

Computer Graphics

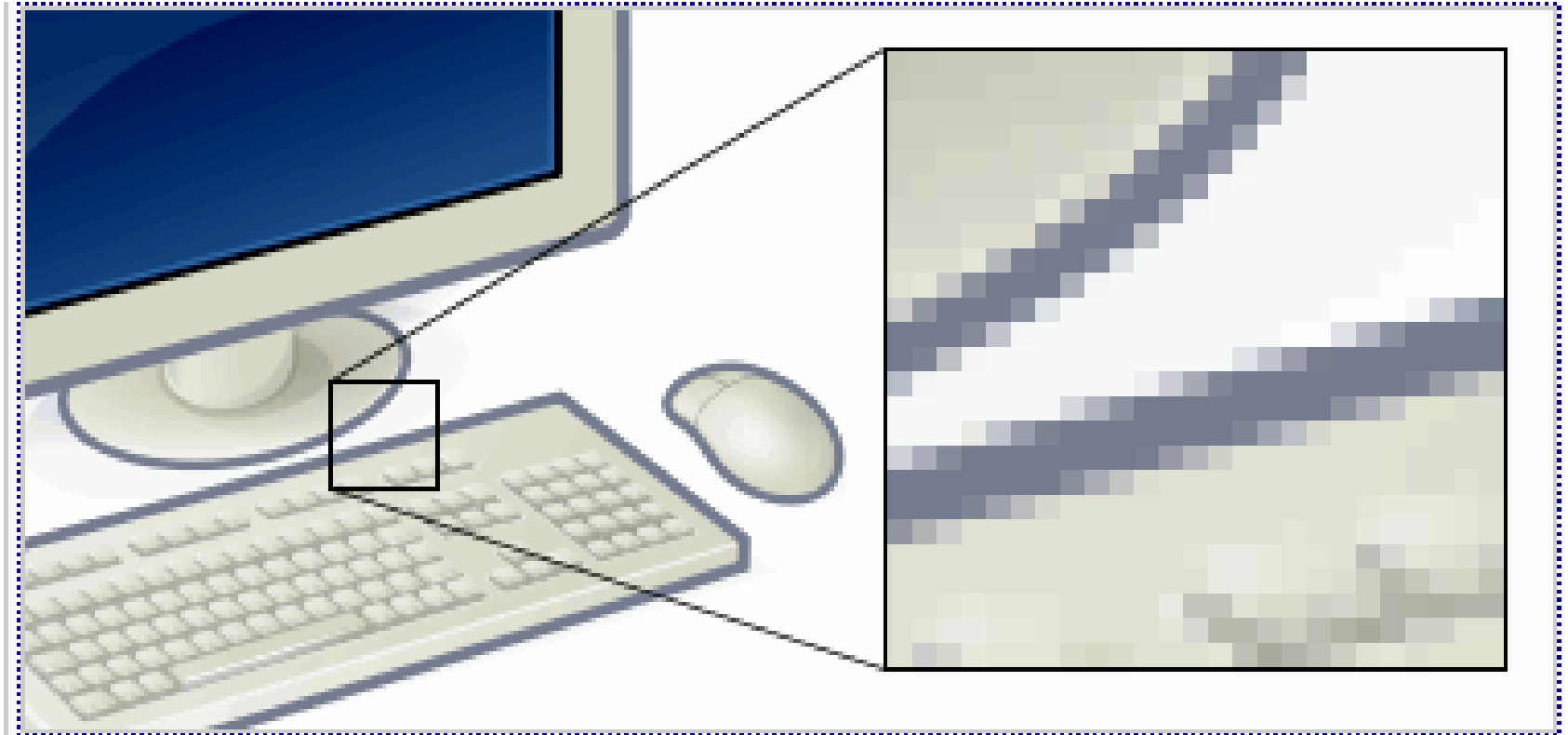
Lecture-1

Sudipto Chaki
Lecturer, CSE, BUBT
sudipto@bubt.edu.bd

Pixel

- In digital image processing, a **pixel, or pel or picture element** is a **physical point in an image**.
- It is the **smallest addressable element in a display device**; so it is the smallest controllable element of a picture represented on the screen.
- The address of a pixel corresponds to its physical coordinates.
- Each **pixel is a sample of an original image**; more samples typically provide more accurate representations of the original. So **picture quality is directly proportional to the picture resolution**.

Pixel...

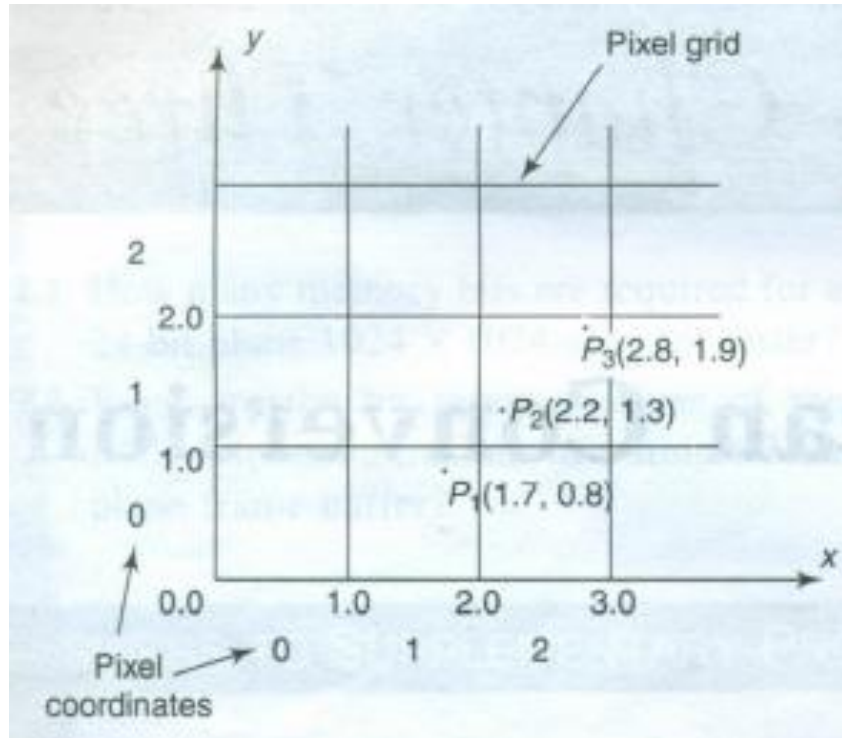


This example shows an image with a portion greatly enlarged, in which the individual pixels are rendered as small squares and can easily be seen.

Scan Conversion

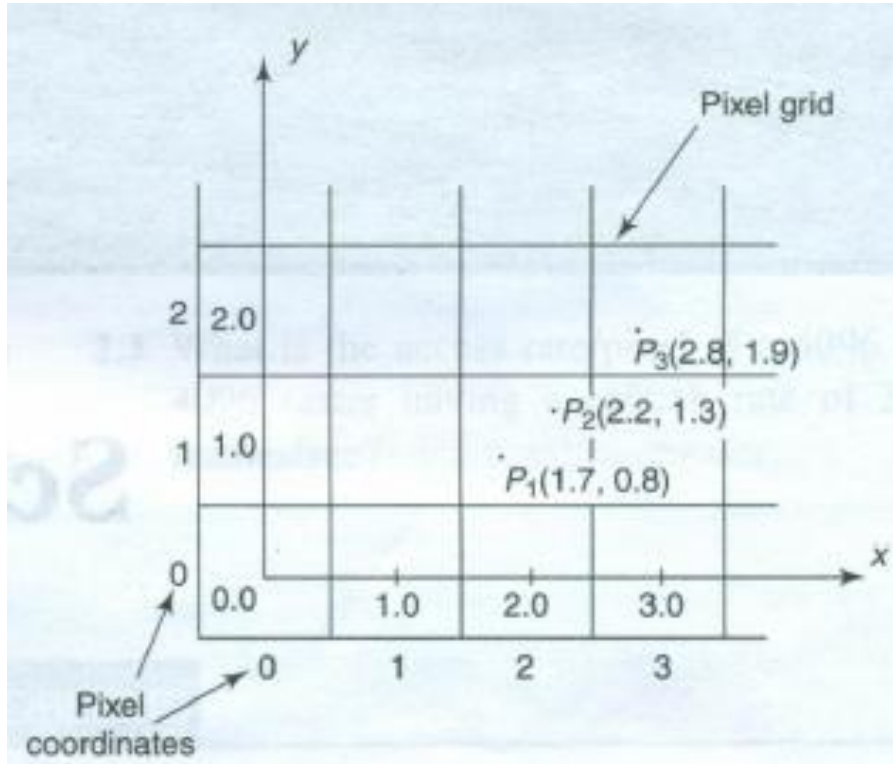
- **Rasterisation** (or **rasterization**) is the task of taking an image described in a vector graphics format (shapes) and converting it into a raster image (pixels or dots) for output on a video display or printer, or for storage in a bitmap file format.
- This is also known as **scan conversion**.

Scan Conversion of a Point



- A point (x, y) within an image area, scan converted to a pixel at location (x', y') .
- $x' = \text{Floor}(x)$ and $y' = \text{Floor}(y)$.
- All points satisfying $x' \leq x < x' + 1$ and $y' \leq y < y' + 1$ are mapped to pixel (x', y') .
- Point $P_1(1.7, 0.8)$ is represented by pixel $(1, 0)$ and points $P_2(2.2, 1.3)$ and $P_3(2.8, 1.9)$ are both represented by pixel $(2, 1)$.

Scan Conversion of a Point...

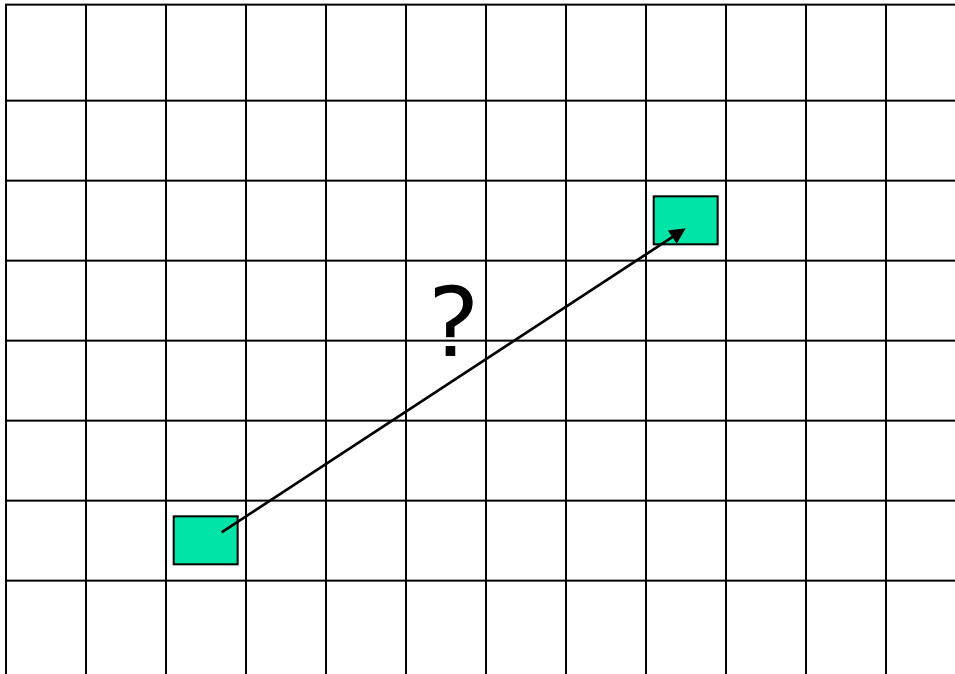


- Another approach is to align the integer values in the co-ordinate system for (x, y) with the pixel co-ordinates.
- Here $x' = \text{Floor}(x + 0.5)$ and $y' = \text{Floor}(y + 0.5)$
- Points P_1 and P_2 both are now represented by pixel (2, 1) and P_3 by pixel (3, 2).

Line drawing algorithm

- Need algorithm to figure out which intermediate pixels are on line path
- Pixel (x, y) values constrained to integer values
- Actual computed intermediate line values may be floats
- Rounding may be required. Computed point $(10.48, 20.51)$ rounded to $(10, 21)$
- Rounded pixel value is off actual line path (jaggy!!)
- Sloped lines end up having jaggies
- Vertical, horizontal lines, no jaggies

Line Drawing Algorithm



Line: (3,2) -> (9,6)

Which intermediate
pixels to turn on?

Line Drawing Algorithm...

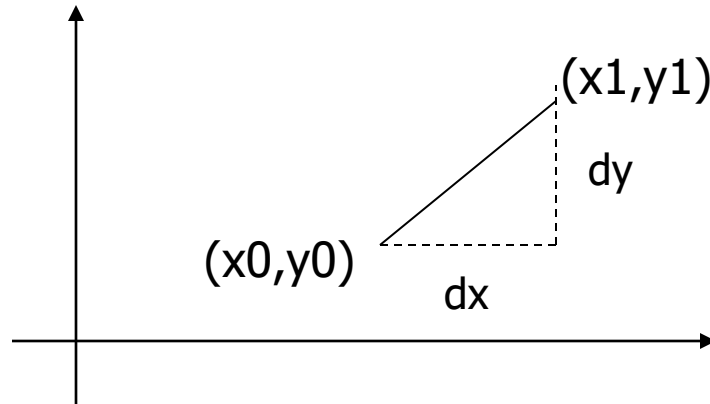
- Slope-intercept line equation

- $y = mx + b$

- Given two end points (x_0, y_0) , (x_1, y_1) , how to compute

- $m \text{ and } b?$ $m = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}$

- $b = y_0 - m * x_0$



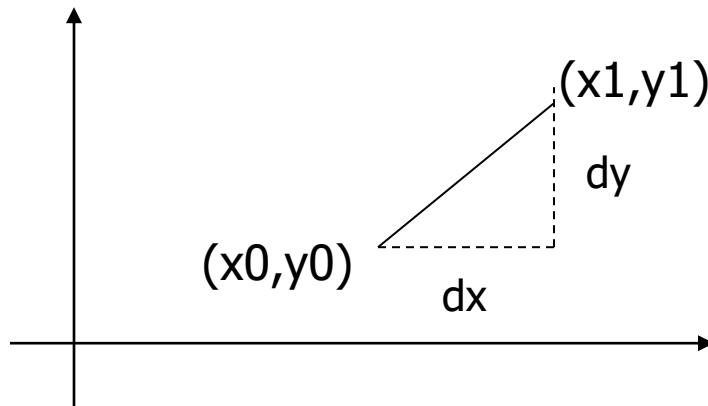
Line Drawing Algorithm...

- ↘ Numerical example of finding slope m :
- ↘ $(A_x, A_y) = (23, 41)$, $(B_x, B_y) = (125, 96)$

$$m = \frac{B_y - A_y}{B_x - A_x} = \frac{96 - 41}{125 - 23} = \frac{55}{102} = 0.5392$$

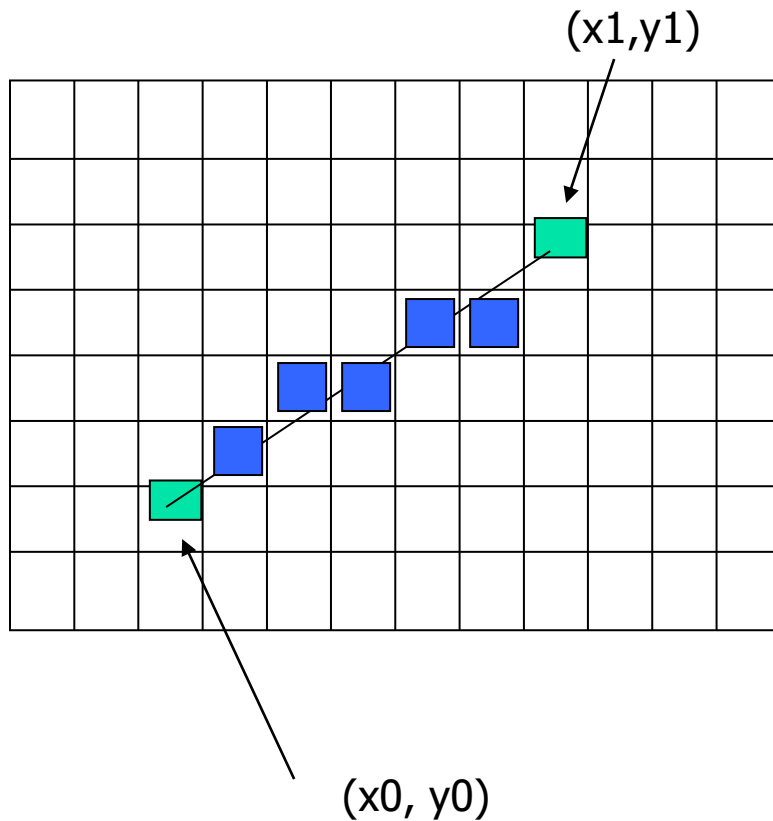
Digital Differential Analyzer (DDA): Line Drawing Algorithm

- Walk through the line, starting at (x_0, y_0)
- Constrain x, y increments to values in $[0, 1]$ range
- Case a: x is incrementing faster ($m < 1$)
 - Step in $x=1$ increments, compute and round y
- Case b: y is incrementing faster ($m > 1$)
 - Step in $y=1$ increments, compute and round x



DDA Line Drawing Algorithm (Case a: $m < 1$)

$$y_{k+1} = y_k + m$$



$$x = x_0 \quad y = y_0$$

Illuminate pixel $(x, \text{round}(y))$

$$x = x_0 + 1 \quad y = y_0 + 1 * m$$

Illuminate pixel $(x, \text{round}(y))$

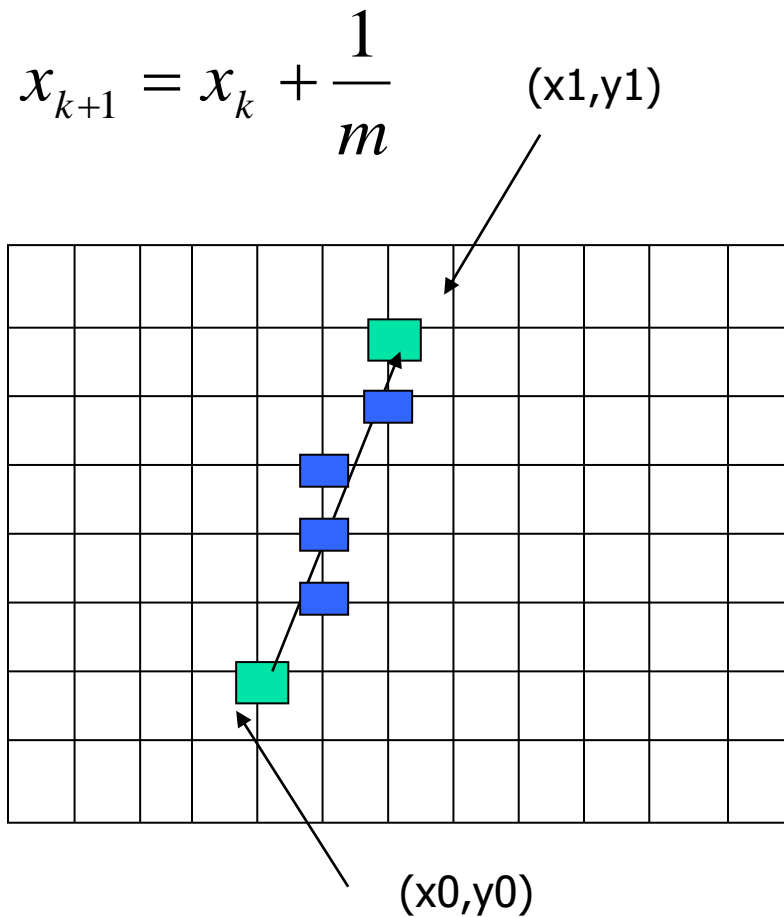
$$x = x + 1 \quad y = y + 1 * m$$

Illuminate pixel $(x, \text{round}(y))$

...

Until $x == x_1$

DDA Line Drawing Algorithm (Case b: $m > 1$)



$x = x_0$

$y = y_0$

Illuminate pixel ($\text{round}(x), y$)

$y = y_0 + 1$

$x = x_0 + 1 * 1/m$

Illuminate pixel ($\text{round}(x), y$)

$y = y + 1$

$x = x + 1 / m$

Illuminate pixel ($\text{round}(x), y$)

...

Until $y == y_1$

DDA Line Drawing Algorithm Pseudocode

```
compute m;  
if m < 1:  
{  
    float y = y0;          // initial value  
    for(int x = x0; x <= x1; x++, y += m)  
        setPixel(x, round(y));  
}  
else // m > 1  
{  
    float x = x0;          // initial value  
    for(int y = y0; y <= y1; y++, x += 1/m)  
        setPixel(round(x), y);  
}
```

- Note: **setPixel(x, y)** writes current color into pixel in column x and row y in frame buffer

DDA Example (Case a: $m < 1$)

- Suppose we want to draw a line starting at pixel (2,3) and ending at pixel (12,8).
- What are the values of the variables x and y at each timestep?
- What are the pixels colored, according to the DDA algorithm?

t	x	y	R(x)	R(y)
0	2	3	2	3
1	3	3.5	3	4
2	4	4	4	4
3	5	4.5	5	5
4	6	5	6	5
5	7	5.5	7	6
6	8	6	8	6
7	9	6.5	9	7
8	10	7	10	7
9	11	7.5	11	8
10	12	8	12	8

DDA Algorithm Drawbacks

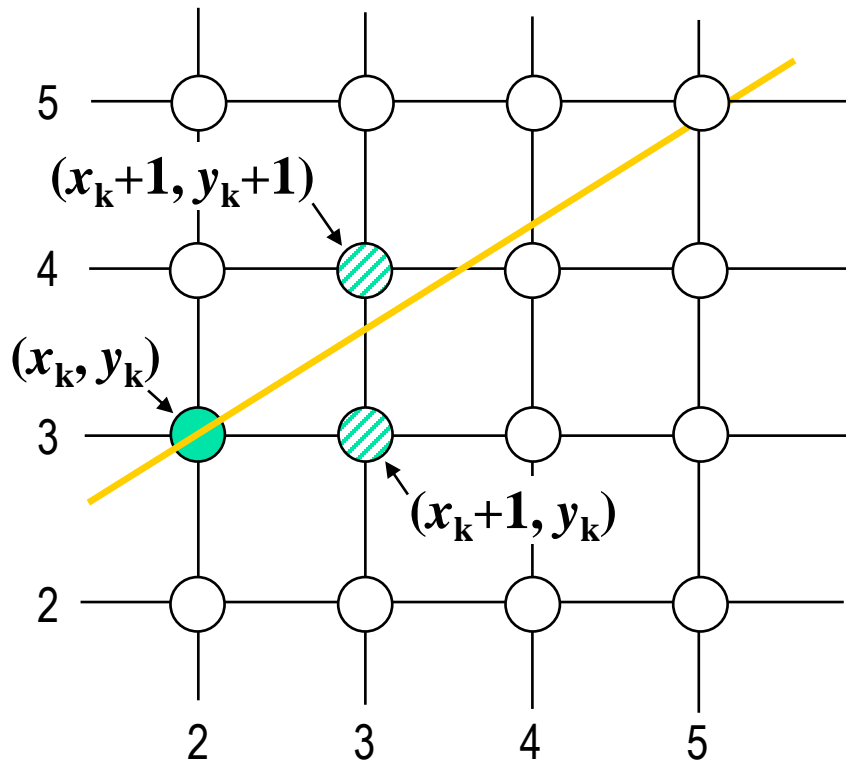
- DDA is the simplest line drawing algorithm
 - Not very efficient
 - Floating point operations and rounding operations are expensive.

The Bresenham Line Algorithm

- The Bresenham algorithm is another incremental scan conversion algorithm
- The big advantage of this algorithm is that it uses only integer calculations: integer addition, subtraction and multiplication by 2, which can be accomplished by a simple arithmetic shift operation.

The Big Idea

- Move across the x axis in unit intervals and at each step choose between two different y coordinates

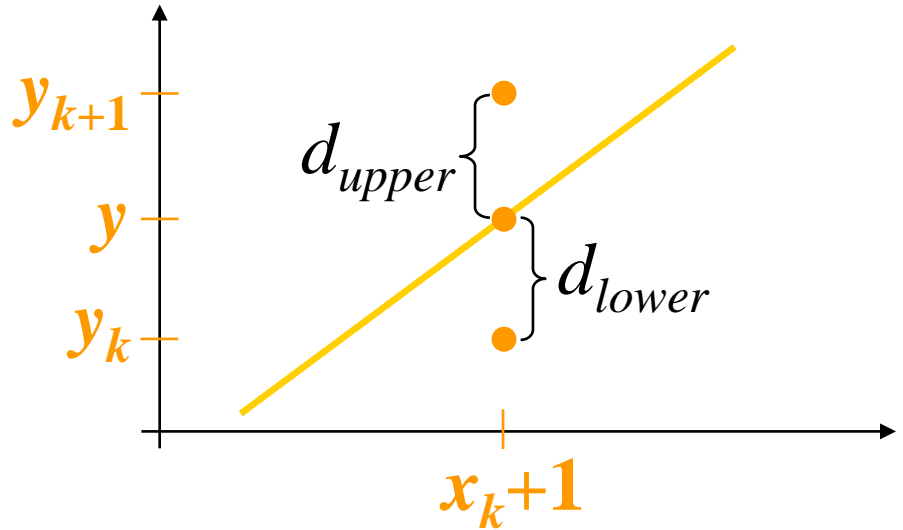


For example, from position $(2, 3)$ we have to choose between $(3, 3)$ and $(3, 4)$

We would like the point that is closer to the original line

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm

- At sample position $x_k + 1$ the vertical separations from the mathematical line are labelled d_{upper} and d_{lower}



The y coordinate on the mathematical line at $x_k + 1$ is:

$$y = m(x_k + 1) + b$$

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

- So, d_{upper} and d_{lower} are given as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}d_{lower} &= y - y_k \\ &= m(x_k + 1) + b - y_k\end{aligned}$$

- and:

$$\begin{aligned}d_{upper} &= (y_k + 1) - y \\ &= y_k + 1 - m(x_k + 1) - b\end{aligned}$$

- We can use these to make a simple decision about which pixel is closer to the mathematical line

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

- This simple decision is based on the difference between the two pixel positions:

$$d_{lower} - d_{upper} = 2m(x_k + 1) - 2y_k + 2b - 1$$

- Let's substitute m with $\Delta y / \Delta x$ where Δx and Δy are the differences between the end-points:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x(d_{lower} - d_{upper}) &= \Delta x \left(2 \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} (x_k + 1) - 2y_k + 2b - 1 \right) \\ &= 2\Delta y \cdot x_k - 2\Delta x \cdot y_k + 2\Delta y + \Delta x(2b - 1) \\ &= 2\Delta y \cdot x_k - 2\Delta x \cdot y_k + c\end{aligned}$$

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

- So, a decision parameter p_k for the k th step along a line is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} p_k &= \Delta x(d_{lower} - d_{upper}) \\ &= 2\Delta y \cdot x_k - 2\Delta x \cdot y_k + c \end{aligned}$$

- The sign of the decision parameter p_k is the same as that of $d_{lower} - d_{upper}$
- If p_k is negative, then we choose the lower pixel, otherwise we choose the upper pixel

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

- Remember coordinate changes occur along the x axis in unit steps so we can do everything with integer calculations

- At step $k+1$ the decision parameter is given as:

$$p_{k+1} = 2\Delta y \cdot x_{k+1} - 2\Delta x \cdot y_{k+1} + c$$

- Subtracting p_k from this we get:

$$p_{k+1} - p_k = 2\Delta y(x_{k+1} - x_k) - 2\Delta x(y_{k+1} - y_k)$$

Deriving The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

- But, x_{k+1} is the same as $x_k + 1$ so:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2\Delta y - 2\Delta x(y_{k+1} - y_k)$$

- where $y_{k+1} - y_k$ is either 0 or 1 depending on the sign of p_k
- The first decision parameter p_0 is evaluated at (x_0, y_0) is given as:

$$p_0 = 2\Delta y - \Delta x$$

The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

BRESENHAM'S LINE DRAWING ALGORITHM (for $|m| < 1.0$)

1. Input the two line end-points, storing the left end-point in (x_0, y_0)
2. Plot the point (x_0, y_0)
3. Calculate the constants Δx , Δy , $2\Delta y$, and $(2\Delta y - 2\Delta x)$ and get the first value for the decision parameter as:

$$p_0 = 2\Delta y - \Delta x$$

4. At each x_k along the line, starting at $k = 0$, perform the following test. If $p_k < 0$, the next point to plot is $(x_k + 1, y_k)$ and:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2\Delta y$$

The Bresenham Line Algorithm...

Otherwise, the next point to plot is (x_k+1, y_k+1) and:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2\Delta y - 2\Delta x$$

5. Repeat step 4 $(\Delta x - 1)$ times

- The algorithm and derivation above assumes slopes are less than 1. for other slopes we need to adjust the algorithm slightly

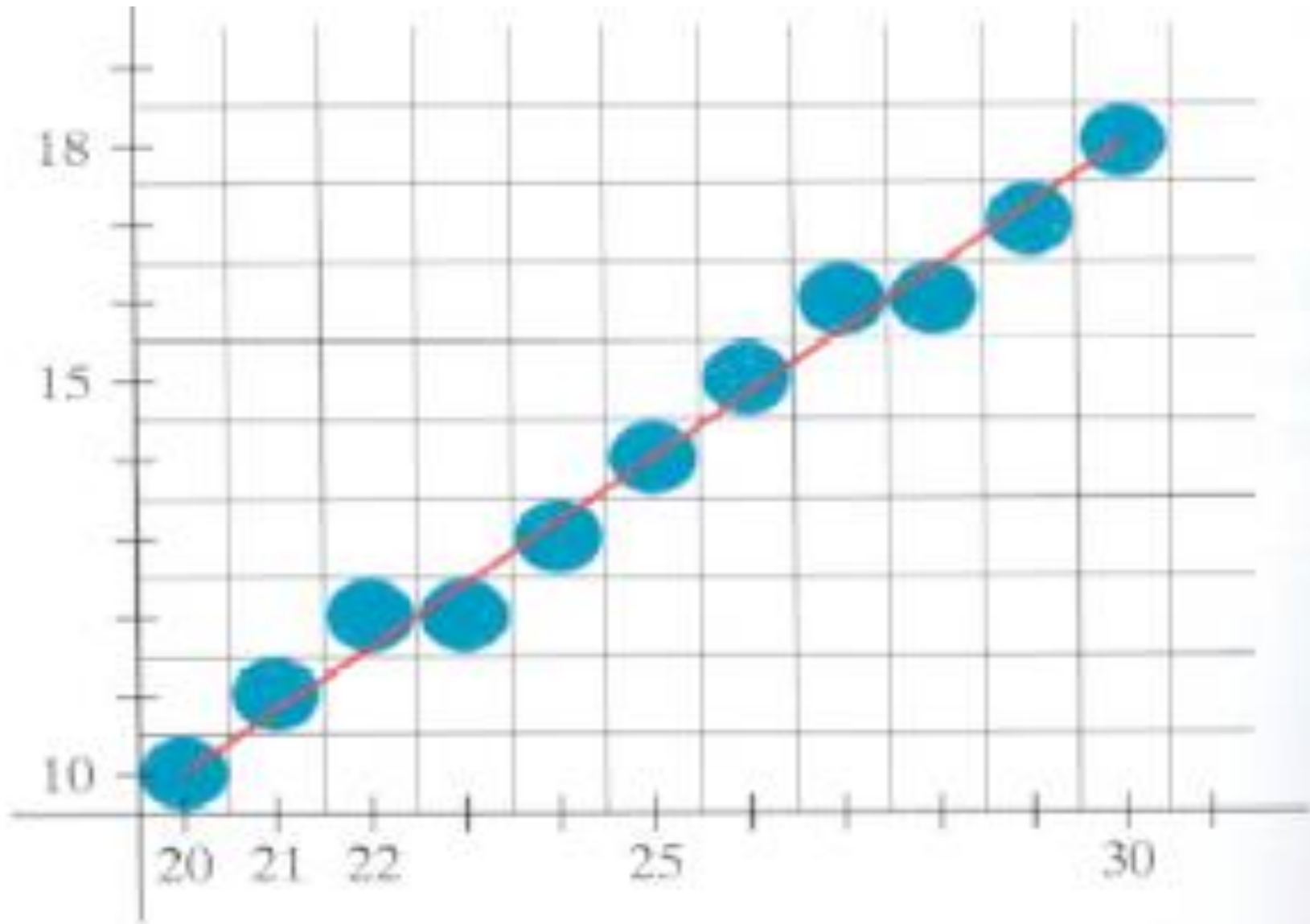
Bresenham's Line Algorithm (Example)

- using Bresenham's Line-Drawing Algorithm, Digitize the line with endpoints (20,10) and (30,18).
- $\Delta y = 18 - 10 = 8$,
- $\Delta x = 30 - 20 = 10$
- $m = \Delta y / \Delta x = 0.8$
- $2 * \Delta y = 16$
- $2 * \Delta y - 2 * \Delta x = -4$
- plot the first point $(x_0, y_0) = (20, 10)$
- $p_0 = 2 * \Delta y - \Delta x = 2 * 8 - 10 = 6$, so the next point is (21, 11)

Example (cont.)

K	P_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})	K	P_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})
0	6	(21,11)	5	6	(26,15)
1	2	(22,12)	6	2	(27,16)
2	-2	(23,12)	7	-2	(28,16)
3	14	(24,13)	8	14	(29,17)
4	10	(25,14)	9	10	(30,18)

Example (cont.)



Bresenham's Line Algorithm (cont.)

- Notice that bresenham's algorithm works on lines with slope in range $0 < m < 1$.
- We draw from left to right.
- To draw lines with slope > 1 , interchange the roles of x and y directions.

Code ($0 < \text{slope} < 1$)

```
Bresenham ( int xA, yA, xB, yB) {
    int d, dx, dy, xi, yi;
    int incE, incNE;

    dx = xB - xA;
    dy = yB - yA;
    incE = dy << 1;
    incNE = incE - dx << 1;
    d = incE - dx;
    xi = xA; yi = yA;
    writePixel(xi, yi);
    while(xi < xB) {
        xi++;
        if(d < 0)
            d += incE;
        else {
            d += incNE;
            yi++;
        }
        writePixel(xi, yi);
    }
}
```

// Q
// Q + R
// initial d = Q + R/2

// choose E

// choose NE

Bresenham Line Algorithm Summary

- The Bresenham line algorithm has the following advantages:
 - An fast incremental algorithm
 - Uses only integer calculations
- Comparing this to the DDA algorithm, DDA has the following problems:
 - Accumulation of round-off errors can make the pixel at end line drift away from what was intended
 - The rounding operations and floating point arithmetic involved are time consuming

A Simple Circle Drawing Algorithm

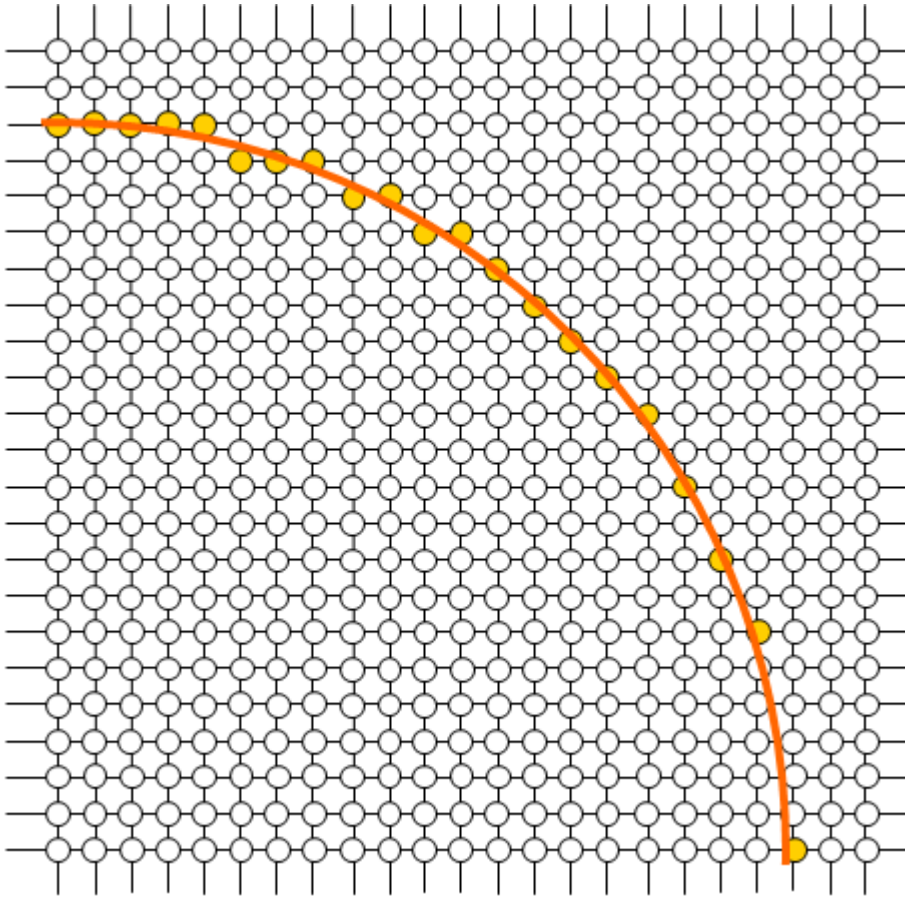
- The equation for a circle is:

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

- where r is the radius of the circle
- So, we can write a simple circle drawing algorithm by solving the equation for y at unit x intervals using:

$$y = \pm\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$$

A Simple Circle Drawing Algorithm (cont...)



$$y_0 = \sqrt{20^2 - 0^2} \approx 20$$

$$y_1 = \sqrt{20^2 - 1^2} \approx 20$$

$$y_2 = \sqrt{20^2 - 2^2} \approx 20$$

⋮

$$y_{19} = \sqrt{20^2 - 19^2} \approx 6$$

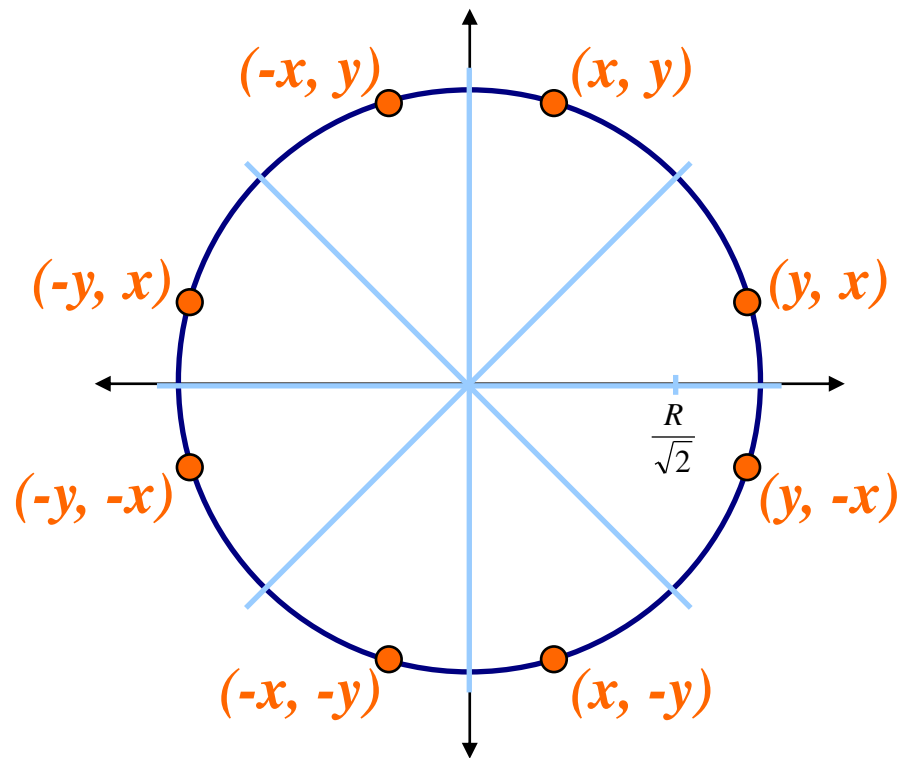
$$y_{20} = \sqrt{20^2 - 20^2} \approx 0$$

A Simple Circle Drawing Algorithm (cont...)

- However, unsurprisingly this is not a brilliant solution!
- Firstly, the resulting circle has **large gaps where the slope approaches the vertical**
- Secondly, the calculations are not very efficient
 - The square (multiply) operations
 - The square root operation – try really hard to avoid these!
- We need a more efficient, more accurate solution

Eight-Way Symmetry

- The first thing we can notice to make our circle drawing algorithm more efficient is that circles centred at $(0, 0)$ have *eight-way symmetry*

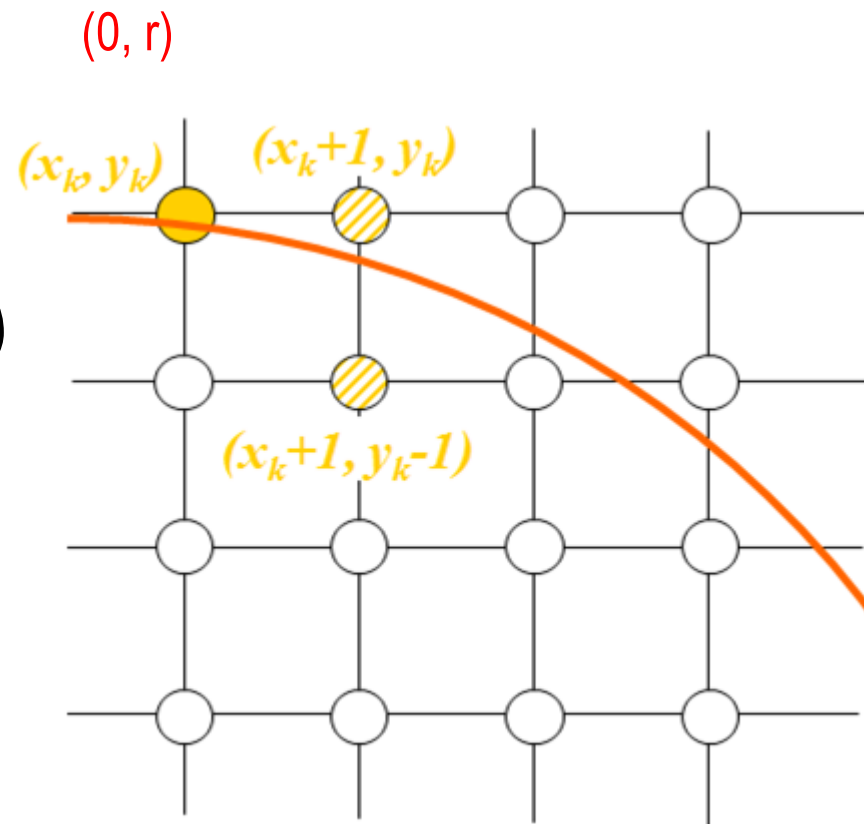


Mid-Point Circle Algorithm

- Similarly to the case with lines, there is an incremental algorithm for drawing circles – the *mid-point circle algorithm*
- In the mid-point circle algorithm we use eight-way symmetry so only ever calculate the points for the **top right eighth** of a circle, and then use symmetry to get the rest of the points

Mid-Point Circle Algorithm (cont...)

- Assume that we have just plotted point (x_k, y_k)
- The next point is a choice between (x_k+1, y_k) and (x_k+1, y_k-1)
- We would like to choose the point that is nearest to the actual circle
- So how do we make this choice?



Mid-Point Circle Algorithm (cont...)

- Let's re-jig the equation of the circle slightly to give us:

$$f_{circ}(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - r^2$$

- The equation evaluates as follows:

$$f_{circ}(x, y) \begin{cases} < 0, \text{ if } (x, y) \text{ is inside the circle boundary} \\ = 0, \text{ if } (x, y) \text{ is on the circle boundary} \\ > 0, \text{ if } (x, y) \text{ is outside the circle boundary} \end{cases}$$

- By evaluating this function at the midpoint between the candidate pixels we can make our decision

Mid-Point Circle Algorithm (cont...)

- Assuming we have just plotted the pixel at (x_k, y_k) so we need to choose between $(x_k + 1, y_k)$ and $(x_k + 1, y_k - 1)$
- Our decision variable can be defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} p_k &= f_{\text{circ}}(x_k + 1, y_k - \frac{1}{2}) \\ &= (x_k + 1)^2 + (y_k - \frac{1}{2})^2 - r^2 \end{aligned}$$

- If $p_k < 0$ the midpoint is inside the circle and the pixel at y_k is closer to the circle
- Otherwise the midpoint is outside and $y_k - 1$ is closer

Mid-Point Circle Algorithm (cont...)

- To ensure things are as efficient as possible we can do all of our calculations incrementally

- First consider:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{k+1} &= f_{circ} \left(x_{k+1} + 1, y_{k+1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= [(x_k + 1) + 1]^2 + \left(y_{k+1} - \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 - r^2 \end{aligned}$$

- or:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2(x_k + 1) + (y_{k+1}^2 - y_k^2) - (y_{k+1} - y_k) + 1$$

- where y_{k+1} is either y_k or $y_k - 1$ depending on the sign of p_k

Mid-Point Circle Algorithm (cont...)

- The first decision variable is given as:

$$\begin{aligned}p_0 &= f_{circ}(1, r - 1/2) \\&= 1 + (r - 1/2)^2 - r^2 \\&= 5/4 - r\end{aligned}$$

- Then if $p_k < 0$ then the next decision variable is given as
:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2x_{k+1} + 1$$

- If $p_k > 0$ then the decision variable is:

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2x_{k+1} + 1 - 2y_k + 1$$

Mid-point Circle Algorithm - Steps

1. Input radius r and circle center (x_c, y_c) . set the first point $(x_0, y_0) = (0, r)$.
2. Calculate the initial value of the decision parameter as $p_0 = 1 - r$.
 $(p_0 = 5/4 - r \cong 1 - r)$

3. If $p_k < 0$,
plot $(x_k + 1, y_k)$ and $p_{k+1} = p_k + 2x_{k+1} + 1$,

Otherwise,

plot $(x_k + 1, y_k - 1)$ and $p_{k+1} = p_k + 2x_{k+1} + 1 - 2y_{k+1}$,

where $2x_{k+1} = 2x_k + 2$ and $2y_{k+1} = 2y_k - 2$.

Mid-point Circle Algorithm - Steps

4. Determine symmetry points on the other seven octants.
5. Move each calculated pixel position (x, y) onto the circular path c entered on (x_c, y_c) and plot the coordinate values: $x = x + x_c$,
 $y = y + y_c$
6. Repeat steps 3 though 5 until $x \geq y$.
7. For all points, add the center point (x_c, y_c)

Mid-point Circle Algorithm - Steps

- Now we drew a part from circle, to draw a complete circle, we must plot the other points.
- We have $(x_c + x, y_c + y)$, the other points are:
 - $(x_c - x, y_c + y)$
 - $(x_c + x, y_c - y)$
 - $(x_c - x, y_c - y)$
 - $(x_c + y, y_c + x)$
 - $(x_c - y, y_c + x)$
 - $(x_c + y, y_c - x)$
 - $(x_c - y, y_c - x)$

Mid-point circle algorithm (Example)

- Given a circle radius $r = 10$, demonstrate the midpoint circle algorithm by determining positions along the circle octant in the first quadrant from $x = 0$ to $x = y$.

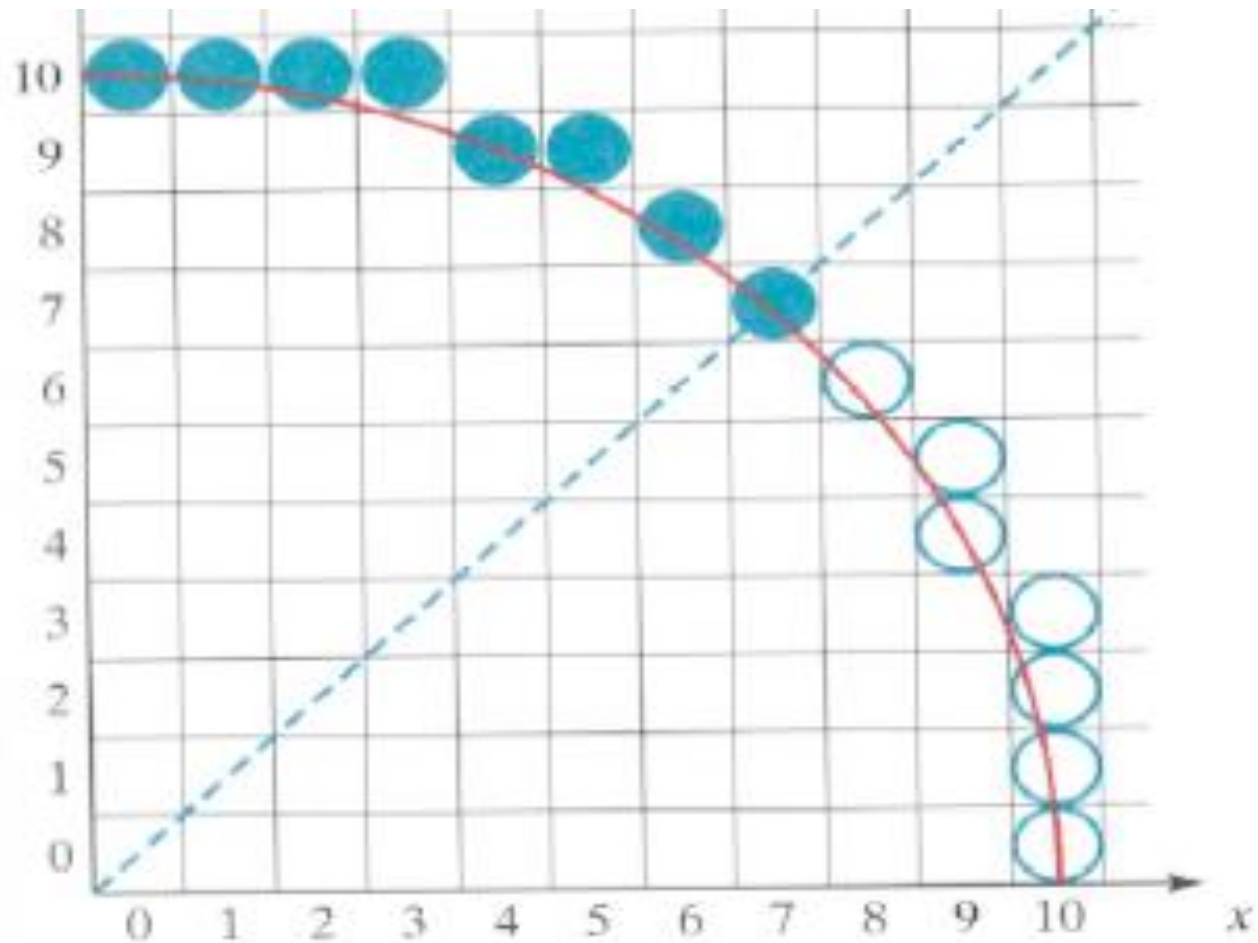
Solution:

- $p_0 = 1 - r = -9$
- Plot the initial point $(x_0, y_0) = (0, 10)$,
- $2x_0 = 0$ and $2y_0 = 20$.
- Successive decision parameter values and positions along the circle path are calculated using the midpoint method as appear in the next table:

Mid-point circle algorithm (Example)

K	P_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})	$2 x_{k+1}$	$2 y_{k+1}$
0	-9	(1, 10)	2	20
1	-6	(2, 10)	4	20
2	-1	(3, 10)	6	20
3	6	(4, 9)	8	18
4	-3	(5, 9)	10	18
5	8	(6,8)	12	16
6	5	(7,7)	14	14

Mid-point circle algorithm (Example)



Mid-point Circle Algorithm – Example (2)

- Given a circle radius $r = 15$, demonstrate the midpoint circle algorithm by determining positions along the circle octant in the first quadrant from $x = 0$ to $x = y$.

Solution:

- $p_0 = 1 - r = -14$
- plot the initial point $(x_0, y_0) = (0, 15)$,
- $2x_0 = 0$ and $2y_0 = 30$.
- Successive decision parameter values and positions along the circle path are calculated using the midpoint method as:

Mid-point Circle Algorithm – Example (2)

K	P_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})	$2 x_{k+1}$	$2 y_{k+1}$
0	- 14	(1, 15)	2	30
1	- 11	(2, 15)	4	30
2	- 6	(3, 15)	6	30
3	1	(4, 14)	8	28
4	- 18	(5, 14)	10	28

Mid-point Circle Algorithm – Example (2)

K	P_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})	$2 x_{k+1}$	$2 y_{k+1}$
5	-7	(6,14)	12	28
6	6	(7,13)	14	26
7	-5	(8,13)	16	26
8	12	(9,12)	18	24
9	7	(10,11)	20	22
10	6	(11,10)	22	20