

Modeling of bending-torsion couplings in active-bending structures. Application to the design of elastic gridshell.



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1 Geometry of smooth and discret space curves

1.1 Introduction

idée : Rapprocher l'étude des courbes continues et des discrétisées avec le concept de modèle de la «courbe polygone» de Leibniz et de ses successeurs, une infinité de côtés infiniment petits. [Del11, p.235]

Car les courbes n'étant que des polygones d'une infinité de côtés, et ne diffèrent entre elles que par la différence des angles que ces côtés infiniment petits font entre eux; il n'appartient qu'à l'Analyse des infiniment petits de déterminer la position de ces cotés pour avoir la courbure qu'ils forment [...] [Liebniz].

Attention à la terminologie smooth vs. continuous :

A smooth curve is a curve which is a smooth function, where the word "curve" is interpreted in the analytic geometry context. In particular, a smooth curve is a continuous map f from a one-dimensional space to an n -dimensional space which on its domain has continuous derivatives up to a desired order. ¹

1.1.1 Goals and contributions

Dans ce chapitre, après un bref rappel sur le cadre mathématique d'étude des courbes paramétrique de l'espace, on présente les notions de courbures et de torsion géométrique associées au repère de Frenet. On montre ensuite le cas plus général d'un repère mobile quelconque attaché à une courbe γ . On définit enfin la particularité d'un repère mobile adapté à une courbe, et on présente, en sus du repère de Frenet, une approche

¹Definition of a smooth curve from mathworld : <http://mathworld.wolfram.com/SmoothCurve.html>

différente pour accrocher des repères le long d'une courbe (Bishop / RMF / Zéro-twisting frame)

Contributions : présentation et comparaison de différentes façons d'estimer la courbure discrete

1.1.2 Related work

(author?) [Bis75] [Bis75] (author?) (year?)

[Bis75] [BWR⁺08] [Hof08] [BELT14] [Fre52] [Del07] [FGSS14] [Gug89] [Klo86]

1.1.3 Overview

1.2 Parametric curves

1.2.1 Definition

Let I be an interval of \mathbb{R} and $F:t \mapsto F(t)$ be a map of $\mathcal{C}(I, \mathbb{R}^3)$. Then $\gamma = (I, F)$ is called a *parametric curve* and :

- The 2-uplet (I, F) is called a *parametrization* of γ
- $\gamma = F(I) = \{F(t), t \in I\}$ is called the *graph* or *trace* of γ
- γ is said to be \mathcal{C}^k if $F \in \mathcal{C}^k(I, \mathbb{R}^3)$

Remark. Note that for a given graph in \mathbb{R}^3 they may be different possible parameterizations. From now, γ will simply refer to $F(I)$, its graph.

1.2.2 Regularity

Let $\gamma = (I, F)$ be a parametric curve, and $t_0 \in I$ a parameter.

- A point of parameter t_0 is called *regular* if $F'(t_0) \neq 0$.
The curve γ is called *regular* if γ is \mathcal{C}^1 and $F'(t) \neq 0, \forall t \in I$
- A point of parameter t_0 is called *biregular* if $F'(t_0)$ and $F''(t_0)$ are not collinear
The curve γ is called *biregular* if γ is \mathcal{C}^2 and $F'(t) \cdot F''(t) \neq 0, \forall t \in I$

1.2.3 Reparametrization

Let $\gamma = (I, F)$ be a parametric curve of class \mathcal{C}^k , $J \in \mathbb{R}$ an interval, and $\varphi:I \mapsto J$ a \mathcal{C}^k diffeomorphisme. Lets define $G = F \circ \varphi$. Then :

- $G \in \mathcal{C}^k(J, \mathbb{R}^3)$
- $G(J) = F(I)$
- φ is said to be an admissible *change of parameter* for γ
- (J, G) is said to be another *admissible parametrization* for γ

1.2.4 Natural parametrization

Let γ be a space curve of class \mathcal{C}^1 . A parametrization (I, F) of γ is called *natural* if $\|F'(t)\| = 1, \forall t \in I$. Thus :

- The curve is necessarily regular
- F is strictly monotonic

1.2.5 Curve length

Let $\gamma = (I, F)$ be a parametric curve of class \mathcal{C}^1 . The length of γ is define as :

$$L = \int_I \|F'(t)\| dt \quad (1.1)$$

Note that the length of γ is invariant under reparametrization.

1.2.6 Arc-length parametrization

Let $\gamma = (I, F)$ be a regular parametric curve of class \mathcal{C}^1 . Let $t_0 \in I$ be a given parameter. The following map is said to be the *arc-length of origin t_0* of γ :

$$s: t \mapsto \int_{t_0}^t \|F'(u)\| du \quad , \quad s \in I \times \mathbb{R} \quad (1.2)$$

The arc-length $s: I \mapsto s(I)$ is an admissible change of parameter for γ . Indeed, s is a \mathcal{C}^1 diffeomorphisme because it is bijective ($s' > 0$).

Lets define $G = F \circ s^{-1}$ and $J = s(I)$. Thus (J, G) is a natural reparametrization of γ and $\|G'(s)\| = 1, \forall s \in J$.

This parametrization is preferred because the natural parameter s traverses the image of γ at unit speed ($\|G'\| = 1$).

1.3 Frenet trihedron

The Frenet trihedron is a fundamental mathematical tool from the field of differential geometry to study local characterization of planar and non-planar space curves. It is a

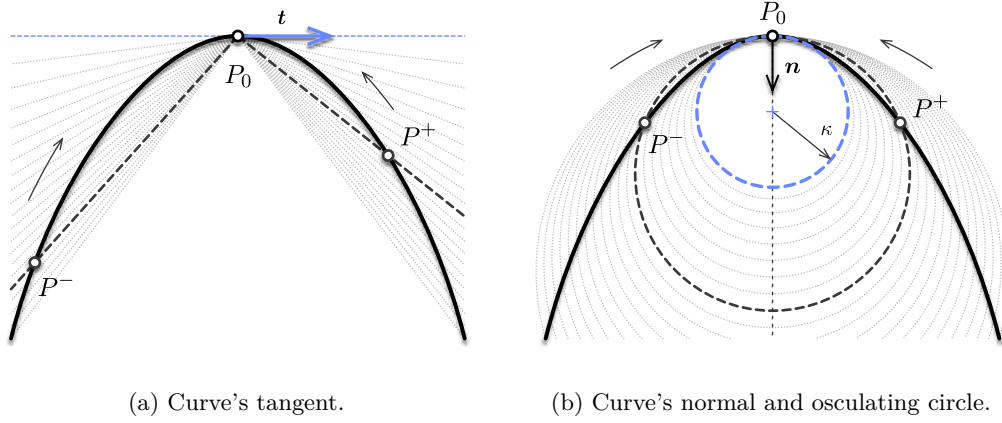


Figure 1.1 – Differential definition of Frenet's trihedron at given point P_0 .

direct orthonormal basis attached to any point P on a parametric curve γ . This basis is composed of three unit vectors called the *tangent* (\mathbf{t}), the *normal* (\mathbf{n}) and the *binormal* (\mathbf{b}) unit vectors.

Introduced by Frenet in 1847 in his thesis “Courbes à Double Courbure” [Fre52], it brings out intrinsic local properties of space curves, namely the curvature (κ) which evaluates the deviance of γ from being a straight line (§ 1.4.1) and the torsion (τ_f) which evaluates the deviance of γ from being a planar curve (§ 1.4.2).

These quantities, also known as “generalized curvatures”, are essential to understand the geometry of space curves. As stated by the *Fundamental Theorem of Space Curves*², a curve is fully determined by its curvature and torsion up to a solid movement in space.

In this section we consider $\gamma = (J, G)$ to be a regular ($\|\gamma'\| = 1$) parametric curve of class \mathcal{C}^2 , parametrized by its arc-length (denoted s). For the sake of simplicity we will refer to $G(s)$ as $\gamma(s)$.

1.3.1 Tangent vector

The first vector of Frenet's trihedron is called the *unit tangent vector* (\mathbf{t}). At any given parameter $s \in J$, it is defined as :

$$\mathbf{t}(s) = \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\|\gamma'(s)\|} = \gamma'(s) \quad , \quad \|\mathbf{t}(s)\| = 1 \quad (1.3)$$

In differential geometry, the tangente to the curve γ at point P_0 is obtained as the limit of the (normalized) vector $\overrightarrow{P_0 P}$, as P approaches P_0 on the path γ (figure 1.1). For a regular curve, the left-sided and right-sided limits coincide as P^- and P^+ approche P_0 respectively

²The full demonstration of this theorem is attributed to Darboux in [Del07, p.11].

from its left and the right sides :

$$\mathbf{t}(P_0) = \lim_{P \rightarrow P_0} \frac{\overrightarrow{P_0 P}}{\|\overrightarrow{P_0 P}\|} = \lim_{P^- \rightarrow P_0} \frac{\overrightarrow{P_0 P^-}}{\|\overrightarrow{P_0 P^-}\|} = \lim_{P^+ \rightarrow P_0} \frac{\overrightarrow{P_0 P^+}}{\|\overrightarrow{P_0 P^+}\|} \quad (1.4)$$

1.3.2 Normal vector

The second vector of Frenet's trihedron is called the *unit normal vector* (\mathbf{n}). It is constructed from \mathbf{t}' which is orthogonal to \mathbf{t} : $\|\mathbf{t}\| = 1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{t}' \cdot \mathbf{t} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{t}' \perp \mathbf{t}$. Thus, at any given parameter $s \in J$, it is defined as :

$$\mathbf{n}(s) = \frac{\mathbf{t}'(s)}{\|\mathbf{t}'(s)\|} = \frac{\gamma''(s)}{\|\gamma''(s)\|} \quad , \quad \|\mathbf{n}(s)\| = 1 \quad (1.5)$$

It is not possible to define $\mathbf{n}(s)$ where γ is a straight line since $\mathbf{t}(s)$ is a constant vector and $\mathbf{t}'(s)$ vanishes. However, one can choose to take $\mathbf{n}(s)$ as a constant vector fields along γ and to define the torsion of γ to be zero. Although this trihedron does not correspond to the Frenet trihedron (not defined in that case), it will still satisfy the same governing differential equations known as the *Serret-Frenet formulas* (§ 1.5.4).

Remark that the notion of *normal vector* would be ambiguous for non-planar curves as far as there is an infinite number of possible vectors lying in the plane orthogonal to the curve's tangent. In practice, the tangent derivative is a convenient choice as it allows to extend the notion of curvature from planar to non-planar space curves. However, we will see (§ 1.5.5) that other choices are possible and that one of them is especially suitable for the study of slender beams.

1.3.3 Binormal vector

The third vector of Frenet's trihedron is called the *unit binormal vector* (\mathbf{b}). It is constructed from \mathbf{t} and \mathbf{n} to form an orthonormal direct basis of \mathbb{R}^3 . Thus, at any given parameter $s \in J$, it is defined as :

$$\mathbf{b}(s) = \mathbf{t}(s) \times \mathbf{n}(s) \quad , \quad \|\mathbf{b}(s)\| = 1 \quad (1.6)$$

The normal unit vector and the binormal unit vector $\{\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}\}$ define the so-called *normal plane*. The normal tangent vector and the binormal unit vector $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{b}\}$ define the so-called *rectifying plane*.

1.3.4 Osculating plane

As reported in [Del07, p.45], the *osculating plane* seems to have been first introduced by Bernoulli as the plane passing through three infinitely near points on a curve ³.

³ "Voco autem planum osculans, quod transit per tria curvae quaesitae puncta infinite sibi invicem propinqua" [Ber28, p.113].

Likewise, in modern differential geometry, the *osculating plane* is defined as the limit of the plane passing through the points P^- , P_0 and P^+ while P^- and P^+ approach P_0 respectively from its left and right side (figure 1.1). The tangent and normal unit vectors $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{n}\}$ form an orthonormal basis of this plane whereas the binormal vector (\mathbf{b}) is orthogonal to it.

1.4 Curves of double curvature

The study of space curves belongs to the field of differential geometry. According to [Del07, p.28], the terminology *curve of double curvature* is attributed to Pitot around 1724⁴. However, as stated in [Coo13, p.321], curvature and torsion were probably first thought by Monge around 1771⁵. It is also interesting to note that, at that time, “curvature” was also referred to as “flexure”, reflecting that the study of physical problems (e.g. *elastica*) and the study of curves of double curvature were intimately related to each other.

Space curves were historically understood as *curves of double curvature* by extension to the case of planar curves, where the curvature measures the deviance of a curve from being a straight line. The second curvature, nowadays known as the “torsion” or “second generalized curvature”, measures the deviance of a curve from being plane.

1.4.1 First invariant : curvature

In differential geometry, the *osculating circle* is defined as the limit of the circle passing through the points P^- , P_0 and P^+ while P^- and P^+ approach P_0 (figure 1.1). This circle lies on the osculating plane and its radius is nothing but the inverse of the local curvature of a curve⁶. While the tangent gives the best local approximation of the curve as a straight line, the osculating circle gives the best local approximation of that curve as an arc.

⁴ “ Les Anciens ont nommé cette courbe Spirale ou Hélice ; parce que la formation sur le cylindre suit la même analogie que la formation d’une spirale ordinaire sur un plan; mais elle est bien différente de la spirale ordinaire, étant une des courbes à double courbure, ou une des lignes qu’on conçoit tracée sur la surface des Solides. Peut-être que ces sortes de courbes à double courbure, ou prises sur la surface des Solides, feront un jour l’objet des recherches des géomètres. Celle que nous venons d’examiner est, je crois, la plus simple de toutes. ” [Pit26, p.28]

⁵ “ On appelle point d’inflexion, dans une courbe plane, le point où cette ligne, après avoir été concave dans un sens, cesse de l’être pour devenir concave dans l’autre sens. Il est évident que dans ce point, la courbe perd sa courbure, et que les deux élémens consécutifs sont en ligne droite. Mais une courbe à double courbure peut perdre chacune de ses courbures en particulier, ou les perdre toutes deux dans le même point ; c’est-à-dire, qu’il peut arriver ou que trois élémens consécutifs d’une même courbe à double courbure se trouvent dans un même plan, ou que deux de ces élémens soient en ligne droite. Il suit de là que les courbes à double courbure peuvent avoir deux espèces d’inflexions; la première a lieu lorsque la courbe devient plane, et nous l’appellerons simple inflexion; la seconde, que nous appellerons double inflexion, a lieu lorsque la courbe devient droite dans un de ses points. ” [Mon09, p.363]

⁶ As explained by Euler itself, at a given arc-length parameter (s), the osculating plane is the plane in which a curve takes its curvature : “in quo bina fili elementa proxima in curvantur” [Eul75, p.364].

Curvature

The *curvature* is a positive scalar quantity defined everywhere γ is \mathcal{C}^2 as the norm of \mathbf{t}' :

$$\kappa(s) = \|\mathbf{t}'(s)\| = \|\gamma''(s)\| \geq 0 \quad , \quad \mathbf{t}'(s) = \kappa(s)\mathbf{n}(s) \quad (1.7)$$

The curvature is *independent* regarding the choice of parametrization. This makes the curvature an *intrinsic property* of a given curve and that is why it is also referred to as a *geometric invariant*. Following [GAS06, p.204] it can be computed as :

$$\kappa(s) = \frac{\|\gamma'(s) \times \gamma''(s)\|}{\|\gamma'(s)\|^3} \quad \text{where} \quad \|\gamma'(s)\| > 0 \quad (1.8)$$

The curvature measures how much a curve bends instantaneously in its osculating plane, that is to say how fast the tangent vector is rotating in the osculating plane around the binormal vector. In differential geometry this is expressed as :

$$\kappa(s) = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} \frac{\angle(\mathbf{t}(s), \mathbf{t}(s+ds))}{ds} = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\mathbf{t}(s+ds) - \mathbf{t}(s)) \cdot \mathbf{n}(s)}{ds} \quad (1.9)$$

This is equivalent as measuring how fast the osculating plane itself is rotating around the binormal vector. Note that consequently a curve is locally a *straight line* when its curvature vanishes ($\kappa(s) = 0$).

Radius of curvature

The *radius of curvature* is defined as the inverse of the curvature ($r(s) = 1/\kappa(s)$). From a geometric point of view, one can demonstrate that it is the radius of the osculating circle (figure 1.2). Remark that where the curvature vanishes the radius of curvature goes to infinity and that the osculating circle becomes a line (a circle of infinit radius).

Center of curvature

The *center of curvature* is the center of the osculating circle (figure 1.2).

Curvature binormal vector

Finally, following [BWR⁺08] we define the *curvature binormal vector* at any given parameter $s \in J$ as :

$$\kappa\mathbf{b}(s) = \mathbf{t}(s) \times \mathbf{t}'(s) = \kappa(s) \cdot \mathbf{b}(s) \quad , \quad \|\kappa\mathbf{b}(s)\| = \kappa(s) \quad (1.10)$$

This vector will be useful as it embed all the necessary information on the curve's curvature. We will see (§ 1.5.5) that this vector is associated to the angular velocity of a specific adapted moving frame attached to the curve and called the *Bishop frame*.

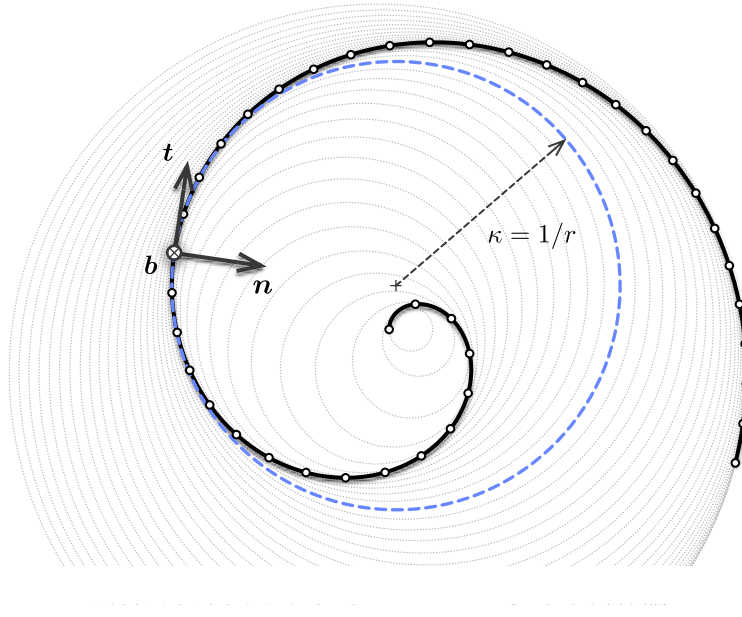


Figure 1.2 – Osculating circles for a spiral curve at different vertices.

1.4.2 Second invariant : torsion

The *torsion* is a scalar quantity defined at any given parameter $s \in J$ as :

$$\tau_f(s) = \mathbf{n}'(s) \cdot \mathbf{b}(s) = -\mathbf{b}'(s) \cdot \mathbf{n}(s) \quad (1.11)$$

The torsion is *independent* regarding the choice of parametrization. This makes the torsion an *intrinsic property* of a given curve and that is why it is also referred to as a *geometric invariant*. Following [GAS06, p.204] it can be computed as :

$$\tau_f(s) = \frac{(\gamma'(s) \times \gamma''(s)) \cdot \gamma'''(s)}{\|\gamma'(s) \times \gamma''(s)\|^2} \quad \text{where } \|\gamma'(s)\| > 0 \quad (1.12)$$

The torsion measures how much a curve goes instantaneously out of its plane, that is to say how fast the normal or binormal vectors are rotating in the normal plane around the tangent vector. In differential geometry this is expressed as :

$$\tau_f(s) = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} \frac{\angle(\mathbf{n}(s), \mathbf{n}(s+ds))}{ds} = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\mathbf{n}(s+ds) - \mathbf{n}(s)) \cdot \mathbf{b}(s)}{ds} \quad (1.13)$$

This is equivalent as measuring how fast the osculating plane is rotating around the tangent vector. Note that consequently a curve is locally *plane* when its torsion vanishes ($\tau_f(s) = 0$).

Remark that here the torsion is denoted “ τ_f ” and not simply “ τ ” as the latter will be reserved to denote any angular velocity of a moving adapted frame around its tangent vector. Thus, τ_f refers to the particular angular velocity of the Frenet trihedron around its tangent vector. This torsion, which is a geometric property of the curve, will be indifferently referred to as the *torsion of Frenet* or the *geometric torsion*.

1.4.3 Fundamental theorem of space curves

This two *generalized curvatures*, respectively the curvature (κ) and the torsion (τ_f), are *invariant* regarding the choice of parametrization and under *euclidean motions*. The *Fundamental theorem of space curves* states that a curve is fully described, up to a Euclidean motion of \mathbb{R}^3 , by its positive curvature ($\kappa > 0$) and torsion (τ) [GAS06, p.229].

This is easily understood by expressing the first order differential equation satisfied by the Frenet trihedron $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}\}$ and known as the *Serret-Frenet formulas* :

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{t}'(s) = \kappa(s)\mathbf{n}(s) \\ \mathbf{n}'(s) = -\kappa(s)\mathbf{t}(s) + \tau_f(s)\mathbf{b}(s) \\ \mathbf{b}'(s) = -\tau_f(s)\mathbf{n}(s) \end{cases} \quad (1.14)$$

Because the Frenet trihedron satisfies a first order differential equation of parameters κ and τ_f it is possible, by integration, to reconstruct the trace of the moving frame and thus the curve, up to a constant of integration (a trihedron in this case). For instance, those classic combinations of curvature and torsion leads to :

- a curve of null curvature and null torsion is a straight line;
- a curve of constant curvature and null torsion is a circle;
- a curve of constant curvature and constant torsion is a circular helix.

1.5 Curve framing

While the Frenet trihedron “has long been the standard vehicle for analysing properties of the curve invariant⁷ under euclidean motions” [Bis75, p.1], a curve can be potentially framed with any arbitrary *moving frame*, understood as an *orthonormal basis field*.

In his paper Bishop establishes the differential equation that this kind of field must satisfy and remarks that, because of the orthonormality condition, the derivatives of the vector field can be expressed in terms of the frame itself through a skew-symmetric coefficient matrix. The understanding of the motion of such a frame is thus reduced to the knowledge of only three coefficients.

Bishop remarks that, although the Frenet trihedron exhibits

In this section, following [Bis75] we introduce the notion of *moving frame* and exhibits the differential equation that any arbitrary moving frame would satisfy. He states that this

Vraiment repartir de l'intro de Bishop [Bis75, p. 1] Nous avons précédemment défini le repère de Frenet. Introduit les notions de courbure et de torsion, des invariants. Nous précisons

⁷Namely the curvature and the torsion

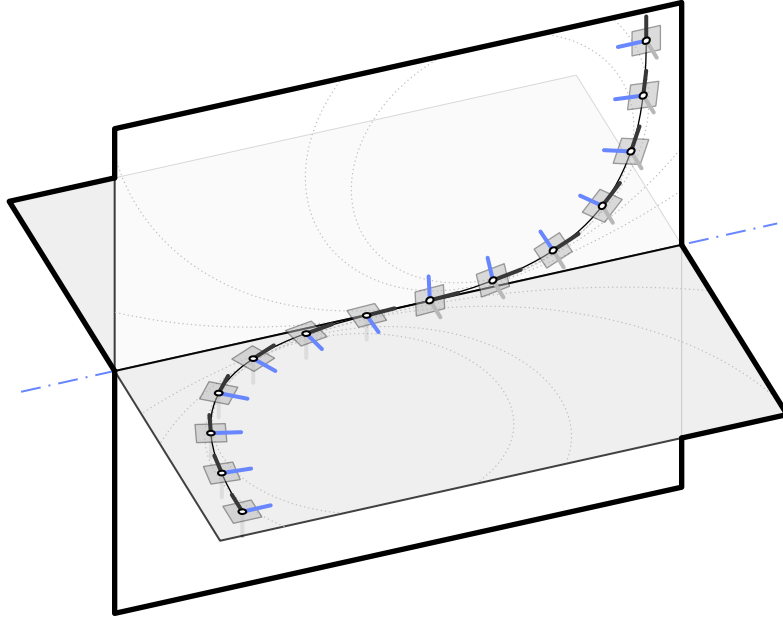


Figure 1.3 – Geometric torsion and rotation of the osculating plane. Note the existence of an inflexion point with a vanishing curvature.

maintenant la notion de repère mobile le long d’une courbe à double courbure, c’est à dire d’une courbe gauche de l’espace. Cette notion nous permettra, pour l’étude des poutres élancées, de positionner une section le long d’une fibre neutre.

1.5.1 Moving frame

Let $\gamma : s \rightarrow \gamma(s)$ be an arc-length parametrized curve. A map F which associates to each point of arc-length s a direct orthonormal trihedron is called a *moving frame* :

$$\begin{aligned} F : [0, L] &\longrightarrow \mathcal{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}) \\ s &\longmapsto F(s) = \{\mathbf{e}_3(s), \mathbf{e}_1(s), \mathbf{e}_2(s)\} \end{aligned} \quad (1.15)$$

Thus, inherently, a moving frame F attached to γ satisfies for all $s \in [0, L]$:

$$\begin{cases} \|\mathbf{e}_i(s)\| = 1 \\ \mathbf{e}_i(s) \cdot \mathbf{e}_j(s) = 0 \quad , \quad i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (1.16)$$

The terme “moving frame” will refer indifferently to the map (F) itself, or to a specific evaluation of the map ($F(s)$).

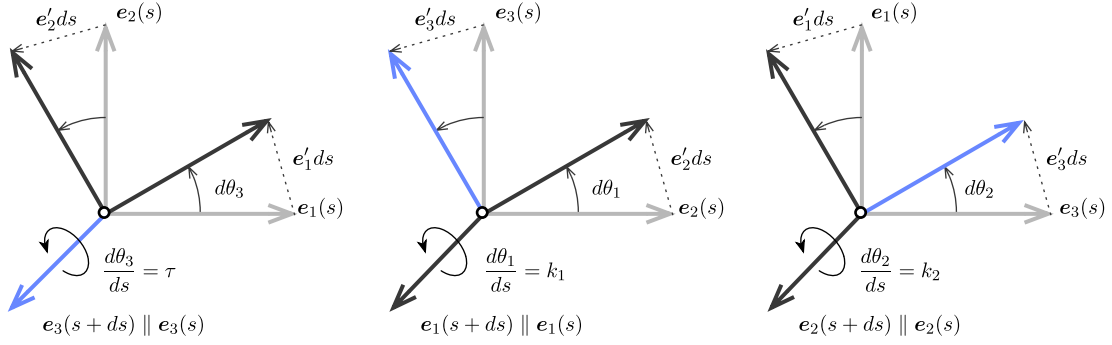


Figure 1.4 – Geometric interpretation of the Darboux vector of a moving frame.

Governing equations

Computing the derivatives of the previous relationships leads to the following differential equations :

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{e}'_i(s) \cdot \mathbf{e}_i(s) = 0 \\ \mathbf{e}'_i(s) \cdot \mathbf{e}_j(s) = -\mathbf{e}_i(s) \cdot \mathbf{e}'_j(s) \quad , \quad i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (1.17)$$

Thus, there exists 3 scalar functions $\tau(s)$, $k_1(s)$, $k_2(s)$ such that :

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{e}'_3(s) = k_2(s)\mathbf{e}_1(s) - k_1(s)\mathbf{e}_2(s) \\ \mathbf{e}'_1(s) = -k_2(s)\mathbf{e}_3(s) + \tau(s)\mathbf{e}_2(s) \\ \mathbf{e}'_2(s) = k_1(s)\mathbf{e}_3(s) - \tau(s)\mathbf{e}_1(s) \end{cases} \quad (1.18)$$

It is common to rewrite this first-order linear differential equations system as a matrix equation :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}'_3(s) \\ \mathbf{e}'_1(s) \\ \mathbf{e}'_2(s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & k_2(s) & -k_1(s) \\ -k_2(s) & 0 & \tau(s) \\ k_1(s) & -\tau(s) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_3(s) \\ \mathbf{e}_1(s) \\ \mathbf{e}_2(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.19)$$

Since the progression of any moving frame along γ is ruled by a first-order differential equation, a unique triplet $\{\tau, k_1, k_2\}$ leads to a set of moving frames equal to each other within a constant of integration. Basically, with a given triplet $\{\tau, k_1, k_2\}$, one would “propagate” a given initial direct orthonormal trihedron (at $s = 0$ for instance) through the whole curve by integrating the differential system. In general, a moving frame will be fully determined by τ , κ_1 , κ_2 plus $\{\mathbf{e}_3(s=0), \mathbf{e}_1(s=0), \mathbf{e}_2(s=0)\}$.

[formules de Darboux-Ribaucour dans le cas des courbes tracées sur des surfaces - cas plus général que les formules de Serret-Frenet](#)

Angular velocity : the Darboux vector

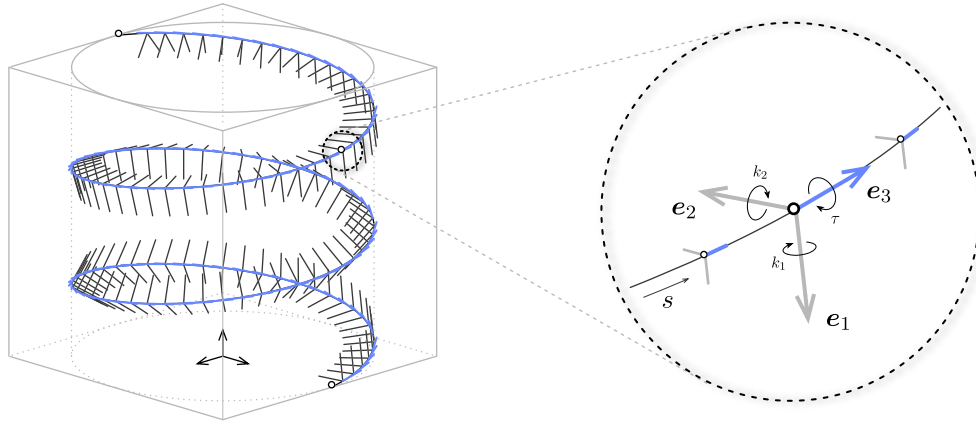


Figure 1.5 – Adapted moving frame $F(s) = \{e_3(s), e_1(s), e_2(s)\}$ where $e_3(s) = t(s)$.

Rigoureusement, le vecteur de Darboux est le vecteur vitesse angulaire du repère de Frenet. Ici, on propose donc une généralisation de l'appellation

It is relevant to consider the mobile frame's evolution along γ introducing the so-called *Darboux vector* (Ω), which corresponds to the instantaneous angular velocity of F at each point of arc-length s . Thus, the previous differential system governing the evolution of $F(s)$ along γ becomes :

$$e'_i(s) = \Omega(s) \times e_i(s) \quad \text{avec} \quad \Omega(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \tau(s) \\ k_1(s) \\ k_2(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.20)$$

This result is straightforward deduced from (1.31). Note that the cross product “reveals” that the system is skew-symmetric, which could already be seen in (1.31). Geometrically, decomposing the infinitesimal rotation of the moving frame around its directors between arc-length s and $s + ds$ (figure 1.4) shows that the scalar functions $\tau(s)$, $k_1(s)$, $k_2(s)$ effectively correspond to the angular speed of the frame, respectively around $e_3(s)$, $e_1(s)$, $e_2(s)$:

$$\frac{d\theta_3}{dt}(s) = \tau(s) \quad , \quad \frac{d\theta_1}{dt}(s) = k_1(s) \quad , \quad \frac{d\theta_2}{dt}(s) = k_2(s) \quad (1.21)$$

1.5.2 Rotation-minimizing frame

Following [FGSS14] we introduce the notion of *rotation-minimizing frame*. Both the Frenet and Bishop adapted moving frames are also rotation-minimizing frames.

1.5.3 Adapted moving frame

Let F be a moving frame as defined in the previous section. F is said to be *adapted* to γ if at each point $\gamma(s)$, $\mathbf{e}_3(s)$ is tangent to γ :

$$\mathbf{d}_3(s) = \mathbf{t}(s) = \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\|\gamma'(s)\|}, \quad \forall s \in [0, L] \quad (1.22)$$

For an adapted frame, the components k_1 and k_2 of the Darboux vector are related to the curve's curvature. Indeed, recall from that $\kappa \equiv \|\gamma''\| = \|\mathbf{t}'\|$. Or $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{d}_3$ for an adapted frame. Thus, the following relation holds :

$$\kappa = \|\mathbf{d}_3'\| = \sqrt{k_1^2 + k_2^2} \quad (1.23)$$

La courbure est une quantité géométrique intrinsèque, indépendante du choix du repère mobile attaché à la courbe. C'est donc un invariant. Et donc quelque soit le choix du repère mobile adapté $\|\mathbf{t}'\| = \sqrt{\kappa_1^2 + \kappa_2^2}$ est un invariant (la courbure).

Faire le lien avec l'énergie de flexion, qui ne dépend donc que de la géométrie de la courbe dans le cas d'une isotropic rod $\mathcal{E}_b = EI\kappa^2$.

1.5.4 Frenet frame

Definition

The Frenet frame is a well-known particular adapted moving frame (§ 1.3). At any given regular point $\gamma(s)$ it is defined as the Frenet trihedron $\{\mathbf{t}(s), \mathbf{n}(s), \mathbf{b}(s)\}$ where :

$$\mathbf{t}(s) = \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\|\gamma'(s)\|}, \quad \mathbf{n}(s) = \frac{\mathbf{t}'(s)}{\kappa(s)}, \quad \mathbf{b}(s) = \mathbf{t}(s) \times \mathbf{n}(s) \quad (1.24)$$

Governing equations

The Frenet frame satisfies the *Frenet-Serret* formulas, which govern the evolution of the frame along the curve γ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}'(s) \\ \mathbf{n}'(s) \\ \mathbf{b}'(s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \kappa(s) & 0 \\ -\kappa(s) & 0 & \tau_f(s) \\ 0 & -\tau_f(s) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}(s) \\ \mathbf{n}(s) \\ \mathbf{b}(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.25)$$

One can remember the generic differential equations of an adapted moving frame attached to a curve, where :

$$\mathbf{d}_3(s) = \mathbf{t}(s) = \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\|\gamma'(s)\|}, \quad k_1(s) = 0, \quad k_2(s) = \kappa(s), \quad \tau(s) = \tau_f(s) \quad (1.26)$$

The Serret-Frenet formulas are a set of three differential equations that the Frenet thriedron

satisfies. They can be understood as the motion equations of a moving Frenet trihedron adapted to a space curve γ . The scalar functions κ and τ are known to be the curvature and the torsion of the curve γ :

Angular velocity

Consequently, the angular velocity vector ($\mathbf{\Omega}_f$) of the Frenet frame, also known as the *Darboux vector* in this particular case, is given by :

$$\mathbf{\Omega}_f(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_f(s) \\ 0 \\ \kappa(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.27)$$

One can remark that the Frenet frame satisfies $\mathbf{\Omega}_f(s) \cdot \mathbf{n}(s) = 0$ and is thus a *rotation-minimizing* frame regarding the normal vector (\mathbf{n}). The motion of this frame through the curve is known as "*pitch-free*".

Specific points

This assertion is equivalent to the well-known *Serret-Frenet formulas*, which give the first-order linear differential equations system that govern the evolution of Frenet's trihedron along a space curve. For a given curvature and torsion, and a given initial trihedron, the geometry of the space curve can be constructed by integration these differential equations.

undefined when curvature vanishes : montrer des exemples

not related to mechanical torsion

une perturbation de la courbe dans le sens de la courbure engendre une variation de longueur de la courbe proportionnelle à l'inverse de la courbure (au premier ordre) + schéma

une perturbation de la courbe dans le sens de la binormale (en tout point) préserve la longueur de la courbe au 1er ordre : c'est un déplacement qui conserve l'hypothèse d'inextensibilité au premier ordre

Examiner la question de la fermeture sur une boucle fermée. Schéma.

1.5.5 Bishop frame

Definition

Different ways to frame a curve. The usual one is Frenet. But, it could not be as relevant as we want in our field of interest.

The Bishop frame is defined as a well-known particular adapted moving frame (??). At

any given regular point $\gamma(s)$ it is define as $\{\mathbf{t}(s), \mathbf{n}(s), \mathbf{b}(s)\}$ where :

[Gug89] [Klo86]

Although the Frenet frame is not rotation-minimizing with respect to t , one can easily derive such a rotation-minimizing frame from it. New normal-plane vectors (u, v) are specified through a rotation of (p, b) according to $u = \cos$

Bishop frame can be defined relatively to Frenet frame trough a rotation around the unit tangent. The goal is to nullify the rotation around the tangent. As we know that the Frenet frame is rotating at speed $\tau(s)$ around $\mathbf{t}(s)$ we just have to rotate back the frenet frame around the tangent vector by the following angle :

$$\theta(s) = \theta_0(s) - \int_0^s \tau_f(t) dt \quad (1.28)$$

Bishop frame can be expressed relatively to the Frenet frame :

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{u} = \cos \theta \mathbf{n} + \sin \theta \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{v} = -\sin \theta \mathbf{n} + \cos \theta \mathbf{b} \end{cases} \quad (1.29)$$

And :

$$\begin{cases} \tau = \mathbf{u}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\boldsymbol{\Omega}_f \times \mathbf{u} + \theta' \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 \\ k_1 = -\mathbf{t}' \cdot \mathbf{v} = -\kappa \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \kappa \sin \theta \\ k_2 = \mathbf{t}' \cdot \mathbf{u} = \kappa \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \kappa \cos \theta \end{cases} \quad (1.30)$$

Governing equations

The Bishop frame evolution is governed by the following differential equations :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}'(s) \\ \mathbf{u}'(s) \\ \mathbf{v}'(s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \kappa(s) \sin \theta(s) & -\kappa(s) \cos \theta(s) \\ -\kappa(s) \sin \theta(s) & 0 & 0 \\ \kappa(s) \cos \theta(s) & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}(s) \\ \mathbf{u}(s) \\ \mathbf{v}(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.31)$$

One can remember the generic differential equations of an adapted moving frame attached to a curve, where :

$$k_1(s) = \kappa(s) \sin \theta(s) \quad , \quad k_2(s) = \kappa(s) \cos \theta(s) \quad , \quad \tau(s) = 0 \quad (1.32)$$

Angular velocity

Consequently, the Darboux vector $(\boldsymbol{\Omega}_b)$ of the Bishop frame is given by :

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega}_b(s) = \kappa \mathbf{b}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \kappa(s) \sin \theta(s) \\ \kappa(s) \cos \theta(s) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.33)$$

One can remark that the Bishop frame satisfies $\Omega_b(s) \cdot \mathbf{t}(s) = 0$ and is thus *rotation-minimizing* regarding the tangent vector. roll-free motion.

Specific points

well defined when curvature vanishes

related to mechanical torsion

expliquer la relation entre bishop et frenet : bishop est obtenu par rotation d'un angle $\alpha = \int \tau_f$ par rapport à frenet.

expliquer la notion de parallèle comme l'a formulé Laurent Hauswirth : la projection de u' et v' dans le plan normal à la tangente t est nulle, cad que d'un plan à un autre la projection de u et v est conservée + faire schéma.

Laurent Hauswirth : la complexité d'un problème est en général proportionnelle à la codimension de l'objet étudié et donc, de ce fait les courbes ($\text{codim} = 3 - 1 = 2$) sont des objets plus compliqués que les surfaces ($\text{codim} = 3 - 2 = 1$) ds \mathbb{R}^3 .

Expliquer le défaut de fermeture sur une boucle fermée. Calcul du writhe. Quelle différence avec Frenet ?

1.5.6 Comparison between Frenet and Bishop frames

Application A : circular helix

$$\begin{cases} \rho = a \\ z = b\theta \end{cases} \quad (1.34)$$

Application B : conical helix (spiral)

$$\begin{cases} \rho = ae^{k\theta} \\ z = \rho \cot \alpha \end{cases} \quad (1.35)$$

soit pour une spirale dont on connaît

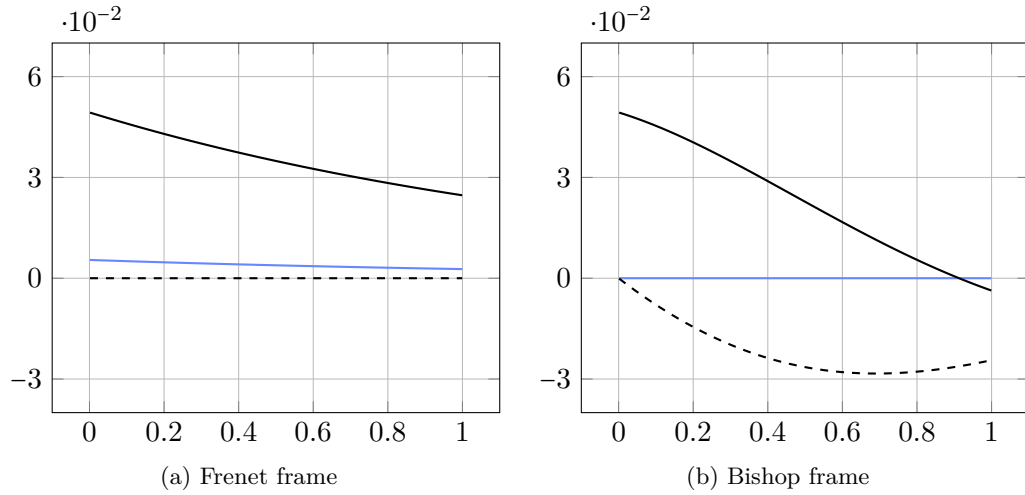


Figure 1.6 – Comparison between Frenet and Bishop frame velocity for a spirale curve.

1.6 Discret curves

1.6.1 Definition and arc-length parametrization

1.6.2 Discret curvature : an equivocal concept

Curvature is defined from the osculating circle, which is the best approximation of a curve by a circle. We can define such a circle and its radius will be the curvature at that point. Problem : there are several ways to define such a circle.

Definition

Très intéressant de constater que cette vision 3 verticies vs. 2 edges est déjà présente dès le début dans l'histoire de la compréhension de la courbure.

Pour Euler, le rayon de courbure est le rapport de l'élément d'arc sur l'angle de contingence entre deux tangentes infiniment proches. Par ailleurs, la définition du plan osculateur n'est pas tout à fait la même chez Bernoulli, plan passant par trois points consécutifs, puis- qu'Euler dit que ce plan contient deux éléments successifs. Il le définit aussi en disant que c'est le plan où la courbe s'incurve. Pour le dire de façon un peu différente : la tangente contient un élément, c'est le lieu où la courbe est droite, la plan osculateur représente l'étape suivante, c'est le lieu où la courbe est arc de cercle. Nous ne pensons pas trahir Euler en faisant cette présentation : cela justifie que, pour lui, il est naturel de se placer sur le plan osculateur pour calculer le rayon de courbure. [Del07]

[Hof08]

The edge osculating circle. The vertex osculating circle. La localité est meilleur dans le cas du vertex-based discret osculating circle. Pour des angles élevés, le edge-based

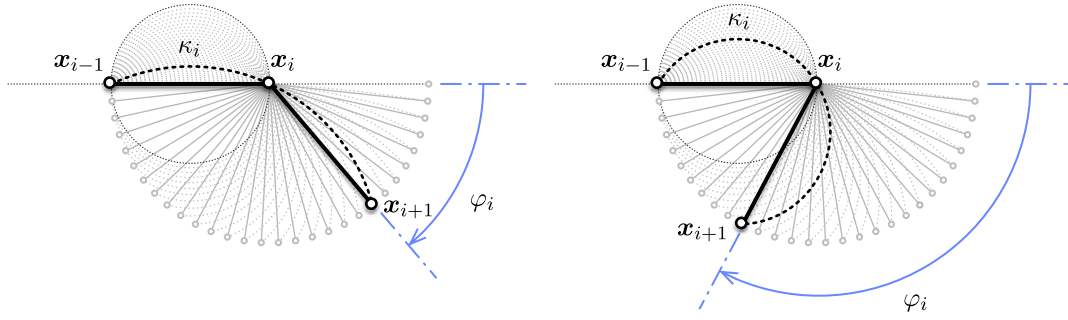


Figure 1.7 – Variation of the vertex-based discrete curvature.

discret osculating circle est plus pertinent. La courbure tend vers l'infini quand les 2 edges deviennent colineaires.

La définition du plan osculateur est univoque dans le cas discret : c'est localement le plan défini par 2 edges consécutifs.

Ce n'est pas le cas de la courbure qui perd son côté intrinsèque.

courbure discrete dans le cas général

Vertex-based osculating circle

$$\kappa_1 = \frac{2 \sin(\varphi_i)}{\|e_{i-1} + e_i\|}, \quad (1.36)$$

Problème de convergence lorsque l'angle tend vers pi et que les segments ont même longueur. En pratique peut probable.

Edge-based osculating circle

$$\kappa_2 = \frac{\tan(\varphi_i/2) + \tan(\varphi_{i+1}/2)}{\|e_i\|} \quad (1.37)$$

Bon comportement lorsque l'angle tend vers pi. Demande que les 3 segments soient coplanaires.

Osculating circle for an arc-length parametrized curve

$$\kappa_3 = \frac{2 \tan(\varphi_i/2)}{l}, \quad l = \|e_i\| = cst \quad (1.38)$$

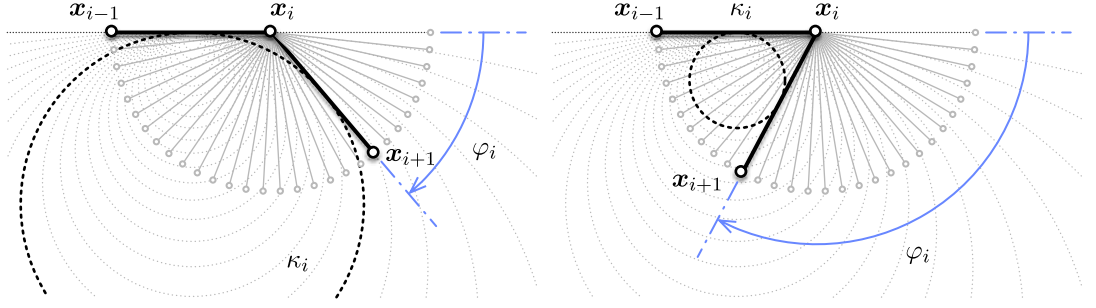


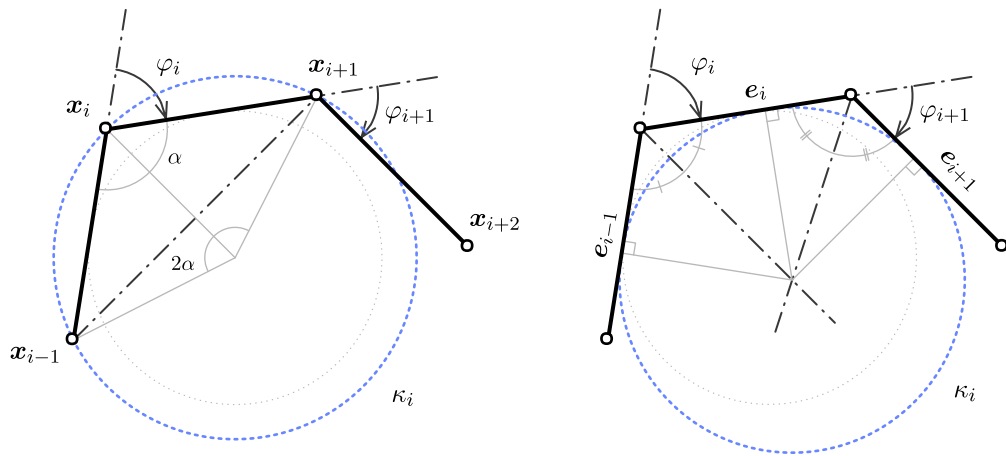
Figure 1.8 – Variation of the edge-based discrete curvature.

Qu'on peut réécrire pour des segments de longueur variable, avec la moyenne

$$\kappa_3 = \frac{2 \tan(\varphi_i/2)}{l_i} \quad , \quad l_i = \frac{\|e_{i-1}\| \|e_i\|}{\|e_{i-1}\| + \|e_i\|} \quad (1.39)$$

Unlike the smooth case we can not reparameterize a curve. A discrete curve is parameterized by arc-length or it is not [Hof08, p. 10].

Cette condition est extrêmement exigeante $\|e_i\| = cst$. Elle est tenable pour des modèles de poutre non connectées (où le pas de discrétisation peut-être choisi uniforme) mais pour en cas de connexion. Ce point n'est pas éclairci dans les articles de Audoly.



(a) vertex-based osculating circle

(b) edge-based osculating circle

Figure 1.9 – Definition of the osculating circle for discrete curves.

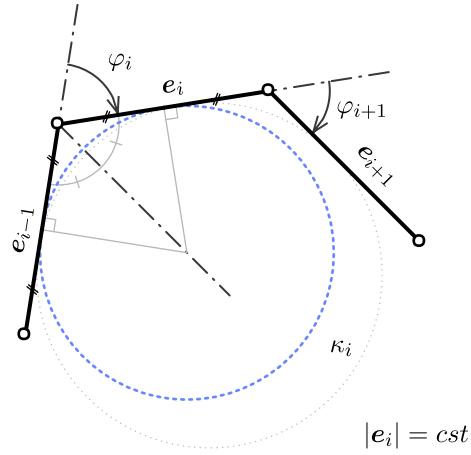


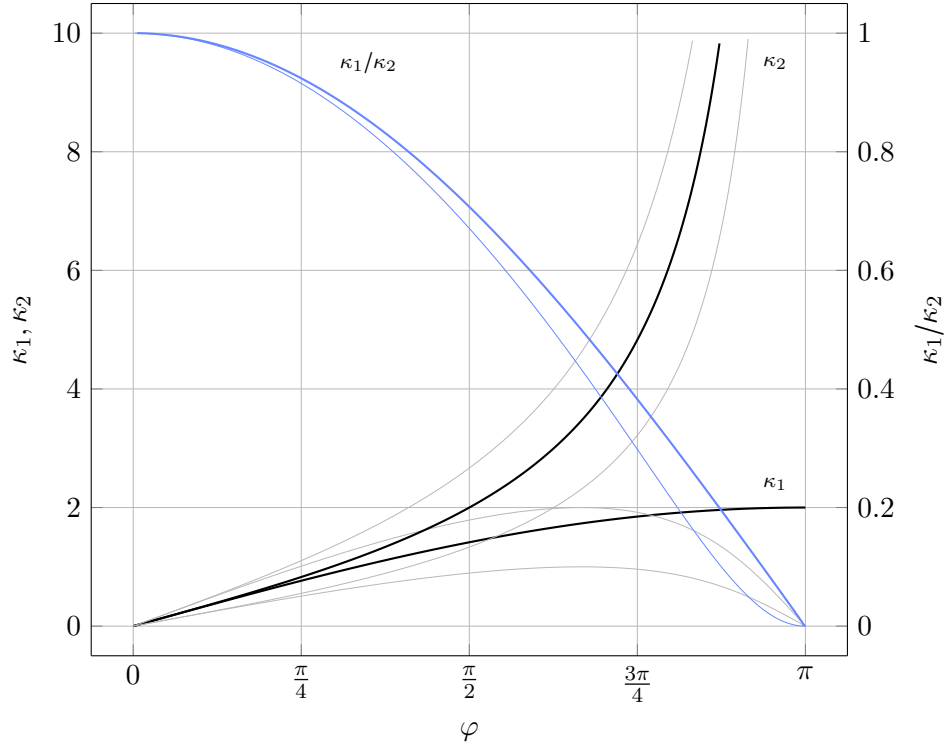
Figure 1.10 – Another definition of the osculating circle for arc-length parametrized curves.

1.6.3 Variability of discrete curvature regarding α

Qu'on réécrit en posant $\|e_{i-1}\| = \alpha\|e_i\|$, $\alpha \geq 0$:

$$\kappa_1 = \frac{2 \sin(\varphi_i)}{\|e_i\|(1 + \alpha^2 + 2\alpha \cos(\varphi_i))^{1/2}}, \quad \kappa_2 = \frac{4 \tan(\varphi_i/2)}{\|e_i\|(1 + \alpha)} \quad (1.40)$$

$$\frac{\kappa_1}{\kappa_2}(\alpha) = \frac{\kappa_1}{\kappa_2}(1/\alpha) = \frac{1 + \alpha}{(1 + \alpha^2 + 2\alpha \cos(\varphi_i))^{1/2}} \cos^2(\varphi_i/2) \quad (1.41)$$


 Figure 1.11 – Discrete curvature comparison for $\alpha \in [0.5, 2]$

1.6.4 Convergence benchmark κ_1 vs. κ_2

Straight line

Circle

Smooth curve settings:

$$\mathcal{E} = \int_0^l \kappa^2 ds = \kappa\pi, \quad l = \pi r, \quad \kappa = \frac{1}{r} \quad (1.42)$$

Discrete curve :

$$\varphi_N = \frac{\pi}{N}, \quad |\mathbf{e}| = 2r \sin \frac{\varphi}{2}, \quad l_N = N|\mathbf{e}| = 2Nr \sin \frac{\varphi}{2} = l \frac{\sin \frac{\varphi}{2}}{\frac{\varphi}{2}} \quad (1.43)$$

Discrete bending energies :

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = \mathcal{E} \frac{\sin \frac{\varphi}{2}}{\frac{\varphi}{2}}, \quad \mathcal{E}_2 = \mathcal{E} \frac{\sin \frac{\varphi}{2}}{\frac{\varphi}{2} \cos^2 \frac{\varphi}{2}}, \quad (1.44)$$

Remarque that ratios are independent of scale change (independent of R)

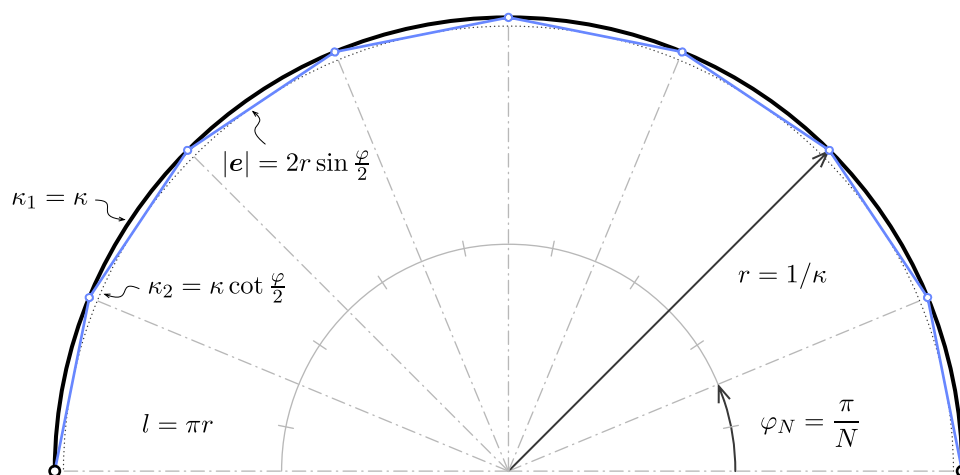


Figure 1.12 – Another definition of the osculating circle for arc-length parametrized curves.

qsmldkqsmldk s qsd qsd sqd qs dqs=dlk qs=ldk sq

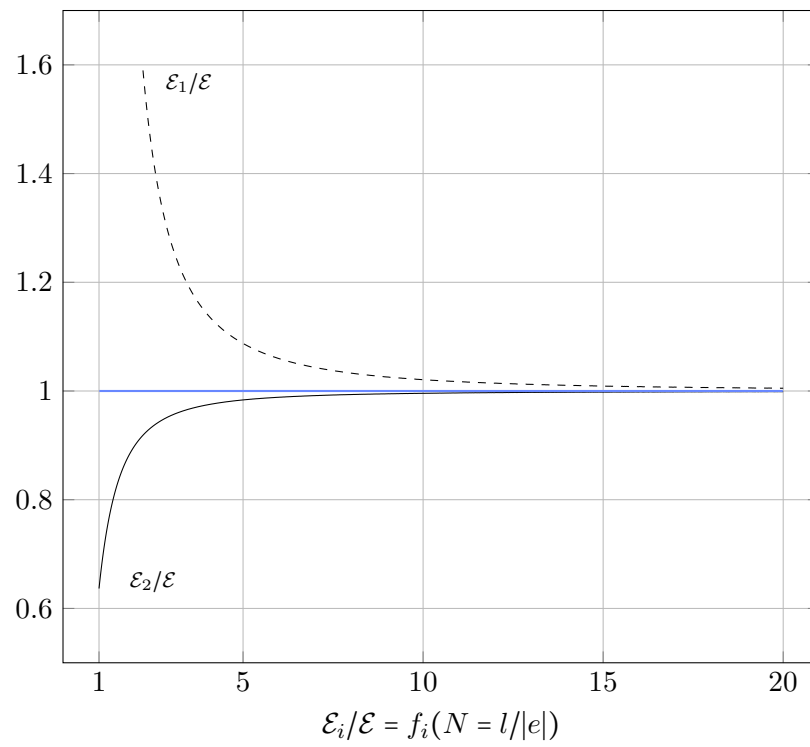


Figure 1.13 – Discrete curvature comparison for $\alpha \in [0.5, 2]$

Elastica

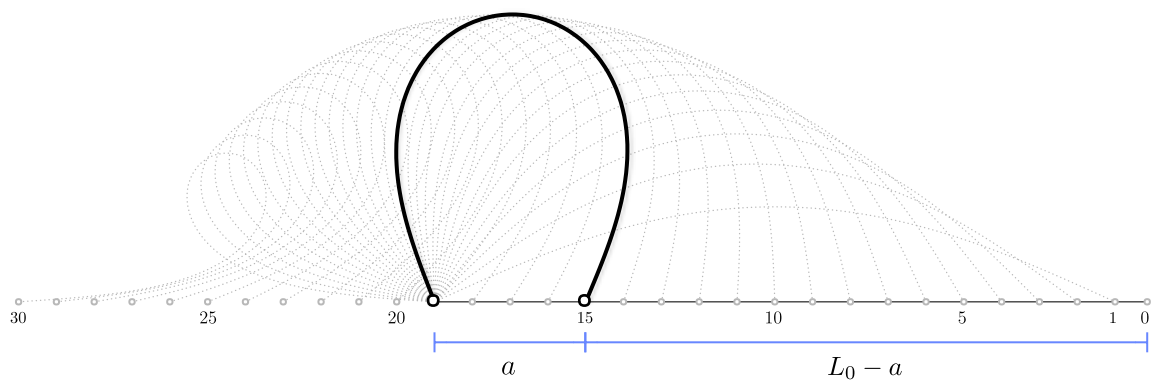


Figure 1.14 – Another definition of the osculating circle for arc-length parametrized curves.

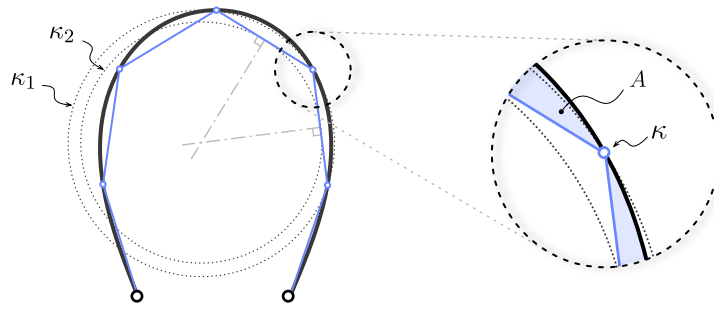


Figure 1.15 – Another definition of the osculating circle for arc-length parametrized curves.

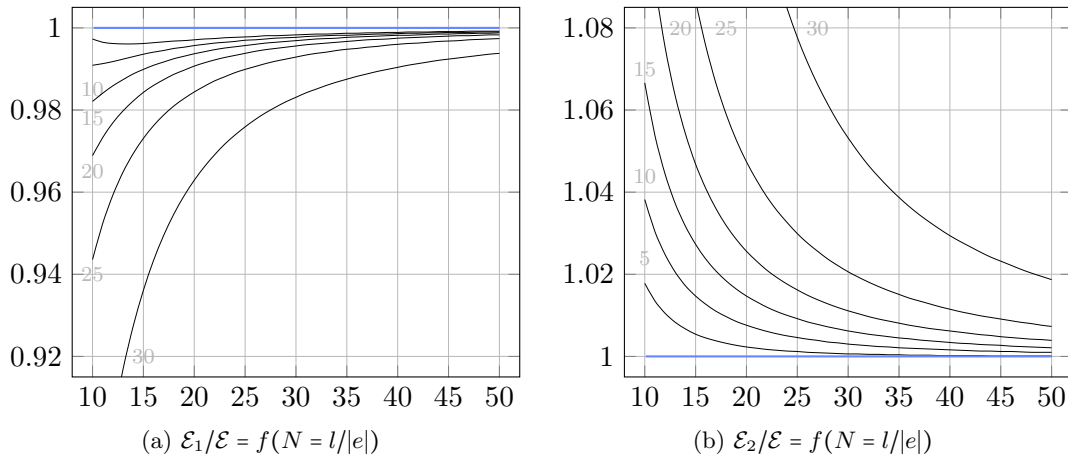


Figure 1.16 – Bending energy representativity

1.6.5 Edge versus vertex based tangent vector

Problème de définition. Facile de définir une tangente sur un edge. Mais une infinité de tangentes possibles à chaque vertex.

So in case of an arc-length parameterized curve the vertex tangent vector points in the same direction as the averaged edge tangent vectors [Hof08, p. 12].

Nous verrons que le cercle 3 points, en plus de mieux représenter l'énergie d'une courbe discrete dans les cas typiques, offre un choix de tangente non ambigu.

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