

## 1 Bezir curves

Bezir curves are defined by the control points and the basis function, which is called Bernstein polynomial. Bezir curve is given by the following formula:  $\sum_i^n B_i^n(t)$  Where the range of  $t = [0, 1]$  and  $B_i^n = \binom{n}{i}(1-t)^{n-i}t^i$  1:  $B_0^n = 1 \forall(t)$ . 2: The value of  $t < 0$  or  $t > n$  implies that the berstein polynomial is zero. 3  $t = 0$  or  $t = 1$  the value of berstein polynomial will be qual to 1. 4: If the interval is not between  $[0,1]$  for  $t$ , it must be rescaled.

## 2 Properties

The sum of all  $n$ th degree bernstein polynomials(basis) passing through any point for any value of  $\sum_i^n B_i^n(t) = 1$ . Proof: A bernstein polynomail of degree  $n$  is given by  $((1-t) + t)^n$ . (It can be seen why the Bezir curves touch the first and the last point. For the value of  $t = 0$ , the first term give 1 while for the value of  $t = 1$  the second term returns 1). Proof by Induction: Basis case: For  $n = 0$  the value of the function will  $((1-0) + 0) ==> 1$  Because it is proved for the value of  $r : r < n$  that the sum of all berstein polynomial passing any point on the interval for any value of  $t = 1$  then it must also be valid for  $n$ . Induction step: Using binomail theorem of Newton:  $(a+b)^n = \sum_i^n \binom{n}{i} (a)^{n-i}b^i$ . plugging the values we get  $\sum_i^n \binom{n}{i} (1-t)^{n-i}t^i = \frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!}(1-t)^{n-i}t^i$

## 3 Degree of bezier curve

Degree of a bezier curve ,given by  $n + 1$  control points, is  $n$ .

### 3.1 proof

In each basis function the degree of  $t$  is  $i + (n - i)$ .

## 4 Bezier curve passes through $p_0$ and $P_n$

### 4.1 Proof

By evaluating the bernstein polynomial( $B_i^n = \binom{n}{i}(1-t)^{n-i}t^i$ ), it can be seen that for the value of  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$ , the bernstein polynomial is equal is to 1. Which is then multiplied by control points, so it returns the position of first and last point.

## 5 Derivative of bernstein polynomial

### ■ Derivation of Bernstein polynomial

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} B_i^n(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \binom{n}{i} (1-t)^{n-i} t^i \\ &= \binom{n}{i} \cdot [i t^{i-1} (1-t)^{n-i} - (n-i) t^i (1-t)^{n-i-1}] \quad \text{product rule} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(i-1)!(n-i)!} t^{i-1} (1-t)^{n-i} - \frac{n!}{i!(n-i-1)!} t^i (1-t)^{n-i-1} \\ &= n \left( \frac{(n-1)!}{(i-1)!(n-i)!} t^{i-1} (1-t)^{n-i} - \frac{(n-1)!}{i!(n-i-1)!} t^i (1-t)^{n-i-1} \right) \\ &= n(B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) - B_i^{n-1}(t))\end{aligned}$$

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## 7 properties of Bezier curves

## 8 Convex Hull Property

### 8.1 Proof

Proof with the help of stelling 1 and step 1. The Bezier curve lies within the control polygon of curve. From the first property we know that the sum of all bernstein polynomials is equal to 1. (range of  $t$  is between 0 and 1) so multiplying any control-point with bernstein polynomials lies either on line or it intersects both ends if value of  $t = 0$  or  $t = 1$

### 8.2 step 1: convex combination of the points

Convex combination of the points is affine combination of the points and the sum of all weights is positive.

### 8.3 Stelling: 1

Convex combination of the finite points belongs to  $CH(M)$ . A convex combination equation has property that no matter what value we choose for  $t$  (value should be within range) the new point will lie on the line. Example:  $(1-t)A + tB$ .

## 9 Variation Diminishing Property:

No straight line intersects a Bzier curve more times than it intersects the curve's control polyline. This property shows that bezier curves follow their control poly-

gon strictly. It also shows that the curve is much smoother than its control polygon, on which it is defined.

## 10 Affine invariance

When we want to apply an affine transformation to a bezier curve, we can apply this transformation to the control points of the curve and the result will be the same. We do not need to transform the curve.

## 11 Bezeier curves always interpolate in $b_0$ and $b_n$

This happens because for the value of  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$  the basis function always returns 1.

## 12 Finding a point of the bezier curve

We can find a point on a bezier curve with the help of Casteljau's algorithm. Casteljau's algorithm works by finding points on the control polygon lines (points are on an affine plane, so we can create a convex combination) and then interpolates those points. At some point we find a line which interpolates two points on the line but also intersects the curves at a specific point, this is the point that we are looking for. Algorithm:

say that:  $b_i^0 = b_i$  and  $b_i^k$ :

Loop:

$k = 1$  to  $n$

$i = k$  to  $n$

$$b_i^k = (1-t)b_{i-1}^{k-1} + tb_i^{k-1}$$

### de Casteljau: bewijs

- punt op curve voor parameterwaarde  $t$ :  $\vec{x}(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n \vec{b}_i B_i^n(t)$   
vul recursiebetrekking in

$$\vec{x}(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n \vec{b}_i (1-t) B_i^{n-1}(t) + \sum_{i=0}^n \vec{b}_i t B_{i+1}^{n-1}(t)$$

vermits  $B_n^{n-1}(t) = 0$  en  $B_{-1}^{n-1}(t) = 0$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \vec{b}_i (1-t) B_i^{n-1}(t) + \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{b}_i t B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t)$$

in de eerste term nemen we nu  $j = i + 1$  als sommatie-index:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}(t) &= \sum_{j=1}^n \vec{b}_{j-1} (1-t) B_{j-1}^{n-1}(t) + \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{b}_i t B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \vec{b}_{i-1} (1-t) + \vec{b}_i t \right) B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{b}_i^{[1]} B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) \end{aligned}$$

$b_n^n = \vec{x}(t)$  Proof:

proces  $n$  maal herhalen, bekomen we  $\vec{x}(t) = \vec{b}_n^{[n]} B_0^0(t) = \vec{b}_n^{[n]}$

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Special case: For the value of  $t = 0$  in Casteljau's algorithm, the curve will interpolate in first point and this is the point on curve which we were searching. Advantage: Less calculations.

## 13 Derivative of a Bezier curve

- Afgeleide van Bernsteinveelterm: zie oefeningen

$$\frac{d}{dt} B_i^n(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \binom{n}{i} (1-t)^{n-i} t^i = n(B_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) - B_i^{n-1}(t))$$

- Afgeleide van Béziercurve  
 $t \in [0,1]$ : lokale parameter;  $u \in [u_j, u_{j+1}]$ : globale parameter  
 $t = (u - u_j) / (u_{j+1} - u_j)$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \vec{x}(t) = n \left( \Delta \vec{b}_0 B_0^{n-1}(t) + \dots + \Delta \vec{b}_{n-1} B_{n-1}^{n-1}(t) \right) = n \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Delta \vec{b}_i B_i^{n-1}(t)$$

$$\Delta \vec{b}_i = \vec{b}_{i+1} - \vec{b}_i.$$

$$\frac{d}{du} \vec{x}(t(u)) = \frac{d}{dt} \vec{x}(t) \frac{dt}{du} = \frac{n}{\Delta u_j} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Delta \vec{b}_i B_i^{n-1}(t) \quad \Delta u_j = u_{j+1} - u_j$$

## 14 Degree evaluation

A Bezier curve of degree  $n$  is also a Bezier curve of degree  $n+1$ . We have to introduce a new point on the curves as we increase degree. Increasing the degree will result in converging control polygon to a curve.

## 15 joining the curve in different segments

### 15.1 Collinearity:

Two or more than two points are said to be collinear if they lie on same straight line.

### 15.2 Joining the curves at different segments

When we want to join two curves at some point, we have to convert their points from local to global. So an equation for the first segment will be  $x_0(t(u)) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i B_i^n(t)$ ,  $u = (u_0, u_p)$  and  $x_1(t(u)) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i B_i^n(t)$ ,  $u = (u_p, u_n)$

### 15.3 Continuity

When we try to join two or more curves at some point, we try to make the curve at that point look smoother. This can be done in number of ways.

### 15.4 $C^0$ continuity

Say that the last control point of the first curve is  $b_3$  and first point of second segment is  $b_0^*$  then if  $b_3 = b_0^*$  then we get  $C^0$  continuity, it is not actually a continuity but it shows that two segments are touching each other.

### 15.5 $C^1$ continuity

Derivative of a curve at some point, gives the slope of a curve on that point. If we place  $b_0$  and  $b_0^*$  so that their slope is equal, then we get  $C^1$  continuity. In other words three points are said to be collinear ( $b_2, b_0^*$  and  $b_1^*$ ). Note: Derivatives are taken at the end point of the first curve and at the beginning of the second curve.

### 15.6 $C^2$ continuity

For  $C^2$  continuity, we have to take twice the derivative of the first segment at the end and second segment at the beginning of second segment and those derivatives should be equal. For further explanation, see course.

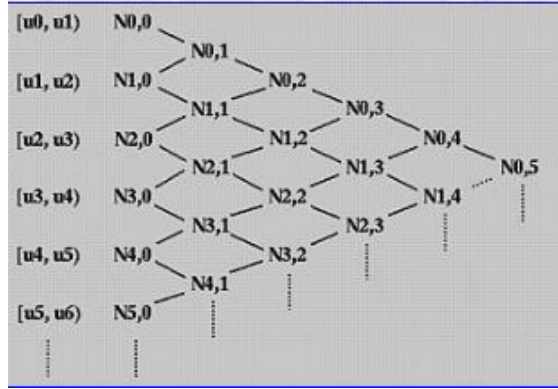
## 16 B-Splines

Splines are also combination of Basis function and points. However splines have two interesting properties that they are not non-zero at whole interval, it means that splines are only active at some intervals, for that reason if we move points associated with a specific domain, we will have local effect. The domain is divided in different knots.

The splines are defined as follow:

$$N_{i,0}(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u_i \leq u < u_{i+1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$N_{i,p}(u) = \frac{u - u_i}{u_{i+p} - u_i} N_{i,p-1}(u) + \frac{u_{i+p+1} - u}{u_{i+p+1} - u_{i+1}} N_{i+1,p-1}(u)$$

However the domain ( $U$ ) should be converted to a domain between 0 and 1 and the distance ratio must be same. For a spline of degree  $n$  we need  $n + 1$  (knots) and  $n$  knot-spans.



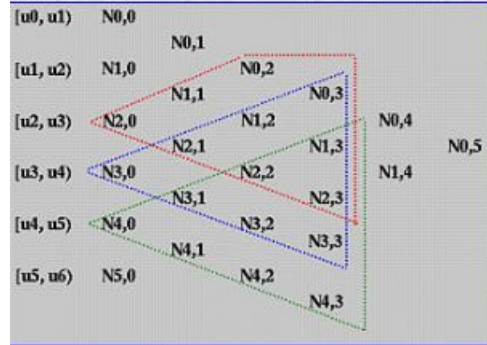
This can be seen by a triangular schema.

In simple , splines are piecewise continue functions at some domain. We have an important property if we look at the triangular schema:

Basis function  $N_{i,p}(u)$  is non-zero on  $[u_i, u_{i+p+1})$ . Or, equivalently,  $N_{i,p}(u)$  is non-zero on  $p+1$  knot spans  $[u_i, u_{i+1})$ ,  $[u_{i+1}, u_{i+2})$ , ...,  $[u_{i+p}, u_{i+p+1})$ .

This property can be seen from triangular schema shown below:

On any knot span  $[u_i, u_{i+1})$ , at most  $p+1$  degree  $p$  basis functions are non-zero, namely:  $N_{i-p,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+1,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+2,p}(u)$ , ...,  $N_{i-1,p}(u)$  and  $N_{i,p}(u)$ ,



## 17 Meaning of co-efficients

TODO

## 18 Properties of Basis function

Locality:

Because a Spline is active at a specific interval, as shown , that splines are not non-zero at whole interval , this shows that they have local control.

On any span  $[u_i, u_{i+1})$ , at most  $p+1$  degree  $p$  basis functions are non-zero, namely:  $N_{i-p,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+1,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+2,p}(u)$ , ..., and  $N_{i,p}(u)$

Partition of Unity – The sum of all non-zero degree  $p$  basis functions on span  $[u_i, u_{i+1})$  is 1: The previous property shows that  $N_{i-p,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+1,p}(u)$ ,  $N_{i-p+2,p}(u)$ , ..., and  $N_{i,p}(u)$

$p+2, p(u), \dots$ , and  $N_i, p(u)$  are non-zero on  $[u_i, u_i+1)$ . This one states that the sum of these  $p+1$  basis functions is 1. For proof, see book:

Each knot of multiplicity  $k$  reduces at most  $k-1$  basis functions' non-zero domain.

Consider  $N_i, p(u)$  and  $N_{i+1}, p(u)$ . The former is non-zero on  $[u_i, u_i+p+1)$  while the latter is non-zero on  $[u_{i+1}, u_{i+1}+p+2)$ . If we move  $u_{i+1}+p+2$  to  $u_{i+1}+p+1$  so that they become a double knot. Then,  $N_i, p(u)$  still has  $p+1$  knot spans on which it is non-zero; but, the number of knot spans on which  $N_{i+1}, p(u)$  is non-zero is reduced by one because the span  $[u_{i+1}+p+1, u_{i+1}+p+2)$  disappears. This observation can be generalized easily. In fact, ignoring the change of knot span endpoints, to create a knot of multiplicity  $k$ ,  $k-1$  basis functions will be affected. One of them loses one knot span, a second of them loses two, a third of them loses three and so on.

At each internal knot of multiplicity  $k$ , the number of non-zero basis functions is at most  $p - k + 1$ , where  $p$  is the degree of the basis functions.

Since moving  $u_{i-1}$  to  $u_i$  will pull a basis function whose non-zero ends at  $u_{i-1}$  to end at  $u_i$ , this reduces the number of non-zero basis function at  $u_i$  by one. More precisely, increasing  $u_i$ 's multiplicity by one will reduce the number of non-zero basis functions by one. Since there are at most  $p+1$  basis functions can be non-zero at  $u_i$ , the number of non-zero basis functions at a knot of multiplicity  $k$  is at most  $(p + 1) - k = p - k + 1$ . In the above figures, since the multiplicity of knot  $u_6$  are 1 (simple), 2, 3, 4 and 5, the numbers of non-zero basis function at  $u_6$  are 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1.

## 19 Coinciding points on curve

TODO

## 20 Part II

### 20.1 Algorithm voor discrete meetkundige problemen

In this part, we describe algorithms for discrete collection of objects. More attention is paid to the complexity of these algorithms because for humans a problem can be simple by visualization and however computer has to calculate to take some decisions.

### Discrete Geometric Problems

We divide the problems into two parts, the first part is decision problem. Where the answer is either yes or no. The Second sub-problem is Construction problem or Calculation problem.

## 20.2 Definitions

We describe problems in two dimensional Euclidean space. Where the distance formula of Euclidean is used.

## 20.3 Line

A line exist of two points( $P_0$  and  $P_1$  where the line self is a convex combination of two points. $(1 - t)P_0 + P_1$ . (A convex combination is a linear combination of points where all points are non-negative and sum to 1.)

## 20.4 Directed Line

As the name says, a directed line has start point and an end point.

## 20.5 Velhoek/polygon

In elementary geometry, a polygon /pln/ is a plane figure that is bounded by a finite chain of straight line segments closing in a loop to form a closed polygonal chain or circuit. These segments are called its edges or sides, and the points where two edges meet are the polygon's vertices (singular: vertex) or corners. Notice: If a polygon has N edges , it must have n points.

## 20.6 Simple Polygon

A polygon is simple if the Polygon side do not overlap(means , they do not have common edges except the end point of the first line and start point of other line).More formally:  $\forall(i): P_i \bar{P}_{i+1} \cap P_{i+1} \bar{P}_{i+1} = P_{i+1}$

## 20.7 Interna and External Polygons

A simple polygon divides the space into two saces , internal(which is nternal to polygon and external which is external to polygon). $Inw(V)$  and  $Uitw(V)$ .

## 20.8 Convex set/verzameling

In a Euclidean space (or, more generally in an affine space), a convex set is a region such that, for every pair of points within the region, every point on the straight line segment that joins the pair of points is also within the region.

## 20.9 Clock-Wise or anti-clockwise

We say that a vector  $P_0$  is clock-wise to a vector  $P_1$  is their vector product is positive because by using vector product/cross product we get a third vector which is perpendicular to both , first and second vector. If the sign is negative , then  $P_0$  is anti-clock wise to  $P_1$ .



### **20.10 Determining whether consecutive segments turn left or right**

Determining whether two line at a point  $p_1$  are clock-wise or anti-wise , we can simply calculate the cross-product and it gives the direction of the new segment.same as previous question