Advanced Topics in Computer Graphics II

Introduction and Parametric Curves



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October 08th, 2024





Organisation of the lecture



- Reinhard Klein (rk@cs.uni-bonn.de)
- Lecture (4h)

Tuesday: 12:15 pm - 13:45 pm

Thursday: 12:15 pm - 13.45 pm



Slides/materials on ecampus:

https://ecampus.uni-bonn.de/ilias.php?baseClass=ilrepositorygui&ref_id=3889436

- There you will find
 - Slides
 - Exercises
 - auxiliary materials



Organisation of the tutorials



- Domenic Zingsheim (<u>zingsheim@cs.uni-bonn.de</u>)
- Exercises (2h)
 - Timeslot is organized via ecampus until Friday, 17th,
 October, 23:59h



Tutorials



- Organisation
 - Practical part: Programming tasks (50%)
 - Theoretical part: list of questions (50%)

- 50% correct practial as well as 50% theoretical solutions is a prerequisite for the final examination!
- 70% of the sheets need to be passed (>50%)



Tutorials¹



Content of the practical part:

- C++ Framework, Geometry processing using OpenMesh and Eigen
- Required software: editor, C++ compiler (current versions of Visual Studio, GCC, Clang), CMake
- You can program at home
- Exercises are presented as unfinished code
- Code must be completed and well documented

Tutorials



Content of the theoretical part:

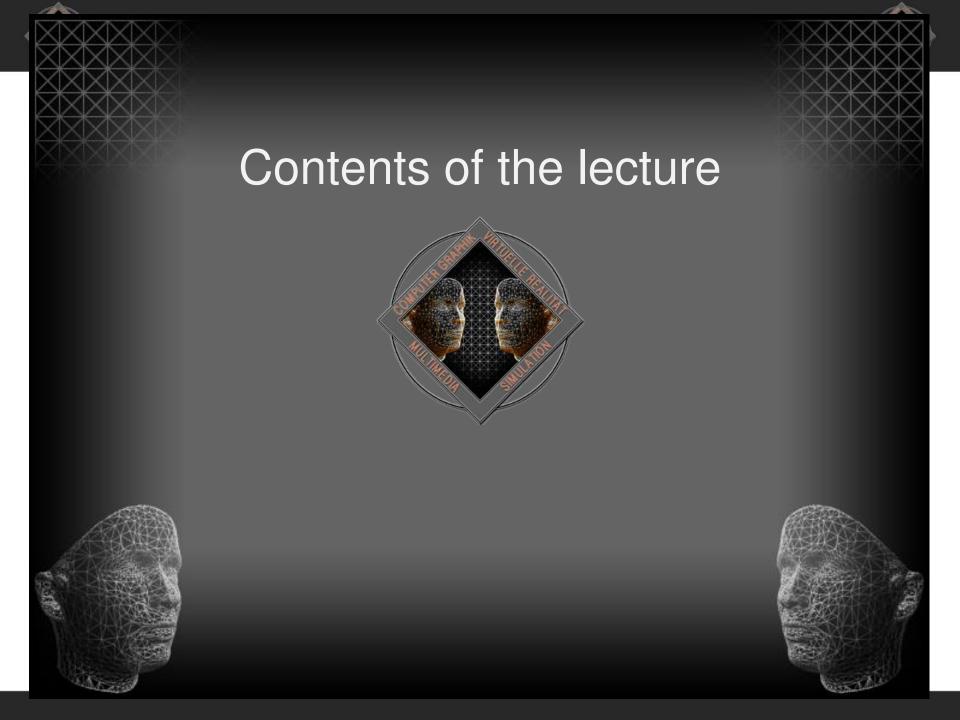
- Theoretical problems, enquiry (with literature)
- Mathematical concepts
- Meant to deepen lecture content
- Relevant for the exam
- Only PDF-Files written using LaTex are accepted



Examination



- Oral test
- Successful participation on the exercises required
- In addition to the content of the lecture the content of the exercises is included
- Schedule (preliminary)
 - First possible date: 2025-05-02, (or later by appointment)
 - Resit: End of March (or by appointment)





Content



I. Single shape modeling

- i. Curves, Surfaces and Classical Differential Geometry
- ii. The Laplacian and ist applications in Geometry Processing
- iii. Parametrizations and Deformations

II. Capturing shapes

- Point cloud registration (ICP, Coherent Point Drift)
- Surface Reconstruction from Depth Maps
- **Surface Reconstruction from Oriented Points**

III. Shape ensembles

- Similarity and symmetries of shapes
- ii. Shape spaces
- iii. Geodesics in Shape space (morphable models)
- iv. Example: the space of human body shapes

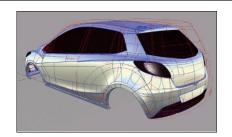


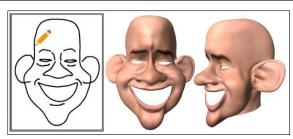
Parametric curves: Motivation



Applications

Design, sketching

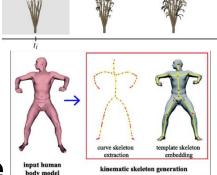


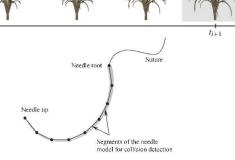


Animating knots

nots

Plants





Skeleton(s), structure

Bergou, Miklós, Max Wardetzky, Stephen Robinson, Basile Audoly, and Eitan Grinspun. "Discrete elastic rods." In *ACM SIGGRAPH 2008 papers*, pp. 1-12. 2008.

Han, Xiaoguang, Chang Gao, and Yizhou Yu. "DeepSketch2Face: a deep learning based sketching system for 3D face and caricature modeling." *ACM Transactions on graphics (TOG)* 36, no. 4 (2017): 1-12..

Golla, Tim, Tom Kneiphof, Heiner Kuhlmann, Michael Weinmann, and Reinhard Klein. 2020. "Temporal Upsampling of Point Cloud Sequences by Optimal Transport for Plant Growth Visualization." *Computer Graphics Forum* 39 (6): 167–79.

Luo, S., Feng, J. Symmetry-aware kinematic skeleton generation of a 3D human body model. Multimed Tools Appl 79, 20579–20602 (2020)

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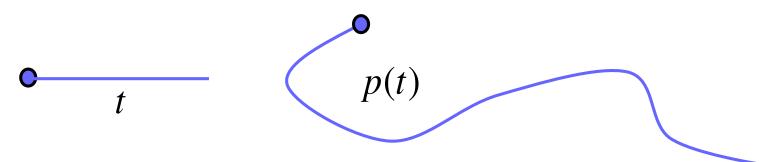


Parameteric Curves



Intuition

A particle is moving in space



At time t the particle position is given by

$$p: \square \to \square^d, d = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
$$t \mapsto p(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))^t$$



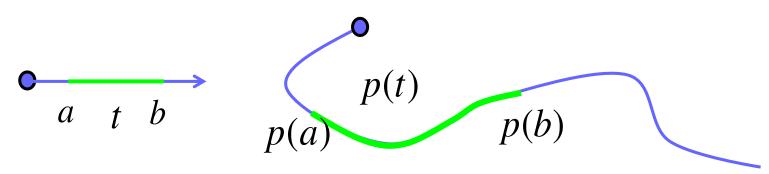
Parameteric Curves



Definition

• A parameterized differentiable curve is a differentiable map $p: \supset I \rightarrow d, d=1,2,3,...$

of an interval I = [a,b] of the real line into



• At time t its position is given by $t \mapsto p(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))^t$

• $p(I) \subset {}^{d}$ is the *trace* of p



Parametric Curves



- Different curves can have the same trace:
 - The same curve segment can be parametrised differently:

$$p_{1}:[0,1] \to \square^{3}, \ p(t) = tP_{1} + (1-t)P_{2}$$

$$p_{2}:[0,1] \to \square^{3}, \ p(t) = t^{2}P_{1} + (1-t^{2})P_{2}$$

$$P_{1} = P_{1} + (1-t^{2})P_{2}$$

•Definition:

- A parametric curve is n times continuously differentiable, when the mapping p is n times continuously differentiable.
- The derivative of p, p'(t) at point t is a vector in that determines the tangent direction of the curve at the given point $u \in \mathbb{D}^3$. A curve is regular, when p is once continuously differentiable ist and $p'(t)\neq 0$ for all $t \in [a,b]$.



More examples



More examples:

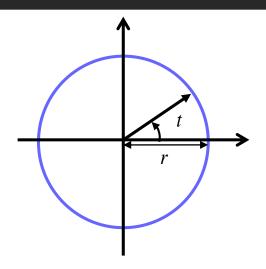
$$p: \square \to \square^d, d = 1, 2, 3, ...$$
$$t \mapsto p(t) = \left(x(t), y(t), z(t)\right)^t$$

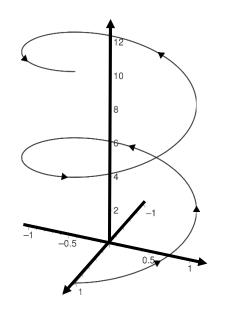
Circle

$$p(t) = r(\cos(t), \sin(t), 0)^{t}$$
$$t \in [0, 2\pi]$$

Helix

$$p(t) = (r\cos(t), r\sin(t), bt)^{t}$$
$$t \in [0, 2 \cdot 2\pi]$$





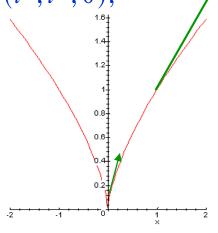


Parametric Curves



• More examples $p:[-2,2] \to \Box^3$, $p(t) = (t^3, t^2, 0)$;

$$p'(t) = (t^2, t, 0)$$
, so $p'(t)$ is continuously differentiable, but $p'(0) = 0$, so p is not regular at 0 .



- Intuitively, the degree of differentiability of a regular curve is represented by its smoothness.
 - direction of movement p'(t)
 - speed of movement p'(t)



Polynomial Curves



- $p:[a,b] \rightarrow \square^d$, $p(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + ... + c_n t^n$, $c_i \in \square^d$ is a polynomial of degree n in \square^d
- The set of all degree n polynomials form a vector space of dimension n+1. $(\alpha p + \beta q)(t) = \alpha p(t) + \beta q(t)$
- •The monomials $1,t,t^2,...t^n$ form a base over this vector space. Computing polynomials using Horner's method:

$$p(t) = c_n t^n + \dots + c_1 t + c_0$$

$$= (\dots((c_n t + c_{n-1})t + c_{n-2})t + \dots + c_1)t + c_0 \qquad \text{n Mult.} + \text{n Add.}$$

$$p(t) = c_3 t^3 + c_2 t^2 + c_1 t + c_0$$

$$= ((c_3 t + c_2)t + c_1)t + c_0$$



Polynomial space



Geometric meaning of the coefficients?

$$p(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + \dots + c_n t^n, c_i \in \square^d$$

$$c_0 = p(0), c_1 = p'(0), c_2 = \frac{1}{2}p''(0), ..., c_k = \frac{1}{k!}p^{(k)}(0)$$

• Coefficients affect the derivatives of the curve at point *0*. Modeling of curves using such coefficients is practically impossible.



Interpolation problem

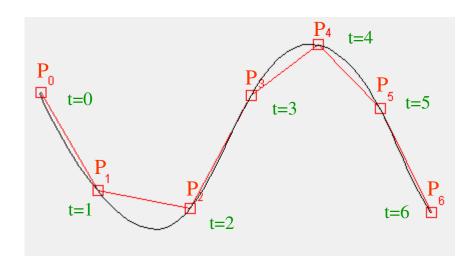


•Given: $P_i \in \square^d, t_i \in \square, i = 0,...,n$

 $(P_i \text{ control points}, t_i \text{ knots or parameter values})$

Want: Polynomial curve for which

$$p(t_i) = P_i, i = 0,...,n$$





Lagrange-Polynomial



- Given: knots $t_0 < t_1 < ... < t_n$
- Consider the degree n Lagrange-Polynomial

$$L_i^n(t) = \frac{(t - t_0)(t - t_1)...(t - t_{i-1})(t - t_{i+1})...(t - t_n)}{(t_i - t_0)(t_i - t_1)...(t_i - t_{i-1})(t_i - t_{i+1})...(t_i - t_n)}$$

• This gives:

$$L_i^n(t_k) = \delta_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Therefore, a linear combination of these polymonials solves the interpolation problem:

$$p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} P_i L_i^n(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} P_i \prod_{\substack{j=0 \ j \neq i}}^{n} \frac{t - t_j}{t_i - t_j}$$



Interpolation with cubic Hermite-Polynomials



• Using the cubic Hermite-Polynomials the derivatives (tangent-vectors) are also interpolated besides control points. In addition we have a useful new polynomial basis, the Hermite-Basis. In the cubic case we take the following four basis functions over the interval [0,1]:

$$H_0^3(t) = (1-t)^2(1+2t)$$
 $H_1^3(t) = t(1-t)^2$
 $H_2^3(t) = -t^2(1-t)$ $H_3^3(t) = (3-2t)t^2$



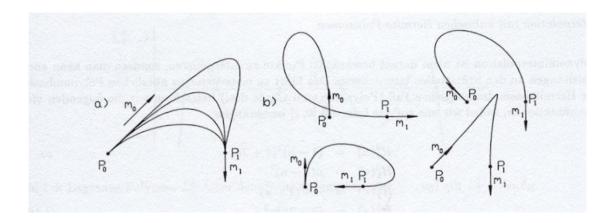
Interpolation with cubic Hermite-Polynomials



The curve

$$p(t) = p_0 H_0^3(t) + m_1 H_1^3(t) + m_2 H_2^3(t) + p_1 H_3^3(t)$$

is called Hermite curve. The coefficients 0 and 3 are points, while the coefficients 1 and 2 are the derivatives at these points.





Bernstein basis and Bézier curves



The polynomial

$$B_i^n(t) = \binom{n}{i} t^i (1-t)^{n-i}, \ t \in [0,1]$$

is the Bernstein polynomial of degree n over the interval [0,1]. They form a basis for the n+1 dimensional polynom space.

Properties of Bernstein polynomials:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} B_{i}^{n}(t) = 1$$
 partition of unity
$$B_{i}^{n}(t) \geq 0 \ t \in [0,1]$$
 nonnegativity
$$B_{i}^{n}(t) = tB_{i-1}^{n-1}(t) + (1-t)B_{i}^{n-1}(t)$$
 recursive definition
$$B_{i}^{n}(t) = B_{n-i}^{n}(1-t)$$
 symmetry



Bernstein basis and Bézier curves



$$p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i B_i^n(t), \ t \in [0,1], \ b_i \in \Box^d$$

is called Bézier curve of degree n over the interval [0,1]. The points b_i , i=0,...,n are the Bézier points or control points and give the Bézier polygon or control polygon.

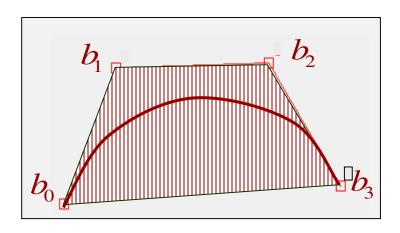
- The Bézier curve approximates the control polygon.
- •Since $\sum_{i=0}^{n} B_i^n(t) = 1$ holds Bézier curves are invariant under affine transformations.
- •As $B_i^n(t) \ge 0$ $t \in [0,1]$ also holds, the curve is contained in the convex hull of its defining control points.



Bernstein basis and Bézier curves



•Since $B_i^n(t) \ge 0$ $t \in [0,1]$ holds and $\sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) = 1$, the curve is contained in the convex hull of its control points.





Derivatives of Bézier curves



 The derivatives of a Bézier curve are also polynomials and can be expressed as Bézier curves:

$$p^{(k)}(t) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \sum_{i=0}^{n-k} \Delta^k b_i B_i^{n-k}(t), \ t \in [0,1]$$

Where $\Delta^k b_i$ is defined recursively:

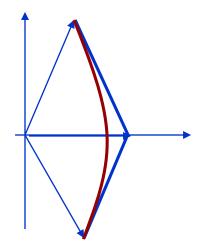
$$\Delta^{0}b_{i} = b_{i}$$

$$\Delta^{k}b_{i} = \Delta^{k-1}b_{i+1} - \Delta^{k-1}b_{i}$$

•For example:

$$\Delta^1 b_i = b_{i+1} - b_i$$







Polynomials – Matrix Notation



Example: Bernstein polynomials

Quadratic:

$$B_0^2(t) = (1-t)^2$$

$$B_1^2(t) = 2(1-t)t$$

$$B_2^2(t) = t^2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} B_0^2(t) \\ B_1^2(t) \\ B_2^2(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \\ t^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Cubic:

$$B_0^3(t) = (1-t)^3$$

$$B_1^3(t) = 3(1-t)^2 t$$

$$B_2^3(t) = 3(1-t)t^2$$

$$B_3^3(t) = t^3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
B_0^3(t) \\
B_1^3(t) \\
B_2^3(t) \\
B_3^3(t)
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \\
0 & 3 & -6 & 3 \\
0 & 0 & 3 & -3 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
1 \\
t \\
t^2 \\
t^3
\end{pmatrix}$$



Polynomials – Matrix Notation



- Example: Bezier Curves
- Cubic:

$$p(t) = b_0 B_0^3(t) + b_1 B_1^3(t) + b_2 B_2^3(t) + b_3 B_3^3(t)$$

$$p(t) = \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_0^3(t) \\ B_1^3(t) \\ B_2^3(t) \\ B_3^3(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \\ t^2 \\ t^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_{x}(t) \\ p_{y}(t) \\ p_{z}(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{0x} & b_{1x} & b_{2x} & b_{3x} \\ b_{0y} & b_{1y} & b_{2y} & b_{3y} \\ b_{0z} & b_{1z} & b_{2z} & b_{3z} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{0}^{3}(t) \\ B_{1}^{3}(t) \\ B_{2}^{3}(t) \\ B_{3}^{3}(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{0x} & b_{1x} & b_{2x} & b_{3x} \\ b_{0y} & b_{1y} & b_{2y} & b_{3y} \\ b_{0z} & b_{1z} & b_{2z} & b_{3z} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \\ t^{2} \\ t^{3} \end{pmatrix}$$



Arc Lenght



• Definition:

Arc length

$$p:[a,b] \to \Box^d, d = 1,2,3,...$$

 $s:[a,b] \to [0,s(b)], \ u \mapsto s(u) = \int_0^u ||p'(t)|| dt$

•Examples:

• $p(t) = r(\cos(t), \sin(t), 0)^t$, $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ $||p'(t)|| = r(-\sin(t), \cos(t), 0)^t$, $||p'(t)|| = r\sqrt{\sin^2(t) + \cos^2(t)} = r$ $s: [0, 2\pi] \to [0, s(2\pi)]$, $u \mapsto s(u) = \int_0^u rdt = ru$ $p(t) = (t^3, t^2, 0)$, $t \in [-2, 2]$ $p'(t) = (3t^2, 2t, 0)$, $||p'(t)|| = t\sqrt{9t^2 + 4}$ • $s: [a, b] \to [0, s(b)]$, $u \mapsto s(u) = \int_0^u t\sqrt{9t^2 + 4}dt$

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Arc Lenght Parametrization



Closed-Form Arc Lenght Gallery (taken from Mirela Ben-Chen)

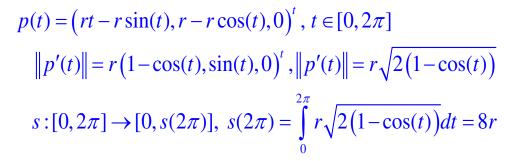


Cycloid



Logarithmic Spiral

$$p(t) = \left(ae^{bt}\cos(t), ae^{bt}\sin(t), 0\right)^t$$





Catenary

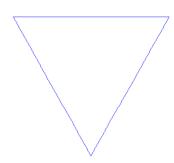
$$p(t) = \left(t, \frac{a}{2}\left(e^{t/a} + e^{t/a}\right), 0\right)^{t}$$



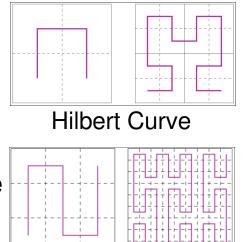
Curves with infinite Length



- Some curves have infinite length:
 - Koch snowflake:
 - Space filling curves



- Hilbert curve
- Peano curve
- Gosper curve
- Moore curve
- Sierpiński curve
- Z-order curve



	x: 000				1 4 1 100		6 110	7 111
y: 0 000	000000	000001	000100	000101	010000	01 0 0 0 1	010100	01 0101
1 001	000010	000011	000110	000111	010010	010011	010110	01 0111
2 010	001000	001 001	001100	001101	011000	011001	011100	011101
3 011	001010	001011	001110	001111	011010			011111
4 100	100000	100001	100100	100101	110000	110001	110100	110101
5 101	100010	100011	100110	100111	110010	110011	110110	110111
6 110	101000	101001	101100	101101	111000	111001	111100	111101
7 111	101010	101011	101110	101111	111010	111011	111110	111111

Z-order curve

Bader, Michael, and Space-Filling Curves. "An Introduction with Applications in Scientific Computing." *Texts in computational science and engineering* (2012).

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Peano Curve



Splines



• Spline: Given a set of knots $t_0 \le t_1 \le ... \le t_n$ and corresponding intervals $Ij := [t_{j-1}, t_j], j = 1, ..., n$ a spline is a mapping $q : [t_0, t_n] \to {}^d, d = 2, 3, ...$ such that for each interval Ij, j = 1, ..., n the spline segment $q_i : [t_{j-1}, t_j] \to {}^d, d = 2, 3, ...$

is a polynomial.

- The intervals $[t_i, t_{i+1}], i = 0, ..., n-1$ define the knot vector $\mathbf{T} = (t_0, t_1, ..., t_n)$
- •The spline segments join at the knots. At these parameters the properties of the derivatives are very important:
 - The tangents can differ both in length and in direction. If the directions are the same, but the lengths are different, then the curve is smooth at the point, but not differentiable ⇒ therefore we have to differentiate the terms geometric, resp. parametric continuity.



Parametric continuity



• **Definition:** (*C*ⁿ continuity):

Let
$$q_1 : [a_1, b_1] \to \square^3$$
, $q_2 : [a_2, b_2] \to \square^3$

be two *n* times continuously differentiable regular curves.

 q_1 , q_2 are C^n continuous at the points b_1 , a_2 if

$$q_1^{(k)}(b_1) = q_2^{(k)}(a_2)$$
 for all $k = 0,...,n$.



Geometric continuity



• **Definition:** (*G*ⁿ continuity)

Let $q_1:[a_1,b_1] \to {}^3, \ q_2:[a_2,b_2] \to {}^3$ be two n times continuously differentiable regular curves. $q_1,\ q_2$ are G^n continuous at the points $b_1,\ a_2$ if there exists a reparametrization $r_1=q_1\circ \varphi$ of q_1 with a bijective, differentiable mapping $\varphi:[a_0,b_0] \to [a_1,b_1],\ \varphi'(u)>0\ \forall\ u\in[a_0,b_0]$ such that

 $r_1 = q_1 \circ \varphi$ and q_2 are C^n continuous at b_1 , a_2 . Differentiating r_1 according to the chain rule leads to:

$$q_{2}(a_{2}) = r_{1}(b_{0}) = q_{1}(\varphi(b_{0}))$$

$$q'_{2}(a_{2}) = r'_{1}(b_{0}) = q'_{1}(\varphi(b_{0})) \cdot \varphi'(b_{0})$$

$$q''_{2}(a_{2}) = r''_{1}(b_{0}) = q''_{1}(\varphi(b_{0})) \cdot \varphi'(b_{0})^{2} + q'_{1}(\varphi(b_{0})) \cdot \varphi''(b_{0})$$

The coefficients $\beta_i := \varphi^{(i)}(b_0)$ are called β constraints.



Catmull-Rom Splines



Hermite Splines use cubic Hermite Polynomials to interpolate points and

tangents at the control points.

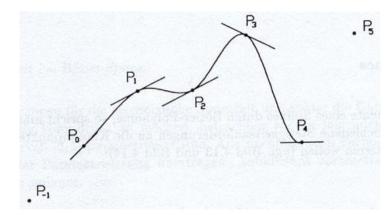
•The form of the curve strongly depends on the direction and length of the tangent vectors. p_1 p_2 p_3 p_4 $p_$

•The FMILL method formulate the tangents using the control points:

At P_i the tangent direction m_i is given by half of the chord $P_{i-1}P_{i+1}$. The resulting interpolation is called Catmull-Rom spline. It is a C^1 continuous

spline.

$$p^{i}(t) = (p_{i-1} \quad p_{i} \quad p_{i+1} \quad p_{i+1}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \\ t^{2} \\ t^{3} \end{pmatrix}}_{S_{3}^{Hermite}}$$
P-1





B-splines



- •Are there basis functions for splines?
- •Let $n \le m$ and $T = (t_0 = \ldots = t_n, t_{n+1}, \ldots, t_m, t_{m+1} = \ldots = t_{m+n+1})$ be a weakly monotonic sequence of knots with $t_i < t_{i+n+1}, 0 \le i \le m$. The recursively defined functions

$$N_{i}^{0}(t) := \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } t_{i} \leq t < t_{i+1} \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$N_{i}^{r}(t) := \frac{t - t_{i}}{t_{i+r} - t_{i}} N_{i}^{r-1}(t) + \frac{t_{i+1+r} - t}{t_{i+1+r} - t_{i+1}} N_{i+1}^{r-1}(t) \text{ for } 1 \leq r \leq n.$$

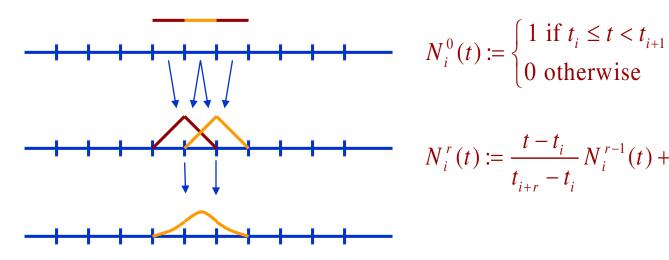
•are called normalized B-splines of degree *n* over *T*. Since the distance of consequtive knots is not constant they are also refered to as non uniform normalized B-splines.



Properties of B-splines



• $N_i^n(t)$ piecewisely consists of polynomials of degree n over T:



$$N_i^0(t) := \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } t_i \le t < t_{i+1} \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$N_{i}^{r}(t) := \frac{t - t_{i}}{t_{i+r} - t_{i}} N_{i}^{r-1}(t) + \frac{t_{i+1+r} - t}{t_{i+1+r} - t_{i+1}} N_{i+1}^{r-1}(t)$$

The functions $N_i^n(t)$ have local support, i.e. $N_i^n(t) = 0$ for $t \notin [t_i, t_{i+n+1}]$.

 $N_i^n(t) \ge 0$ holds for all $t \in [t_0, t_{m+n+1}]$.



Properties of B-splines



B-

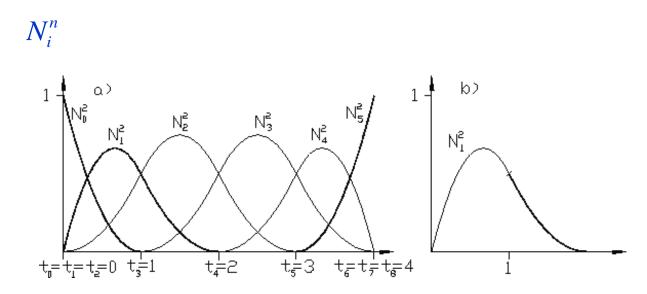
•All B-splines sum to one:

If t_j is a single knot, i.e. $t_{j-1} \neq t_j \neq t_{j+1}$, then

$$N_i^n(t_j)$$

is at least C^{n-1} -continous.

•At a multiple knot $s=t_{j+1}=...=t_{j+\mu}$ of multiplicity μ the normalized splines of degree n are at least $C^{n-\mu}$ -continous.





B-Spline Curves



•Let $n \le m$ and $T = (t_0 = ... = t_n, t_{n+1}, ..., t_m, t_{m+1} = ... = t_{m+n+1})$

be a weakly monotonic sequence of knots with $t_0 < t_{i+n+1}, 0 \le i \le m$

and $d_0, ..., d_m \in \mathbb{D}^d$, $0 \le i \le m$ a set of control points. The curve

$$p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} d_i N_i^n(t), \ \mathbf{d}_i \in \square^d$$

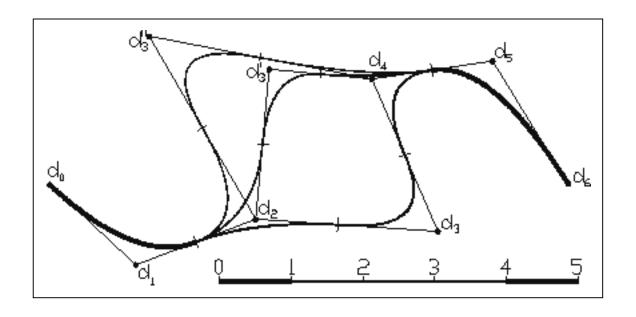
is callled B-spline curve of degree n over T. The control points are also referred to as de Boor Points. They constitute the control-polygon.



B-Splinekurven



- •As $N_i^n = 0$, for $t \notin [t_i, t_{i+n+1}]$ the *i*-th de Boor-point $\mathbf{d_i}$ influences the curve only within the parameter interval $[t_i, t_{i+n+1}]$.
- •Therefore, the shape of the curve within the parameter interval $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$ is completely determined by the de Boor-points $d_{i-n}, ..., d_i$





Arc Lenght Parametrization



•Definition:

· A curve p is called arc length parametrised, if

$$||p'(t)|| = 1, u \in [a,b]$$

•Remark:

In general curves are not arc length parametrized, e.g. Bezier Curves, Bsplines, Subdivision Curves are not arc length parametrized.



Arc Lenght Parametrization



Theorem:

Let $p:I \to d$ be a regular parametrized curve, and s(t) its arc length. Then the inverse function t(s) exists, and

$$q(s) = p(t(s))$$

is parametrized by arc length.

•Proof:

 $p \text{ is regular } \Rightarrow s(t) = ||p'(t)|| > 0 \ \forall t$

 \Rightarrow s(t) is a monotonic increasing function

 \Rightarrow the inverse function t(s) exists

$$\Rightarrow q'(s) = p'(t(s)) \cdot t'(s) = p'(t(s)) \cdot \frac{1}{s'(t(s))} = p'(t(s)) \cdot \frac{1}{\|p'(t(s))\|}$$

$$\Rightarrow ||q'(s)|| = 1$$



Tangent, Normal, Binomal, Curvature



•Definition:

Tangent vector, curvature vector and curvature for **arc length** parametrised curves:

$$T(s) := p'(s)$$

$$K(s) := T'(s) = p''(s)$$

$$N(s) := \frac{T'(s)}{\|T'(s)\|}$$

$$\kappa(s) := ||T'(s)|| = ||p''(s)||$$

$$r(s) := \frac{1}{\kappa(s)}$$

$$B(s) := T(s) \times N(s)$$

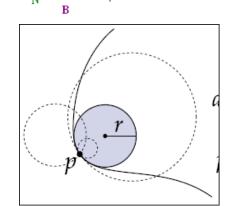
Tangent vector

Curvature vector

Normal vector

Curvature

If $||p''(s)|| \neq 0$:r(s) radius of curvature at s Binormal





Osculating plane, osculating circle

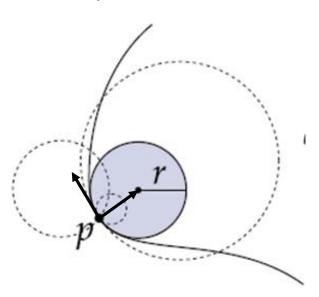


•Definition:

oThe plane determined by the unit tangent and normal vectors T(s) and N(s) is called the osculating plane. Suppose that $\kappa(s) \neq 0$ The corresponding center of curvature is the point M at distance

$$r(s) = \frac{1}{\kappa(s)}$$
 along $N(s)$.

The circle with center at M and radius r is called the osculating circle to the curve at the point p=p(s)





Torsion



For the binormal, we have

$$B'(s) = T'(s) \times N(s) + T(s) \times N'(s)$$

$$= \underbrace{\kappa(s)N(s) \times N(s)}_{0} + T(s) \times N'(s)$$

$$= T(s) \times N'(s)$$

and using the fact that

$$N'(s) = B'(s) \times T(s) + B(s) \times T'(s)$$

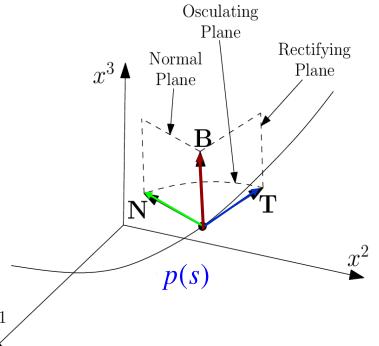
$$= \tau(s)N(s) \times T(s) + B(s) \times \kappa(s)N(s) \stackrel{x^1}{\triangleright}$$

$$= -\tau(s)B(s) - \kappa(s)T(s)$$

it follows that

$$B'(s) = \tau(s)N(s)$$

 $\tau(s)$ is called torsion. It measures how fast the curve leave the osculating plane.





Examples



Straight line:

$$p(t) = p_1 + t \frac{p_2 - p_1}{\|p_2 - p_1\|}$$

$$p'(t) = \frac{p_2 - p_1}{\|p_2 - p_1\|}$$

$$p''(t) = 0 \implies \|p''(t)\| = 0$$

Circle:

$$p(t) = r\left(\cos\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), \sin\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), 0\right), s \in [0, 2\pi r]$$

$$p'(t) = \left(-\sin\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), \cos\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), 0\right)$$

$$p''(t) = \frac{1}{r}\left(-\cos\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), -\sin\left(\frac{s}{r}\right), 0\right) \implies ||p''(t)|| = \frac{1}{r}$$



Examples

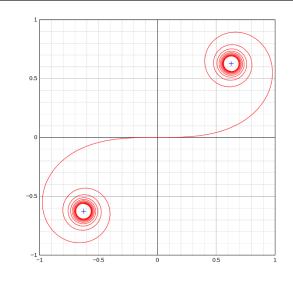


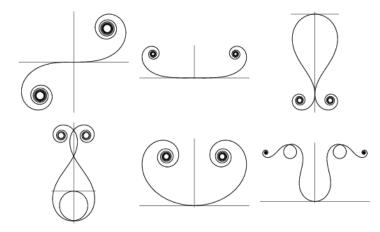
- Cornu Spiral
 - · A curve for which

$$\kappa(s) = s$$

- Generalized Cornu Spiral
 - A curve for which

 $\kappa(s) = q(s)$, where q polynomial





$$\kappa(s) = s$$
, $\kappa(s) = s^2$, $\kappa(s) = s^2 - 2{,}19$
 $\kappa(s) = s^2 - 4$, $\kappa(s) = s^2 + 1$, $\kappa(s) = 5s^4 - 18s^2 + 5$



Normal Vector



Lemma:

Let $f, g: I \rightarrow d$ be differentiable maps which satisfy $f \cdot g = const \ \forall \ t$

Then

$$f'(t) \cdot g(t) = -f(t)g'(t)$$

In particular:

$$||f(t)|| = const$$
 if and only if $f'(t) \cdot f(t) = 0 \ \forall t$

•Proof: $f \cdot g = const \ \forall t \Rightarrow (f \cdot g)'(t) = 0.$ $(f \cdot g)'(t) = f'(t) \cdot g(t) + f(t)g'(t) = 0 \Leftrightarrow f'(t) \cdot g(t) = -f(t)g'(t)$

 $f = g: f'(t) \cdot f(t) = -f(t) f'(t) \Rightarrow f'(t) \cdot f(t) = 0$



Normal Vector



Let p be parameterized by arc length. Then

$$||p'(t)||^2 = p'(t) \cdot p'(t) = 1 \ \forall \ t$$

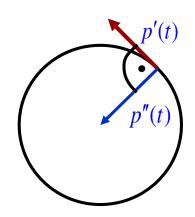
Applying the Lemma we get $p'(t) \cdot p''(t) = 0$, i.e. the tangent vector p'(t) is orthogonal to p''(t), i.e. on arc lenght parametrized curves tangent and curvature vector are perpendicular.

•Example:

$$p(t) = r(\cos(t), \sin(t), 0)^{t}$$

$$p'(t) = r(\sin(t), \cos(t), 0)^{t}$$

$$p''(t) = -r(\cos(t), \sin(t), 0)^{t}$$





Curvature



 $K = \kappa N$

Lemma:

Let $p:I \to {}^d$ be a cuve not necessarily parametrized by arc length. Then

•Proof:

$$\kappa(t) := \frac{\left\|p''(t) \times p'(t)\right\|}{\left\|p'(t)\right\|^3}$$

$$p'(t) = \|p'(t)\|T(t)$$

$$p''(t) = \|p'(t)\|'T(t) + \|p'(t)\|T'(t)$$

$$p'(t) \times p''(t) = \underbrace{\|p'(t)\|T(t) \times \|p'(t)\|'T(t)}_{0} + \|p'(t)\|T(t) \times \|p'(t)\|T'(t)$$

$$= \|p'(t)\|^{2}T(t) \times T'(t)$$

$$||p'(t) \times p''(t)|| = ||p'(t)||^2 ||T(t) \times T'(t)|| = ||p'(t)||^2 ||T'(t)|| = ||p'(t)||^2 \left||\frac{dT}{ds}(s(t))\frac{ds}{\underbrace{dt}}(t)\right|$$

$$\kappa(t) := \frac{\left\|p''(t) \times p'(t)\right\|}{\left\|p'(t)\right\|^3}$$



Frenet-Serret formulas



• Suppose that the curve is given by $\mathbf{r}(t)$, where the parameter t need no longer be arclength. Then the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} may be written as

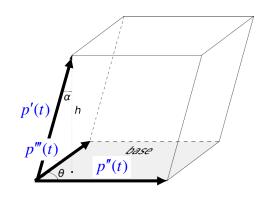
$$T(t) = \frac{p'(t)}{\|p'(t)\|}$$

$$N(t) = \frac{T'(t)}{\|T'(t)\|} = \frac{p'(t) \times (p''(t) \times p'(t))}{\|p'(t) \times (p''(t) \times p'(t))\|}$$

$$B(t) = T(t) \times N(t) = \frac{p'(t) \times p''(t)}{\|p'(t) \times p''(t)\|}$$

For the derivatives we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} T'(t) \\ N'(t) \\ B'(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} p'(t) \end{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \kappa(t) & 0 \\ -\kappa(t) & 0 & \tau(t) \\ 0 & -\tau(t) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T(t) \\ N(t) \\ B(t) \end{pmatrix}$$



with

$$\kappa(t) := \frac{\|p'(t) \times p''(t)\|}{\|p'(t)\|^{3}} \qquad \tau(t) := \frac{p'(t) \cdot \left(p''(t) \times p'''(t)\right)}{\|p'(t) \times p''(t)\|^{2}} = \frac{\det\left(p'(t) - p''(t) - p'''(t)\right)}{\|p'(t) \times p''(t)\|^{2}}$$



Frenet frame in nD



Definition:

A Frenet frame is a moving reference frame of n orthonormal vectors $\mathbf{e}_i(t)$ which are used to describe a curve locally at each point p(t). Given a C^n curve p which is regular of order n the Frenet frame for the curve is the set of orthonormal vectors

$$\mathbf{e}_1(t), \dots, \mathbf{e}_n(t)$$

constructed using the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization algorithm with

$$\mathbf{e}_{1}(t) = \frac{p'(t)}{\|p'(t)\|} \qquad \mathbf{e}_{j}(t) = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{j}(t)}{\|\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{j}(t)\|}, \ \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{j}(t) = p^{(j)}(t) - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \langle p^{(j)}(t), \mathbf{e}_{i}(t) \rangle \cdot \mathbf{e}_{i}(t)$$

The generalized curvatures and are defined as

$$\chi_i(t) = \frac{\left\langle e_i'(t), e_{i+1}(t) \right\rangle}{\left\| p'(t) \right\|}$$



Hermite Curves



Remark:

The bending energy of a rod is proportional to the rod curvature. The shape of a rod is the solution of the following variation problem:

$$E = c \int_{0}^{l} \kappa(t) dt \to \min,$$

where c is a constant and I is the length of the curve. This energy can be approximated by

$$E \approx c \int_{0}^{t} p''(t) dt$$

•How to find the minimum?



Euler Lagrange equation



Lemma (Euler Lagrange Equation): Let g be twice continuously differentiable real valued function and $\hat{u} \in D$ a local extremal function of the functional E with

$$E = \int_{a}^{b} g(u(t), u'(t), u''(t); t) dt \qquad \text{on} \quad D = \{u \in C^{2}[a, b] | u(a) = u_{a}, u(b) = u_{b}\}$$

for given values of u_a, u_b , then the Euler Lagrange Equation holds:

$$g_{p}(\hat{u}, \hat{u}', \hat{u}''; t) - \frac{d}{dt} g_{p'}(\hat{u}, \hat{u}', \hat{u}''; t) + \frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}} g_{p'''}(\hat{u}, \hat{u}', \hat{u}''; t) = 0 \ \forall \ t \in [a, b]$$

•Applying this to $E = \int_{0}^{t} p''(t)^{2} dt$ leads to the following Euler-Lagrange equation: $2\frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}}\hat{u}'' = 0 \ \forall \ t \in [a,b]$

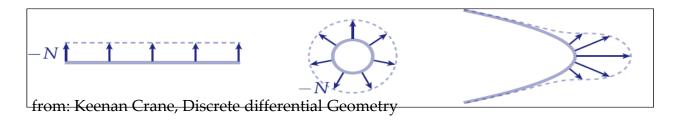
•Therefore, $\hat{u} \in D$ is a cubic polynomial!



Length variation



- •The fastest way to decrease the length of a curve is to move it in the normal direction, with speed proportional to curvature.
 - Intuition: in flat regions, moving the curve doesn't change its length; in curved regions, the change in length (*per unit length*) is large:



Theorem (length variation) Let $p:[0,L] \to {}^2$ be an arbitrary curve and suppose that we have another curve $q:[0,L] \to {}^2$ with $q(0)=q(L)=\mathbf{0}$ Then

$$\frac{d}{d\varepsilon}\Big|_{\varepsilon=0} \operatorname{length}(p+\varepsilon q) = -\int_{0}^{L} \langle q(t), \kappa(t)N(t) \rangle dt$$



•Therfore, the motion that most quickly decreases length is $q(t) = \kappa(t)N(t)$



Length variation



• Proof:
$$length(p(t) + \varepsilon q(t)) = \int_{0}^{L} ||p'(t) + \varepsilon q'(t)|| dt$$

$$\frac{d}{d\varepsilon}\Big|_{\varepsilon=0} \int_{0}^{L} \|p'(t) + \varepsilon q'(t)\| dt = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon}\Big|_{\varepsilon=0} \int_{0}^{L} \sqrt{\langle p'(t) + \varepsilon q'(t), p'(t) + \varepsilon q'(t) \rangle} dt$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\varepsilon}\Big|_{\varepsilon=0} \int_{0}^{L} \sqrt{\langle p'(t), p'(t) \rangle + 2\varepsilon \langle p'(t), q'(t) \rangle + \varepsilon^{2} \langle q'(t), q'(t) \rangle} dt$$

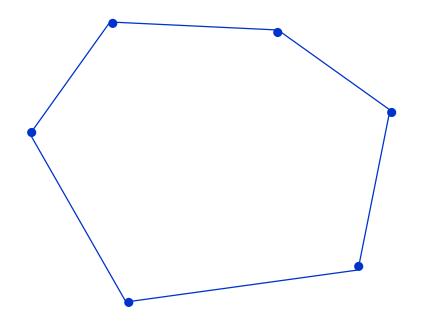
$$= \int_{0}^{L} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\langle p'(t), p'(t) \rangle + 2\varepsilon \langle p'(t), q'(t) \rangle + \varepsilon \langle q'(t), q'(t) \rangle}} \cdot \left(2\langle p'(t), q'(t) \rangle + 2\varepsilon \langle q'(t), q'(t) \rangle \right)\Big|_{\varepsilon=0} dt$$

$$= \int_{0}^{L} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle p'(t), p'(t) \rangle}} \langle p'(t), q'(t) \rangle dt = \int_{0}^{L} \langle \frac{p'(t)}{\|p'(t)\|}, q'(t) \rangle dt$$

$$= \left[\left\langle \frac{p'(t)}{\|p'(t)\|}, q(t) \right\rangle \right]_{0}^{L} - \int_{0}^{L} \langle \kappa(t) N(t), q' \rangle dt$$

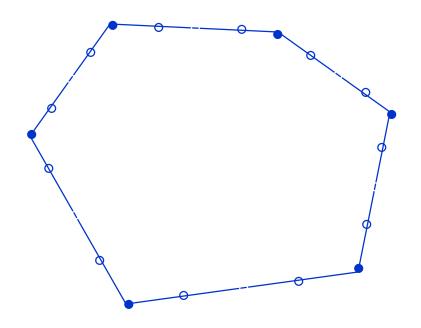






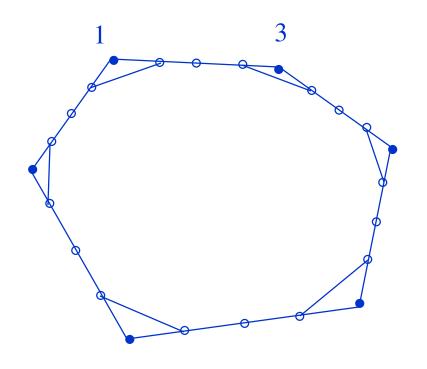










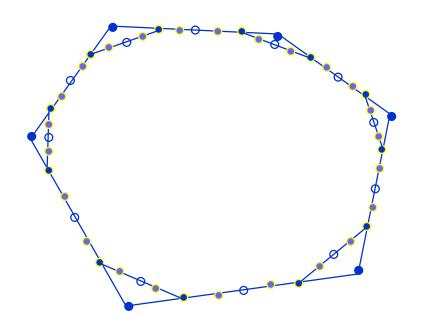


$$(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$$

$$(\frac{1}{4},\frac{3}{4})$$



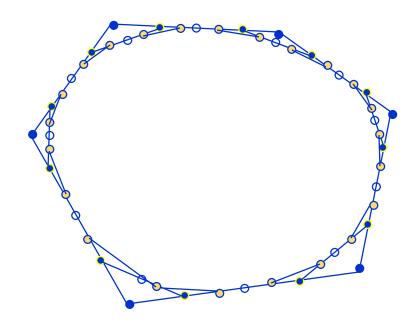








Corner Cutting: (de Rham in the late forties)



Theorem (Riesenfeld 75): Using recursive Corner Cutting the polygon converges towards a quadratic B-spline!





- How to choose subdivision rules?
 - 1. Efficiency (few operations)
 - Compact support (region of influence of a point should be small).
 - Local definition (far away points should not influence the computation)
 - 4. Affine Invariance (if the polygon is affinely transformed, the curve should transform in the same way.)
 - 5. Simplicity of the rules
 - 6. Differentiablility of the resulting curves





Let us consider a B-spline over a uniform knot vector (can also be generalized to non uniform knot vectors, e.g. Sederberg, Siggraph 98)

1. Piecewise constant functions

$$x(t) = \sum_{i} d_{i} N_{i}^{0}(t)$$

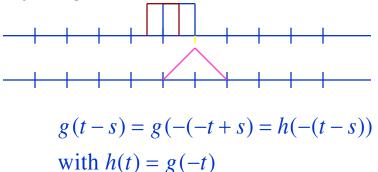
$$N_{i}^{0}(t) = N^{0}(t-i)$$

$$N^{0}(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le t < 1 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$



2. Consider convolution of two functions f(t), g(t)

$$f \otimes g(t) = f(s)g(t-s)ds$$

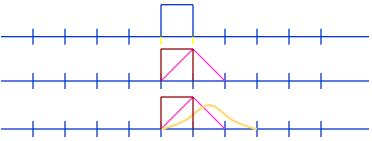






Theorem: The B-spline basis function $N^k(t)$ are obtained by convolving the box function $N^0(t)$ with $N^{k-1}(t)$.

Example:
$$N^{1}(t) = N^{0}(t) \otimes N^{0}(t) = \int N^{0}(s)N^{0}(t-s)ds$$



Theorem: If f(t) is C^k -continuous, then $N^0 \otimes f(t)$ is C^{k+1} -continuous.

Corollary: N^k is C^{k-1} -continuous.





B-spline refinement (key for subdivision splines)

Theorem:

$$N^{1}(t) = \frac{1}{2^{1}} \sum_{k=0}^{1} {l+1 \choose k} N^{1}(2t-k)$$

i.e. B-splines of degree 1 can be written as a linear combination of translates (k) and dilates (2t) of it self.

Example:
$$N^{l}(t) = \frac{1}{2^{1}} \sum_{k=0}^{l+1} {1+1 \choose k} N^{1}(2t-k)$$

= $\frac{1}{2} (N^{1}(2t) + 2N^{1}(2t-1) + N^{1}(2t-2))$







Proof of the theorem: By induction over degree (*l*):

$$N^{0}(t) = N^{0}(2t) + N^{0}(2t - 1)$$

$$N^{l}(t) = \bigotimes_{i=0}^{l} N^{0}(t) = \bigotimes_{i=0}^{l} (N^{0}(2t) + N^{0}(2t - 1))$$

By multiplying using the following rules we get:

$$f(t) \otimes (g(t) + h(t)) = f(t) \otimes g(t) + f(t) \otimes h(t)$$
 (Linearity)

$$f(t-i) \otimes g(t-k) = m(t-i-k)$$
 (Time shift)

$$f(2t) \otimes g(2t) = \frac{1}{2}m(2t)$$
 (Time scale)





Let
$$\gamma(t) = \sum d_i N_i^l(t)$$

be a B-spline curve of degree l over a uniform knot vector. Let

$$\mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} \cdot \\ d_{-2} \\ d_{-1} \\ d_0 \\ d_1 \\ d_2 \\ \cdot \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} \cdot \\ d_{-2} \\ d_{-1} \\ d_0 \\ d_1 \\ d_2 \\ \cdot \end{pmatrix}$$
 An (infinite) vector of control points (we do not consider start and end here)

And $\mathbf{N}^1(\mathbf{t}) = (...N^l(t+2) N^l(t+1) N^l(t) N^l(t-1) N^l(t-2) ...)$ the vector of basis functions. We then have

$$\gamma(t) = \mathbf{N}^{1}(\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d}$$





Let
$$\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{t}) = (..., N(t+2), N(t+1), N(t), N(t-1), N(t-2), ...)$$

= $(..., N_{-2}(t), N_{-1}(t), N_0(t), N_1(t), N_2(t), ...)$

the vector of dilates of the basis functions.

we then have $N(t) = N(2t) \times S$

where S is a matrix whose entries can be computed according to the above theorem (l denotes the degree of the B-spline):

$$S_{2n+k,n} = S_k = \frac{1}{2^l} {l+1 \choose k}, \ k = 0,...,l+1$$

The sequence $s=(...,s_1,s_0,s_1,...)$ is called subdivision mask





Example l=1:

$$N(t) = (...N(t+2) N(t+1) N(t) N(t-1) N(t-2) ...)$$

There are twice as many rows as columns!

$$j=0$$





Therefore we have:

$$\gamma(t) = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{N}(2\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{d}$$

Remark:

- The same curve can be written using twice as many B-splines with half the support.
- W.r.t. N(t) the curve has the control points d.
- W.r.t. N(2t) the control points Sd.

Proceeding in this way we get:

$$\begin{split} \gamma(t) &= \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d}^0 \\ &= \mathbf{N}(2\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{d}^0 = \mathbf{N}(2\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d}^1 \\ &= \mathbf{N}(2^{\mathbf{j}}\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{j}} \times \mathbf{d}^0 = \mathbf{N}(2^{\mathbf{j}}\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{j}} \\ \text{with } \mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{j}+1} &= \mathbf{S}\mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{j}}, \\ \text{where } S \text{ denotes the (infinite) subdivision matrix.} \end{split}$$





Example l=1:

$$\gamma(t) = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{N}(2\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{d}$$

$$= (...N(2t+2) N(2t+1) N(2t) N(2t-1) N(2t-2) ...) \frac{1}{2}$$

Example I=I:
$$J=0$$

$$v(t) = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{N}(2\mathbf{t}) \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{d}$$

$$= (...N(2t+2) N(2t+1) N(2t) N(2t-1) N(2t-2) ...) \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cdot \\ d_{-2}^0 \\ d_{-1}^0 \\ d_0^0 \\ d_1^0 \\ d_2^0 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (...N(2t+2) N(2t+1) N(2t) N(2t-1) N(2t-2) ...) \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \cdot \\ d_{-2}^{0} + d_{-1}^{0} \\ 2d_{-1} \\ d_{-1}^{0} + d_{0}^{0} \\ 2d_{0} \\ d_{0}^{0} + d_{1}^{0} \\ \cdot \end{pmatrix}$$





Matrix multiplication yields:

$$d_i^{j+1} = \sum_m s_{i,m} d_m^j$$

$$S_{2n+k,n} = S_k = \frac{1}{2^l} {l+1 \choose k}, \ k = 0,...,l+1$$

Therefore we have for the even and odd entries:

odd:
$$d_{2i+1}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i+1,m} d_m^{j} = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)+1} d_m^{j}$$

even:
$$d_{2i}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i,m} d_m^j = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)} d_m^j$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{-1-1}^1 & s_{-10}^{-1} & s_{-11}^{-3} & s_{-12}^{-5} & s_{-13}^{-7} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{0-1}^2 & s_{00}^0 & s_{01}^{-2} & s_{02}^{-4} & s_{03}^{-6} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{1-1}^3 & s_{10}^1 & s_{11}^{-1} & s_{12}^{-3} & s_{13}^{-5} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{2-1}^4 & s_{20}^2 & s_{21}^0 & s_{22}^{-2} & s_{23}^{-4} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{3-1}^5 & s_{30}^3 & s_{31}^1 & s_{32}^{-1} & s_{33}^{-3} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{4-1}^6 & s_{40}^4 & s_{41}^2 & s_{42}^0 & s_{42}^{-2} & \cdot \\ \cdot & s_{5-1}^7 & s_{50}^5 & s_{51}^3 & s_{52}^1 & s_{53}^{-1} & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{pmatrix}$$





i.e. we have different subdivision rules for even and odd numbered control points!

Example: piecewise linear, l=1, k=0,1,2

odd:

$$d_{2i+1}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i+1,m} d_{m}^{j} = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)+1} d_{n}^{j}$$

$$(i = m \Rightarrow k = 1, \text{ d.h.} d_{2i+1}^{j+1} = d_{i}^{j})$$

$$d_{2i}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i,m} d_{m}^{j} = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)} d_{m}^{j}$$

$$(m=i \Rightarrow k=0, m=(i-1) \Rightarrow k=2, \text{ d.h. } d_{2i}^{j+1} = \frac{1}{2}d_i^j + \frac{1}{2}d_{i-1}^j$$

Even numbered points on the j+1th level are newly generated, Odd numbered points already exist on the *j*th level.

Example: piecewise linear, I=1, k=0,1,2 dd:
$$d_{3}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i+1,m} d_{m}^{j} = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)+1} d_{m}^{j} \qquad d_{2}^{j+1} = \frac{1}{2} (d_{1}^{j} + d_{0}^{j}) / d_{2}^{j+1} = \frac{1}{2} (d_{2}^{j} + d_{1}^{j})$$

$$d_{1}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j} \qquad d_{1}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j} \qquad d_{1}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j} \qquad d_{1}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j}$$

$$d_{2}^{j+1} = \sum_{m} s_{2i,m} d_{m}^{j} = \sum_{m} s_{2(i-m)} d_{m}^{j} \qquad d_{1}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j} \qquad d_{2}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j} \qquad d_{2}^{j+1} = d_{0}^{j}$$





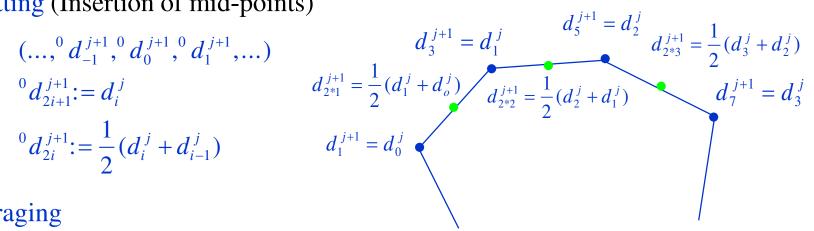
Subdivision schemes with this property are called interpolating. Schemes that change all points in each step are called approximating.

1. Splitting (Insertion of mid-points)

$$(..., {}^{0}d_{-1}^{j+1}, {}^{0}d_{0}^{j+1}, {}^{0}d_{1}^{j+1}, ...]$$

$${}^{0}d_{2i+1}^{j+1} := d_{i}^{j}$$

$${}^{0}d_{2i}^{j+1} := \frac{1}{2}(d_{i}^{j} + d_{i-1}^{j})$$



2. Averaging

$$d_i^{j+1} := \sum_k s_k'^0 d_{i+k}^{j+1}$$
 Averaging Mask





Example: Corner Cutting (quadratic B-splines)

$$S_{2i-k,i} = S_k = \frac{1}{2^l} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ k = 0, \dots, l+1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = (\dots, 0, s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, 0, \dots)$$

$$S = \frac{1}{4} (\dots, 0, 1, 3, 3, 1, 0, \dots)$$

$$S = \frac{1}{4} (3d_{i-1}^j + d_i^j) \quad d_{i+1}^{j+1} := \frac{1}{4} (d_{i-1}^j + 3d_i^j)$$

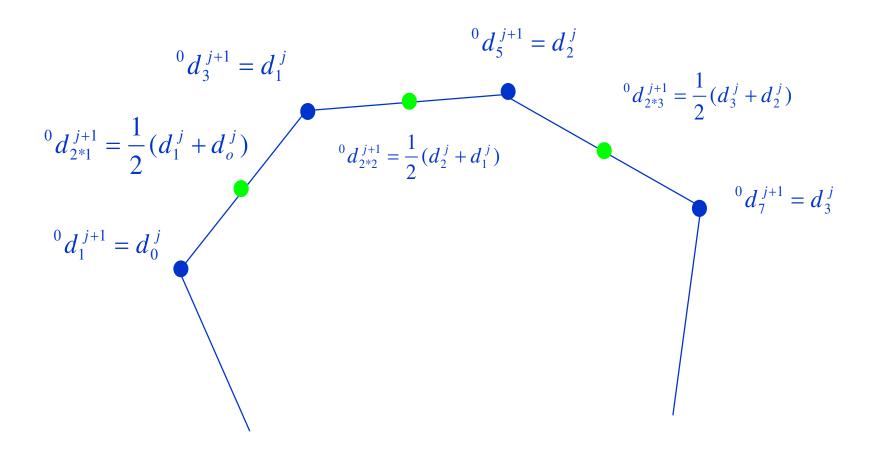
$$S = \frac{1}{4} (3d_{i-1}^j + d_i^j) \quad d_{i+1}^{j+1} := \frac{1}{4} (d_{i-1}^j + 3d_i^j)$$

Mask for even points $\frac{1}{4}$ (...,0,3,1,0,...) Mask for odd points $\frac{1}{4}$ (...,0,1,3,0,...)

In order to indicate the index, the mask is written as (s_1, s_0)

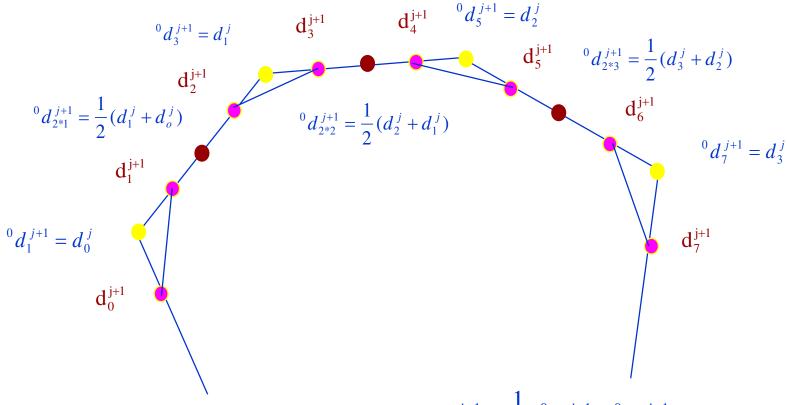












Averaging Maske for even and odd points

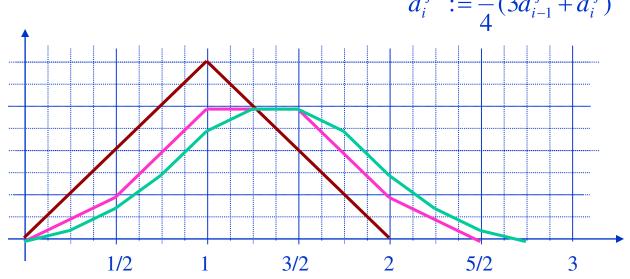
$$d_i^{j+1} = \frac{1}{2} ({}^{0}d_i^{j+1} + {}^{0}d_{i-1}^{j+1})$$



Fundamental solution: 1D



Example: quadratic B-Spline



$$d_i^{j+1} := \frac{1}{4} (3d_{i-1}^j + d_i^j) \quad d_{i+1}^{j+1} := \frac{1}{4} (d_{i-1}^j + 3d_i^j)$$

$$P^{0}(t) = N^{1}(t)S^{0}d^{0}$$

$$P^{1}(t) = N^{1}(2t)S^{1}d^{0}$$

$$P^{2}(t) = N^{1}(4t)S^{2}d^{0}$$

$$d^0 = (\cdots, 1, \cdots)$$

$$S^{1}d^{0} = d^{1} = \left(\cdots, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \cdots \right)$$

$$S^{2}d^{0} = Sd^{1} = \left(\cdots, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{3}{16}, \frac{6}{16}, \frac{10}{16}, \frac{12}{16}, \frac{12}{16}, \frac{10}{16}, \frac{6}{16}, \frac{3}{16}, \frac{1}{16}, \cdots \right)$$



Fundamental solution: 1D



For a convergent subdivision scheme there is the limit

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} P^{j}(t) = \sum_{i} d_{i}^{0} \lim_{j \to \infty} \Phi_{i}^{j}(t) = \sum_{i} d_{i}^{0} \Phi_{i}(t)$$

- The limit curve is a linear combination of points d_i^0 with weights
- The functions $\Phi_i(t) := \lim_{j \to \infty} \Phi_i^j(t)$ fulfill the relation $\Phi_i(t) = \Phi(t-i)$
- Therefore, there is a function $\Phi_i(t)$, such that all subdivision curves with initial points d_i^0 are linear combinations of the points d_i^0 with weights $\Phi(t-i)$
- The function $\Phi_i(t)$ is called fundamental solution of the subdivision scheme.



Convergence of Subdivision Schemes



• Remark: There are subdivision schemes that do not convert towards a limit function. For example using the Averaging-Maske

$$(s_{0}, s_{1}) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{3}, 1 - \sqrt{3})$$

results in fractal-like curves, which are nowhere differentiable.

- Questions:
 - How can we build suitable subdivision masks? (for example from known schemes)
 - Which subdivision masks result in continuous or differentiable curves?

Warren, Joe, and Henrik Weimer. Subdivision methods for geometric design: A constructive approach. Elsevier, 2001. Peters, Jörg, and Ulrich Reif. Subdivision surfaces. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2008. Sabin, Malcolm. Analysis and design of univariate subdivision schemes. Vol. 6. Springer Science & Business Media, 2010. Andersson, Lars-Erik, and Neil F. Stewart. Introduction to the mathematics of subdivision surfaces. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics, 2010.



Local Analysis of Subdivision Schemes



- Determing local properties-invariant neighborhoods
 - Which control points influence the curve around t=t₀?
 - What are the basis functions of a given, arbitrary subdivision scheme
 - Which basis functions influence the curve at a certain parameter value?
 - How can we ceck if a tangent exists for a certain point on the limit curve?
 - How can we compute tangents at a certain point?