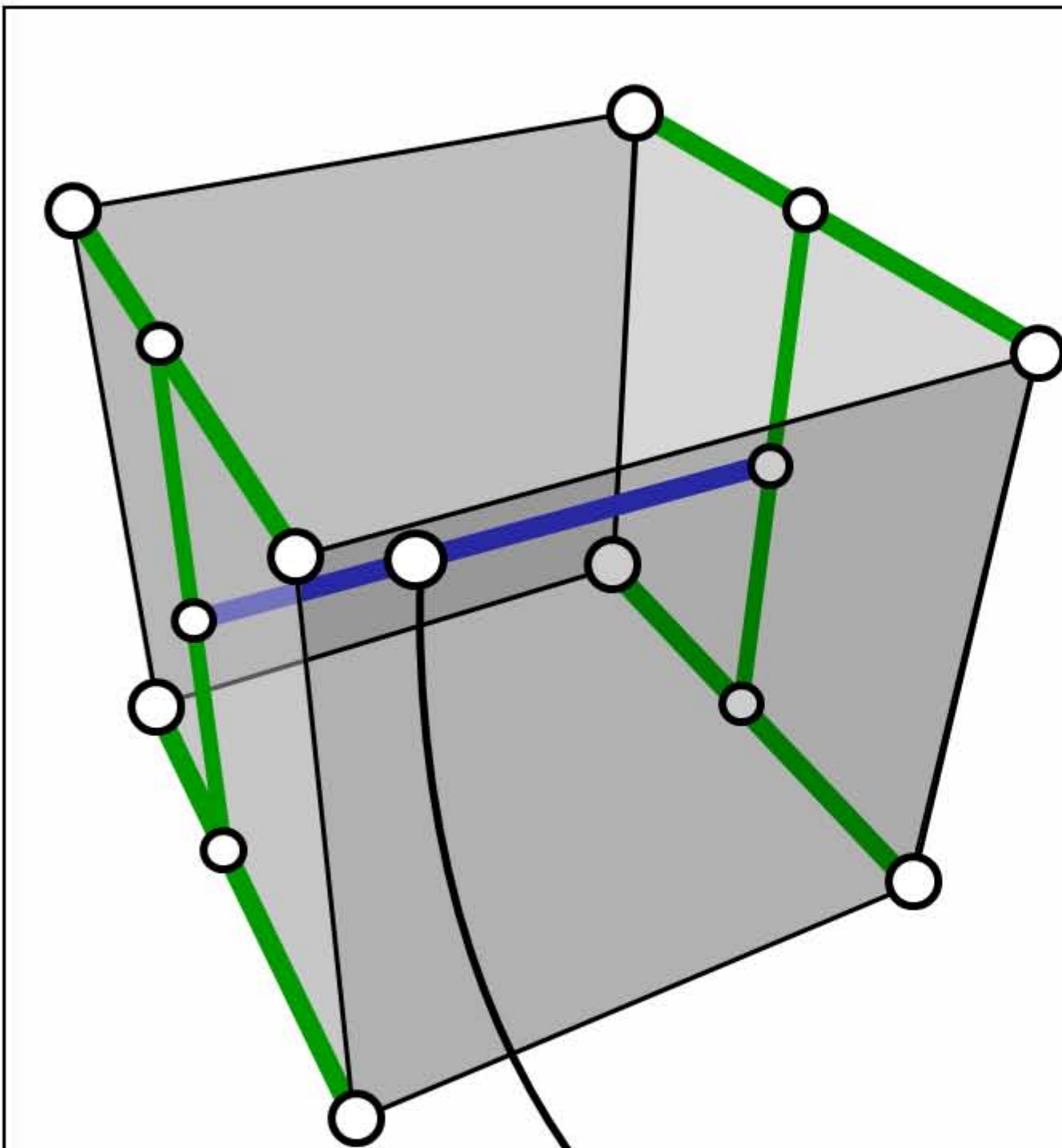
$$f_1 = \alpha f_{11} + (1 - \alpha) f_{01}$$

$$f(x, y) = \beta f_1 + (1 - \beta) f_0$$

$$\alpha = \frac{x - x_{00}}{x_{10} - x_{00}}$$

$$\beta = \frac{y - y_{00}}{y_{01} - y_{00}}$$

Trilinear Interpolation (3D)



4-fold linear interpolation

$$f_{00} = \alpha f_{001} + (1 - \alpha) f_{000}$$

$$f_{01} = \alpha f_{011} + (1 - \alpha) f_{010}$$

$$f_{10} = \alpha f_{101} + (1 - \alpha) f_{100}$$

$$f_{11} = \alpha f_{111} + (1 - \alpha) f_{110}$$



2-fold bilinear interpolation

$$f_0 = \beta f_{01} + (1 - \beta) f_{00}$$

$$f_1 = \beta f_{11} + (1 - \beta) f_{10}$$

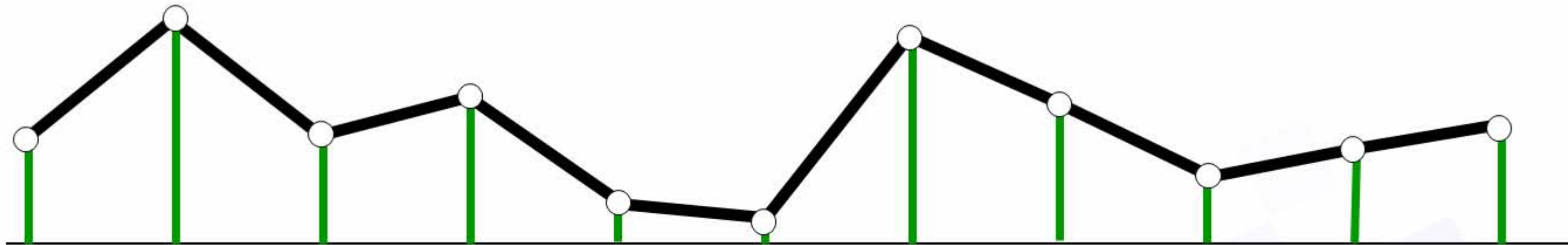


1 trilinear interpolation

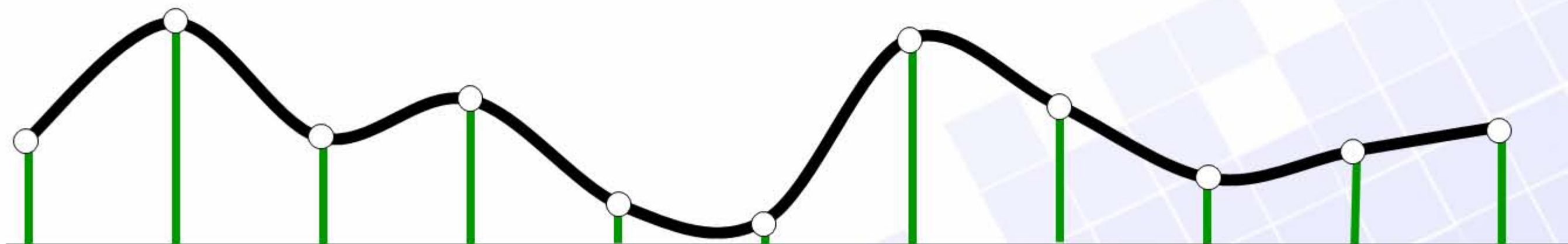
$$f = \gamma f_1 + (1 - \gamma) f_0$$

Higher Order Interpolation

- Linear interpolation yields C_0 -continuous interpolant



- Higher order, e.g. C_1 , results from higher order functions, e.g. cubic polynomials

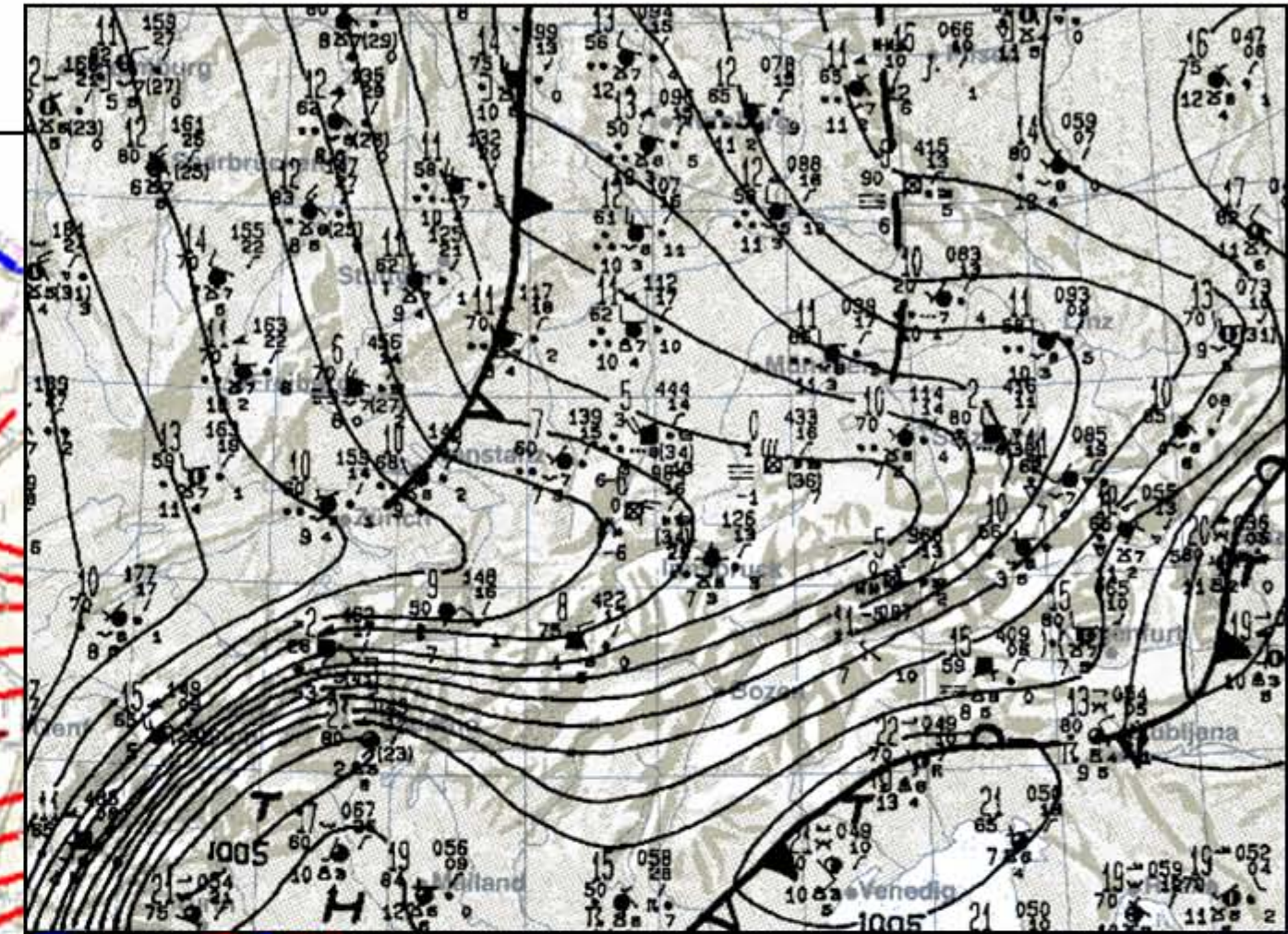
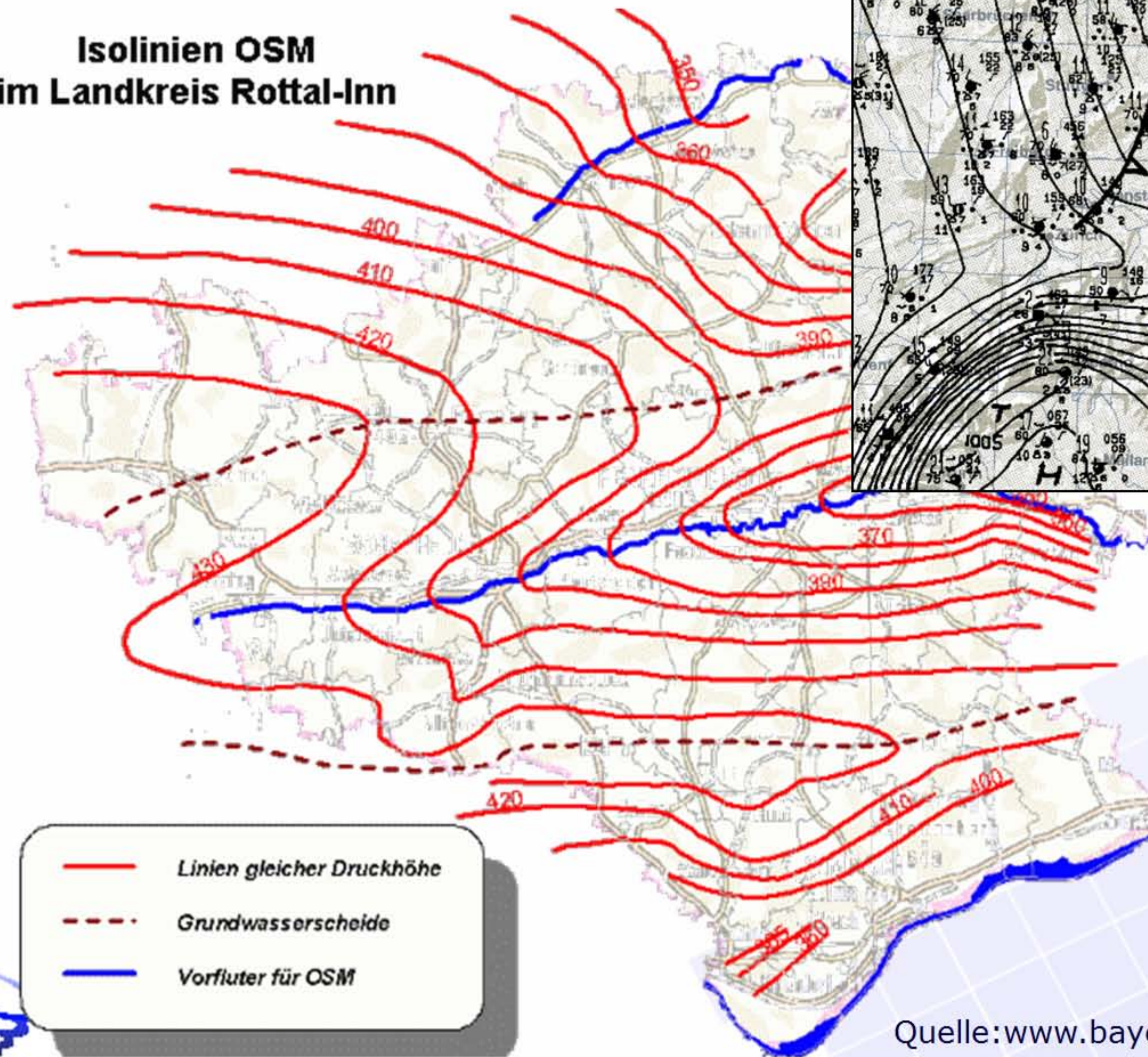


Further Fundamental Topics

- Sampling and interpolation on non-uniform grids
 - Barycentric coordinates
- Filtering
 - Linear filtering, e.g. high-pass, low-pass
 - Non-linear filtering, e.g. morphological operators or anisotropic filters
- Computation of grids
 - Triangulations/Tetrahedrization
 - Hexagonization

2D Scalar-Fields

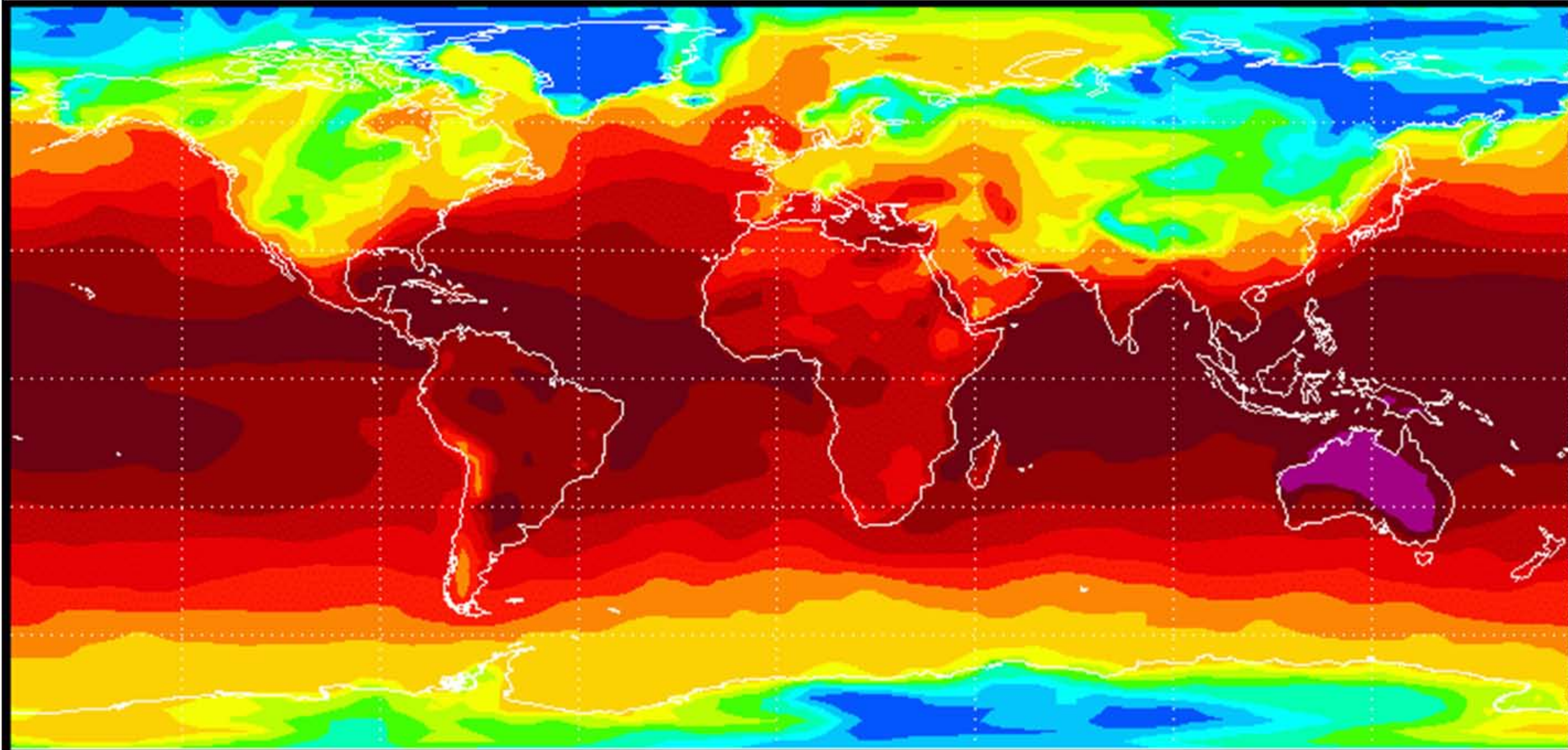
Isolinien OSM
im Landkreis Rottal-Inn



Quelle: www.bayern.de

Example

● **Meteorology:** Temperature Distribution



Quelle: www.climateprediction.net

Overview 2D Scalar Fields

- Scalar-Fields:

- are rarely given analytically: $s = f(x, y)$
- usually, we have discrete data:

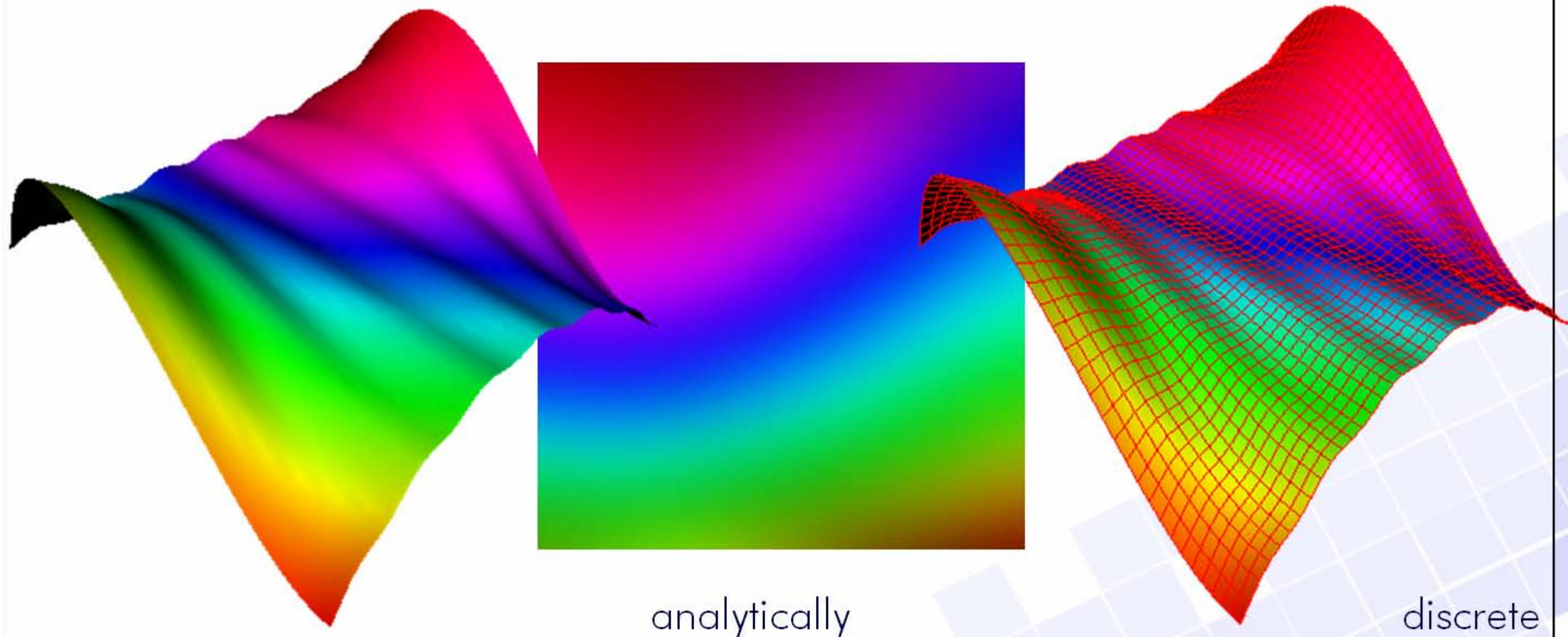
$$(x_i, y_i) \mapsto f_i \quad i \in [0, \dots, N]$$

- Visualization Approaches:

- Color Plots
- Surface Plots
- Iso-lines

2D Scalar-Fields

... need not to be planar!



$$\begin{pmatrix} x(u, v) \\ y(u, v) \\ z(u, v) \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow (u, v) \rightarrow f(u, v)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \\ z_i \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow (u_i, v_i) \rightarrow f_i$$

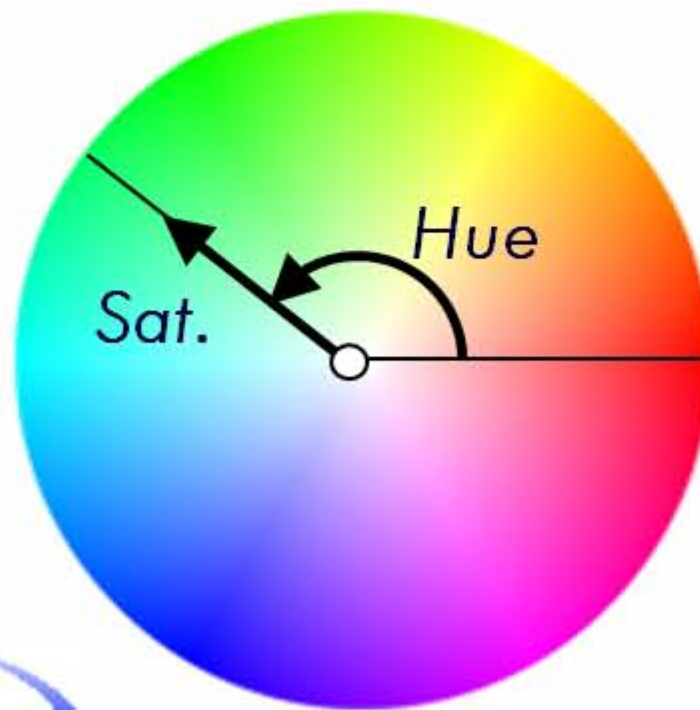
Color-Coding

- Specify a color table, i.e.
A mapping: Scalar value $s \longrightarrow$ color value

Example: Given a 2D pressure distribution

$$\rho_{\min} \leq \rho \leq \rho_{\max}$$

Linear mapping to HSV-color model's **Hue-comp.**



Hue = angle
Saturation = distance from center point

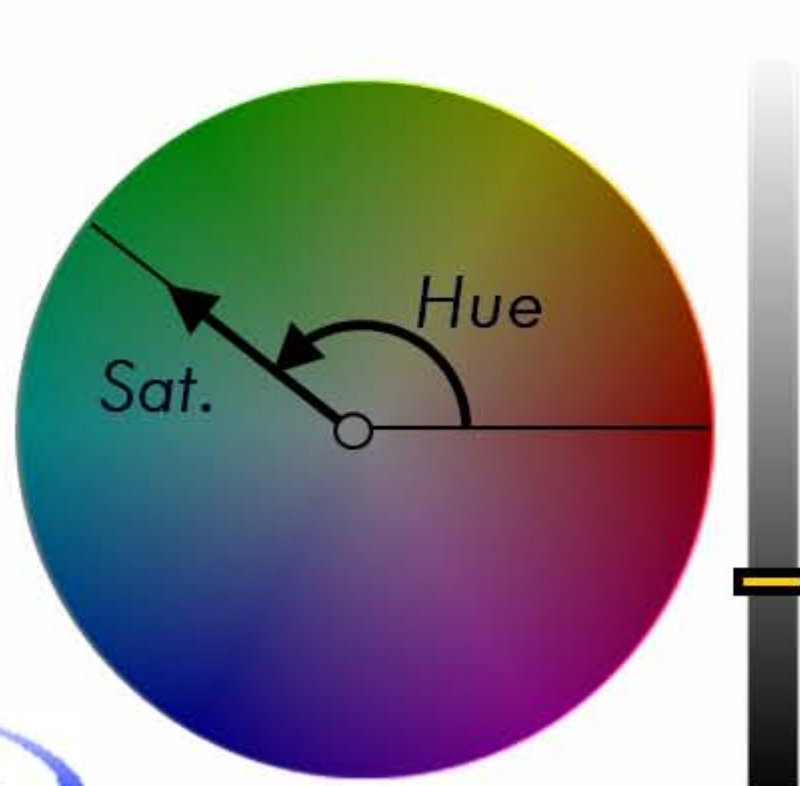
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Linear mapping to HSV-color model's **Hue-comp.**



Value

Hue = angle

Saturation = distance from center point

Value = brightness

$$\alpha = \frac{\rho - \rho_{\min}}{\rho_{\max} - \rho_{\min}} \in [0, 1]$$

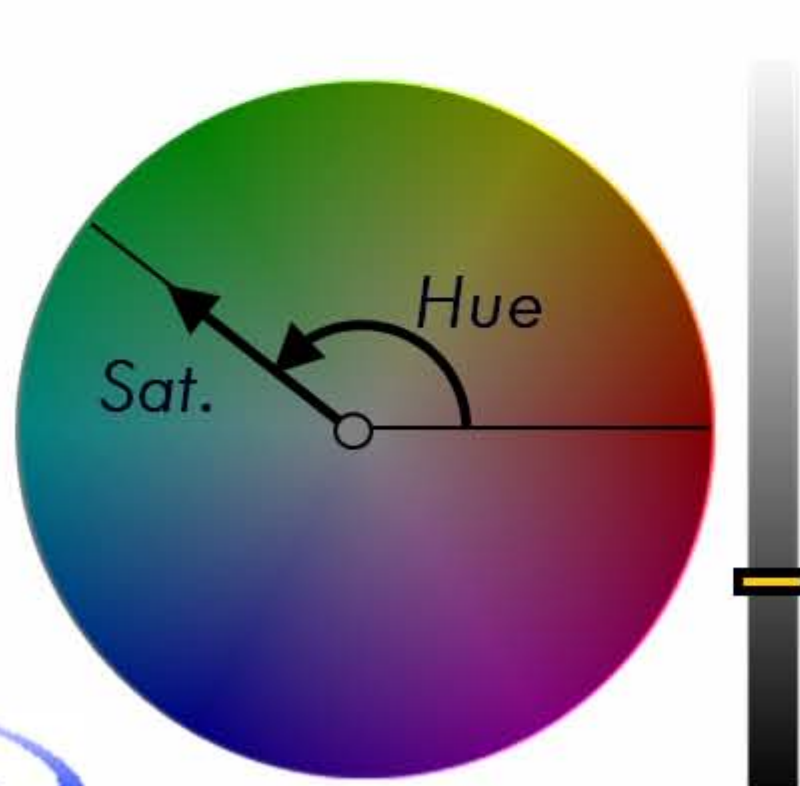
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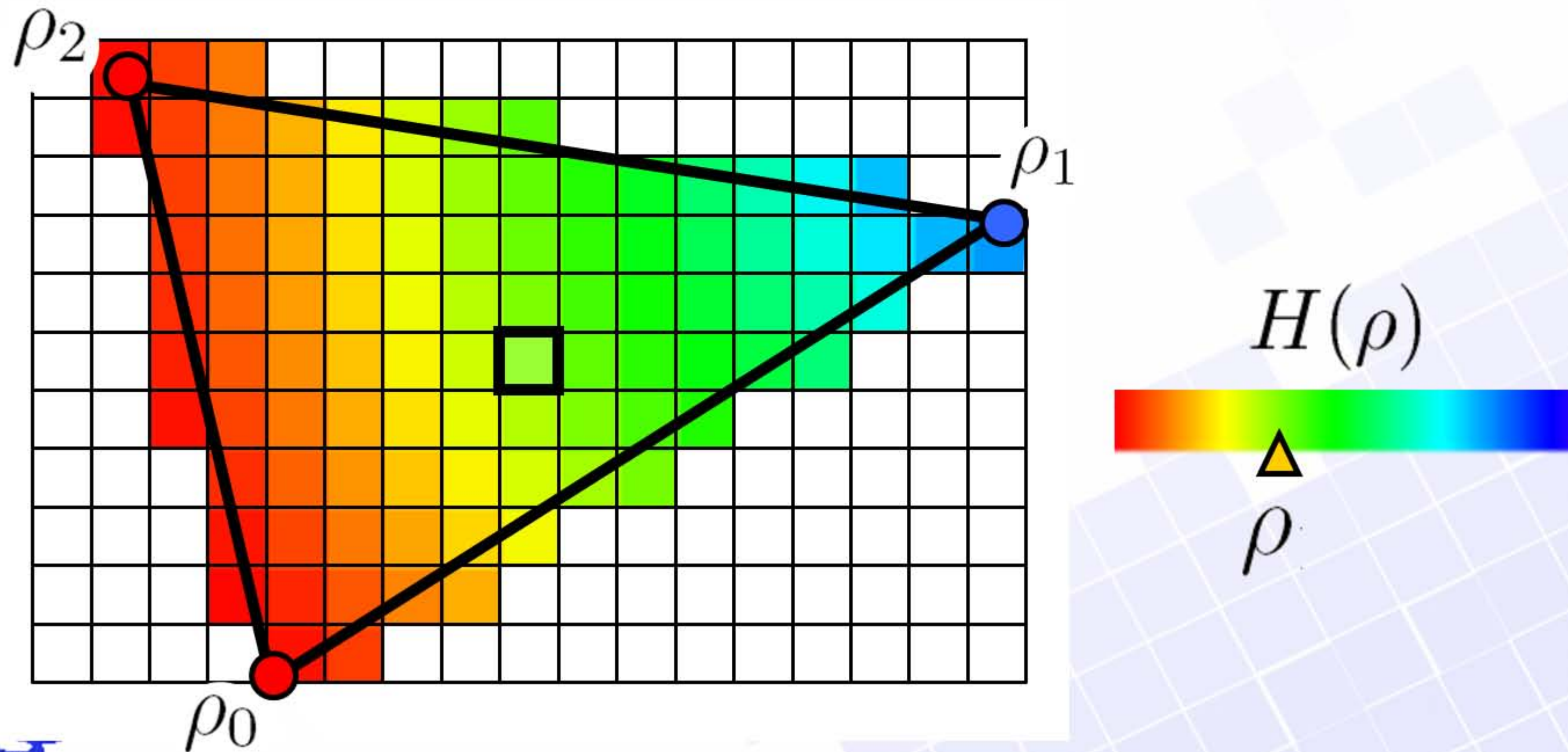
Saturation = distance from center point

Value = brightness

$$H(\rho) = \alpha H_1 + (1 - \alpha) H_0$$

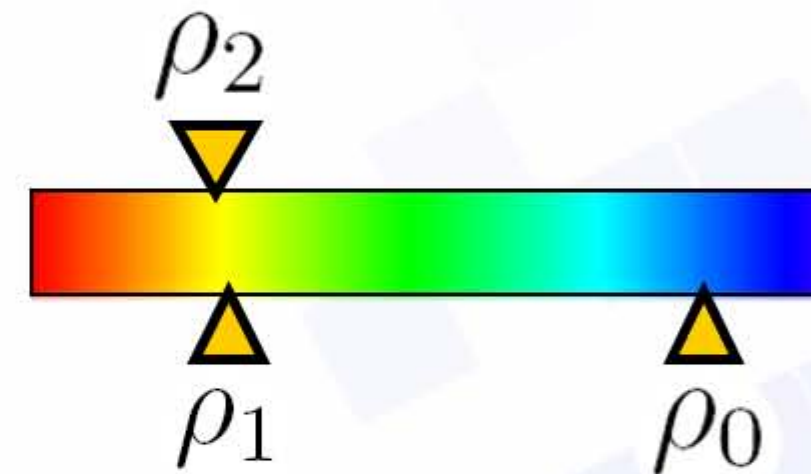
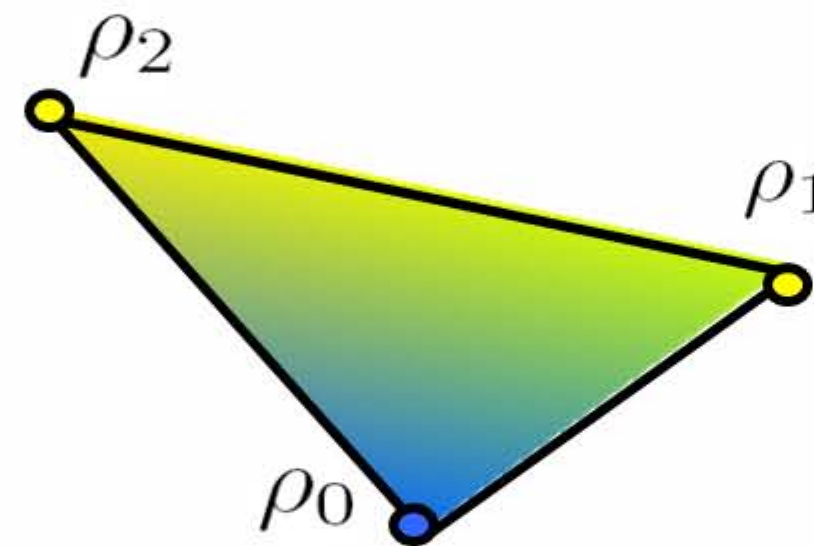
Rasterisation and Interpolation

- How to compute color value at interior points?
- Interpolate scalar value for each pixel
- Map per-pixel scalar value to color



Simple Implementation

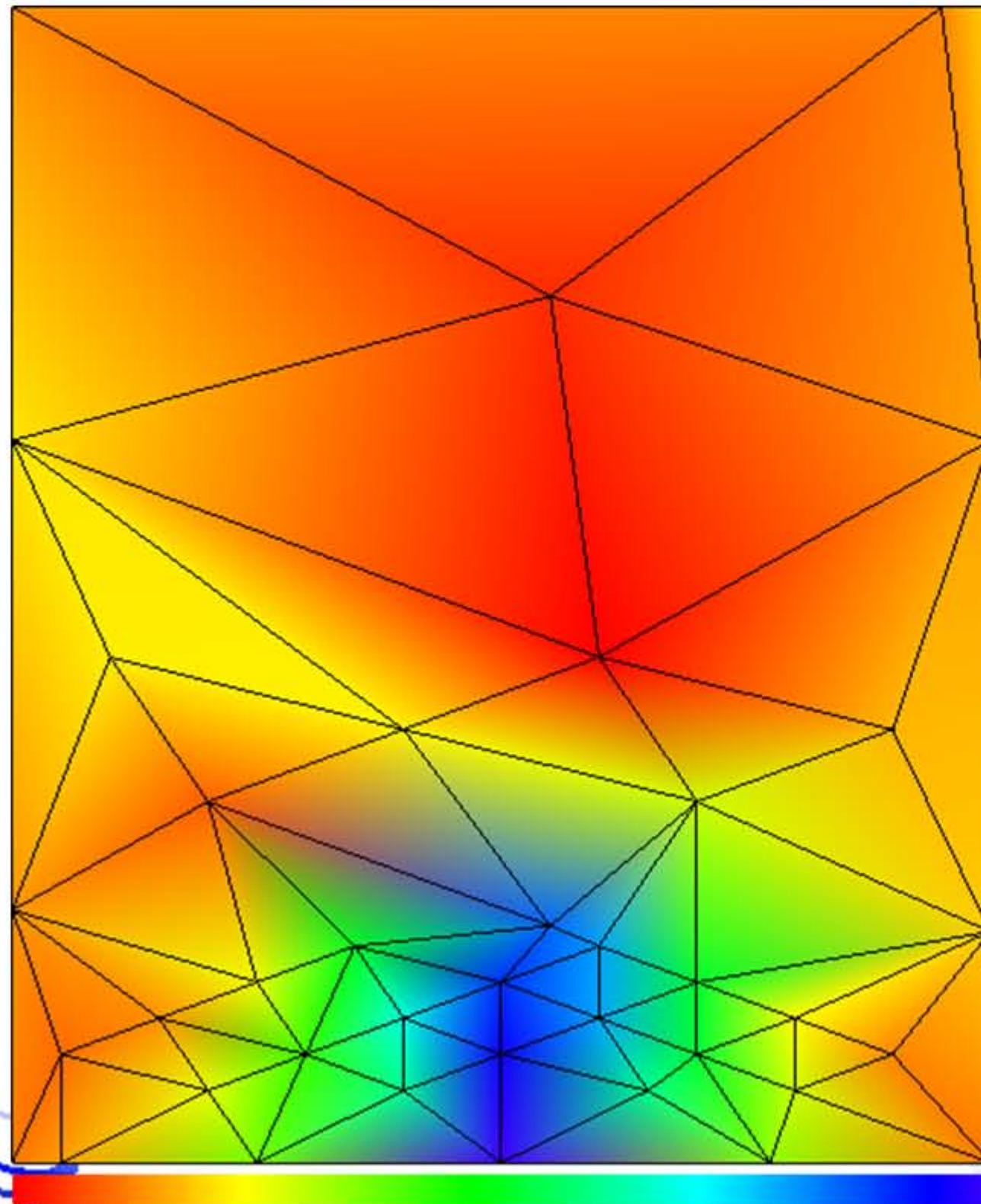
- Standard approach using Graphics Hardware:
 - Define per-vertex color
 - Rasterization interpolates colors within the triangle



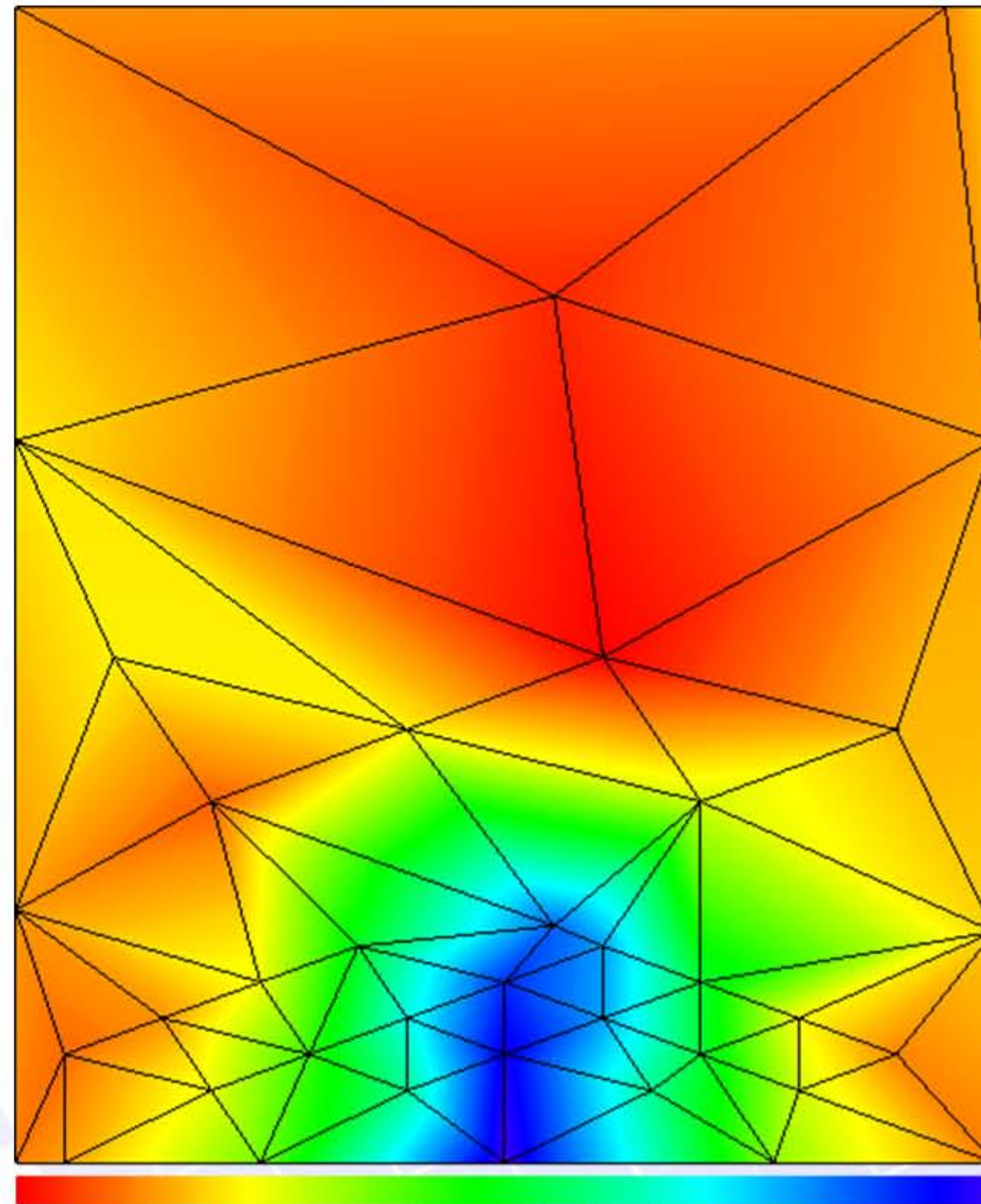
- But: color-interpolation $\neq$ value interpolation
- Better: Use texture to store color table
 - Per-vertex value $\rightarrow$ texture coordinates
 - Texture interpolation + lookup yields correct result

Comparison

Color interpolation



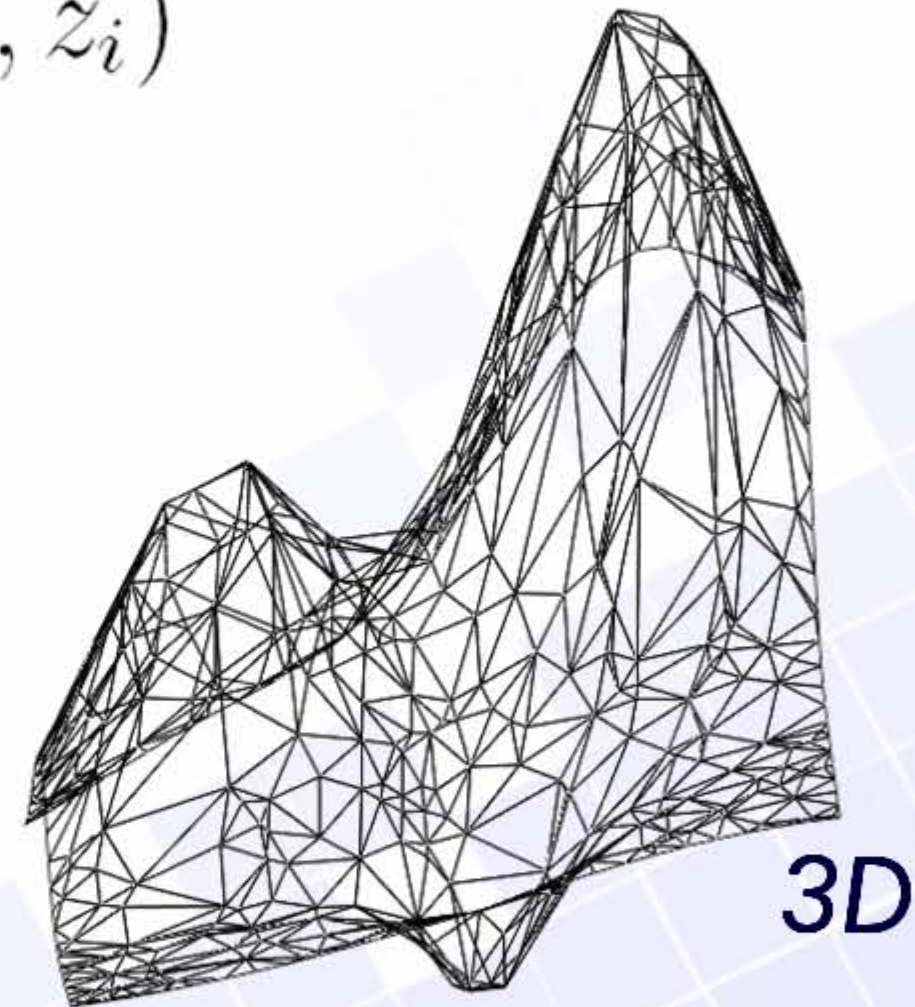
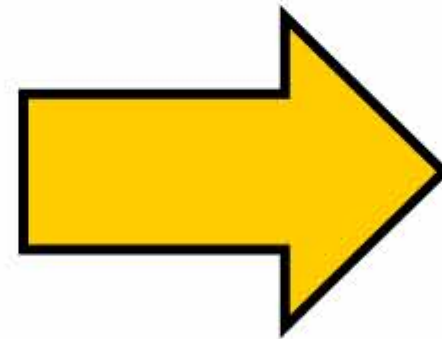
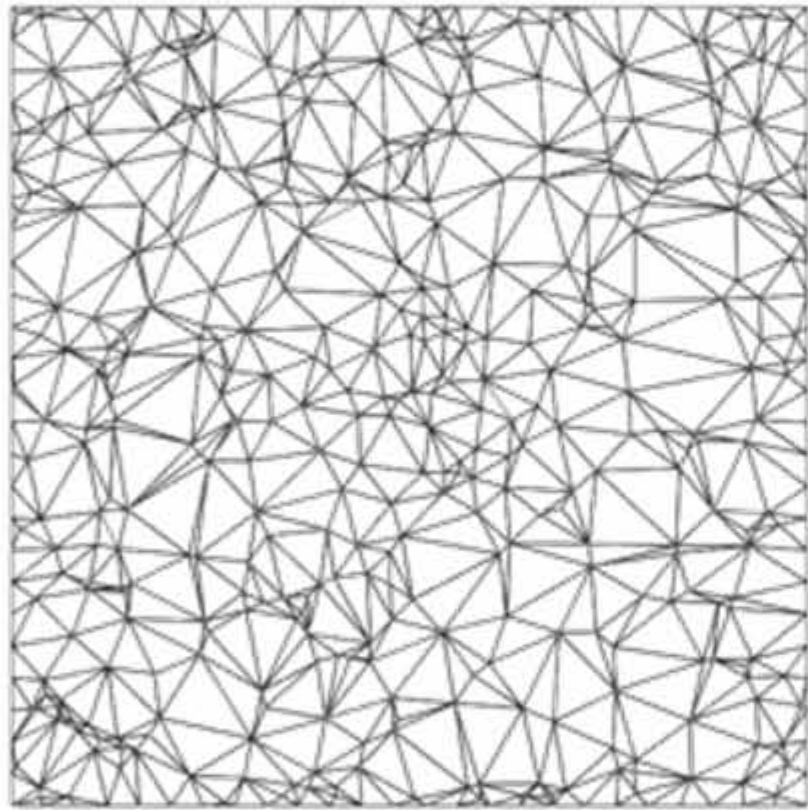
Texture interpolation



Surface Plots

- Interpret scalar field as heightfield & draw 3D surface

$$(x_i, y_i) \mapsto (x_i, y_i, z_i)$$

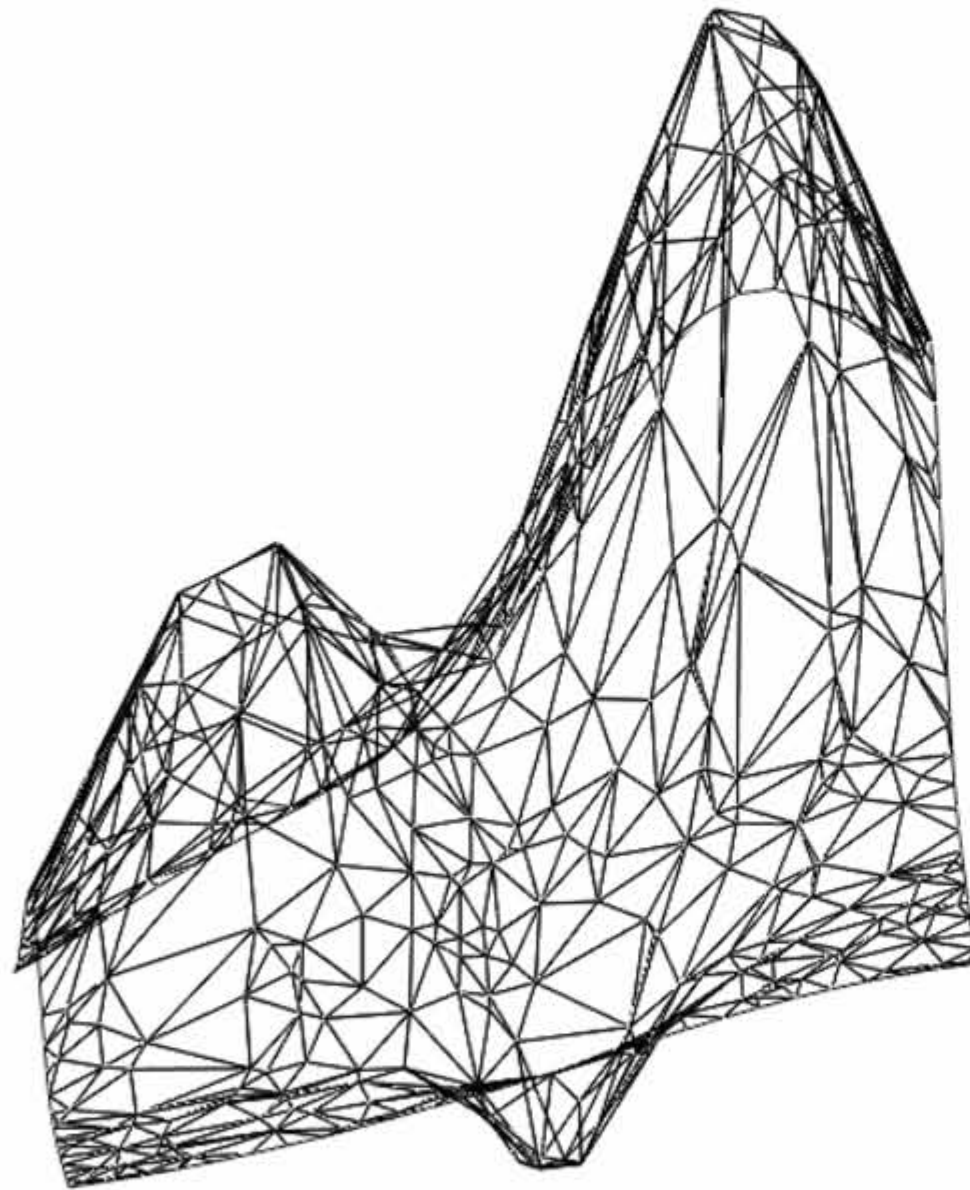


$$\alpha = \frac{\rho - \rho_{\min}}{\rho_{\max} - \rho_{\min}}$$

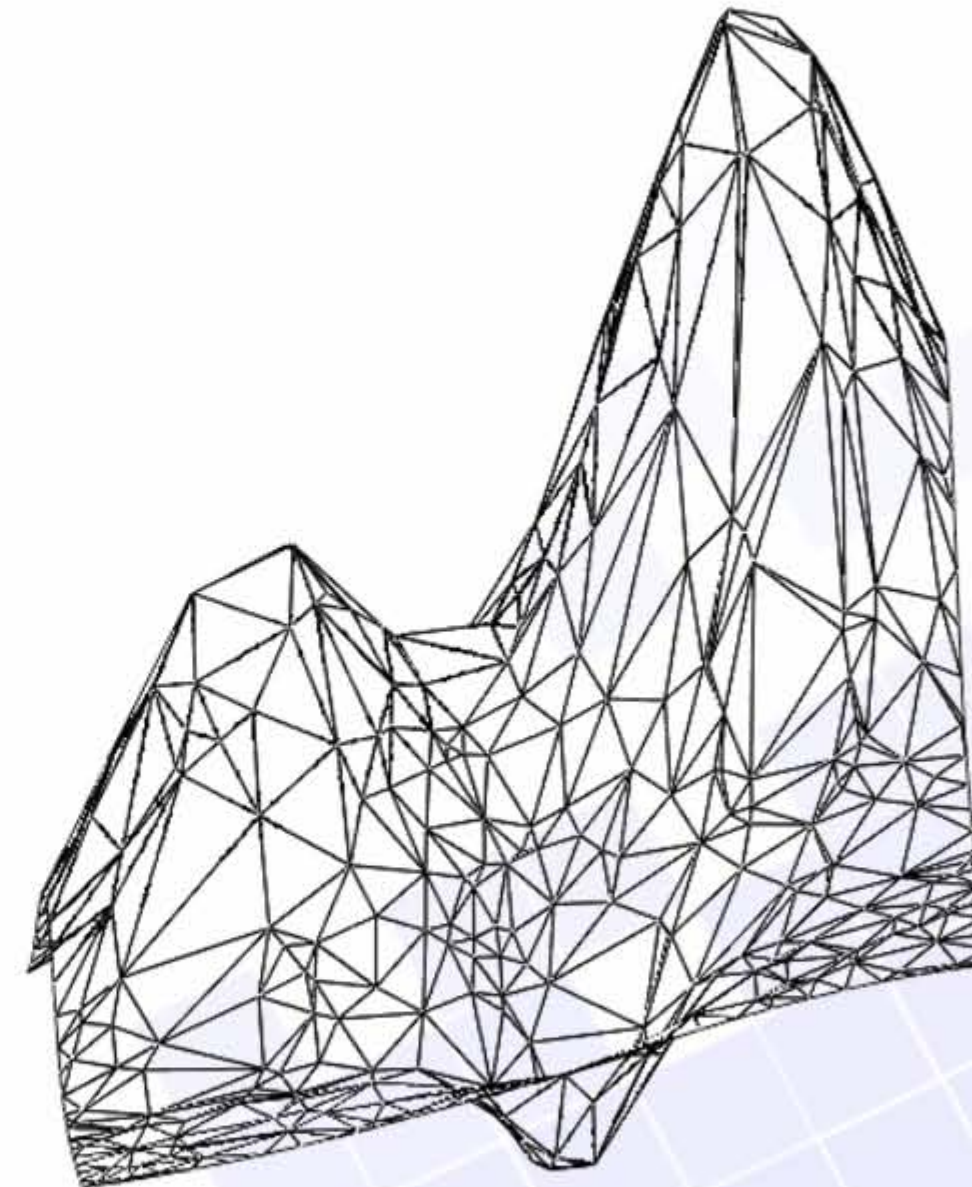
$$z_i = \alpha z_{\max} + (1 - \alpha) z_{\min}$$

Surface Plots

● Line-based plots



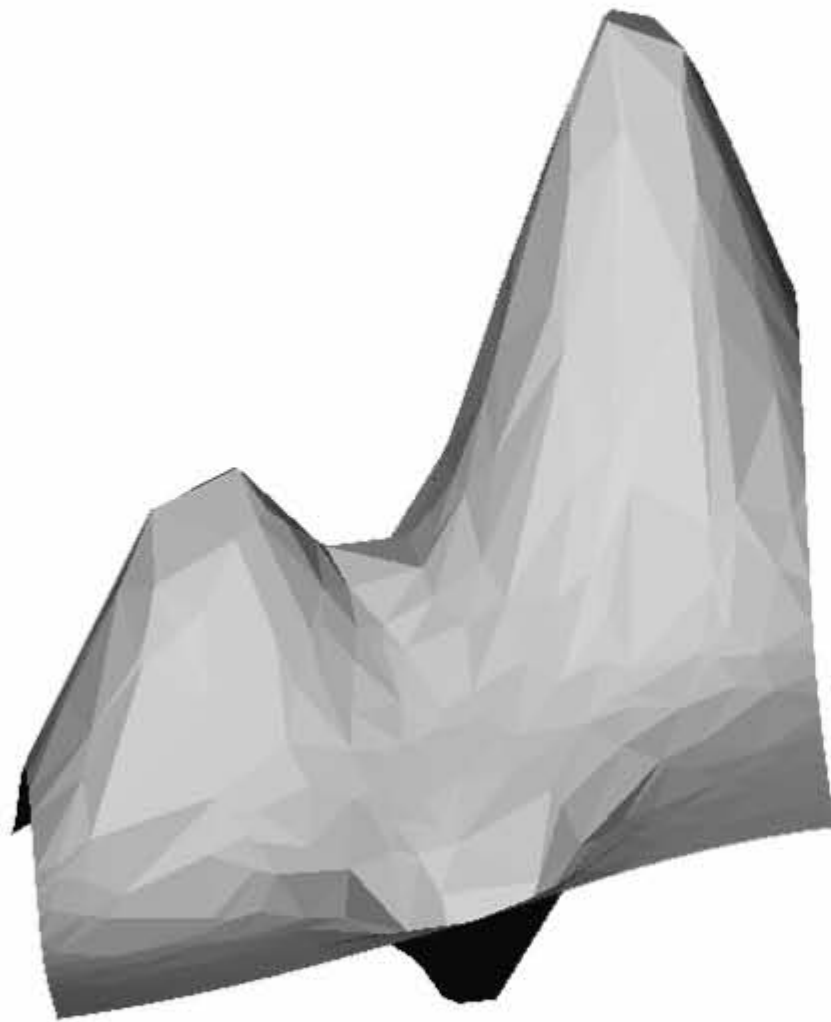
„wireframe“



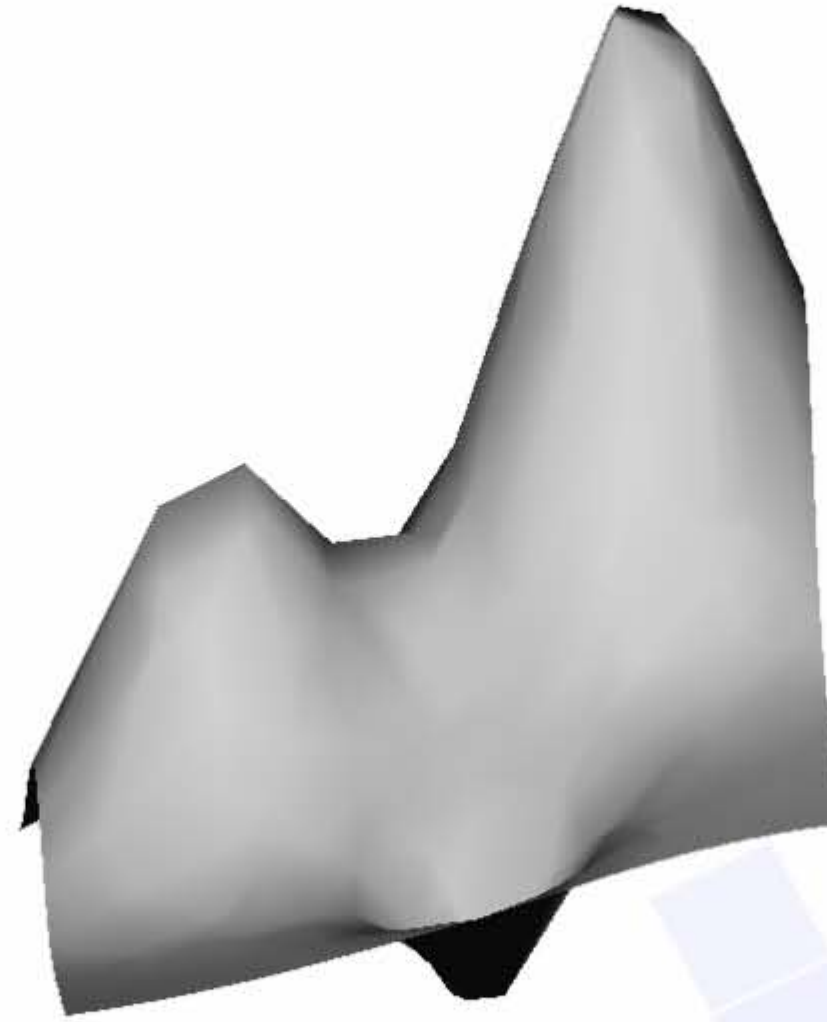
„hidden line removal“

Surface Plots

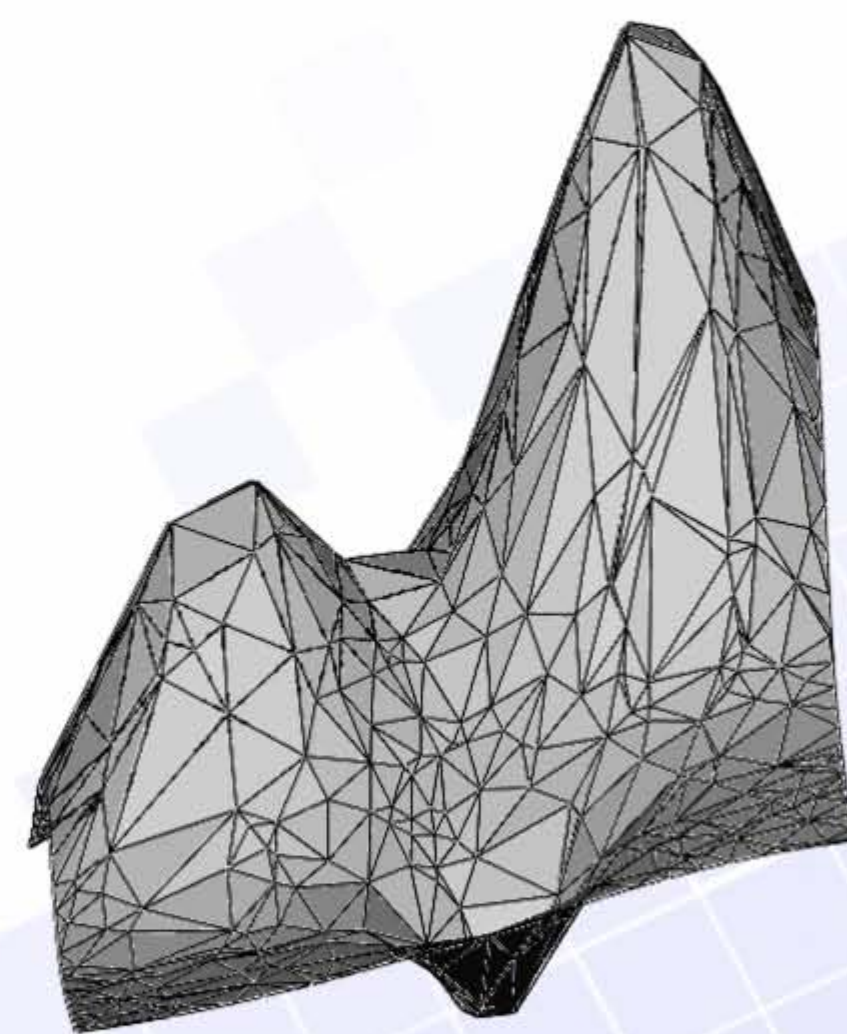
● Surface plots using *Shading*



flat shading



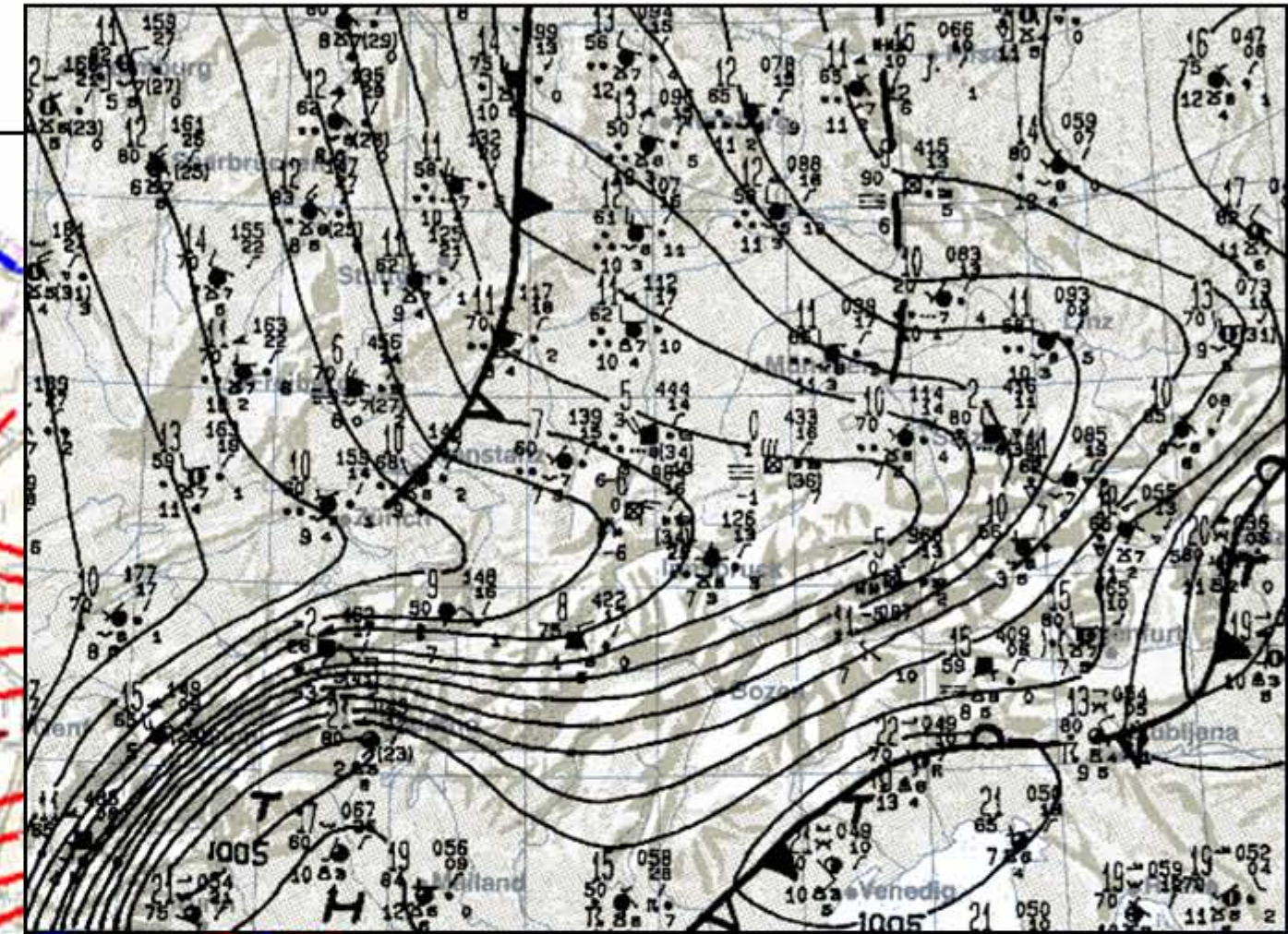
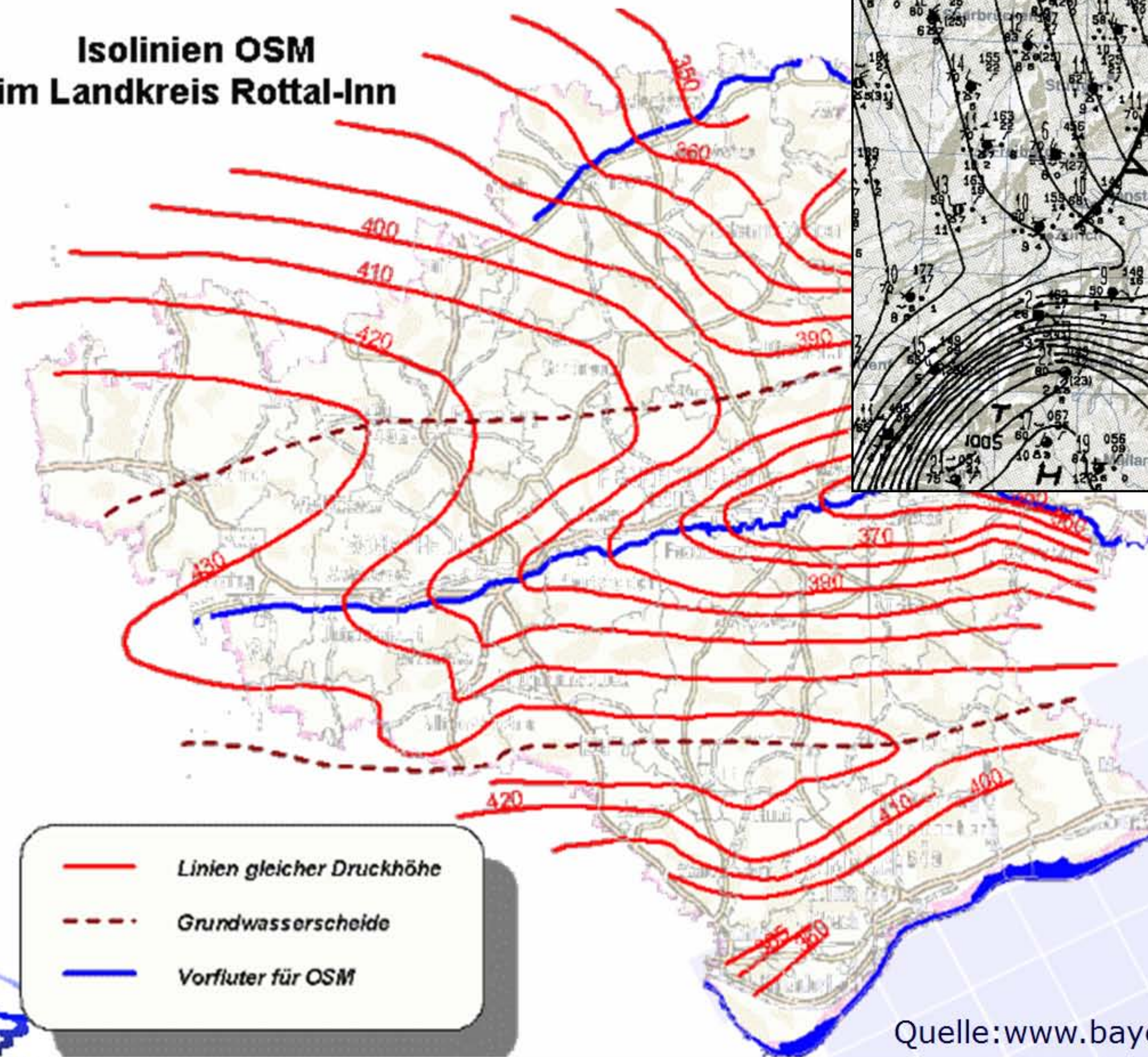
smooth shading
Gouraud-Shading



combination with
wireframe

2D Scalar-Fields

Isolinien OSM
im Landkreis Rottal-Inn



Quelle: www.bayern.de

Definition

- Given a scalar field $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ and a scalar value $c \in \mathbb{R}$ an iso-line is implicitly defined by $\{(x, y) \mid f(x, y) = c\}$
- If f is differentiable and $\text{grad}(f) \neq 0$, than iso-lines are curves.
- It $\text{grad}(f) = 0$, than iso-lines can degenerate to points or regions.

Iso-lines on Triangular Meshes

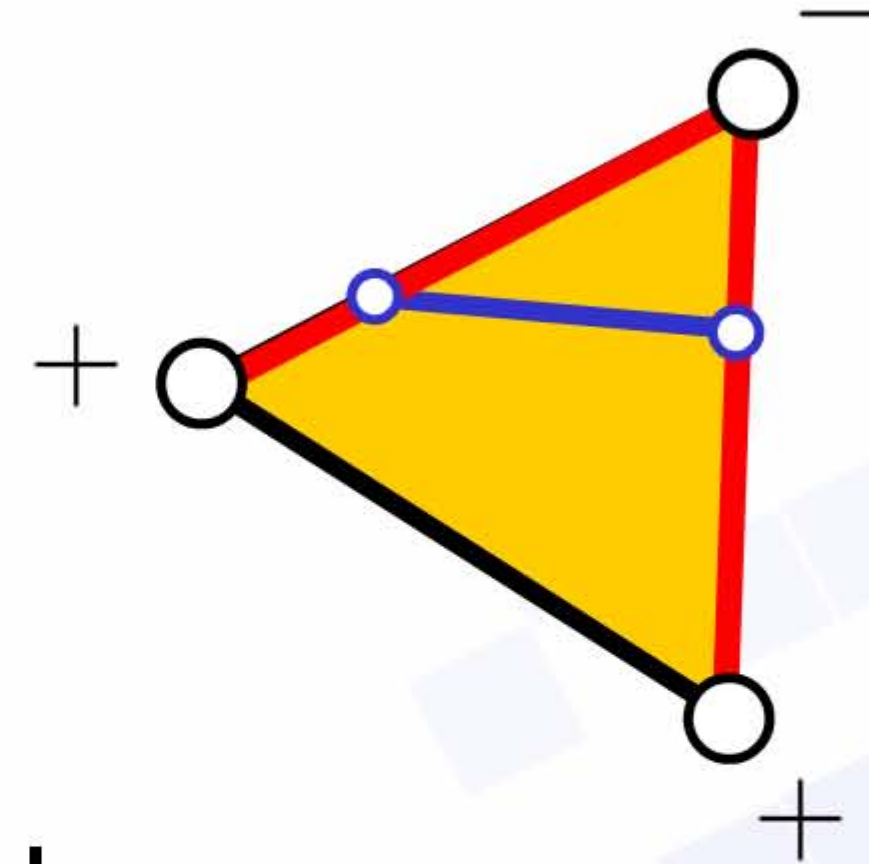
- Cell-order approach:

- Handle each cell separately

- Mark all vertices with

- $+$ wenn $f_i > c$

- $-$ wenn $f_i \leq c$



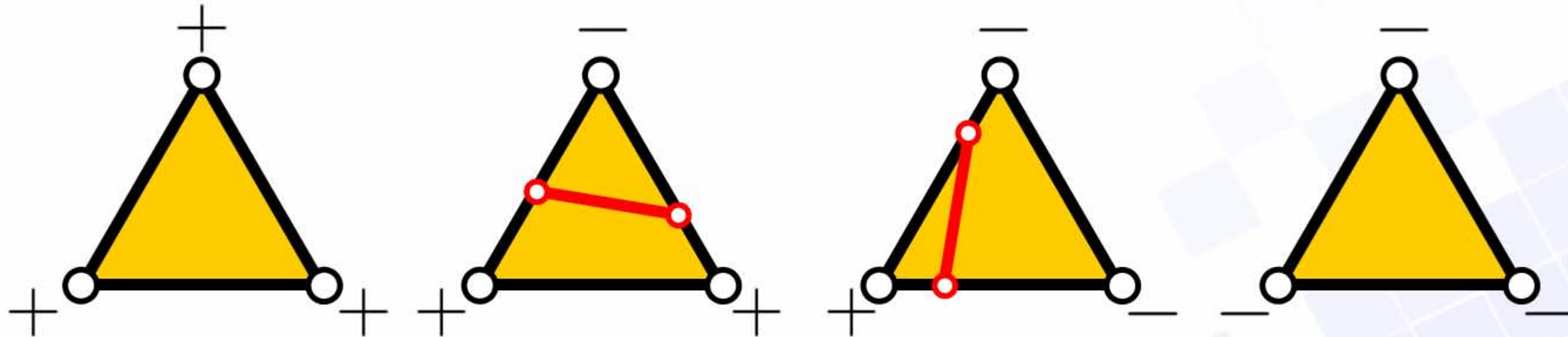
- Check each edge for sign change

- If sign change: find point of intersection by interpolation along edge

- Connect points of intersection using straight lines

Iso-lines on Triangular Meshes

- Either we have none or two edges with sign change, i.e. none or two intersection points



No point of
intersection

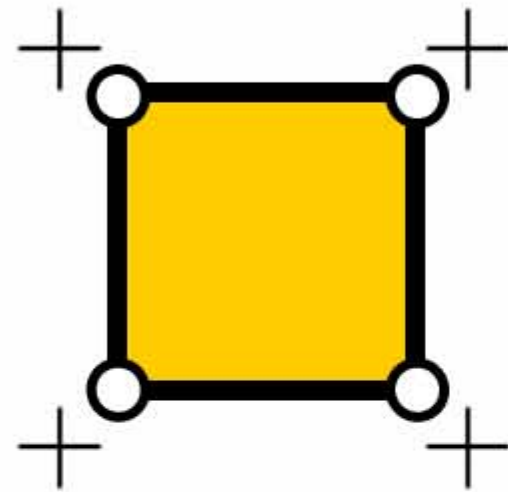
2 intersections
1 line segment

No point of
intersection

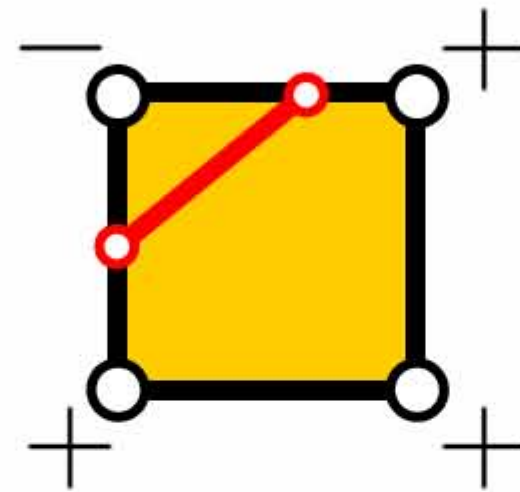
(symmetric cases have been omitted)

Iso-lines on Quadilateral Meshes

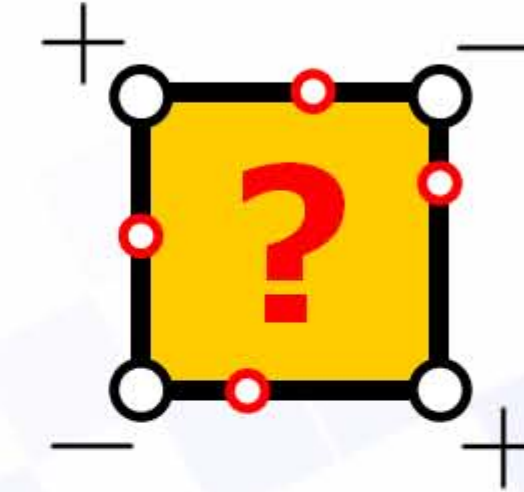
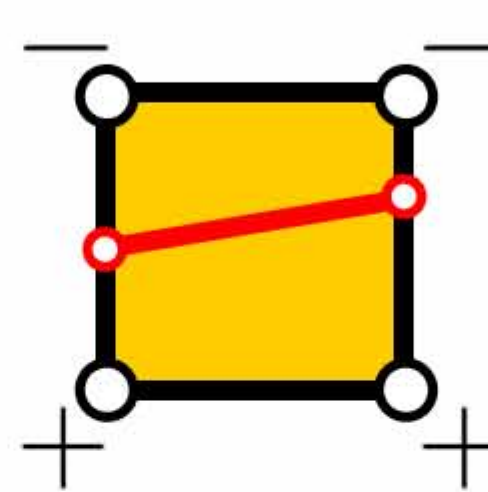
- We have none, two or four edges with sign changes



No point
of intersection



2 intersections
1 line-segment



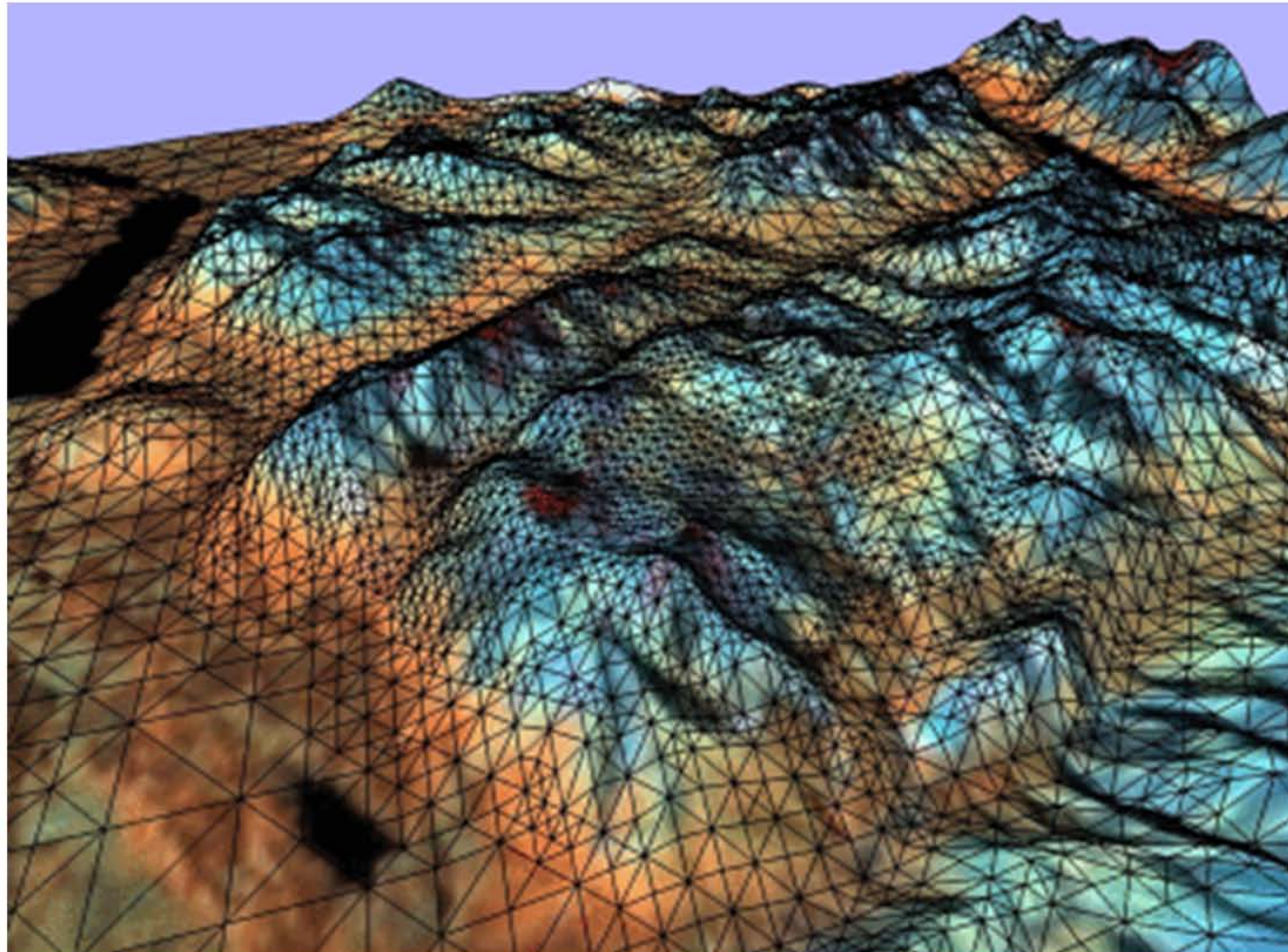
4 intersection
2 line-segment
ambiguous

(symmetric cases have been omitted)

- Care has to be taking to make the right decision in case of four intersection points

Combined Scalar-Field Visualization

- Color-Codierung + Surface Plot



2D Vector-Fields

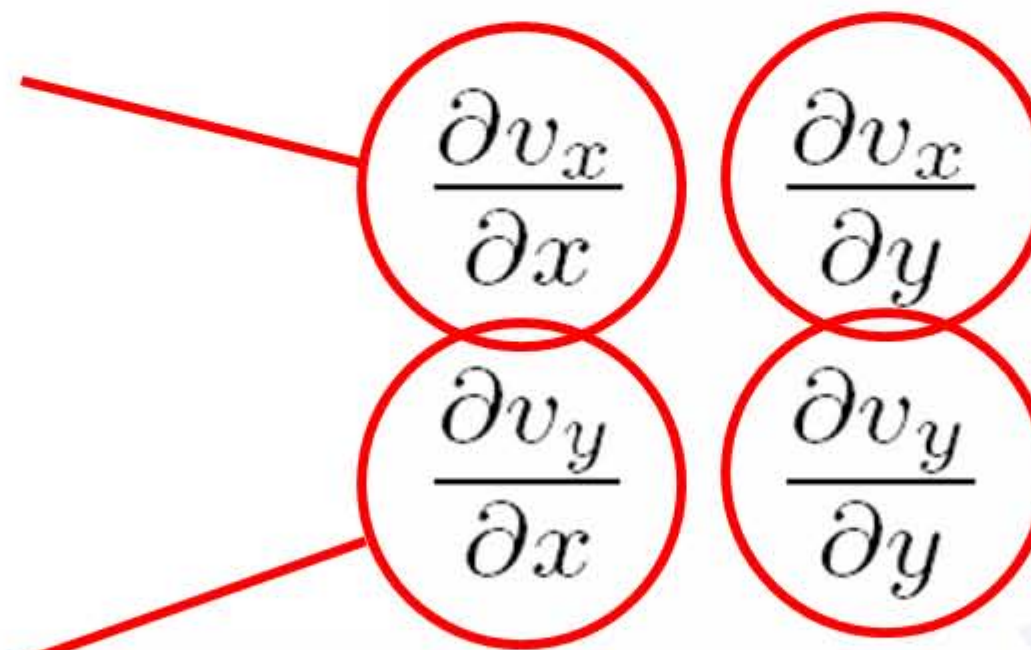
- Given a 2D vector field

$$\vec{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} v_x(x, y) \\ v_y(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

Compute partial derivatives of the Vector field

Change of v_x
in x-direction

Change of v_y
in x-direction



Change of v_x
in y-direction

Change of v_y
in y-direction

2D Vector-Fields

- Given a 2D vector field

$$\vec{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} v_x(x, y) \\ v_y(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

- The total differential is given by

$$J_{\vec{v}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

The ***Jacobian (fundamental matrix)***

describes the local change of the vector field



Local Characteristics

Divergence is the sum of the Jacobians diagonal values

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y}$$

- Divergence describes the convergence (**sink**) and the divergence (**source**) of the flow

Source at $\vec{x}_0$

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) > 0$$

Sink at $\vec{x}_0$

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) < 0$$

Neither sink nor source if

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) = 0$$

Local Characteristics

Rotation/curl is computed as the difference of the off-diagonal elements of the Jacobian

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{rot } \vec{v}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y}$$

- Rotation tells us something about the *local rotation*, e.g. the **vorticity** of the flow

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{No rotation at } \vec{x}_0 \\ \text{rot } \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) = 0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Local rotation at } \vec{x}_0 \\ \text{rot } \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) \neq 0 \end{array}$$

Local Characteristics

- **Critical Points:**

Points with no flow, i.e.

$$\vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) = \vec{0}$$

- Taylor expansion yields

$$\vec{v}(\vec{x}_0 + \vec{h}) \approx \vec{v}(\vec{x}_0) + J_{\vec{v}}(\vec{x}_0) \vec{h}$$

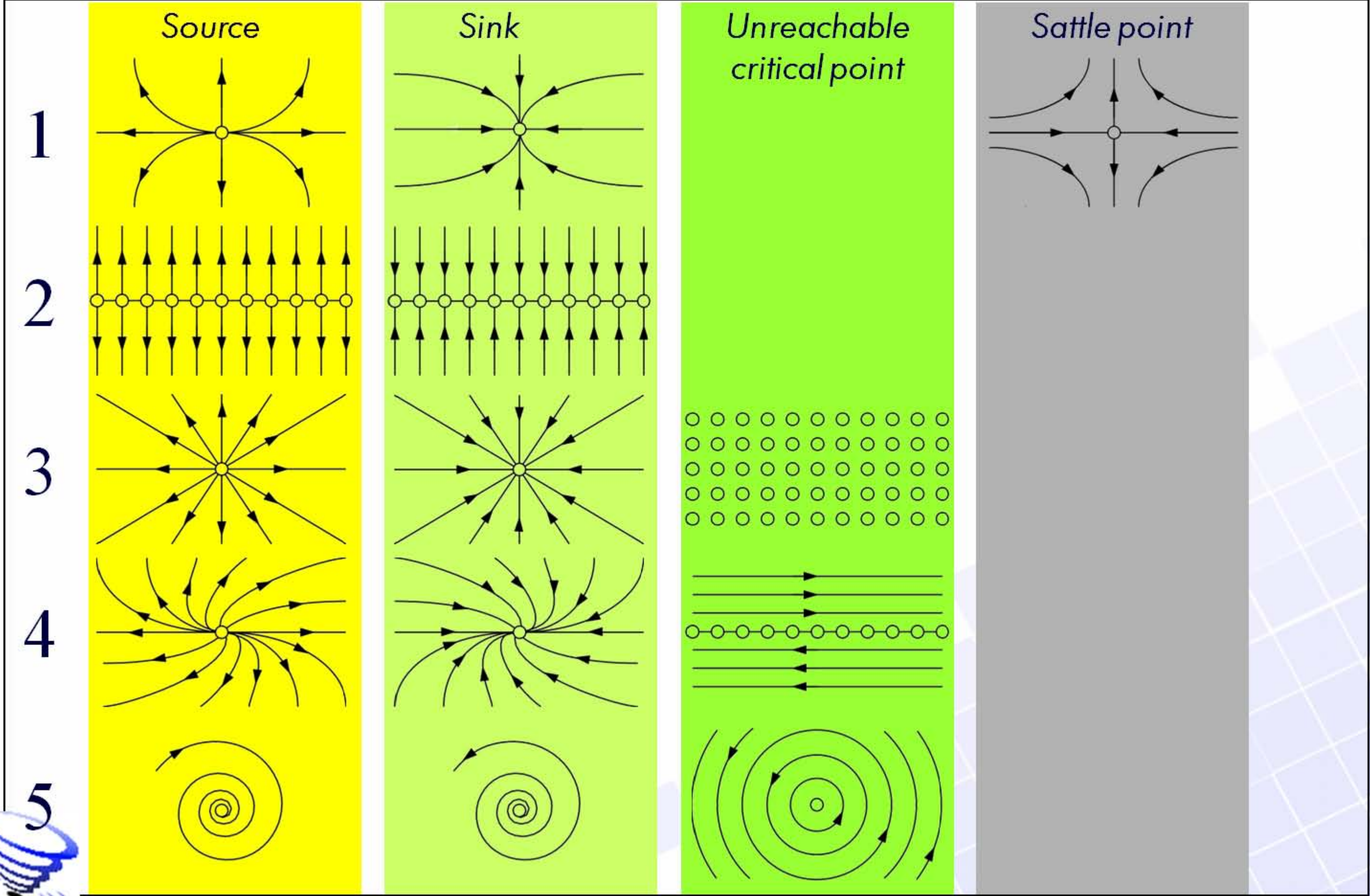
and thus we have

$$\vec{v}(\vec{x}_0 + \vec{h}) \approx J_{\vec{v}}(\vec{x}_0) \vec{h}$$

→ The local behavior of the flow around a critical point is characterized by the Jacobian $J_{\vec{v}}(\vec{x}_0)$

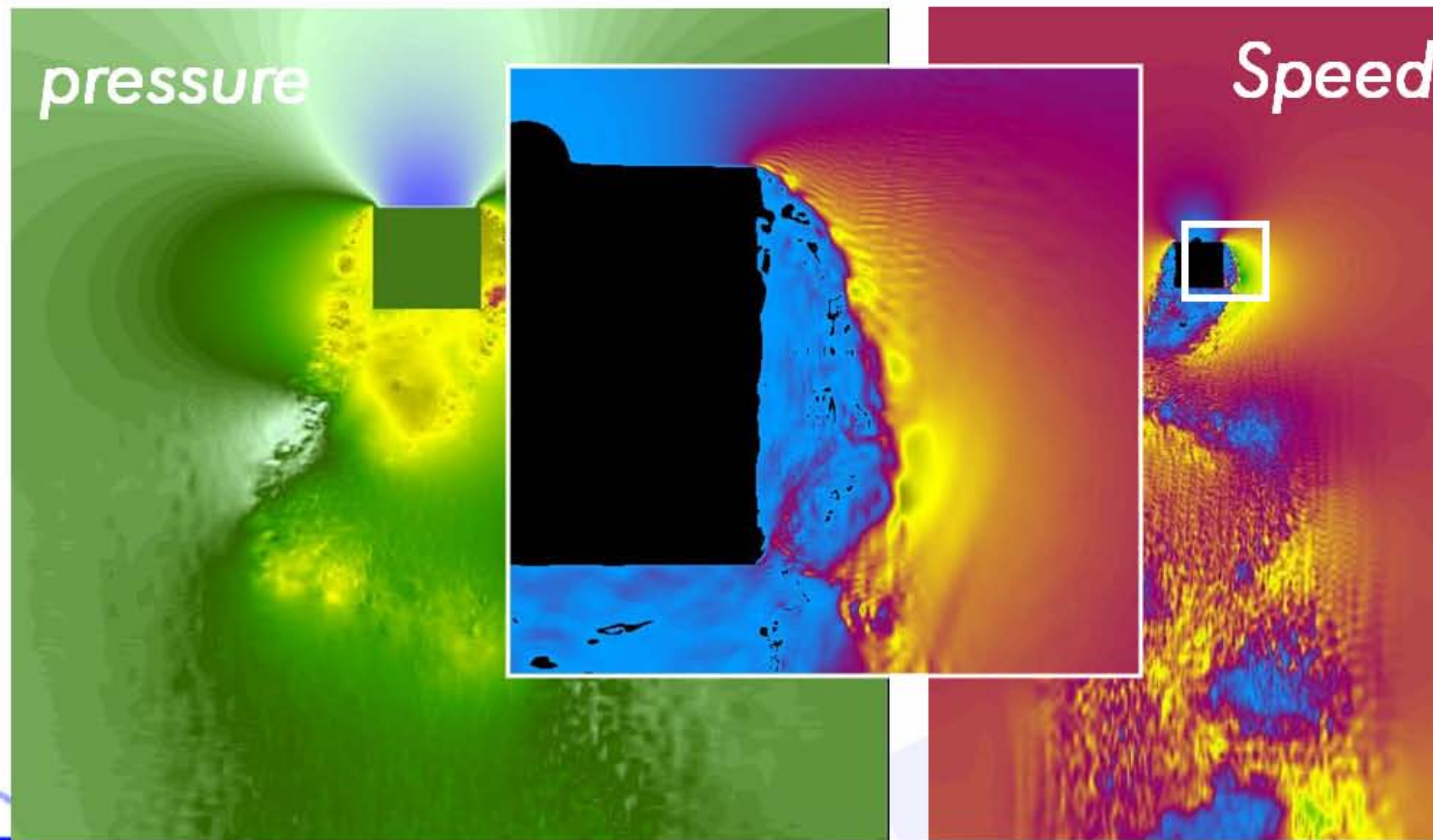
- The complete characterization of critical points can be determined using the Eigen-vectors and –values of the Jacobian

2D Vector-Field Topologies



Visualization of 2D Flows

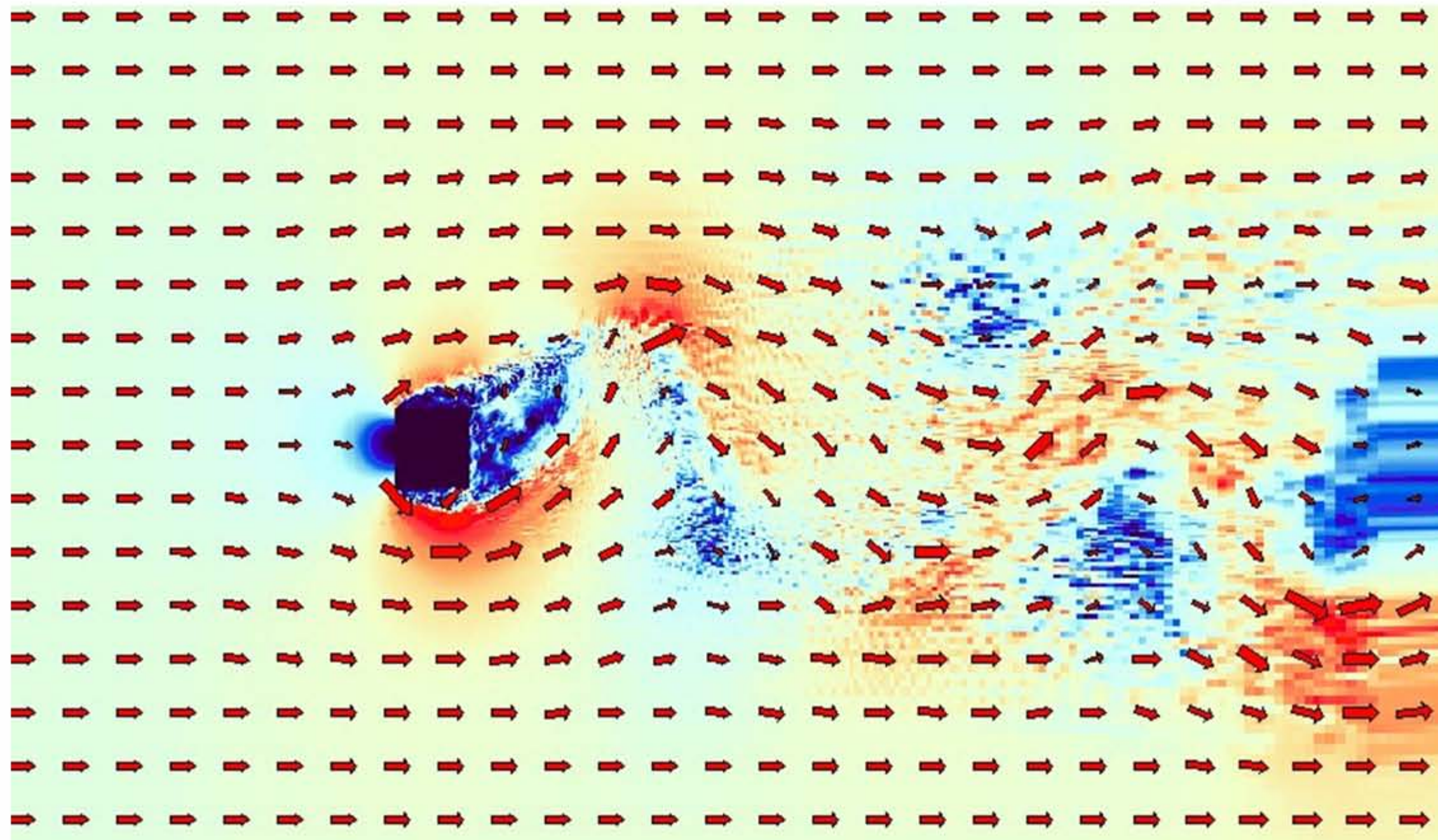
- Color coding:
 - select a „relevant“ scalar parameter (vorticity, speed, pressure, etc.)
 - Apply 2D scalar visualization



Visualization of 2D Flows

- Arrows:

- Placement of vector arrows on regular grid
- Direction and length from flow field



Visualization of 2D Flows

- Line-based techniques using particles
 - Excite particles at starting points
 - Trace/integrate particle paths through flow

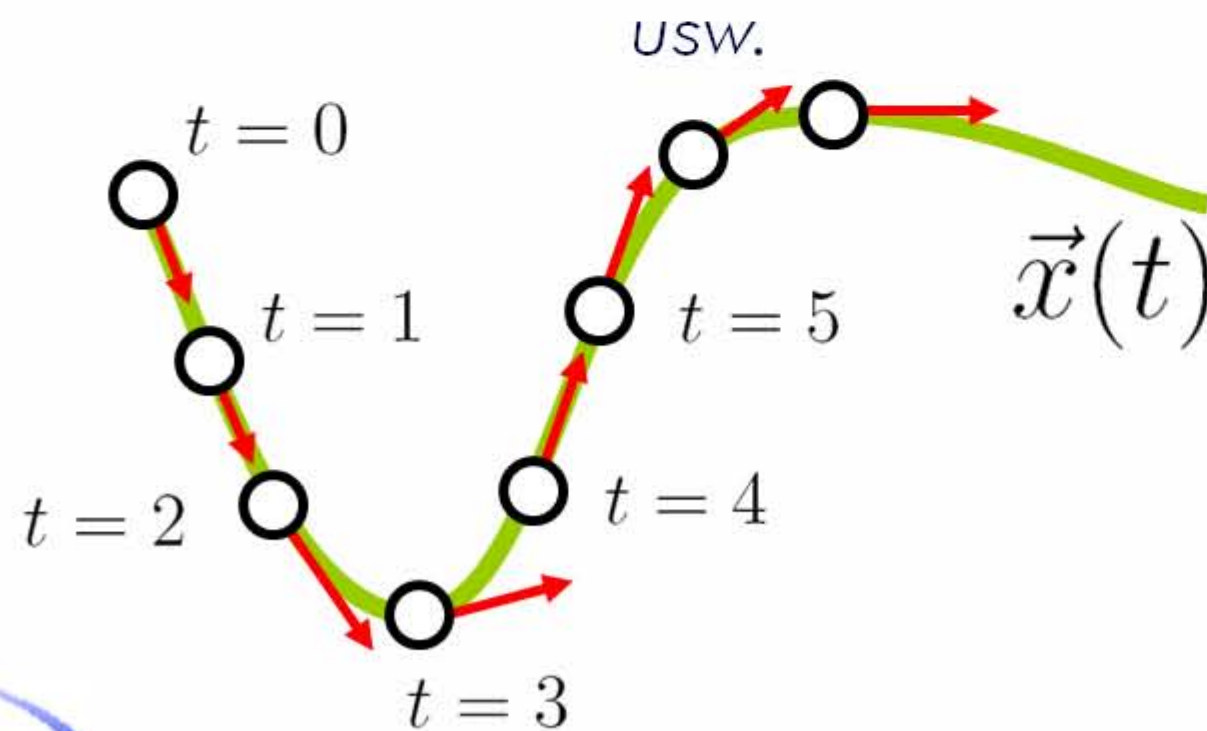


Streamlines

- Given a static vector field
- We search for the trace of a *particle*, i.e. it's motion through the field

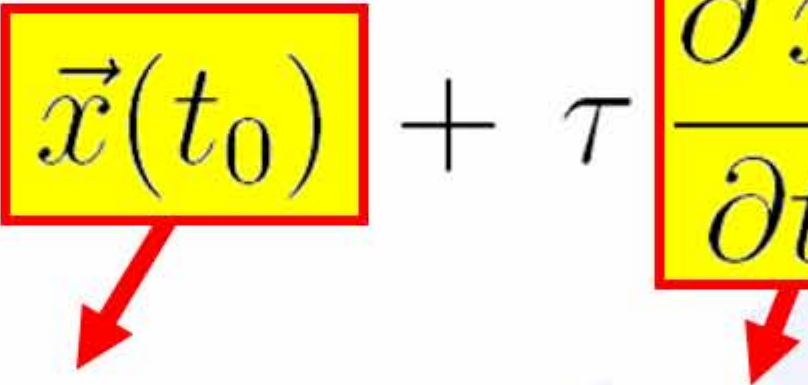
$$\vec{x}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

- The lines follows the flow field, i.e. it is always tangential to it



Euler Integration

- Given a static vector field $\vec{v}(\vec{x})$ and a starting position $\vec{x}_0 = \vec{x}(t_0)$
- Goal: a streamline $\vec{x}(t)$
- *Taylor expansion:*

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{x}(t_0 + \tau) &= \boxed{\vec{x}(t_0)} + \tau \boxed{\frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t}(t_0)} + \dots \\ \vec{x}(t_0 + \tau) &= \vec{x}_0 + \tau \vec{v}(x_0) + \dots\end{aligned}$$


Euler Integration

- Given a static vector field $\vec{v}(\vec{x})$ and a starting position $\vec{x}_0 = \vec{x}(t_0)$
- Goal: a streamline $\vec{x}(t)$
- *Taylor expansion:*

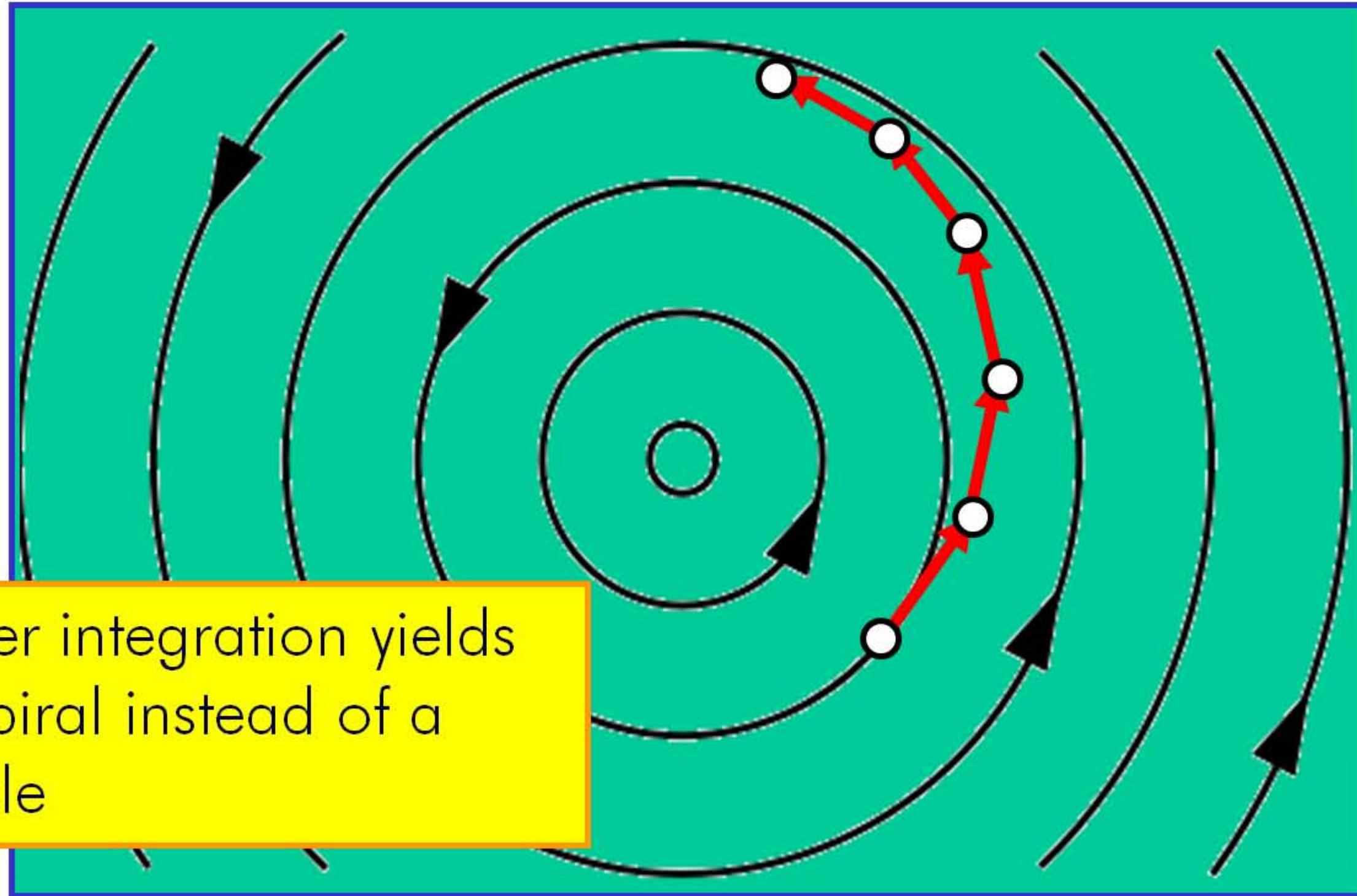
$$\vec{x}(t_0 + \tau) = \vec{x}(t_0) + \tau \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t}(t_0) + \dots$$

$$\vec{x}(t_0 + \tau) = \vec{x}_0 + \tau \vec{v}(x_0) + \dots$$

$$\vec{x}_{i+1} \approx \vec{x}_i + \tau \vec{v}(x_i)$$

Example Euler Integration

Circular vector field $\vec{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ x \end{pmatrix}$



Euler integration yields a spiral instead of a circle

Euler Integration

- The error can be controlled by the step-size
 - Small step-size yields less error
 - But: requires more computational effort
- Alternatives are higher order integration schemes required, e.g.
 - Heun
 - Kunge-Kutta 2nd or 4th order

Time-variant Data

- **Until now:** Particle tracing in static (time is not varying) vector field:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}(t)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t))$$

- **Now:** Particle tracing dynamic (time is varying) vector field:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}(t)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t), t)$$

What are the consequences?

Time needs to be taken into account as additional

Parameter, e.g. Euler step $t_{i+1} = t_i + \tau$

$$\vec{x}(t_{i+1}) = \vec{x}(t_i) + \tau \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t_i), t_i + \tau)$$

Particle Tracing for Time-Variant Data

- **Pathlines:** Particle follows the time-varying flow field

$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}(t)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t), t) \quad \vec{x}_0 = \vec{x}(t_0)$$

Associated experiment: „Inject at time t_0 a single drop of dye into the flow and make a photo with extremely long exposure time“

- **Streamlines:** Compute particle trace for a fixed point in time (results in a static flow field)

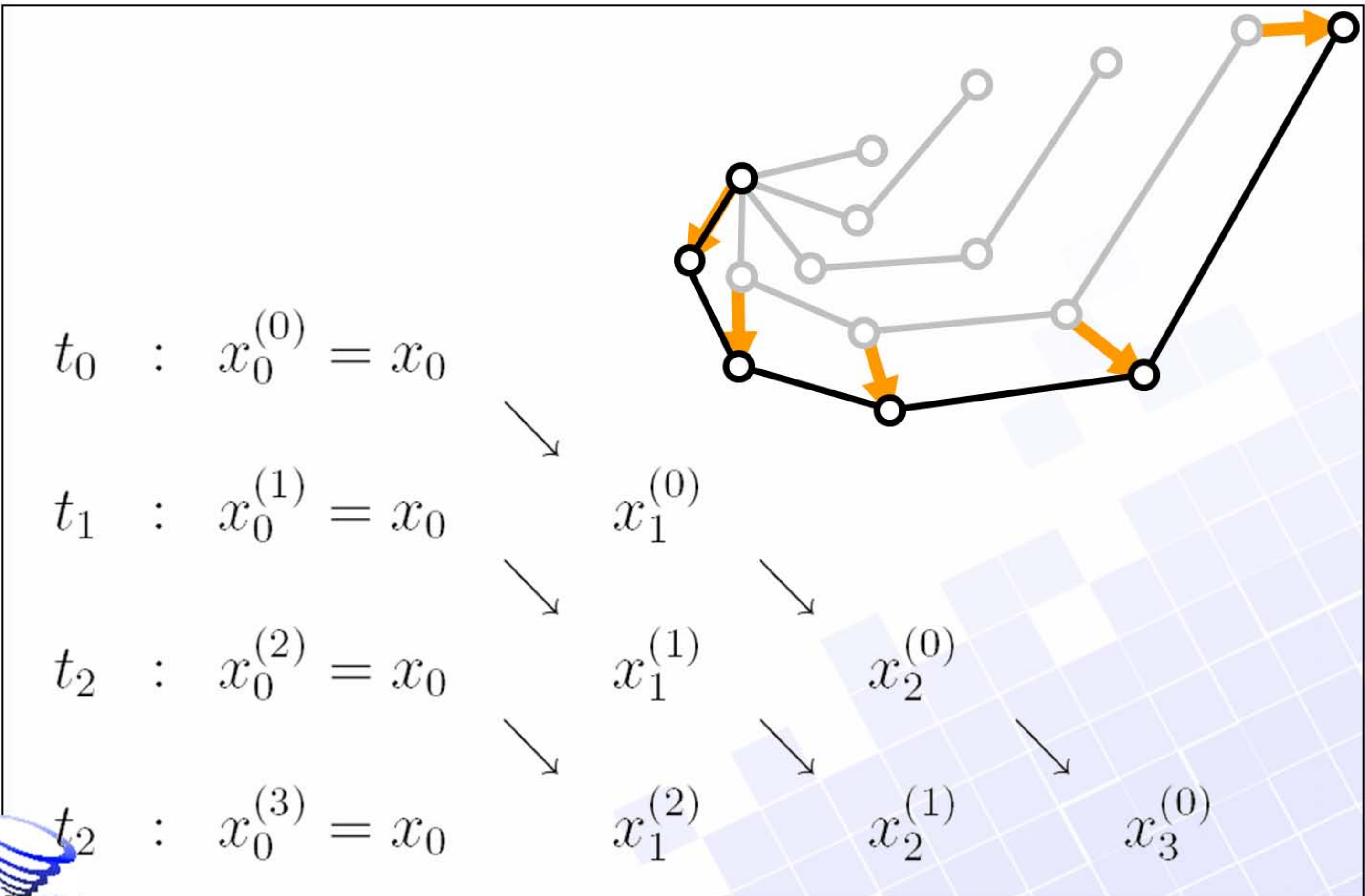
$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}(t)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t), T) \quad T = \text{const.}$$

- **Streakline:** Trace several particles, that have been started at different points in time

$$\frac{\partial \vec{x}(t)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(\vec{x}(t), t) \quad \vec{x}_0 \text{ constant, } t_0 \text{ variabel}$$

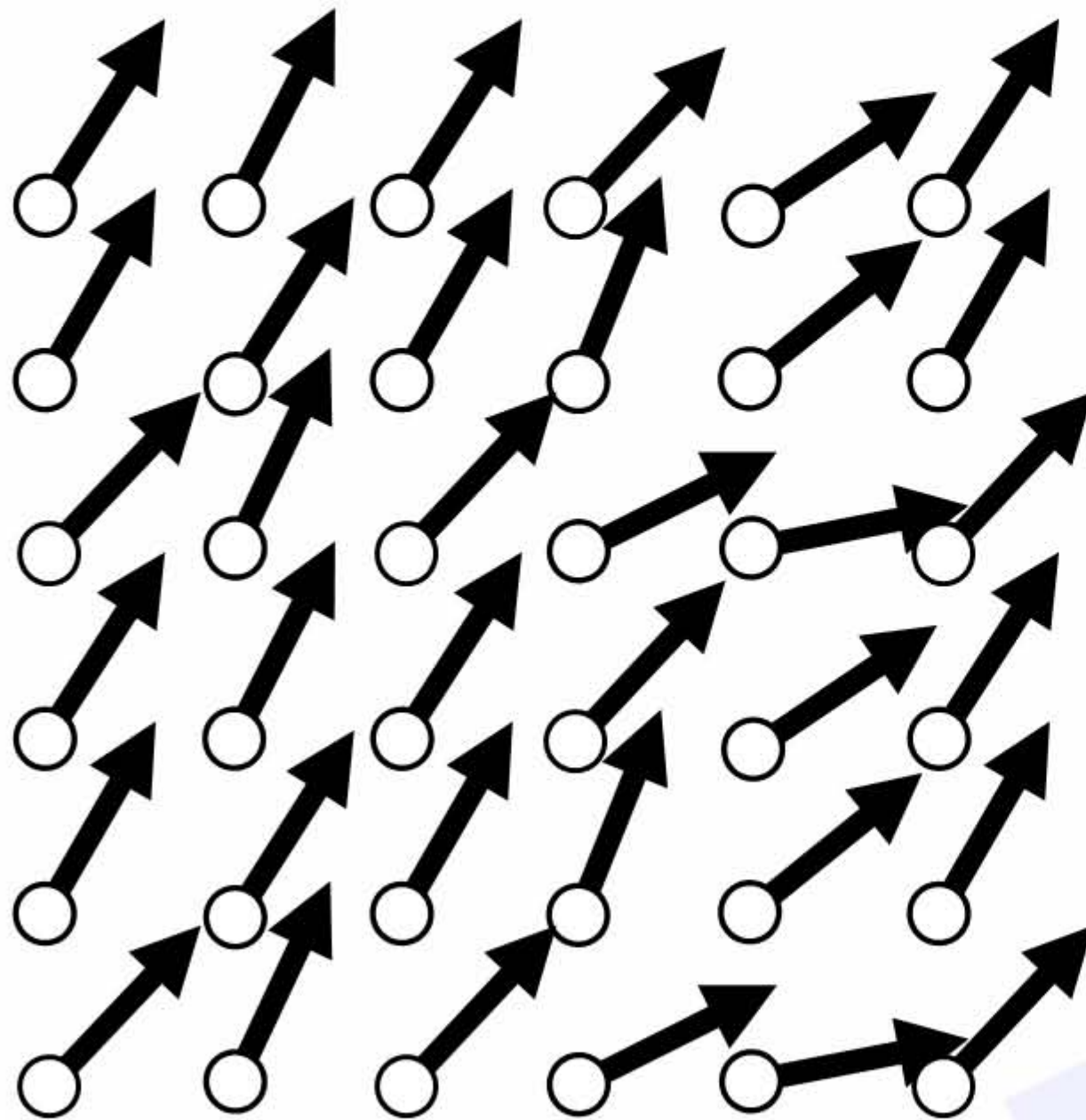
Associated experiment: „Continuously inject drops of dye at starting position into the flow“

Streaklines



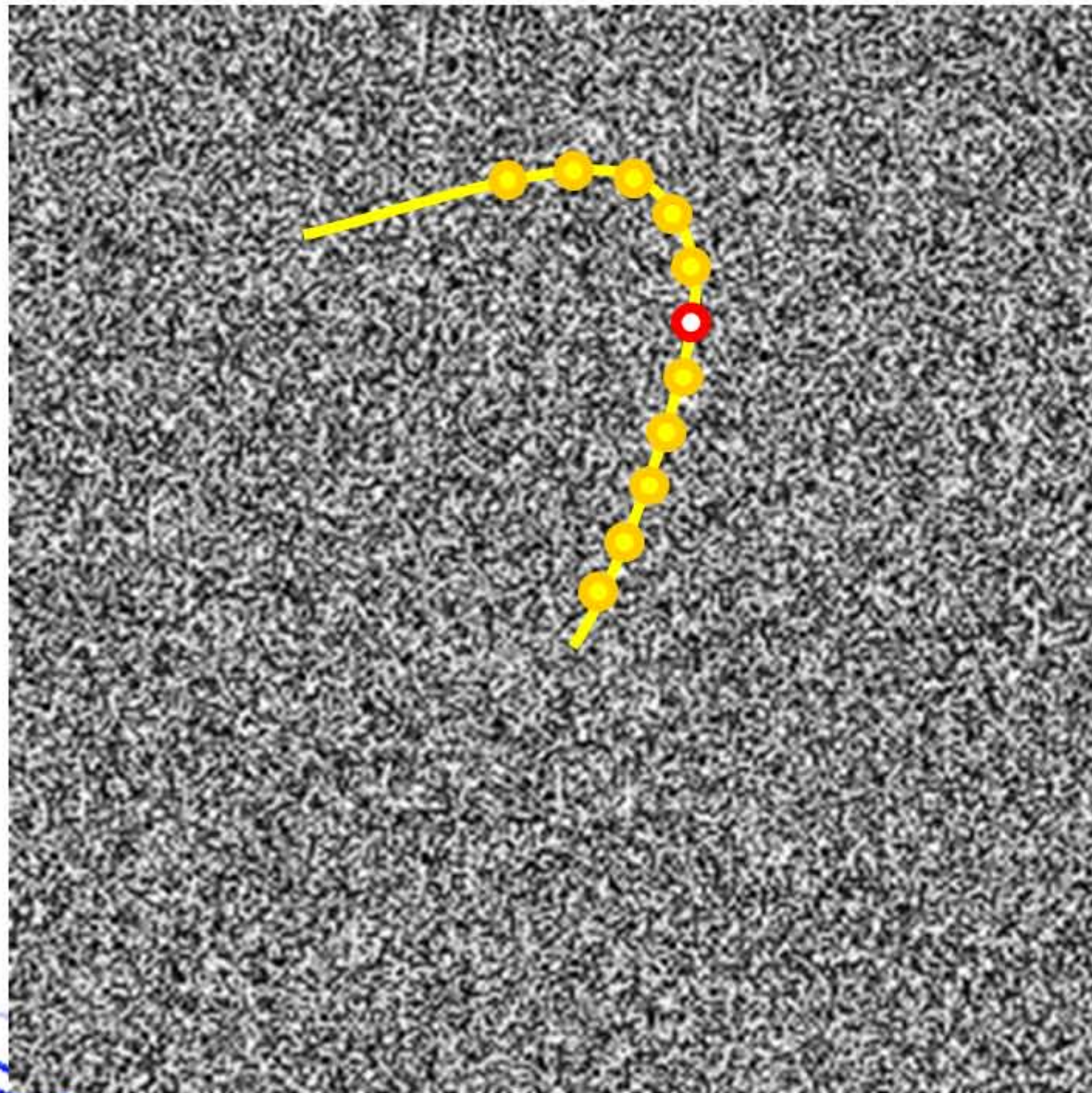
Line Integral Convolution (LIC)

- Goal: Visualize flow globally, i.e. show flow at all points in the plane at the same time



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- Goal: Visualize flow globally, i.e. show flow at all points in the plane at the same time

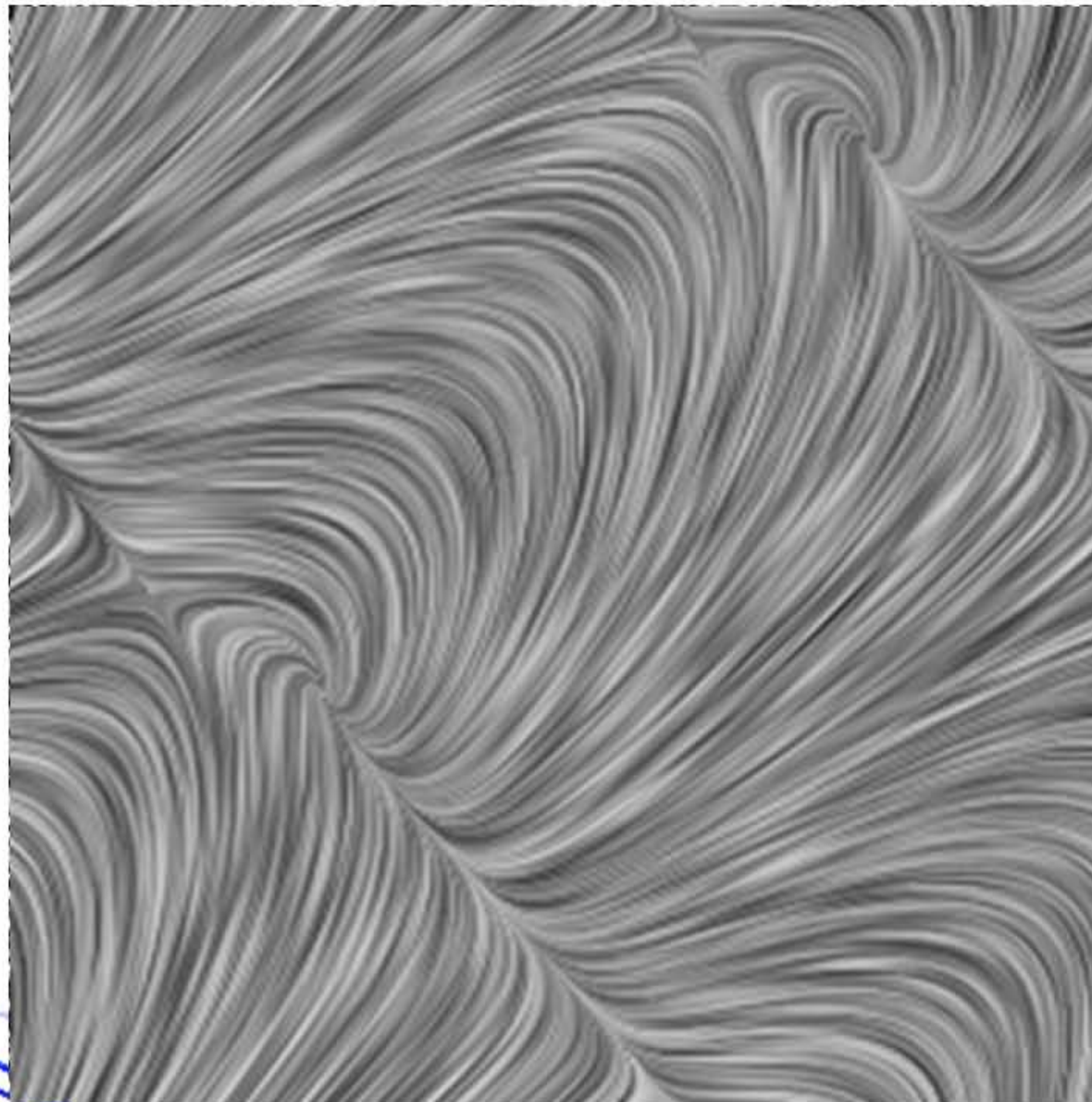


- Foreach pixel: Compute a (short) streamline (back- and forward)
- Compute the weighted sum of the noise intensities along line (filtering, convolution)

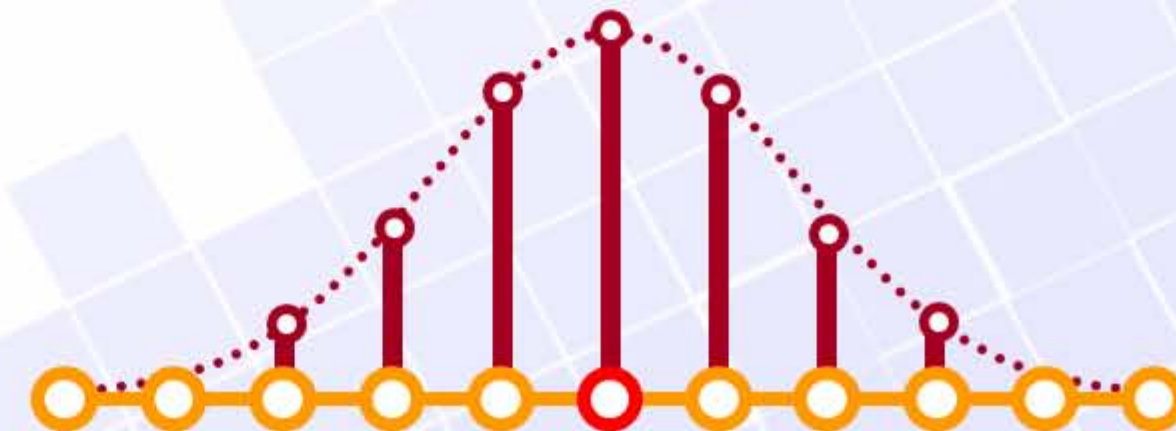


Line Integral Convolution (LIC)

- Goal: Visualize flow globally, i.e. show flow at all points in the plane at the same time



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Visualization of 3D Data

- General considerations
 - Significantly more data to be handled, still we want to have realtime applications
 - Almost all 2D approaches can be applied to 3D, beside
 - Scalar data: Surface plots (color plots require specific handling → volume visualization)
 - Vector fields: space-filling line integral convolution makes little sense
- Challenges:
 - More difficult user orientation in 3D
 - Hidden objects (= hidden information!)
→ proper selection of relevant information

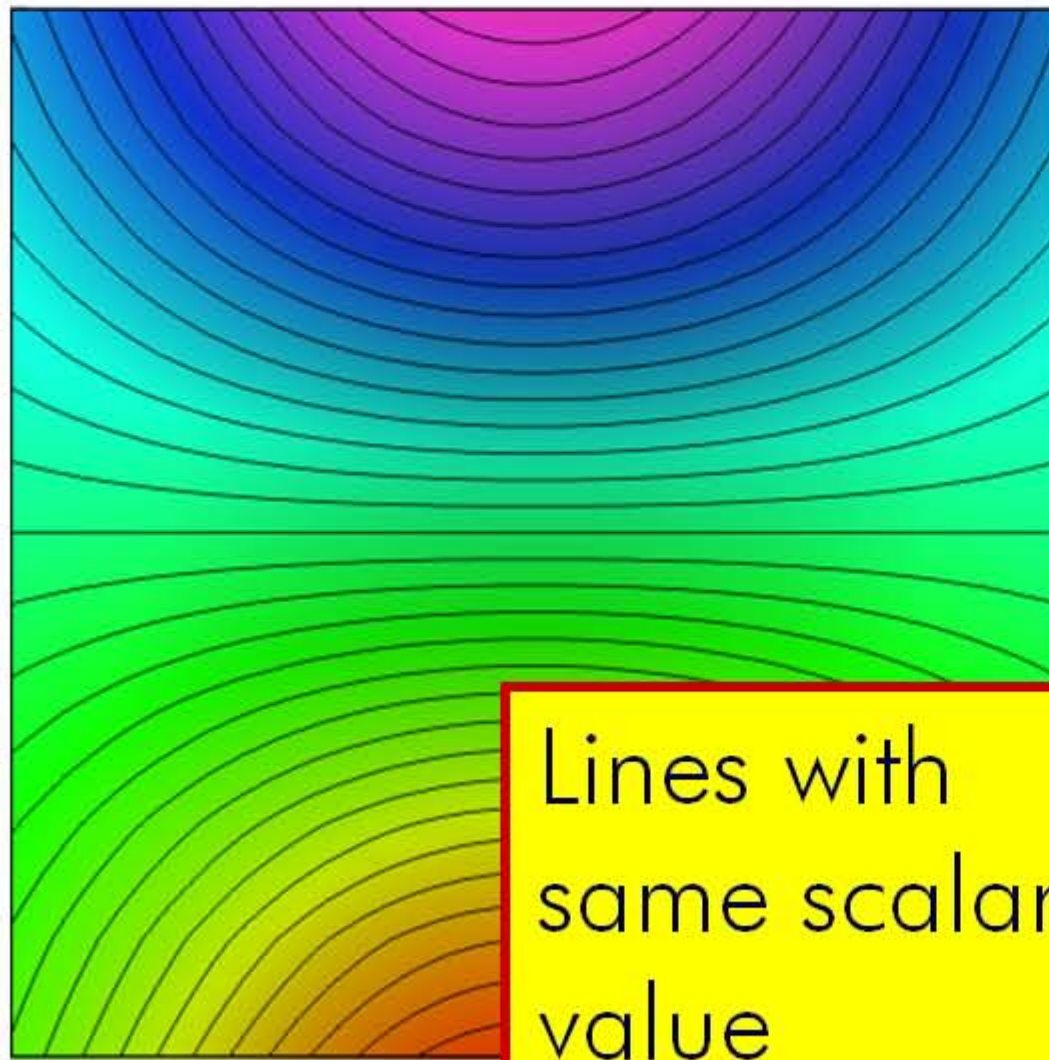
3D Scalar Data: Volume Visualization

- Volume data = 3D scalar data
- Origin: Mainly imaging technology like
 - X-Ray
 - Computer tomography (CT)
 - Magnet resonance tomography (MR)
- Main approaches
 - **Indirect techniques:** Compute a “specific” surface from the volume data and visualize it
 - **Direct techniques:** Interpret scalar field as semi-transparent to make hidden regions (partially) visible

Isosurfaces (indirect technique)

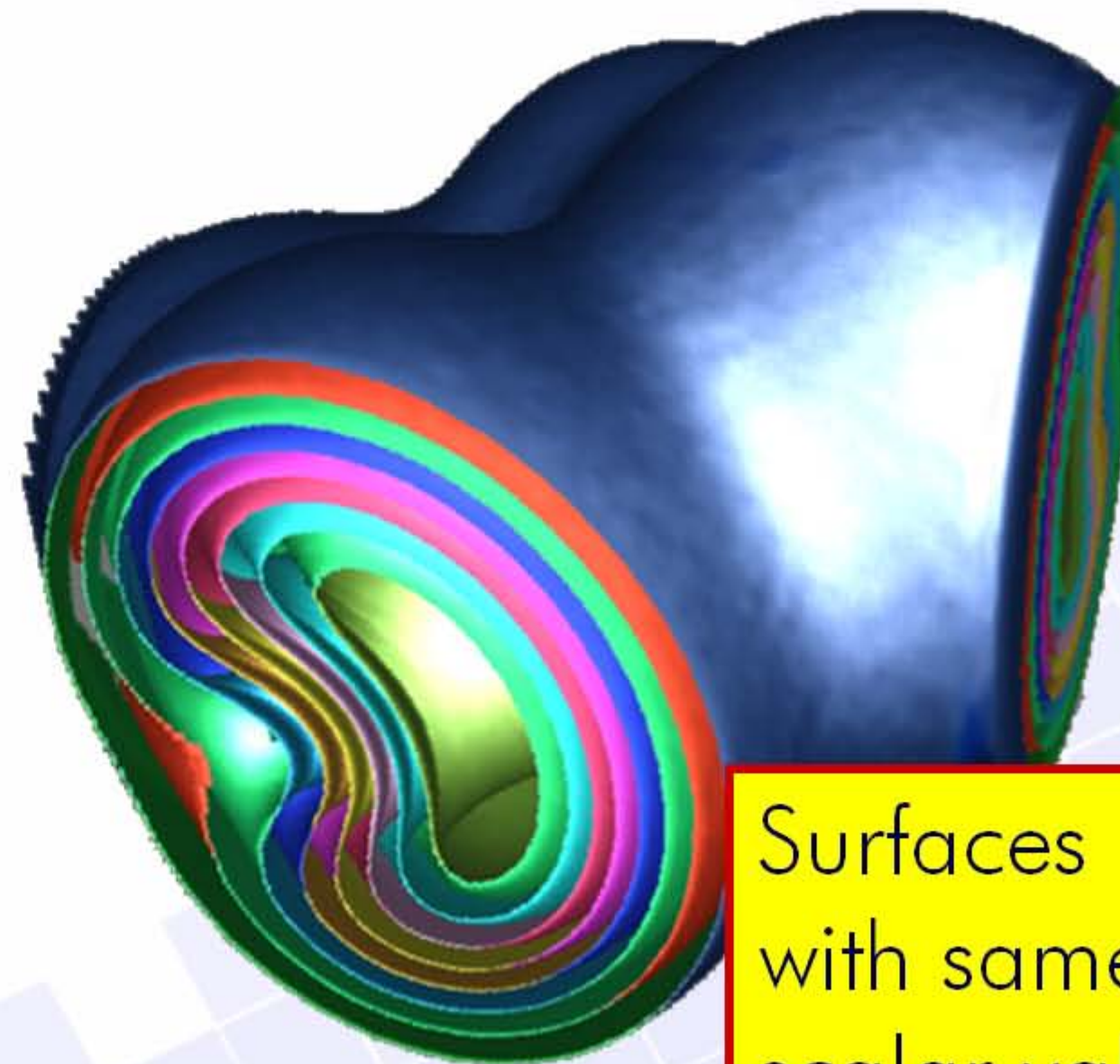
- Analogous to iso-lines:
select points with the same iso value

2D: Iso-line



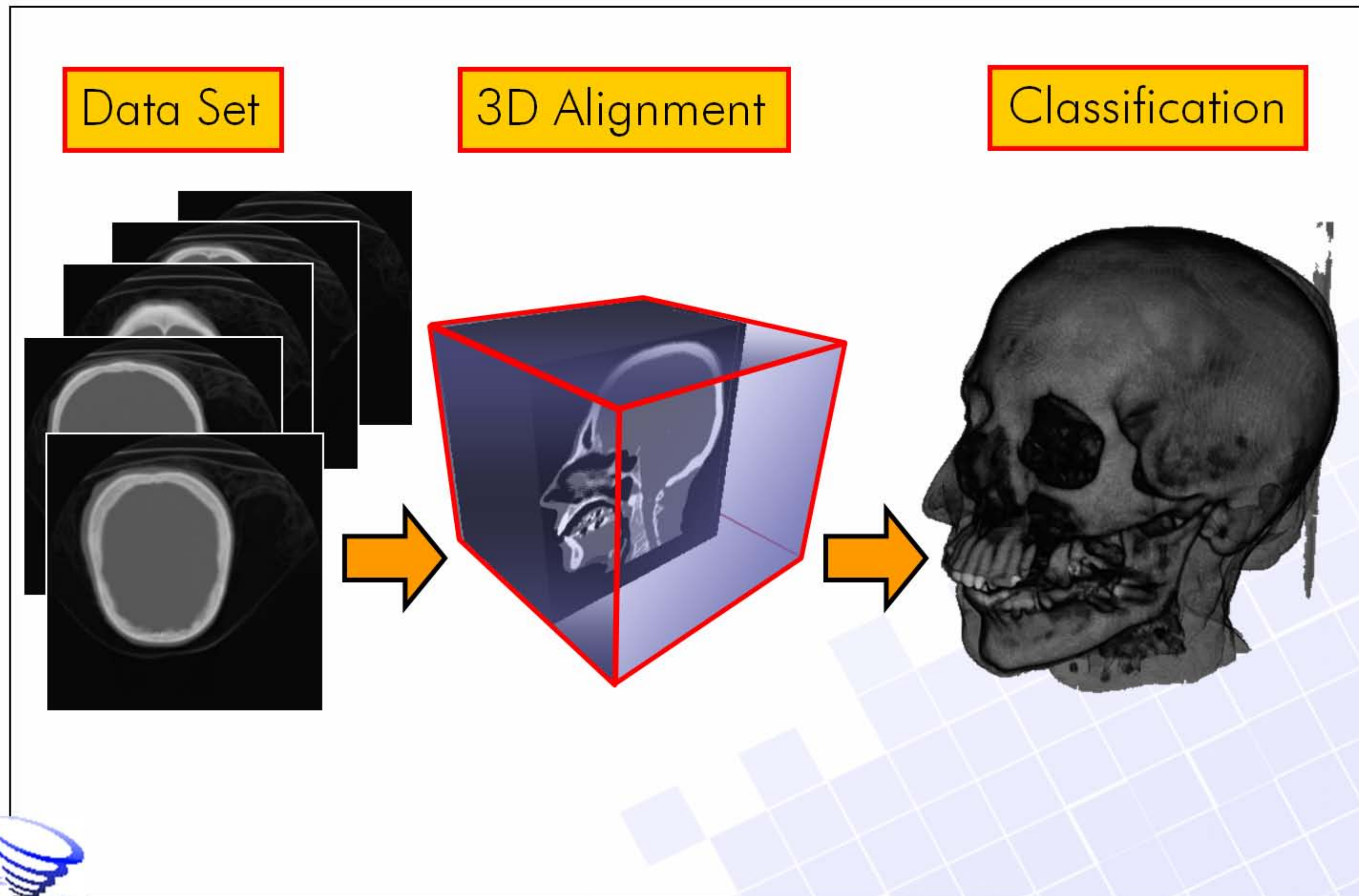
Lines with
same scalar
value

3D: Iso-surface

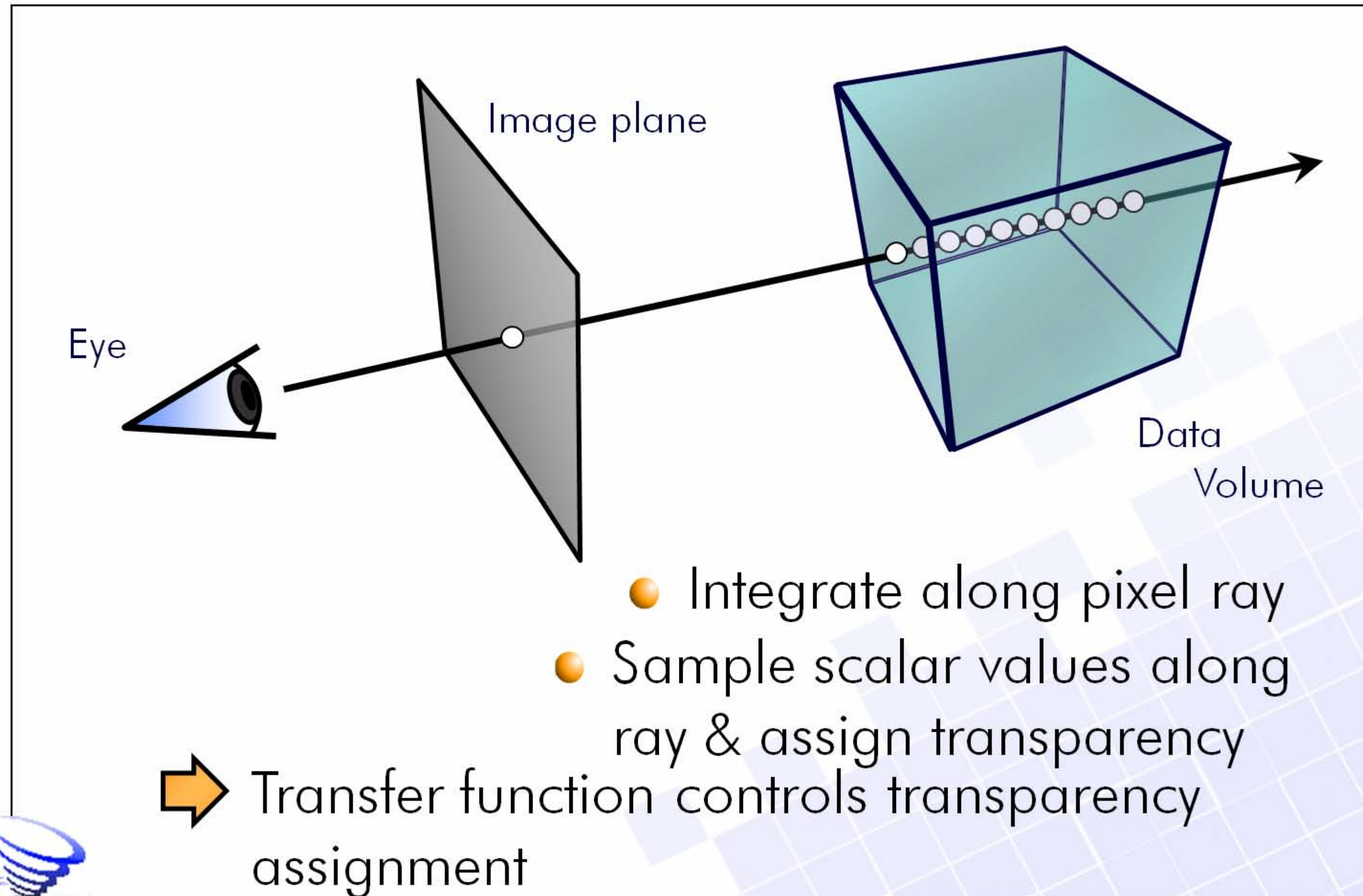


Surfaces
with same
scalar value

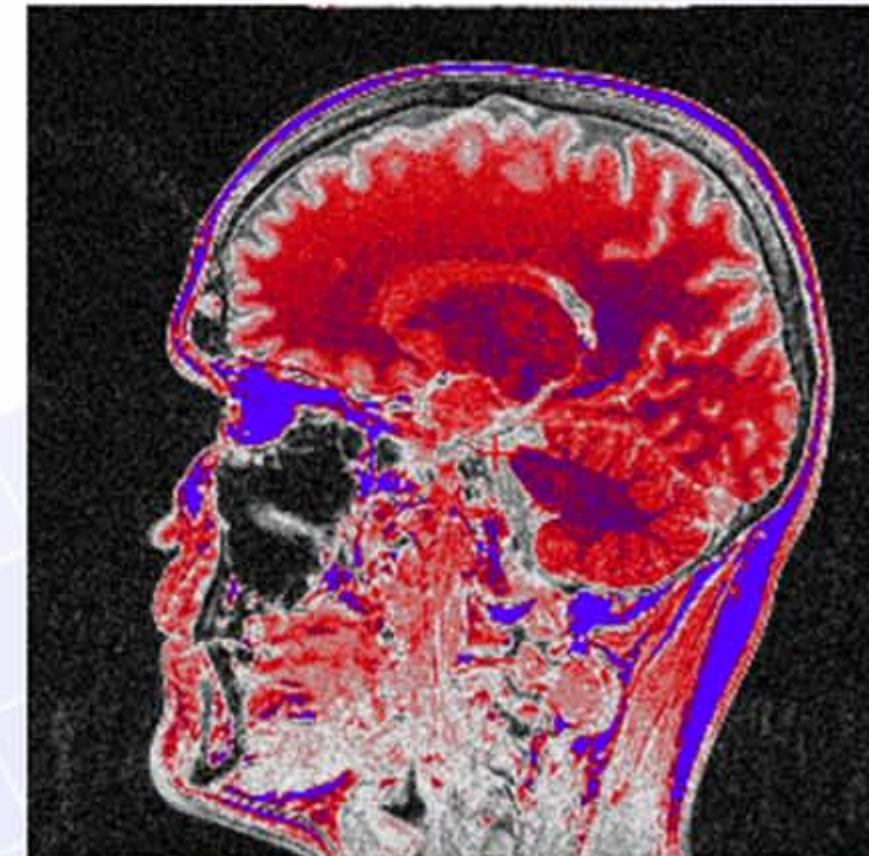
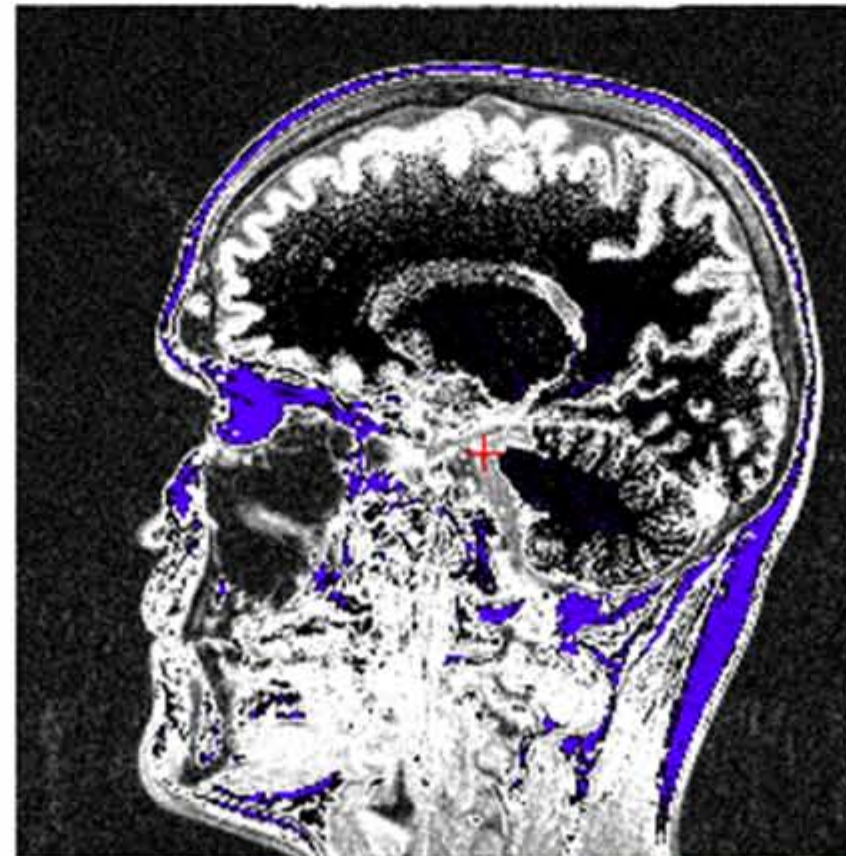
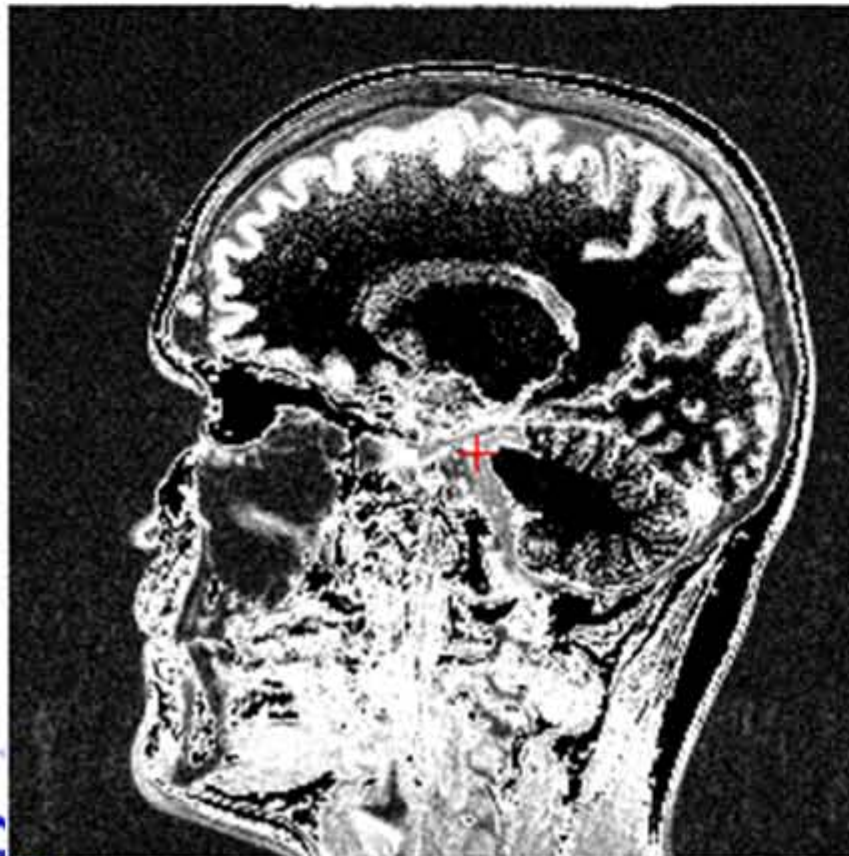
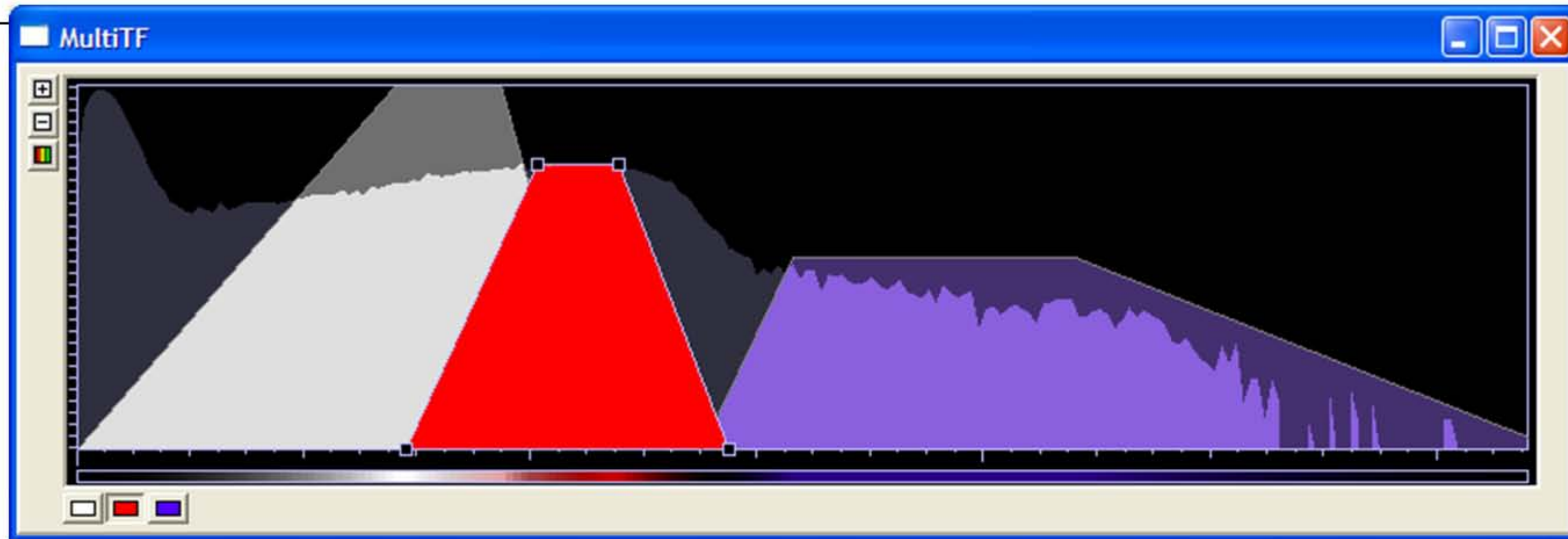
Direct Volume Visualization



Ray Casting (Concept)

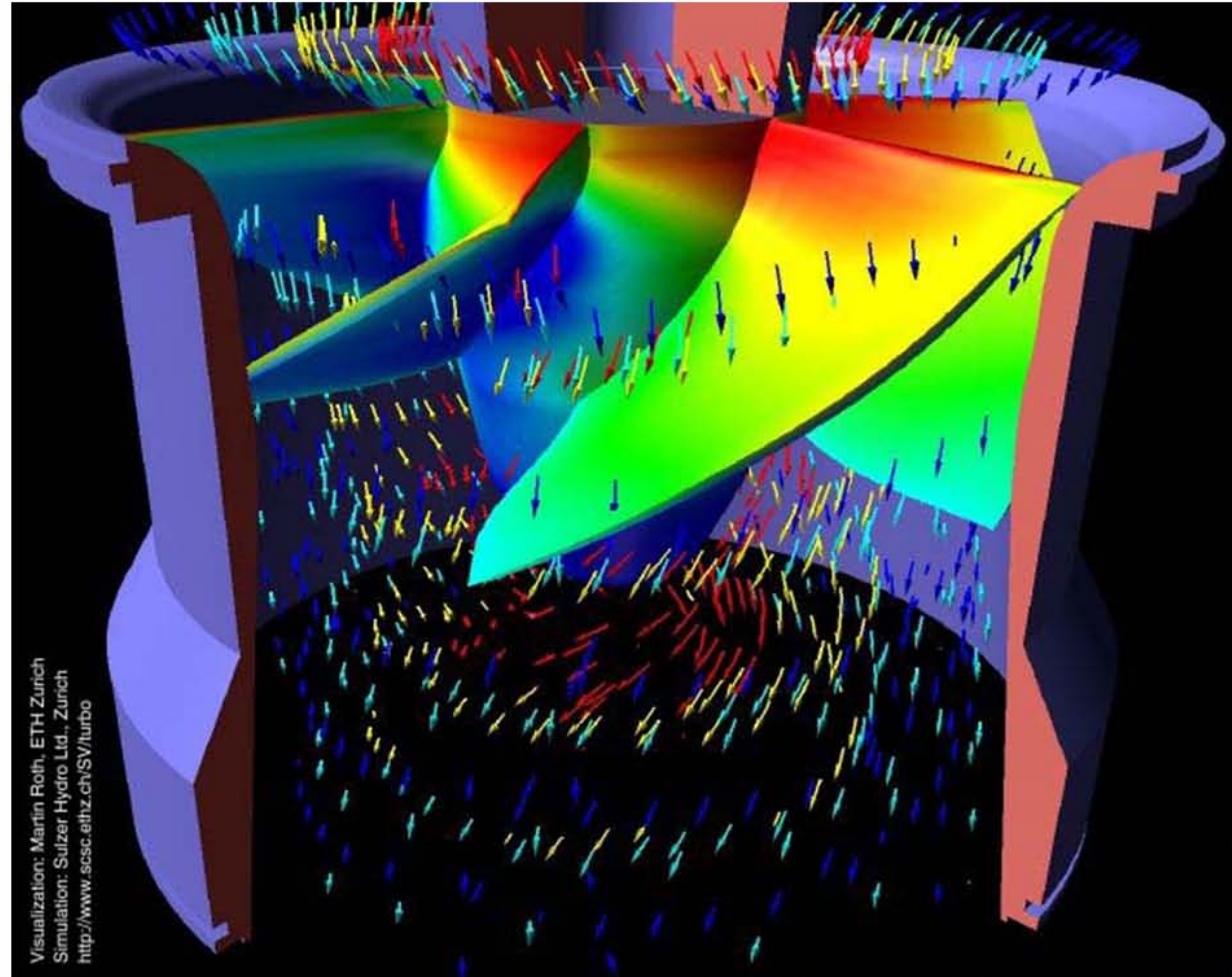


Transfer Functions



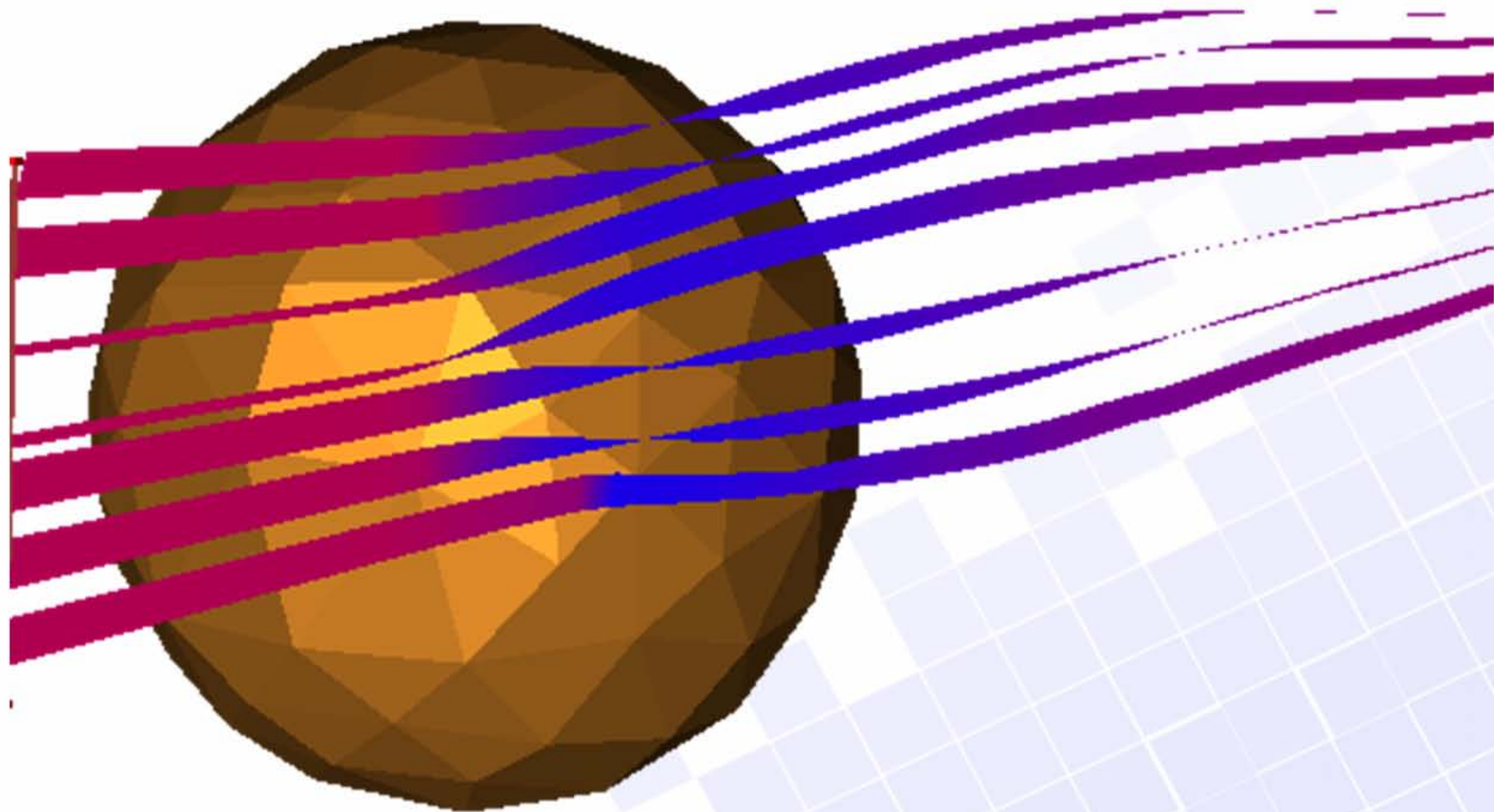
3D Flow Visualization

- 3D critical points: More different cases
- Example:
Arrow plots



3D Flow Visualization

- 2D flow primitives, e.g. stream ribbons
- Visualize rotation along path



Further Issues

- Efficient computation for interactive applications
→ Programmable Graphics Hardware (GPU)
- Adequate user guidance
 - Avoid artifacts; they may lead to misinterpretation of data
 - Allow user control on domain-level, not on the technical scale