

# CS 247 – Scientific Visualization

## Lecture 13: Scalar Fields, Pt.9

Markus Hadwiger, KAUST



# Reading Assignment #7 (until Mar 14)

Read (required):

- Real-Time Volume Graphics, Chapter 1  
*(Theoretical Background and Basic Approaches)*,  
from beginning to 1.4.4 (inclusive)

Read (optional):

- Paper:  
*Nelson Max, Optical Models for Direct Volume Rendering,*  
*IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics, 1995*  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/2945.468400>



## Interlude: Tensor Calculus

In tensor calculus, first-order tensors can be

- Contravariant
- Covariant

$$\mathbf{v} = v^i \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = v_i \boldsymbol{\omega}^i$$

The gradient vector is a contravariant vector

$$\mathbf{v} = v^i \boldsymbol{\partial}_i$$

The gradient 1-form is a covariant vector (a covector)       $df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i$

Very powerful; necessary for non-Cartesian coordinate systems

On (intrinsically) curved manifolds (sphere, ...):  
Cartesian coordinates not even possible



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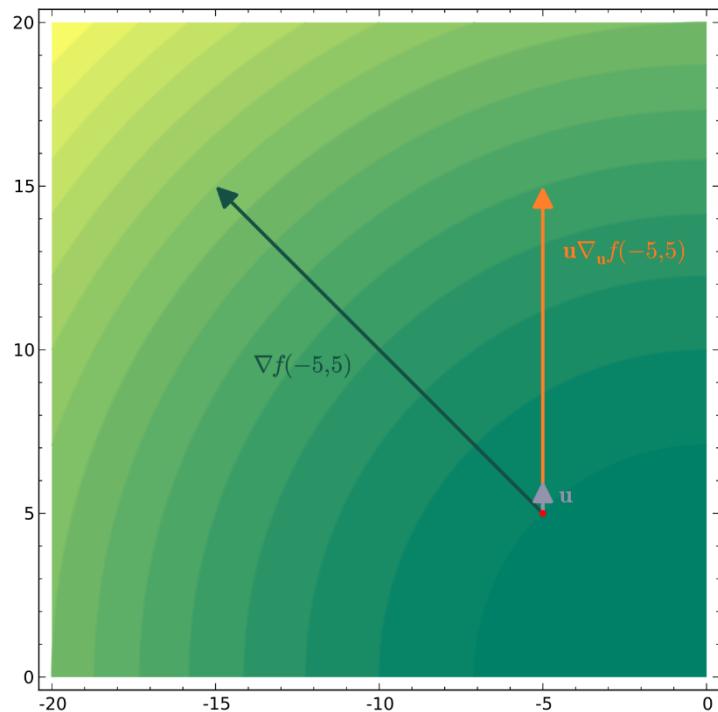
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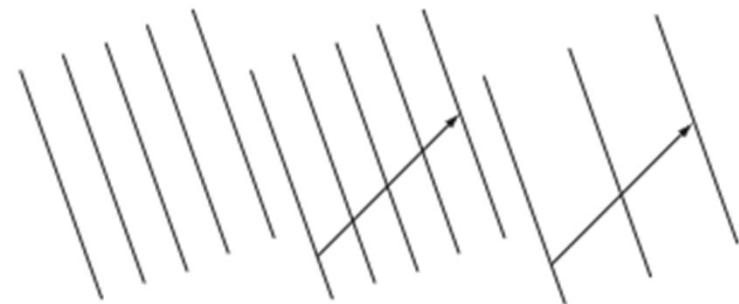
This is also the fundamental reason why in graphics a normal vector transforms differently: as a covector, not as a vector!

(typical graphics rule:  $\mathbf{n}$  transforms with transpose of inverse matrix)

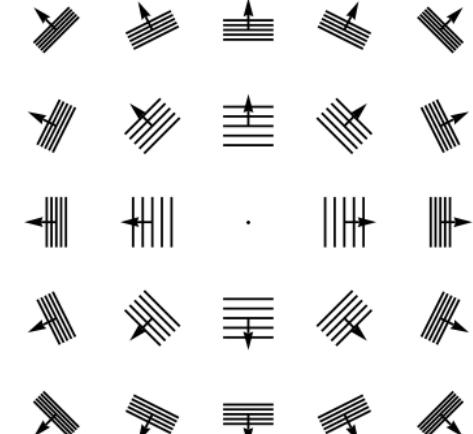
# Gradient Vectors and Differential 1-Forms



different 1-forms  
evaluated in some direction



1-form (field)  $df$



from Wikipedia (for  $\mathbf{u}$  a unit vector),  
the function here is  $f(r, \theta) = r^2$

$$\nabla f(r, \theta) = 2r \mathbf{e}_r + 0 \frac{1}{r^2} \mathbf{e}_\theta = 2r \mathbf{e}_r$$

$$df(r, \theta) = 2r dr + 0 d\theta = 2r dr$$



# Gradient Vector from Differential 1-Form

The metric (and inverse metric) *lower or raise* indices  
(i.e., convert between covariant and contravariant tensors)

$$v^i = g^{ij} v_j$$

$$v_i = g_{ij} v^j$$

$$v^i \mathbf{e}_i = g^{ij} v_j \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$v_i \boldsymbol{\omega}^i = g_{ij} v^j \boldsymbol{\omega}^i$$

Inverse metric (contravariant)

$$[g^{ij}] = [g_{ij}]^{-1}$$

$$g^{ik} g_{kj} = \delta_j^i$$

Kronecker delta behaves  
like identity matrix



# Gradient Vector from Differential 1-Form

So the gradient vector is

$$\nabla f = \left( g^{ij} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \right) \mathbf{e}_i$$

*Vector-valued 1-form*

$$d\mathbf{r} = dx^i \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$d\mathbf{r}(\cdot) = dx^i(\cdot) \mathbf{e}_i$$

Directional derivative via inner product:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \nabla f, \cdot \rangle &= g_{kj} g^{ik} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^j(\cdot) \\ &= \delta_j^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^j(\cdot) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i(\cdot)\end{aligned}$$

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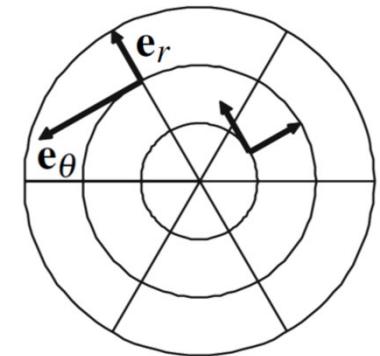


# Example: Polar Coordinates

Metric tensor and inverse metric for polar coordinates

$$g_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & r^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g^{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{r^2} \end{bmatrix}$$



Gradient vector from 1-form: raise index with inverse metric

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{r^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_r \\ \mathbf{e}_\theta \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \mathbf{e}_r + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \mathbf{e}_\theta$$

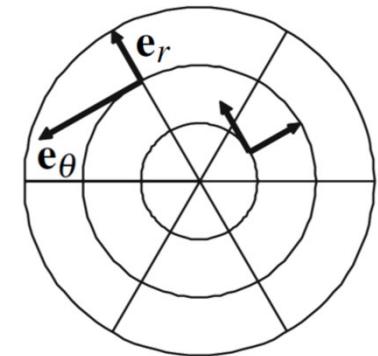


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Gradient vector from 1-form: raise index with inverse metric

$$\nabla f(r, \theta) = \frac{\partial f(r, \theta)}{\partial r} \mathbf{e}_r(r, \theta) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial f(r, \theta)}{\partial \theta} \mathbf{e}_\theta(r, \theta)$$

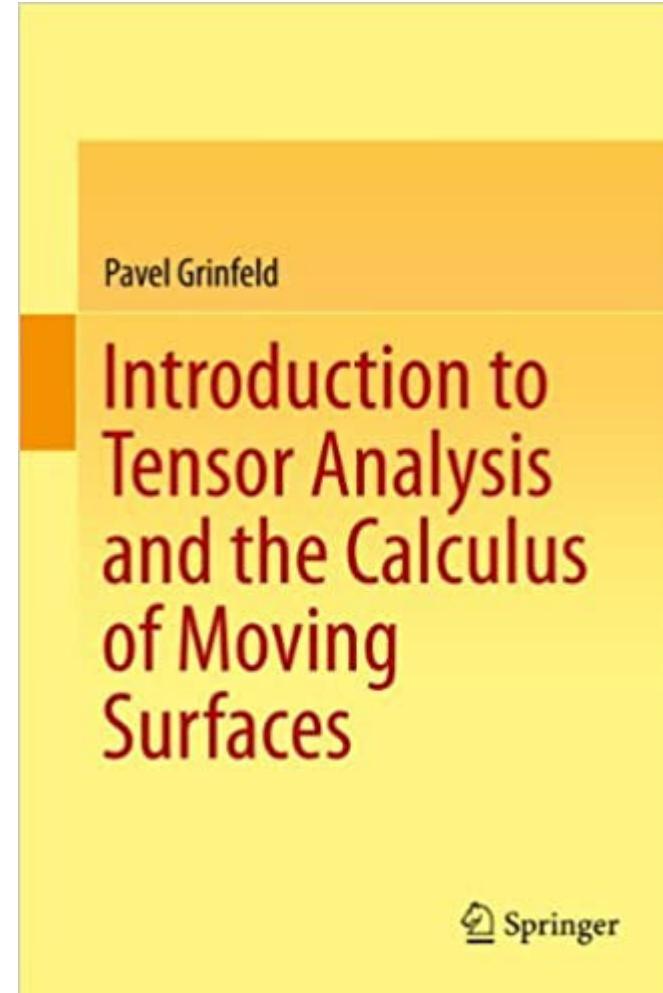
don't forget that all of this is position-dependent!

# Tensor Calculus



Highly recommended:

Very nice book,  
complete lecture on Youtube!



# Multi-Linear Interpolation

# Bi-linear Filtering Example (Magnification)



Original image



Nearest neighbor

Eduard Gröller, Stefan Jeschke

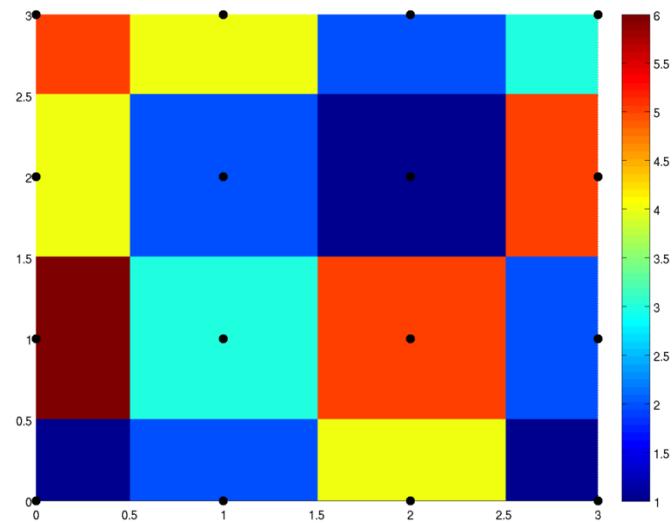


Bi-linear filtering

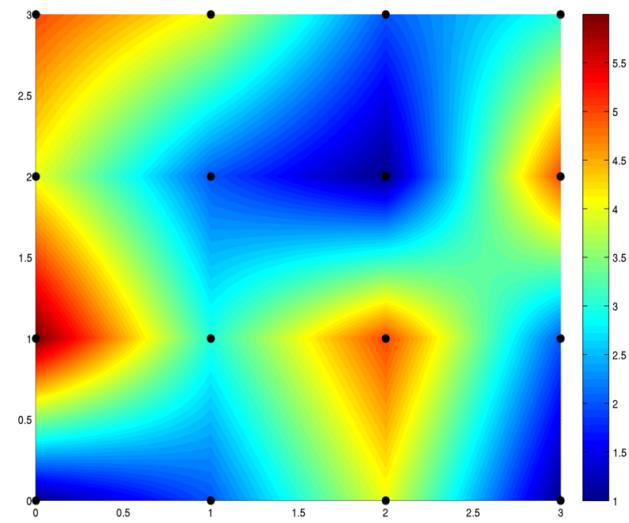




# Bi-Linear Interpolation vs. Nearest Neighbor



nearest-neighbor

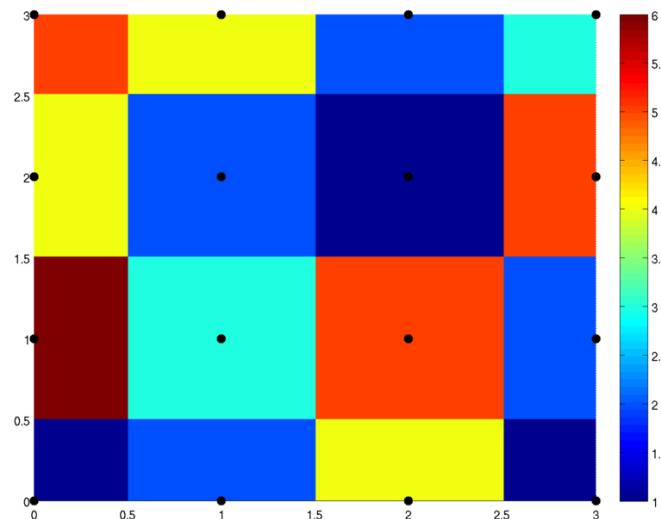


bi-linear

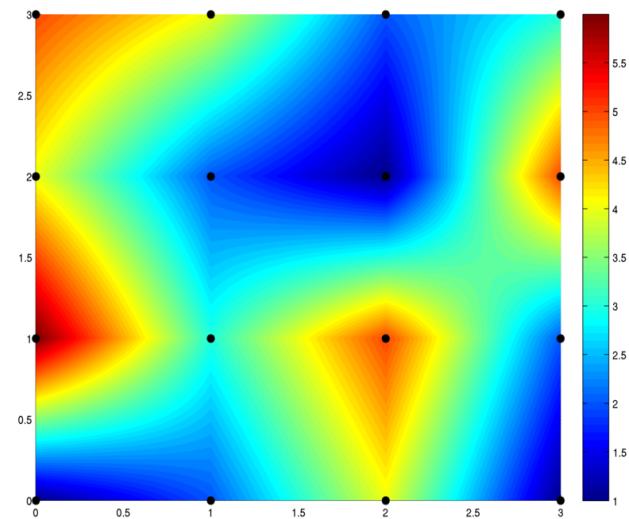
wikipedia



# Bi-Linear Interpolation vs. Nearest Neighbor



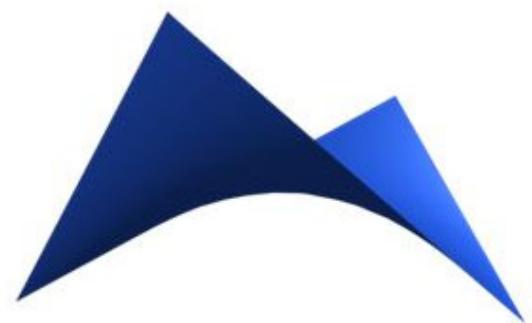
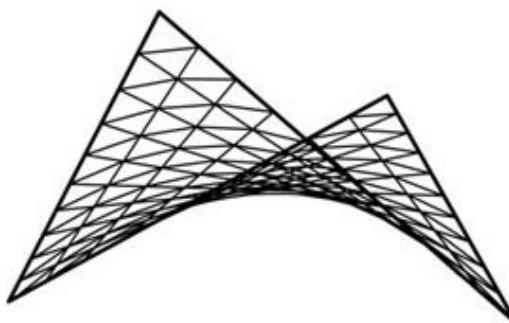
nearest-neighbor



bi-linear

wikipedia

for surfaces,  
height interpolation:

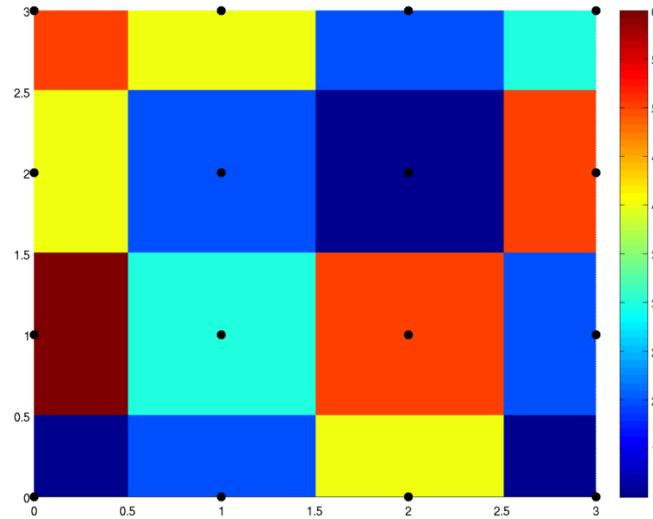


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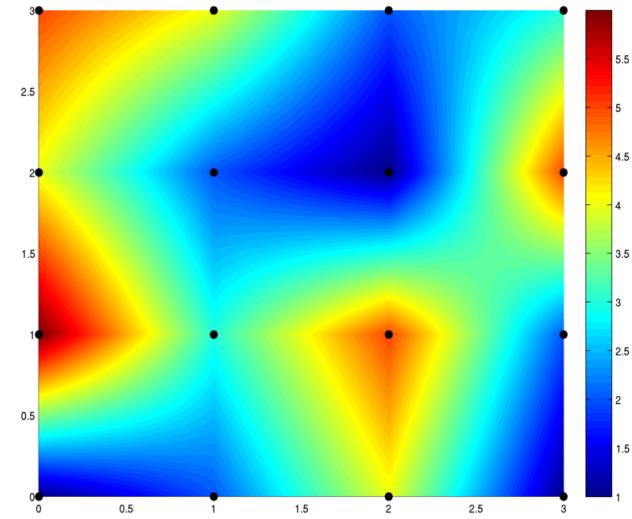
Bilinear patch (courtesy J. Han)



# Bi-Linear Interpolation vs. Nearest Neighbor



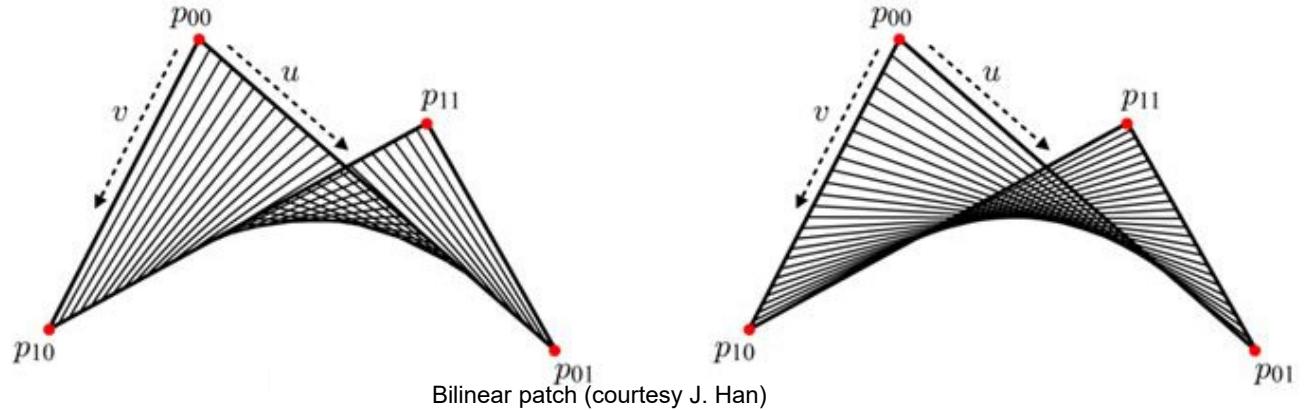
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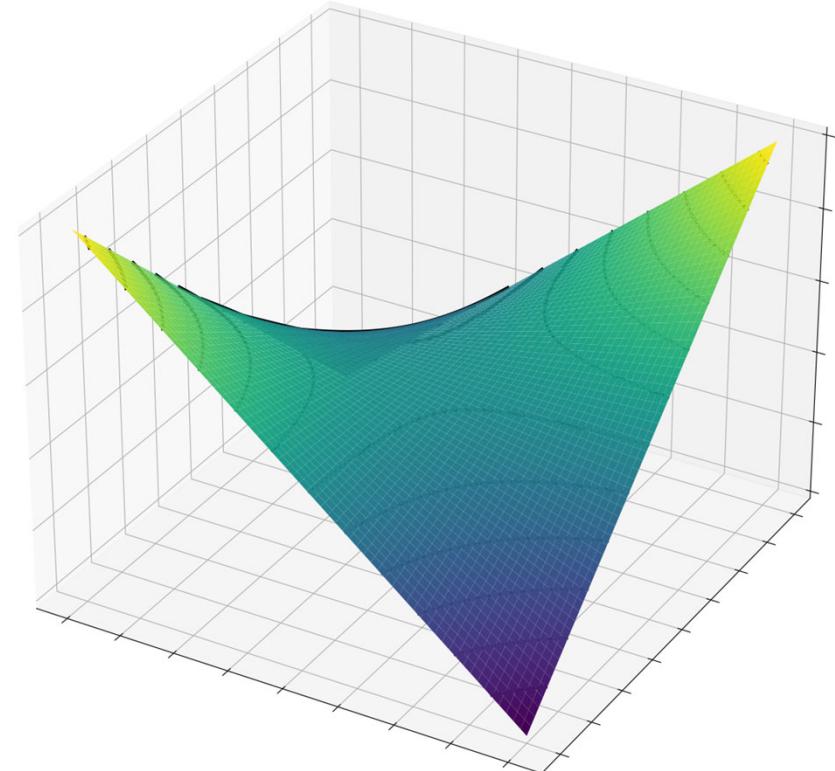
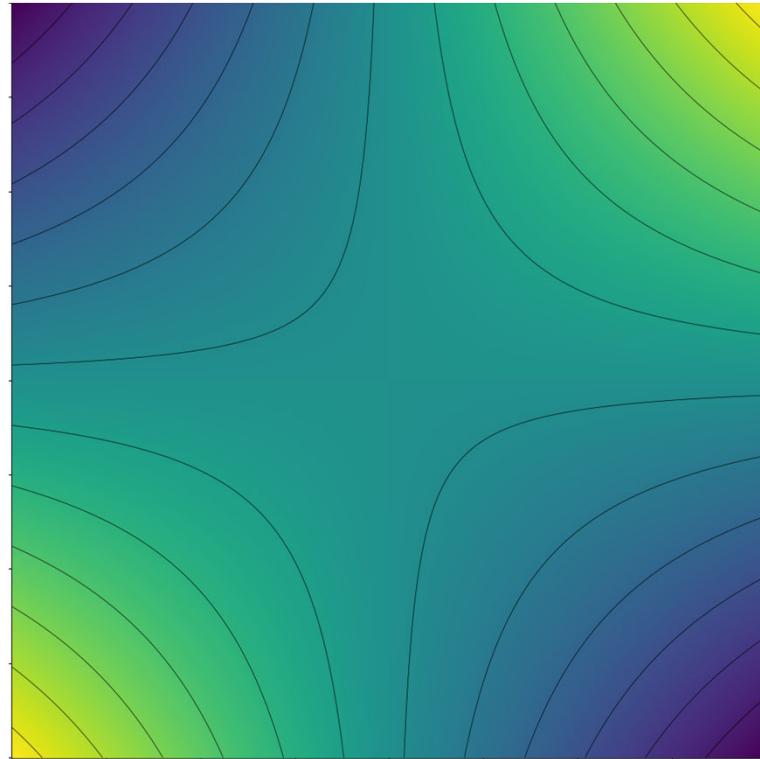
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# Bi-Linear Interpolation

Consider area between 2x2 adjacent samples (e.g., pixel centers)

Example #1: 1 at bottom-left and top-right, 0 at top-left and bottom-right

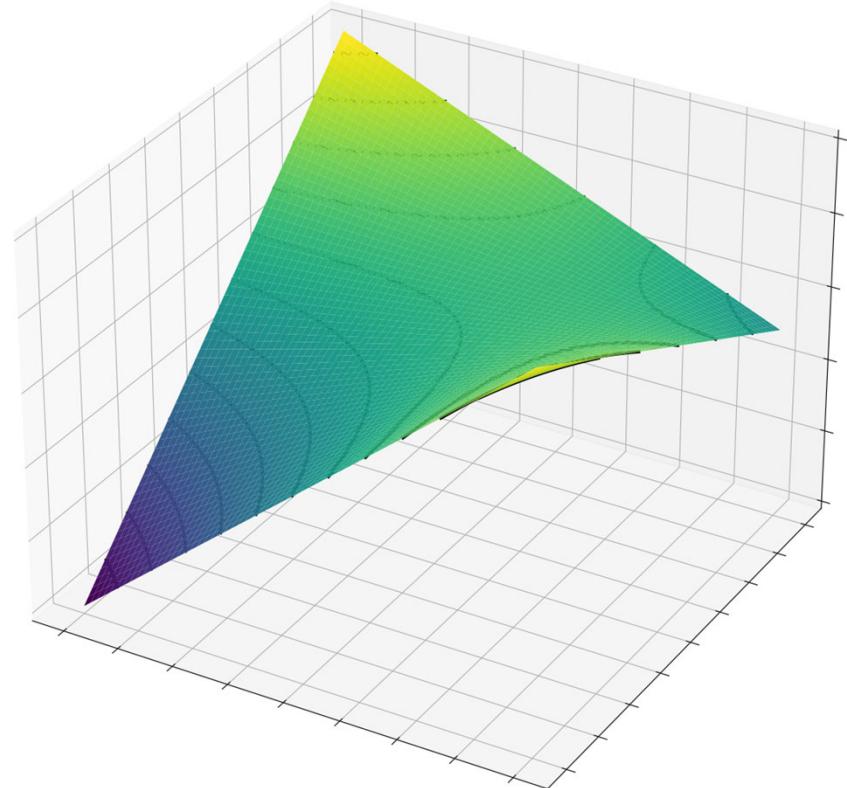
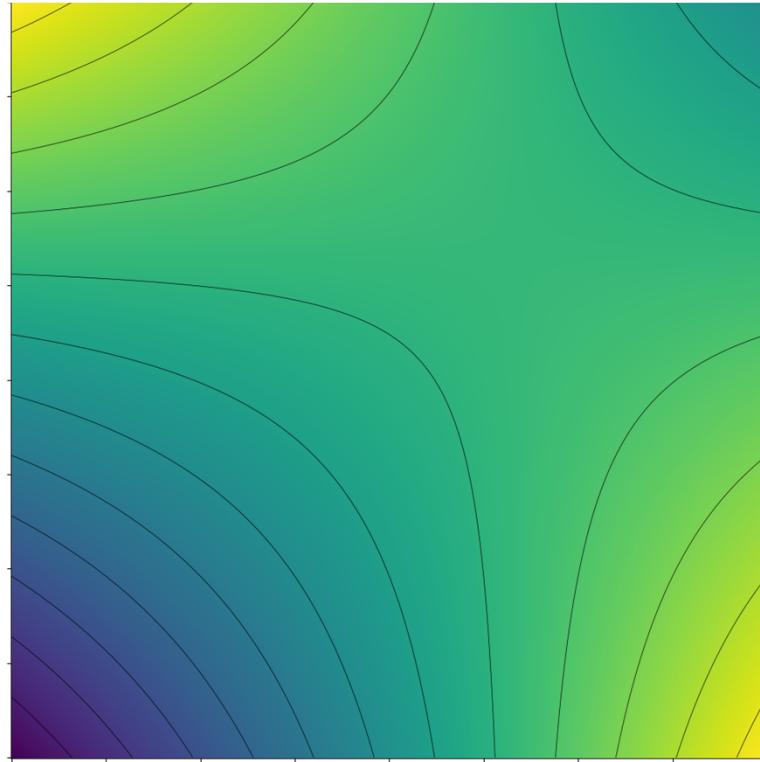




# Bi-Linear Interpolation

Consider area between 2x2 adjacent samples (e.g., pixel centers)

Example #2: 1 at top-left and bottom-right, 0 at bottom-left, 0.5 at top-right





# Bi-Linear Interpolation

Consider area between 2x2 adjacent samples (e.g., pixel centers):

Given any (fractional) position

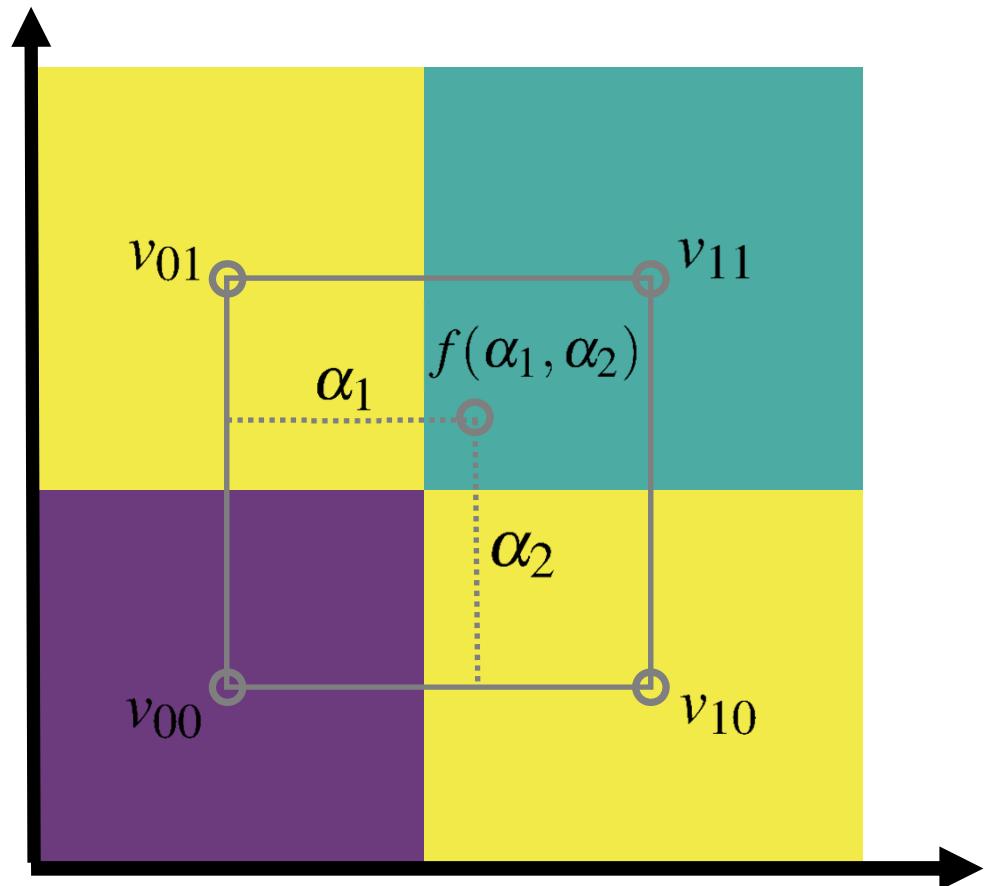
$$\alpha_1 := x_1 - \lfloor x_1 \rfloor \quad \alpha_1 \in [0.0, 1.0]$$

$$\alpha_2 := x_2 - \lfloor x_2 \rfloor \quad \alpha_2 \in [0.0, 1.0]$$

and 2x2 sample values

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{01} & v_{11} \\ v_{00} & v_{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute:  $f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$





# Bi-Linear Interpolation

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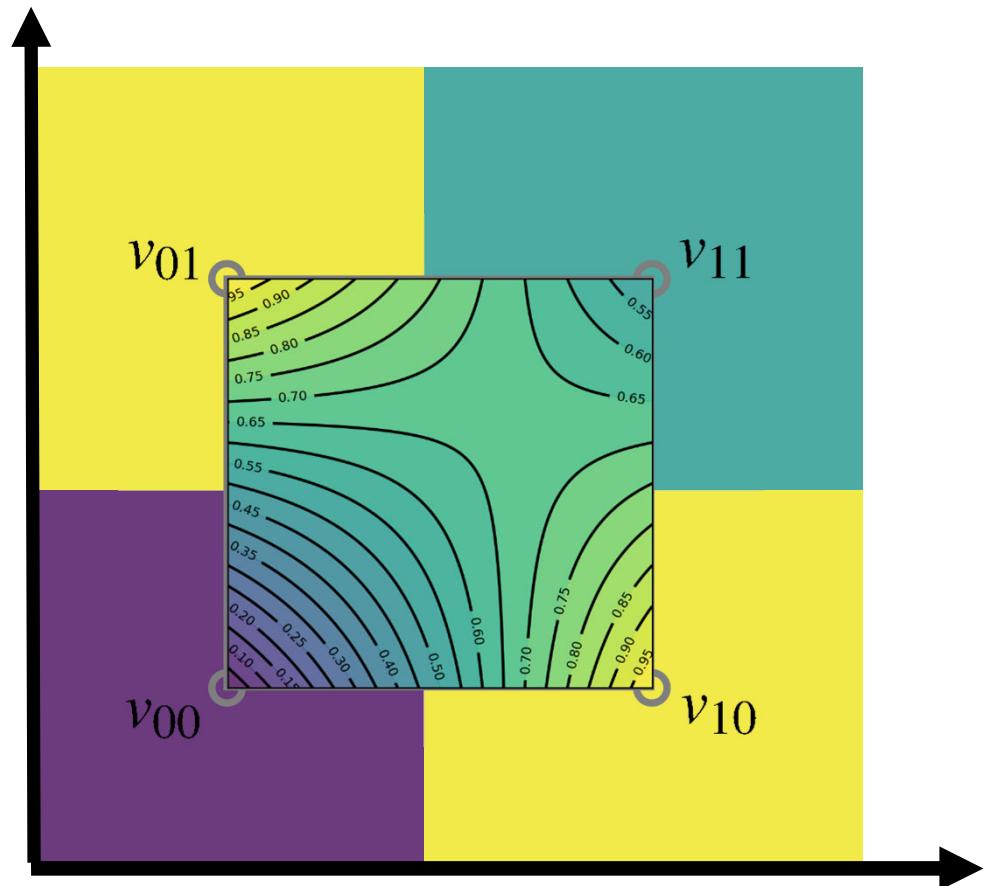
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Compute:  $f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$





# Bi-Linear Interpolation

Interpolate function at (fractional) position  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) &= [\alpha_2 \quad (1 - \alpha_2)] \begin{bmatrix} v_{01} & v_{11} \\ v_{00} & v_{10} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (1 - \alpha_1) \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [\alpha_2 \quad (1 - \alpha_2)] \begin{bmatrix} (1 - \alpha_1)v_{01} + \alpha_1 v_{11} \\ (1 - \alpha_1)v_{00} + \alpha_1 v_{10} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [\alpha_2 v_{01} + (1 - \alpha_2)v_{00} \quad \alpha_2 v_{11} + (1 - \alpha_2)v_{10}] \begin{bmatrix} (1 - \alpha_1) \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$



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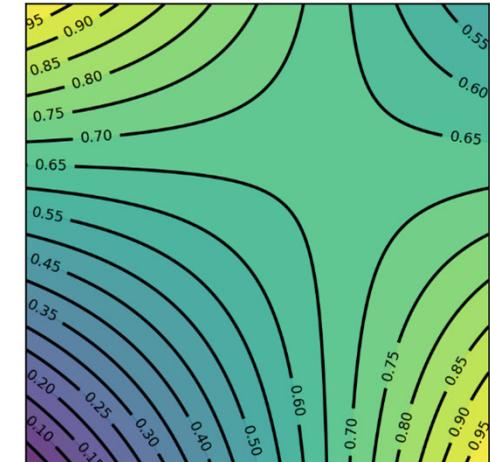
# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Contours

Find one specific iso-contour (can of course do this for any/all isovales):

$$f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) = c$$

Find all  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$  where:

$$v_{00} + \alpha_1(v_{10} - v_{00}) + \alpha_2(v_{01} - v_{00}) + \alpha_1\alpha_2(v_{00} + v_{11} - v_{10} - v_{01}) = c$$



# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Critical Points



Compute gradient (critical points are where gradient is zero vector):

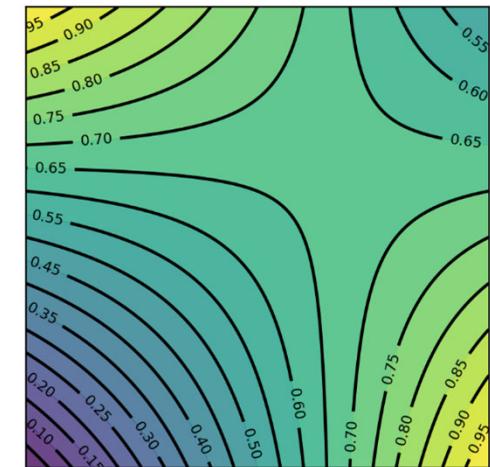
$$\frac{\partial f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)}{\partial \alpha_1} = (v_{10} - v_{00}) + \alpha_2(v_{00} + v_{11} - v_{10} - v_{01})$$

$$\frac{\partial f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)}{\partial \alpha_2} = (v_{01} - v_{00}) + \alpha_1(v_{00} + v_{11} - v_{10} - v_{01})$$

Where are lines of constant value / critical points?

$$\frac{\partial f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)}{\partial \alpha_1} = 0 : \quad \alpha_2 = \frac{v_{00} - v_{10}}{v_{00} + v_{11} - v_{10} - v_{01}}$$

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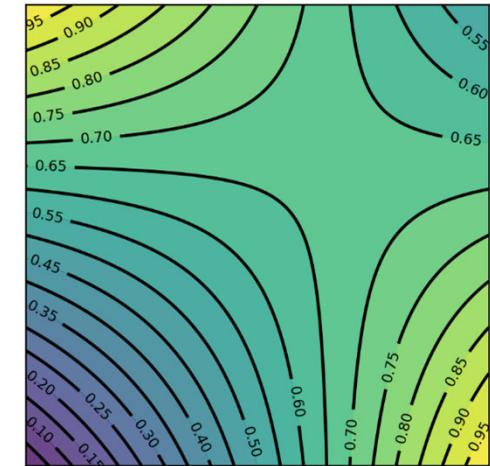
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if denominator is zero, bi-linear interpolation has degenerated to linear interpolation (or const)! (also means: no isolated critical points!)





# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Critical Points

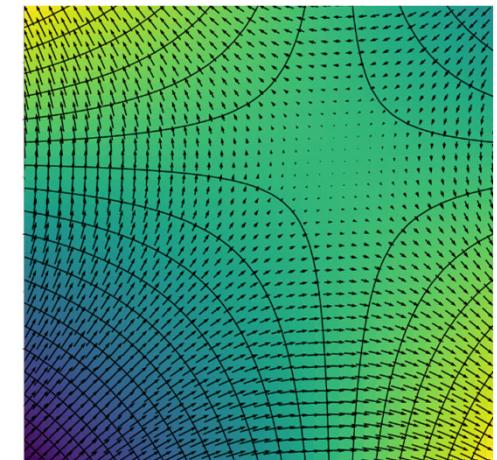
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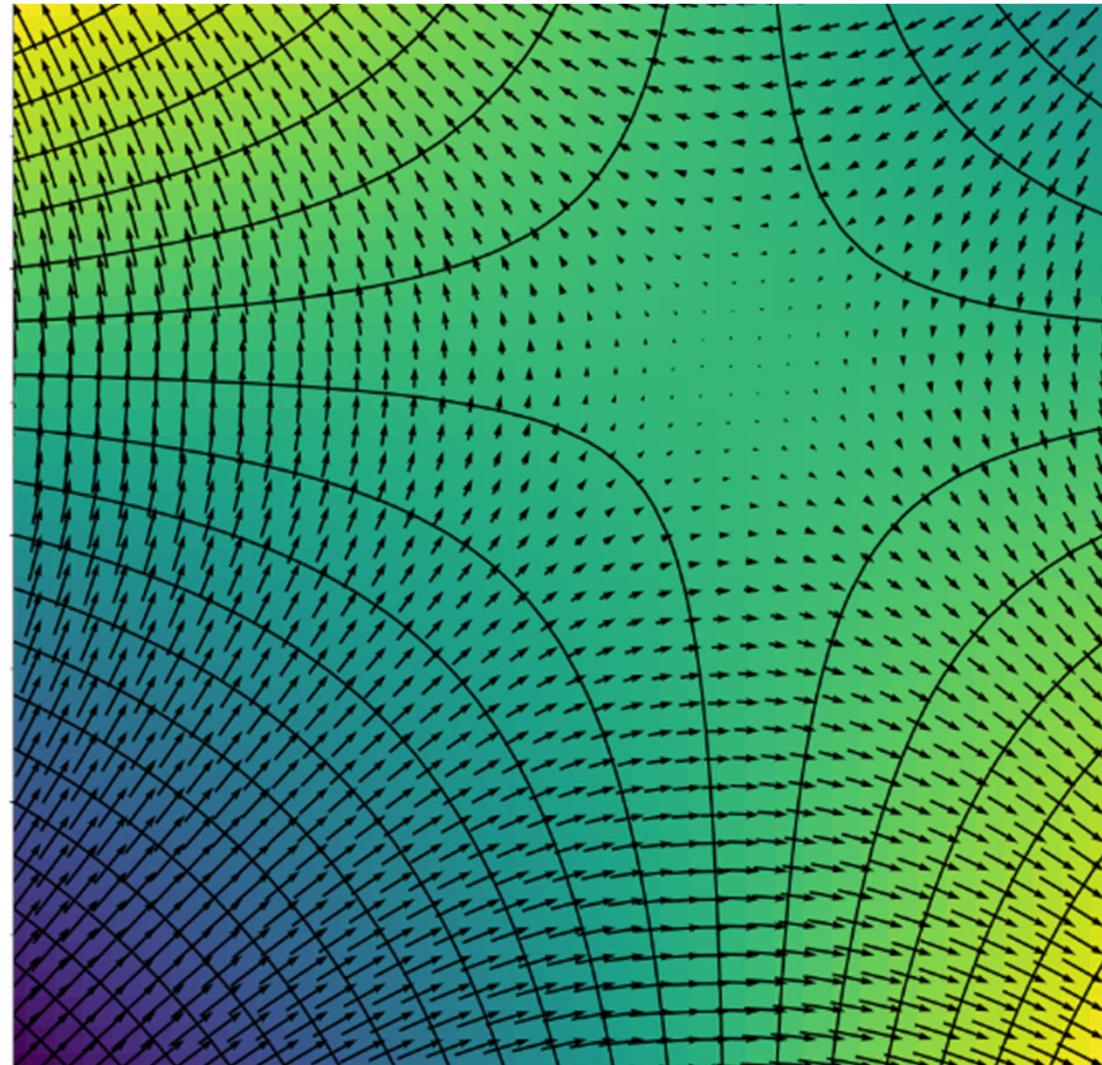
# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Critical Points

Compute gradient

Note that isolines are  
farther apart where  
gradient is smaller

Note the horizontal and  
vertical lines where  
gradient becomes  
vertical/horizontal

Note the critical point





# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Critical Points

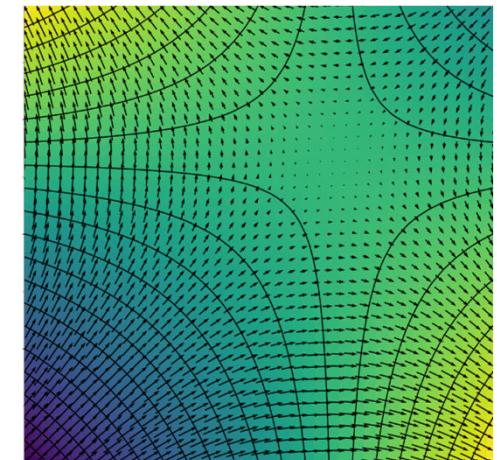
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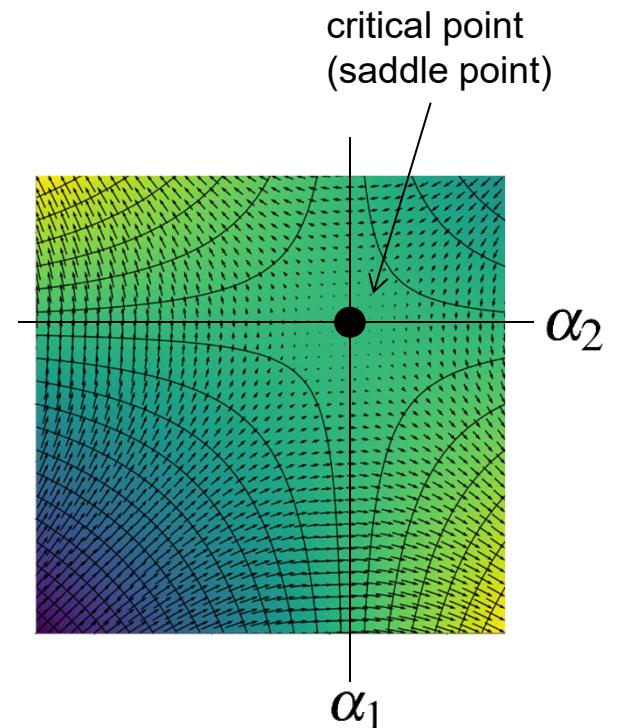
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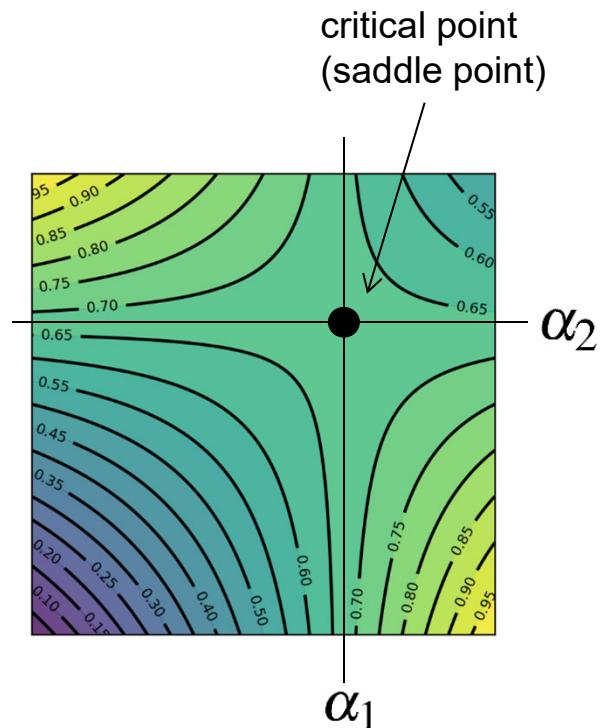
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# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Critical Points

Examine Hessian matrix at critical point (non-degenerate critical p.?, ...)

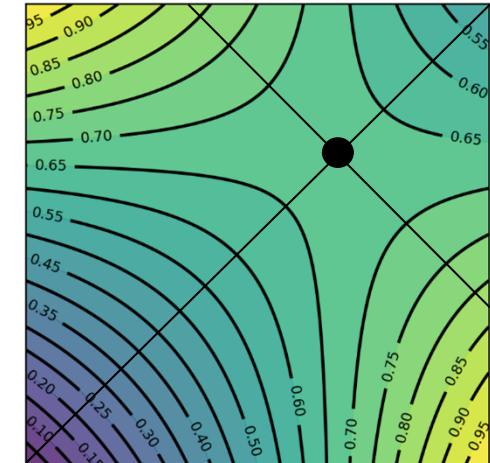
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \alpha_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \alpha_1 \partial \alpha_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \alpha_2 \partial \alpha_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \alpha_2^2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a \\ a & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad a = v_{00} + v_{11} - v_{10} - v_{01}$$

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors (Hessian is symmetric: always real)

$$\lambda_1 = -a \text{ and } \lambda_2 = a$$

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(here also: principal curvature magnitudes and directions  
of this function's graph == surface embedded in 3D)





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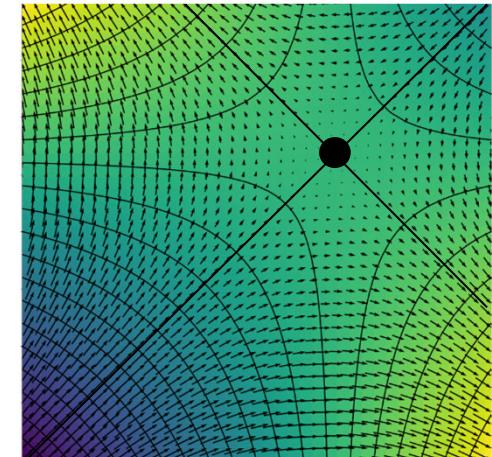
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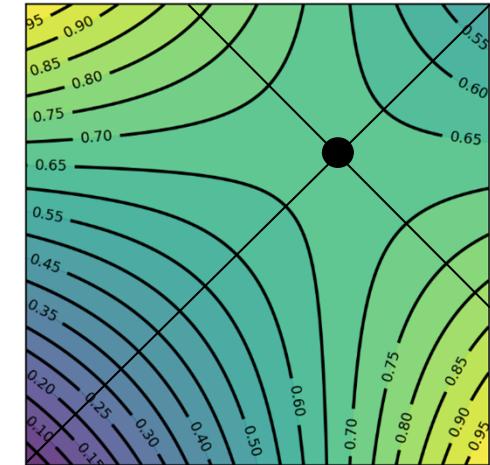
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$$\lambda_1 = -a \text{ and } \lambda_2 = a$$

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

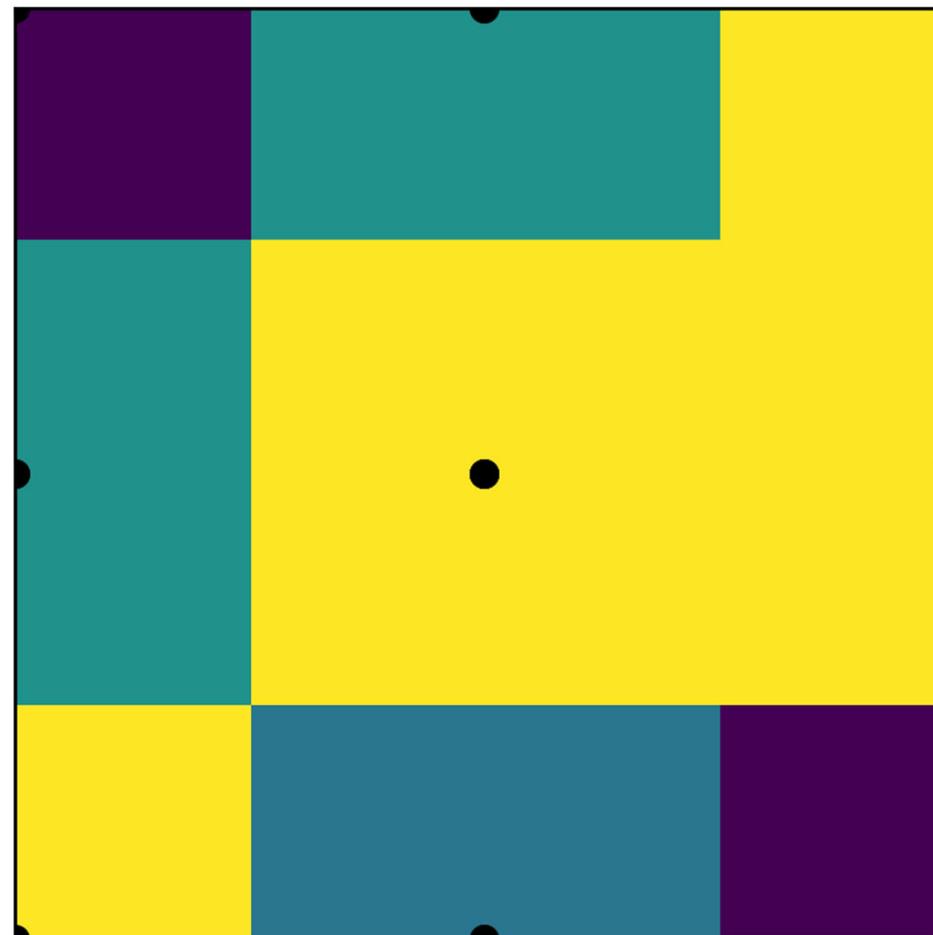
degenerate means determinant = 0 (at least one eigenvalue = 0);  
bi-linear is simple:  $a = 0$  means degenerated to  
linear anyway: no critical point at all! (except constant function)  
(but with more than one cell: can have max or min at vertices)



# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



nearest-neighbor

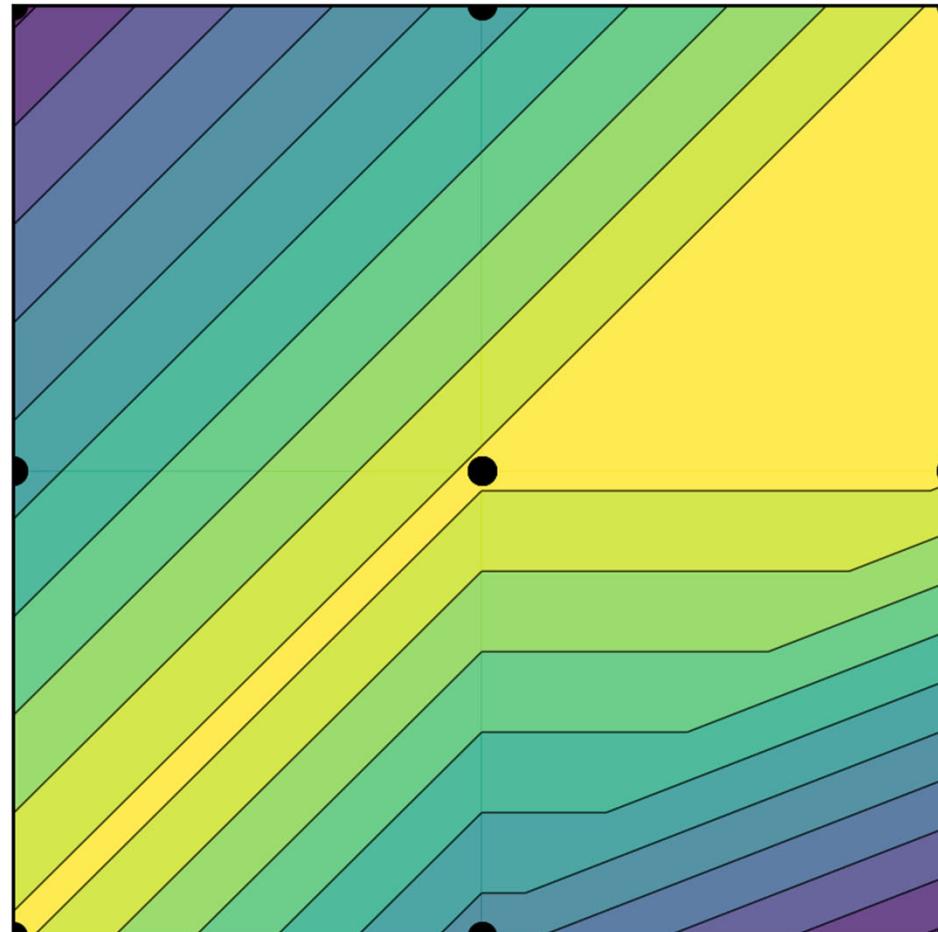


# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



linear

(2 triangles per quad;  
diagonal:  
bottom-left,  
top-right)

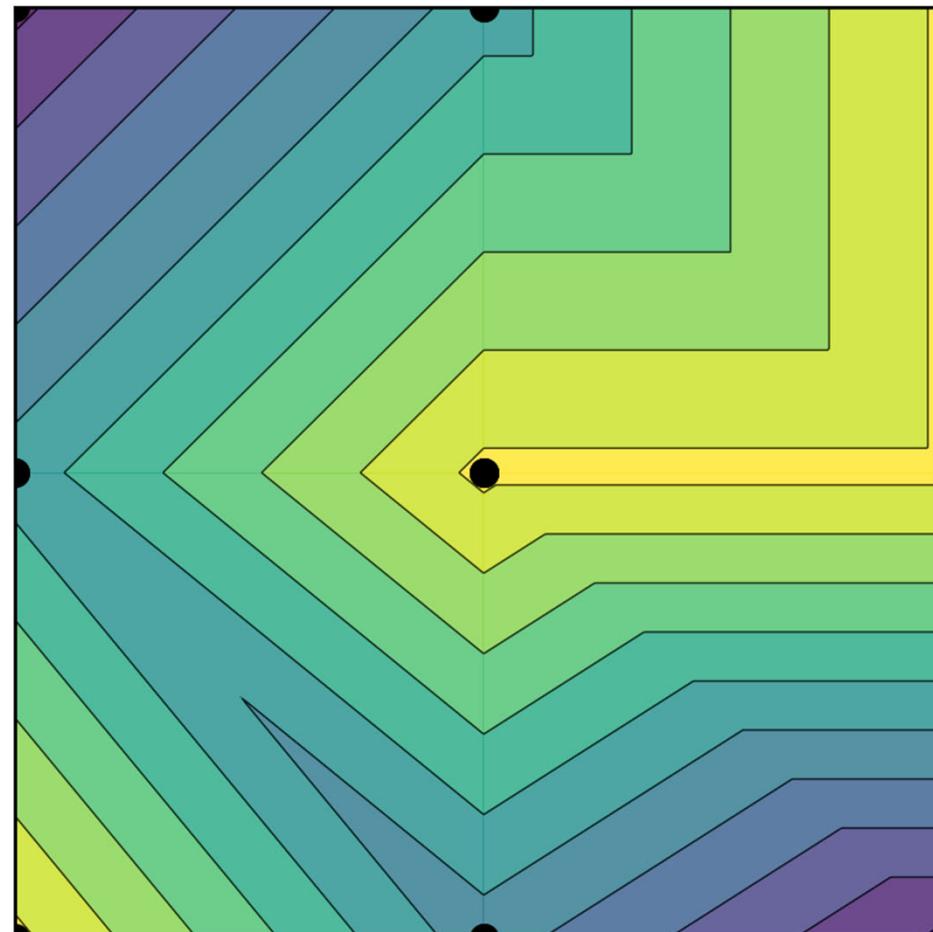




# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons

linear

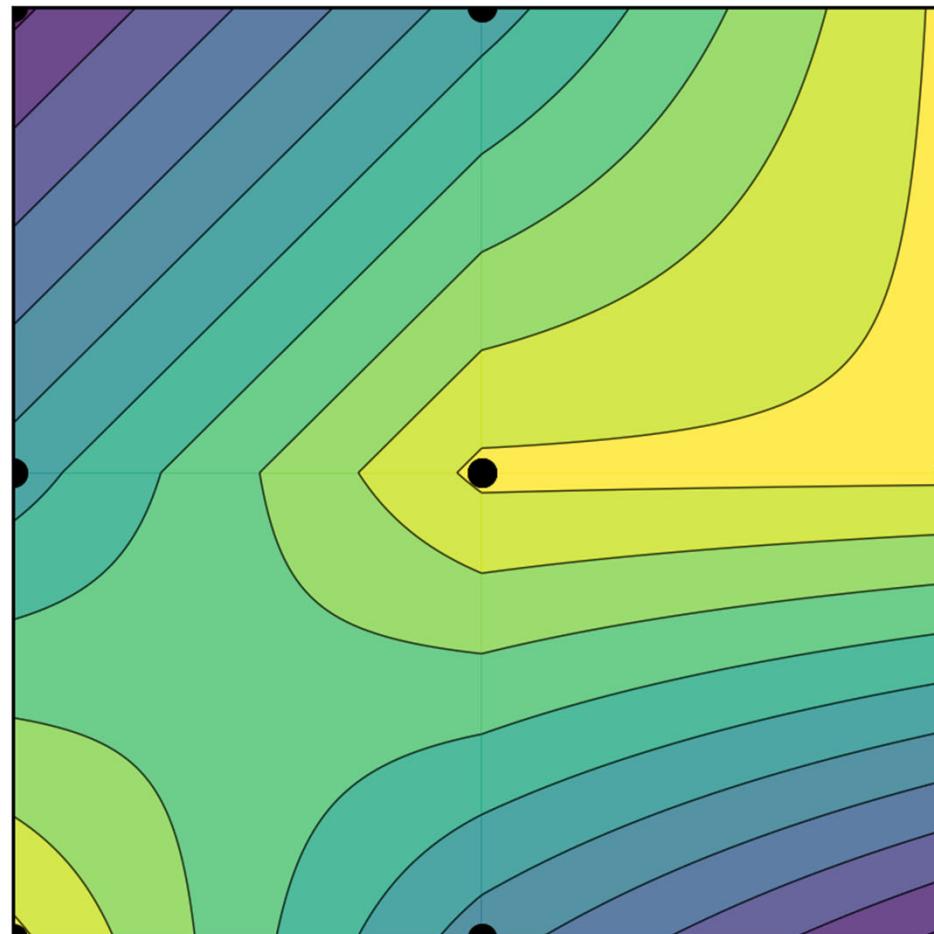
(2 triangles per quad;  
diagonal:  
top-left,  
bottom-right)



# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



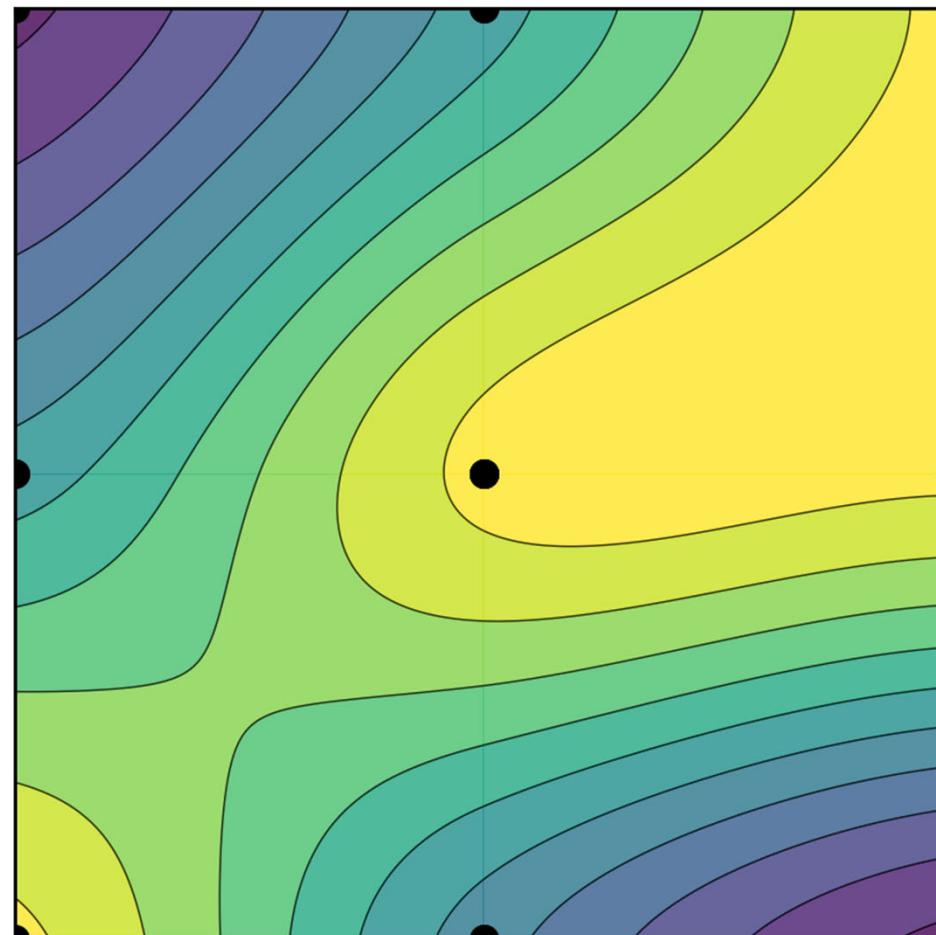
bi-linear



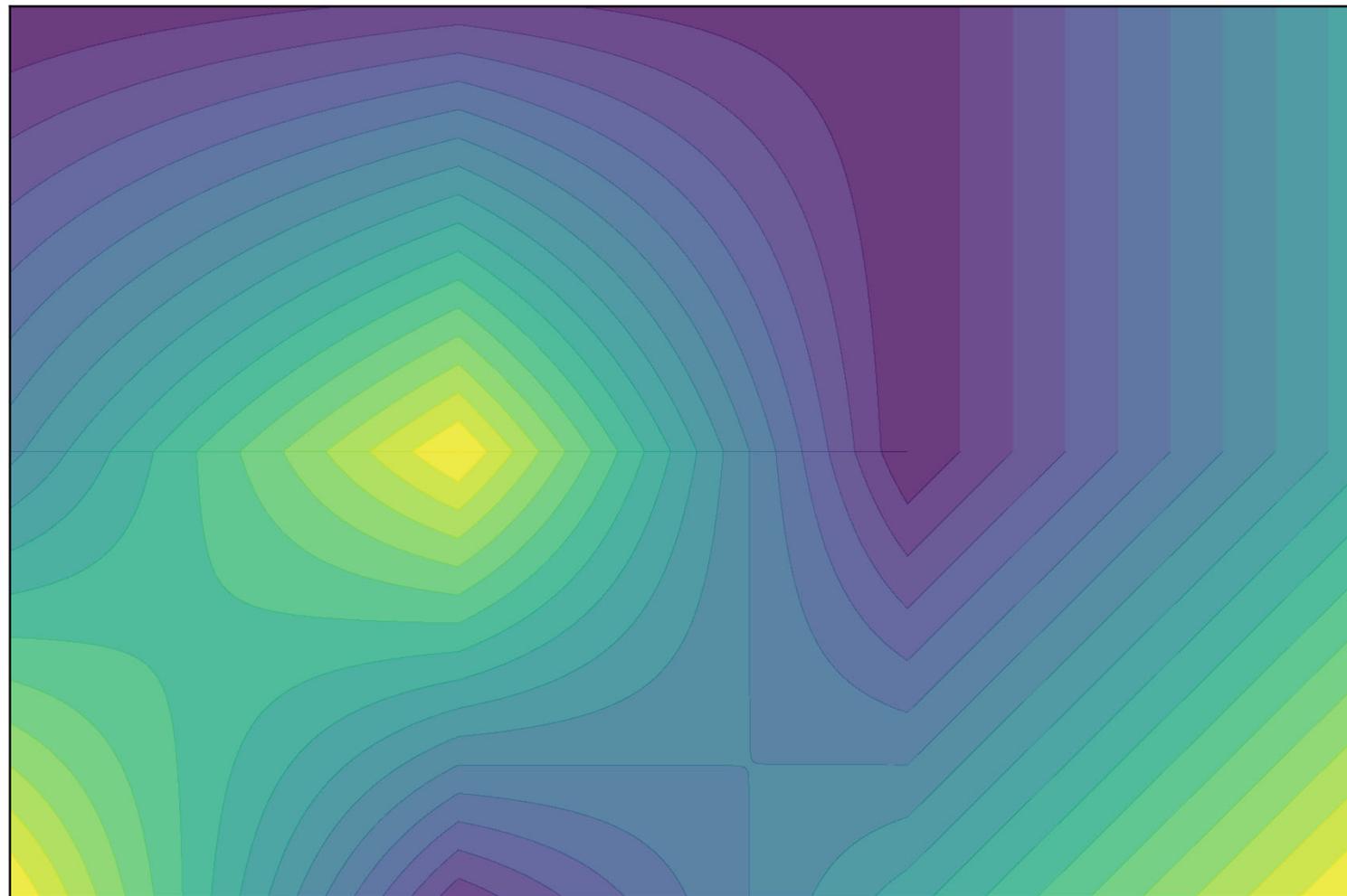
# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



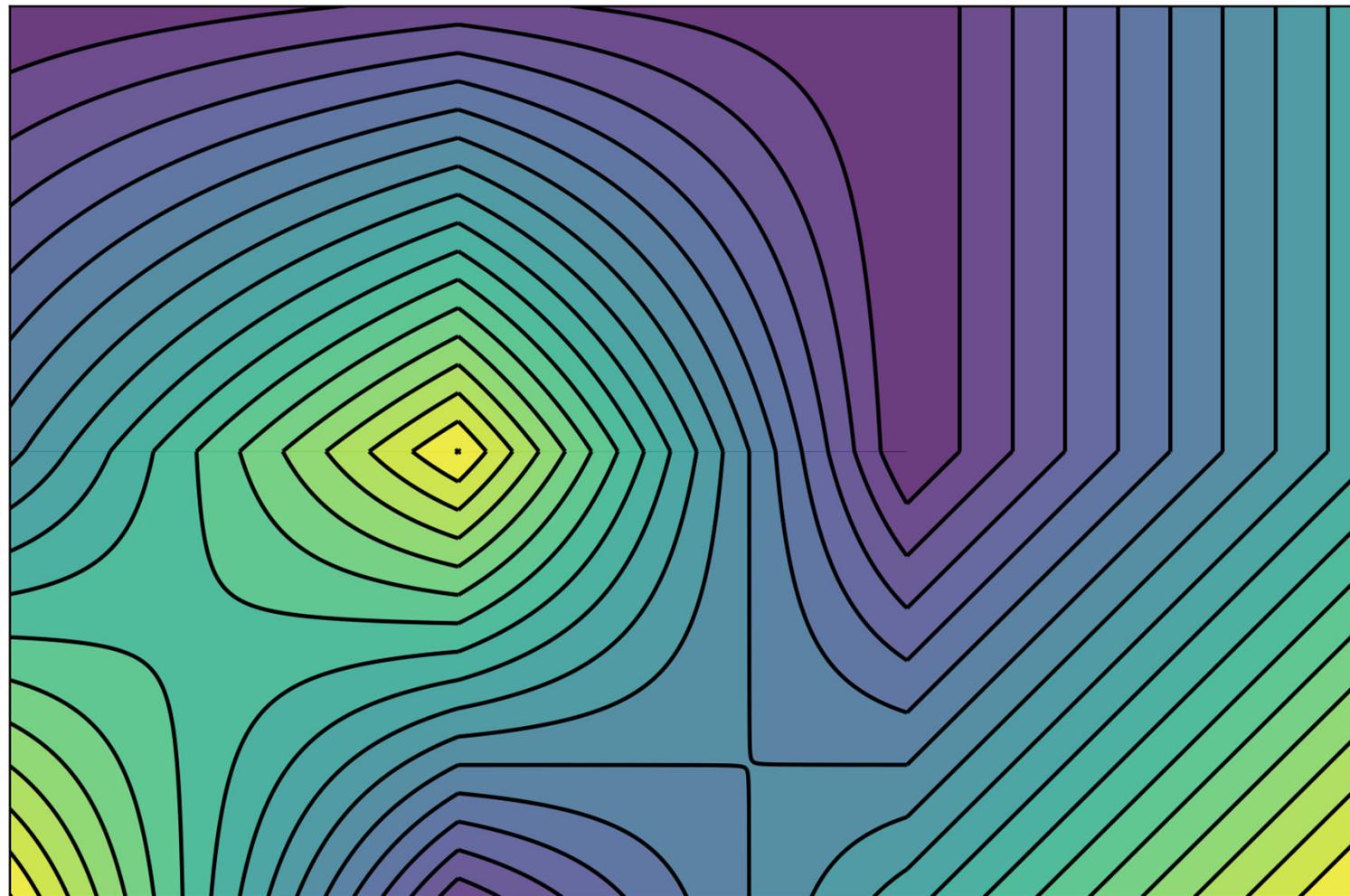
bi-cubic  
(Catmull-Rom spline)



# Piecewise Bi-Linear (Example: 3x2 Cells)

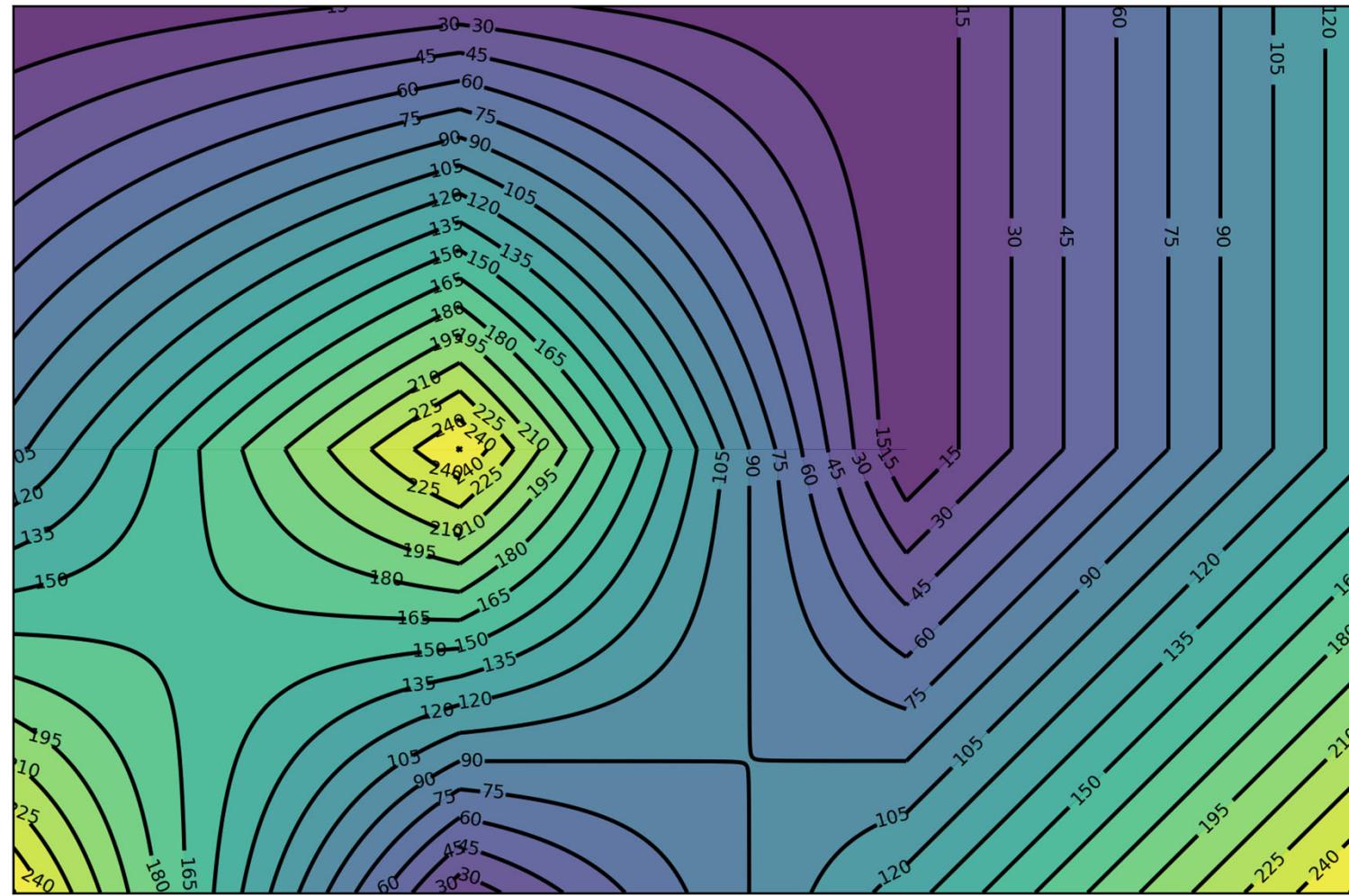


# Piecewise Bi-Linear (Example: 3x2 Cells)

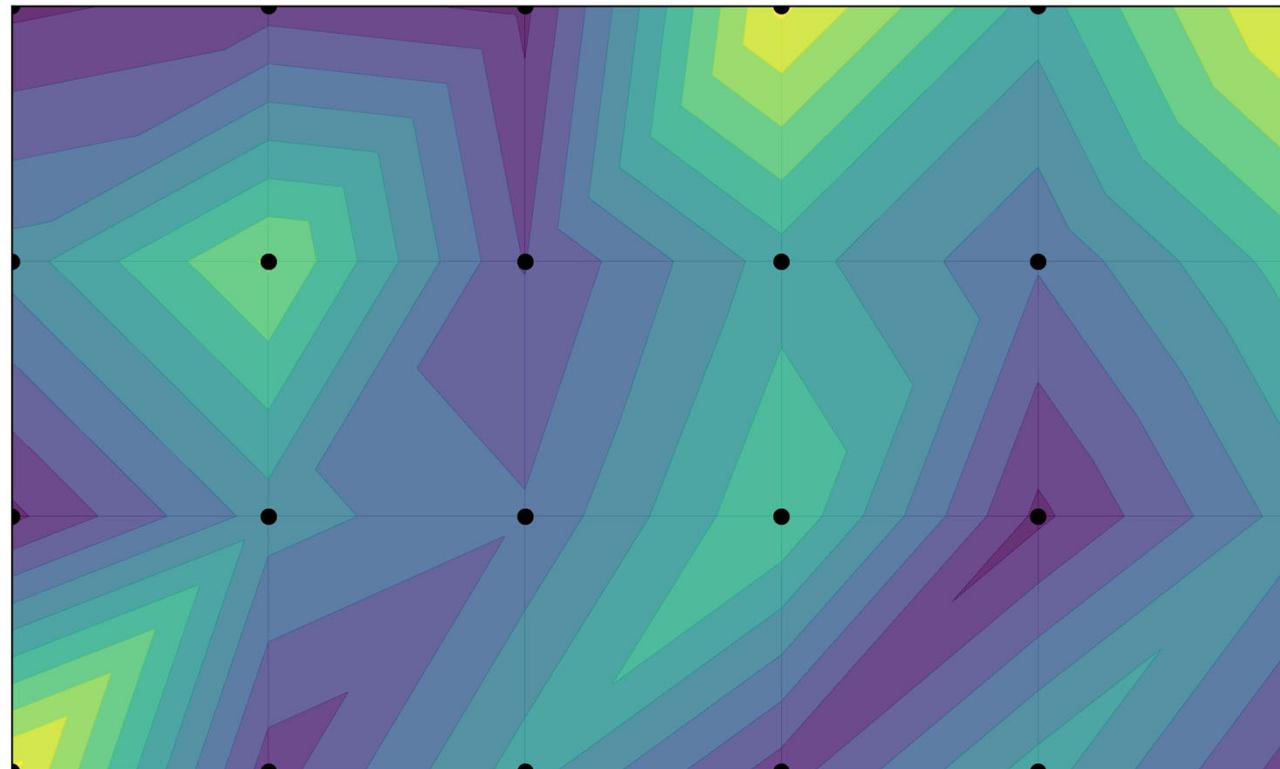




# Piecewise Bi-Linear (Example: 3x2 Cells)

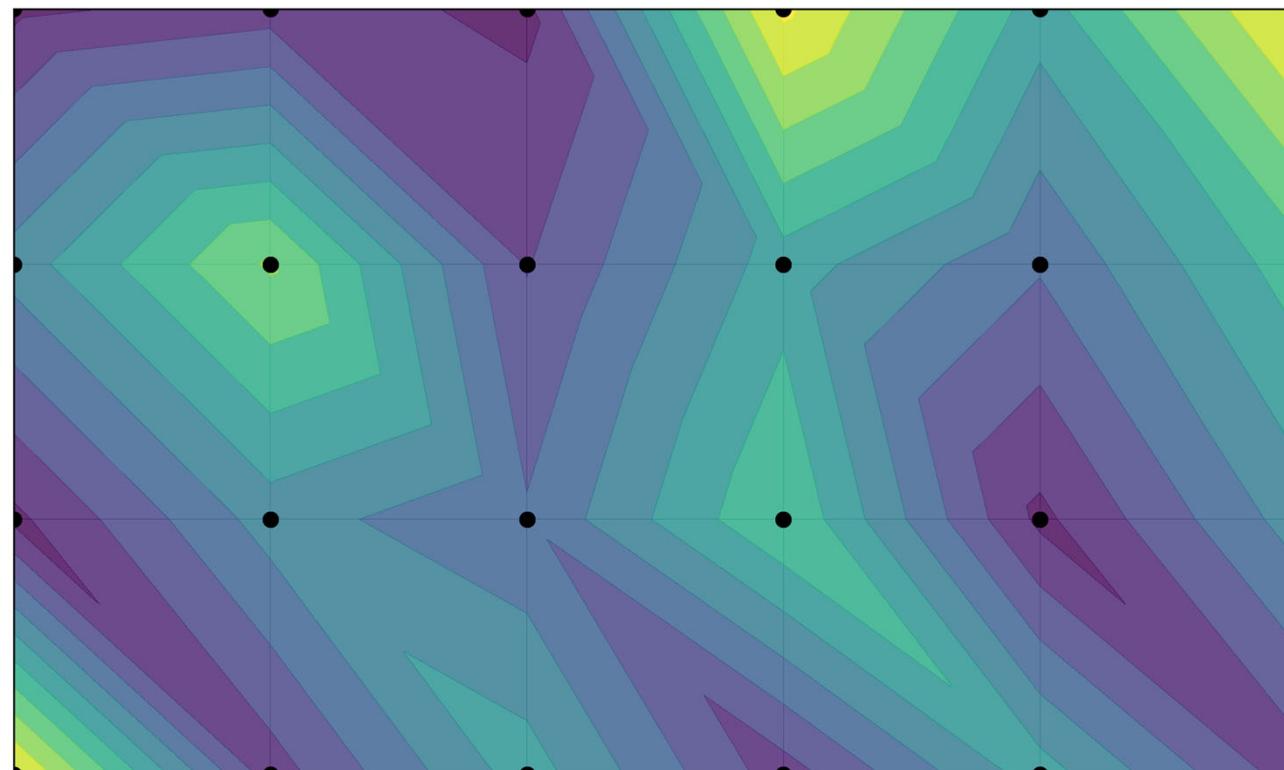


# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



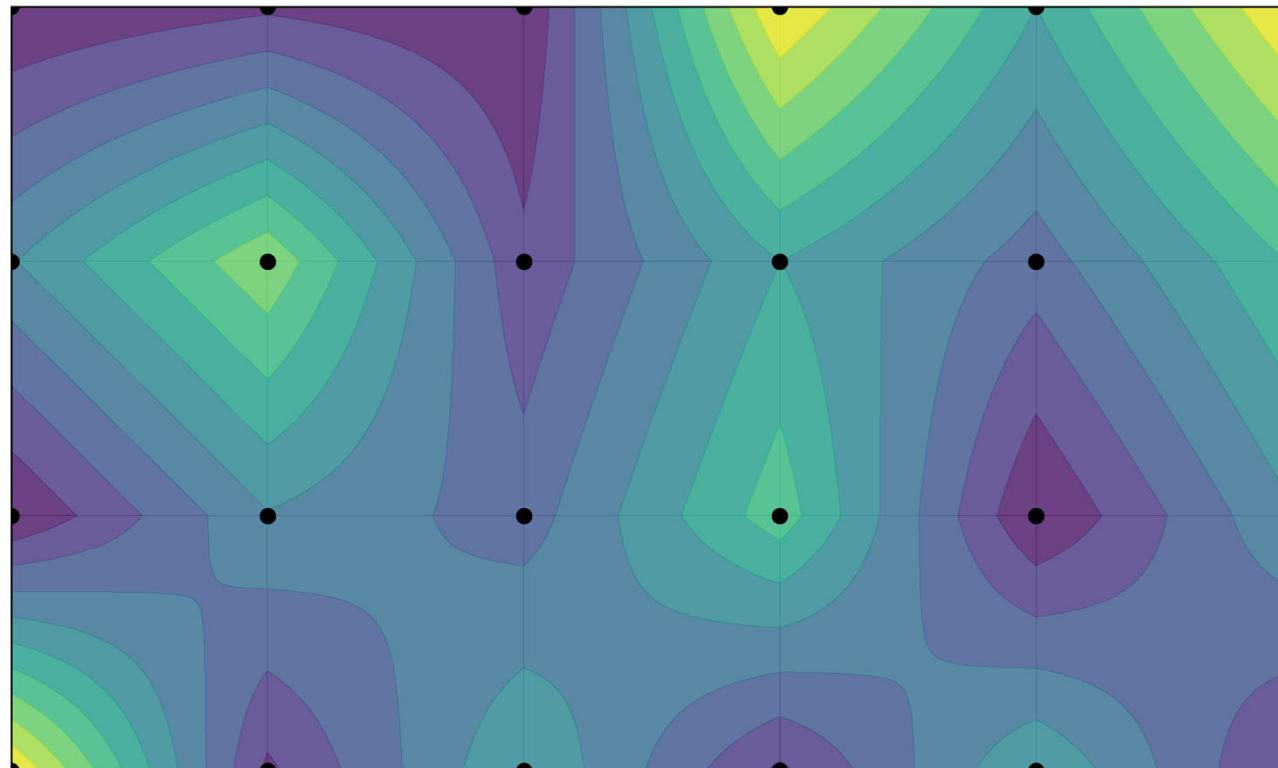
linear (diagonal 1)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



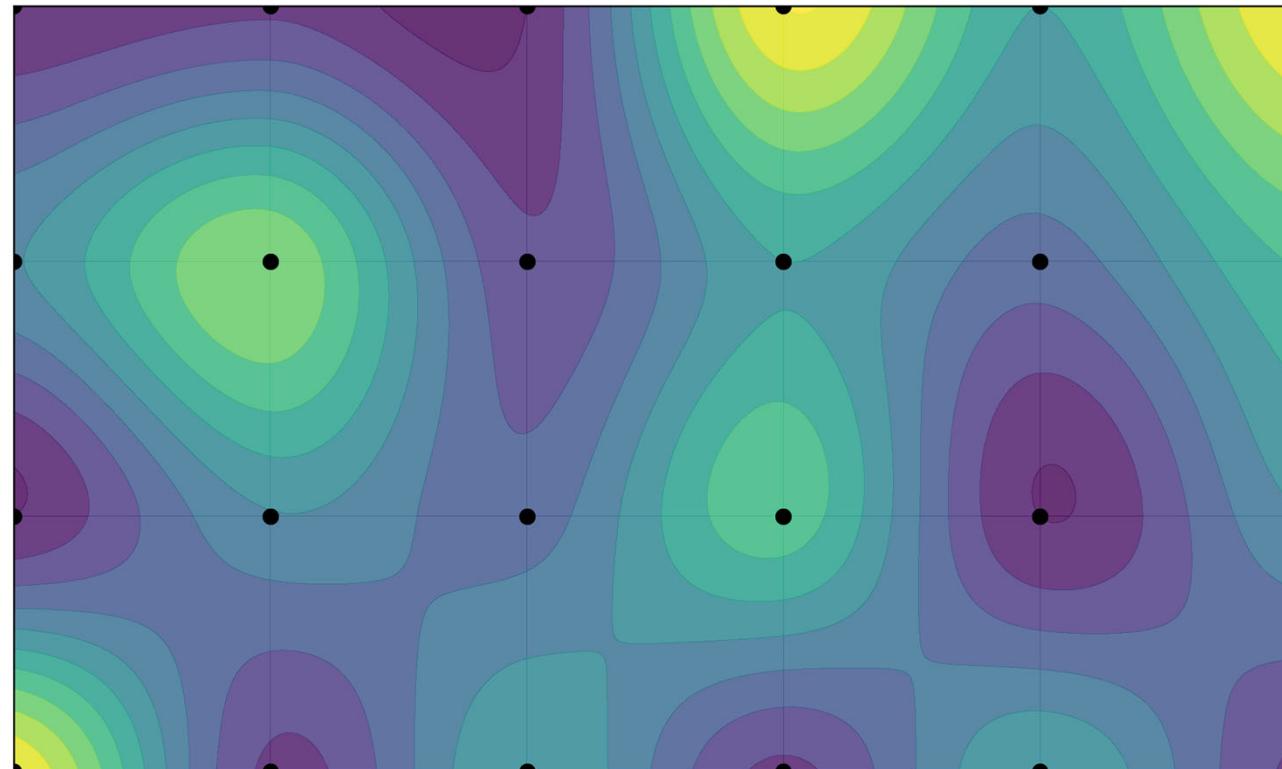
linear (diagonal 2)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



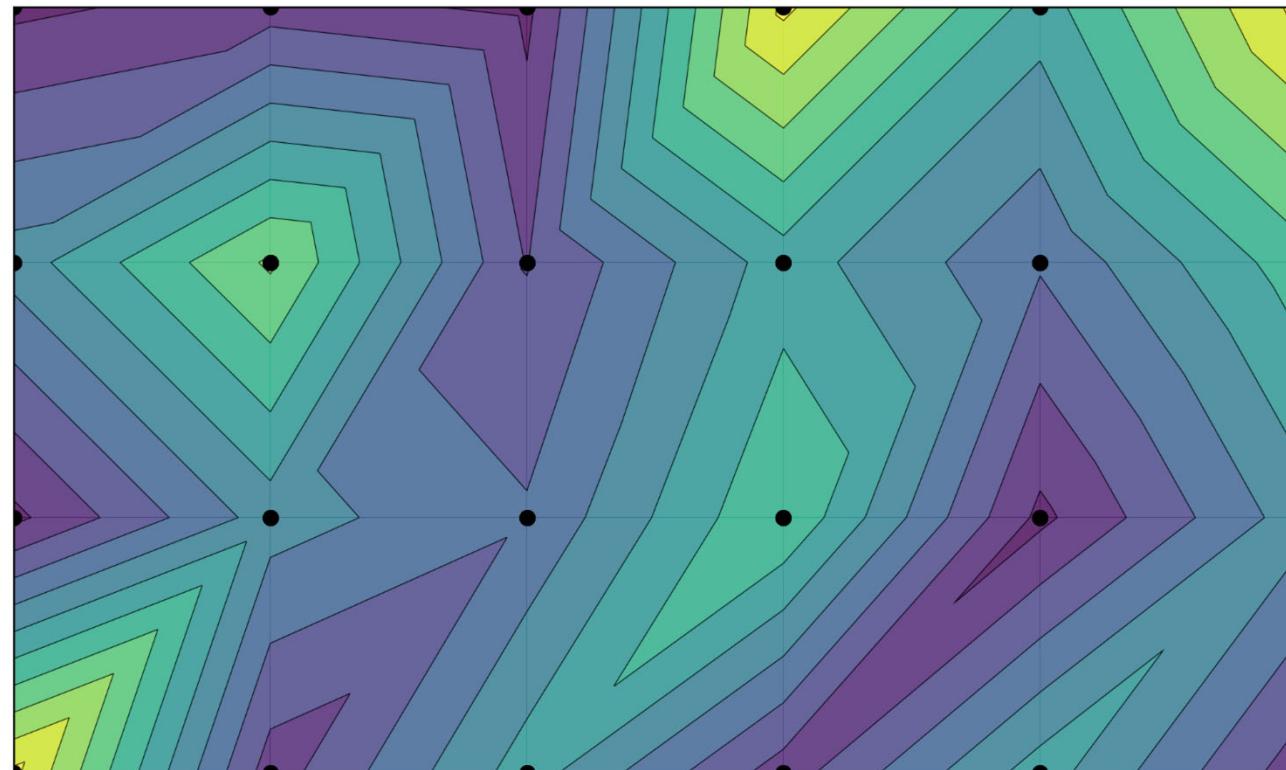
bi-linear (in 3D: tri-linear)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



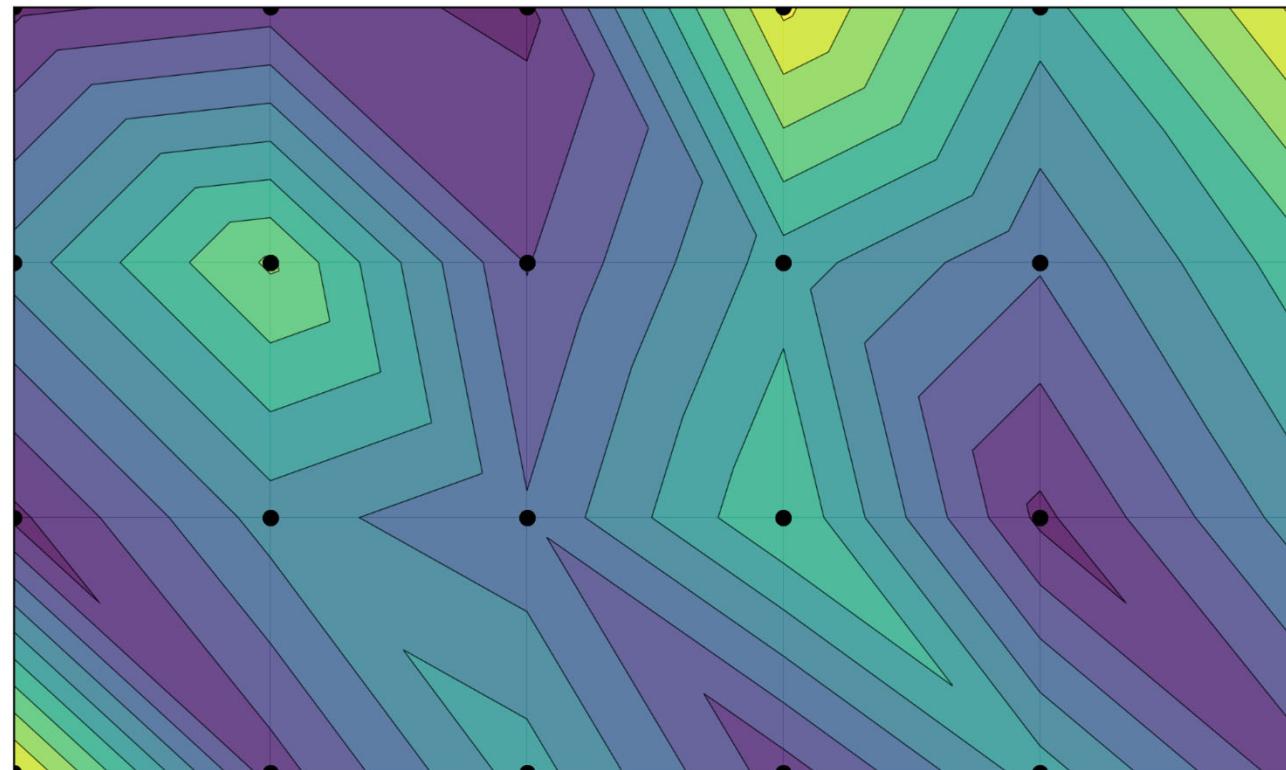
bi-cubic (in 3D: tri-cubic)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



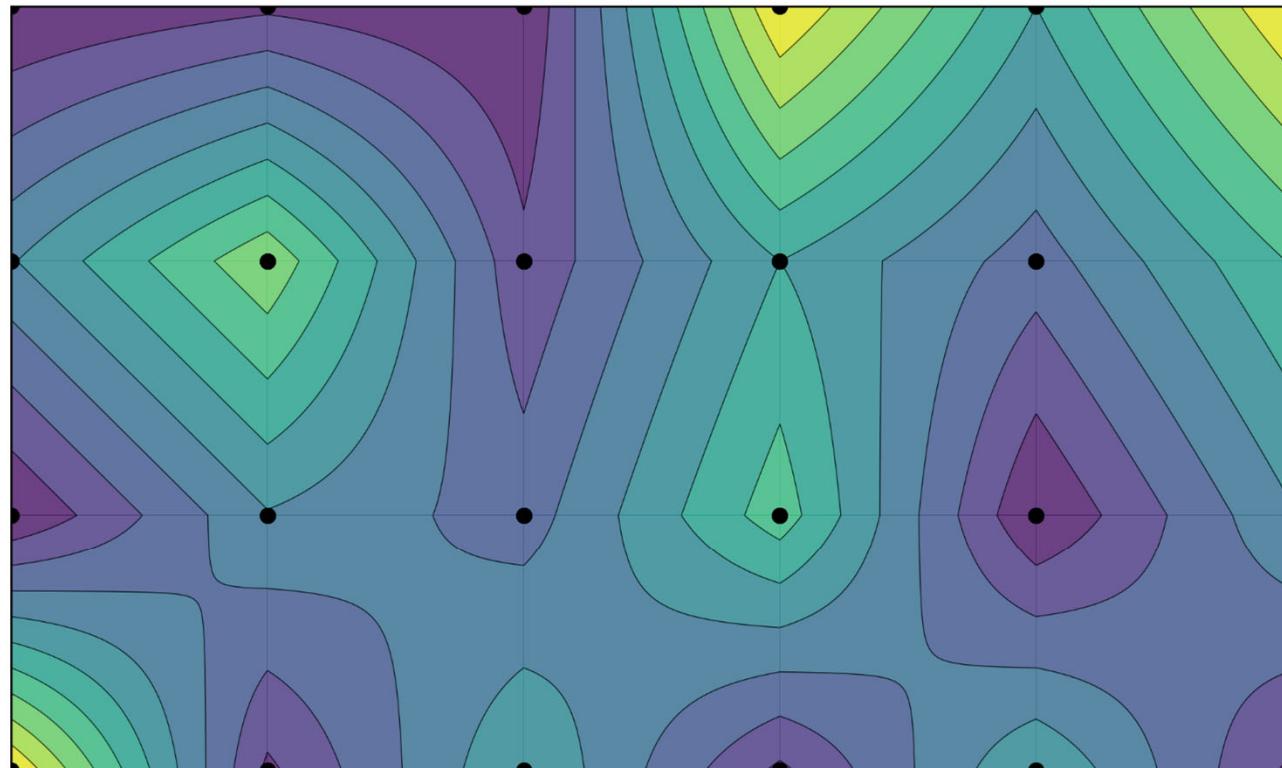
linear (diagonal 1)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



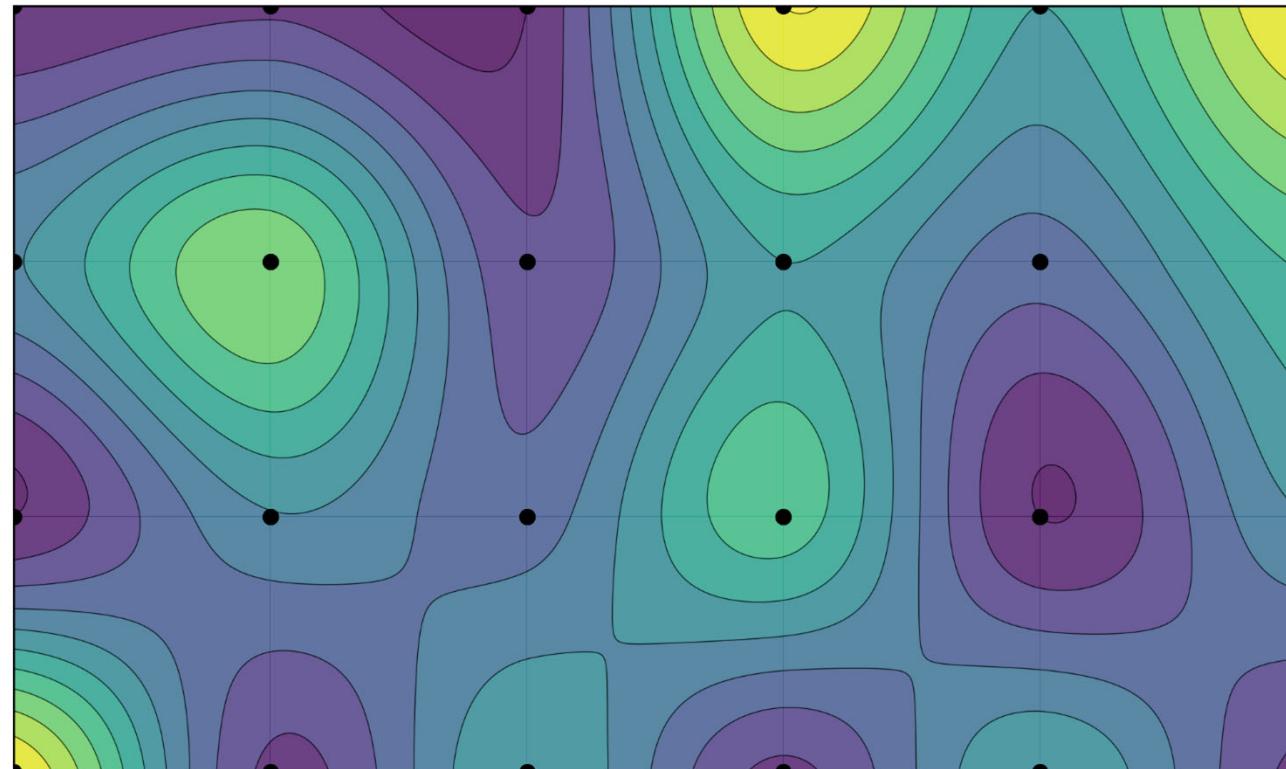
linear (diagonal 2)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



bi-linear (in 3D: tri-linear)

# Bi-Linear Interpolation: Comparisons



bi-cubic (in 3D: tri-cubic)

# Thank you.

Thanks for material

- Helwig Hauser
- Eduard Gröller
- Daniel Weiskopf
- Torsten Möller
- Ronny Peikert
- Philipp Muigg
- Christof Rezk-Salama