

Original Lecture #12: 10 November 1992  
Topics: Total-Degree Surfaces  
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## 1 Surfaces in Parametric Form

Recall that a parametric description of a surface in 3-space has the form

$$P(U, V) = (X(U, V), Y(U, V), Z(U, V)).$$

The parametric form maps a point  $(U, V)$  in the 2-d parameter space to a point  $P(U, V)$  in 3-space.

Two distinct interpretations of this parametric form are possible, depending on the method used to put a degree bound on the surface. Consider the  $X$  coordinate of a parametric surface introduced in the previous lecture

$$X(U, V) = 2UV + 3UV^2 + 7U^2.$$

In the tensor product case, the parameters  $U$  and  $V$  are considered separately, and the degree of the polynomial is computed for each while holding the other parameter constant. Thus the expression for  $X(U, V)$  is viewed as two polynomials of degree  $(2;2)$ , one with  $U$  held constant, the other with  $V$  constant. In the total degree case, however, we compute the total degree in  $U$  and  $V$  considered together. Thus for  $X$  above, the total degree is 3. Note that the distinction between tensor product and total degree interpretations is not a minor one, and leads to very different results after homogenization and polarization.

## 2 Homogenization of Total-degree Surfaces

Recall that in the tensor product case we made the separate substitutions  $U = u/a$  and  $V = v/b$  in order to homogenize  $X$ . In the total degree case, however, we introduce just one new homogenizing variable, say  $c$ , in order to map the coordinates  $[1; U, V]$  to the homogeneous coordinates  $(c; u, v)$  via the substitutions  $U = u/c$  and  $V = v/c$ . Thus  $X$  becomes

$$X(U, V) = X\left(\frac{u}{c}, \frac{v}{c}\right) = 2\left(\frac{u}{c}\right)\left(\frac{v}{c}\right) + 3\left(\frac{u}{c}\right)\left(\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) + 7\left(\frac{u^2}{c^2}\right).$$

The rescaling that clears the denominators in this case will multiply all of the homogeneous coordinates  $w, x, y,$  and  $z$  by  $c^3$ , getting the final form

$$x(c, u, v) = 2uvc + 3uv^2 + 7u^2c.$$

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\*Heavily based on the 1991 notes of Steven Woo, Alice Yu, and Dan Yang.

### 3 Polarization of Total-degree Surfaces

Since, in the total degree case,  $X(U, V)$  is the  $X$ -coordinate of a surface  $F$  of total degree 3, the polar form or blossom  $f$  of  $F$  takes three points in the  $(U, V)$  plane as arguments, and the  $X$ -coordinate  $x$  of the polar form  $f$  thus has the form  $x((U_1, V_1), (U_2, V_2), (U_3, V_3))$ .

To find the polar form of  $UV$ , we substitute all products of  $U_i$  and  $V_j$  such that  $i \neq j$ , and divide by the number of such products. Thus the polar form of  $UV$  becomes  $\frac{1}{6}(U_1V_2 + U_1V_3 + U_2V_1 + U_2V_3 + U_3V_1 + U_3V_2)$ .

To polarize the term  $UV^2$ , we substitute the products of  $U_i$ ,  $V_j$ , and  $V_k$  where  $i, j$ , and  $k$  are distinct, and divide by the number of these products. So the polar form of  $UV^2$  is  $\frac{1}{3}(U_1V_2V_3 + U_2V_1V_3 + U_3V_1V_2)$ .

Similarly, the polar form of  $U^2$  is  $\frac{1}{3}(U_1U_2 + U_1U_3 + U_2U_3)$ .

The polar form  $x$  of the polynomial  $X$ , viewed as a polynomial of total degree 3 in  $U$  and  $V$  jointly, is the appropriate linear combination of the above polar forms:

$$\begin{aligned} x((U_1, V_1), (U_2, V_2), (U_3, V_3)) = & \\ & \frac{1}{3}(U_1V_2 + U_1V_3 + U_2V_1 + U_2V_3 + U_3V_1 + U_3V_2) + \\ & (U_1V_2V_3 + U_2V_1V_3 + U_3V_1V_2) + \frac{7}{3}(U_1U_2 + U_2U_3 + U_1U_3). \end{aligned}$$

The real entities here are the *pairs*—we want something affine in terms of each *point*  $(U_i, V_i)$ . Note that the blossoming degree is the maximum of all the coordinates of  $F$ , thus, had  $Y(U, V)$  and  $Z(U, V)$  been of degree less than three, the point  $(U, V)$  would still blossom into three points for the polar forms of  $Y$  and  $Z$ .

### 4 Developing a Bézier Theory for Surface Patches

Recall that for the tensor product case, the relevant region of the parameter plane to use as the domain of a patch was a rectangle. Since  $U$  and  $V$  were considered separately, intervals defined the ranges of  $U$  and  $V$ , and only one-dimensional interpolation was necessary.

In the total degree case, the “coupled”  $U$  and  $V$  interpretation requires three points to define the range, and necessitates two-dimensional interpolation. The relevant region of the parameter plane in this case is a triangle. The image of a domain triangle, say  $\triangle PQR$ , is a triangular surface patch  $F(\triangle PQR)$ . The Bézier points of this triangular patch are the polar values that result from using the points  $P$ ,  $Q$ , and  $R$ , in all possible ways, as polar arguments to the polar form  $f$  of the surface  $F$ . For example, a cubic triangular surface patch  $F$  has ten Bézier points:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & & f(P, P, P) \\ & & & f(P, P, Q) \quad f(P, P, R) \\ & & f(P, Q, Q) \quad f(P, Q, R) \quad f(P, R, R) \\ f(Q, Q, Q) \quad f(Q, Q, R) \quad f(Q, R, R) \quad f(R, R, R) \end{array}$$

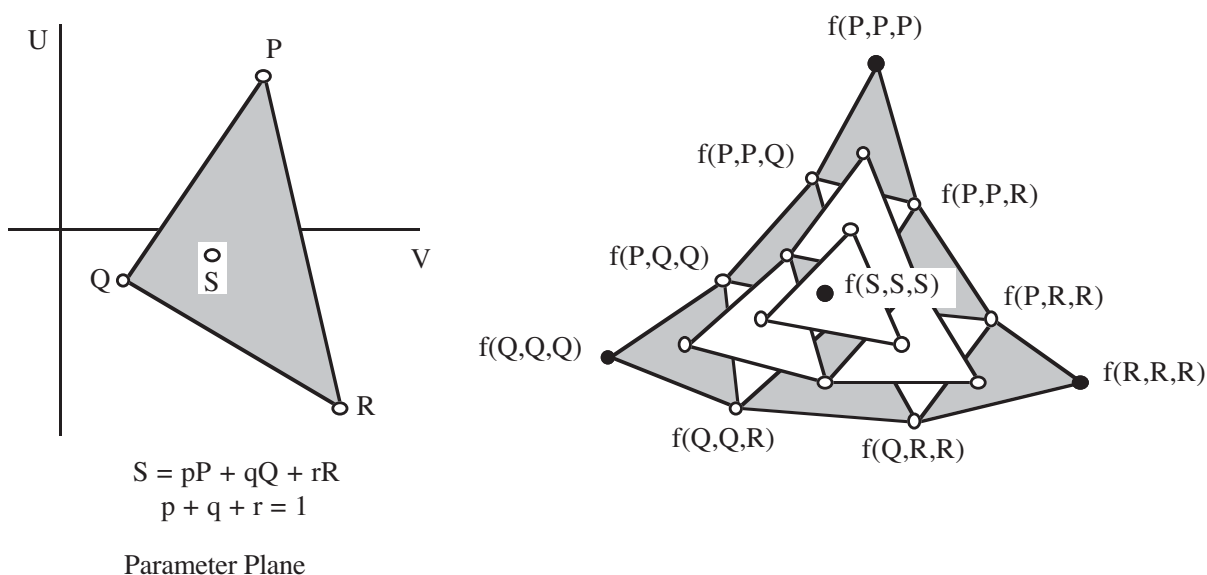


Figure 1: The de Casteljau Algorithm for a cubic surface

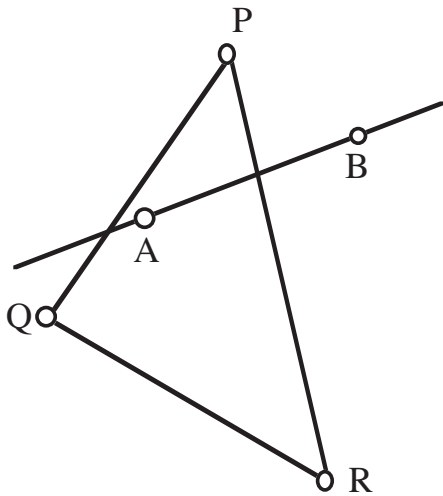
In the total-degree case, the de Casteljau algorithm does two-dimensional affine interpolations, as shown in Figure 1. For example, suppose that point  $S$  lies in the domain triangle  $\triangle PQR$ , given in barycentric coordinates by  $S = pP + qQ + rR$ , where  $p + q + r = 1$ . The point  $f(P, P, S)$  can be found by interpolating in the triangle whose vertices are  $f(P, P, P)$ ,  $f(P, P, Q)$ , and  $f(P, P, R)$ :

$$f(P, P, S) = pf(P, P, P) + qf(P, P, Q) + rf(P, P, R).$$

Similarly, other points with one  $S$  in their labels can be found by interpolating in other triangles with three Bézier points as their vertices. Then points with more than one  $S$  in their labels can be found by interpolating in triangles of points found earlier. The three corner Bézier points in the triangular array above,  $F(P) = f(P, P, P)$ ,  $F(Q) = f(Q, Q, Q)$ , and  $F(R) = f(R, R, R)$  are the three corners of the triangular surface patch  $F(\triangle PQR)$ . Also, the edge  $PQ$  of the domain triangle maps, under  $F$ , to the cubic curve whose four Bézier points are  $f(P, P, P)$ ,  $f(P, P, Q)$ ,  $f(P, Q, Q)$ , and  $f(Q, Q, Q)$ .

More generally, the image  $F(AB)$  of an arbitrary line segment  $AB$  in the parameter plane is simply the cubic curve on the surface whose Bézier points are  $f(A, A, A)$ ,  $f(A, A, B)$ ,  $f(A, B, B)$ , and  $f(B, B, B)$ , as shown in Figure 2. Note that this differs from the tensor product case, where only line segments parallel to the  $U$  or  $V$  axis map to a quadratic curve (for the biquadratic surface example); a diagonal line may map to a curve of higher degree than the maximum degree of  $U$  or  $V$  separately.

Going from polynomial surfaces to rational surfaces is analogous to going from two dimensional polynomial curves to rational curves. Points are allowed different weight values, and our point  $S$  in barycentric coordinates would be defined as  $S = (pw_pP + qw_qQ + rw_rR)/(pw_p + qw_q + rw_r)$ .



Parameter Plane

For the total degree case 3, the image of line AB cutting triangle PQR has the Bezier points  $f(A,A,A)$ ,  $f(A,A,B)$ ,  $f(A,B,B)$ , and  $f(B,B,B)$

Figure 2: The image of a segment under a total-degree surface

## 5 Continuity Constraints For Triangular Surface Patches

We now examine the continuity constraints of triangular patches. Consider again the cubic total degree case. Suppose we have two patches  $A$  and  $B$  with common boundary along the edge  $st$  (Figure 3).

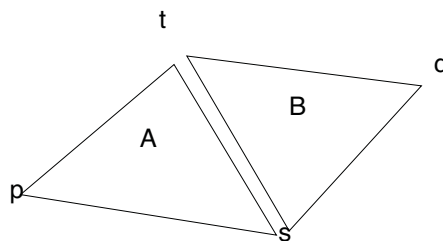


Figure 3: triangular patches share common boundary

### 5.1 $C^0$ -Continuity

For these two patches to be continuous along the boundary, we have to have (Figure 4)

- $A(sss) = B(sss)$
- $A(sst) = B(sst)$
- $A(stt) = B(stt)$

- $A(ttt) = B(ttt)$

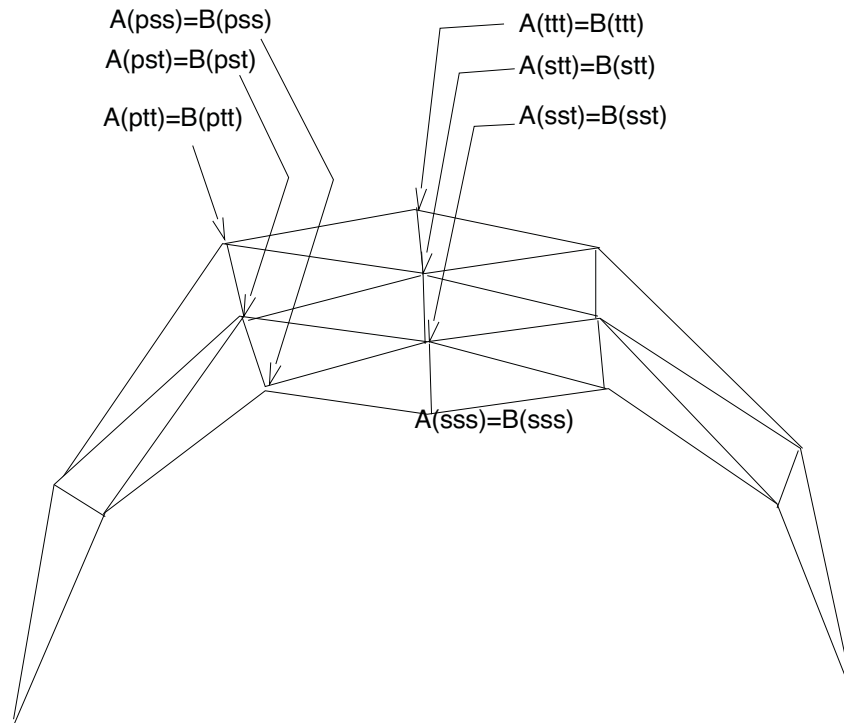


Figure 4: The Bezier points of two cubic surfaces that join with  $C^0$  continuity

## 5.2 $C^1$ -Continuity

Even though  $q$  is not inside the patch domain  $pst$ , we still can calculate  $A(qss)$ ,  $A(qst)$ ,  $A(qtt)$  by extrapolation. Similarly, we can calculate  $B(pss)$ ,  $B(pst)$ ,  $B(ptt)$ . For these two patches to be  $C^1$ -continuous, in addition to the conditions for  $C^0$ , we also need (see Figure 5)

- $A(xss) = B(xss)$  for  $x = p, q$
- $A(xst) = B(xst)$  for  $x = p, q$
- $A(xtt) = B(xtt)$  for  $x = p, q$

That is, groups of four Bezier points along the common boundary must be affine images of the quadrilateral  $ptqs$  in the parameter planes.

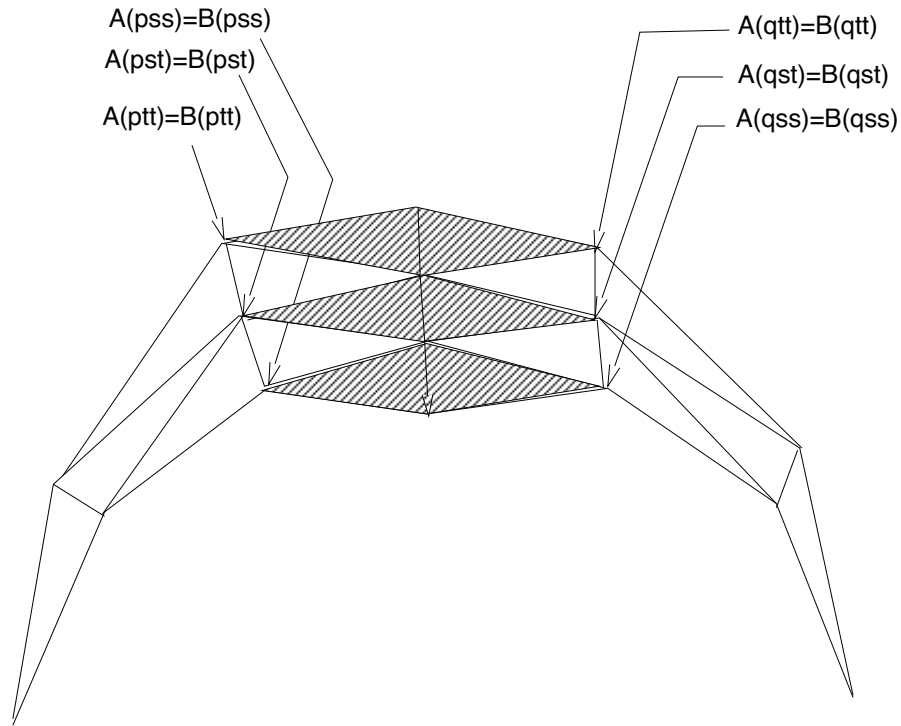


Figure 5: The Bezier points of two cubic surfaces that join with  $C^1$  continuity

### 5.3 $C^2$ -Continuity

For two patches to be  $C^2$ -continuous, in addition to the conditions for  $C^1$ , we also need (see Figure 6)

- $A(ppx) = B(ppx)$  for  $x = s, t$
- $A(qqx) = B(qqx)$  for  $x = s, t$

### 5.4 $C^3$ -Continuity

For two patches to be  $C^3$ -continuous, in addition to the conditions for  $C^3$ , we also need (see Figure 7)

- $A(xxx) = B(xxx)$  for  $x = p, q$

In other words, two patches agree on all 10 Bezier points.

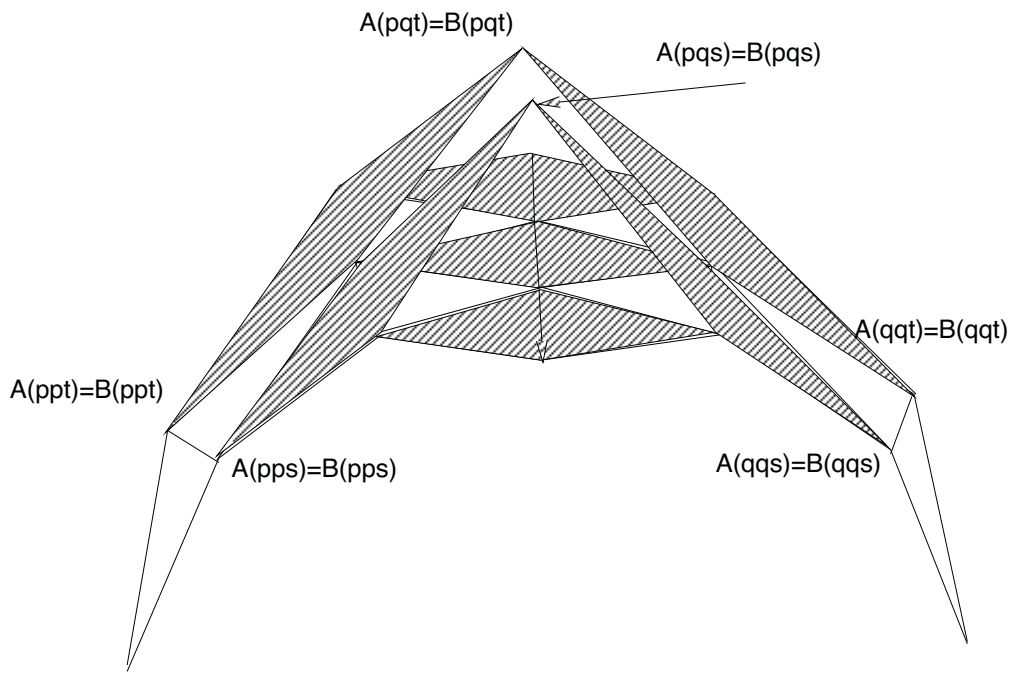


Figure 6: The Bezier points of two cubic surfaces that join with  $C^2$  continuity

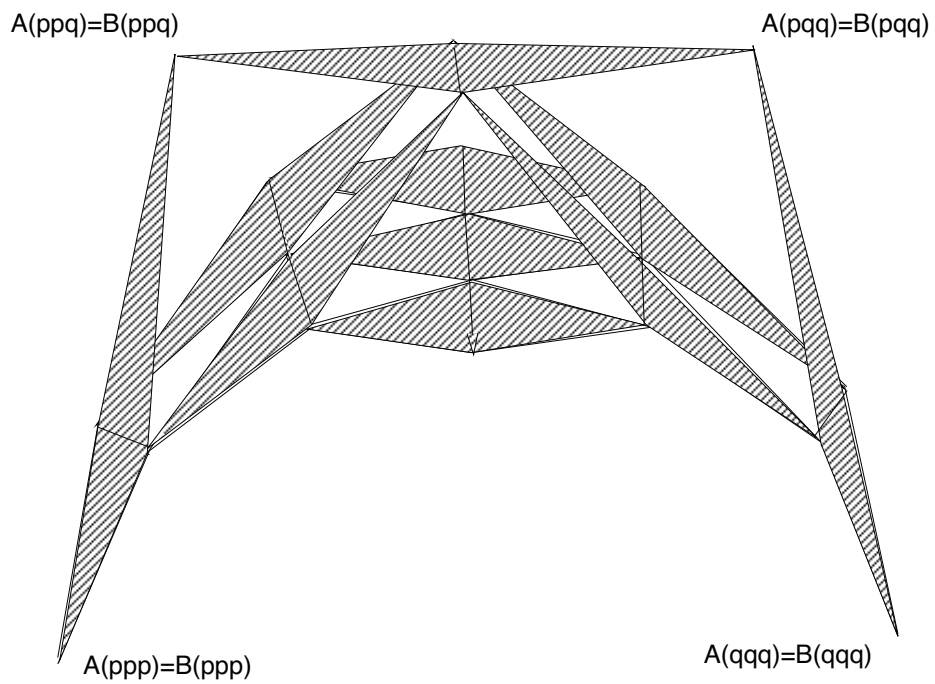


Figure 7: The Bezier points of two cubic surfaces that join with  $C^3$  continuity