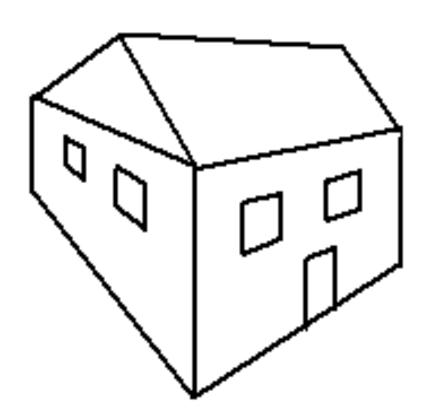
# Computer Graphics COMP H3016

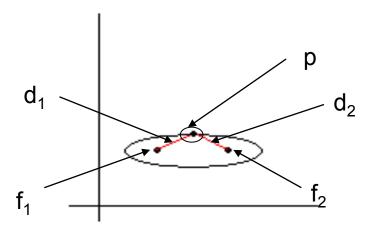
Lecturer: Simon McLoughlin

Lecture 2



# **Output primitives continued - Ellipses**

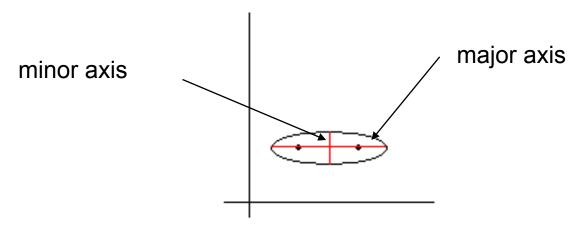
- Informally, an ellipse is an elongated circle
- They are defined as the set of points who's distance from two points in the ellipse called the foci is constant when summed together



• In the diagram above the ellipse is defined as all points in the x-y plane who's distance from  $f_1$  plus the distance from  $f_2$  is equal to  $d_1$ +  $d_2$ 

# **Output primitives - Ellipses**

- A line through the two foci f1, and f2 from one side of the ellipse to the other is called the **major axis** of the ellipse
- A line orthogonal and through the midpoint of the major axis from one ellipse side to the other is called the **minor axis**



• If the major axis and minor axis are oriented to be aligned with the x and y axis (like above) the ellipse is said to be in "standard position"

## **Output primitives - Ellipses**

An ellipse in standard position has equation of the following form

$$\left(\frac{x - x_c}{r_x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y - y_c}{r_y}\right)^2 = 1$$

$$(x_c, y_c)$$

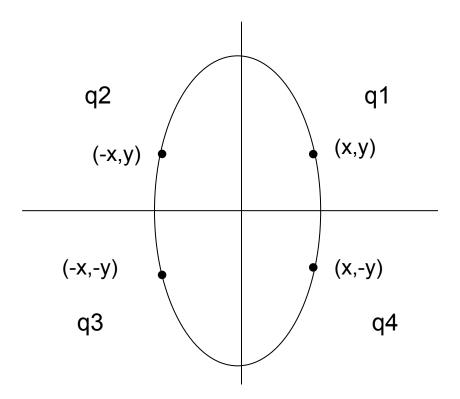
 $\bullet$  r<sub>x</sub> is the semi-major axis and r<sub>y</sub> the semi minor axis, (x<sub>c</sub>,y<sub>c</sub>) the center

# Scan conversion for ellipses – The Ellipse Drawing algorithm

- Now that we have defined what ellipses are and given an equation for an ellipse lets look at **scan converting them**
- •The ellipse drawing algorithm is similar to the circle algorithm
- Given  $(x_c,y_c)$ ,  $r_x$  and  $r_y$  we determine points (x,y) on the ellipse using the equation for an ellipse
- We firstly compute the points for the ellipse with centre  $(x_c, y_c) = (0,0)$  and then add  $(x_c, y_c)$  to the computed coordinates to translate the ellipse
- Ellipses are **only symmetric about the quadrant axis** so we need to compute coordinates for a complete quadrant as opposed to an octant for circles

# What about symmetry?

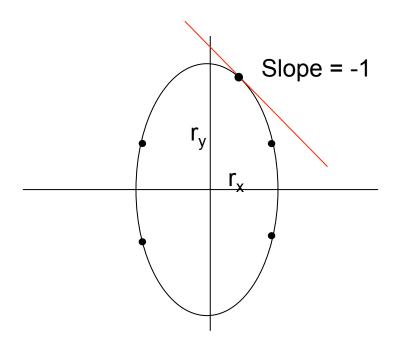
• The shape of the ellipse is similar in each quadrant



• We can use this symmetry so we only need to calculate the positions on the boundary in one quadrant

# Scan conversion for ellipses

- The algorithm is applied through the first quadrant in two parts
- We will only consider ellipses where  $\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{x}} < \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{v}}$  like the one below

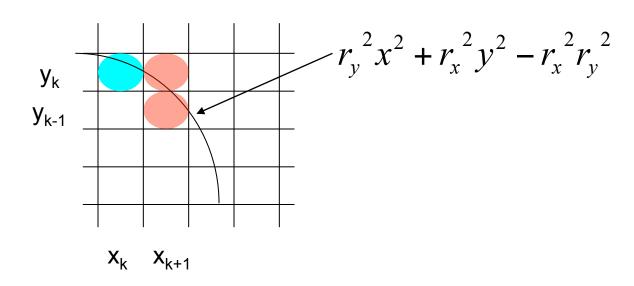


• We start with the point  $(0, r_y)$  and calculate the next pixel position the same way as the circle except using the equation of the ellipse with ellipse center = (0,0)

$$r_{v}^{2}x^{2} + r_{x}^{2}y^{2} - r_{x}^{2}r_{v}^{2}$$

# Scan converting ellipses – The Ellipse drawing algorithm

• Just like the circle all points inside the ellipse have ellipse equation less than zero, all points on the boundary equal to zero and all points outside the ellipse greater than zero



- BUT, each time we calculate the next pixel position we have to evaluate the slope of the tangent of the ellipse also
- When the slope changes to -1 we have to change the increment from an x increment to y decrement and calculate the next x pixel position as  $x_k$  or  $x_{k+1}$

# Scan converting ellipses

The next pixel position changes from:

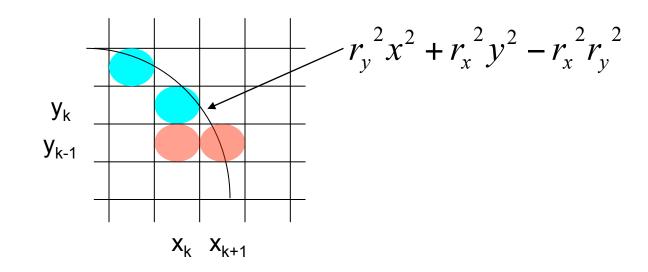
$$f_{ellipse}(x_k + 1, y_k)$$

$$f_{ellipse}(x_k, y_k - 1)$$

$$f_{ellipse}(x_k + 1, y_k)$$

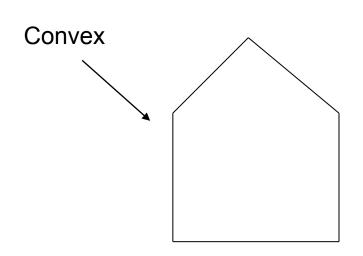
$$f_{ellipse}(x_k + 1, y_k - 1)$$

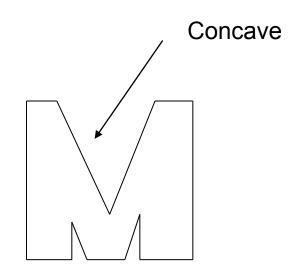
$$f_{ellipse}(x_k + 1, y_k - 1)$$



# **Polygons**

- A polygon is a sequence  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_{n-1}$  vertices (points) where N>=3 and the associated edges  $P_0P_1, P_1P_2, \dots, P_{n-1}P_0$
- Polygons can be classified as concave or convex
- Convex polygons are those where all the interior angles of two edges meeting at a vertex is < 180 degrees
- If two edges meet at a vertex and have an interior angle > 180 degrees the polygon is said to be concave.





# Area of a Polygon

• The area of a polygon (convex or concave) can be computed from the equation below – the vertices  $P_0...P_{n-1}$  should be labeled counter-clockwise

$$2A(P_0....P_{n-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (x_i y_{i+1} - y_i x_{i+1})$$

• We will not go into great detail as to how this equation is derived but suffice to say that the polygon is broken down into a series of triangles and the area of each summed together.

# **Polygon Filling**

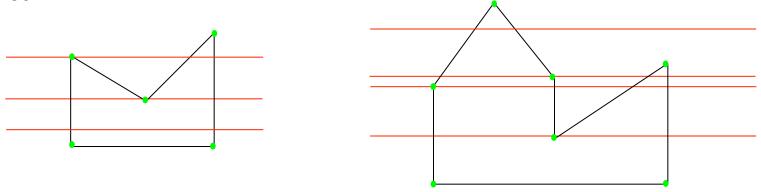
- Polygons can be represented as a structured set of points and the boundary can be displayed by simply plotting the lines between the point representation
- But how do we fill the polygon, that is how do we determine what pixel coordinates should be coloured/filled as part of the polygon
- Techniques to achieve this are called Area or Polygon fill algorithms we will look briefly at one such technique
- Consider the following convex polygon:



• The red lines are the scan lines on a raster display device. By simply noting where the scan line intersects with a polygon edge (line), we can tell if we are inside or outside of the polygon, i.e. cross first edge brings us inside, cross another brings outside etc.

# **Polygon Filling**

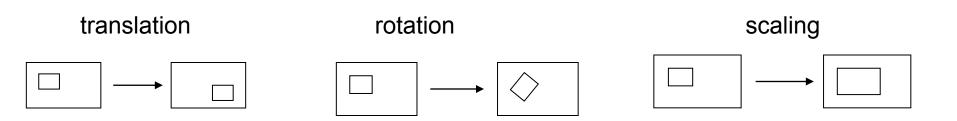
• There are some 'special' cases where this simple technique will not work, consider the following polygons and determine whether the technique will work or not?



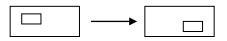
- This simple outside-inside algorithm will work fine for filling the polygon on the left but what about the one on the right
- You should see that it breaks down when the scan line encounters a point connected by two edges where the edges in question, have y values that are monotonically increasing or decreasing
- These points should be treated as a special case and only one edge should be included at these points

#### **Transformations in 2D**

- •We looked at some more output primitives in the form of circles and ellipses and efficient scan conversion techniques for them
- Variations of these algorithms can be applied to other curves as well that we have not looked at like parabolas, hyperbolas, splines etc.
- All these curves and their three dimensional equivalent form the set of output primitives in computer graphics and are the basic building blocks of a scene to be displayed by a graphics device
- Today we will look at how to apply **transformations to these 2-d primitives** and get them to move around the viewing coordinate system the way we would like
- We will firstly look at geometric transformations of objects



#### **Translation**



- A translation is applied to an object by **repositioning it along a straight line path** from one location to another
- ullet A two dimensional point is translated by adding translation distances  $t_x$  and  $t_y$  to the original coordinate positions

$$x' = x + t_{x} \qquad \qquad y' = y + t_{y}$$

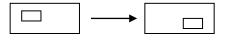
Or in matrix form as,

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

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{T} \qquad \text{Translation equation}$$

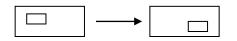
**T** is called the translation vector

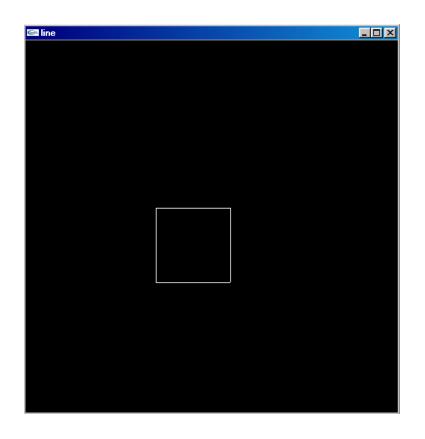
#### **Translation**

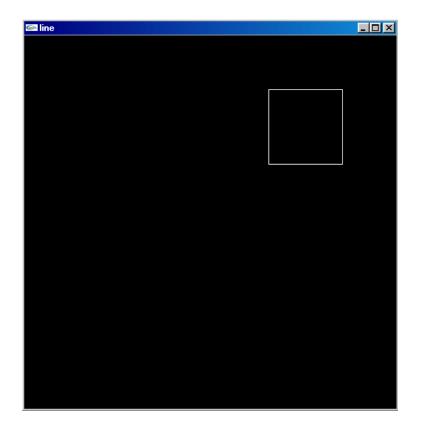


- Translation is known as a **rigid body transformation** and moves objects without deformation
- Lines can be translated by applying the translation equation to **both of the line endpoints and redrawing the line**
- Polygons can be translated by applying the translation equation to each of the vertices and regenerating the polygon using the new vertices
- Circles and ellipses can be translated by applying the translation equation to the center coordinates and redrawing the object in the new location
- Other objects can be translated by applying the translation transformation equations to the parameters defining the object

# **Translation**

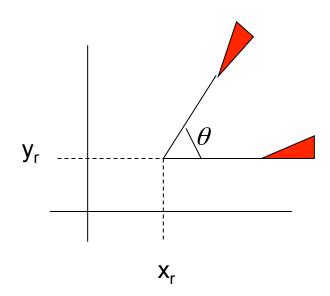






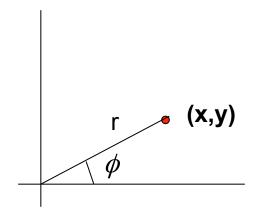
The effect of translating a square in openGL

- A two dimensional rotation is applied to an object by **repositioning it along** a **circular** path in the *x-y* plane
- To generate a rotation we specify a rotation angle  $\theta$ , which is the **amount** by which we wish to rotate the object and a rotation point  $(x_r, y_r)$ , about which the object is to be rotated



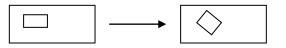


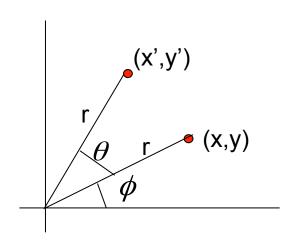
- Positive values of theta define counter clockwise rotations and negative values clockwise rotations
- The transformation equations are **simplified** somewhat if the **rotation point** is at the origin
- Rotations are specified in polar coordinates



$$x = r \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \phi$$





The rotated values (x',y') are given by the equations

$$x' = r\cos(\phi + \theta) \qquad \qquad y' = r\sin(\phi + \theta)$$

Or,

$$x' = r \cos \phi \cos \theta - r \sin \phi \sin \theta$$
  $y' = r \cos \phi \sin \theta + r \sin \phi \cos \theta$ 

• Substituting the equations for x and y into the equations for x' and y' gives the transformation equation for rotating a point at position (x,y) through an angle  $\theta$  about the origin

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

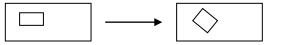
$$y' = x\sin\theta + y\cos\theta$$

Or in matrix form as,

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{P}' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

**R** is called the rotation matrix



• For arbitrary pivot points  $(x_r, y_r)$  the transformation equations become

$$x' = x_r + (x - x_r)\cos\theta - (y - y_r)\sin\theta$$
$$y' = y_r + (x - x_r)\sin\theta + (y - y_r)\cos\theta$$

• The matrix form can be computed accordingly

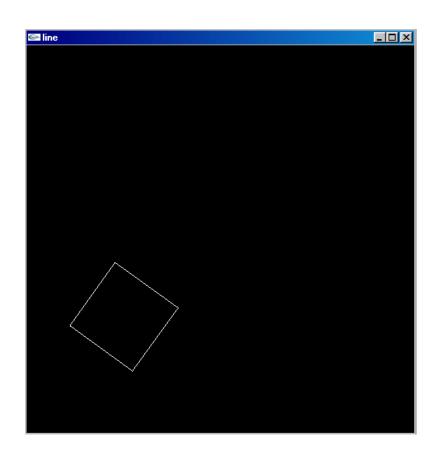
$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} x - x_r \\ y - y_r \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{P}' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$

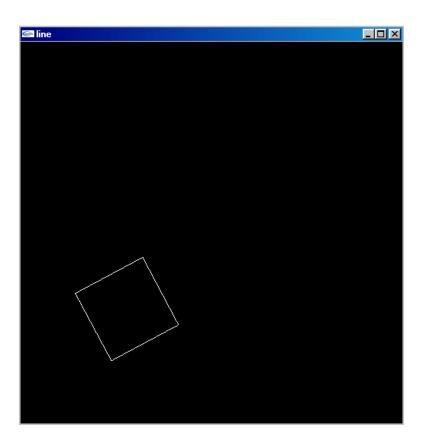
$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{P} + \begin{bmatrix} x_r \\ y_r \end{bmatrix}$$



- Rotation is known as a **rigid body transformation** and moves objects without deformation
- Lines can be rotated by applying the rotation equation to both of the line endpoints and redrawing the line
- Polygons can be rotated by applying the rotation equation to each of the vertices and regenerating the polygon using the new vertices
- Ellipses can be rotated by applying the rotation equation to coordinates defining the major and minor axis
- Curved lines are rotated by repositioning the defining points and redrawing the curves







The effect of rotating a square in openGL



- Scaling is not a rigid body transformation because it changes the size of the object
- Scaling for polygons is possible by multiplying each vertex by scaling factors  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  to produce the scaled coordinate (x',y')

$$x' = x \cdot s_x \qquad \qquad y' = y \cdot s_y$$

Or in matrix form as,

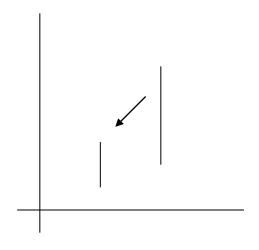
$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 \\ 0 & s_y \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{P}' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

**S** is called the scaling matrix



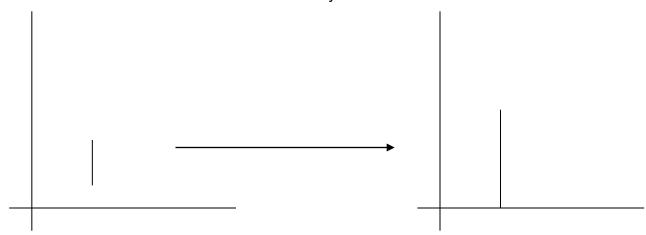
- Values less than 1 for  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  shrink the object, values greater than 1 enlarge the object
- ullet Unequal values of  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  results in differential scaling which can produce new shapes
- Objects transformed with the scaling matrix defined previously are actually scaled and translated
- Scaling coefficients less than one move the object closer to the origin while scaling coefficients greater than one move it further away from the origin than it was previously



A line scaled with previous equations for  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  ( $s_x=s_y=0.5$ )

- This problem can be resolved by choosing a fixed point that is to remain unchanged after the scaling
- Coordinates for this point  $(x_f, y_f)$  can be chosen to be one of the vertices, the object centroid or any other position
- A polygon is then scaled by **applying scaling factors to the distance from each vertex to the fixed point**

A line scaled relative to fixed mid-point  $(s_x=s_y=0.5)$ 





So our new scaling equations relative to a fixed point are:

$$x' = x_f + (x - x_f)s_x$$
  $y' = y_f + (y - y_f)s_y$ 
or

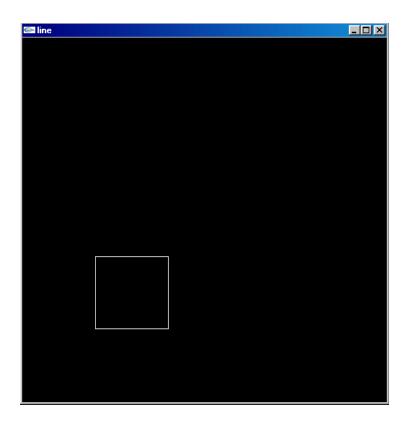
$$x' = x \cdot s_x + x_f (1 - s_x)$$
  $y' = y \cdot s_y + y_f (1 - s_y)$ 

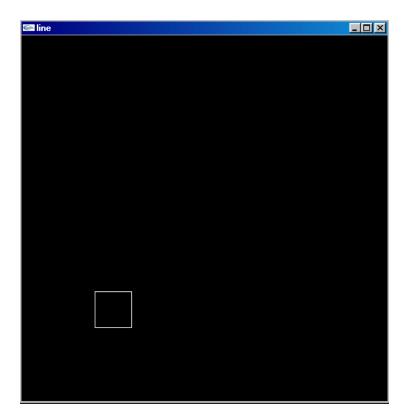
Where  $x_f(1-s_x)$  and  $y_f(1-s_y)$  are constant for all object vertices

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} + \begin{bmatrix} x_f (1 - s_x) \\ y_f (1 - s_y) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Lines can be scaled by applying the scaling equation to both of the line endpoints and redrawing the line
- Polygons can be scaled by applying the scaling equation to each of the vertices and regenerating the polygon using the new vertices
- Ellipses can be scaled by applying the scaling equation to the coordinates defining the major and minor axis
- Circles can be scaled by simply adjusting the radius
- Other objects can be scaled by applying the scaling transformation equations to the parameters defining the object







The effect of scaling a square in openGL

# **Combining transformations**

- Many graphics application involves sequences of transformations
- Imagine an object flying or translating through the air, most of the time it will be spinning or rotating as well
- For these applications we have to apply a number of transformation, one followed by another
- The form of the transformations we have looked at so far is

$$P' = M \cdot P + T$$

- Applying sequences of transformations in this form can involve calculating the transformed coordinates one step at a time or introducing big memory overheads to record previous transformations
- A more efficient approach would be to combine the transformations so the final coordinates are computed directly from the initial coordinates

# **Homogenous coordinates**

 We can achieve this by reformulating the matrix form of our transformations with multiplications only

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{T} \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{h}} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

- Where M above is a transformation matrix
- If we could do this then computing the new coordinates would involve simply multiplying the transformation matrices by one another and the result by the coordinate we want the transformations applied to

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{M}_{h1} \cdot \mathbf{P} \qquad \mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{M}_{h2} \cdot \mathbf{P}'$$

$$\mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{M}_{h2} (\mathbf{M}_{h1} \cdot \mathbf{P}) \longrightarrow \mathbf{P}'' = (\mathbf{M}_{h2} \mathbf{M}_{h1}) \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

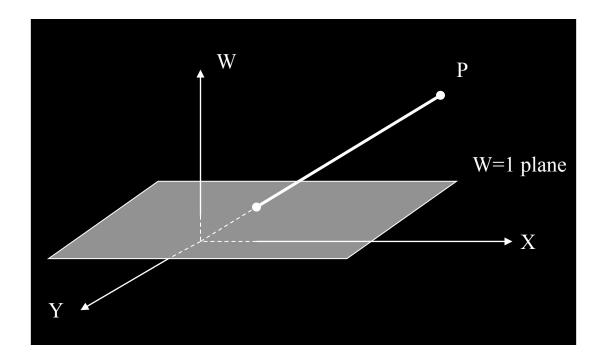
 We can reformulate our equations to use matrix multiplication only by using homogenous coordinates

# **Homogenous coordinates**

- Add an extra coordinate, W, to a point
- P(x,y,W)
- Two sets of homogeneous coordinates represent the same point if they are a multiple of each other
- (2,5,3) and (4,10,6) represent the same point
- At least one component must be non-zero, (0,0,0) is not defined
- If W  $\neq$  0, divide by it to get Cartesian coordinates of point (x/W,y/W,1)
- If W=0, point is said to be at infinity.

# **Homogenous coordinates**

- If we represent (x,y,W) in 3-space, all triples representing the same point describe a line passing through the origin
- If we homogenize the point, we get a point of form (x,y,1)
  - Homogenised points form a plane at W=1.



# Homogenous coordinate representation of Translation

- Now we can represent translations as matrix multiplications
- Coordinate points are now a (x,y,w) triple
- Transformation equations are now 3 x 3

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{aligned} x' &= x + t_x \\ y' &= y + t_y \\ 1 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Or as:

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T}(t_{x}, t_{y}) \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

# Homogenous coordinate representation of Rotation

- We can represent rotation about a fixed pivot as matrix multiplications
- For fixed pivot equal to the coordinate origin we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Or as:

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{R}(\theta) \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

# Homogenous coordinate representation of Rotation

- If the pivot point is not at the origin we can still use the rotation matrix defined for an origin pivot
- We achieve this by firstly translating the object so the pivot point is at the origin
- Applying the rotation about the origin
- Translating the object so the pivot point is returned to it's original position

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_r \\ 0 & 1 & y_r \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x_r \\ 0 & 1 & -y_r \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & x_r (1 - \cos \theta) + y_r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & y_r (1 - \cos \theta) - x_r \sin \theta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Homogenous coordinate representation of Scale

- Note in the previous slide that we multiplied transformation matrices
- Forming products of transformations like this is called concatenation
- Finally the **scaling transformation relative to the coordinate** origin is now expressed as matrix multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Or as

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{S}(s_x, s_v) \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

# **Scaling matrix (arbitrary fixed point)**

**General fixed point scaling** can be achieved the same way general pivot point rotation can be, that is:

- 1. Translate object so fixed point is at the coordinate origin
- 2. Scale the object with respect to the coordinate origin
- 3. Use the inverse translation of step 1 to return the object to its original position

Concatenating the matrices for these three operations produces the required scaling matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_f \\ 0 & 1 & y_f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x_f \\ 0 & 1 & -y_f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & x_f (1-s_x) \\ 0 & s_y & y_f (1-s_y) \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$