

## Module 3: Bezier Techniques



## Learning Objectives

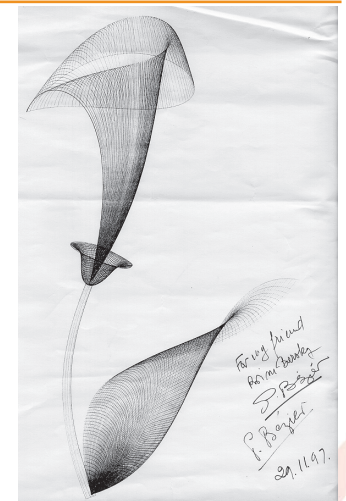
- Understand the definition of Bezier curves
- Understand what make Bezier curves popular
- Learn typical algorithms of Bezier curves

## Sources

- Textbook (Chapter 3.5: Bezier curves)
- Joy's On-Line Geometric Modeling Notes (Bernstein polynomial, Bezier curves and patches)  
<http://graphics.idav.ucdavis.edu/education/CAGDNotes/homepage.html>
- Shene's Computing with Geometry Notes (Unit 5. Bezier curves)  
<http://www.cs.mtu.edu/~shene/COURSES/cs3621/NOTES/notes.html>

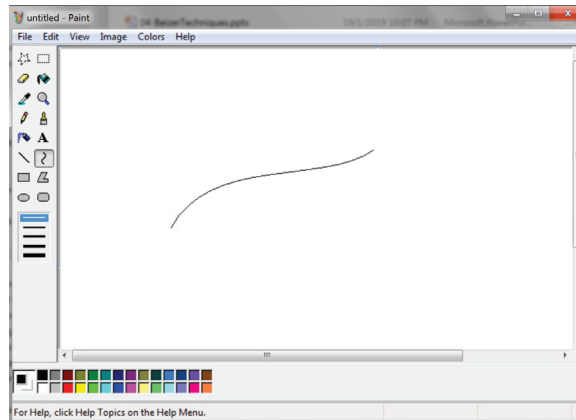
## Outline

- §1. Introduction
- §2. Formulation of Bezier curves
- §3. Properties of Bezier curves
- §4. Algorithms for Bezier curves
- §5. Homework
- §6. Summary



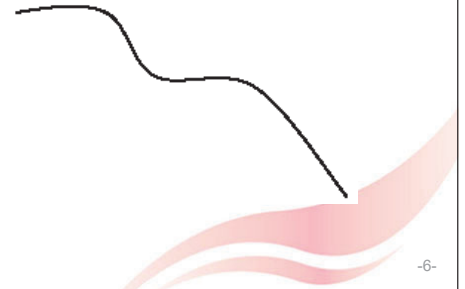
## Introduction

- MS-Paint



## Introduction

- Problem: How can we efficiently and effectively design, represent and manipulate curves that can be used to interpolate or fit data points?
  - Flexible model
  - Easy to compute
  - Intuitive, user friendly interface is possible
- Our choice:
  - Parametric
    - Polynomial
    - Bezier



## Why parametric curves?

- A curve can be approximated by a polygon/polyline.
  - doesn't work well when scaled
  - needs lots of points to make the curve look smooth
  - inconvenient to have to specify so many points
- A curve can be represented implicitly:  $f(x,y) = 0$ .
  - difficult to plot
- A parametric curve can tell where the fly is at time  $t$ . It describes the motion of a point through space at time  $t$ .



## Parametric polynomial curves

- The functions  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  are both polynomials.

$$\begin{aligned}x &= x(t) = a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n \\ y &= y(t) = b_0 + b_1t + \dots + b_nt^n\end{aligned}$$

or in vector form

$$P(t) = P_0 + P_1t + \dots + P_nt^n, \quad \text{where } P_i = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}$$

- Eg. cubic

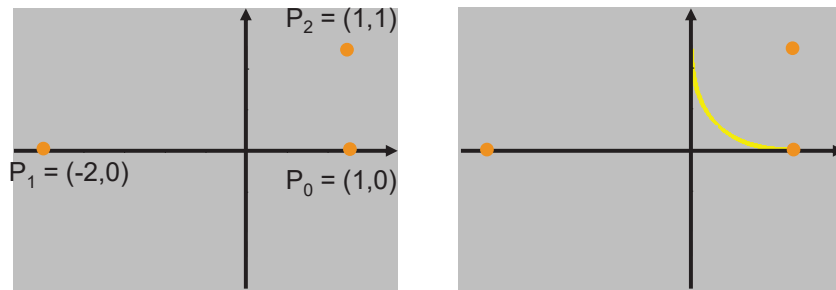
$$P(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}t + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}t^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}t^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1+t+2t^2+3t^3 \\ 2-t+2t^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Polynomial curves have advantages: easy to compute, differentiable, ...

## What's wrong with standard polynomials for design?

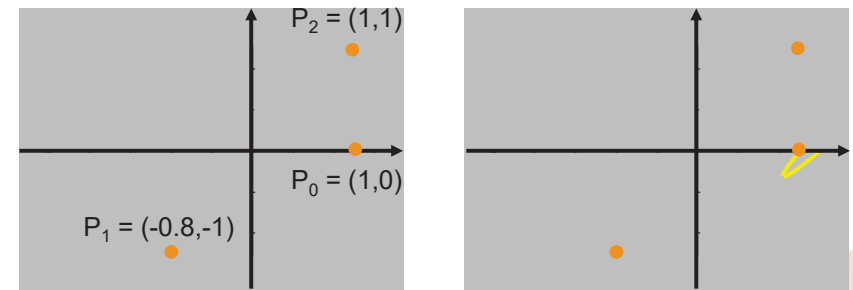
$$P(t) = P_0 + P_1 t + P_2 t^2, \quad t \in [0,1]$$

where  $P_0 = (1,0)$ ,  $P_1 = (-2,0)$ ,  $P_2 = (1,1)$



## What's wrong with standard polynomials for design?

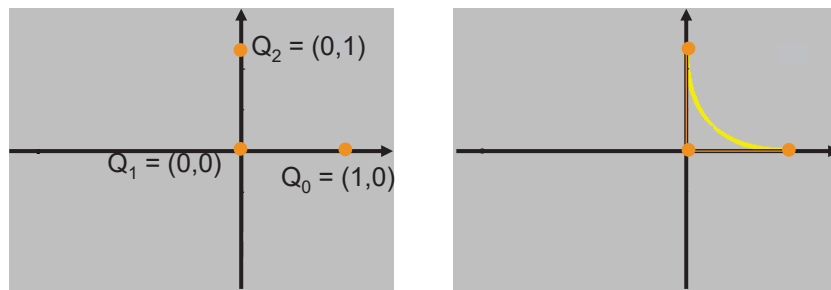
- When  $P_1$  is changed into  $P_1 = (-0.8, -1)$ , how about the curve?



## Bezier's solution

Assume  $P_0 = (1,0)$ ,  $P_1 = (-2,0)$ ,  $P_2 = (1,1)$ . We rewrite

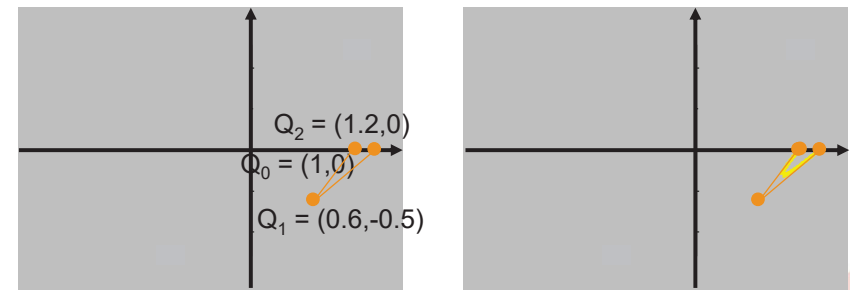
$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= P_0 + P_1 t + P_2 t^2 = (1 - 2t + t^2, t^2) \\ &= (1,0)(1-t)^2 + (0,0)2(1-t)t + (0,1)t^2 \end{aligned}$$



## Bezier's solution

Assume  $P_0 = (1,0)$ ,  $P_1 = (-0.8, -1)$ ,  $P_2 = (1,1)$ . We rewrite

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= P_0 + P_1 t + P_2 t^2 = (1 - 0.8t + t^2, -t + t^2) \\ &= (1,0)(1-t)^2 + (0.6, -0.5)2(1-t)t + (1.2,0)t^2 \end{aligned}$$

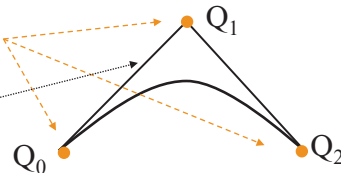


## Bezier's solution

- In the previous example, Bezier's solution uses  $\{(1-t)^2, 2(1-t)t, t^2\}$  (instead of the power bases  $\{1, t, t^2\}$ ) as the basis functions, which makes the coefficients mean something. What?

Coefficients  $\equiv$  **"Control points"**

Polygon  $\equiv$  **"Control polygon"**



- As a result, this model provides an intuitive interface for users to control / edit the shape.

## History

- Bézier curves and surfaces were developed in the 1960s, independently, by Pierre Bézier and Paul de Casteljau. These curves and surfaces were initially used as the basic form in computer modeling to define car bodies in auto-manufacturing.

- Pierre Bézier: (1 Sep 1910 – 25 Nov 1999)  
a French engineer at Renault



- Paul de Casteljau: (19 Nov 1930 – 24 March 2022)  
a French engineer at Citroen



## History

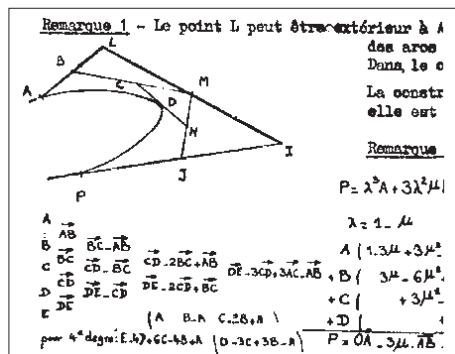
The scheme originally proposed by Bezier is:

$$P(t) = \sum_{j=0}^n A_j^n(t) a_j \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1,$$

$$A_0^n(t) = 1, \quad A_j^n(t) = \frac{(-t)^j}{(j-1)!} \frac{d^{j-1}}{dt^{j-1}} \frac{(1-t)^{n-1}}{t}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

$$a_0 = P_0, \quad a_j = P_j - P_{j-1}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

De Casteljau's description is:



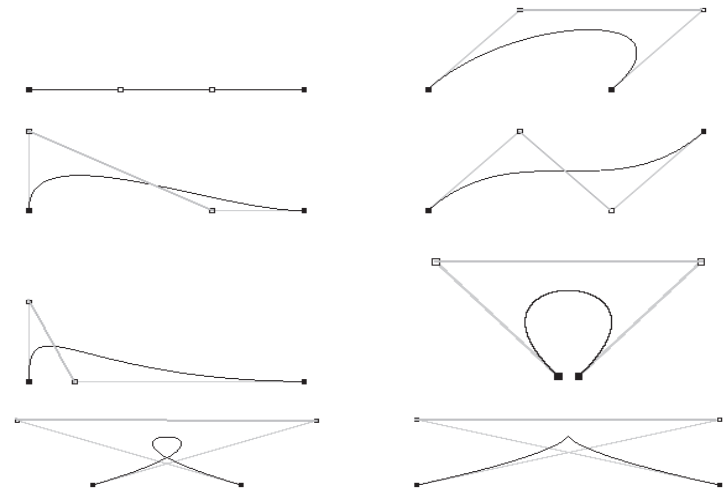
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## Bezier curve

- A Bezier curve is defined by a polyline
  - called a control polygon, vertices called control points
  - the control points are ordered to form a polyline
- Any number of the control points may be used, but 4 and 3 are most popular.
  - order of the curve = number of control points
  - degree of the curve = order of the curve - 1
- The Bézier curve approximates the polyline. It passes through its first and last control points, but, in general, no others.

## Examples: cubic Bezier curves



## Mathematical formulation

Given a set of ordered points  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n$ , the degree  $n$  Bezier curve is a curve segment defined by parametric equation:

$$P(t) = P_0 B_0^n(t) + P_1 B_1^n(t) + \dots + P_n B_n^n(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n P_i B_i^n(t), \quad t \in [0,1]$$

where the *basis* functions or *blending* functions

$$B_i^n(t) = \binom{n}{i} (1-t)^{n-i} t^i$$

are the Bernstein polynomials, satisfying  $\sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) \equiv 1$ .

If you consider  $B_i^n(t)$  is a variable mass assigned to point  $P_i$ , then the above formula defines the mass center of these points at time  $t$ . As  $t$  varies between 0 and 1, a curve is swept out by the center of masses. This curve is the Bezier curve.

## Explicit form for lower degrees

- We can say a Bezier curve is a linear combination of the basis functions:

- Linear ( $n=1$ ):

$$P(t) = P_0 B_0^1(t) + P_1 B_1^1(t) = P_0(1-t) + P_1 t$$

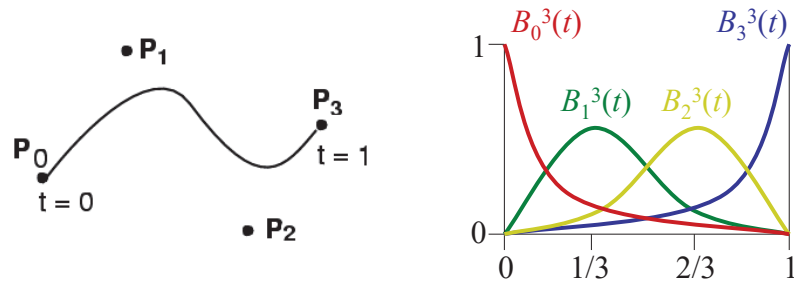
- Quadratic ( $n=2$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= P_0 B_0^2(t) + P_1 B_1^2(t) + P_2 B_2^2(t) \\ &= P_0(1-t)^2 + P_1 2(1-t)t + P_2 t^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Cubic ( $n=3$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} P(t) &= P_0 B_0^3(t) + P_1 B_1^3(t) + P_2 B_2^3(t) + P_3 B_3^3(t) \\ &= P_0(1-t)^3 + P_1 3(1-t)^2 t + P_2 3(1-t)t^2 + P_3 t^3 \end{aligned}$$

## Example: cubic Bezier curve



$$Q(t) = P_0(1-t)^3 + P_13(1-t)^2t + P_23(1-t)t^2 + P_3t^3$$

## What're the Bernstein polynomials?

### Recall

$$((1-t) + t)^n = \binom{n}{0}(1-t)^n t^0 + \binom{n}{1}(1-t)^{n-1} t^1 + \cdots + \binom{n}{n}(1-t)^0 t^n$$

- the Bernstein polynomials  $B_i^n(t) = \binom{n}{i}(1-t)^{n-i} t^i$  are the terms of the expansion of  $((1-t) + t)^n$ .

- partition of unity:  $\sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) \equiv 1$ .

- binomial coefficient ("n-choose-i"):

$$\binom{n}{i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 2 \cdot 1}{[(n-i)(n-i-1)\cdots 1] \cdot [i(i-1)\cdots 1]}$$

- lerps of lower degrees:  $B_i^n(t) = (1-t)B_i^{n-1}(t) + tB_{i-1}^{n-1}(t)$

## Outline

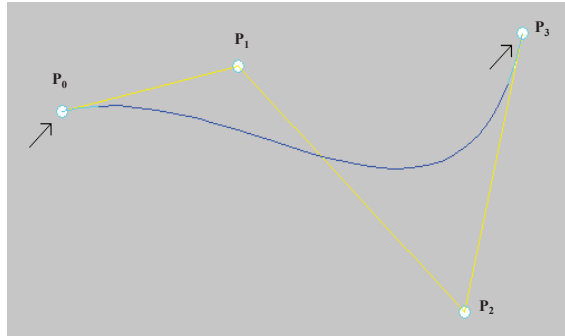
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## Properties

- Endpoint interpolation
- Co-tangency
- Affine invariance
- Convex hull
- Linear precision
- Variation diminishing

## Endpoint interpolation

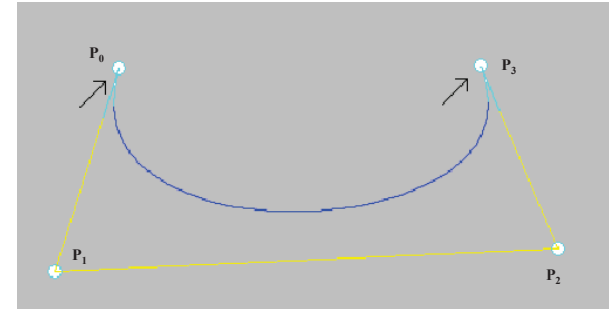
- The Bezier curve always passes through the end points of the control polygon.



- Why?  $P(0) = P_0, P(1) = P_n$

## Co-tangency

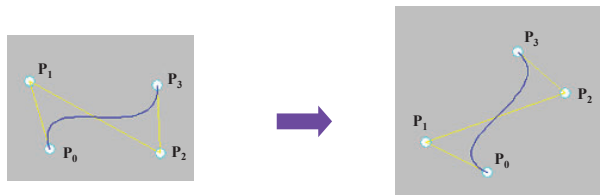
- The ends of the Bezier curve are always tangential to the first and last legs of the control polygon.



- Why?  $P'(0) = n(P_1 - P_0), P'(1) = n(P_n - P_{n-1})$

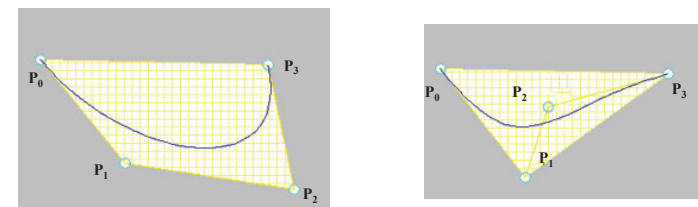
## Affine invariance

- Any linear transformation (translation, rotation, scaling) of the control points defines a new curve that is just the transformation of the original curve.
- Implication: If the control polygon is rotated or translated, then the shape of the curve will not change



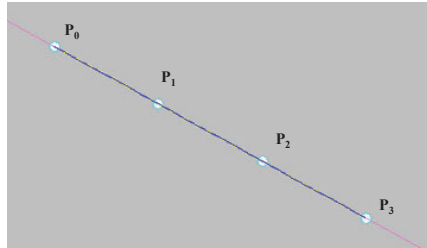
## Convex hull

- The Bezier curve always remains within the convex hull of its control polygon.
- The convex hull is the tightest convex polygon that completely surrounds the control points.



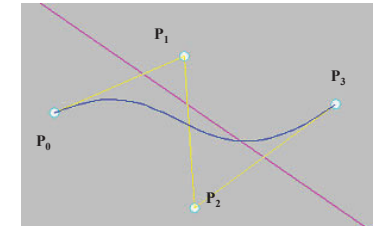
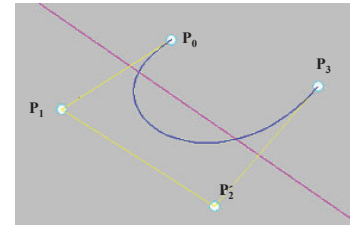
## Linear precision

- If the control points of the Bezier curve lie upon a straight line and are equally spaced along the line, then the curve is the line segment connecting the two end points.



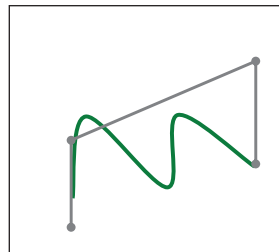
## Variation diminishing

- The Bezier curve does not intersect an arbitrary line more times than the control polygon.
- Implication: The Bezier curve does not “wiggle” any more than the control polygon.



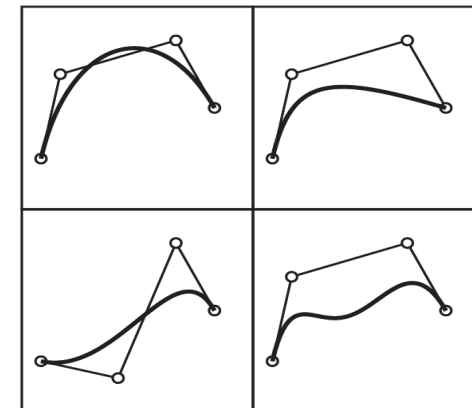
## Question for you

Refer to the figure. Someone draws the green curve as the Bezier curve defined by the black control polygon. Please show the mistakes in this drawing.



## Question for you

- Which of the curves MUST not be the cubic Bezier curve defined by the respective control polygon?





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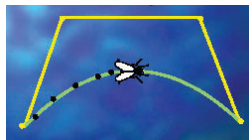
## Algorithms

- de Casteljau algorithm
- Subdivision algorithm
- Degree elevation
- Differentiation
- Tessellation

### 4.1 de Casteljau algorithm

- Problem: where is the fly at time  $t$ ?

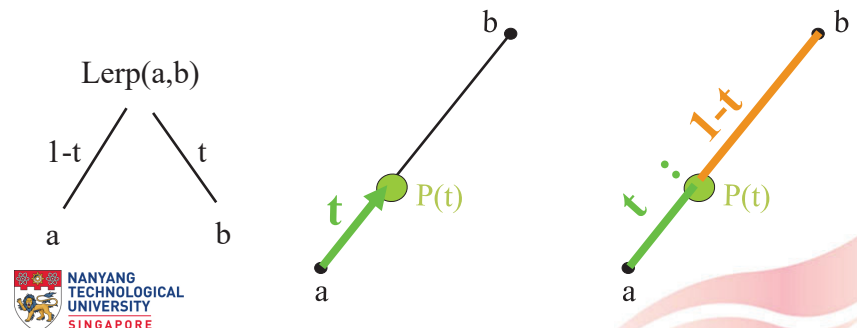
Mathematically, how can we evaluate the point on the Bezier curve corresponding to parameter  $t$ ?



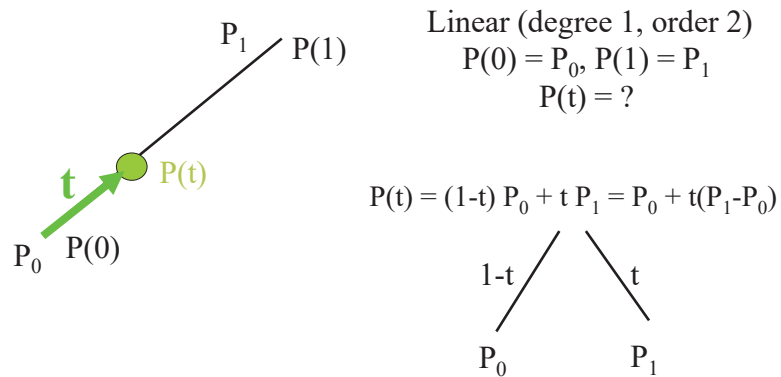
- Brute force solution: directly substitute  $t$  into the formula to evaluate  $P(t)$ . For example,  $P(t) = (1-t)^2 P_0 + 2(1-t)t P_1 + t^2 P_2$ . However, this is probably the worst method of evaluating a point on the curve. Numerical instability, caused by raising small values to high powers, generates errors.
- Better solution: de Casteljau's algorithm !

### Basic process: Lerp

- Lerp – linear interpolation:  $P(t) = (1-t)a + tb = a + t(b-a)$
- Notation:  $\text{Lerp}(a,b) = (1-t)a + tb$
- $\text{Lerp}(a,b)$  linearly interpolates  $a$  and  $b$ . As  $t$  varies between 0 and 1,  $\text{Lerp}(a,b)$  gradually changes from  $a$  to  $b$ .

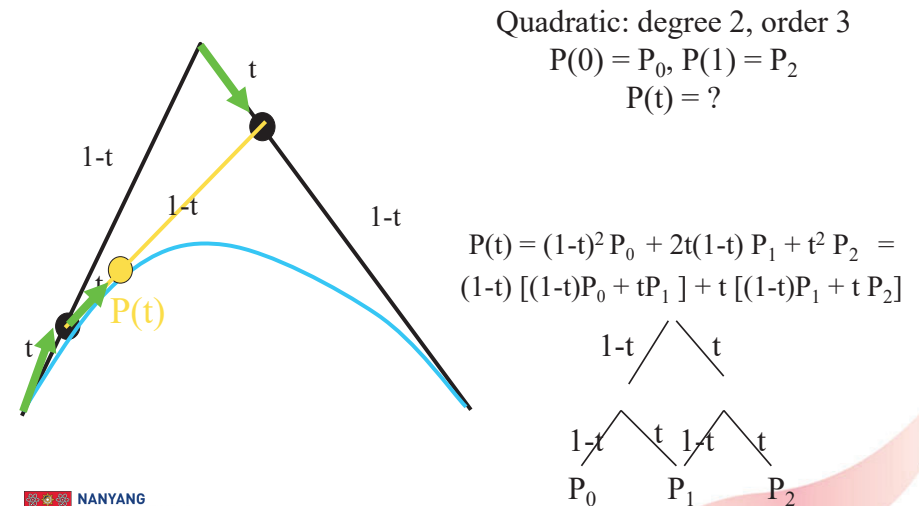


## Linear Bezier curve



easy to code up, very stable numerically

## Quadratic Bezier curve



## General Bezier curves

The de Casteljau algorithm can be regarded as repeated linear interpolation:

- Step 1. Divide each leg into parameter proportions
- Step 2. Connect with new segments
- Step 3. Repeat with new segments
- Step 4. The final point is on the curve.



## de Casteljau algorithm

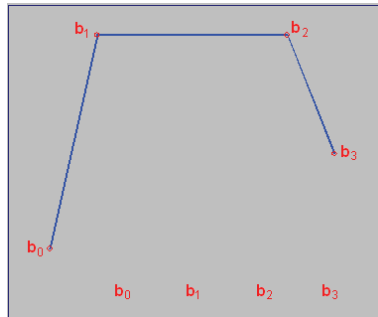
Input: control polygon  $P_0 P_1 \dots P_n$  and parameter value  $t$

Output:  $P(t)$

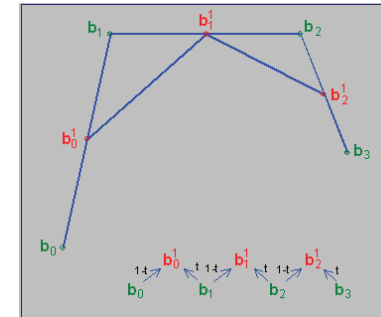
Procedure:

1. Initialize  $P_0^0 = P_0, P_1^0 = P_1, \dots, P_n^0 = P_n$
2. for  $k$  from 1 to  $n$  do
3.   for  $i$  from 0 to  $n-k$  do
4.      $P_i^k(t) = (1-t)P_i^{k-1} + tP_{i+1}^{k-1}$
5.   end-for
6. end-for
7. return  $P(t) = P_0^n$

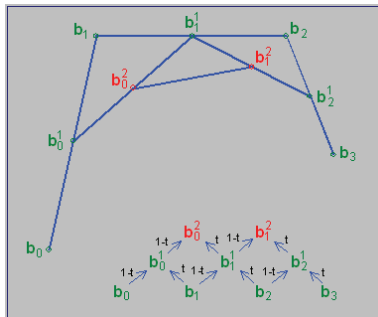
## Illustration of de Casteljau algorithm



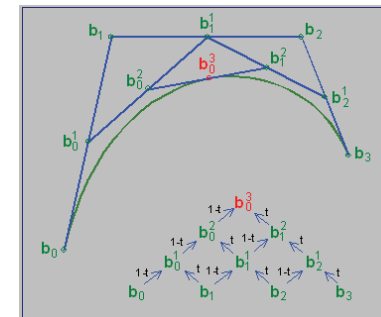
## Illustration of de Casteljau algorithm



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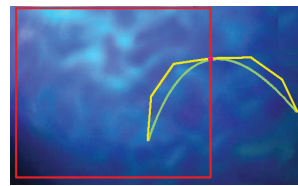
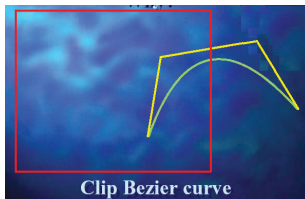


## Illustration of de Casteljau algorithm



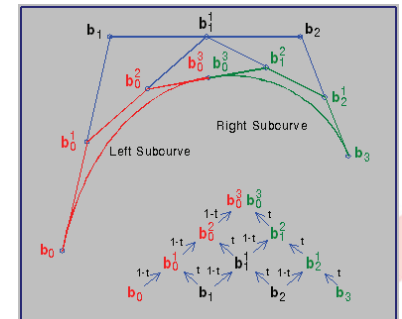
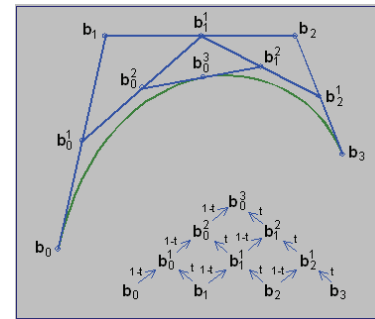
## 4.2 Subdivision algorithm

- Subdivision for a Bézier curve is to split it into two (or several) segments, each of which is also a Bézier curve. Subdivision makes divide-conquer possible. Uses include:
  - Design refinement: permit existing designs to be refined and modified.
  - Clip a curve to a boundary: visualization, other operations



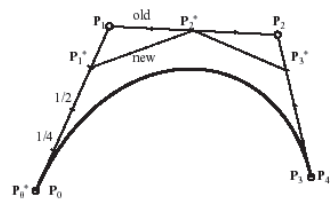
## Subdivision via de Casteljau

- Subdivision can be accomplished by de Casteljau algorithm. By using the left and right legs of the de Casteljau pyramid as control points, two separate Bézier curves are obtained that together replicate the original.



## 4.3 Degree elevation

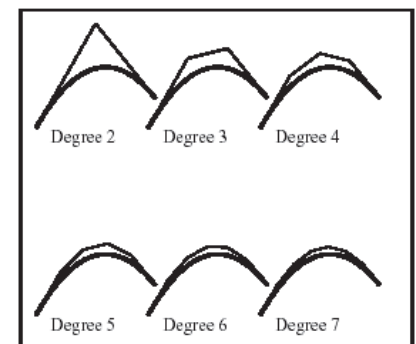
- The algorithm to find the Bézier curve of the next higher degree is called *degree elevation*. Degree elevation is always possible.
- Given a Bézier curve of degree  $n$  with control points  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n$ , it may be proved that the control points for the Bézier curve of degree  $n+1$  can be found as follows:



- The endpoints are identical:  $P_0^* = P_0, P_{n+1}^* = P_n$
- The others are  $P_i^* = \frac{i}{n+1}P_{i-1} + (1 - \frac{i}{n+1})P_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

## Repeated degree elevation

- Degree elevation can be used to unify the degree of different degree curves. It can also be used to increase the degree of freedom for design.
- When degree elevation is repeated, the control polygon will converge to the curve.



## 4.4 Differentiation

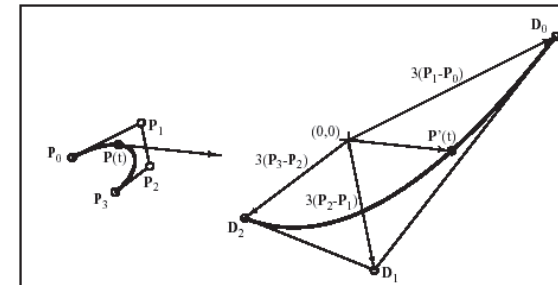
Derivative of a degree  $n$  Bezier curve  $P(t)$  is

$$P'(t) = n \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (P_{i+1} - P_i) B_i^{n-1}(t)$$

- That is, the parametric derivative of a degree  $n$  Bezier curve can be determined geometrically from its control points. It can be expressed as a curve of degree  $n-1$  with control points  $D_i = n(P_{i+1} - P_i)$ .
- It is easy to obtain that  $P'(0) = n(P_1 - P_0)$  and  $P'(1) = n(P_n - P_{n-1})$ .
- The first derivative curve is known as a *hodograph*.

## Bezier curve and hodograph

- The first derivative of a parametric curve provides us with a tangent vector.
- This differentiation can be repeated to obtain higher derivatives.



## Example: power basis $\rightarrow$ Bernstein

Geometric approach: Given a curve  $P(t)$  in any form, we use its positions and differentiations at two endpoints to determine the Bezier control points.

$$\begin{aligned} P_0 &= P(0), \quad P_n = P(1) \\ n(P_1 - P_0) &= P'(0), \quad n(P_n - P_{n-1}) = P'(1) \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

**Example:** convert degree 2 curve  $Q(t) = Q_0 + Q_1t + Q_2t^2$  into the Bezier representation.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution: } P_0 &= Q(0) = Q_0, \quad P_2 = Q(1) = Q_0 + Q_1 + Q_2 \\ 2(P_1 - P_0) &= Q'(0) = Q_1 + 2Q_2t|_{t=0} = Q_1 \Rightarrow P_1 = P_0 + 0.5Q_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } Q(t) = Q_0 B_0^2(t) + (Q_0 + 0.5Q_1) B_1^2(t) + (Q_0 + Q_1 + Q_2) B_2^2(t)$$

## 4.5 Tessellation

- Flatness of a curve
- Adaptive tessellation

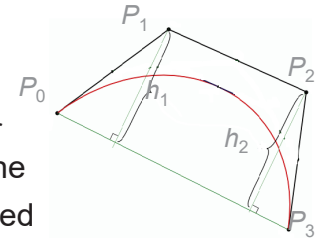
## Flatness

- Motivation: In many applications, the curve needs to be approximated by line segments. The less flat the curve is, the more line segments are needed. Therefore the question is **how to measure whether a curve is flat or not**.



## Estimate flatness

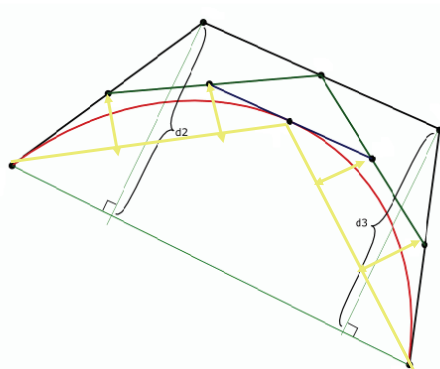
- Method: use convex hull property
  - Connect two endpoints  $P_0P_n$  as the base line.
  - Compute the distance  $h_i$  of all other control points  $P_i$  against the base line
  - Compute  $h = \max\{h_i\}$ . Then  $h$  is used as a bound of the flatness of the curve.
  - If  $h$  is smaller than given tolerance, the curve is flat. We just use the base line for the curve.



$$\text{Distance formula: } h_i = \frac{|P_0P_n \times P_0P_i|}{|P_0P_n|}$$

## Adaptive tessellation

- A tessellation algorithm:
  - keep breaking curve into sub-curves
  - stop when each sub-curve is nearly collinear
  - draw the base line



## Adaptive tessellation algorithm

```
void TessellateBezierCurve (BezierCurve *bez)
{
    double height = maxDistance (bez);
    if (height < ε) {
        outputLine(bez->P0, bez->Pn);
        return;
    }
    else {
        midSubdivide (bez, leftBez, rightBez);
        TessellateBezierCurve (leftBez);
        TessellateBezierCurve (rightBez);
    }
}
```

maxDistance (BezierCurve \*bez) : compute the maximal distance of the control points against the base line  $P_0P_n$ .

midSubdivide (BezierCurve \*bez, BezierCurve \*leftBez, BezierCurve \*rightBez): subdivide a Bezier curve into two sub-curves at the midpoint ( $t=0.5$ ).

## Outline

- §1. Introduction
- §2. Formulation of Bezier curves
- §3. Properties of Bezier curves
- §4. Algorithms for Bezier curves
- §5. Homework
- §6. Summary

## Homework

Q: Analyze whether the following two Bezier curves have the same shape or not.

Bezier curve 1:

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \begin{pmatrix} -52 \\ -22 \end{pmatrix} B_0^3(t) + \begin{pmatrix} -52 \\ 36 \end{pmatrix} B_1^3(t) + \begin{pmatrix} 18 \\ 40 \end{pmatrix} B_2^3(t) + \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ -60 \end{pmatrix} B_3^3(t), \quad t \in [0, 1]$$

Bezier curve 2:

$$\mathbf{r}_2(s) = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ -60 \end{pmatrix} B_0^4(s) + \begin{pmatrix} 12 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix} B_1^4(s) + \begin{pmatrix} -17 \\ 38 \end{pmatrix} B_2^4(s) + \begin{pmatrix} -52 \\ 21.5 \end{pmatrix} B_3^4(s) + \begin{pmatrix} -52 \\ -22 \end{pmatrix} B_4^4(s), \quad s \in [0, 1]$$

## Outline

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## Summary

- Bezier curve formulation
- Bezier curve properties and their implications
- Algorithms
  - de Casteljau algorithm
  - Subdivision algorithm
  - Degree elevation
  - Differentiation
  - Bezier curve tessellation

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# End