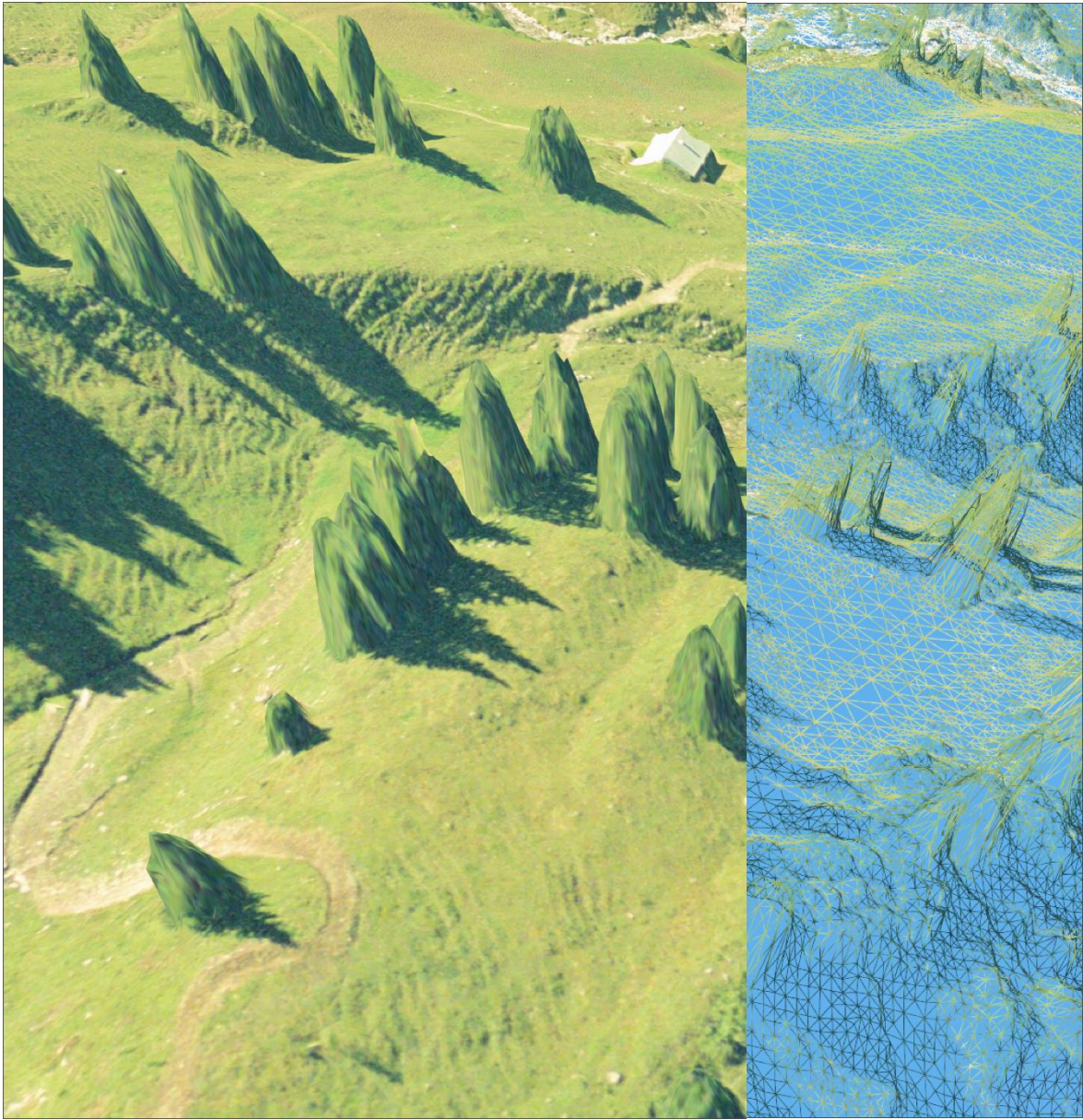




Visualization, DD2257
Prof. Dr. Tino Weinkauff

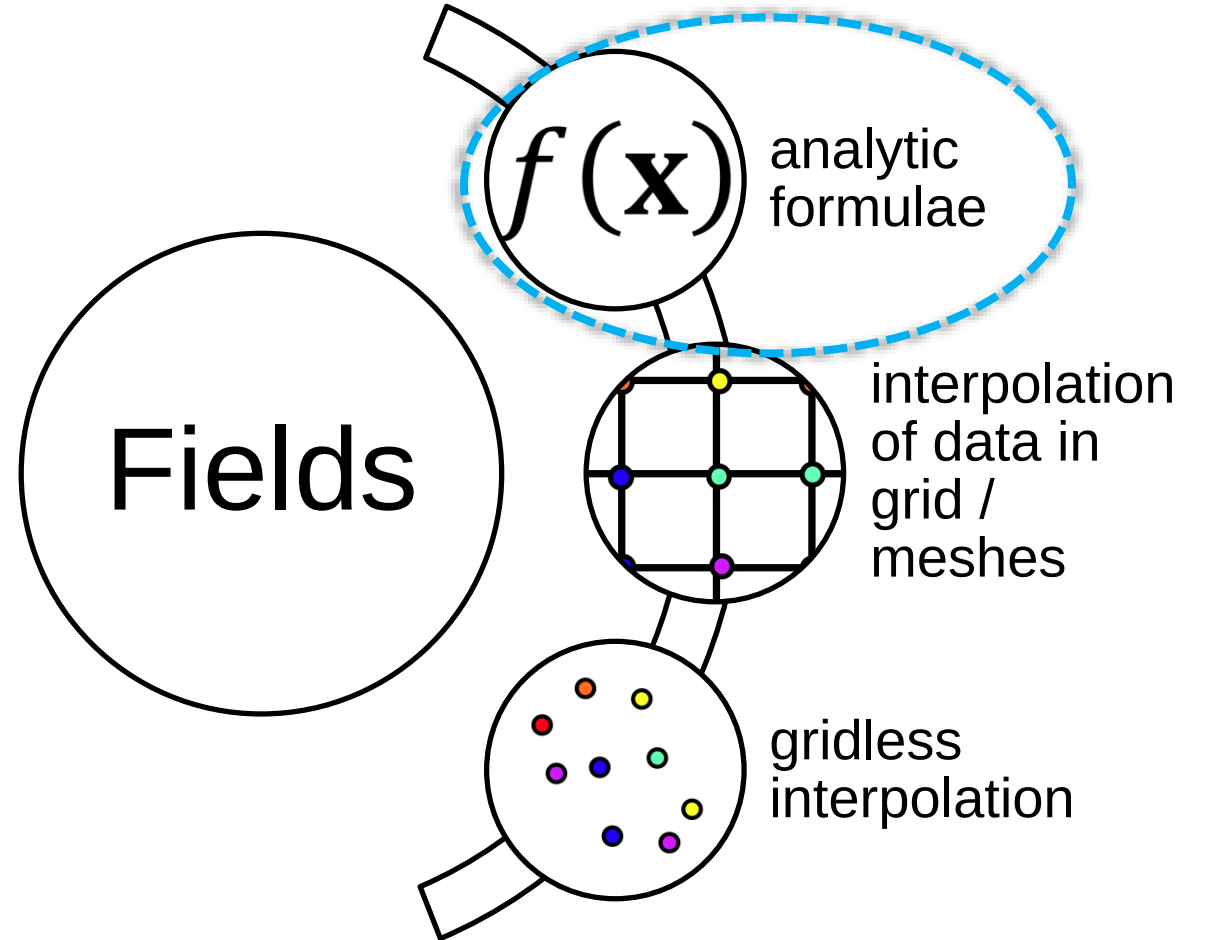
Data Description

Continuous Data



Fields

continuous representation of a variable



Fields

analytic formulae

function in 1D:

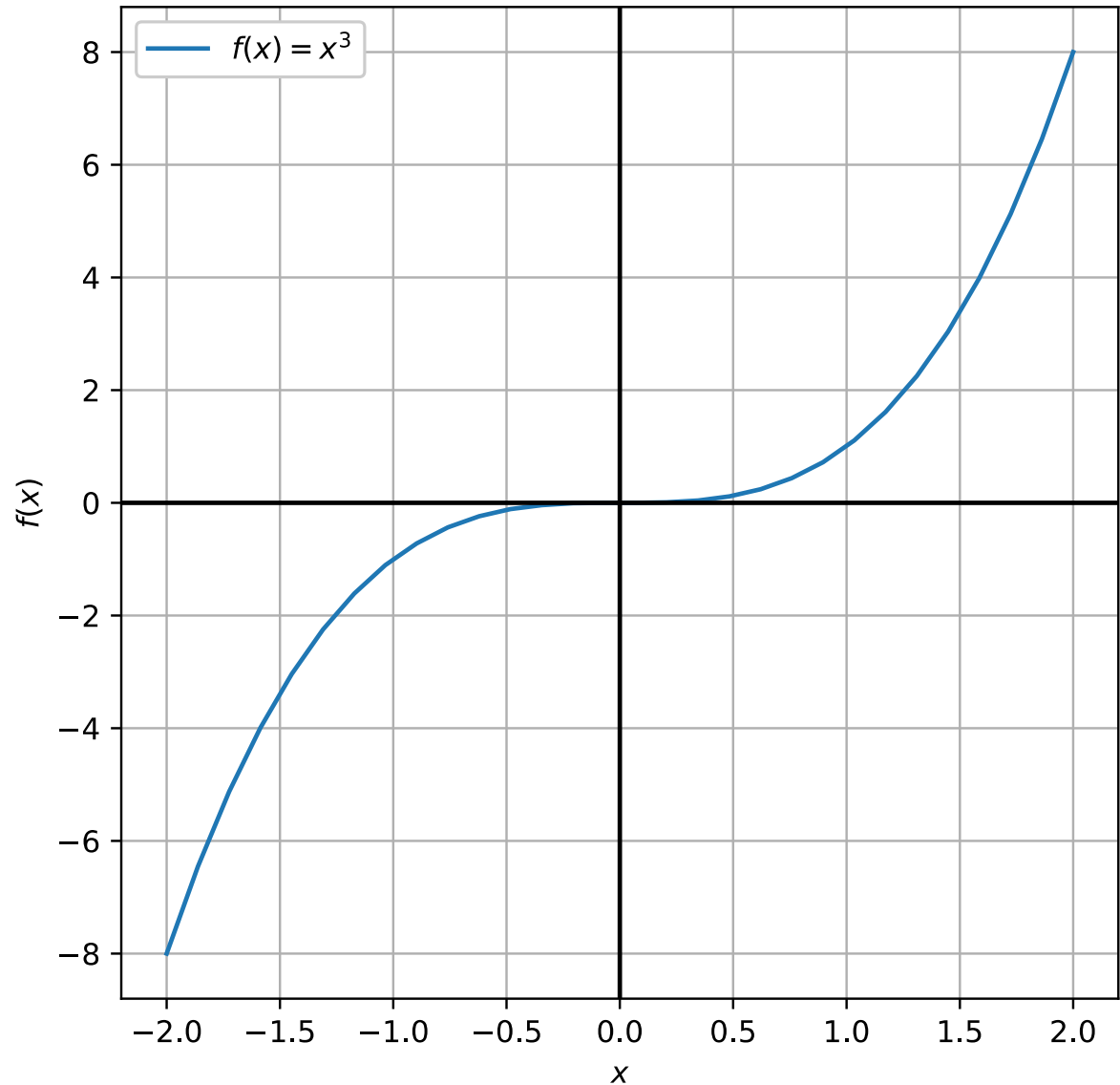
$$f(x) = x^3$$

function in 2D:

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + xy$$

function in 3D:

$$f(x, y, z) = 3x + \frac{xy}{z + 1}$$



Fields

$$f(x) = x^3$$

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + xy$$

$$f(x, y, z) = 3x + \frac{xy}{z + 1}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \dots$$
$$\mathbf{x} \in E^n$$

observation space can be 2D, 3D, ...
easier to describe with a single, bold $\mathbf{x}$

scalar field

$$s : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$s(\mathbf{x})$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$s(x, y) = 2xy + 4y^2$$

2D scalar field

vector field

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ c_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\mathbf{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} u(x, y) \\ v(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

2D vector field

tensor field

$$\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times b}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{1b}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{mb}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\mathbf{T}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} a(x, y) & b(x, y) \\ c(x, y) & d(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

2D tensor field

scalar field

$$s : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$s(\mathbf{x})$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$s(x, y) = 2xy + 4y^2$$

2D scalar field

vector field

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ c_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\mathbf{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x - y \\ 2y \end{pmatrix}$$

2D vector field

tensor field

$$\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times b}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{1b}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{mb}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\mathbf{T}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 1 \\ x + y & -y \end{pmatrix}$$

2D tensor field

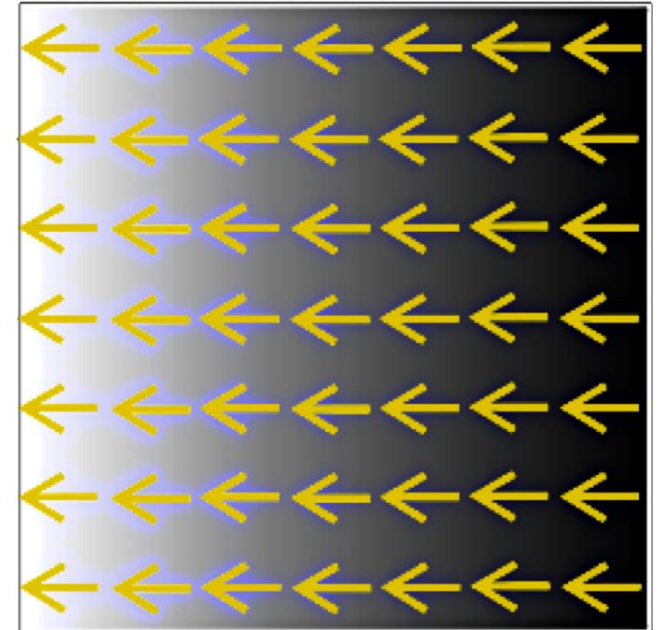
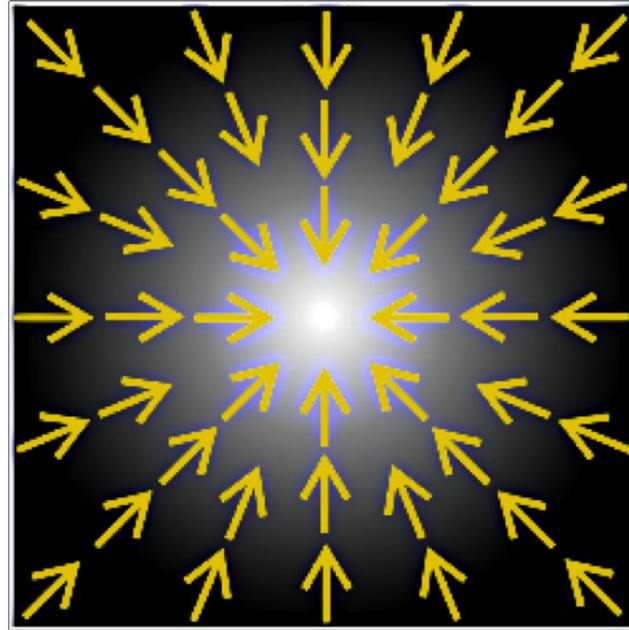
Derivatives

many applications

normal for volume rendering

*critical point classification for vector
field topology*

In scalar fields: describes
direction of steepest ascend



scalar field

$$s : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

vector field

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

tensor field

$$\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times b}$$

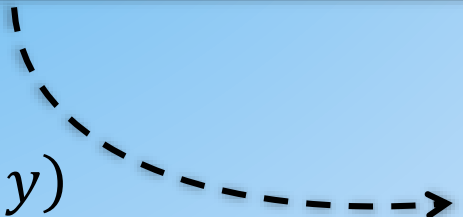
The first derivative of a scalar field is a vector field called **gradient**. It consists of the partial derivatives of the scalar function $s(\mathbf{x})$ for each dimension of the observation space.

$$\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ c_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{1b}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{mb}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$s(x, y)$ 

$$\nabla s(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_x \\ s_y \end{pmatrix}$$

2D scalar field

gradient

scalar field

$$s : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$s(\mathbf{x})$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$s(x, y)$$

2D scalar field

vector field

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

The second derivative of a scalar field is a tensor field called **Hessian**. It consists of the partial derivatives of $s(\mathbf{x})$ derived twice for each dimension of the observation space.

$$\nabla s(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_x \\ s_y \end{pmatrix}$$

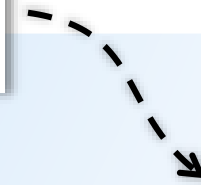
gradient

tensor field

$$\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times b}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{1b}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{mb}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$



$$\nabla^2 s(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} s_{xx} & s_{xy} \\ s_{yx} & s_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$$

Hessian

scalar field

$$s : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$s(\mathbf{x})$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

vector field

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_1(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

The first derivative of a vector field is a tensor field called **Jacobian**. It consists of the partial derivatives of $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})$ for each dimension of the observation space.

$$\mathbf{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} u(x, y) \\ v(x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

2D vector field

tensor field

$$\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{E}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times b}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{1b}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & c_{mb}(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$

$$\nabla \mathbf{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} u_x & u_y \\ v_x & v_y \end{pmatrix}$$

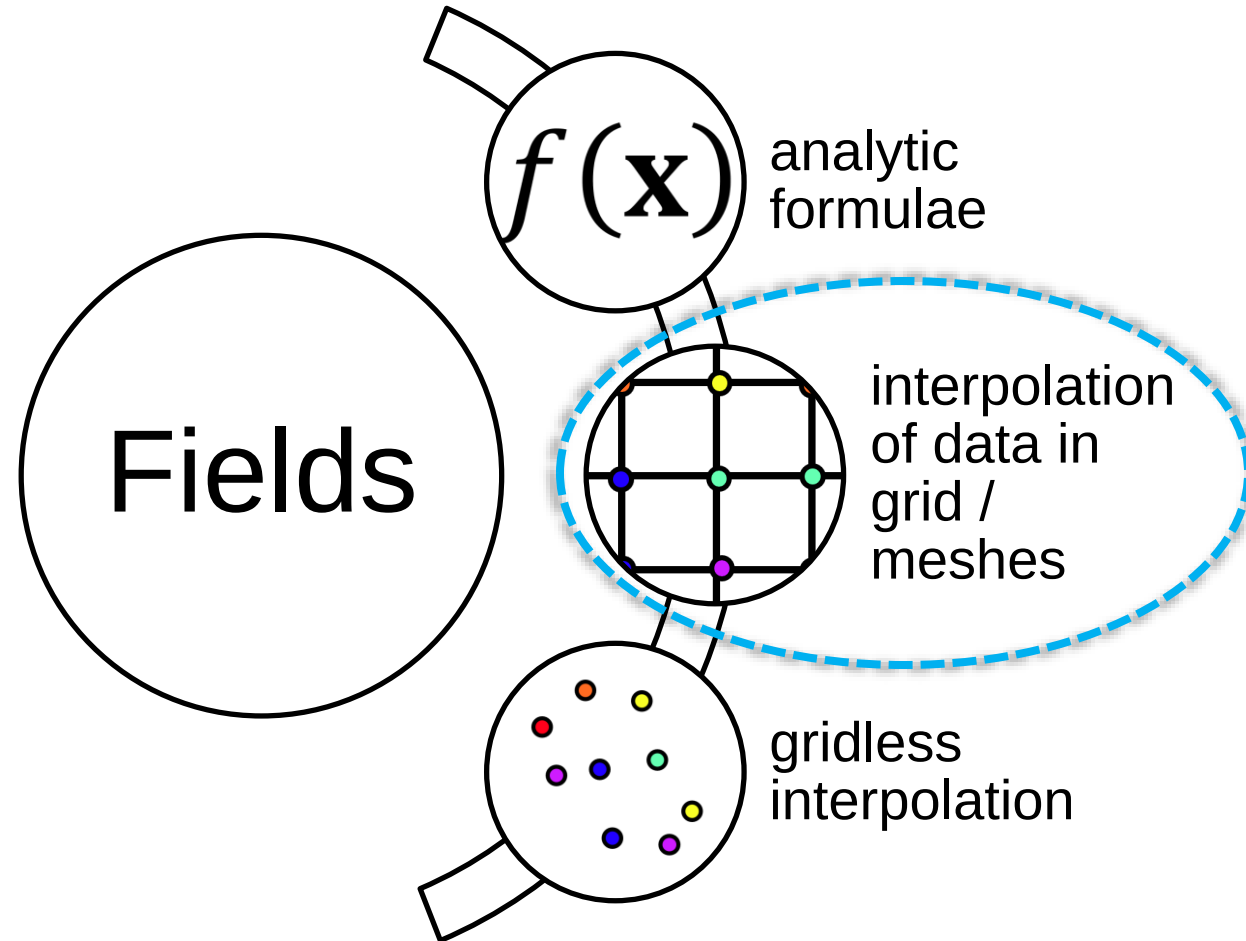
Jacobian

Fields

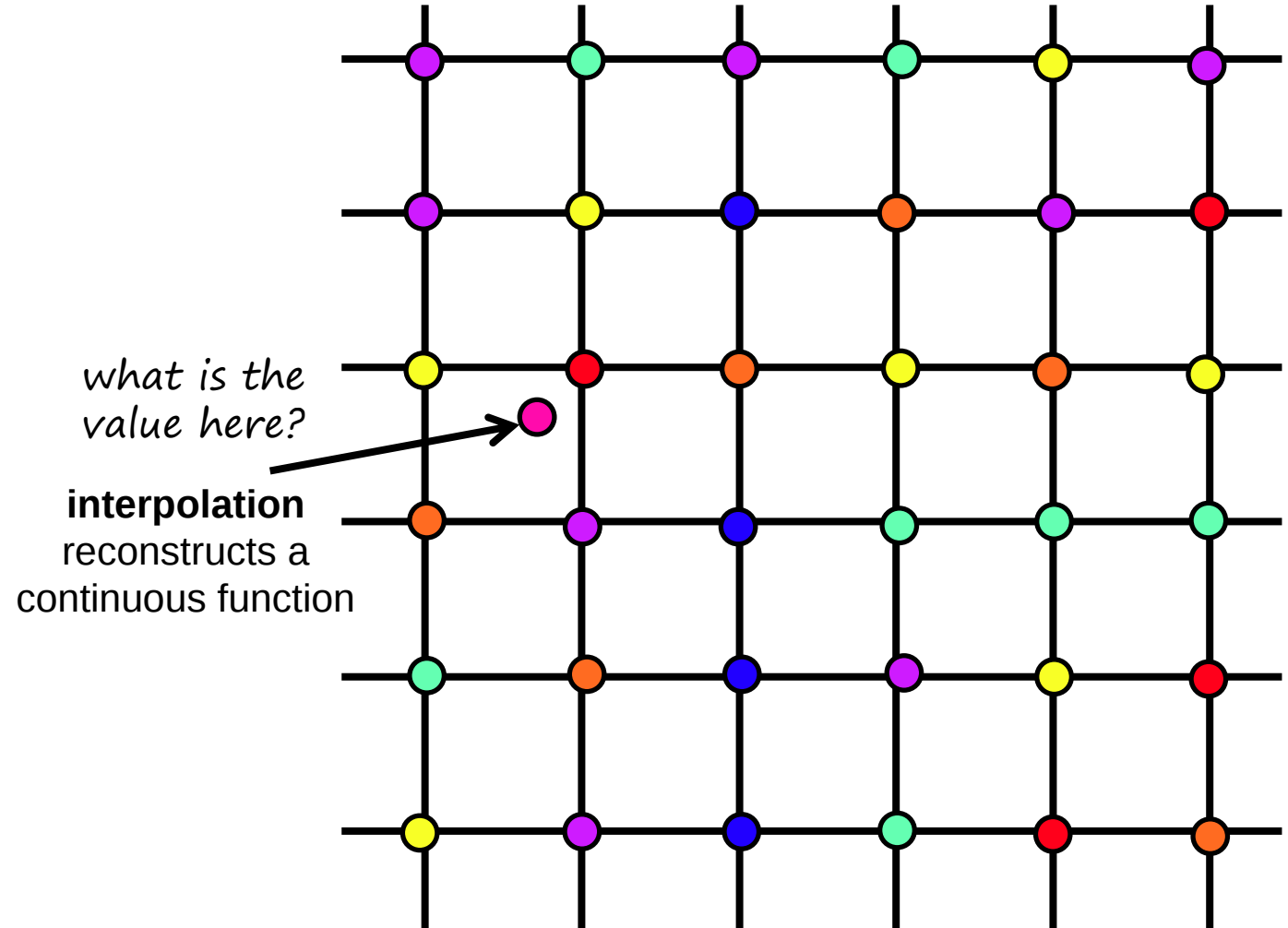
continuous representation of a variable

sampled data:

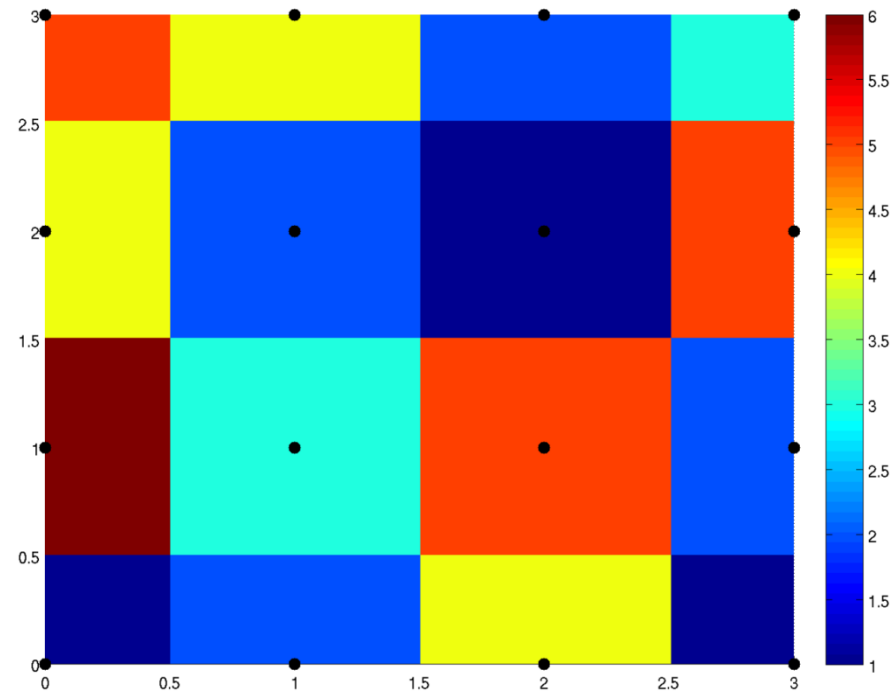
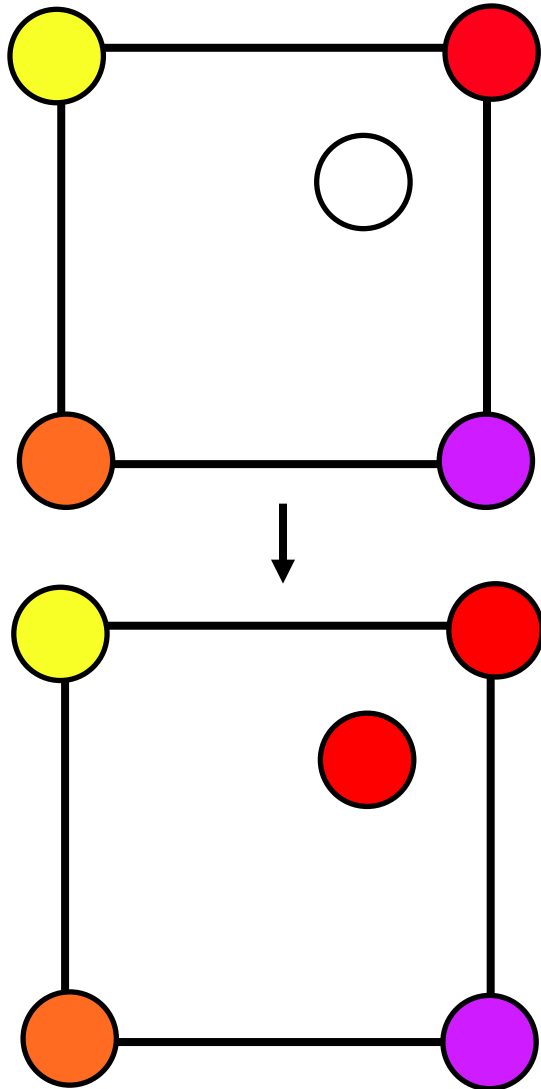
interpolation formulae used to create
a continuous representation



- A grid consists of a finite number of **samples**
 - The continuous signal is known only at a few points (**data points**)
 - In general, data is needed in between these points
- By **interpolation** we obtain a representation that matches the values at the data points
 - **Reconstruction** at any other point possible

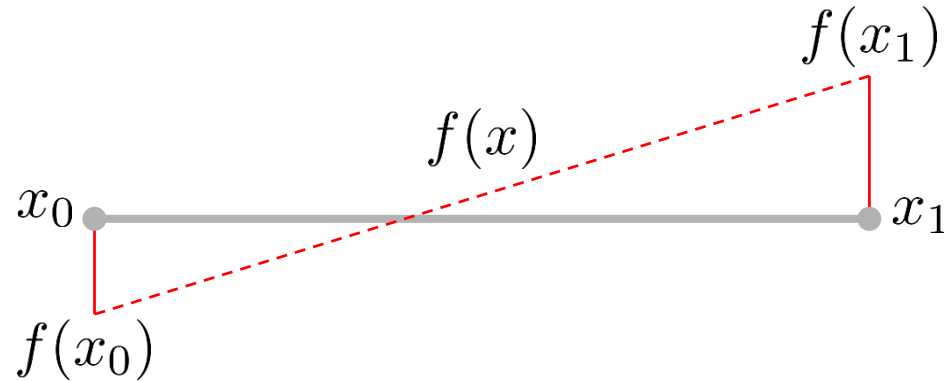


- Simplest approach: **Nearest-Neighbor Interpolation**
 - Assign the value of the nearest grid point to the sample.



- **Linear Interpolation** (in 1D domain)

- Domain points x , scalar function $f(x)$



General:

$$f(x) = \frac{x_1 - x}{x_1 - x_0} f(x_0) + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} f(x_1) \quad x \in [x_0, x_1]$$

Special Case:

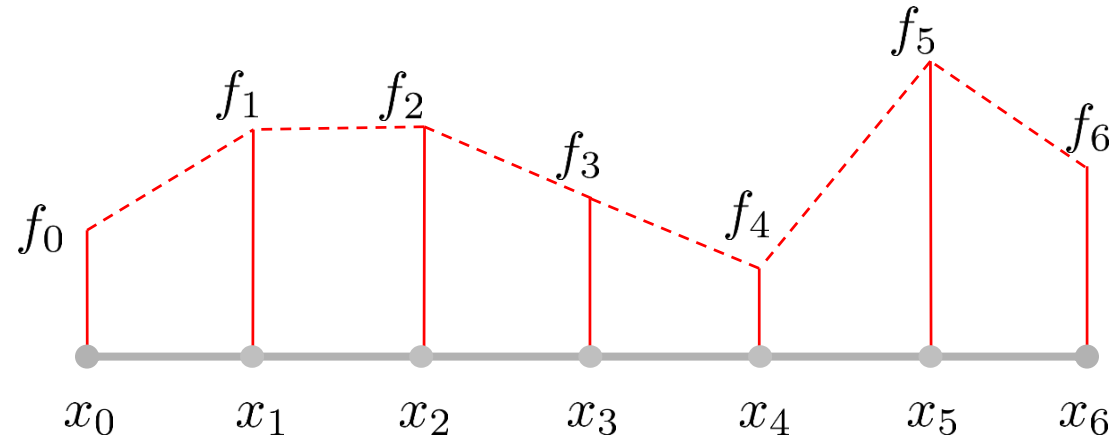
$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (1 - x) f(0) + x f(1) & x \in [0, 1] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (1 - x) & x \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f(0) \\ f(1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f(0) \\ f(1) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Basis

Coefficients

- **Linear Interpolation** (in 1D domain)

- Sample values $f_i := f(x_i)$

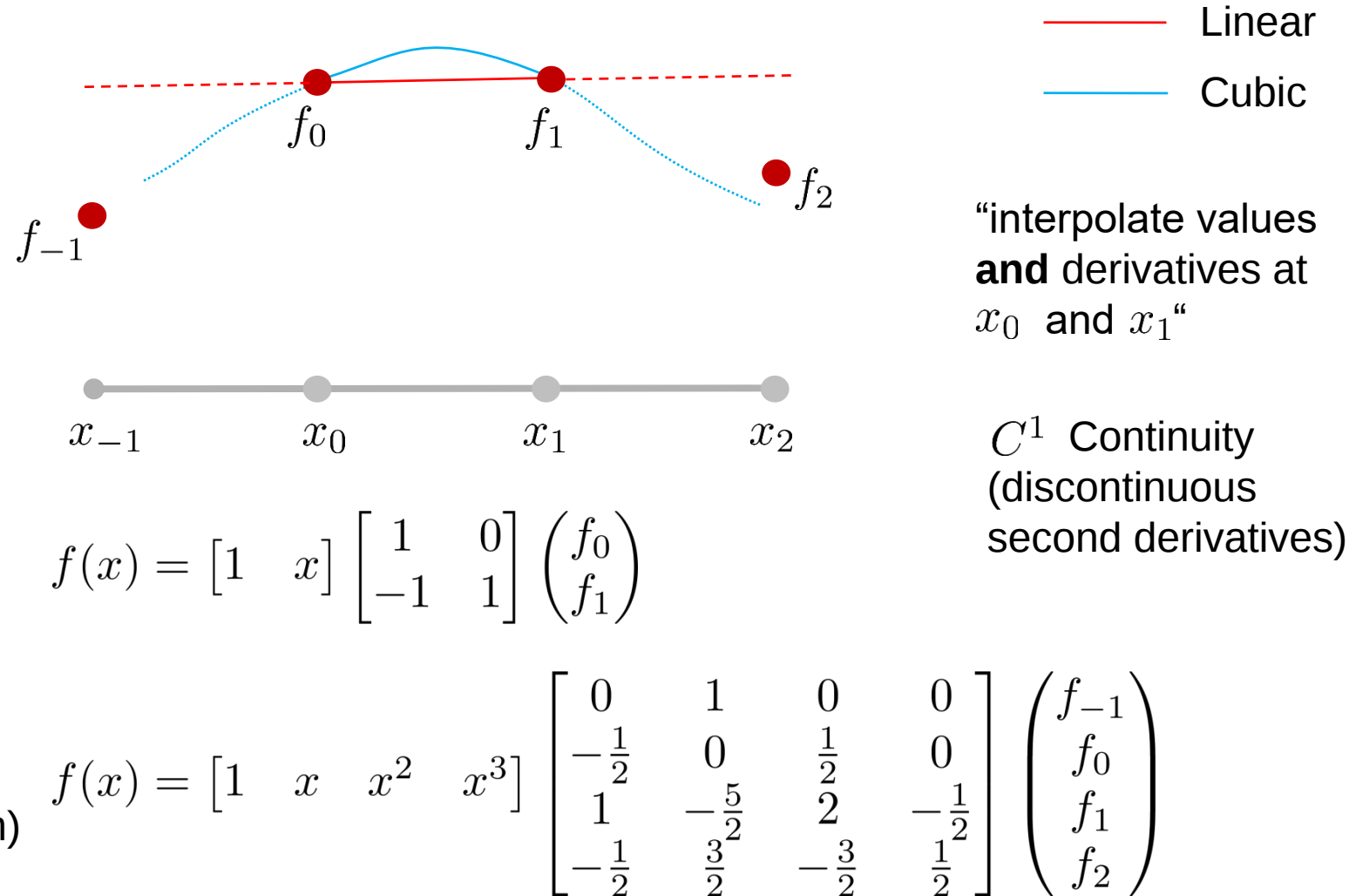


- C^0 Continuity (discontinuous first derivative)

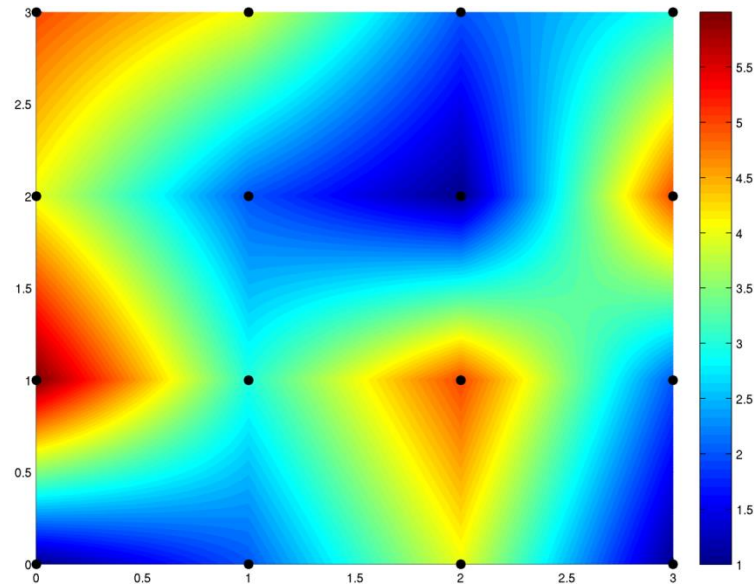
- Use higher order interpolation for smoother transition, e.g., **cubic** interpolation

- **Cubic Hermite Interpolation** (in equidistant 1D domain)

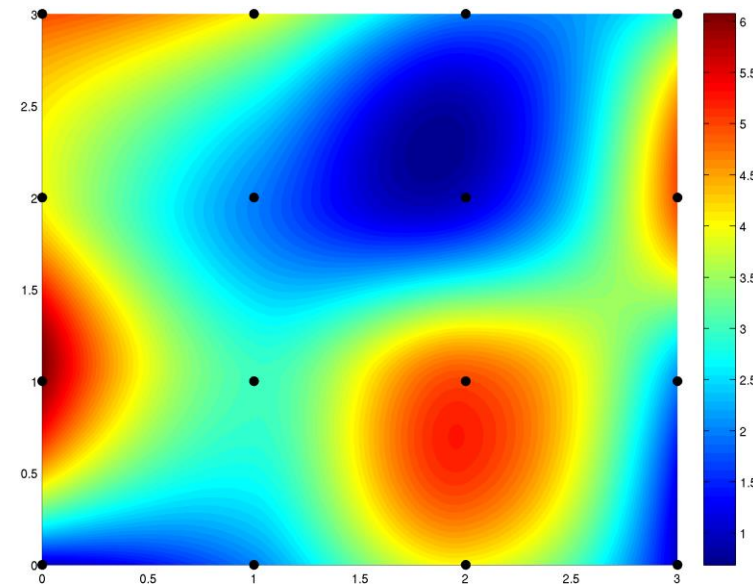
- $x_{i+1} = x_i + 1$



- Interpolation in 2D, 3D, 4D, ...
- Tensor Product Interpolation
 - Perform linear / cubic ... interpolation in each x,y,z ... direction **separately**



Bi-Linear



Bi-Cubic

● Tensor Product Interpolation

- Extend interpolation from 1D to higher dimensions
- Coefficients f_i , associated basis functions $b_i(x)$ (linear / cubic / ...)

$$\text{1D} \quad f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) f_i = [b_0(x) \cdots b_n(x)] \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

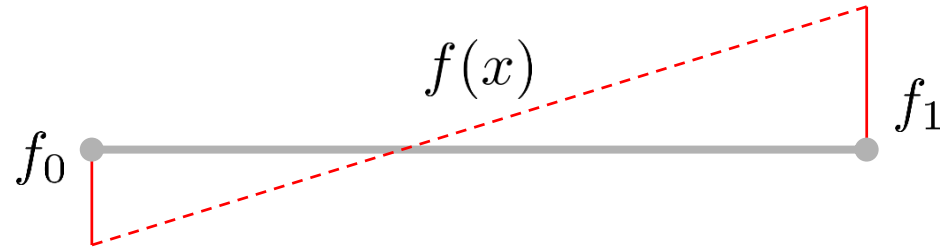
$$\begin{aligned} \text{2D, "bi-"} \quad f(x, y) &= \sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) b_j(y) f_{ij} \\ &= [b_0(x) \cdots b_n(x)] \begin{bmatrix} f_{00} & \cdots & f_{0m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_{n0} & \cdots & f_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_0(y) \\ \vdots \\ b_m(y) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{3D, "tri-"} \quad f(x, y, z) = \sum_{k=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) b_j(y) b_k(z) f_{ijk}$$

- Example: **Linear** Tensor Product Interpolation
 - Number of basis functions / coefficients $m = 1, n = 1, p = 1$

1D, linear

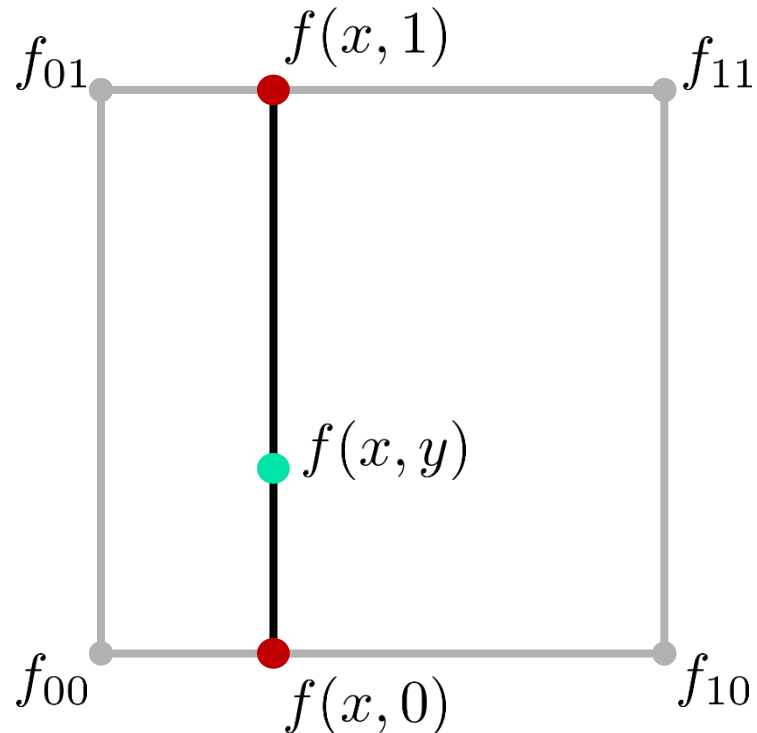
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) f_i = (1 - x) f_0 + x f_1$$



- Example: **Linear** Tensor Product Interpolation

- Number of basis functions / coefficients $m = 1, n = 1, p = 1$

2D, “bi-linear”



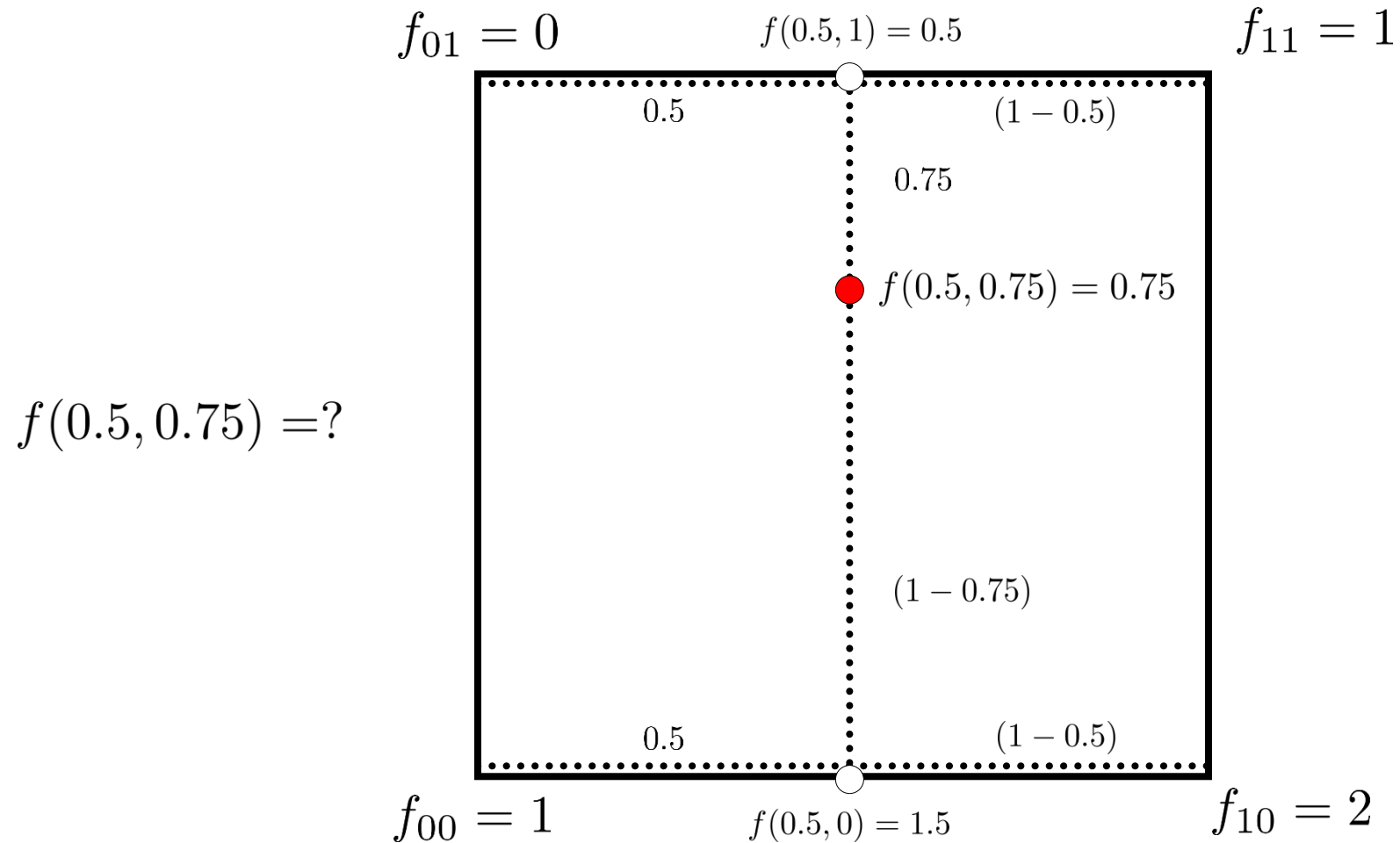
$$f(x, y) = \sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) b_j(y) f_{ij}$$

$$= (1-x)(1-y)f_{00} + x(1-y)f_{10} + (1-x)yf_{01} + xyf_{11}$$

$$= (1-y)((1-x)f_{00} + xf_{10}) + y((1-x)f_{01} + xf_{11})$$

“interpolate twice in x direction
and then once in y direction”

- **Example: Bi-linear interpolation in a 2D cell**
 - Repeated linear interpolation

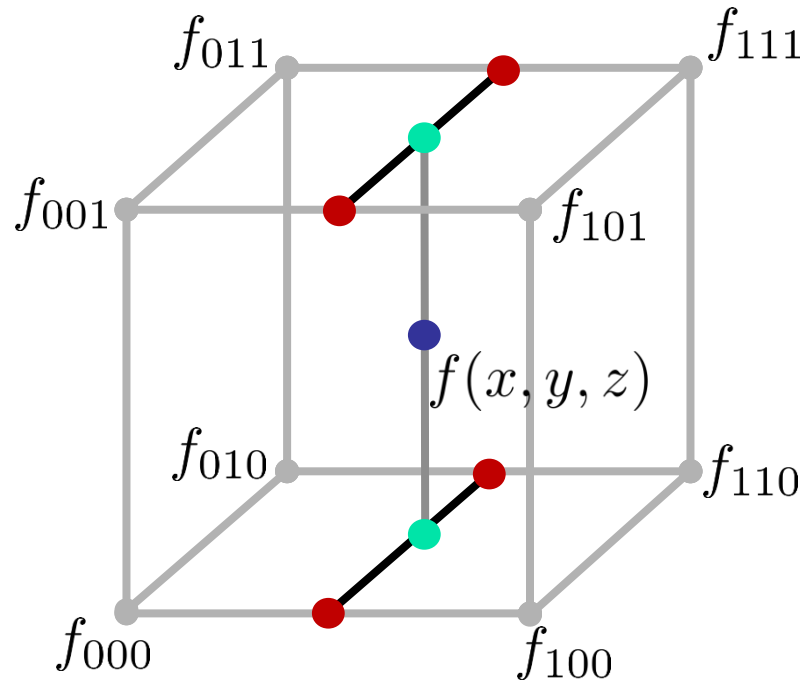


- Example: **Linear** Tensor Product Interpolation

- Number of basis functions / coefficients $m = 1, n = 1, p = 1$

3D, “tri-linear”

$$f(x, y, z) = \sum_{k=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(x) b_j(y) b_k(z) f_{ijk}$$



“interpolate four times in x direction, twice in y direction, and once in z direction”

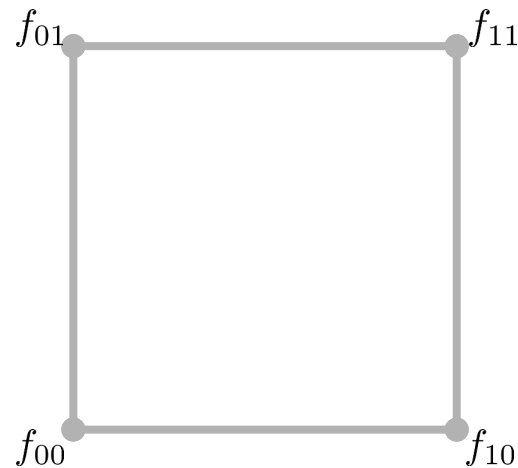
$$f(x) = (1-x) * f_0 + x * f_1$$

1D linear



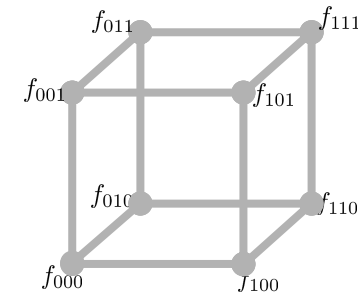
$$f(x, y) = (1-x) * (1-y) * f_{00} + x * (1-y) * f_{10} + (1-x) * y * f_{01} + x * y * f_{11}$$

2D bi-linear



$$f(x, y, z) = (1-x) * (1-y) * (1-z) * f_{000} + x * (1-y) * (1-z) * f_{100} + (1-x) * y * (1-z) * f_{010} + x * y * (1-z) * f_{110} + (1-x) * (1-y) * z * f_{001} + x * (1-y) * z * f_{101} + (1-x) * y * z * f_{011} + x * y * z * f_{111}$$

3D tri-linear

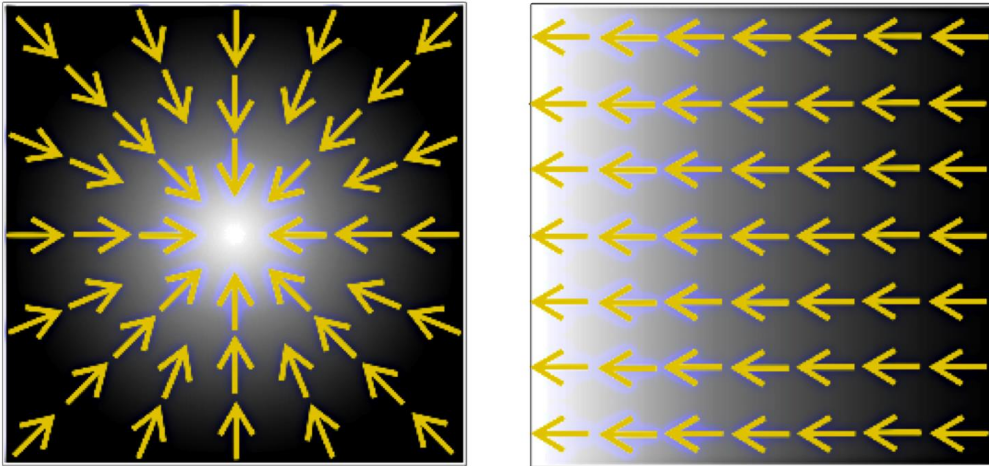


Two ways to estimate gradients:

- Direct derivation of interpolation formula
- Finite differences schemes

$$\nabla s(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_x \\ s_y \end{pmatrix}$$

Gradient of a 2D scalar field



$$\nabla \mathbf{v}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} u_x & u_y \\ v_x & v_y \end{pmatrix}$$

Jacobian of a 2D vector field

● Field Function Derivatives, Bi-Linear

$$f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} (1-x) & x \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_{00} & f_{01} \\ f_{10} & f_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (1-y) \\ y \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \text{derive this interpolation formula}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_{00} & f_{01} \\ f_{10} & f_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (1-y) \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (f_{10} - f_{00})(1 - y) + (f_{11} - f_{01})y \end{aligned}$$

“constant in x direction”

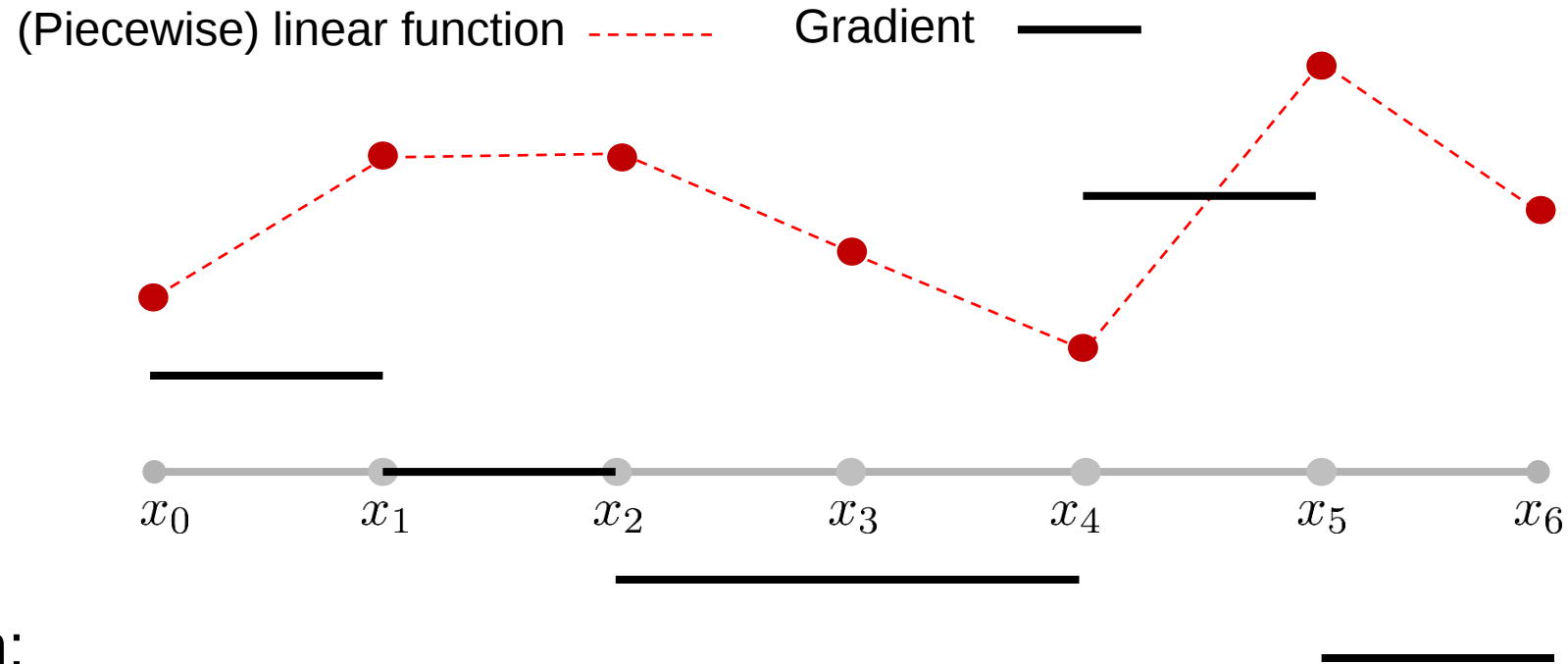
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} &= \begin{bmatrix} (1-x) & x \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_{00} & f_{01} \\ f_{10} & f_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (f_{01} - f_{00})(1 - x) + (f_{11} - f_{10})x \end{aligned}$$

“constant in y direction”

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

final gradient

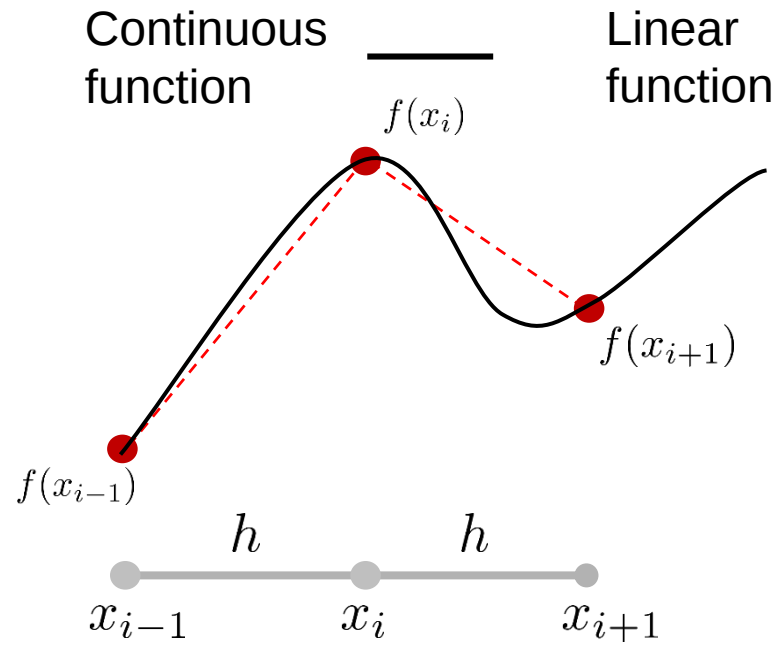
- Problem of exact linear function differentiation: discontinuous gradients



- Solution:
 - Use higher order interpolation scheme (cubic)
 - Use **finite difference estimation**

• Finite Differences Schemes

- Apply Taylor series expansion around samples



Taylor expansion

$$f(x_{i+1}) \swarrow$$

$$f(x_i + h) = f(x_i) + h \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} + \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{d^2 f(x_i)}{dx^2} + O(h^3)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h} \quad \text{Forward difference}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{h} \quad \text{Backward difference}$$

- **Finite Differences Schemes**

$$f(x_{i+1}) = f(x_i) + h \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} + \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{d^2 f(x_i)}{dx^2} + O(h^3)$$

$$f(x_{i-1}) = f(x_i) - h \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} + \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{d^2 f(x_i)}{dx^2} + O(h^3)$$

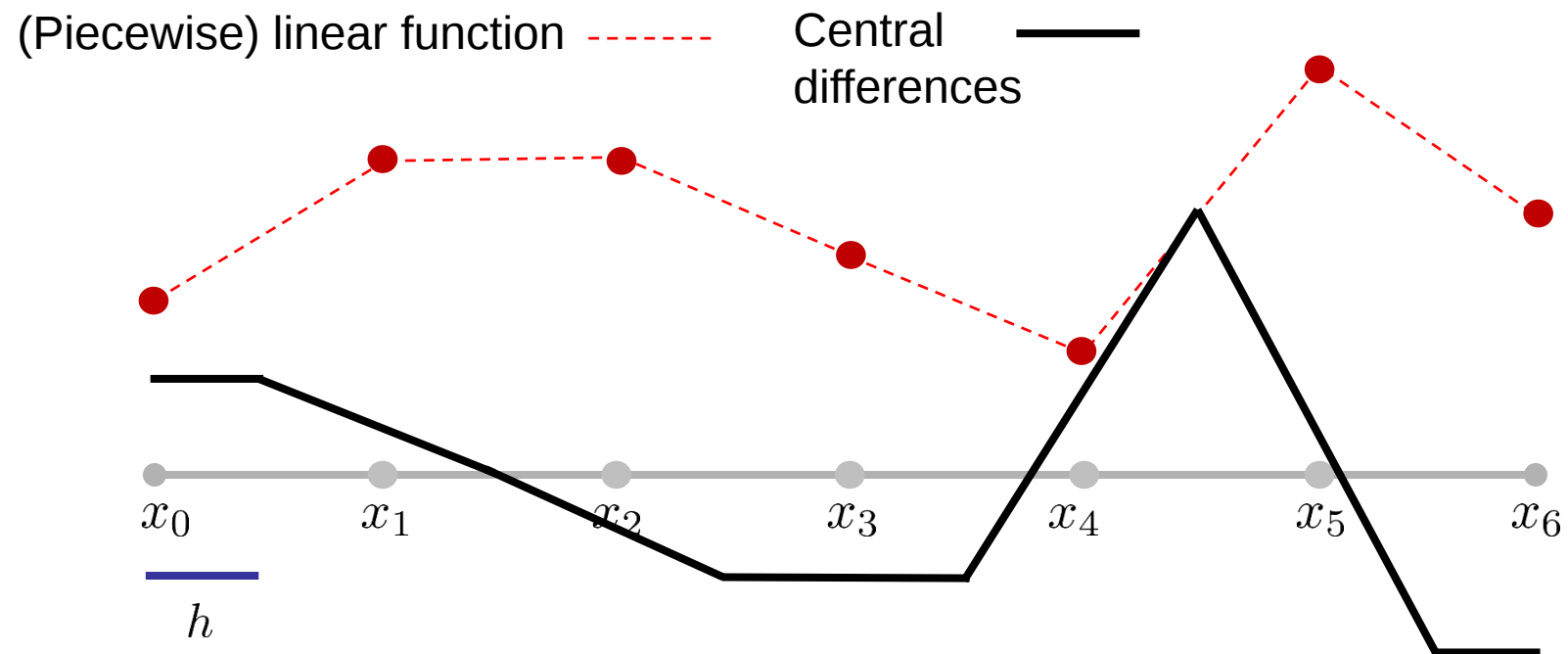
Difference

$$\longrightarrow (f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)) - (f(x_{i-1}) - f(x_i)) = 2h \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} + O(h^3)$$

$$\longrightarrow \frac{df(x_i)}{dx} \approx \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))}{2h} \quad \textbf{Central difference}$$

- Central differences have higher approximation order than forward / backward differences

- 1D Example, linear interpolation

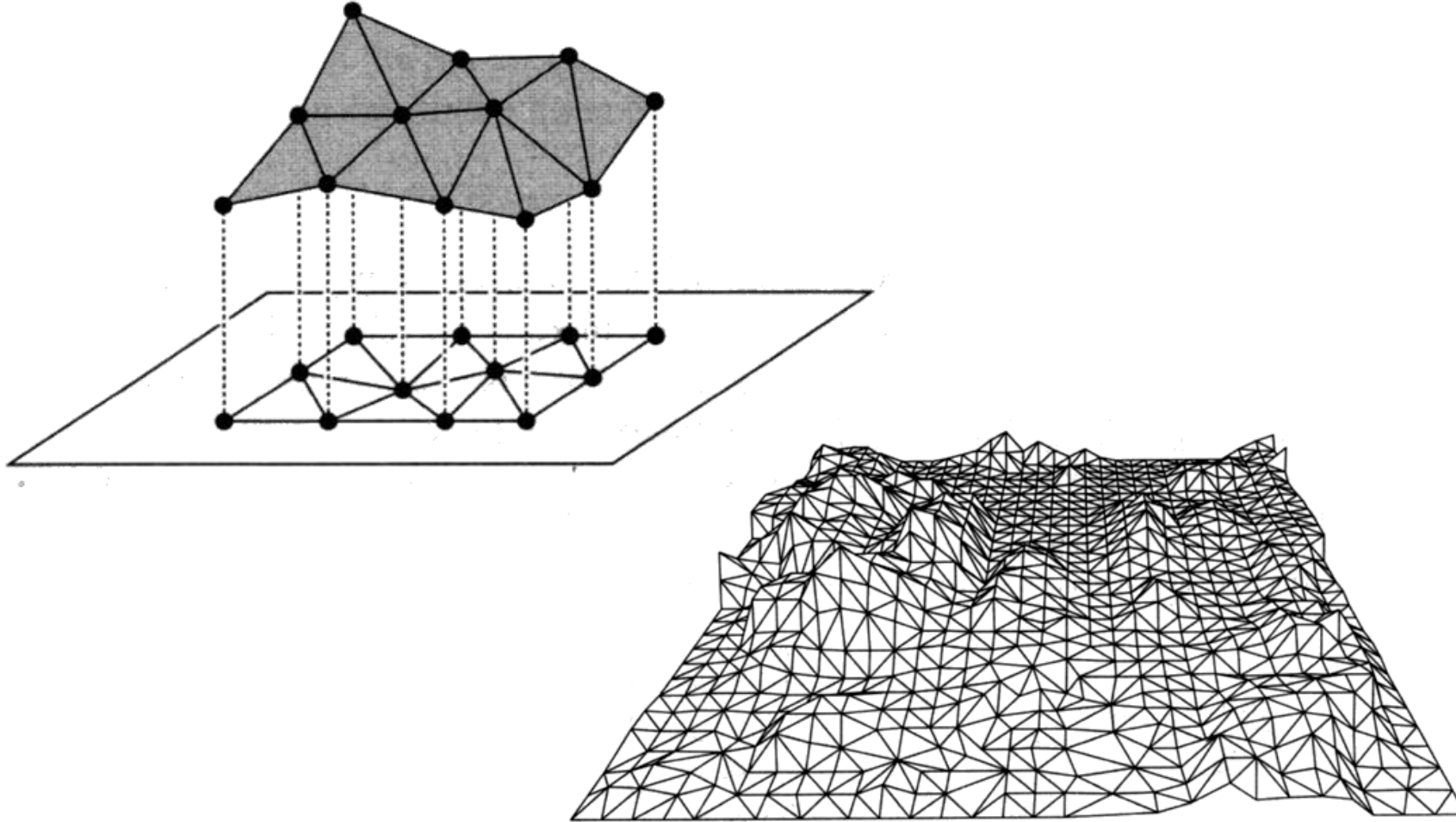


- **Finite Differences Schemes, Higher order derivatives**

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

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x_i, y_j)}{\partial xy} \approx \frac{f(x_{i+1}, y_{j+1}) - f(x_{i+1}, y_{j-1}) - f(x_{i-1}, y_{j+1}) + f(x_{i-1}, y_{j-1}))}{4 h_x h_y}$$

- **Piecewise Linear Interpolation in Triangle Meshes**



- **Linear Interpolation in a Triangle**

- There is exactly one linear function that satisfies the interpolation constraint

- A linear function can be written as

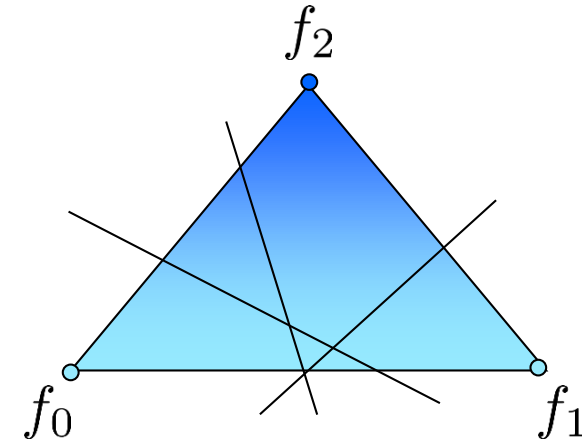
$$f(x, y) = a + b x + c y$$

- Polynomial can be obtained by solving the linear system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & y_0 \\ 1 & x_1 & y_1 \\ 1 & x_2 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ f_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Linear in x and y

- Interpolated values along any ray in the plane spanned by the triangle are linear along that ray



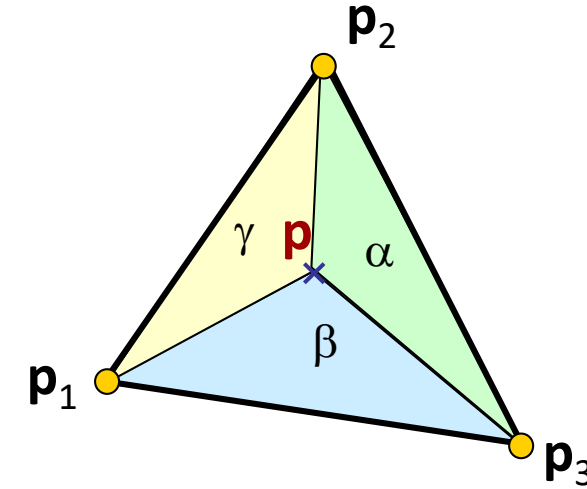
- Barycentric Coordinates:

- Planar case:

Barycentric combinations of 3 points

$$\mathbf{p} = \alpha \mathbf{p}_1 + \beta \mathbf{p}_2 + \gamma \mathbf{p}_3, \text{ with } : \alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$$

$$\gamma = 1 - \alpha - \beta$$



- Area formulation:

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3, \mathbf{p}))}{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3))}, \beta = \frac{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_3, \mathbf{p}))}{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3))}, \gamma = \frac{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}))}{\text{area}(\Delta(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3))}$$

very important

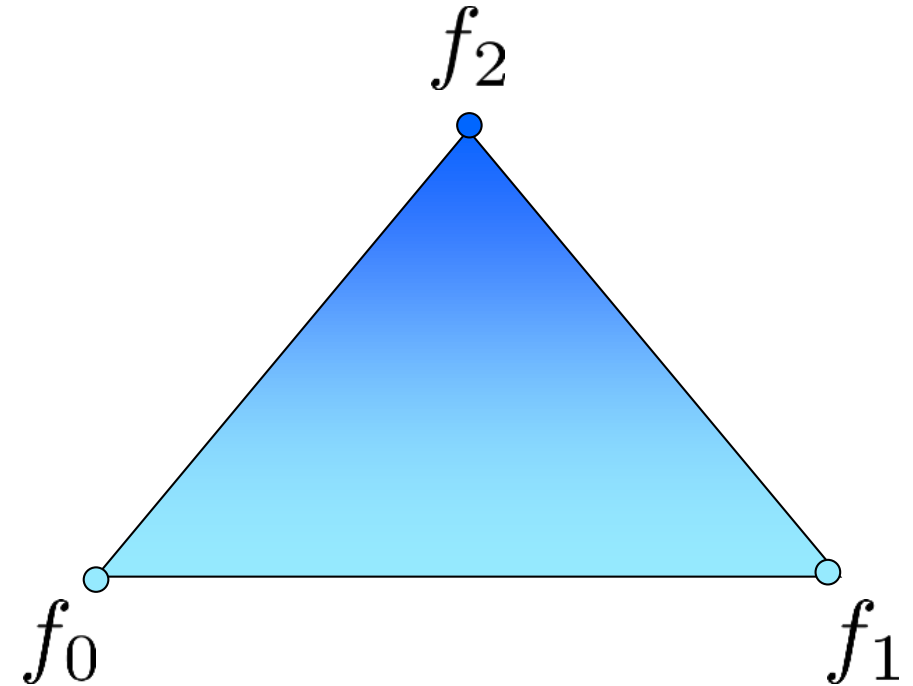
Barycentric Interpolation in a Triangle

The linear function of a triangle can be computed at any point as

$$f(x, y) = \alpha(x, y)f_0 + \beta(x, y)f_1 + \gamma(x, y)f_2$$

with $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$ as barycentric coordinates.

To be inside triangle: $0 \leq \alpha, \beta, \gamma \leq 1$



- **Background on Barycentric Interpolation in a Triangle**

- The linear function of a triangle can be computed at any point as

$$f(x, y) = \alpha_0(x, y)f_0 + \alpha_1(x, y)f_1 + \alpha_2(x, y)f_2$$

with $\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$ (**Barycentric Coordinates**)

- This also holds for the coordinate $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ of the triangle:

$$\mathbf{x} = \alpha_0 \mathbf{x}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{x}_2$$

→ Can be used to solve for unknown coefficients α_i :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ y_0 & y_1 & y_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

● Background on Barycentric Interpolation in a Triangle

- Solution of $\begin{bmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ y_0 & y_1 & y_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (e.g. Cramer's rule):

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2A} \det \begin{pmatrix} x & x_1 & x_2 \\ y & y_1 & y_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2])}{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2])}$$

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{1}{2A} \det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x & x_2 \\ y_0 & y & y_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

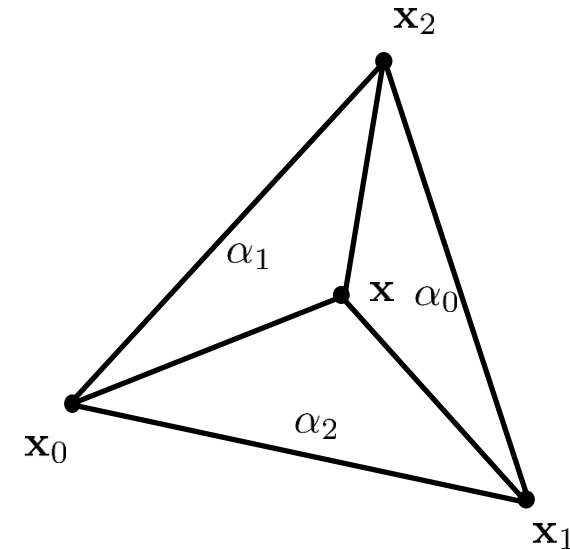
$$\alpha_1 = \frac{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_2])}{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2])}$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{1}{2A} \det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x \\ y_0 & y_1 & y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}])}{\text{Area}([\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2])}$$

with

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \det \begin{pmatrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 \\ y_0 & y_1 & y_2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Inside triangle criteria

$$0 \leq \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \leq 1$$

- **Barycentric Interpolation in a Tetrahedron**
- Analogous to the triangle case

Linear function in triangle/tetrahedron:

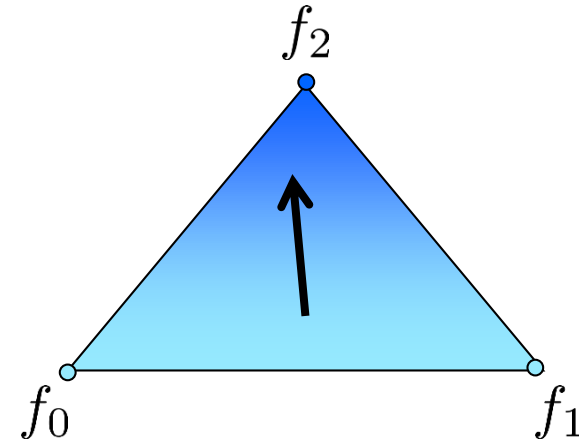
$$f(x, y) = a + b x + c y$$

Gradient of a linear function:

Constant!

For a linear function in a triangle,
the gradient is a constant 2D vector.

For a linear function in a tetrahedron,
the gradient is a constant 3D vector.

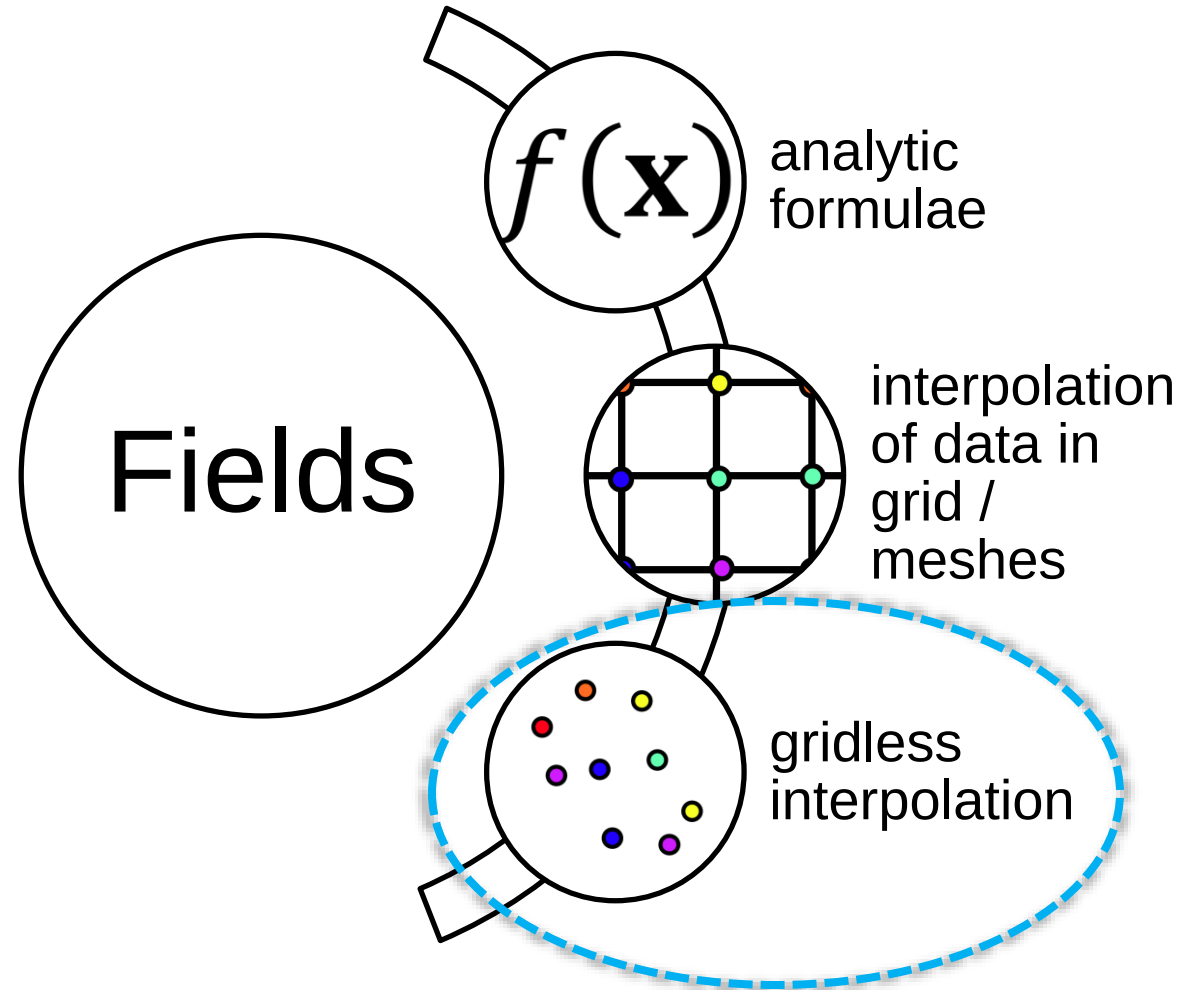


Fields

continuous representation of a variable

sampled data:

interpolation formulae used to create
a continuous representation

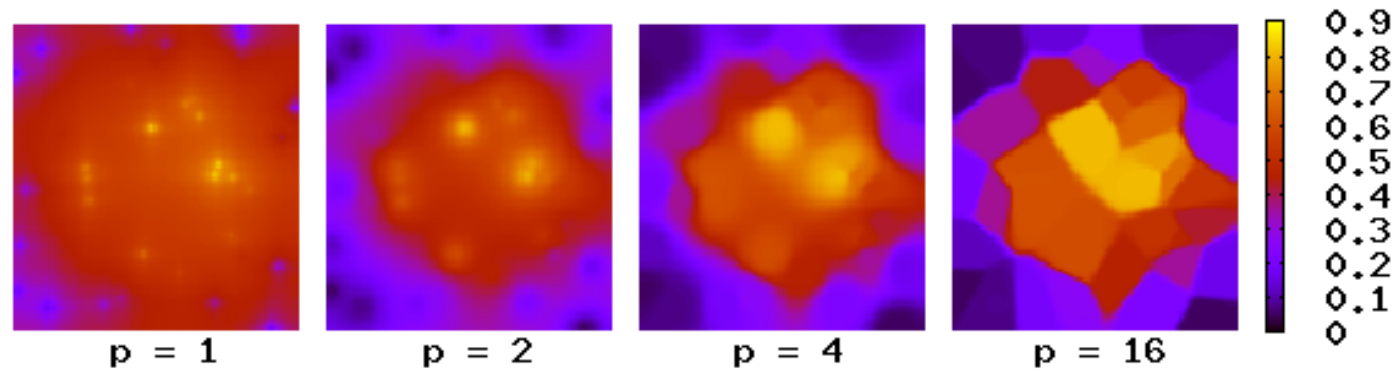
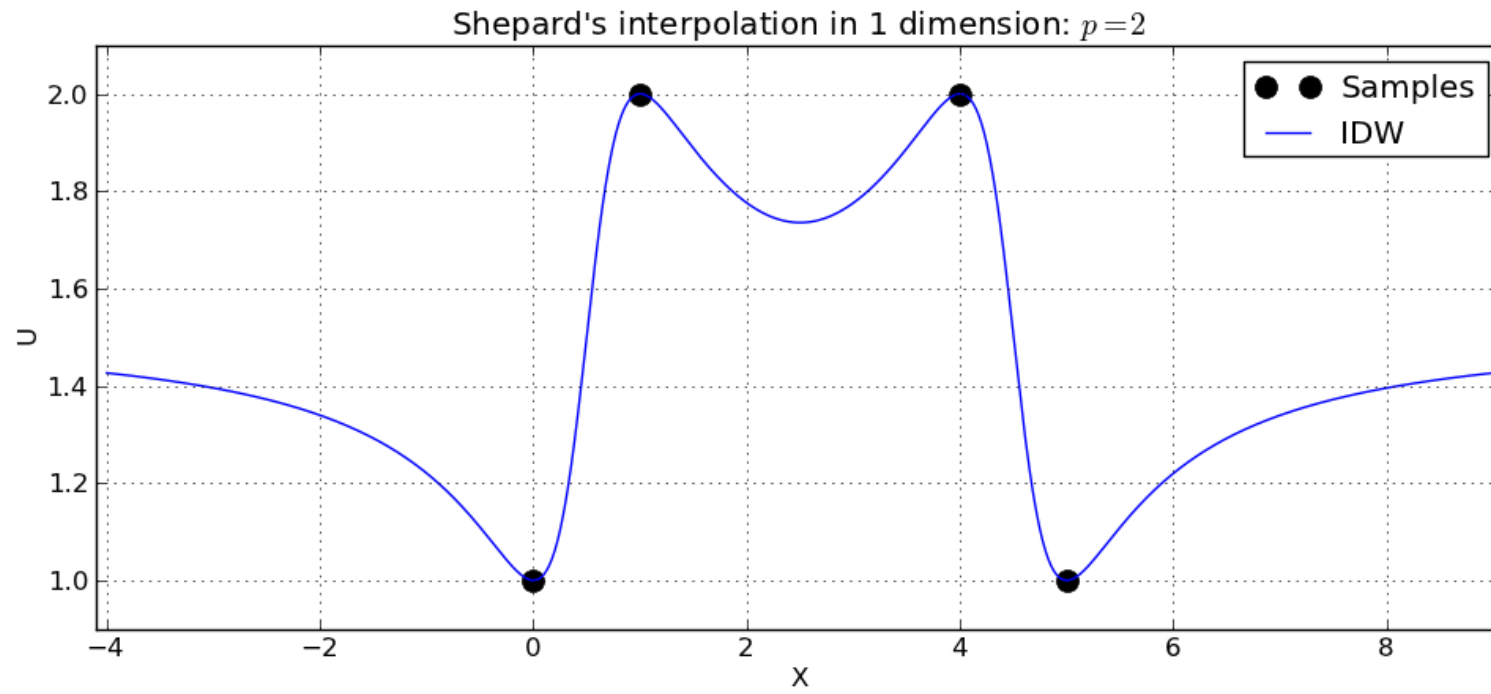


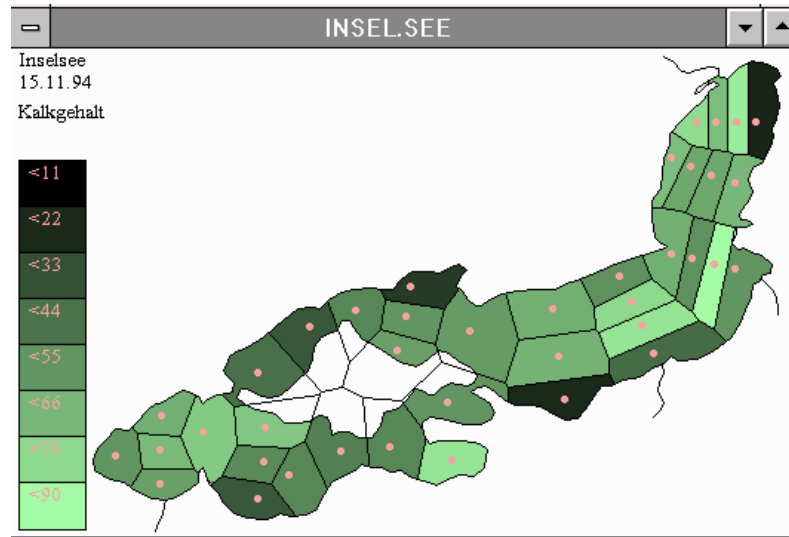
- There is a variety of further scattered data interpolation schemes, e.g., radial basis functions.
- One of them is the **Shepard approach**:

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{w_k(x, y)}{\sum_{j=1}^n w_j(x, y)} f_k$$

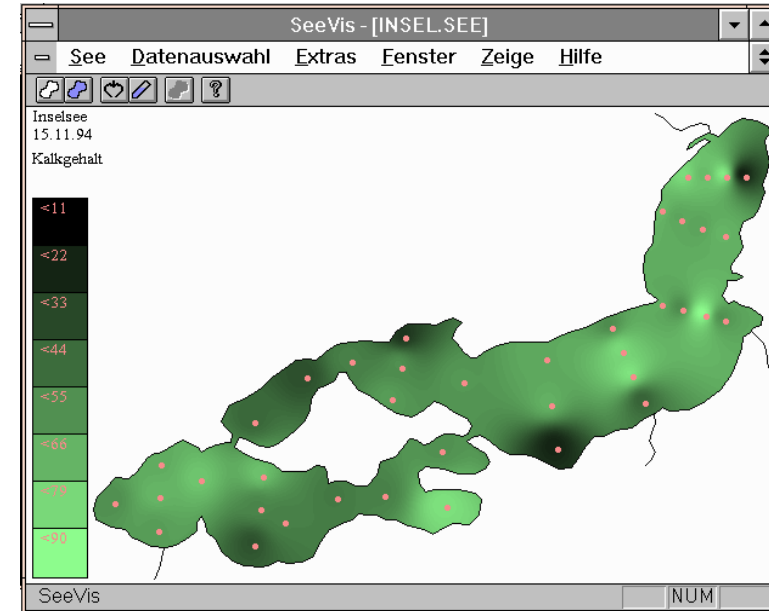
- The weight function $w_k(x, y)$ is constructed in such a way that the impact of an observation point decreases far away from the observation point, i.e.,

$$w_k(x, y) = \frac{1}{((x - x_k)^p + (y - y_k)^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}} = \left(\frac{1}{d_k}\right)$$





2D Voronoi diagram



Shepard interpolation

- For this choice of w_k , all data values have global impact.
- Using the **Franke Little weight function**, local impact can be achieved.

$$w_k(x, y) = \left(\frac{\max(r - d_k, 0)}{r d_k} \right)^2$$

Summary

- Fields are continuous representations of variables
 - analytic formulae
 - interpolation
 - in grids / meshes
 - gridless
- Interpolation
 - Linear / Cubic basis functions
 - Multidimensional interpolation (bi-linear, tri-linear ...)
 - Linear interpolation on triangles and tetrahedra
 - Grid free interpolation using Shepard approach
- Gradients
 - Derivatives of (interpolation) formulae
 - Finite differences