

Assignment No. 1

- Title: Install explore the OpenGL

- Theory:

OpenGL (Open Graphics Library) is a cross-platform, hardware-accelerated, language-independent, industrial Standard API for producing 3D (not including 2D) graphics. Modern computers have dedicated GPU (Graphics Processing Unit) with its own memory to speed up graphics rendering. OpenGL is the software interface to graphics hardware. In other words, OpenGL graphic rendering commands issued by your applications could be directed to the graphic hardware and accelerated.

We use 3 sets of libraries in our OpenGL programs:

1) Core OpenGL (GL): consist of hundreds of commands, which begin with a prefix "gl" (eg., glColor, glVertex, glTranslate, glRotate). The Core OpenGL models an object via a set of geometric primitives such as point, line and polygon.

2) OpenGL Utility Library (GLU): built on-top of the Core OpenGL to provide important utilities (such as setting camera view and projection) and more buildings models (such as quadratic surfaces and polygon tessellation). GLU commands start with a prefix "glu" (eg. gluLookAt, gluPerspective).

3) OpenGL Utilities Toolkit (GLUT): OpenGL is designed to be independent of the windowing

System or operating system. GLUT is needed to interact with the operating system (such as creating a window, handling key and mouse inputs) it also provides more (e.g., `glutCreateViewWindow`, `glutMouseFunc`). GLUT is platform independent, which is performed built on the top of platform-specific OpenGL extension such as GLX for X window system, WGL for Microsoft Windows, and AGL, CAL or Cocoa for Mac OS.

Quoting from the [OpenGL.org](http://opengl.org): "GLUT is designed for constructing small-to medium sized OpenGL programs. While GLUT is well-suited to learning OpenGL and developing simple OpenGL applications, GLUT is not a full-featured toolkit so large applications requiring sophisticated user interfaces are better off using some native window system toolkits. GLUT is simple, easy, and small."

Alternative of GLUT includes SDL, ...

4) OpenGL Extension Wrangler Library (GLEW): "GLEW is a cross-platform open-source C/C++ extension loading library. GLEW provides efficient run-time mechanisms for determining which OpenGL extensions are supported on the target standalone utility called 'glewinfo.exe' (under the 'bin' directory) can be used to produce the list of OpenGL functions supported by user graphics systems.

OpenGL as State Machine:

OpenGL operates as a state machine, and

maintain a set of state variables (such as the foreground color, background color, and many more). In a state machine, once the value of a state variable is set, the value persists until a new value is given.

For example, we set the "clearing" (background) color to black once in `initGL()`. We use this setting to clear the window in the `display()` repeatedly (`display()` is called back whenever there is a window repaint request) - the clearing color is not changed in the entire program.

Naming Convention for OpenGL Functions:

An OpenGL function:

- begins with lowercase `gl` (for core OpenGL) `gle` (for OpenGL Utility) or `glut` (for OpenGL Utility toolkit).

Followed by the purpose of a function, in camel case (initial - capitalized), eg., `glColor` to specify the drawing color, `glVertex` to define the position of a vertex.

- Followed by specifications for the parameters, eg., `glColor3f` takes three float parameters, `glVertex2i` takes two int parameters.

(This is needed as C language does not support function overloading. Different versions of the function need to be written for different parameter lists).

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The Conversion can be expressed as follows:

`returnType glfunction[234] [Size] (type value...);`

`returnType glfunction[234] [Size] x Ctype + value);`

Install OpenGL on Ubuntu

For installing OpenGL on Ubuntu, just execute the following command (like installing any other thing) in terminal:

`sudo apt-get install freeglut3-dev.`

For working on Ubuntu operating system:

`gcc filename.c -lGL -lGLU -lglut`

where Filename `filename.c` is the name of the file with which this program is saved.

Install OpenGL on windows in Code::Blocks

1) Download code block and install it.

2) Go to the link and to download zip file from the download link that appears after freeglut MinGW package with having link name as Download freeglut 3.0.0 for MinGW and extract it.

3) Open notepad with run as administrator and open file from:

1) This PC > (C: (C-drive)) > Program Files (x86) > CodeBlocks > share > codeBlocks > templates, (then click to Show All Files)

2) Next, open glut.dcp and search all glut92

and replace with Freeglut.

3) Then, open from This PC > C: (C-drive) > Program Files (x86) > codeblocks > share > etc codeblocks > templates > wizard > glut (then click to show All Files)

4) open Wizard script and here, also replace all glut32 with Freeglut

4. Then go to Freeglut Folder (where it was downloaded) and

1) Include > GL and copy all four file from there
2) Go to This PC > C: (C-drive) > Program Files (x86) > codeblocks > MinGW > include > GL and paste it.

3) Then, from download folder Freeglut > lib, copy two files and go to This PC > C: (C-drive) > Program Files (x86) > codeblocks > MinGW > lib and paste it.

4) Again Go to downloaded folder Freeglut > bin and to copy one file (Freeglut.dll) from here and go to This PC > C: (C-drive) > windows > SysWow64 and paste this file.

5. Now Open Code::Blocks

1) Select File > New > Project > GLUT project > Next
2) Give project title anything and then choose Next.
3) For selecting GLUT's location: This PC > C: (C-drive) > Program Files (x86) > codeblocks > MinGW.
4) Press OK > Next > Finish

Conclusion:

We learned steps to install OpenGL

Assignment No. 2

- Title : Implement DDA and Bresenham line drawing algorithm to draw.
 - Simple line
 - Dotted line
 - Dashed line
 - Solid line

Theory :

DDA Line Drawing Algorithm :

Digital differential analyzer (DDA) is a hardware or software used for linear interpolation of variables over an interval between start and end point. DDAs are used for rasterization of lines, triangles and polygons. DDA algorithm is an incremental scan conversion method. Here we perform calculations at each step using the results from the preceding step. The characteristic of the DDA algorithm is to take unit steps along one coordinate and compute the corresponding values along the other coordinate.

Algorithm :

Step 1: Start Algorithm

Step 2: Declare $x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, dx, dy, x, y$ as integer variables.

Step 3: Enter value of x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2

Step 4: Calculate $dx = x_2 - x_1$

Step 5: calculate $dy = y_2 - y_1$

Step 6: If $ABS(dx) > ABS(dy)$
 Then $step = abs(dx)$
 Else

Step 7: $xinc = dx/step$
 $yinc = dy/step$
 assign $x = x1$
 assign $y = y1$

Step 8: Set pixel(x, y)

Step 9: $x = x + xinc$
 $y = y + yinc$
 Set pixels ($Round(x), Round(y)$)

Step 10: Repeat Step 9 until $x = x2$

Step 11: End Algorithm.

Advantages of DDA Algorithm

1. It is the simplest algorithm and it does not require special skills for implementation.
2. It is faster method for calculating pixel positions than the direct use of equation $y = mx + b$. It eliminates the multiplication in the equation by making use of raster characteristics, so that appropriate increments are applied in the x or y direction to find the pixel positions along the line path.

Disadvantages:

1. Floating point arithmetic in DDA algorithm is time-consuming.
2. The algorithm is orientation dependent.

Bresenham's line algorithm:

Bresenham's line algorithm that determines which points in an n -dimensional raster should be plotted in order to form a close approximation to a straight line between two given points. It is commonly used to show draw lines on a computer screen, as it uses only integer addition, subtraction and bit shifting, all of which are very cheap operations in standard computer architectures. It is one of the earliest algorithms developed in the field of computer graphics. A minor extension to the original algorithm also deals with drawing circles.

Algorithm:

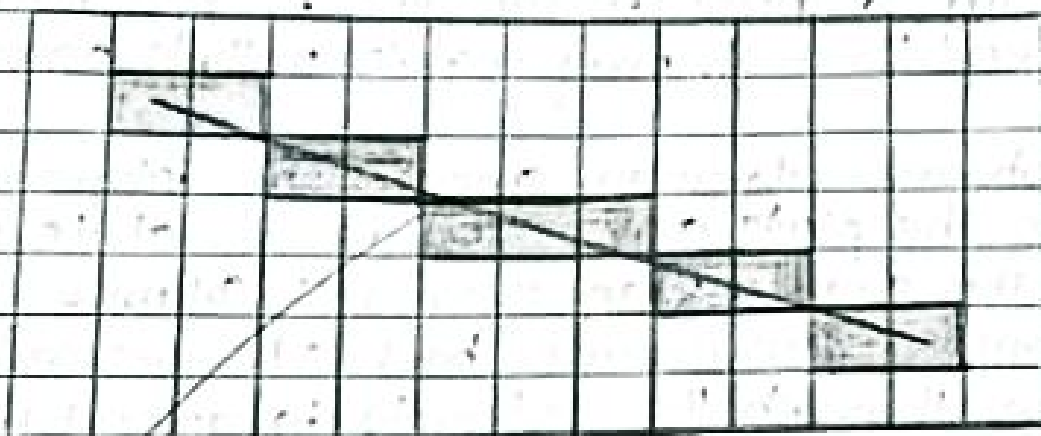


Illustration of the result of Bresenham's line algorithm. $(0, 0)$ is at the top left corner of the grid, $(1, 1)$ is at the top left end of the line and $(11, 5)$ is at the bottom right end of the line.

The Common Conventions will be used:

- the top left is $(0, 0)$ such as that pixel

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coordinates increase in the right and down directions and (eg. that the pixel at $(x, 1)$ is directly above the pixel at $(x, 5)$) and

- that the pixel centers have integer coordinates.

The endpoints of the line are the pixels at (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) where the first coordinate of the pair is the column and the second is the row.

The algorithm will be initially presented only for the cases in which the segment goes down and to the right ($x_0 < x_1, y_0 < y_1$), and its horizontal projection $x_1 - x_0$ is longer than the vertical projection $y_1 - y_0$ (the line has a negative slope whose absolute value is less than 1). In this case, for each column x between x_0 and x_1 , there is exactly one row y computed by the algorithm containing a pixel of the line, while each row between y_0 & y_1 may contain multiple rasterized pixels.

Bresenham's algorithm chooses the integer y corresponding to the pixel center that is closest to ideal (fractional) y for the same x ; on successive columns y can remain the same or increase by 1. The general equation of the line through the endpoints is given by:

$$\frac{y - y_0}{y_1 - y_0} = \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

Since we know the column, x , the pixel row, y , is then given by rounding the quantity to the nearest integer

$$y = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0} (x - x_0) + y_0$$

The slope $(y_1 - y_0) / (x_1 - x_0)$ depends on the endpoint coordinates only and can be precomputed and the ideal y for successive integer values for x can be computed starting from y_0 and repeatedly adding the slope.

Step 1: Start Algorithm

Step 2: Declare variable $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, dx, dy, i_1, i_2, d, x, y$

Step 3: Enter value of x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2

where x_1, y_1 are coordinates of starting point A and x_2, y_2 are coordinates of ending point.

Step 4: Calculate $dx = x_2 - x_1$

Calculate $dy = y_2 - y_1$

Calculate $i_1 = 2 * dy$

Calculate $i_2 = 2 * (dy - dx)$

Calculate $d = i_1 - dx$

Step 5: Consider (x, y) as starting point and x_{end} as minimum possible value of x

IF $dx < 0$

Then $x = x_2$

$y = y_2$

$x_{end} = x_1$

IF $d > dx > 0$

Then $x = x_1$

$y = y_1$

$x_{end} = x_2$

Step 6: Generate point at (x, y) coordinates

Step 7: check if whole line is generated

IF $x \geq x_{end}$

Stop

Step 8: Calculate co-ordinates of the next pixels

IF $d < 0$

Difference between DDA & Bresenham's:

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	DDA Algorithm	Bresenham's Algorithm
Arithmetic	DDA algorithm uses floating points i.e. Real Arithmetic	Bresenham's algorithm uses fixed points i.e. Integer Arithmetic
Operations	DDA Algorithm uses multiplication and division in its operations.	Bresenham's algorithm uses only subtraction & addition in its operations.
Speed	DDA Algorithm is rather slow than Bresenham's algorithm in line drawing because it uses real arithmetic (floating-point operations).	Bresenham's is faster than DDA algorithm in line drawing because it performs only addition and subtraction in its calculation and uses only integer arithmetic so it runs significantly faster.
Accuracy & Efficiency	DDA Algorithm is not as accurate and efficient as Bresenham's algorithm.	Bresenham's algorithm is ^{more efficient} draw circles and curves with much more accuracy than DDA algorithm.
Drawing	DDA Algorithm can draw circle circles and curves but that are not as accurate as Bresenham's algorithm.	Bresenham's algorithm can draw circles and curves with much more accuracy than DDA algorithm.
Expensive	DDA Algorithm uses an enormous number of floating-point multiplications so it is expensive.	Bresenham's algorithm is less expensive than DDA algorithm as it uses only addition and subtraction.

Then $d = d + 1$

IF $d \geq 0$

Then $d = d - 1$

Increment $y = y + 1$

Step 9: Increment $x = x + 1$

Step 10: Draw a point of latest (x, y) Coordinates

Step 11: Go to Step 7

Step 12: End of Algorithm

- Conclusion:

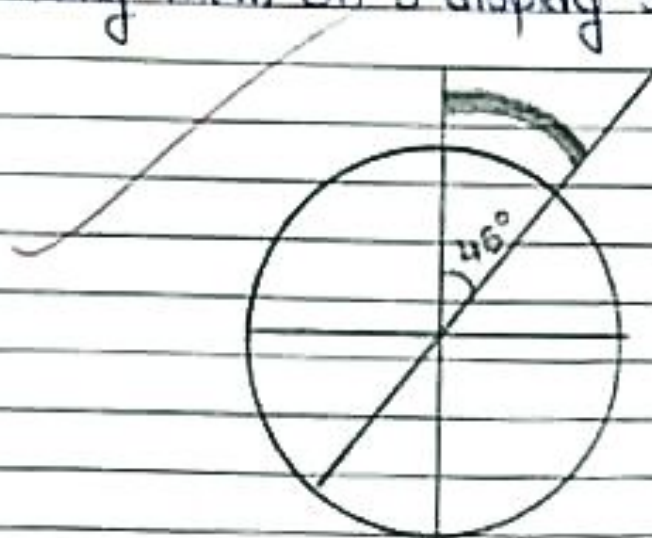
DDA and Bresenham's Line Drawing Algorithm are understood and executed successfully.

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Assignment No. 3

- Title: Implement Bresenham's drawing Algorithm to draw any object. The object should be displayed in all the quadrants with respect to center and radius.
- Theory:

Circles have the property of being highly Symmetrical, which is handy when it comes to drawing them on a display screen.

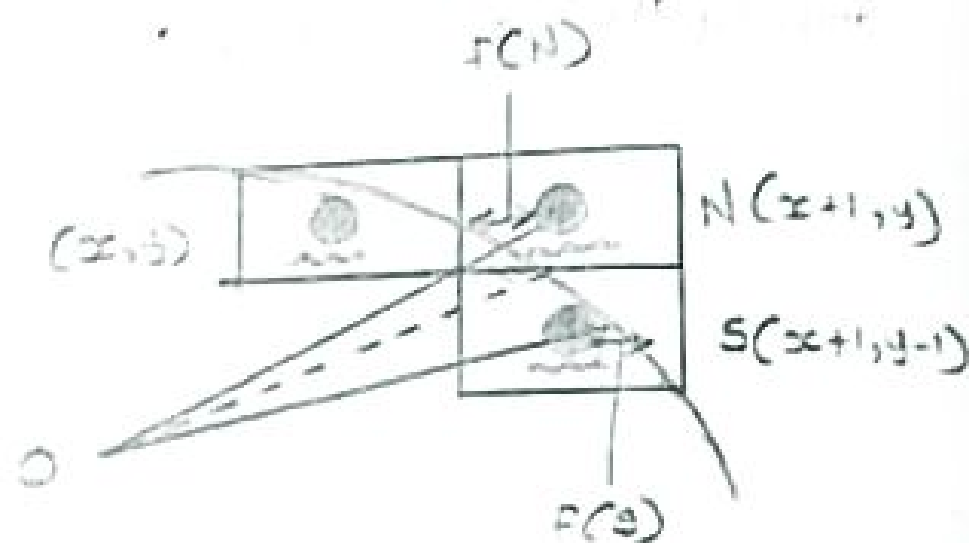


We know that there are 360 degrees in a circle. First we see that a circle is symmetrical about the x-axis, so only the first 180 degrees need to be calculated. Next, we see that it's also symmetrical about the y-axis, so now we only need to be calculated the first 90 degrees. Finally, we see that the circle is also symmetrical about the 45 degree diagonal axis, so we only need to calculate the first 45 degrees.

```
putpixel(centerx+x, centery+y)
putpixel(centerx-x, centery-y)
```

putpixel (center $x-x$, center $y+y$)
 putpixel (center $x-x$, center $y-y$)
 putpixel (center $x+y$, center $y+y$)
 putpixel (center $x+y$, center $y-y$)
 putpixel (center $x-y$, center $y+y$)
 putpixel (center $x-y$, center $y-y$)

Now consider a very small continuous arc of the circle interpolated below, passing by the discrete pixels as shown:



As can be easily intercepted, the continuous arc of the circle cannot be plotted on a raster display device, but has to be approximated by testing choosing the pixels to be highlighted. At any point (x, y), we have two choices - to choose the pixel on east of it, i.e. N(x+1, y) or the south east pixels S(x+1, y-1). To choose the pixel, we determine the errors involved with both N & S which are f(N) and f(S) respectively and whichever gives the lesser errors, we choose that pixel.

Let $d = f(N) + f(S)$, where d can be called as "decision parameter", so that if $d \leq 0$, then

$N(x+1, y)$ is to be chosen as next pixel i.e. $x_{i+1} = x_i + 1$ and $y_{i+1} = y_i$,
and

If $d_i > 0$, then, $S(x+1, y-1)$ is to be chosen as next pixel i.e. $x_{i+1} = x_i + 1$ and $y_{i+1} = y_i - 1$

Algorithm:

Step 1: Start Algorithm

Step 2: Declare p, q, x, y, r, d variables
 p, q are coordinates of the center of the circle r is the radius of the circle.

Step 3: Enter the value of r

Step 4: calculate $d = 3 - 2r$

Step 5: Initialize $x = 0, y = r$

Step 6: check if the whole circle is Scan Converted

If $x \geq y$
Stop.

Step 7: plot eight points by using concepts of eight-way symmetry. The center is at (p, q) current active pixel is (x, y)
 $\text{putpixel}(x+p, y+q)$
 $\text{putpixel}(y+p, x+q)$

putpixel $(-y+p, x+q)$
 putpixel $(-x+p, y+q)$
 putpixel $(-x+p, -y+q)$
 putpixel $(-y+p, -x+q)$
 putpixel $(y+p, -x+q)$
 putpixel $(x+p, -y+q)$

Step 8: Find location of next pixels to be scanned

IF $d < 0$
 then $d = d + 4x + 6$
 increment $x = x + 1$
 IF $d \geq 0$
 then $d = d + 4(x - y) + 10$
 increment $x = x + 1$
 decrement $y = y - 1$

Step 9: Go to Step 6.

Step 10: Stop Algorithm

• Conclusion:

Bresenham's circle drawing algorithm understood and implemented successfully.

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Assignment No. 4

- Implement the following pt polygon filling methods
- Theory:

A convex polygon is simple polygon (not self-intersecting) in which no line segment between two points on the boundary ever goes outside the polygon. Equivalently, it is a simple polygon whose interior is a convex set. In a convex polygon, all interior angles are less than or equal to 180 degrees, while in a strictly convex polygon all interior angles are strictly less than 180 degrees.

A simple polygon which is not convex is called concave.

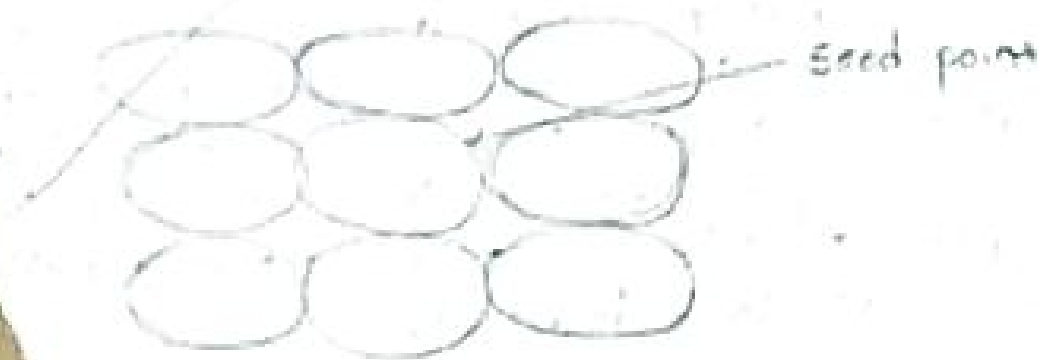
Seed Filling:

In this method a particular seed points is picked and we start filling upwards and downwards pixels until boundary is reached. Seed fill method is of two types: Boundary Fill and Flood Fill.

Boundary Fill Algorithm:

In Boundary Fill Algorithm a seed point is fixed, and then neighbouring pixels are checked to match with the boundary color. Then, color filling is done.

until boundary is reached. A region may be 4 connected or 8 connected



Procedure for filling 4-connected region:
color is pre specified by parameter fill color
(f-color) and boundary color is specified by bound
color (b-color). getpixel() function gives the color
of specified pixel and putpixel() fills the pixel with
particular color.

```
boundary_Fill(x, y, f_color, b_color)
```

```
{  
if (getpixel(x, y) != b_color && getpixel(x, y) != f_color)  
putpixel(x, y, f_color)
```

```
boundary_Fill(x+1, y, f_color, b_color);
```

```
boundary_Fill(x, y+1, f_color, b_color);
```

```
boundary_Fill(x-1, y, f_color, b_color);
```

```
boundary_Fill(x, y-1, f_color, b_color);
```

```
}
```

```
}
```


Flood Fill algorithm:

There are some cases where the boundary color is different than the fill color by examining the colors of neighboring pixels. But instead of matching it with a boundary color a specified color is matched.

procedure for filling a 8-connected region:

```
Flood-Fill (Cx, y, old_color, new_color)
{
    putpixels (Cx, y, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx+1, y, old_color, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx-1, y, old_color, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx, y+1, old_color, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx+1, y+1, old_color, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx+1, y-1, old_color, new_color)
    Flood-Fill (Cx-1, y+1, old_color, new_color)
}
```

Disadvantages of Seed Fill Algorithm:

- 1) If an inside pixel is the same other color then the fill terminates and the polygon remains unfilled.
- 2) Seed fill method does not work for large polygons.

Conclusion:

- Successfully executed Seed fill algorithm and Boundary fill algorithm to draw a convex polygon and fill with desired.

Assignment No. 5.

- Title : Implement Cohen Sutherland polygon clipping method to clip the polygon with respect to the viewport and window. Use mouse click, keyboard interface.

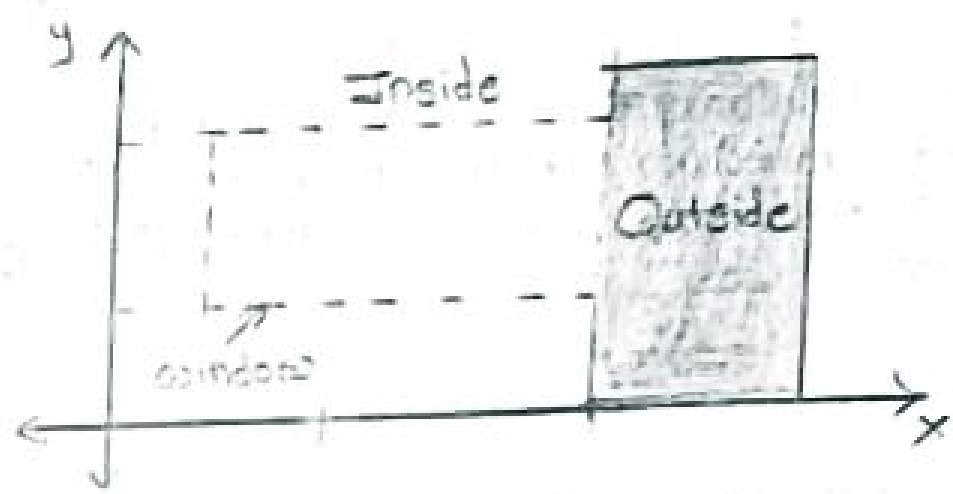
- Theory :

Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

The Cohen-Sutherland line clipping algorithm quickly detects and dispenses with two common and trivial cases. To clip a line, we need to consider only its endpoints. If both endpoints of line lie inside the window, the entire line lies inside the window. It is trivially accepted and needs no clipping. On the other hand, if both endpoints of a line lie entirely to one side of the window, the line must lie entirely outside of the window. It is trivially rejected and needs to be neither clipped nor displayed.

Inside-outside Window codes.

To determine whether endpoints are inside or outside a window, the algorithm sets up a half space code for each endpoint. Each edge of the window defines an infinite line that divides the whole space into two half spaces, the inside half-space and the outside half space, as shown below:



As you processed around the window, extending each edge and defining an inside half-space and an outside half-space, nine regions are created - the eight "outside" regions and the one "inside" region. Each of the nine regions associated with the window is assigned a 4 bit code to identify the region. Each of the nine regions associated with the window is assigned a 4-bit code to either a 1 (true) or a 0 (false). If the region is to the left of the window, the first bit of the code is set to 1. If to the right, the third bit is set, or if to the bottom, the fourth bit is set. The 4 bit in the code then identify each of the nine regions as shown below.

1001	0001	0101
1000	0000	0100
0100	window	
0000	0010	0110

For any endpoint (x, y) of a line, the code can be determined that identifies which region the endpoints lies. The code's bits are set according to the following conditions:

- First bit set 1: point lies to left of window
 $x < x_{min}$
- Second point bit set 1: point lies to right to window
 $x > x_{max}$
- Third bit set 1: Point lies below (bottom) window
 $y < y_{min}$
- Fourth set bit set 1: Point lies above (top) window
 $y > y_{max}$

The sequence for reading the codes bits is LRBT (Left, Right, Bottom, Top)

once the codes for each point of a line are determined, the logical AND operation of the codes determines if the line is completely outside of the window. If the logical AND of end points is not zero, the line can be trivially rejected. For example, if if an endpoint had a code of 1001 while the other endpoint had a code of 1010, the logical AND would be 1000. Had codes of 1001 and 0110, the logical AND would be 0000, and the line could not be trivially rejected.

The logical OR of the endpoints codes determines if the line is completely inside the window. If the logical OR is zero, the line can be trivially accepted. For example, if the endpoints codes are 0000 and 0000, the logical OR is 0000 - the line can be trivially accepted. If the endpoints codes are 0000 and 0110, the logical OR is 0110 and the line can not be trivially accepted.

Algorithm:

The Cohen-Sutherland algorithm uses a divide and conquer strategy. The line segment's endpoints are tested to see if the line can be trivially accepted or rejected, if the line cannot an intersection of the line with a window edge is determined and the trivial reject/accept test is repeated. This process is determined continue until the line is accepted.

To perform the trivial acceptance and rejection tests, we extend the edges of the window to divide the plane of the window into the nine regions. Each end point of the line segment is then assigned the code of the region in which it lies.

1) Given a line segment with endpoint $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$

2) Compute the 4 bit codes for each endpoint

If both codes are 0000, (bitwise OR of the codes yields 0000) line lies completely inside the window: pass the endpoints to the draw routine.

If both codes have a 1 in the same bit position (otherwise AND of the codes is not 0000), the line lies outside the window. It can be trivially rejected.

3. If a line cannot be trivially accepted or rejected at least one of the two endpoints must lie outside the window and the line segment crosses a window edge. This line must be clipped at a window edge before being passed to the drawing routine.

4. Examine one of the endpoints, say $P_1(x_1, y_1)$. Read P_1 's 4 bit code in order: Left to Right, Bottom to Top.

5. When a set bit (1) is found, compute the intersection I of the corresponding window edge with the line from P_1 to P_2 . Replace P_1 with I and repeat the algorithm.

Before clipping

1. Consider the line segment AD. Point A has an outcode of 0000 and point D has an outcode of 1001. The logical AND of these outcodes is 0, therefore, the line cannot be trivially rejected. Also, the logical OR of the outcodes is not zero; therefore, the line cannot be trivially accepted. The algorithm then chooses D as the outside point (its outcode contains 1's). By our testing order, we first use the top edge to clip AD to B. The algorithm then recomputes B's

outside as 0000. When the next iteration of algorithm is tested and its trivially accepted and display.

2. Consider the line segment EJ .

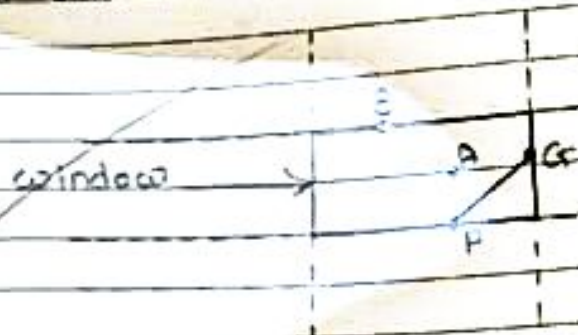
Point E has an outcode of 0100, while point J 's outcode is 1010. The results of the trivial tests show that the line can neither be trivially rejected or accepted. Point E is determined to be an outside point, so the algorithm clips the line against the bottom edge of the window. Now line EJ has been clipped to be line FJ . Line FJ is tested and cannot be trivially accepted or rejected. Point F has an outcode of 0000, so the algorithm chooses point J as an outside point. Since its outcode is 1010. The line FJ is clipped against the



Window's top edge, yielding a new line FH . Line FH cannot be trivially accepted or rejected. Since H 's outcode is 0010, the next iteration of the algorithm clips against the window's right edge, yielding line FG . The next iteration of the algorithm tests FG , and it is trivially accepted and display.

After clipping

After clipping the segments AD and EF, the result is that only the line segments AB and FG can be seen in the window.



• Conclusion:

When Sutherland algorithm is easy to implement algorithm to clip the given line segment against rectangle window.

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Assignment No. 6

- Title : Implement following 2D Transformation on the object with respect to
 - Scaling
 - Rotation about arbitrary point
 - Reflection

Theory :

Transformation means changing some graphics into something else by applying rules. We can have various types of transformations such as translation, scaling up or down, rotation, shearing etc. When a transformation takes place on a 2D plane, it is called 2D transformation.

Transformation play an important role in computer graphics to reposition the graphics on the screen and change their size or orientation.

Homogeneous Coordinates :

To perform a sequence of transformation such as translation followed by rotation and scaling, we need to follow a sequential process :

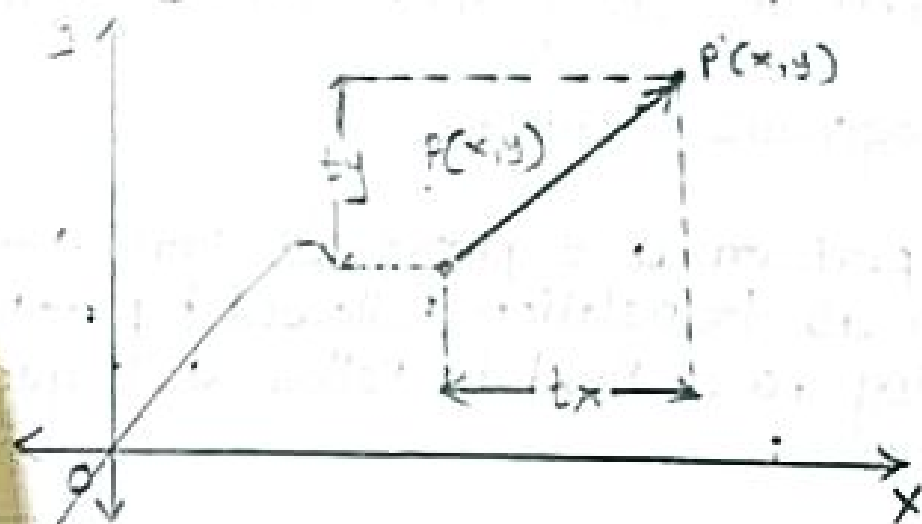
1. Translate the coordinates
2. Rotate the translated coordinates, then
3. Scale the rotated coordinates to complete the composite transformation.

To shorten this process, we have to use 3×3 transformation matrix instead of 2×2 transformation matrix. To convert a 2×2 matrix to 3×3 matrix, we have to add an extra dummy coordinate W .

In this way, we can represent the point by 3 numbers instead of 2 numbers, which is called Homogeneous Coordinate System. In this system, we can represent all transformation equations in matrix multiplication. Any cartesian $P(x, y)$ can be converted to homogeneous coordinates by $P'(x_h, y_h, h)$.

Translation:

A translation moves an object to a different position on the screen. You can translate a point in 2D by adding translation coordinate (t_x, t_y) to the original coordinate (x, y) to get the new coordinate (x', y') .



From the above figure, you can write but:

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= x + t_x \\ y' &= y + t_y \end{aligned}$$

The pair (t_x, t_y) is called the translation vector or shift vector. The above equations can also be represented using the column vectors.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \end{bmatrix}$$

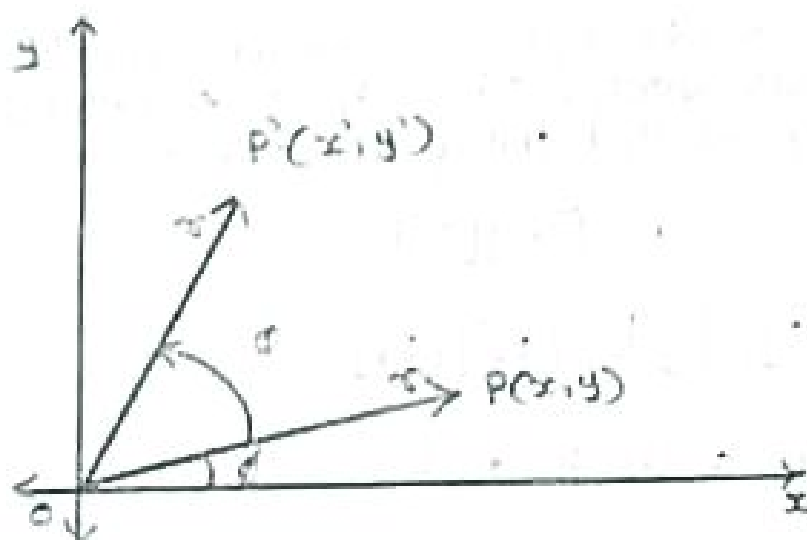
We can write it as :

$$P' = P + T$$

Rotation :

In rotation, we rotate the object at particular angle θ (theta) from its origin. From the following figure, we can see that the point $P(x, y)$ is located at angle ϕ from the horizontal x coordinate with distance r from the origin.

Let us suppose you want to rotate it at the angle θ . After rotating it to a new location, you will get a new point $P'(x', y')$



Using Standard trigonometric the original coordinate of point (x, y) can be represented as:

$$x = r \cos \phi \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$y = r \sin \phi \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

Same way we can represent the point $P'(x', y')$

$$x' = r' \cos(\phi + \theta) = r' \cos \phi \cos \theta - r' \sin \phi \sin \theta \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$y' = r' \sin(\phi + \theta) = r' \cos \phi \sin \theta + r' \sin \phi \cos \theta \quad \dots \quad (4)$$

Substituting equation (1) and (2) in (3) and (4):

$$x' = x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta$$

$$y' = x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta$$

Representing the above equation in matrix form

$$[x' y'] = [x' y'] [\cos \theta - \sin \theta \sin \theta \cos \theta] \text{ OR}$$

$$P' = P \cdot R$$

where R is the rotation matrix

$$R = [\cos \theta - \sin \theta \sin \theta \cos \theta]$$

The rotation angle can be positive and negative.

For positive rotation angle, we can use the above rotation matrix. However, for negative angle rotation, the matrix will change as shown below:

$$R = [\cos(-\theta) - \sin(-\theta) \sin(-\theta) \cos(-\theta)]$$

$$= [\cos \theta \sin \theta - \sin \theta \cos \theta] (\because \cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta \text{ and } \sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta)$$

Scaling :

To change the size of an object, scaling transformation is used. In the scaling process, you either expand or compress the dimensions of the object. Scaling can be achieved by multiplying the original coordinates of the object with the scaling factor to get the desired result.

(33)

Let us assume that the original coordinates are (x, y) , the scaling factors are (S_x, S_y) and the produced coordinates are (x', y') . This can be mathematically represented as shown below:

$$x' = x \cdot S_x \text{ and } y' = y \cdot S_y$$

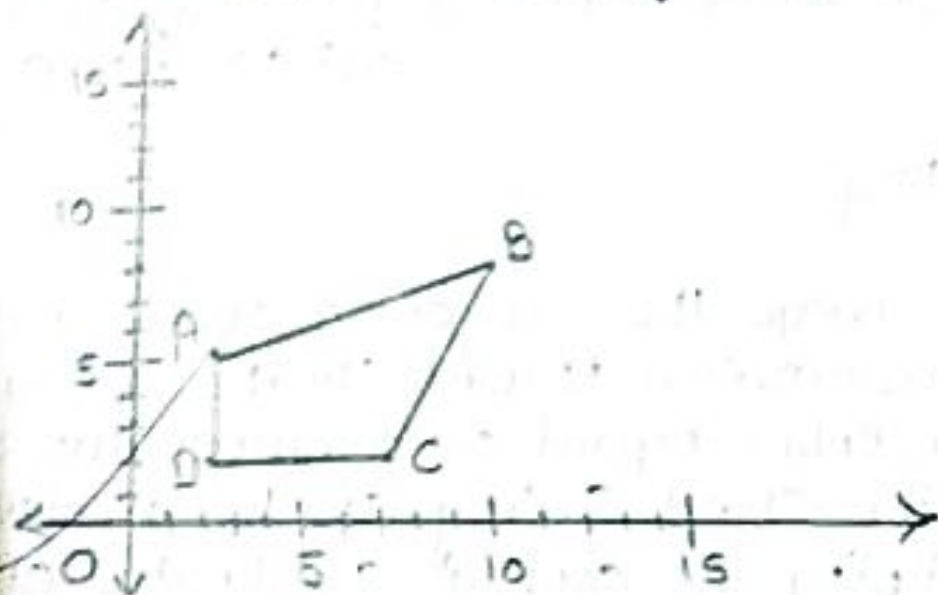
The Scaling Factor S_x, S_y scales the object in x and y direction respectively. The above equations can also be represented in matrix form as below:

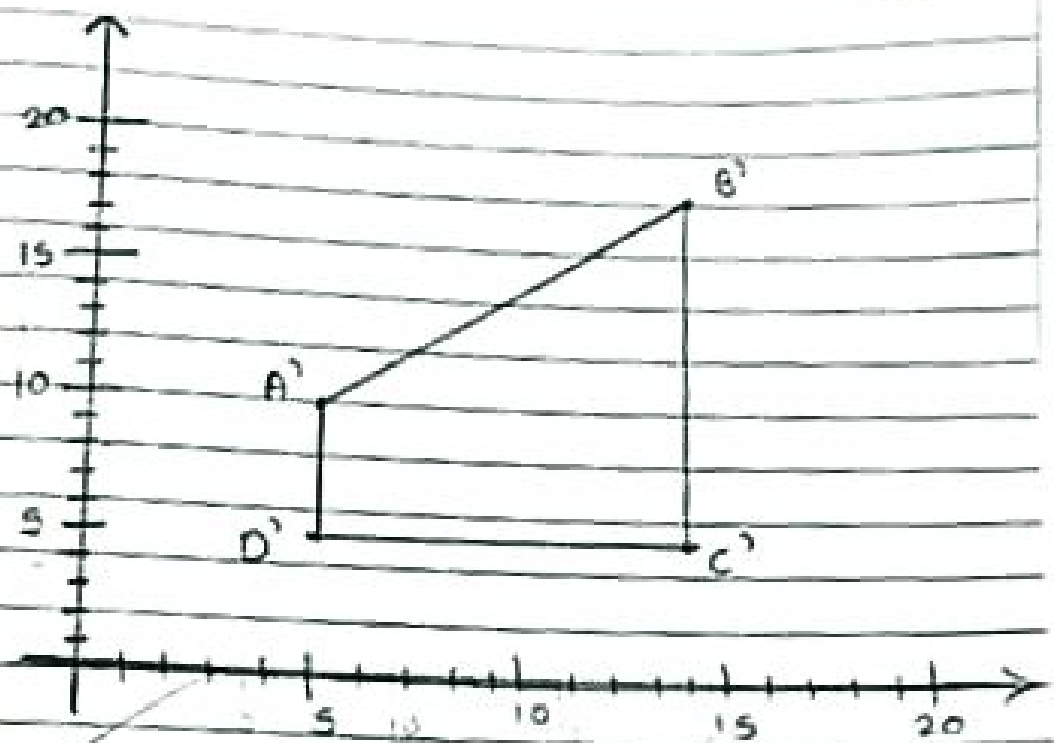
$$(x', y') = (x, y) (S_x \ 0 \ 0 \ S_y)$$

or

$$P' = P \cdot S$$

where S is the scaling matrix. The scaling process is shown in following figure.





Pseudo code:

Algorithm:

1. Start
2. Initialize the graphics mode
3. Construct a 2D object (use Drawpoly())
eg (x, y)
4. A) Translation
 - a. Get the translation value tx, ty
 - b. Move the 2D object with tx, ty
($x' = x + tx$, $y' = y + ty$)
 - c. Plot (x', y')
5. B) Scaling
 - a. Get the scaling value S_x, S_y
 - b. Resize the object with S_x, S_y ($x' = x * S_x$, $y' = y * S_y$)
 - c. Plot (x', y')

6. C) Rotation

a. Let the Rotation angle

b. Rotate the object by the angle ϕ

$$x' = x \cos \phi - y \sin \phi$$

$$y' = x \sin \phi + y \cos \phi$$

c. Plot (x', y')

• Conclusion :

We have learned the 2D transformation on different objects.

Q.

Assignment No. 1

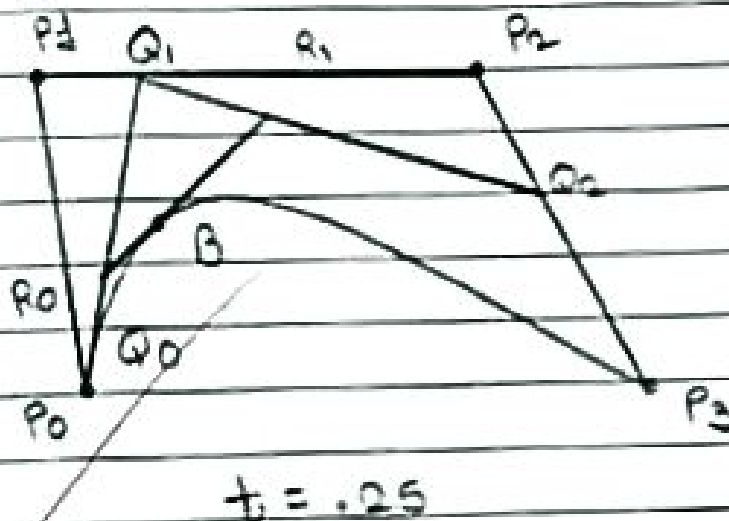
25

- Title: Generate Fractal patterns using
 - a. Bezier Curve
 - b. Koch Curve

Theory:

Bezier Curve:

Bezier curve is a math-mathematically defined curve used in two-dimensional graphic application like Adobe Illustrator, Inkscape etc. The curve is defined by four points: the initial position and the terminating position i.e. P_0 and P_3 respectively (which are called "anchors") and two separate middle points i.e. P_1 and P_2 (which are called "handlers") in our example. Bezier curves are frequently used in computer graphics, animation modelling, etc.



Properties of bezier curves:

They always pass through the first and

last control points.

2. They are contained in the convex hull of their defining control points.

3. The degree of the polynomial defining the curve segment is one less than the number of defining polygon point. Therefore, for 4 control points, the degree of the polynomial is 3, i.e. cubic polynomial.

4. A Bezier curve generally follows the shape of the defining polygon.

5. The direction of the tangent vector at the endpoints is the same as that of the vector determined by the first and last segments.

6. Bezier curves exhibit global control means moving a control points alters the shape of the whole curve.

Koch Curve:

The koch snowflake (also known as the koch curve, koch star, or koch island) is a mathematical curve and one of the earliest fractal curves to have been described. It is based on the koch curve, which appeared in a 1904 paper titled "On a continuous curve without tangents constructible from elementary geometry" by the Swedish

mathematician Helge von Koch.

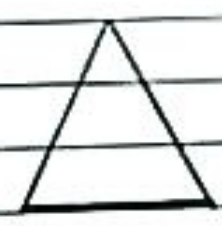
The progression for the area of the snowflake converges to $8/5$ times the area of the original triangle, while the progression for the snowflake's perimeter diverges to ∞ . Consequently, the snowflake has a finite area bounded by an infinity long line.

Construction

Step 1:

Draw an equilateral triangle. You can draw it with a compass or protractor, or just eyeball it if you don't want to spend too much time drawing the snowflake.

It's best if the length of the sides are divisible by 3, because of the nature of this fractal. This will become clear in the next few steps.



Step 2:

Divide each side in three equal parts. This why it is handy to have the sides divisible by three.



Step 3:

Draw an equilateral triangle on each middle point. Measure the length of the middle third to know the length of the sides of these new triangles.



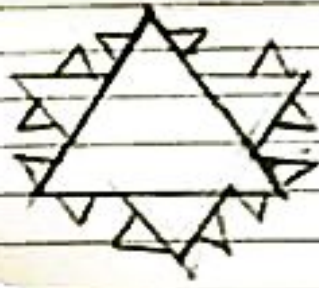
Step 4:

Divide each outer side into thirds. You can see the 2nd generation of triangles covers a bit of the first. These three line segments shouldn't be parted in three.



Step 5:

Draw an equilateral triangle on each middle point.



• Conclusion:

We learned the Bezier and Koch curve.

Q.

Assignment NO. 8.

(11)

- Title: Implement animation principles for any object

- Theory:

Definition of Animation:

Animation is the process of creating an illustration of motion and shape change by means of rapid display of various type of pictures that were made to create a single scene.

Principles of Animation:

There are 12 basic principles of animation, it gives the sense of weight and volume to draw an object.

1. Squash and Stretch:

This is the most important principle of animation, it gives the sense of weight and volume to draw an object.

2. Anticipation:

In this principle animator will create a starting sense like that it shows that something will happen, almost nothing happens suddenly.

3. Staging:

Animator creates such type of scene

like that it shows that something will happen, almost nothing happens suddenly.

4. Straight Ahead:

In this principle, all frames are drawn from beginning to the end and then fill all the interval or scene.

5. Flow-through and overlapping action:

Two objects action have different speed in any scene can easily describe this principle.

6. Slow in slow out:

When an object have maximum acceleration in between and resist to the beginning and end will show and this principles working.

7. Arc:

Arcs are present in almost all animation as no object will follow straight line and follows some arc in its action.

8. Secondary action:

As with one character's action second character move shows the multiple dimension of an animation.

9. Timing

For playing a given action a perfect timing is very important.

10. Exaggeration

This principle creates extra reality in the scene by developing a proper animation style.

11. Solid drawing

In this principle, any object will be created into 3D form to get realistic visualization of scene.

12. Appeal:

Any character need not be as same as any real character but it somewhat seems to be like what which create a proper thinking in the audience's mind.

Function	Description.
initgraph	A initialization the graphics system by loading the passed graphics driver then changing the system into graphic mode.
getmaxx	It returns the maximum X coordinate in current graphics mode and driver.
getmaxy	It returns the maximum X coordinate in current graphics mode and driver.
setcolor	It changes the current drawing colour. Default color is white. Each colour is assigned a number, like Black is 0 and RED is 4. Here we

	one using colour constants define inside graphics.h header file.
setfillstyle	It sets the physical current fill pattern and fill color.
circle	It draws a circle with radius r and center at (x, y) .
line	It draws straight line between two points on screen.
arc	It draws a circular arc from start angle till end angle.
floodfill	It is used to fill a closed area with current fill pattern and fill color. It takes any point inside a closed area and color of the boundary is input.
cleardevice	It clears the screen, and sets current position to $(0, 0)$.
delay	It is used to suspend execution of a program for n milliseconds.
closegraph	It unloads the graphics drivers and sets the screen back to text mode.

- conclusion: Learned the animation on objects using different transformations.

OK