Exploring Geovisualization
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Chapter 8

Exploratory Visualization with Multiple Linked Views

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Abstract

Exploratory visualization enables the user to test scenarios and investigate possibilities. Through an exploration, the user may change various parameter values of a visualization system that in turn alters the appearance of the visual result. For example, the changes made may update what information is being displayed, the quantity or resolution of the information, the type of the display (say) from scatter plot to line-graph. Furthermore, the user may generate additional windows that contain the visual result of the new parameters so they can compare different ideas side-by-side (these multiple views may persist such that the user can compare previous incarnations). Commonly these windows are linked together to allow further investigation and discovery, such as selection by brushing or combined navigation. There are many challenges, such as linking multiple views with different data, initializing the different views, indicating to the user how the different views are linked. This chapter provides a review of current multiple linked-view tools, methodologies and models, discusses related challenges and ideas, and provides some rudiments for coordination within a geovisualization context. The types and uses of coordination for exploratory visualization are varied and diverse, these ideas are underused in geovisualization and exploratory visualization in general. Thus, further research needs to occur to develop specific geovisualization reference models and extensible systems that incorporate the rich variety of possible coordination exploration ideas.

8.1 Introduction

This chapter advocates the use of many lightweight views that are linked together. They are lightweight in that they are: (i) easy to generate by the user, where the user does not spend unnecessary time and effort to explicitly link the new view to existing ones; and (ii) do not take many computer resources (e.g., memory, computation). Such multiple linked views (MLVs) enable the user to quickly view a scenario, compare it with previous realizations, examine properties such as dependencies and sizes, put this view to one side and try out another scenario. There are many good principles that can be learned from examining how other systems achieve this MLV exploration. In geovisualization, the explorer often generates many spatial or abstract representations. With such exploratory environments, the user is able (even encouraged) to take a hands-on approach to gain a deeper understanding of the underlying information. They may examine multiple different graphical realizations that reveal different aspects of the data. These principles are applicable to the geovisualization domain (indeed, many MLVs use spatial information databases to demonstrate the techniques). This chapter highlights current trends in MLVs. In order to provide an overview of different multiple-view exploration strategies, we start by placing the MLVs in context, then discuss exploration strategies and expand upon appropriate methods to enable interactive and effective investigation and management techniques that oversee and encourage the user to explore.

8.2 Current Themes in Exploratory (Multiple View) Visualization

When carrying out research, analysts often proceed by using an experimental cycle where the experiment is set up perhaps with some default parameters, the results are noted down, then the parameters are adapted and the results are compared with previous versions. Each new investigation enhances the analyst's knowledge and understanding. When starting the investigative process we may not know anything about the database let alone what questions to ask. DiBiase (1990) focusing on the role of visualization in support of earth science research, summarizes the research process as "a sequence of 4 stages: exploration of data to reveal pertinent questions, confirmation of apparent relationships in the data in light of a formal hypothesis, synthesis or generalization of findings, and presentation of the research at professional conferences and in scholarly publications". Gahegan (Chapter 4) offers a perspective for "the entire process of GIScience". The need for exploration techniques grows as the data become larger and more complex. In such cases, the important aspects of the data are smaller, in comparison with the whole, and specific details are more likely to be hidden in a swamp of elements. Thus, in general, exploration techniques allow us to sift through volumes of data to find relationships, investigate various quantities and understand dependencies.

One method to achieve this exploration, which has been the trend in the recent years, is by "dynamic queries" (Shneiderman, 1994). These are highly interactive systems that enable the visualizations to be manipulated, dissected and interrogated. The user dynamically interacts with the visualization by adjusting sliders, buttons, and menu items that filter and enhance the data and instantly update the display. By doing so the "user formulates a problem concurrently with solving it" (Spence, 2001). For instance, what was once a dark dense black region on a scatter plot can be immediately changed into a colourful and meaningful realization (see Chapter 6). Systems that use this technique include HomeFinder (Williamson and Shneiderman, 1992) and FilmFinder (Ahlberg and Shneiderman, 1994) both now regarded as seminal work on dynamic queries. Ahlberg and Wistrand (1995a,b) developed these techniques into the Information

Visualization and exploration environment system (IVEE). In one example, they depict an environmental database of heavy metals in Sweden; IVEE was then developed into the commercial Spotfire system (Ahlberg, 1996). Another early example is the "density dail" (Ferreira and Wiggins, 1990), where visual results were chosen dependent on the dial position. More recently, Steiner et al. (2001) provide an exploratory tool for the Web and the Descartes system (Andrienko and Andrienko, 1999a–f) both provide dynamic queries; these systems include map-based views linked to other views.

As an alternative to adapting sliders and buttons (as used in dynamic queries), the user may directly manipulate the results; such direct manipulation may be implemented using brushing techniques (Ward, 1994) or methods that select to highlight or filter the information directly. Much of the original work was done on scatter plot matrices (Becker and Cleveland, 1987; Carr et al., 1987). Brushing is used in many multiple-view systems from multi-variate matrix plots, coplot matrices (Brunsdon, 2001) to other geographic exploratory analysis (Monmonier, 1989). One map based visualization toolkit that utilizes multiple views and brushing is cdv (Dykes, 1997a,b). cdv displays the data by methods including choropleth maps, point symbol maps, scatter plot and histogram plots. Statistical and geographic views are linked together, allowing elements to be selected and simultaneously highlighted in each. MANET (Unwin et al., 1996), developed from the earlier tools SPIDER and REGARD, provides direct manipulation facilities such as drag-and-drop and selection and control of elements in the display, for example.

Moreover, other direct manipulation techniques allow the inclusion of manipulators and widgets; for example the SDM system (Chuah and Roth, 1995) provides the user with handles mounted on visual objects to control the parameters directly. Often the widgets are applied to the objects when they are needed and provide additional functionality. The widgets may be multi-functional, where different adornments provide specialized manipulation. Figure 8.1 shows a jack manipulator where the outer cubes allow rotation; both the horizontal plane and vertical tubes allow

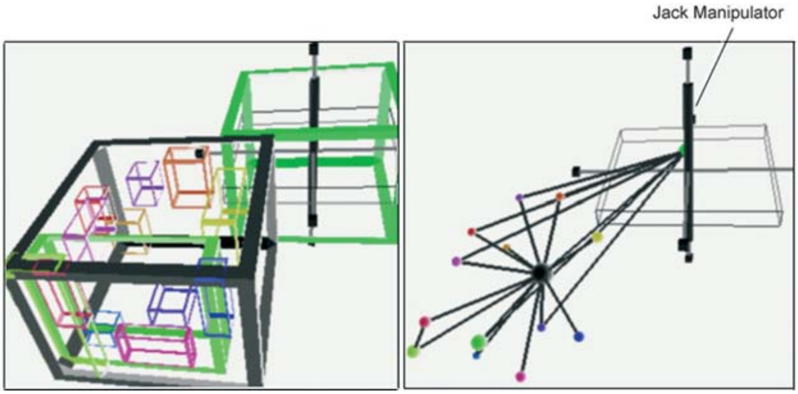

Figure 8.1. Diagram taken from the Waltz visualization system (Roberts, 1998a,b), showing the use of the Inventor Jack manipulators.

constrained planar translation. This manipulator is provided by Open Inventor libraries and integrated in the Waltz multiple-view visualization system (Roberts, 1998a,b). In the figure, the manipulator has been attached to an object that has been moved along the XZ plane (using the large horizontal rectangle). Other manipulators exist; for example, selection in Mondrian (Theus, 2002a,b) may be operated through the use of rectangle areas. In this tool, the user may modify the regions by selecting handles on the rectangles, multiple selection areas can be used at once, and the selected items are highlighted in related windows.

8.3 Strategies of Exploration

In any interactive visualization, the decision needs to be made as to where the information goes, that is, when the parameters are changed does the new visualization replace the old, get overlaid, or is it displayed alongside and in separate windows? Roberts et al. (2000) names these strategies replacement, overlay and replication, respectively. This is depicted in Figure 8.2. This fits in well with the design guidelines of Baldonado et al. (2000), who describe the rule of "space/time resource optimization", where the designer must make a decision whether to present the multiple views side-by-side or sequentially.

8.3.1 Replacement

The replacement strategy is the most common and has some key advantages, that is, the user knows implicitly where the information is updated and what information has changed. However, there are some major challenges with this strategy. First, there are

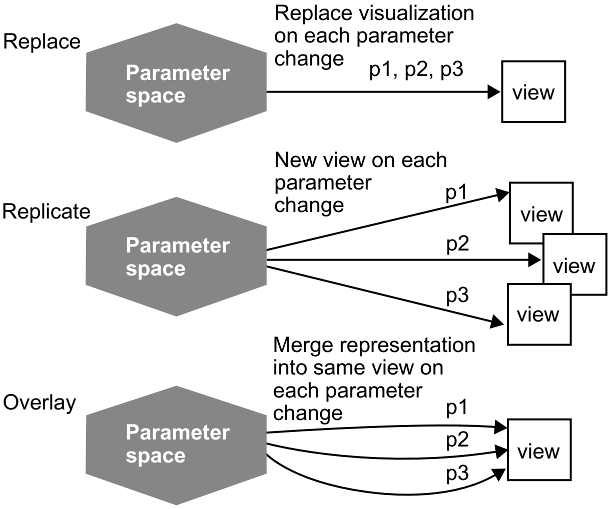

Figure 8.2. There are three strategies of exploratory visualization that determine where the information is placed: replacement, replication and overlay.

problems by using such an ephemeral exploration environment. Information about previous experimentations is usually lost, the user cannot compare different graphical realizations side-by-side, and there is often little guidance as to the sensitivity of different parameters (i.e., whether a small change of a parameter will make a small change in the image, or in fact it makes a large amendment to the visualization). Second, there is a risk of losing navigation context. For example, when a user zooms into a subpart of the display the context of how the zoomed area fits in with the whole is lost.

Some visualization systems overcome the transient nature of the display by storing past visualization commands (as data or variable values) in a database, such as Grasparc (Brodlie et al., 1993) and Tioga (Stonebraker et al., 1993). In the case of Grasparc, or HyperScribe (Wright, 1996) as implemented as a module in IRIS Explorer, the user can "roll back" to a predefined state and re-visualize the data with the "old" parameters. As in the case of HyperScribe these states are usually stored in a "history tree" where data arising from the experiment process is modelled in a tree structure and the user can alter parameters and roll back to previous versions (Figure 8.3).

As the user explores, it can become unclear how the filtered, extracted and specialized information fits in with the whole. Methods such as animation and distortion help to keep this context. For example, animation is used in ConeTree (Card, 1996); in this instance, a selected node is brought to the foreground by animating the 3D tree (for a explanation and figure, see Schroeder, this volume, Chapter 24). The animation occurs long enough for the observer to see a continuation and short enough so that the user still observes the visual momentum. Moreover, there is a current trend towards generating detail-in-context views also known as Context + Focus displays (Lamping et al., 1995). Many implementations are non-linear magnification systems using methods such as those described by Keahey and Robertson (1997). They appear with a linear (and traditional) mapping in the centre or focus of the screen and squashed or distorted mapping outside the focus area. For example, Snyder (1987) generated various magnifying glass projections of the earth. Other people who use distortion to provide a clear field-of-view to an interesting object in three dimensions include Sheelagh (1997).

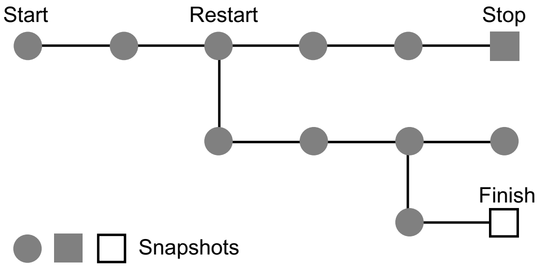

Figure 8.3. Diagram showing the history tree where data arising from the experiment process are modelled in a tree structure and the user can alter parameters and roll back to previous versions.

8.3.2 Replication

Another way of working is to use a replication strategy for information exploration. In this strategy, various parts of the information, parameters or views are copied or duplicated and aspects are displayed in multiple ways and in different windows. Replication refers to the action of the experimenter who wishes to repeat an experiment or procedure more than once. Replication may be used to provide methodical or random repetition of the experiment to confirm or reduce the error of the results (by perhaps averaging the different findings) or to confirm the outcomes. Far too often a user relies upon one display, presenting data by their "favourite" visualization algorithm. However, they may be missing out on the richness of the underlying information. Hence by duplicating and replicating the displays and slightly adapting the parameters for the next incarnation the user is able to observe and compare the result of different scenarios and experiment with the detail of their data.

Replication can be divided into two subcategories of usage: (i) the procedure – where the results that are generated by the change of parameters are displayed in separate windows; (ii) the course of action – where the same data may be presented by different mappings. These different forms of the same information are known as multiforms (Roberts et al., 2000).

It is useful to display the results of a parameter change in a new window: the user can clearly observe and compare side-by-side the differences and similarities of the results. For example, the user may wish to explore different isosurfaces depicting alternative concentrations of some phenomena. If, as the user changes the threshold value a new window appears displaying the new isosurface then the user can easily observe (and compare) the varying concentrations from the current and previous explorations. As we shall see in Section 8.4.4, such a dynamic replication could provide a multitude of views. Such a view-explosion could confuse, rather than support the user in their exploration tasks.

Not only can different parameterizations be displayed in multiple windows, but also the same information may be displayed in multiple forms. By doing so the user may be able to see information that was previously obscured, or the different form may abstract the information to provide a clearer and simpler representation, or the different views may represent alternative interpretations on the same information (such as those given by different experts). Indeed, the alternative view may help to illuminate the first. Yagel et al. (1995) advocate the use of "…visualization environments that provide the scientist with a toolbox of renderers, each capable of rendering the same dataset by employing different rendering schemes". Consequently, the user may gain a deeper understanding of their data. For example, our eyes use binocular vision to present two slightly different observations of the same scene, which provides us with a rich depiction of the information. Certainly, we miss out when we look at one picture of something, such as a still photograph of an historic building, and we gain a better understanding of the size, colours, textures and details when we browse through many photographic pictures, fly through a virtual 3D model and view it from multiple viewpoints, and read written explanations from an interactive guidebook. Likewise, it is often beneficial to the data explorer to see the information from different perspectives and in different forms.

There are many advantages in using replication, for example, the separate views hold a history of the exploration, allow comparisons between images, and the multiforms may emphasize different aspects of the information. Replication should be encouraged (Roberts, 1998a,b). However, not many current systems inherently support many views and the module visualization environments, which can display the data in many representations, leave all the effort of duplication to the user. Indeed, such a replication strategy is possible in the module building visualization environments, such as AVS, IRIS Explorer and IBM Data Explorer (Williams et al., 1992). However, exploring the information in such a way with these tools requires copying and reconnection of multiple modules, and thus the replication strategy is not necessarily encouraged or easy to operate in these module-building environments. It is not a lightweight operation. The system itself should have the functionality to support multiple views, created with little effort from the user, managed appropriately by the system and automatically coupled to other views. Moreover, further understanding may be gained through linking and coupling of information. For example, selections that are made in one view can be reflected in other views, other operations such as zooming and rotation operations can be cordially applied to any associated view – hence the phrase MLVs.

8.3.3 Overlay

A third method of generating the visualization result is to overlay the visualization method in the same display. Overlays allow different visualizations to share the same coordinate space. Such a fan-in method allows different representations of the same information in the same display to be layered together. The advantage of this is that it is easy to understand each view in the context of the other, and the information may be readily compared. Different representation methods may be mixed together in the same view. For example, one view may include 2D pseudo-colour slices, surface representations, legends and useful annotations. However, when too much information is presented in the one view, or layered over a previous version, it may be difficult to select and navigate through or understand specific information. This may be because the presentation is too crowded and complex or that parts of the visualization are occluded.

Indeed occlusion may be a problem in 2D visualizations as the objects may lay directly over each other. This may cause a misunderstanding of how many elements are in fact at a particular coordinate. Solutions such as the use of transparency or randomly jittering the points may help to clarify the depictions. Additionally, aggregation followed by different mapping techniques may be useful, as demonstrated by the sunflower plot of Dupont and Plummmer (2003). Obviously, the usefulness and appropriateness of the overlay method depends on the graphical visualization technique and the visualization tasks being used.

Related work includes the excellent Toolglass and Magic lenses (Bier et al., 1993) widgets that allow the user to see through and focus on details of the display. Geospace (Lokuge and Ishizaki, 1995) usefully employs translucency between the layers, and Kosara et al. (2002) uses a semantic depth of field to blur layers to keep the context. Döllner (Chapter 16) uses texture-mapping methods to implement a lens effect that draws upon transparent layers. Moreover, Gahegan (1998) provides an example of an integrated display to achieve more complete integration of geovisualization views. Ongoing work on MANET (Unwin et al., 1996) is focussed on methods to overlay different plots on the same view.

The challenge here is to develop effective overlays that enable the user to keep the context information, understand the depth of knowledge and not become overwhelmed by a complex visual representation. Specific challenges include how to effectively operate the overlaid views – does the interaction go through a view or is only the top view active? How is the user made aware that the views may differ in their data? How are the data linked to the data, and can it be coupled?

8.4 Multiple Linked Views

Linking and relating the information in one view to that of other views assists the user in the exploration process and may provide additional insight into the underlying information. Certainly, “multiple views should be coordinated” (Carr, 1999). As the information is explored and placed in separate windows, it is important that the relationships between the views and the context of how one view relates to another are maintained. Indeed, Shneiderman and North (2000) in their user experiments discover that MLVs are beneficial and state that “the overview and detail-view coordination improved user performance by 30–80% depending on task”. Such additional “overview” realizations provide context information that enhances the understanding of the associated view.

Many different forms of information may be linked and coordinated. For instance, manipulation operations (such as rotation, translation, zoom, etc.) may be concurrently applied to separate views so as when one view is manipulated the other views respond appropriately to the same manipulation operations; the spatial position of a pointer or probe may be linked between multiple views; filter, query and selection operations may be simultaneously applied. Moreover, these operations need only affect the same information but, more interestingly, to collections of different information. Coordination and abstract views provide a powerful exploratory visualization tool (Roberts, 1998a), for example, in a 3D visualization, a navigation or selection operation may be inhibited by occlusion, but the operation may be easier using an abstract view. Fuhrmann and MacEachren (1999) describe the use of an abstract view to guide navigation in a 3D geospatial representation, ideas that are further developed by Fuhrmann and MacEachren (2001). Thus, a linked abstract view may be used to better control and investigate the information in the coupled view.

Accordingly, there are different reasons for coordination. North and Shneiderman (1997) state there are two different reasons for using coupled views, either for selection or for navigation. Although Pattison and Phillips (2001) disagree by saying that there are additional forms of coordination other than selection and navigation, for example, “coordinating the data in preparation for the visualization such as sorting, averaging or clustering”. Likewise, Roberts (1999) believes in a broader use of coordination, exemplified by the layered model (Roberts, 1999; Boukhelifa et al., 2003) where the user may link any aspect of the dataflow and exploration process.

Selection allows the user to highlight one or many items either as a choice of items for a filtering operation or as an exploration in its own right; this is often done by direct manipulation where the user directly draws or wands the mouse over the visualization itself (Cleveland and McGill, 1988; Ward, 1994). Becker and Cleveland (1987) describe this as a brushing operation. Examples, of systems that implement the brushing technique include XmdvTool (Ward, 1994), IVEE (Ahlberg and Wistrand, 1995a,b) and Spotfire tools (Ahlberg, 1996).

Joint navigation provides methods to quickly view related information in multiple different windows, thus providing rapid exploration by saving the user from performing the same or similar operations multiple times. Objects, such as pointers, annotations or meta-information, may be coupled. For instance, the developers of the visualization input pipeline (VIP) (Felger and Schröder, 1992) describe an example that displays several views of the data with the cursors linked together; movement of one pointer causes the others to move correspondingly. Other forms of navigation include data probing, as implemented within both LinkWinds (Jacobson et al., 1994) and KBVision (Amerinex, 1992), and changing the viewport information, as accomplished in SciAn (Pepke and Lyons, 1993) and Visage (Roth et al., 1996), which provide coordinated manipulation of 3D views.

8.4.1 Linking architectures

The study of coordination is interdisciplinary and there is much to learn from other disciplines. Taking the simplistic view of coordination being “sharing things” then we may learn from areas such as sharing hardware devices in a computer system or managing, delegating roles in a human organization or collaborative support, for example, see Brodlie et al. (this volume, Chapter 21). For an in depth interdisciplinary view of coordination, see Olson et al. (2001).

In this particular chapter, we focus on four models: Snap (North, 2002), presentation graphics (McDonald et al., 1990) and the View Coordination Architecture (Pattison and Phillips, 2001) and a Layered Model for Coordination (Boukhelifa et al., 2003). Andrieko et al. (this volume, Chapter 5) provide an in depth discussion of software issues in geovisualization.

The Snap conceptual model (North, 2002) takes a data-centric approach to coordination. It uses concepts from database design to provide the required interaction. Relational database components are tightly coupled such that an interaction with one component results in changes to other components. The Snap architecture is designed to construct arbitrary coordinations without the need for programming. However, Snap’s user interactions are currently limited to “select” and “load”, whereas exploratory visualization permits rich and varied interactions such as representation-oriented coordinations in addition to data-centric coordinations.

McDonald et al. (1990) describe a constraint system based on the presentation-graphics programming model (Figure 8.4). In this system, lenses map the subjects (objects) in the database into their visual presentations counterparts, a user interacts with the presentation and the subjects get updated through the input-translator, and finally, a constraint system updates corresponding properties and updates any other related graphical presentations.

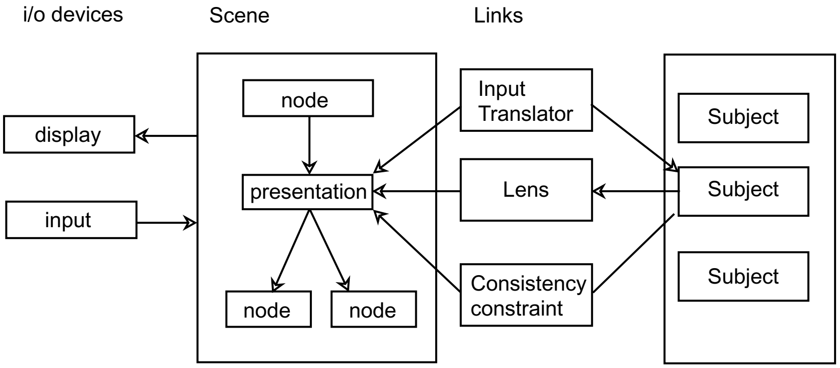

Figure 8.4. Presentation graphics programming model (McDonald et al., 1990).

Pattison and Phillips (2001) developed an architecture based on the model view controller (MVC) design pattern that originated in the Smalltalk architecture (Figure 8.5a). This pattern describes three objects: the model, view and controller, where the model holds the state of the process and publishes notifications to the views when its state changes, the view(s) reflect the state of the data model, and the controller updates the model with requests from external events. The MVC architecture inherently supports multiple views, and Pattison and Phillips (2001) have adapted the model for Information Visualization (Figure 8.5b). Where the presentation component observes the model for changes and updates its display as necessary, the model component observes both the specification and data model components for change modifications to the specification component are propagated up. This architecture fits in with the dataflow paradigm (Haber and McNabb, 1990).

Rather than concentrating on the implementation architecture, our work has focussed on a layered approach that is based on the dataflow model (Roberts, 1999; Boukhelifa et al., 2003) and incorporates more layers than that of Pattison and Phillips (2001). In this approach, the coordination may occur between any parameter at any level of the visualization flow (Figure 8.6). Therefore, the user can link a broad range or aspects between several windows, for instance, the view projection transformations can be shared (to co-rotate several 3D objects included in separate windows) or characteristics of the objects can be simultaneously changed (such as their appearance, colour, texture or position, etc.), or window-operations can be coordinated (such as moving, deleting or iconizing windows).

8.4.2 The role of MLVs in the exploration process

The exploration process may be described as a history-tree, indeed, even if the views are a result of a set of random thoughts, each view still relates in some way (however tenuous) to former investigations. Often the newest explorations are close to the former; this is the case especially if the user makes minor amendments to a copy of the previous view. Consequently, it is sensible to consider clusters or groups of closely related views. This can occur as “render groups” (Yagel et al., 1995) where different renderers are used to

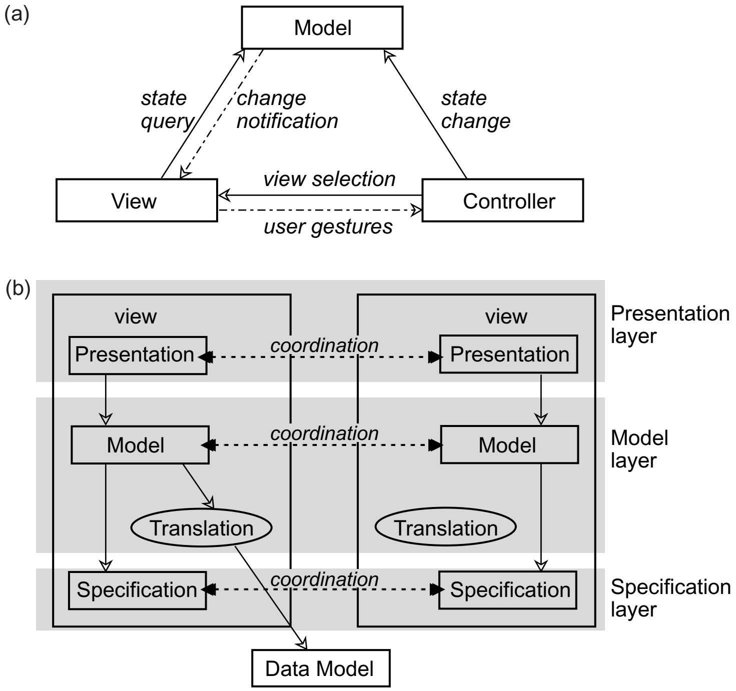

Figure 8.5. (a) Left, depicts the traditional MVC pattern. The views reflect the current state of the model; the information held in the model is updated via the controller. (b) Right, shows the coordination model by Pattison and Phillips (2001) based on an MVC pattern, where the presentation component observes the model for changes and updates its display as necessary, the model component observes both the specification and data model components for change and changes to the specification component are propagated up.

display the same data filtering (at an equivalent the level to the “Data Model” in Figure 8.5). Information within each render group may be straightforwardly related to each other such that default coordinations may be readily defined (Roberts, 1999).

Generating multiple views from any part of exploration process may be useful; here the user keeps older versions of their investigations such that they can compare previous incarnations. They provide a context of the whole exploration process. However, linking outside render groups is challenging as some operations may not be generally applicable such as highlighting elements between two disparate data models when each contains a set of disparate non-intersecting elements. It is both possible and often beneficial to coordinate outside the render groups, for instance, multiple 3D worlds may be simultaneously rotated even if they contain dissimilar realizations. There is an advantage in grouping the multiple views together as Kandogan and Shneiderman (1997) discover through their evaluations: the user better understands the relationships in the views, and can more easily find and drill down to the important aspects of the display.

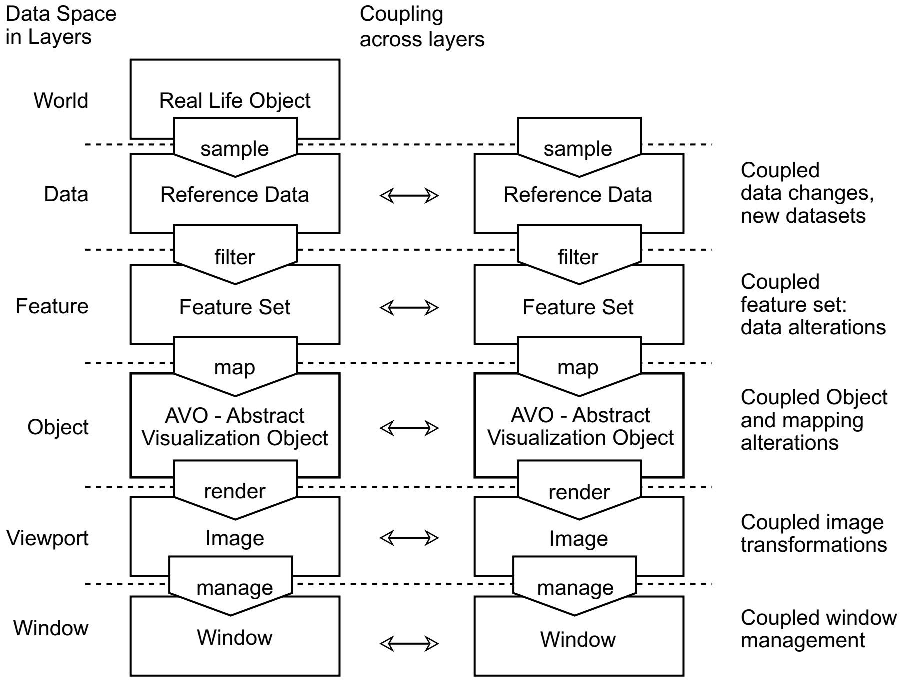

Figure 8.6. The diagram shows a layer model, where many different forms of information may be linked and coordinated. For instance, manipulation operations (such as rotation, translation, zoom, etc.) may be concurrently applied to multiple views so as one view is manipulated the other views respond appropriately to the same manipulation operations, the spatial position of a pointer or probe may be linked between multiple views.

8.5 Linking and Coordination Concepts

All the aforementioned ideas allow many windows to be created and linked with other views, but, rather than arbitrarily creating and linking views there is usually structure in an investigation. Certainly, when developing a coupled visualization system there are many questions to consider about the coupling. What is being coupled? What are their types? What gets changed? How does the information change? It may be that some links do not make sense and in fact may confuse the user, especially in visualization applied to exploration. Therefore, there are many challenges and much research still to be done. We distil these ideas into some rudiments of coordination.

8.5.1 The rudiments of coordination

In essence, the linking of information between views may be described as “information sharing” For example, if two objects in separate windows were projected using the same shared transformation matrix then any change to that matrix would update both views simultaneously. Accordingly, coordination may be thought of as in terms of program variables. Thus, using this analogy the links have the following elements:

- *Coordination* entities details what is being coordinated. For example, it could be aspects of the data, record, parameters, process, event, function, aspects of the window or even time.
- The *type* expresses the method by which the views are linked. Coordinating parameter values such as coupling binary threshold operations or selecting ranges may be implemented by sharing primitive types (float, integer, etc.) while other operations may use more complex data structures. Some form of translation (or casting) may be required to coordinate entities with different types. In addition to this translation function, it is often useful to allow more intricate functions, such as to allow entities to be related via an offset (or by some other relation). In virtual reality it may be useful to provide two 3D views with one being at ground level and the other tethered above; the tethered view could provide an overview and thus move correspondingly with the ground view, for example, see Döllner (this volume, Chapter 16). The types may also determine the directionality of the links whether unidirectional or bidirectional.
- *Chronology* details temporal aspects such as the persistence or lifetime of the coupling, that is, how long the coupling exists? For example, it may be that objects in the scene are coupled for a specific task and then uncoupled when the task is over. Incidentally, like program variables, persistence and scope are inherently related. Moreover, the coordination may be synchronous, asynchronous, reactive, and proactive. For example, it may be useful to join the rotation of two views, one from a fast and the other a slow renderer, such that the slower render gets updated at a lesser rate; additionally, the user may make and review a change, then decide whether to commit or cancel this operation. McDonald et al. (1990) describes these capabilities as markup and commit/cancel.
- *Scope* controls the "area" of the correlation, whether two specific views, many realizations, or all realizations are coupled within an exploration. For example, the render group scenario is equivalent to a local variable and the global variable would be equivalent to coupling every view in the exploratory session.
- *Granularity* expresses how many entities may be connected together. For example, how many entities are coordinated, how many views are connected in one coordination operation.
- *Initialisation* indicates who creates a correlation, whether the user or the system. For example, in spreadsheet system it is possible to name particular views for specific operations, or by using a render group method it is possible to automatically correlate aspects of the views. There is a similar issue regarding the creation of the views themselves. Some visualization systems automatically create the visualizations from a database of knowledge (metadata information) and user requirements. The Vista tool (Senay and Ignatius, 1994), for example, creates appropriate visualizations by asking the user to list the variables in order of preference.

- *Updating* describes how and when the information within the views and child modules are updated and refreshed, such as lazy update, or greedy update or user initiated. This is similar to the cold/warm/hot-linking concepts mentioned by Unwin (2001). Cold linking allows an adjacent view to be coupled once and ignores any changes to the former view (similar to copying values rather than copying a formulae in a spreadsheet), warm linking allows the user to decide when to update, hot linking provides automatic and dynamic updating of the linked views. Moreover, the interface should reflect the current state, for example by shading out the out-of-date views. However, it may be that views depend on other views and if the user is relying on the data-history it may be prudent to allow the user to force the update when required.

Currently, some general-purpose visualization systems do provide some of these rudiments, for instance, IRIS Explorer allows parameters to be coordinated through unidirectional events and more intricate functions may be formed using the p-func editor; however, IRIS Explorer does not provide bidirectional links and disallows simultaneously connecting the reverse linkage to inhibit circular event explosions taking place. In geovisualization, a good example of linking is that of the bi-directional link between ArcView and xGobi (Symanzik et al., 2000). Coordination is used in other geovisualization systems; the GeoVISTA studio for example (MacEachren et al., 2001) incorporate some coordination features. Many systems provide an overview map to manage the manipulation of the whole (Steiner et al., 2001; Andrienko and Andrienko, 1999a–f). Additionally panoraMap (Dykes, 2000) allows panoramic photographs (georeferenced with GPS positions) and other information to be dynamically linked with an interactive map, other information such as key-points visited and qualitative and quantitative information collected on site are also shown by icons and symbols on the map.

It is clear that there are many issues still unanswered regarding each of these rudiments, for example, are there specific rudiments for geovisualization? Or in general: does it make sense to coordinate different types together? And if so: what translators are required? How does the user recognize the scope of the coordination or indeed understand the persistence or recognize whether something is out-of-date? Moreover, many systems do not provide the full rich set of linking strategies that are possible.

8.6 Management of Views and Linkages

In addition to the linking concepts there are some subsidiary issues to consider, such as managing the views and linkages, placement of the views and temporal aspects.

8.6.1 Managing the MLVs

The essence of lightweight MLVs is that they are easy and quick to generate, but by supporting such a strategy the user may generate many views (that will create a view explosion) where many of the representations are only slightly different to the previous This creates two main problems. First, these many representations may easily clutter the screen-space (there is a limited "real-estate" in any screen technology), and thus their needs to be either some form of restraint to guard the user from generating too many windows or management strategies to appropriately and automatically place each window (the latter is detailed in §8.4.4). Second, the user may also be confused as to "which image relates to which data-instance". The systems in the literature provide different solutions.

One solution is to inhibit the number of views: Baldonado (2000) provides a useful set of guidelines for using multiple views, and include the rule of parsimony – use multiple views sparingly. Another solution is to trade space by time. Spence (2001) discusses this solution and provides the idea of rapid serial visual presentation (RSVP); this allows the user to rifle through a set of objects analogous to flicking through the pages of a book in order to acquire some understanding of its content. This space/time trade off may be described as an overlay methodology. Finally, a good policy would be to use the three strategies (replacement, overlay and replication) together, allowing the user to replace certain instances and replicate when they need to achieve side-by-side comparisons.

It is important that the user should clearly understand the relationship of how each view relates to each data model. Many systems display the history tree (on a work-pane or canvas) allowing the user to rollback to previous versions (Brodlie et al., 1993; Wexelblat and Maes, 1999). Then the problem becomes how to relate the views with the canvas. This can be achieved using various methods. In the Waltz system (Roberts, 1998a,b), each window is labelled, relating it to its respective module on the work-pane. This is a hierarchical numbering scheme, like the sections of a book, and is used to name each view. The names are then displayed on the history tree. The spiral calendar (Mackinlay et al., 1994) provides a graphical solution by using lines to relate one window to another.

There is still much work to be done in developing effective view management strategies for MLVs; whether managing the placement of the views, controlling a possible view explosion, or relating the view information to that of the exploration hierarchy.

8.6.2 View placement strategies

The placement of the many windows can have a significant impact on the usability of the system: it is an important human computer interaction issue. Overlapping windows can cause the user to spend more time arranging the windows rather than doing the task (Kandogan and Shneiderman, 1997), whereas the screen may not be large enough to display each required view simultaneously. There are different placement strategies described as follows.

First, the user is given the responsibility to position, iconize and scale the windows. As it is often difficult to select and find occluded windows, the system provides a repository or toolbar to hold a list of the displayed windows. This may take the form of a list of the named views, collection of icons, or thumbnail representation of the current views.

Second, the system holds the responsibility for placing the views on the screen. These "intelligent" interfaces tile (or tabulate) the windows such that they appear adjacently without overlap. Elastic views (Kandogan and Shneiderman, 1997) provide a good example; in this methodology, the windows are hierarchically placed on the screen and dynamically scaled to fill the available space. Alternatively, spreadsheet styles are becoming popular (Chi et al., 1998; Jankun-Kelly and Ma, 2001) where the views are positioned in a tabular formation. Furthermore, the strategy may depend on some aspect of the data exploration or some other metric. For example, windows could be scaled smaller if less important, implemented by a zoomable interface such as Pad++ (Perlin and Fox, 1993), or presented in a scatter plot form where the placement of each is dependent on two variables, or hierarchically as in the Flip zoom technique (Holmquist and Ahlberg, 1997).

Many of the current multiple view visualization systems hand the responsibility to the user, however, there is much benefit in structuring the position of the views relative to each other. Thus, strategies for positioning the views appropriately should be researched. Many questions remain including: are the requirements of an MLV visualization system very much different to that of a traditional windowing system?

8.6.3 Chronology, animation and timing in MLV

Many datasets are time dependent; their visualization in an MLV environment may be treated in different ways. The simple case is to generate an animation of the data. In the above terminology, each frame would replace the previous. Alternatively, each individual frame (or a sample of frames) may be displayed in a separate view (or stacked and overlaid in a single view). Coupling multiple-view animations would involve synchronizing the two streams. This may be at a fine granularity (e.g., tightly synchronizing each individual frame) or coarse granularity (e.g., synchronizing on specified key-frames).

Additionally, it may be that there are objects animated or moving in the scene (such as people, planes or boats). It may be useful to couple one view to the moving object and provide another view of the whole environment. The linked view may be tethered such that it looks down on the object being moved (separated by an appropriate distance). For example, the GeoZui3D of Plumlee and Ware (2003) provide different “frame of reference coupling” methods that describe how the new view moves in relation to the animated objects.

8.7 Current Objectives and Challenges

Recent research has focussed on providing principles for multiple views (Baldonado et al., 2000) and examining linking methods such as Roberts’ taxonomy of coordination (Roberts, 1999; Boukhelifa et al., 2003) and North’s Snap-together system (North and Shneiderman, 2000a) that allows unforeseen combinations of coordinated visualizations. This research is opening the way for more expressive investigation environments that support the user in their task rather than distracting the user from their task.

Currently many multi-view systems only really support a few views where the system determines what and how the information is linked. Thus, further research should focus on developing systems that utilize many lightweight views that are truly quick to generate and automatically linked with other information and implicit to operate. Indeed, the system could be designed that would suggest or automatically generate other views that the user had not thought of using. The user may find these non-traditional views unfamiliar, but this unfamiliarity itself may provide a better understanding.

There are many issues surrounding MLVs that are lightweight (some have been highlighted in this chapter). To develop an appropriate MLV system that utilizes these aforementioned concepts, it may be that the system needs to automatically generate the visualizations on behalf of the user, such as in the Vista system (Senay and Ignatius, 1994) or at least make it as easy as possible to generate further representations (Roberts, 1998a,b). Furthermore, if the system provides a diverse and functional-rich interface then the user may be overwhelmed by the nature of the system. Overall, a balance needs to be found both to generate the right amount of views for the task (whether they are by replacement, replication or overlay), and to provide an expressive linking mechanism that also restrains the user from performing incomprehensible and unprofitable coupling operations.

In addition, more empirical research needs to take place on the different designs to evaluate what is useful. Kandogan and Shneiderman (1997) have evaluated the effectiveness of certain multiple view systems and North and Shneiderman (2000b) have looked at coordinated views. However, more studies are needed. It is well understood that the effectiveness of a particular system or design is highly dependent on the visualization or investigative task and the domain; to this end Baldonado et al. (2000) offers some guidelines, but it still remains unclear when the user should replace, replicate or overlay the information to gain the best understanding.

The geovisualization domain poses many challenges (MacEachren and Kraak, 1992). Indeed, highly interactive systems have already been developed such as Descartes (Andrienko and Andrienko, 1999a–f), GeoVIBE (Guoray Cai, 2001) and cdv (Dykes, 1997a, b). However, further research is required to put in place the tools and techniques that will allow appropriate multiple-view exploratory geovisualization systems to be easily developed.

We propose the following strands of research:

1. Specific geovisualization reference models and toolkits need to be developed that incorporate lightweight MLVs and include the rudiments of coordination.
2. The tools need to support dynamic queries and complex coordination operations enabling highly interactive context + focus navigation.
3. The developed systems need to be easily extensible that will allow the data from the ever increasing and diverse range of data to be suitably visualized.
4. Methods need to be developed that integrate a wide range of different presentation methods, thus, allowing the user to view the information from different perspectives and try out different scenarios.

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