

Chapter 4:

Primitive Objects Using Graphics

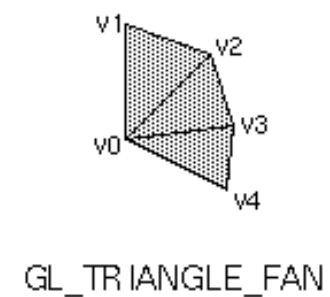
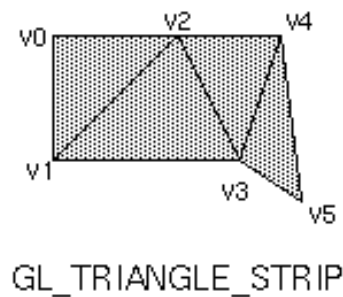
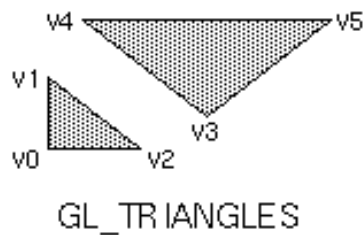
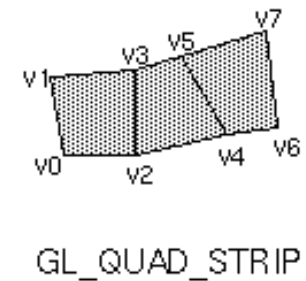
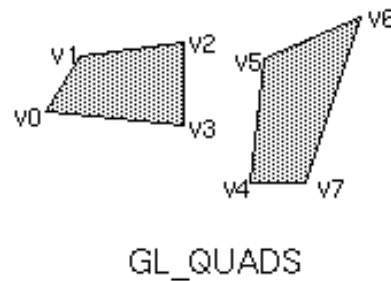
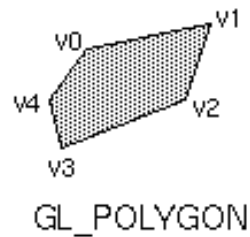
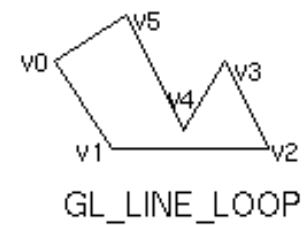
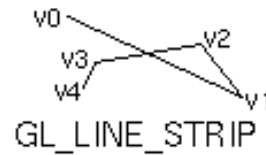
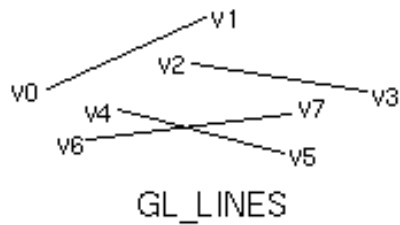
Objective

- ❑ To create primitive objects using graphics.
- ❑ To produce output primitives:
 - Point
 - Line
 - Circle
 - Rectangle
 - Polygon
- ❑ To introduce the graphics system using OpenGL.

Output Primitives

- Graphic SW and HW provide subroutines to describe a scene in terms of basic geometric structures called output primitives.
- Output primitives are combined to form complex structures
- Simplest primitives
 - Point (pixel)
 - Line segment

Geometric Primitive Types



Scan Conversion

- Converting output primitives into frame buffer updates. Choose which pixels contain which intensity value.
- Constraints
 - Straight lines should appear as a straight line
 - primitives should start and end accurately
 - Primitives should have a consistent brightness along their length
 - They should be drawn rapidly

Point

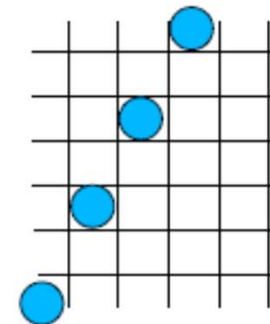
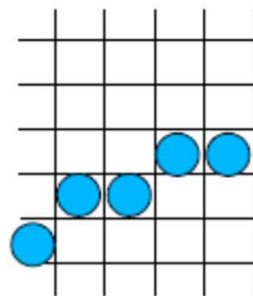
- Coordinate position is represented by 1 pixel or more.
- Screen coordinate is integer: point $p(x, y) = \text{pixel } \{\text{int}(x), \text{int}(y)\}$.
- Example $P_1(2.5, 3.25) \rightarrow P_{\text{pixel}} = (2, 3)$
- Instruction example:
 - Draw one point $\rightarrow \text{setPixel}(x, y)$
 - Take point position $\rightarrow \text{getPixel}(x, y)$

Line Drawing

- Simple approach:
sample a line at discrete positions at one coordinate from start point to end point, calculate the other coordinate value from line equation.

$$y = mx + b \quad x = \frac{1}{m}y + \frac{b}{m}$$

$$m = \frac{y_{start} - y_{end}}{x_{start} - x_{end}}$$



If $m > 1$, increment y and find x

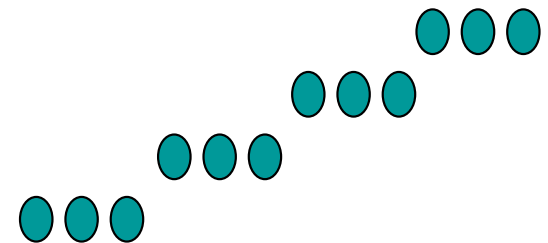
If $m \leq 1$, increment x and find y

Algorithms

- **Line drawing**
 - Digital Differential Analyzer (DDA) algorithm
 - Bresenham's line algorithm
- **Circle-generating algorithm**
 - Midpoint circle algorithm

Approaches

- To display a line on a raster monitor, the graphics system must first
 - Project the endpoints to **integer** screen coordinates.
 - Determine the **nearest pixel positions** along the line path between the two end point.
 - Then the line color is loaded into the **frame buffer** at the corresponding pixel coordinates.
 - Reading from the frame buffer , the **video controller** plots the screen pixels.
- This process digitizes the line into a set of discrete integer positions that, in general, only **approximates the actual line path**.
 - A computed line position of $(10.48, 20.51)$ for example, is converted into $(10, 21)$.
 - This rounding of coordinate values causes all (except horizontal and vertical) lines to be displayed with ***stair-step*** appearance.



Stair-step effect
produced when a line is
generated as a series of
pixel positions.

Line Equations

- The Cartesian *slope-intercept equation* for a straight line is

$$y = m \cdot x + b \quad (1)$$

with m as the slope and b as the intercept of the line.

- If 2 endpoints (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) is given, the values of slope m and y intercept b can be computed as:

$$m = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0} \quad (2)$$

$$b = y_0 - m \cdot x_0 \quad (3)$$

- Algorithms for displaying straight lines are based on the line equation (1).

- For any given x interval, δx , along a line, we can compute the corresponding y interval δy as:

$$\delta y = m \cdot \delta x \quad (4)$$

- Similarly, the x interval δx corresponding to a specified δy as:

$$\delta x = \frac{\delta y}{m} \quad (5)$$

- These equations form the basis for determining **deflection voltages** in analog displays, such as *vector-scan* system, where arbitrarily small changes in deflection voltage are possible.

Digital Differential Analyzer (DDA) Algorithm

- **DDA** is a scan-conversion line algorithm based on calculating either δy or δx using (4) and (5).
- Steps in the **DDA** algorithm are:
 1. Determine 2 endpoints to draw a line.
 2. Set (x_0, y_0) as the first point and (x_1, y_1) as the last point.
 3. Compute the difference of $\Delta x = x_1 - x_0$ and $\Delta y = y_1 - y_0$.
 4. The difference with greater magnitude determines the value of parameter *steps*. i.e.
if $|\Delta x| > |\Delta y|$ then
 $steps = |\Delta x|$
else $steps = |\Delta y|$
 5. Starting with pixel position (x_0, y_0) , we determine the offset needed at each step to generate the next pixel position along the line path.
i.e. $x_increment = |\Delta x| / steps$ and $y_increment = |\Delta y| / steps$.
 6. SetPixel at location $(round(x_0), round(y_0))$.
 7. Set $k=0$.
 8. Determine the next coordinate (x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) .
 $x_{k+1} = x_k + x_increment$ and $y_{k+1} = y_k + y_increment$. And setpixel at $(round(x_{k+1}), round(y_{k+1}))$.
 9. Repeat step 8. until $x=x_1$ and $y=y_1$.

DDA Algorithm: Example

- Two endpoints of a line are given as A(10,10) and B(17,16). Compute the points generated by the **DDA** algorithm.

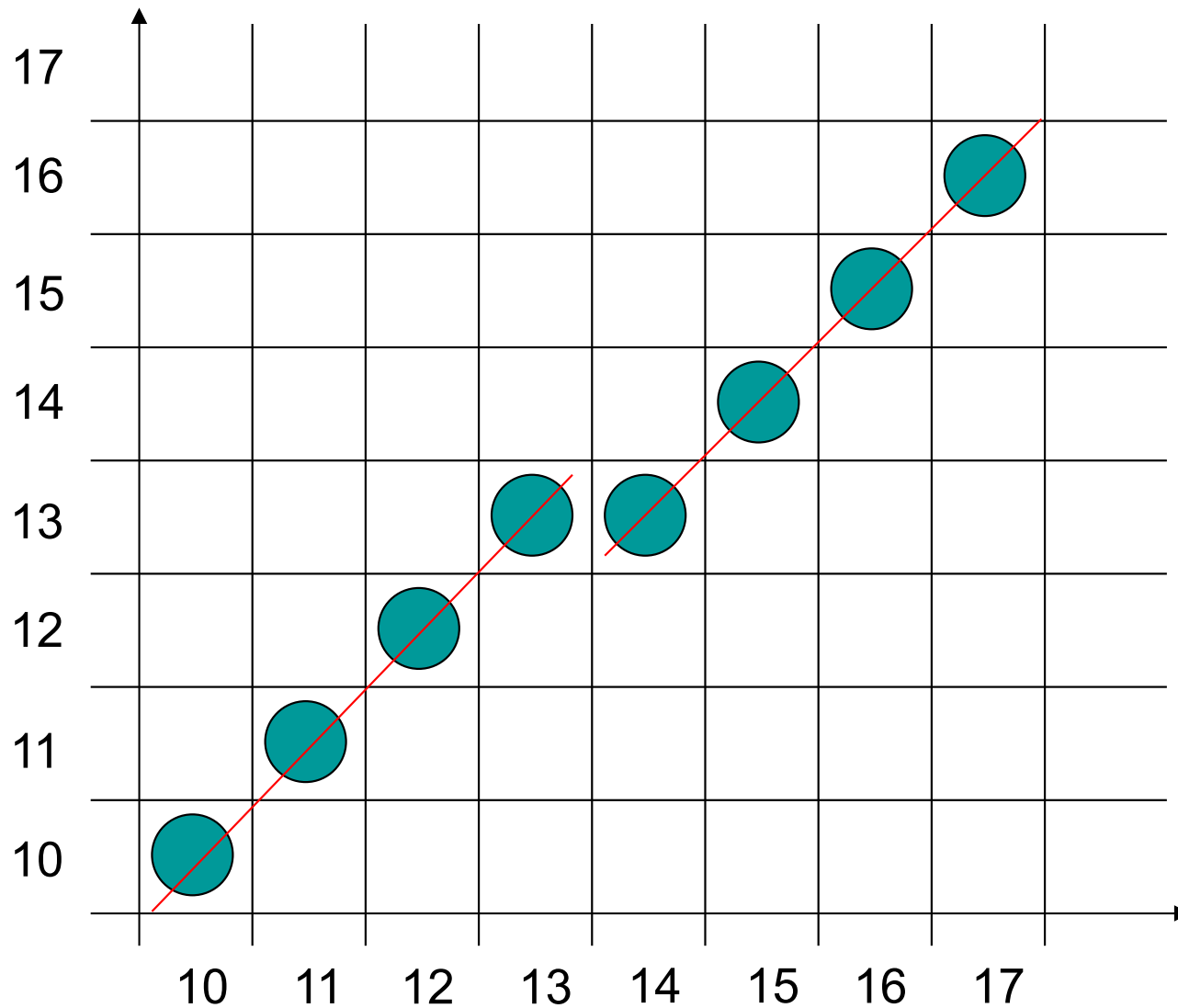
1. A(10,10) and B(17,16)
2. $(x_0, y_0) = (10, 10)$ and $(x_1, y_1) = (17, 16)$
3. $\Delta x = 7$ and $\Delta y = 6$.
4. $\Delta x > \Delta y$, thus $step = 7$.
5. $x_increment = \Delta x \div step = 1$ and $y_increment = \Delta y \div step = 0.86$.
6. $(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) = (x_k + x_increment, y_k + y_increment) = (10 + 1, 10 + 0.86) = (11, 10.86)$
7. $(\text{round}(x_{k+1}), \text{round}(y_{k+1})) = (11, 11)$
8. Repeat steps 6. and 7. until $(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) = (17, 16)$

when $k=0$



k	x	y	(round(x), round(y))
0	10	10	(10,10)
1	11	10.86	(11,11)
2	12	11.72	(12,12)
3	13	12.58	(13,13)
4	14	13.44	(14,13)
5	15	14.30	(15,14)
6	16	15.16	(16,15)
7	17	16.02	(17,16)

Line Produced by DDA Algorithm



DDA Code in C

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <math.h>

inline int round (const float a) { return int (a + 0.5); }

void lineDDA (int x0, int y0, int xEnd, int yEnd)
{
    int dx = xEnd - x0, dy = yEnd - y0, steps, k;
    float xIncrement, yIncrement, x = x0, y = y0;

    if (fabs (dx) > fabs (dy))
        steps = fabs (dx);
    else
        steps = fabs (dy);
    xIncrement = float (dx) / float (steps);
    yIncrement = float (dy) / float (steps);

    setPixel (round (x), round (y));
    for (k = 0; k < steps; k++) {
        x += xIncrement;
        y += yIncrement;
        setPixel (round (x), round (y));
    }
}
```

Pros and Cons of DDA Algorithm

- **DDA** is a faster algorithm for calculating pixel positions compared to the one that directly implements Eq. (1).
- It eliminates the multiplication in Eq.(1) by appropriate increments in the x or y directions to step from one pixel to another along the line path.
- The accumulation of **round-off error** can drift away from the true line path for long line segments.
- The rounding operations and floating-point arithmetic is still **time consuming**.
- Its performance can be improved by separating the increments m and $\frac{1}{m}$ into integer and fractional parts. Thus, all calculations will be reduced to integer operations.

Bresenham's Line Algorithm

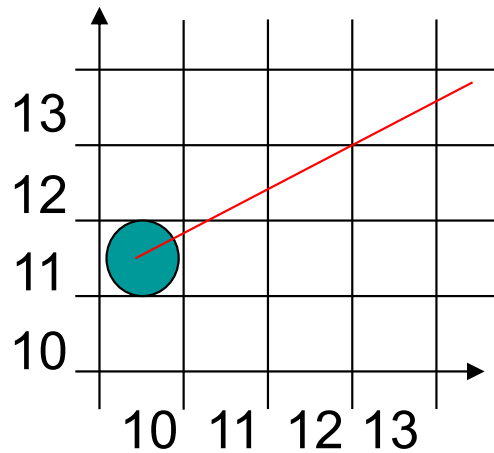


Figure 1 (positive slope)

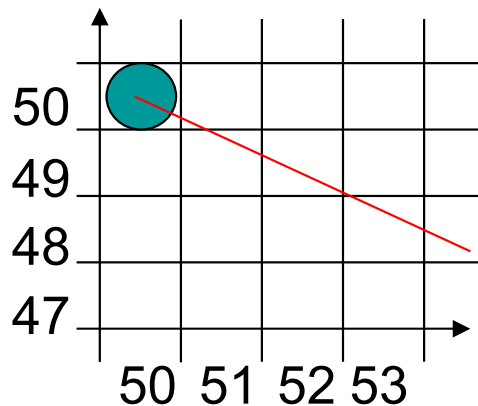


Figure 2 (negative slope)

- Is a more general scan-line approach that can be applied to both **line** and **curves**.
- This raster-line generating algorithm is developed by Bresenham, that uses only **incremental integer calculations**.
- Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows section of display screen where a straight line is to be drawn.
 - The vertical axis shows the scan-line positions.
 - The horizontal axis identify pixel columns.
- On figure 1, starting from the left endpoint we need to determine whether to plot the next pixel at position (11,11) or the one at (11,12).
- Similarly for Figure 2, starting from left endpoint, we want to determine whether to plot the next pixel at position (51,50) or (51,49).
- These questions are answered in Bresenham's algorithm.

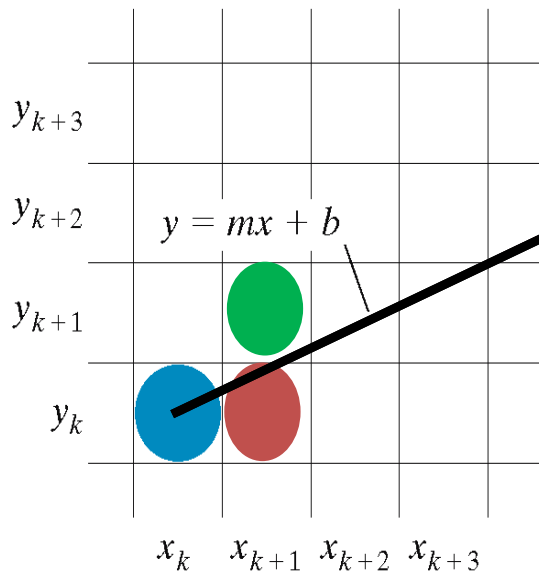


Figure 3-10

A section of the screen showing a pixel in column x_k on scan line y_k that is to be plotted along the path of a line segment with slope $0 < m < 1$.

- We first look at the scan-conversion process for lines with **positive slope less than 1.0**.
- Pixel positions are determined by sampling at **unit x intervals**.
- Starting from left endpoint (x_0, y_0) we move to each successive column and plot the pixel whose scan-line y value is **closest** to the line path.
- Figure 3-10 shows the first pixel at point (x_k, y_k) , we must determine the position of next pixel
 - i.e. either (x_{k+1}, y_k) or (x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) .



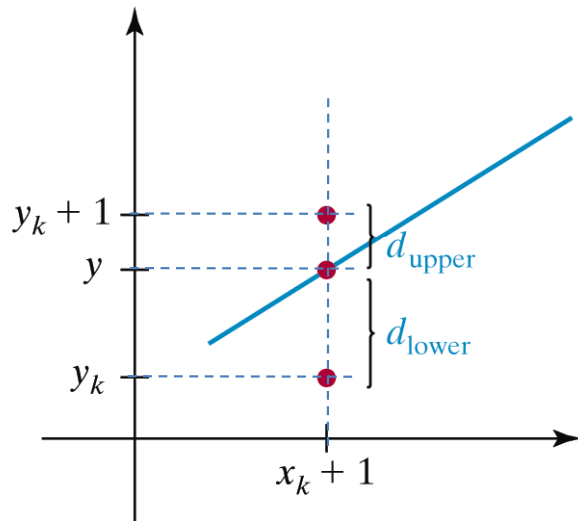


Figure 3-11

Vertical distances between pixel positions and the line y coordinate at sampling position $x_k + 1$.

Here, $x_{k+1} = x_k + 1$
 $y_{k+1} = y_k + 1$

- The y coordinate on the mathematical line at pixel column position $x_k + 1$ is calculated as,

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

(6)

- Then,

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

(7)

and

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

(8)

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- To find which of the two pixels is closest to the point

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

where,

$$m = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \quad (9)$$

- Simplifying (9) and defining **decision parameter, p_k** , we get,

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

where,

$$c = 2\Delta y + \Delta x(2b - 1) \quad (10)$$

- If $p_k \geq 0$
choose: $(x_k + 1, y_k + 1)$
else
choose: $(x_k + 1, y_k)$

- At step $k+1$, the decision parameter is evaluated as,

$$p_{k+1} = 2\Delta y \cdot x_{k+1} - 2\Delta x \cdot y_{k+1} + c \quad (11)$$

- So,

$$p_{k+1} - p_k = 2\Delta y(x_{k+1} - x_k) - 2\Delta x(y_{k+1} - y_k) \quad (12)$$

- Since, $x_{k+1} = x_k + 1$

$$p_{k+1} = p_k + 2\Delta y - 2\Delta x(y_{k+1} - y_k) \quad (13)$$

- Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{k+1} &= p_k + 2\Delta y & \text{if } p_k < 0 \\ p_{k+1} &= p_k + 2\Delta y - 2\Delta x & \text{if } p_k \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- The first parameter p_0 is evaluated from (10) at (x_0, y_0)

From (6) ,

$$y_0 = mx_0 + b$$

so,

$$b = y_0 - mx_0 \quad (14)$$

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

Substitute b in (14)

$$= 2\Delta y \cdot x_k - 2\Delta x \cdot y_k + 2\Delta y + \Delta x(2(y_0 - mx_0) - 1)$$

Simplify...

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

Bresenham's line drawing algorithm for $|m| < 1.0$

1. Input 2 endpoints of the line and store the left endpoint in (x_0, y_0) .
2. Set the color for the frame-buffer position (x_0, y_0) ; i.e. plot the first point.
3. Calculate the constants Δx , Δy , $2\Delta y$, and $2\Delta y - 2\Delta x$, and obtain the starting 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

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

if $p_k \geq 0$

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. Perform step 4. $\Delta x - 1$ times.

Bresenham's Algorithm :Example

- Two endpoints of a line is given as (20,10) and (30,18). This line has slope of 0.8, with

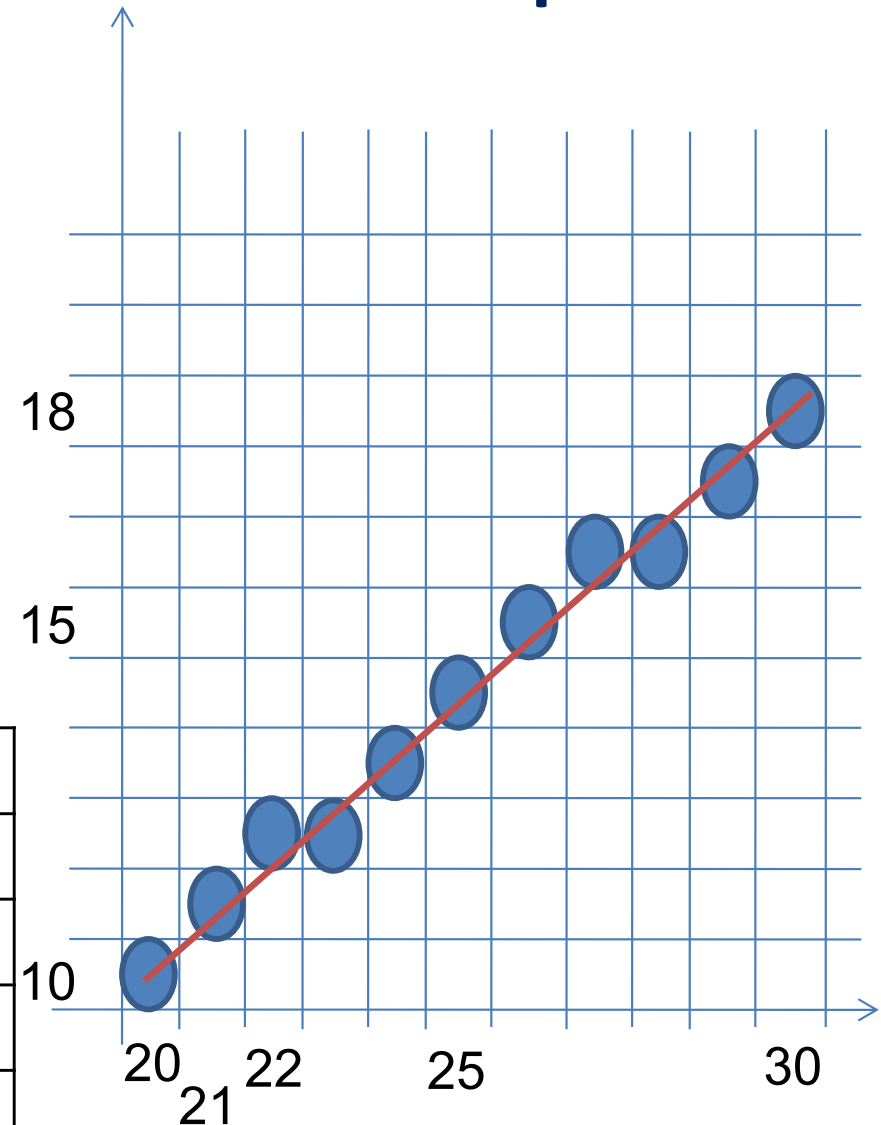
$$\Delta x=10, \Delta y=8$$

$$p_0=2\Delta y- \Delta x =6,$$

$$2\Delta y=16,$$

$$2\Delta y-2\Delta x=-4$$

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)



Bresenham's Code in C

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <math.h>

/* Bresenham line-drawing procedure for |m| < 1.0. */
void lineBres (int x0, int y0, int xEnd, int yEnd)
{
    int dx = fabs (xEnd - x0), dy = fabs(yEnd - y0);
    int p = 2 * dy - dx;
    int twoDy = 2 * dy, twoDyMinusDx = 2 * (dy - dx);
    int x, y;

    /* Determine which endpoint to use as start position. */
    if (x0 > xEnd) {
        x = xEnd;
        y = yEnd;
        xEnd = x0;
    }
    else {
        x = x0;
        y = y0;
    }
    setPixel (x, y);

    while (x < xEnd) {
        x++;
        if (p < 0)
            p += twoDy;
        else {
            y++;
            p += twoDyMinusDx;
        }
        setPixel (x, y);
    }
}
```


Bresenham's Algorithm for $|m| < 1.0$

- i.e $m=0$ (when $\Delta y=0$), m is undefined (when $\Delta x=0$), $m=1$ (when $|\Delta y|=|\Delta x|$), $m<0$ and $m>1$.
- For lines with $m>1$, interchange the roles of x and y directions. i.e. step along y direction in unit steps and calculate successive x values nearest the line path.
- For $m<0$ (negative slope), the procedure is similar, except that now one coordinate decreases and as the other increases.
- Special cases: horizontal line ($\Delta y=0$), vertical lines ($\Delta x=0$), and diagonal lines ($|\Delta y|=|\Delta x|$) can each be loaded directly into the frame buffer without processing them through the line-plotting algorithm.

Curve generating Algorithm

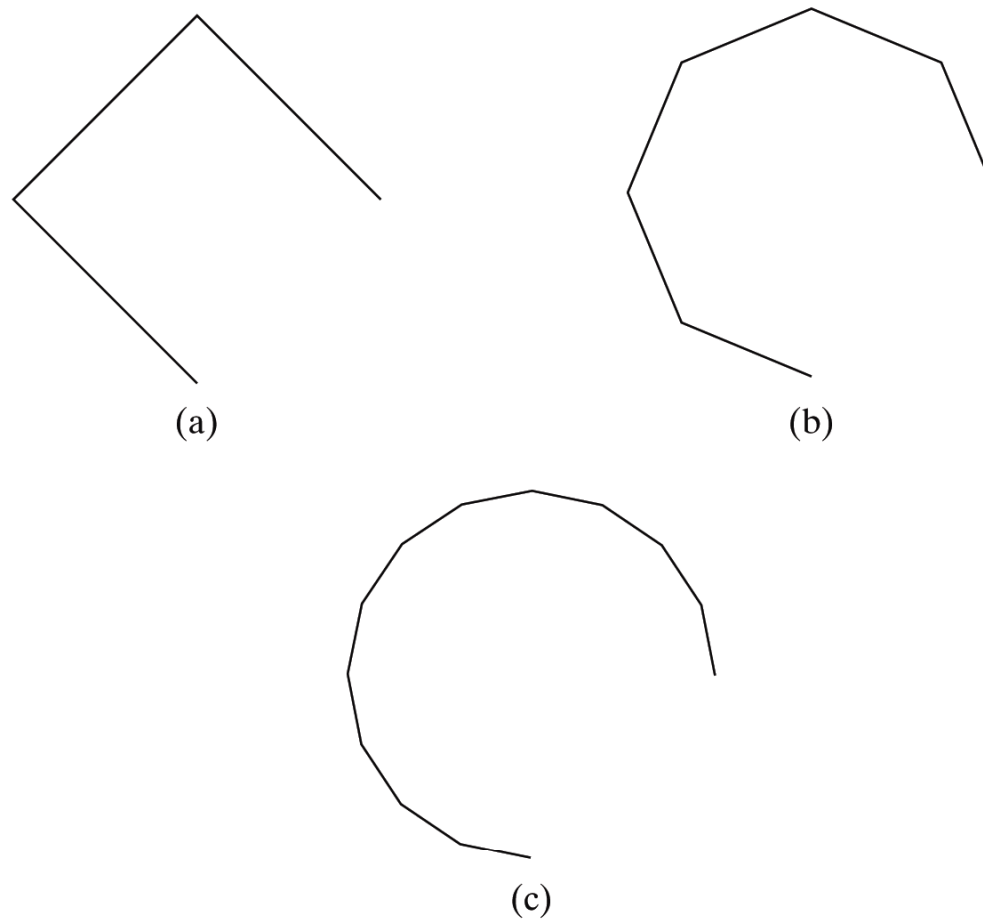


Figure 3-15

A circular arc approximated with (a) three straight-line segments, (b) six line segments, and (c) twelve line segments.

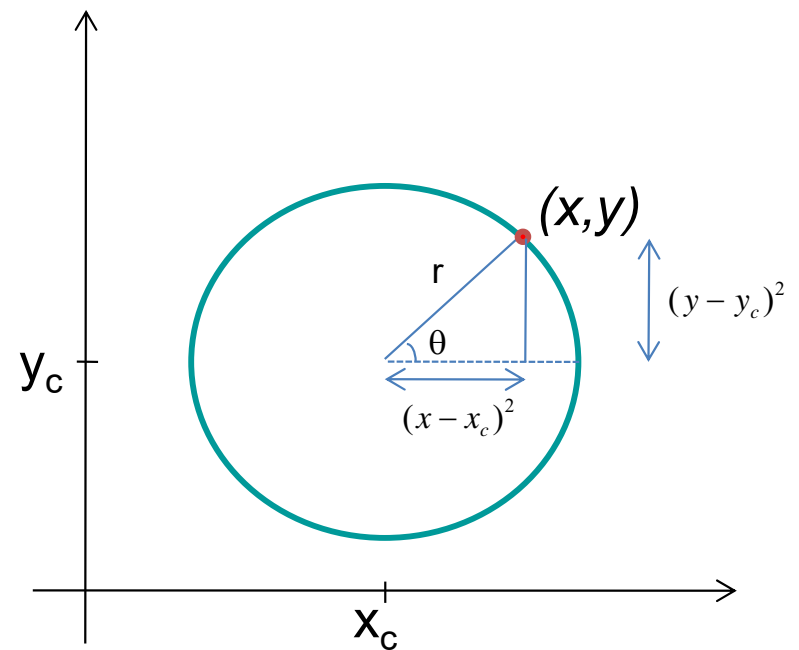
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Circle generating algorithms

- For any circle point (x,y) , with radius, r , from a center point (x_c, y_c) , the distance relationship is expressed by the **Pythagorean theorem** in Cartesian coordinates as:

$$(x - x_c)^2 + (y - y_c)^2 = r^2$$

- But using this equation to generate a circle is time consuming.
- We consider the **midpoint circle** algorithm here.
- There are many other techniques to reduce the calculation time. Read page 103-104 (Hearn & Baker)



Midpoint Circle Algorithm

- Uses the same technique used in the raster line algorithm.
- For a given radius, r , and screen center position (x_c, y_c) .
 - Set up the algorithm to compute pixel positions around the circle path centered at coordinate $(0,0)$.
 - Then each computed position (x,y) is moved to proper screen position by adding x_c to x and y_c to y .
 - Symmetry consideration can be used to reduce computations.
- Here we look at the first quadrant, Figure 3.18 that is from $x=0$ to $x=y$, the slope of the curve varies from 0 to -1.0 .
- To apply the midpoint method, a circle function is defined as

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

The function below gives the value of $f_{circ}(x,y)$ for different (x,y) positions.

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

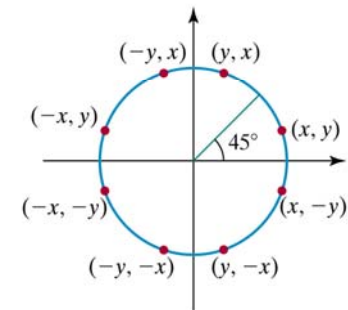


Figure 3-18

Symmetry of a circle. Calculation of a circle point (x, y) in one octant yields the circle points shown for the other seven octants.

(15)

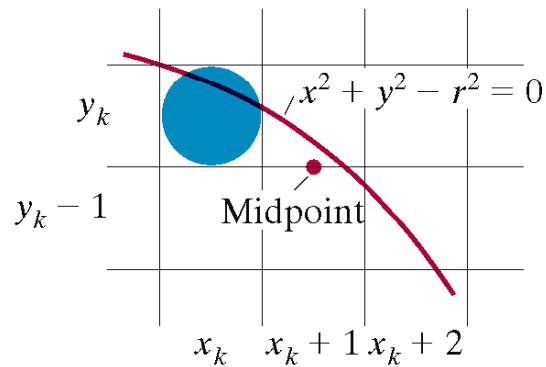


Figure 3-19

Midpoint between candidate pixels at sampling position $x_k + 1$ along a circular path.

- We want to determine whether to choose (x_{k+1}, y_k) or (x_{k+1}, y_{k-1}) .
- The **decision parameter** is the circle function (15) evaluated at the **midpoint**.

$$p_k = f_{\text{circ}}(x_k + 1, y_k - \frac{1}{2})$$

$$= (x_k + 1)^2 + \left(y_k - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - r^2$$

- If $p_k < 0$,
choose (x_{k+1}, y_k)
- if $p_k \geq 0$
choose (x_{k+1}, y_{k-1}) .

- Next to find pixel position at $x_{k+1}+1=x_k+2$

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

Can be simplified to:

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

where y_{k+1} is taken as either y_k or y_k-1 , depending on the sign of p_k .

- Increments for obtaining p_{k+1} are either $2x_{k+1}+1$ (if p_k is negative) or $2x_{k+1}+1-2y_{k+1}$ (if p_k is non-negative)
- With $2x_{k+1}=2x_k+2$ and $2y_{k+1}=2y_k-2$
- The initial decision parameter is obtained by evaluating the circle function at $(x_0, y_0)=(0, r)$:

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

$$p_0 = \frac{5}{4} - r$$

- If radius is specified as an integer, we can simply round p_0 to :
 $p_0 = 1 - r$ (for r integer)

Midpoint Circle algorithm

1. Input radius r and circle center (x_c, y_c) then set the coordinates for the first point on the circumferences of a circle centered on the origin as

$$(x_0, y_0) = (0, r)$$

2. Calculate the initial value of the decision parameter as

$$p_0 = \frac{5}{4} - r$$

3. At each x_k position, starting at $k=0$, perform the following test.

If $p_k < 0$, the next point along the circle centered on $(0,0)$ is (x_{k+1}, y_k) and

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

Otherwise, the next point along the circle is (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 $2y_{k+1} = 2y_k - 2$

4. Determine symmetry points in the other 7 octants.
5. Move each calculated pixel position (x, y) onto the circular path centered at (x_c, y_c) and plot the coordinate values

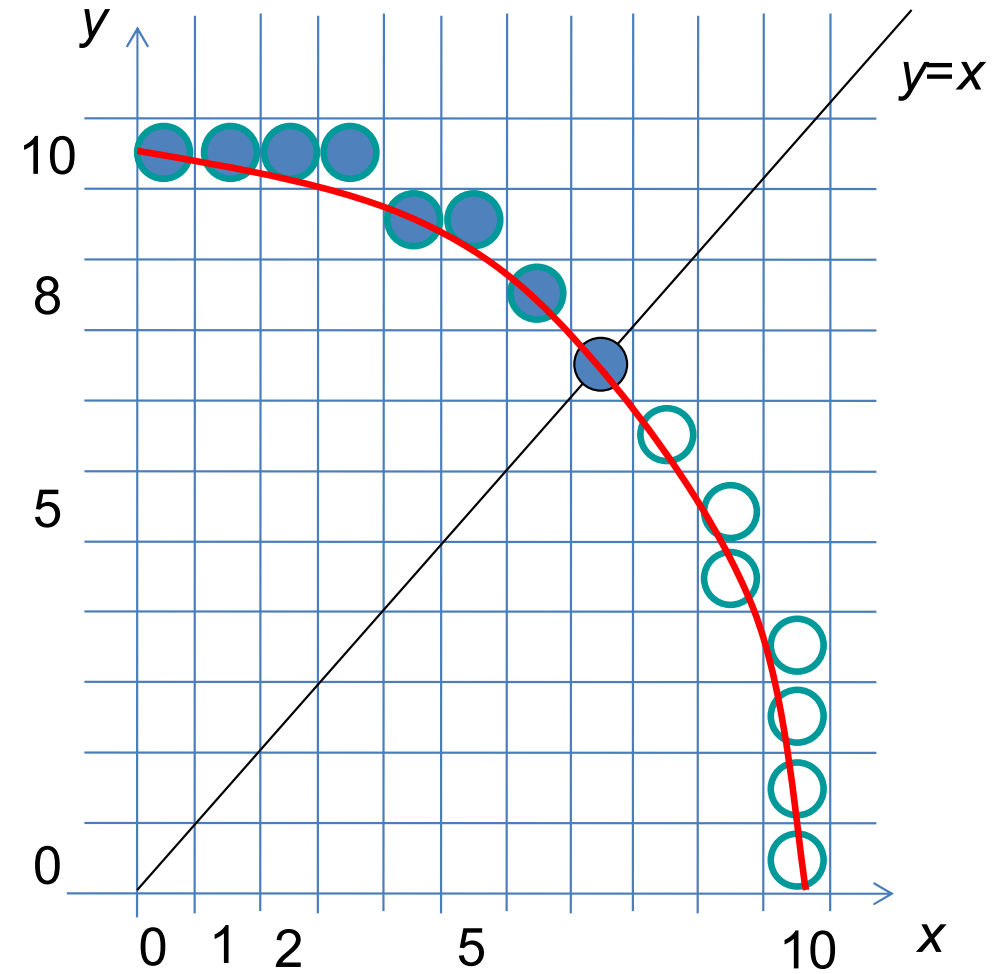
$$x = x + x_c, \quad y = y + y_c$$

6. Repeat steps 3 through 5 until $x \geq y$

Mid point circle drawing : Example

- Given a circle radius $r=10$ centered at $(0,0)$. Using the midpoint circle algorithm determine positions along the circle in the first quadrant.
 - Using the symmetrical property, we find the positions along the circle octant in the first quadrant from $x=0$ to $x=y$.
 - The initial value of the decision parameter is
$$p_0 = 1 - r = -9$$
 - For the circle centered on the coordinate origin, the initial point is $(x_0, y_0) = (0, 10)$,
 - The initial increment terms for calculating decision parameters are:
 $2x_0=0, 2y_0=20$.

k	p_k	(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1})	$2x_{k+1}$	$2y_{k+1}$
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



```
#include <GL/glut.h>
```

```
class scrPt {
```

```
    public:
```

```
        GLint x, y;
```

```
};
```

```
void setPixel (GLint x, GLint y)
```

```
{
```

```
    glBegin (GL_POINTS);
```

```
    glVertex2i (x, y);
```

```
    glEnd ( );
```

```
}
```

```
void circleMidpoint (scrPt circCtr, GLint radius)
```

```
{
```

```
    scrPt circPt;
```

```
    GLint p = 1 - radius;      // Initial value of midpoint parameter.
```

```
    circPt.x = 0;              // Set coordinates for top point of circle.
```

```
    circPt.y = radius;
```

```
    void circlePlotPoints (scrPt, scrPt);
```

```
    /* Plot the initial point in each circle quadrant. */
```

```
    circlePlotPoints (circCtr, circPt);
```

```
    /* Calculate next points and plot in each octant. */
```

```
    while (circPt.x < circPt.y) {
```

```
        circPt.x++;
```

```
        if (p < 0)
```

```
            p += 2 * circPt.x + 1;
```

```
        else {
```

```
            circPt.y--;
```

```
            p += 2 * (circPt.x - circPt.y) + 1;
```

```
        }
```

```
        circlePlotPoints (circCtr, circPt);
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

```
void circlePlotPoints (scrPt circCtr, scrPt circPt);
```

```
{
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x + circPt.x, circCtr.y + circPt.y);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x - circPt.x, circCtr.y + circPt.y);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x + circPt.x, circCtr.y - circPt.y);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x - circPt.x, circCtr.y - circPt.y);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x + circPt.y, circCtr.y + circPt.x);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x - circPt.y, circCtr.y + circPt.x);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x + circPt.y, circCtr.y - circPt.x);
```

```
    setPixel (circCtr.x - circPt.y, circCtr.y - circPt.x);
```

```
}
```