

# CSD2341

## Computer Graphics Programming



# Line Drawing

## Third Edition

- Hearn and Baker 3.5

## Fourth Edition

- Hearn, Baker & Carithers 6.1

# Line Drawing – Why?

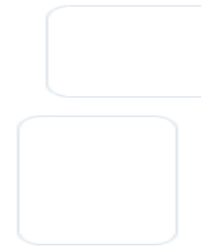
- Can't we just go
  - `g.draw(line)` ? (Java graphics API)
  - `gl.gl_begin(GL.GL_LINES)` etc? (OpenGL)
- Sure, but
  - Knowing how these methods work helps you understand their properties and limitations
  - You might have to write your own (e.g. for a custom embedded system)
  - The same algorithm has other purposes – e.g. computing the path of a projectile for a simulation or game.
  - The ideas behind these algorithms can be used to solve other problems.

# What is a line?

- We really mean a line segment, i.e. all the points on the shortest path between two end points.
- For a random-scan device, this is easy
- For a raster-scan device, we have to figure out which pixels to set to which colours
- This means calculating an approximation to the real line, called
  - Digitizing
  - Rasterization
  - Scan-conversion

# Aims for a good line drawing algorithm:

- Accuracy – pixels closest to true position
- Speed – calculated quickly
- Continuous appearance
  - No gaps
  - No “jaggies”
- Uniform thickness and brightness
- Consistency (start and end points)



# Math review: What is a line?

- Equation of a line in 2D in terms of (x,y) coordinates:

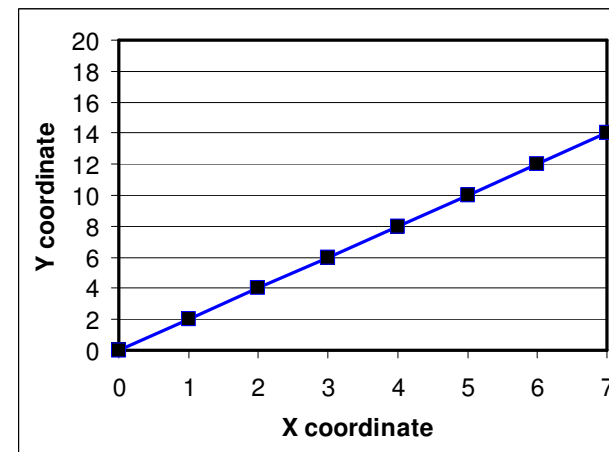
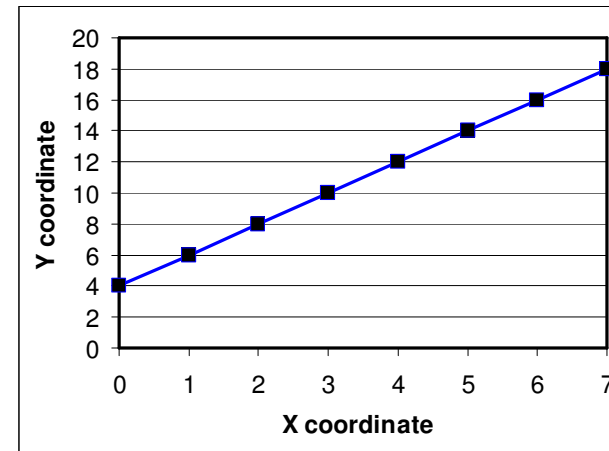
$$y = mx + c$$

- m = slope of line
- c = y-axis intercept
- If we know m and c, we can work out a y co-ordinate for each x co-ordinate

# What is a line?

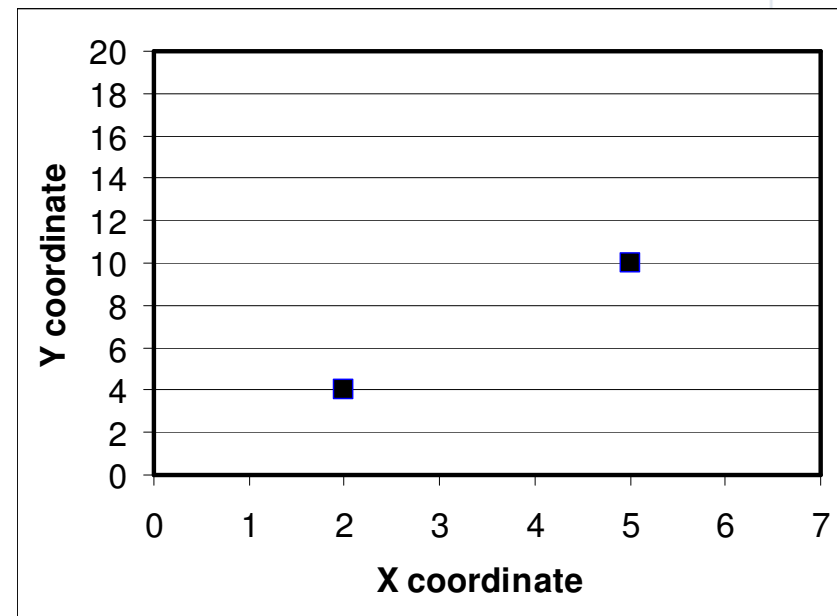
$$y = mx + c$$

- $m$  is the rate that  $y$  increases with respect to  $x$ , (how much  $y$  increases when  $x$  increases by 1)
  - called the gradient, slope, and rise/run
- What is the slope ( $m$ ) of these two lines? –  $m = 2$  for both.



# What is a line?

- $y = mx + c$
- What is the slope ( $m$ ) of the line joining these two points?
- P1 ( $x_1, y_1$ ) = (2, 4)
- P2 ( $x_2, y_2$ ) = (5, 10)

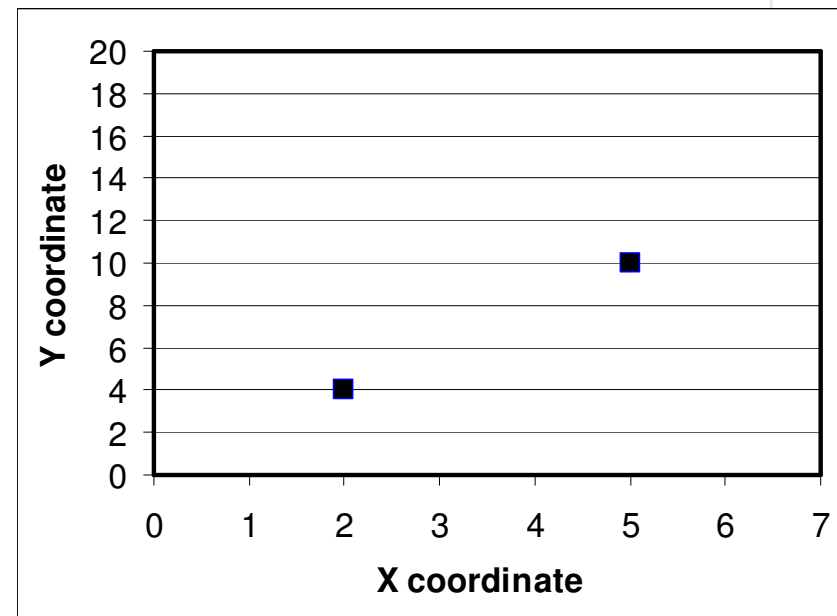




# What is a line?

$$y = mx + c$$

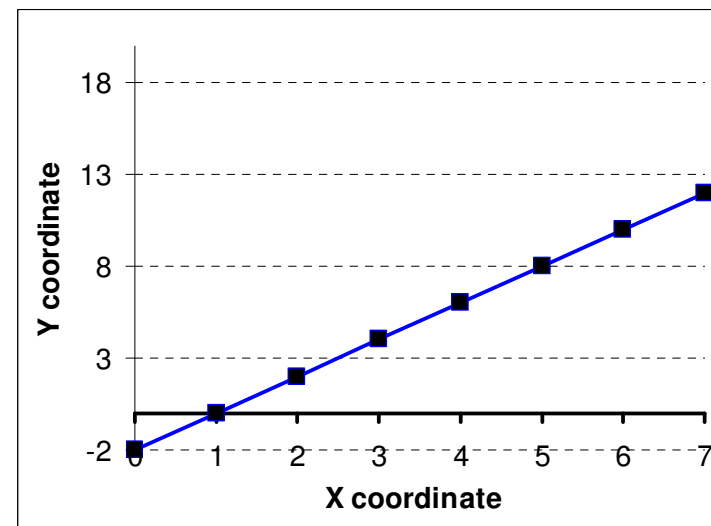
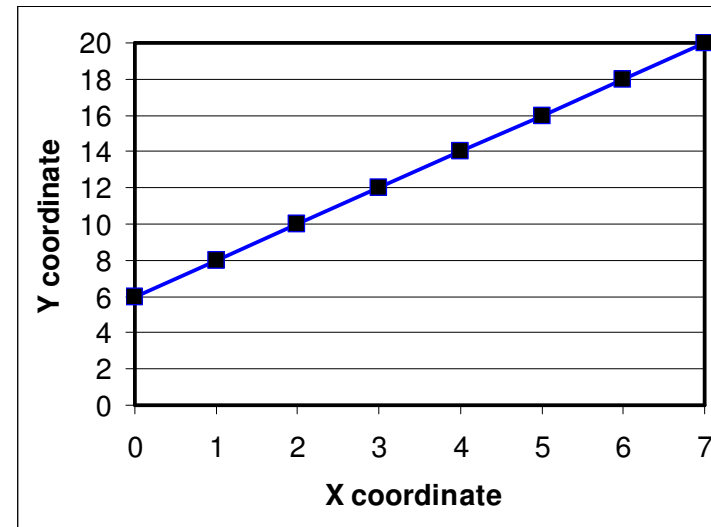
- What is the slope (m) of the line joining these two points?
- x increases by 3
- y increases by 6
- So  $m = (y_2 - y_1) / (x_2 - x_1)$   
 $= 6/3$   
 $= 2$



# What is a line?

$$y = mx + c$$

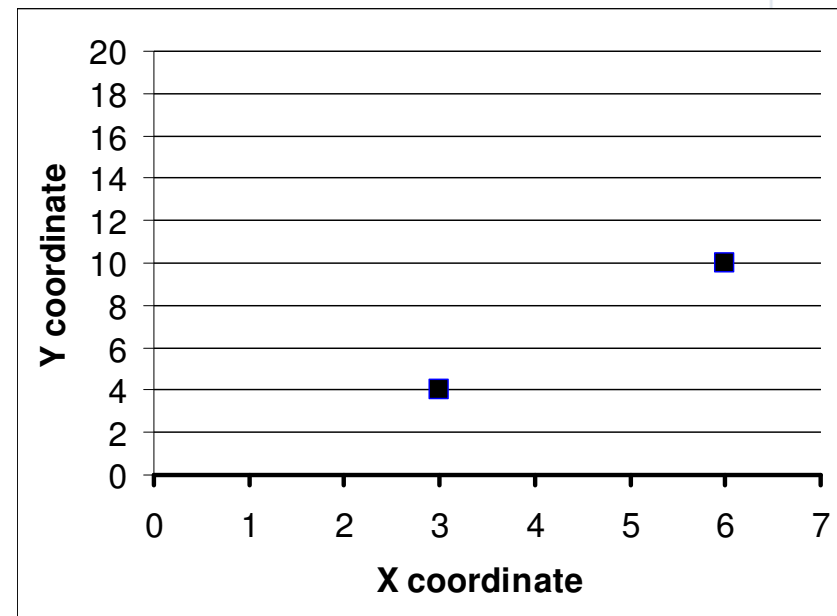
- $c$  has the effect of moving the line up or down
- When  $x = 0$ ,  $y = c$ , so the line cuts the  $y$ -axis at  $y = c$ . That's why it is also known as the  $y$ -intercept.
- Examples,  $c = 6$ ,  $c = -2$ .



# What is a line?

$$y = mx + c$$

- A character in a game is at position A ( $x_1, y_1$ ) = (3,4). The player clicks on location B ( $x_2, y_2$ ) = (6,10). What is the equation of the straight line path to take the character from A to B?



# What is a line?

$$y = mx + c$$

$$(x_1, y_1) = (3, 4)$$

$$(x_2, y_2) = (6, 10)$$

$$m = (y_2 - y_1) / (x_2 - x_1)$$

$$= (10 - 4) / (6 - 3)$$

$$= 2$$

So the slope is 2, and all points on the line must obey the equation

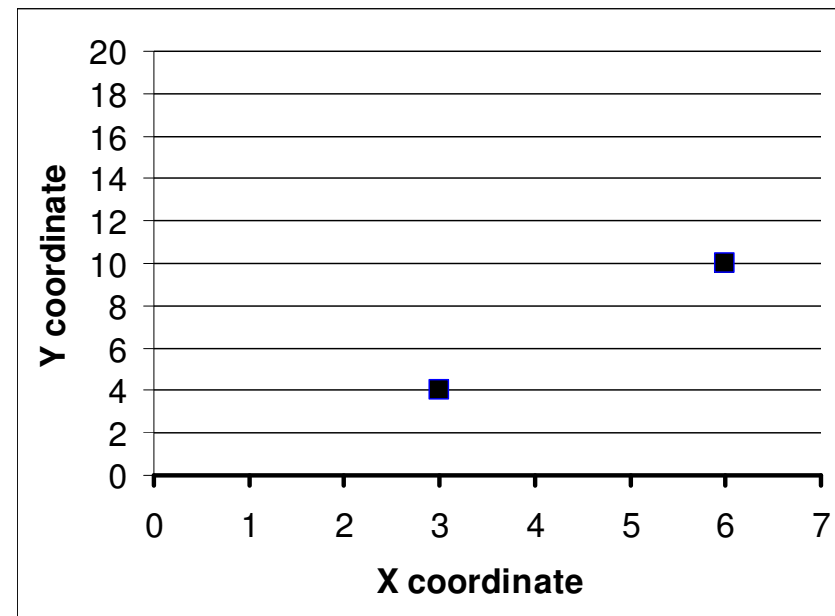
$$y = 2x + c$$

Putting point A into the equation  
(same result if you put point B in):

$$4 = 2 \cdot 3 + c$$

$$c = 4 - (2 \cdot 3)$$

$$c = -2$$



**So:  $y = 2x + (-2)$**

# What is a line?

$$y = mx + c$$

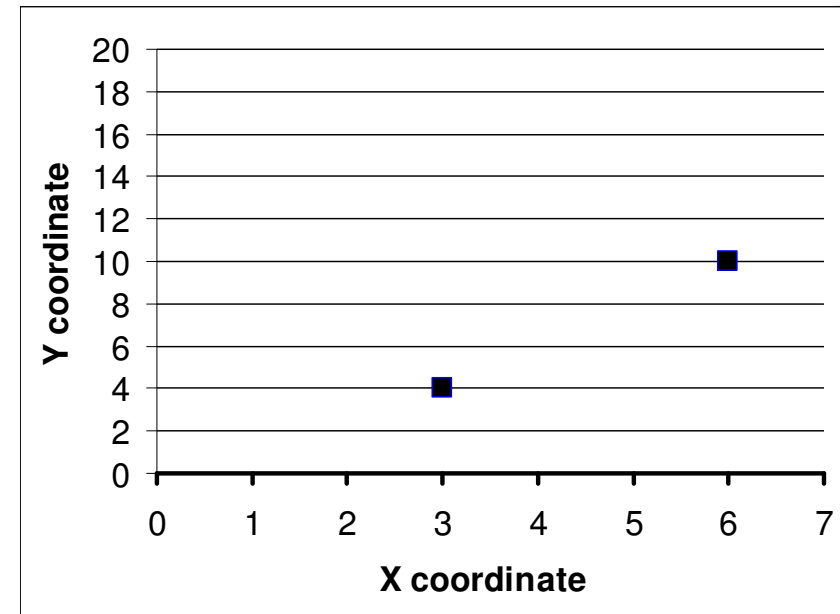
How to code this?

$x_1 = 3, x_2 = 6, y_1 = 4, y_2 = 10;$

$m = (y_2 - y_1) / (x_2 - x_1);$

$c = y_1 - m * x_1;$

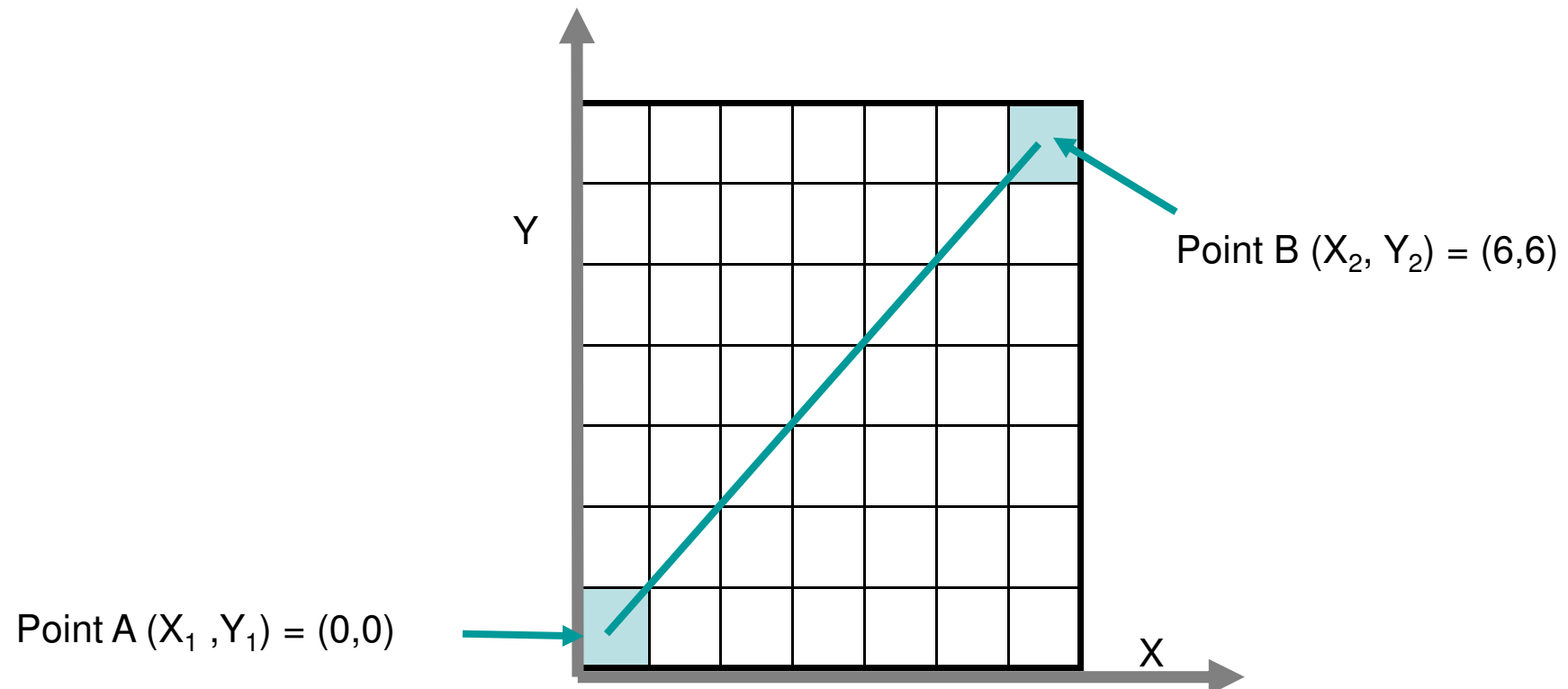
- variables  $m$  and  $c$  must be floating point type as the slope may not be a whole number.



**So:  $y = 2x + (-2)$**

# Line drawing

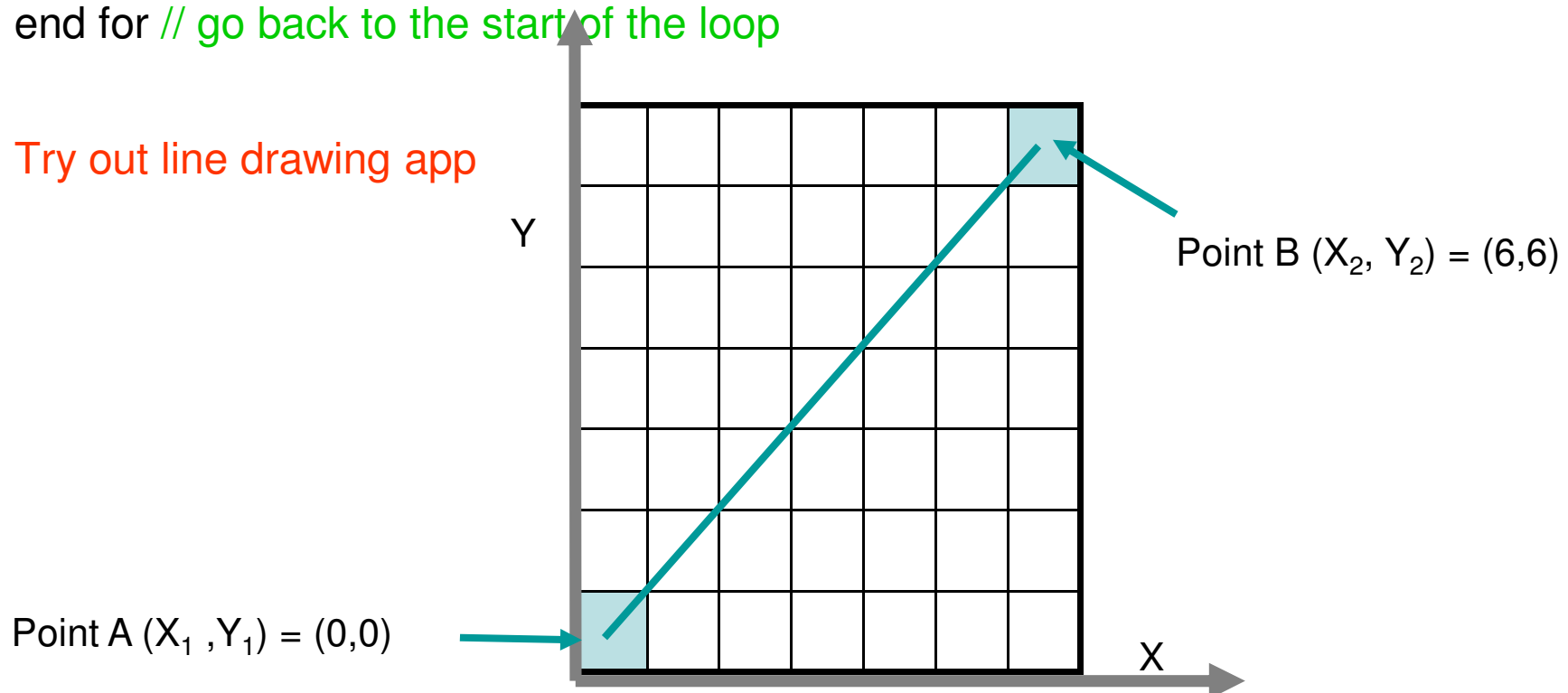
- How to draw a continuous line segment between point A ( $x_1, y_1$ ), and point B ( $x_2, y_2$ ) using pixels?

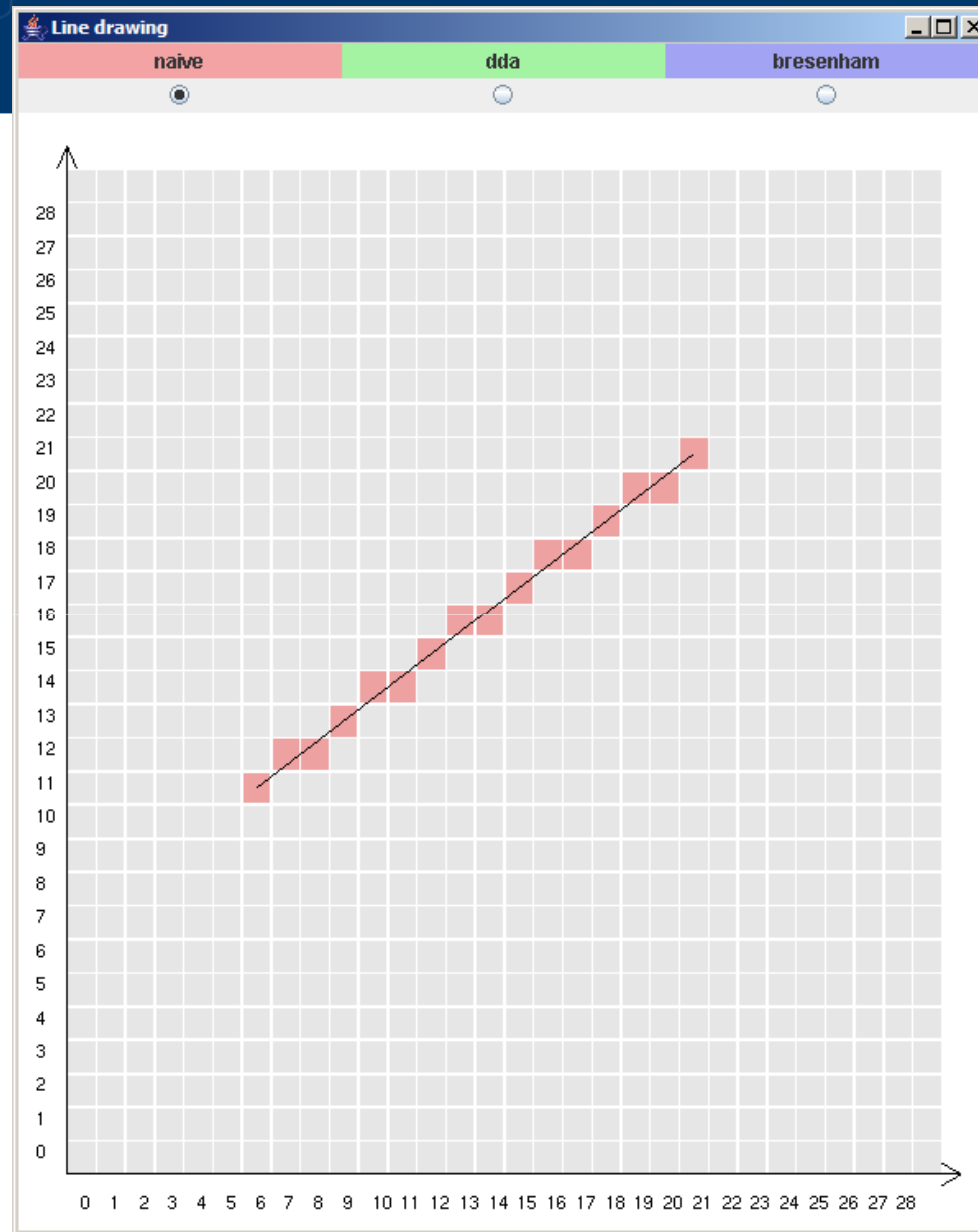


# Line drawing

```
m = 1, c = 0; // set the line equation parameters
for (x = x1 to x2) // start a loop to go through all possible x-values
  y = m*x + c; // work out the y-value (may have to round)
  putPixel(x,y); // put a pixel at position x,y
end for // go back to the start of the loop
```

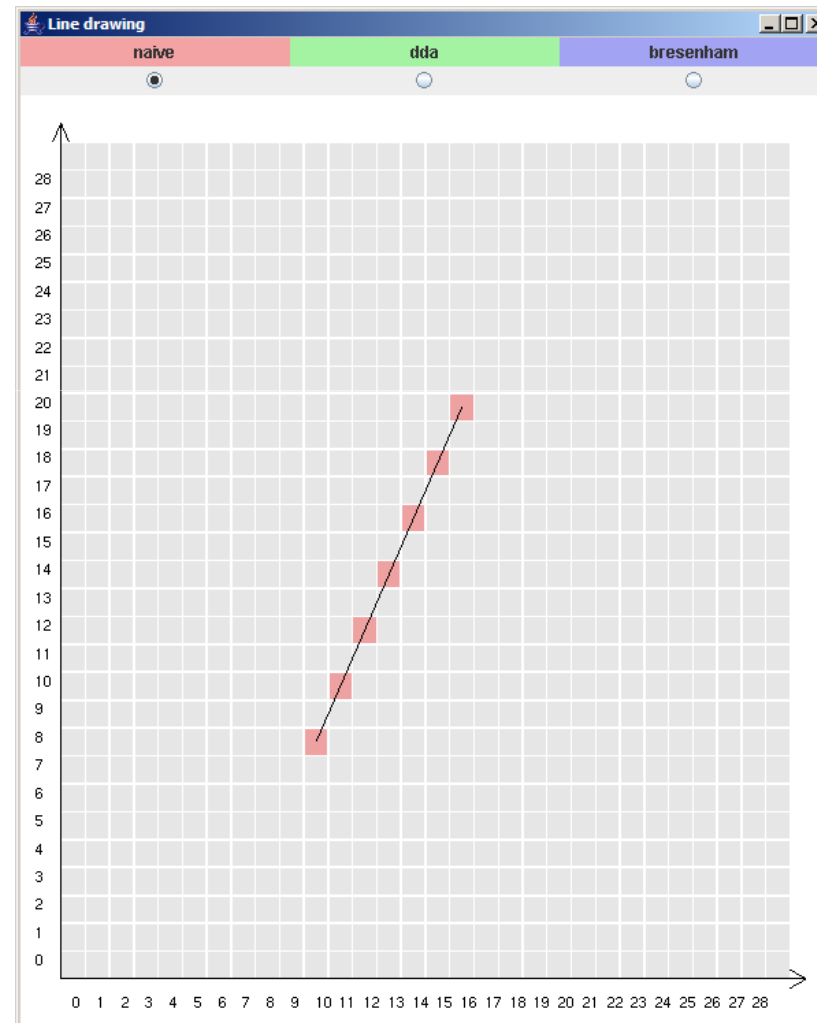
Try out line drawing app







# A problem!!



# The problem with gaps

- $m > 1$  means a change of one pixel in the x direction leads to a change of more than one pixel in the y direction. This results in gaps when we base our calculation on finding a y-value for every possible x. **The same problem occurs when  $m < -1$ .**
- **Solution: Switch the coordinates around! If the absolute value of m (disregarding its sign)  $|m|$  is greater than 1, loop for every possible y and work out the corresponding x.**

$(y = mx + c \text{ can be re-written as } x = y/m - c/m)$

- Try this in the line drawing application (see code for this week's workshop)

# Making it faster

Different operations involve different processes – and take different times.

As a general rule:

- Addition and subtraction are faster than multiplication and division.
- Operations on integers are faster than operations on floating point numbers.
  - Minimise FLOPS (floating point operations)
- Loops imply that whatever is in them is executed multiple times, take as much code out of the loop body as possible to make the program run faster.

# Making it faster

```
m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1); // m is a floating point number
```

```
c = y1 - m*x1; // c is a floating point number
```

```
If (abs(m)<=1) // floating point comparison
```

```
  for (x = x1 to x2)
```

```
    y = m*x + c; // floating point multiply and add
```

```
    putPixel(x,y);
```

```
  end for
```

```
else
```

```
for (y=y1 to y2)
```

```
  x = y/m - c/m; // floating point division x 2 and floating point subtraction
```

```
  putPixel(x,y);
```

```
  end for
```

```
end if
```

# Making it faster 1

## The DDA Algorithm

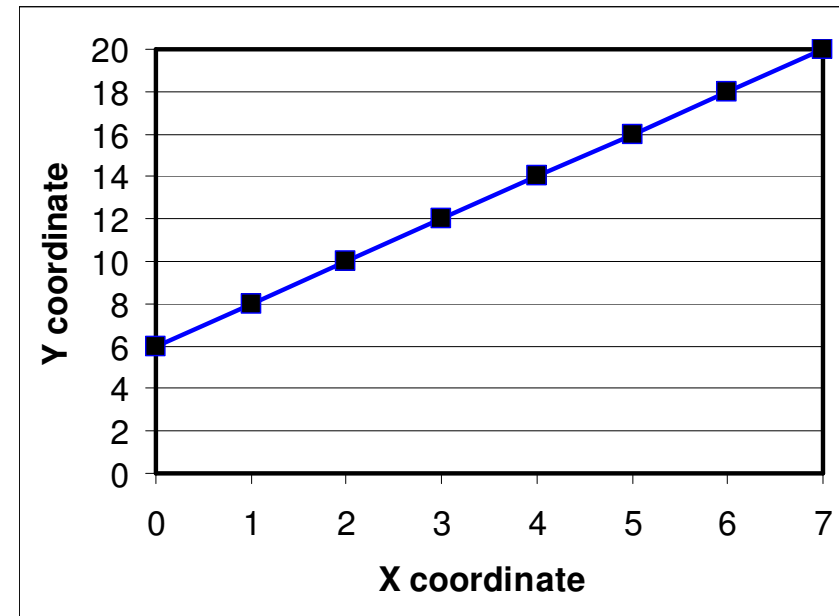
- Stands for: Digital Differential Analyser
- Faster way of drawing a line

# Making it faster 1 - dda

- In the last program, we solve the line equation for each step – this can be simplified.
- Look at the line in the figure – if we know the coordinates of one point  $(x_1, y_1)$ , what is the y-coordinate of the point at  $x = x_1 + 1$ ?
- The gradient,  $m$ , tells us by how much the y-coordinate changes for a change of 1 unit in the x-coordinate.
- So the next point is  $(x_1+1, y_1+m)$

**Check this out on the graph!**

y-coords are 6,8,10... always adding 2



**Line:  $y = 2x + 6$**

**So, instead of solving the line equation at each loop iteration - where gradient  $< 1$  can just add the gradient ( $m$ ) to the previous y-coordinate to get the next one. If gradient  $\geq 1$  add  $1/m$  to the next x coordinate.**

# Making it faster 1 - dda

## Old Code

```
m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1);
c = y1 - m*x1;
```

```
if (abs(m) <=1)
  for (x = x1 to x2)
    y = m*x + c;
    putPixel(x,y);
  end for
else
  for (y=y1 to y2)
    x = y/m - c/m;
    putPixel(x,y);
  end for
end if
```

## New DDA Code

```
m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1);
c = y1 - m*x1;

if (abs(m) <=1)
  y = y1; //initialise for the first point
  for (x = x1 to x2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    y = y + m; // 1 floating point addition!
  end for
else
  x = x1; // initialise the first point
  for (y=y1 to y2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    x = x + 1/m; // still 2 FLOPS!
  end for
end if
```

# Making it faster 1 - dda

## New DDA Code

```

m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1);
c = y1 - m*x1;

If (abs(m) <=1)
  y = y1; //initialise for the first point
  for (x = x1 to x2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    y = y + m; // 1 floating point addition!
  end for
else
  for (y=y1 to y2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    x = x + 1/m; // still 2 FLOPS!
  end for
end if

```

## Even better DDA Code

```

m = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1);
c = y1 - m*x1;

If (abs(m) <=1)
  y = y1; //initialise for the first point
  for (x = x1 to x2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    y = y + m; //
  end for
else
  m = 1/m; // 1 FLOP taken out of loop
  x = x1; // initialise the first point
  for (y=y1 to y2)
    putPixel(x,y);
    x = x + m; // 1 floating point addition!
  end for
end if

```



# Making it faster 1 - dda

Why is it called DDA (Digital Differential Analyser)???

Because we only consider the **difference** ( $m$ , or  $1/m$ ) between the last coordinate and the next to calculate the next point.

This is an example of gaining efficiency using coherence (in this case, spatial)

## A problem with DDA:

Pixels that represent the line are only close approximates to where the actual line should be – this introduces some error.

Using the last pixel coordinate (containing some error) and using it to calculate the next pixel coordinate by adding  $m$  (and rounding again to get a pixel coordinate) introduces more error.

So for the DDA – error in the line grows with line length.

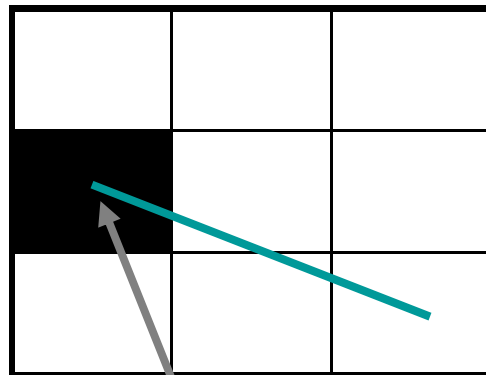
# Making it faster 2

## Bresenham's line drawing algorithm

- Reduce line calculation to integer operation
- Reference line equation at each step – avoids errors seen in DDA

# Brensenham's algorithm

- Assuming we have switched our variables around according to slope in order to draw lines without gaps
- If the last pixel was drawn in position  $(x_1, y_1)$  and we are iterating across the x-axis, there are only two possible y-coordinate locations of the pixel at x-coordinate =  $(x_1+1)$  that will result in a continuous line.
  - Keep the y-coordinate the same (horizontal line between the two pixels)
  - Move the y-coordinate one pixel in the direction of the gradient.

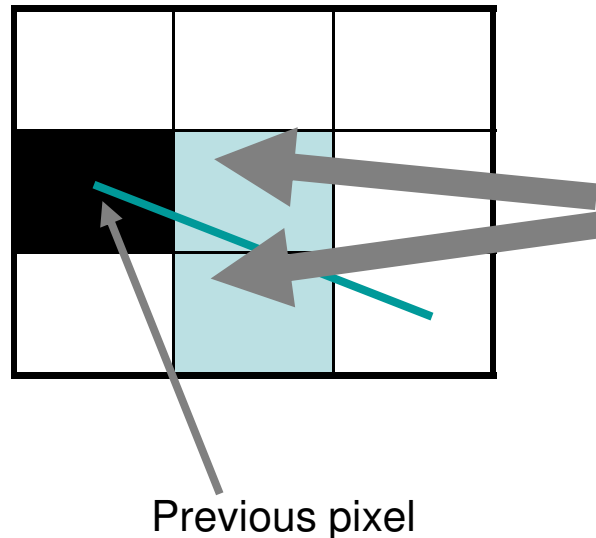


Previous pixel

???? ← Next pixel

# Brensenham's algorithm

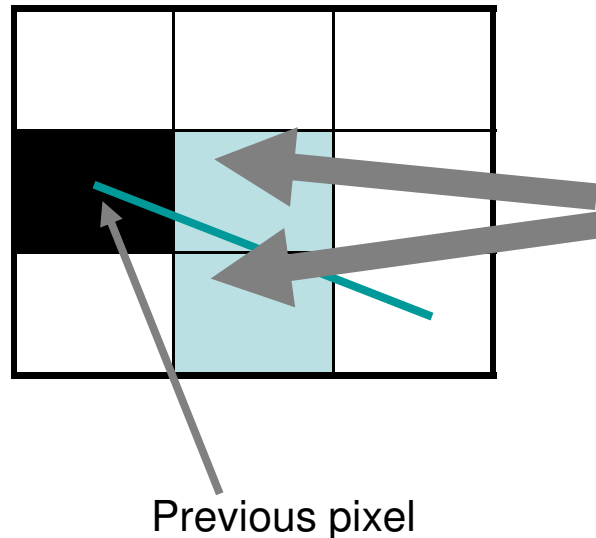
- Assuming we have switched our variables around according to slope in order to draw lines without gaps
- If the last pixel was drawn in position  $(x_1, y_1)$  and we are iterating across the x-axis, there are only two possible y-coordinate locations of the pixel at x-coordinate =  $(x_1+1)$  that will result in a continuous line.
  - Keep the y-coordinate the same (horizontal line between the two pixels)
  - Move the y-coordinate one pixel in the direction of the gradient.



Only two possibilities for the next pixel if the line is to stay continuous

# Brensenham's algorithm

- Assuming we have switched our variables around according to slope in order to draw lines without gaps
- If the last pixel was drawn in position  $(x_1, y_1)$  and we are iterating across the x-axis, there are only two possible y-coordinate locations of the pixel at x-coordinate =  $(x_1+1)$  that will result in a continuous line.
  - Keep the y-coordinate the same (horizontal line between the two pixels)
  - Move the y-coordinate one pixel in the direction of the gradient.

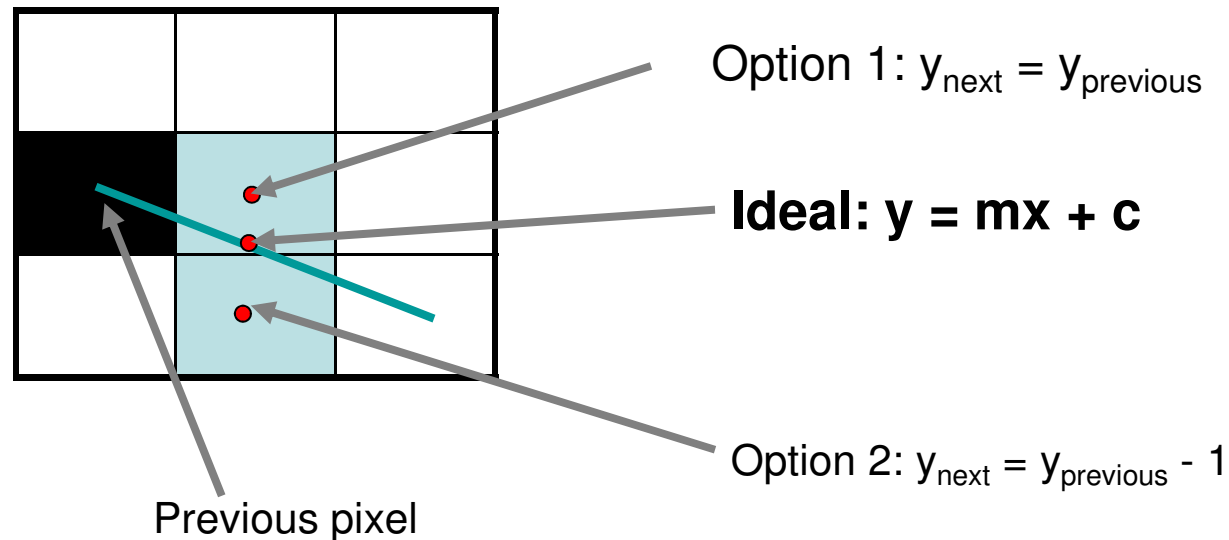


Q: So which one do we draw?

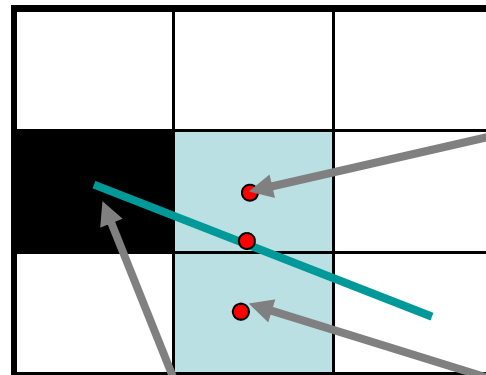
A: The one whose location is closest to that given by the 'ideal' line  
 $y = mx + c$

# Brensenham's algorithm

- Assuming we have switched our variables around according to slope in order to draw lines without gaps
- If the last pixel was drawn in position  $(x_1, y_1)$  and we are iterating across the x-axis, there are only two possible y-coordinate locations of the pixel at x-coordinate =  $(x_1+1)$  that will result in a continuous line.
  - Keep the y-coordinate the same (horizontal line between the two pixels)
  - Move the y-coordinate one pixel in the direction of the gradient.



# Brensenham's algorithm



Previous pixel

Distance 1:

$$= |y_{\text{Ideal}} - y_{\text{previous}}|$$

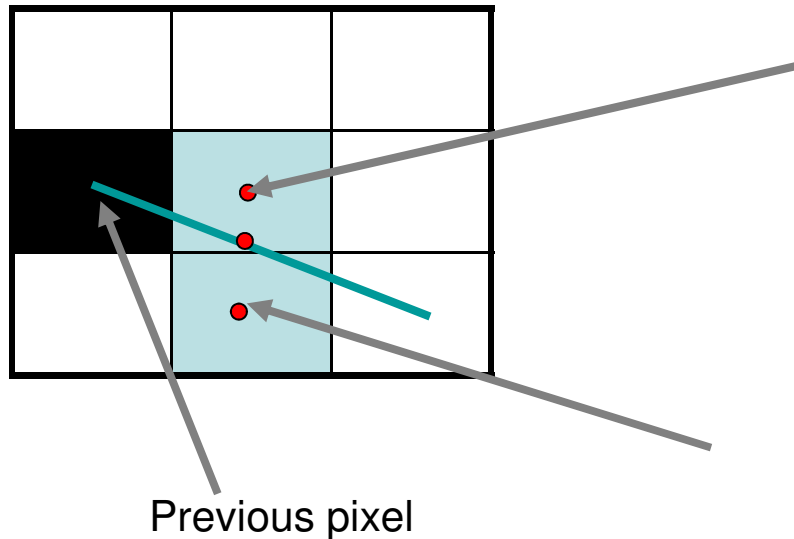
$$= |(mx + c) - y_{\text{previous}}|$$

Distance 2:

$$= |y_{\text{Ideal}} - (y_{\text{previous}} - 1)|$$

$$= |(mx + c) - (y_{\text{previous}} - 1)|$$

# Brensenham's algorithm



Distance 1:

$$= |y_{\text{Ideal}} - y_{\text{previous}}|$$

$$= |(mx + c) - y_{\text{previous}}|$$

Distance 2:

$$= |y_{\text{Ideal}} - (y_{\text{previous}} - 1)|$$

$$= |(mx + c) - (y_{\text{previous}} - 1)|$$

If (distance1 – distance2) is positive

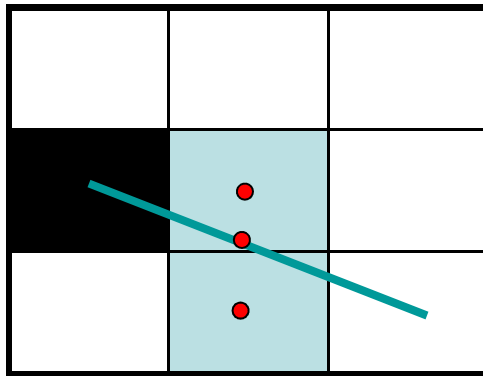
- Choose option 2

If (distance1 – distance2) is negative

- Choose option 1



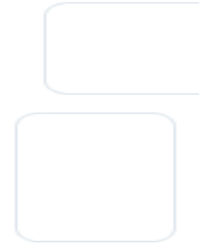
# Bresenham's algorithm



- The concept behind Bresenham's line algorithm is simple – choose based on the closest distance.
- As presented so far – it's readable (we can work out what's going on) but less efficient than the DDA algorithm (more floating point operations).
- The 'genius' behind Bresenham's algorithm is that the previous equations can be reduced to all integer operations. (see Hearn & Baker p95-99, or 4<sup>th</sup> ed. p140-144 for derivation and example)
- Because the distance calculated is with reference to the ideal pixel position at each step – the incremental error seen in the DDA algorithm is avoided.

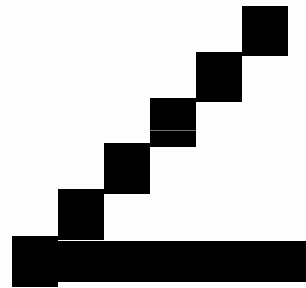
# Some line drawing problems

- Lines should have constant density i.e equal spacing of pixels and pixels/line length should ideally remain constant
- Problems with lines on screen
  - Unequal intensity
  - Aliasing (“jaggies” and “crawling ants”)



# Unequal intensity

- Line at 45 degree angle is lower intensity because it is longer yet same number of pixels

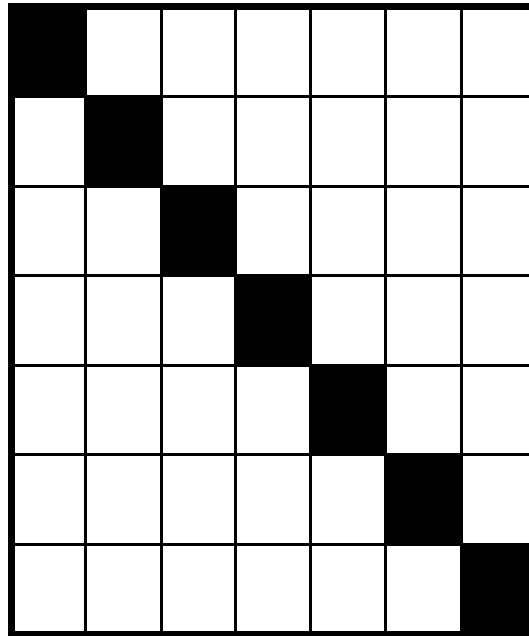


- Could compensate by adjusting intensity depending on slope of line

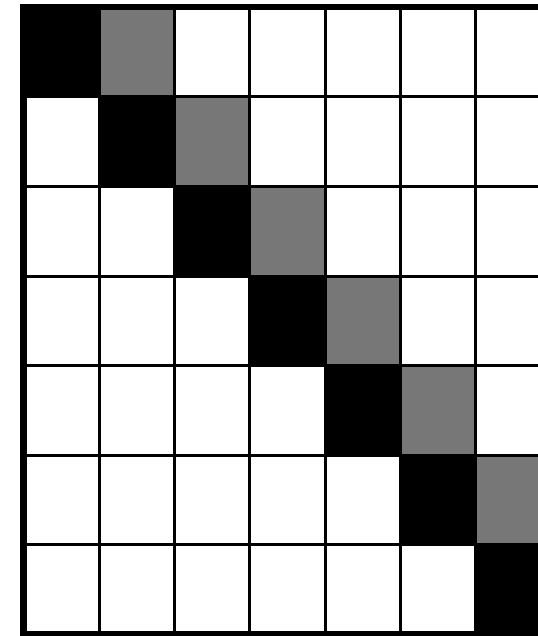
# Aliasing

- Plotting a point in a position other than true position
- Pixels are plotted at integer positions resulting in jagged lines
- Improve by using higher resolution and by using anti-aliasing algorithms
- Anti-aliasing algorithms – see Hearn and Baker 4.17 (or Hearn, Baker & Carithers 6.15)
  - Numerous, for example:
    - Blurring the line edges by inserting pixels
    - Model a line as a thin rectangle and calculate area of intersection between rectangle and pixel
    - Adjusting pixel intensity depending on distance from true centre of line

# Anti-aliasing (one idea)



**Jagged looking line**



**Line made to look smoother (blurred)  
from a distance by inserting lighter  
coloured pixels in the gaps**

# Polylines

- Polylines are collections of joined straight lines.
- Defined as a series of points
  - Eg.  $P1 = (x1, y1)$ ,  $P2 = (x2, y2)$ ,  $P3 = (x3, y3)$
- To draw them, simply iterate over the points and use the line drawing algorithms previously discussed.  
  

```
Line(P1,P2);  
Line(P2,P3);
```
- Important that end points join up!

# Other curves \*

- See Hearn and Baker 3.11 or Hearn, Baker & Carithers 6.6
  - Conic sections (parabolas, ellipse, hyperbolas)
  - Splines (we cover this later)
- Ellipses – can use similar idea to Bresenham's algorithm
  - See Hearn and Baker 3.10 or Hearn, Baker & Carithers 6.5
  - Midpoint-ellipse algorithm

\* Not examined