A Taxonomy of Treemap Visualization Techniques

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Keywords: Treemaps, Taxonomy

Abstract: A treemap is a visualization that has been specifically designed to facilitate the exploration of tree-structured data and, more general, hierarchically structured data. The family of visualization techniques that use a visual metaphor for parent-child relationships based “on the property of containment” (Johnson, 1993) is commonly referred to as treemaps. However, as the number of variations of treemaps grows, it becomes increasingly important to distinguish clearly between techniques and their specific characteristics. This paper proposes to discern between Space-filling Treemap $T_S$, Containment Treemap $T_C$, Implicit Edge Representation Tree $T_{IE}$, and Mapped Tree $T_{MT}$ for classification of hierarchy visualization techniques and highlights their respective properties. This taxonomy is created as a hyponymy, i.e., its classes have an is-a relationship to one another: $T_S \subset T_C \subset T_{IE} \subset T_{MT}$. With this proposal, we intend to stimulate a discussion on a more unambiguous classification of treemaps and, furthermore, broaden what is understood by the concept of treemap itself.

1 INTRODUCTION

Treemaps are well established visualization techniques for tree-structured data and hierarchically structured data (McNabb and Laramee, 2017). Such data is prevalent in almost all application domains, including demographics (Jern et al., 2009), business intelligence (Roberts and Laramee, 2018), health (Chazard et al., 2006), and software development (Merino et al., 2018). Since a large part of today’s data sets is tree structured—either inherently or otherwise supplemented—the treemap is a versatile tool for information visualization. Within the past three decades, over 300 hierarchy visualization techniques (including traditional treemaps) and variations have been proposed (Schulz, 2011). The main task of a treemap is to map the structure of a data set and at the same time to enable additional visual variables per data element (Carpendale, 2003) (see Figure 1). Thereby, a treemap can be varied and adjusted using different layout algorithms (Vernier et al., 2018) and additional visual variables, visual metaphors, and interaction techniques (Limberger et al., 2019).

Although there seems to be some consensus on whether a visualization technique is called a treemap or not (“property of containment”, Johnson 1993), there are different views on how strictly to adhere to the containment metaphor. Bubble Treemaps (Görtler et al., 2017) and BeamTrees (van Ham and van Wijk, 2003) are two examples. This vague use of the term treemap and the lack of consolidation of the different concepts makes it difficult to deal with individual cases, complicates summary statements, and might constrain a deeper understanding.

We propose a taxonomy of four classes of visualization techniques resulting mainly from the encoding and representation of parent-child relationships. The taxonomy considers typical properties of layout and geometry representations and is itself a hyponymy. Each class contains common hierarchy visualization techniques that could be called treemaps. In a brief discussion, we emphasize the applicability of and extension points to this taxonomy. Our goal is a more unambiguous classification of treemaps and a strengthened concept of treemap categories. Together, these could form a basis for discussions of limitations, guidelines, and generalizations of techniques and, furthermore, facilitate the identification and differentiation of such techniques for domain-specific applications.

2 FOUNDATION OF TREEMAPS

For the last 30 years, the treemap visualization technique was extended, refined, and used in different contexts. This adaptation process extended the scope of and expectations from treemaps for visualization designers and users. Here, we want to recapitulate the original forces and predecessors leading to the
first treemap visualization technique and introduce a conceptual visualization pipeline that seems common to all hierarchy visualization techniques. Further, we review other generalization approaches for treemaps.

**Predecessors of Treemaps.** Upon looking back from the first mentioning of a treemap, the preceding ingredients for this visualization technique can be found in statistical cartograms, mosaic displays, and nested depiction for hierarchical components. The early treemaps are a skilled combination of those techniques. One original building block is the statistical cartogram (Raisz, 1934). These manually designed cartograms depicted geographic and demographic data by derivation of rectangular diagrams. Thereby, adjacency of geographic locations were maintained and the rectangle for a location could be varied in size depending on the demographic data. These properties are now backed by algorithms and attainable by IT systems as well (van Kreveld and Speckmann, 2007).

A second building block, the mosaic display (Friendly, 2002), uses an algorithmic approach to dissect the surface for depiction. The mosaic display appeared around 1877 and gained scientific attention in 1981. The technique uses a two-dimensional subdivision of a rectangle based on categorical distribution for data points in two attributes—or more using scatter-plot techniques. The main insights from those diagrams are the distribution of data items among different categories. That is, treemaps were anecdotally referred to as “large weighted Venn diagrams” (Johnson, 1993).

A third building block is the depiction of hierarchical relations using nesting. For example, they can be found with contour models (Johnston, 1969) and Nassi-Shneiderman-Diagrams (Nassi and Shneiderman, 1973), used for depiction of hierarchical components of algorithms. A combination of these approaches resulted in the first treemap visualization technique (Johnson and Shneiderman, 1991).

**Treemap Visualization Pipeline.** We assume that the creation of visual representations from data, e.g., the transformation of tree-structured data into images from tree maps, can be understood as a visualization pipeline. This pipeline can be a part of an interactive feedback loop of creating images from data, perceiving these images, and gaining insights—the visualization process (Figure 3). Within this process, the visualization pipeline is represented using three phases, namely Preprocessing, Mapping, and Image Synthesis. The required algorithms to create a treemap visualization from raw data are associated to one, or sometimes multiple, phases of this pipeline. Thereby, some algorithms are specific to treemap visualization and others are more generally applicable in the fields of data processing and information visualization. The specifics for treemap visualization techniques are prominent in the mapping phase and the geometry phase, i.e., these phases highly contribute to the appearance of a treemap visualization (Figure 2).

**Generalization on Treemaps.** The similarities of treemap visualizations, as proposed by Shneiderman and Johnson, to other hierarchy visualization techniques were used before to provide means of generalization of hierarchy visualization techniques. As such, Schulz et al. coined the term implicit hierarchy visualizations (Schulz et al., 2011a) as a category of visualization techniques that uses implicit, i.e., non-drawn, metaphors to represent the parent-child relationships. Later, Schulz et al. presented a generative layout approach for rooted tree drawings that could be used to
create a wide range (and mixed use) of visualization techniques with implicit and explicit edge representations (Schulz et al., 2013). Likewise, Baudel and Broeksema discussed a design space for rectangular, sequential, and space-filling treemap layouts (Baudel and Broeksema, 2012), creating an own set of treemap visualization techniques.

3 CATEGORIES

Throughout the community of information visualization, there seems to be some consensus on the visualization techniques that may be called a treemap. Disregarding their differences, the emerged set of common characteristics is as follows:

- First, a treemap is a visualization technique suitable to depict tree-structured data.
- There is a representation of the parent-child relationships without use of explicit edge links, i.e., the containment metaphor (Schulz et al., 2011a).
- The depiction of leaf nodes implies an area or volume in the geometry space (Park et al., 2018).
- The representation of sibling nodes should be guaranteed to be non-overlapping (Johnson and Shneiderman, 1991).

In other words, the prominent property for treemaps is the visual containment in the depiction, which implies a containment within the layout as well. Empirically, the technique in question allows for at least one of either area, volume, or color for attribute mapping of leaf nodes. More effective treemap visualization techniques allow for at least two visual variables for attribute mapping of leaf nodes.

Based upon this, we believe the term treemap is not only suitable for the first treemap introduced by Shneiderman and Johnson but for a broader range of hierarchy visualization techniques. To contribute to the discussion, we propose four different sets of characteristics that could be used to distinguish between treemaps, tree visualization techniques, and general hierarchy visualization techniques (\(T\)):

- the Space-filling Treemap \(T_S\),
- the Containment Treemap \(T_C\),
- the Implicit Edge Representation Tree \(T_{IE}\),
- and the Mapped Tree \(T_M\).

These categories focus on the characteristics of the spatialization process (resulting in the layout) and the visual representation in geometry space. Thereby, each category is a superset of the previous one, forming a hierarchy of tree visualization techniques. This property allows to categorize the taxonomy itself as a hyponymy. The four categories are motivated and defined as follows.

**Space-filling Treemap.** A space-filling treemap results from a recursive subdivision of a surface (Johnson and Shneiderman, 1991) or an n-dimensional cube (Johnson, 1993). The main characteristic is the full subdivision and distribution of a parents’ surface or volume for its children, resulting in space-filling depictions of the leaf nodes. This category of treemaps includes not only subdivisions of rectangles but others as general rectangular (Wattenberg, 2005), convex polygonal (Balzer and Deussen, 2005; Wang et al., 2019), and non-convex polygonal (Auber et al., 2013) partitions as well (Figure 5).

**Containment Treemap.** The category of Containment Treemaps extends Space-filling Treemaps by loosening the space-filling property. This still requires that child nodes are located within their parent surfaces but they must not utilize all the space of the parent. Mainly, hierarchy visualization techniques from this category are currently considered treemap visualization techniques. Typically, the corresponding layouts are created using packing algorithms (Yamaguchi and Itoh, 2003; Wettel and Lanza, 2008; Scheibel et al., 2018) (Figure 6). Another approach is the transformation of the treemap layout, e.g. for Generalized Treemaps (Vliegen et al., 2006). Similarly to
space-filling treemaps, containment treemaps allow for different geometrical shapes as well, e.g., circles (Wetzal, 2003; Görtler et al., 2017) and ellipses (Collin et al., 2007).

Implicit Edge Representation Tree. When loosening the containment property and allowing all types of implicit edge representations (Schulz et al., 2011a), i.e., containment, adjacency, and overlap, an even broader set of visualization techniques can be labeled as treemaps. With this set of characteristics, visualization techniques that were created using transformations on treemap layouts, e.g., Cascaded Treemaps (Lü and Fogarty, 2008) and the BeamTree (van Ham and van Wijk, 2003), can be considered treemaps as well. In fact, their goal is to “convey the same containment relationship” (Lü and Fogarty, 2008) and effectively do so. Applying the idea of layout postprocessings to one-dimensional treemap layouts, the results are icicle plots (Kruskal and Landwehr, 1983), and with additional projection they can result in sunburst views (Stasko et al., 2000), and other derived techniques (Webber et al., 2006; Holten, 2006) (Figure 7). This is valid as implicit edge representations fulfill the containment property during layouting as well but the depiction in geometry space may drop the visual cues for containment (Johnson, 1993).

Mapped Tree. While all previously proposed categories use an implicit edge representation, there are tree visualization techniques that use other relation encoding techniques such as vicinity or explicit links (Schulz et al., 2013). Most of them share the invariant of overlap-free spatialization across node siblings, resulting in an unambiguous bidirectional mapping of the tree-structure to the depiction. Such a depiction is provided if the underlying tree layout is based on the property of containment, even if the resulting visualization does not encode the parent-child relationship using an implicit edge representation. Exemplary visualization techniques for the Mapped Tree category include space-optimized trees (Nguyen and Huang, 2002), contour maps (Kubota et al., 2006), and point-based tree depictions (Schulz et al., 2011b) (Figure 8). Assuming a bidirectional mapping of layout algorithms, “[c]ontainment based treemap algorithms […] form the core of a powerful and extensible grand unified theory of hierarchical visualization—the treemap” (Johnson, 1993).

4 DISCUSSION

When we categorize techniques of hierarchy visualization we aim at the most specific category. As an example, the appropriate category of a CodeCity visualization is a containment treemap $T_C$. Through the taxonomy’s hyponymous nature, the more general categories $T_F$ and $T_M$ are valid as well, and so is the category of general hierarchy visualization techniques $H$ (Figure 9). However, we want to argue for a more specific use of terms (Table 1).

The proposed taxonomy is derived from visual features of the visualization techniques. Common to all categories is the property of containment from their underlying layouts. As alternatives to the focus on visual features, the categorization could be based on the initial use of a containment-based layout. This would render all techniques that are classified as mapped trees $T_M$ as treemap.

The actual boundary between mapped trees $T_M$ and general hierarchy visualization techniques $H$ remains to be determined. We argue that only with a...
Figure 5: Examples of treemaps from the category Space-Filling Treemap. Image courtesy from left to right: (Hahn and Döllner, 2017), (de Berg et al., 2011), (Balzer et al., 2005), (Auber et al., 2013), and (Wattenberg, 2005).

Figure 6: Examples of treemaps from the category Containment Treemap. Image courtesy from left to right: (Itoh et al., 2004), (Scheibel et al., 2018), (Wettel and Lanza, 2007), (Wetzel, 2003), and (Slingsby et al., 2010).

Figure 7: Examples of treemaps from the category Implicit Edge-Representation Treemap. Image courtesy from left to right: (Stasko et al., 2000), (van Ham and van Wijk, 2003), (Holten, 2006), (Gregg, 2016), and (Steinbrückner and Lewerentz, 2013).

Figure 8: Examples of treemaps from the category Mapped Tree. Image courtesy from left to right: (Nguyen and Huang, 2002), (Tee Teoh and Kwan-Liu, 2002), (Andrews and Heidegger, 1998), (Toosi and Nikolov, 2014), and (Nguyen and Huang, 2005).
systematic top-down or bottom-up approach that adheres to the containment metaphor during layouting, the resulting visualization technique can result in a treemap. That is, hierarchy visualization techniques using other approaches may not ensure overlap-free sibling nodes for the underlying layouts, e.g., Pythagoras Trees (Beck et al., 2014). For those techniques, we observe their categorization as mapped tree \( \text{MT} \) as soon as they achieve overlap-free sibling nodes (Munz et al., 2019).

Regarding the mixed use of treemap visualization with other approaches, this taxonomy is explicitly designed ignorant. As a debatable example, the mixed-projection treemap could be categorized as either \( \text{TS} \) or \( \text{IE} \) (Limberger et al., 2017). Another example is the adjacent usage of treemaps by means of small multiples. It may not inherently render the whole visualization a treemap, although the composition could be labeled a space-filling treemap \( \text{TS} \) (Scheibel et al., 2016). A constrasting example thereto is the CodeSurveyor visualization that uses an overlap-free distribution of the uppermost level and, in fact, should be labeled a containment treemap \( \text{TC} \) (Hawes et al., 2015).

5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper proposes a taxonomy for treemap visualization techniques, namely \textit{Space-filling Treemap} \( \text{TS} \), \textit{Containment Treemap} \( \text{TC} \), \textit{Implicit Edge Representation Tree} \( \text{IE} \), and \textit{Mapped Tree} \( \text{MT} \). This is feasible because all associated techniques adhere to the property of \textit{containment}, either in their visual representation or in their underlying layout. Furthermore, the taxonomy should clarify the labeling of visualization techniques as treemaps and improve communication on their characteristics, visual metaphors, internally used algorithms, and interaction techniques.

As future work, the classification of existing hierarchy visualization techniques by means of the proposed taxonomy should be continued. We suggest to integrate the conceptual model of these different classes into hierarchy visualization systems and their APIs (Scheibel et al., 2019). Right now, we stimulate this discussion on a classification of treemaps and, probably, a broadening of the concept of treemaps and their role within the field of hierarchy visualization.

Table 1: An association of different hierarchy visualization techniques to the proposed taxonomy. For direct comparison, this table includes hierarchy visualization techniques \( H \) that are not covered by this taxonomy as well. The ● and ○ dots denote the most specific category and associated hyperonyms (more general categories), respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visualization Technique</th>
<th>Space-filling Treemap</th>
<th>Containment Treemap</th>
<th>Implicit Edge Representation Tree</th>
<th>Mapped Tree</th>
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<td>BeamTree (van Ham and van Wijk, 2003)</td>
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<td>Bundle View (Holten, 2006)</td>
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<td>Cactus Tree (Dang and Forbes, 2017)</td>
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<td>CodeCity (Wettel and Lanza, 2008)</td>
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<td>Contrast Treemaps (Tu and Shen, 2007)</td>
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<td>Data Jewelry Box (Ioh et al., 2004)</td>
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<td>Ellimaps (Collin et al., 2007)</td>
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<td>EvoCells (Scheibel et al., 2018)</td>
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<td>Flame Graph (Gregg, 2016)</td>
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<td>Gosper Map (Auber et al., 2013)</td>
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<td>Icicle Plot (Kraskal and Landwehr, 1983)</td>
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<td>Information Slices (Andrews and Heidegger, 1998)</td>
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<td>Overlap-free Pythagoras Tree (Munz et al., 2019)</td>
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<td>Pebbles Treemap (Wetzel, 2003)</td>
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<td>Quantum Treemaps (Bederson et al., 2002)</td>
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<td>Software Cities (Steinbruckner and Lewerentz, 2013)</td>
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<td>Space-Optimized Tree (Nguyen and Huang, 2002)</td>
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<td>Stable Voronoi Treemap (Hahn et al., 2014)</td>
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<td>Treemaps with Bound Aspect Ratio (de Berg et al., 2011)</td>
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<td>Voronoi Treemap (Balzer et al., 2005)</td>
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was partially funded by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy (BMWi, ZIM) within the project “TASAM”.

REFERENCES


