

Scan Conversion Algorithms for 2D Output Primitives

Types of Primitives to be Scan Converted

- Straight Lines
- Polygons
- Circles
- Ellipses and Other 2-D Curves
- Text (Characters)

Scan Conversion Algorithms for Drawing Straight Lines

- Task
 - Given pixel coordinates of endpoints
 - P1 (x1,y1) and P2 (x2,y2)
 - Determine which pixels need to be painted
- Criteria
 - Straight as possible between endpoints
 - Constant density (no gaps or bunching)
 - Density independent of orientation
 - Must be fast

Line Equations

- Differential equation:
 $dy/dx = m$ (m=constant: the slope)
- Integrate (indefinite)
 $y = m*x + \text{constant}$
The constant (b) is called y intercept
(value of y when x=0)
- $y = m*x + b$
- “slope-intercept” form

- Integrate between endpoints (definite)-->

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

$$m = (y_2 - y_1)/(x_2 - x_1)$$
 (an operational definition of slope)
- Integrate between endpoint (x_1, y_1) and arbitrary point to be plotted (x, y) -->

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

$$y = m(x - x_1) + y_1$$
 This is the "point-slope" form
 - Compute points (x, y) given a point (x_1, y_1) and the slope of the line

Parametric Form

Express x and y linearly in terms of a parameter, t

$$x = ax^*t + bx$$

$$y = ay^*t + by$$

ax, bx, ay, by are constants to be determined

Let t range between $t=0$, endpoint (x_1, y_1) and $t=1$, endpoint (x_2, y_2)

Determining the constants: Use endpoint values

$$x_1 = ax^*0 + bx \implies bx = x_1$$

$$x_2 = ax^*1 + bx \implies ax = x_2 - x_1$$

$$\text{So } x = (x_2 - x_1)^*t + x_1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

$$\text{And } y = (y_2 - y_1)^*t + y_1$$

Brute Force Line-Drawing Algorithm

Use "point-slope" form

Step in x direction, assume $x_2 > x_1$

(if $x_1 > x_2$, swap the points)

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

num-pts = $x_2 - x_1 + 1$

$x = x_1$

Repeat num-pts times

$y = m * (x - x_1) + y_1$

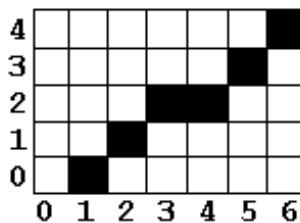
SetPixel(x , round(y))

$x = x + 1$

Problem if $|y_2 - y_1| > |x_2 - x_1|$ --> gaps

$(1, 0)$ to $(6, 4)$

$n = 6 - 1 + 1 = 6$



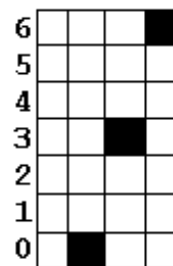
$x_2 - x_1 = 5$

$y_2 - y_1 = 4$

no gaps!

$(1, 0)$ to $(3, 6)$

$n = 3 - 1 + 1 = 3$



$x_2 - x_1 = 2$

$y_2 - y_1 = 6$

gaps!

Solution: Step in y direction

Stepping in y direction

If $|y_2 - y_1| > |x_2 - x_1|$, step in y, assume $y_2 > y_1$

(if $y_1 > y_2$, swap the points):

Compute $inv_m = (x_2 - x_1) / (y_2 - y_1)$

num-pts = $y_2 - y_1 + 1$

$y = y_1$

Repeat num-pts times

$x = inv_m * (y - y_1) + x_1$

SetPixel(round(x), y)

$y = y + 1$

Brute Force line algorithm, continued

- Vertical lines ($x_2 = x_1$)

$y = y + 1$ for each new pixel

x doesn't change

- Horizontal lines ($y_2 = y_1$)

$x = x + 1$

y doesn't change

Brute Force Method is Too Slow

- Each iteration has:
 - floating point multiply
 - floating point add
 - round() operations

Incremental Methods--The Digital Differential Analyzer (DDA)

- Idea: get new point from previous point
- $dy/dx = m \rightarrow \Delta y/\Delta x = m \rightarrow \Delta y = m * \Delta x$
- But $\Delta y = y_{new} - y_{old}$
- And $\Delta x = x_{new} - x_{old}$
 - So $x_{new} = x_{old} + \Delta x$
 - and $y_{new} = y_{old} + \Delta y$
 - i.e., $y_{new} = y_{old} + m * \Delta x$

DDA, continued

- Choose $\Delta x = 1$
 - stepping in x direction
 - Pixel by pixel
- Then compute each new y value
 $y_{\text{new}} = y_{\text{old}} + m$

DDA Algorithm stepping in x, $x_2 > x_1$ (If $x_1 > x_2$, swap the points)

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

num-pts = $x_2 - x_1 + 1$

$x = x_1$

$y = y_1$

Repeat num-pts times

 SetPixel($x, \text{round}(y)$)

$x = x + 1$

$y = y + m$

- As for the Brute force method,
if $|m| > 1$ and we step in x, we get gaps
 - So we can step in y
- DDA Algorithm, stepping in y, $y_2 > y_1$
 - (if $y_1 > y_2$, swap the points):
Compute $inv_m = (x_2 - x_1) / (y_2 - y_1)$
num-pts = $y_2 - y_1 + 1$
 $x = x_1$
 $y = y_1$
Repeat num-pts times
 - SetPixel(round(x),y)
 - $y = y + 1$
 - $x = x + inv_m$

DDA is Better, but Still Not Fast Enough

- Floating point multiply gone from loop
- But loop still has a floating point add
- And a round()
- WE CAN DO BETTER!
- Best performance:
 - Only integer adds/subtracts inside loop

Bresenham's Line-drawing Algorithm

- Used in most graphics packages
- Often implemented in hardware
- Incremental (new pixel from old)
- Uses only integer operations

- **Basic Idea of Bresenham Algorithm:**

- All lines can be placed in one of four categories:

- A. Steep positive slope ($m > 1$)

- B. Gradual positive slope ($0 < m \leq 1$)

- C. Steep negative slope ($m < -1$)

- D. Gradual negative slope ($0 \geq m \geq -1$)

- In each case, there are only 2 choices for the next pixel to be plotted!

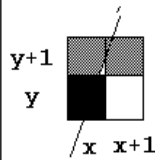
The Four Bresenham Cases



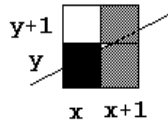
Pixel just plotted
at (x, y)



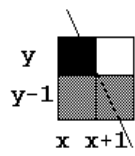
Possible choices
for next pixel



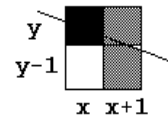
A. steep +m
next point:
 $(x, y+1)$
or
 $(x+1, y+1)$



B. gradual +m
next point:
 $(x+1, y)$
or
 $(x+1, y+1)$

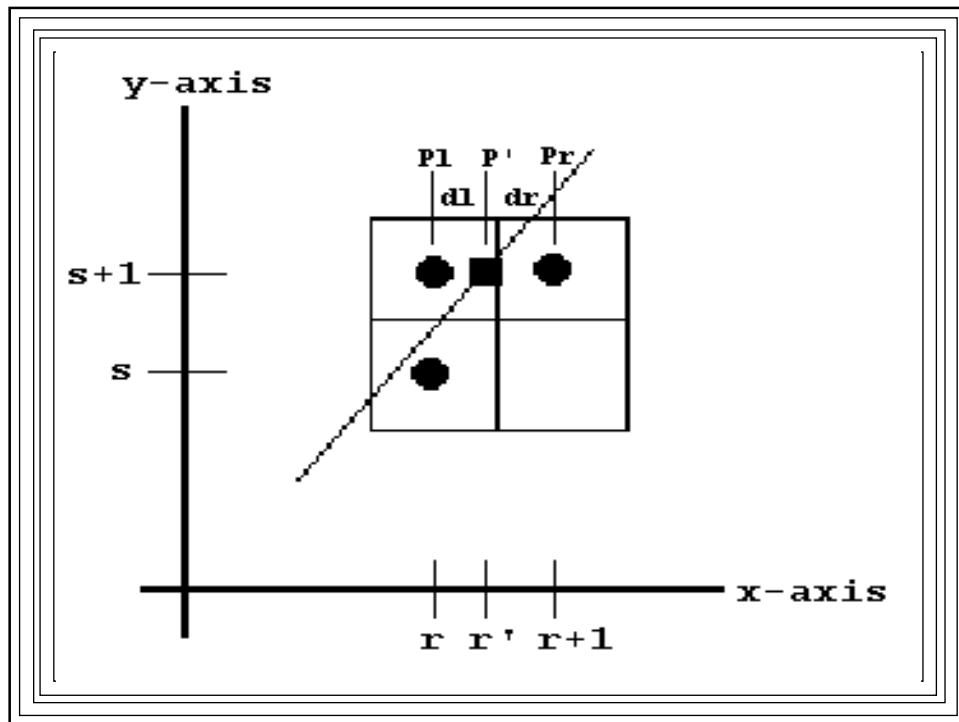


C. steep -m
next point:
 $(x, y-1)$
or
 $(x+1, y-1)$



D. gradual -m
next point:
 $(x+1, y)$
or
 $(x+1, y-1)$

- Look at Case-A (Steep positive slope)
- Also assume P1 is to the left of P2 ($x_1 < x_2$)
 - If not true, points can be swapped
- $\text{delta}_y > \text{delta}_x \implies$ stepping in y

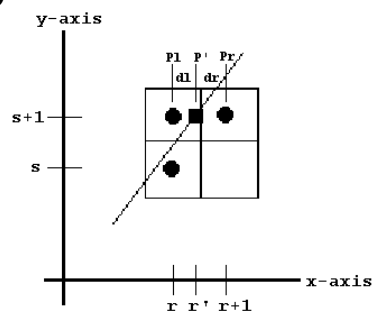


- If $d_l < d_r$,
 - P_l is closer to actual point than P_r
- i.e., if $d_l - d_r < 0$, choose "left" pixel
- Criterion for choosing "left" pixel (P_l) is:

$$d_l - d_r = r' - r - (r + 1 - r') < 0$$

or:

$$d_l - d_r = 2 * r' - 2 * r - 1 < 0$$



But from the equation for a straight line:

$$y = m*x + b$$

$$\text{New } y = s+1$$

$$s+1 = (\Delta y / \Delta x) * r' + b$$

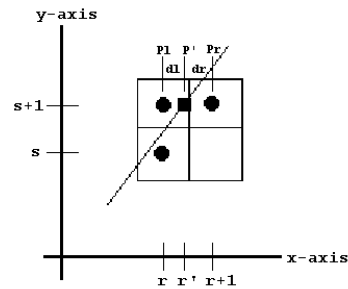
$$r' = (s+1-b) * \Delta x / \Delta y$$

So:

Criterion for choosing PI:

$$dl - dr = 2*r' - 2*r - 1 < 0$$

$$dl - dr = 2*(s+1-b) * \Delta x / \Delta y - 2*r - 1 < 0$$



Result:

$$dl - dr = 2*(s + 1 - b) * \Delta x / \Delta y - 2*r - 1 < 0$$

If $dl - dr$ is negative, choose "left" pixel

Multiply by Δy to get rid of divide operation

(always positive for Case-A lines)

Call result the "predictor", P

$$P = \Delta y * (dl - dr)$$

Result:

$$P = 2 * \Delta x * (s + 1 - b) - 2 * r * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

Divide is gone--but it's still too complex

Bresenham's Contribution

- Try to find a recurrence relation for P
- Call P_n the new value, and P_o the old value
 - Then $P_n = P_o + \Delta P$
- Call s_n & s_o the new & old values of s
- Call r_n & r_o the new & old values of r

Predictor P:

$$P = 2 * \Delta x * (s+1-b) - 2 * r * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

Change in Predictor:

$$\Delta P = P_n - P_o, \text{ so:}$$

$$P_n = P_o + \Delta P$$

Point just plotted: (r_o, s_o)

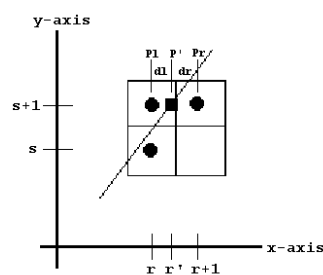
Two cases for new point:

Left case ($r_n = r_o$ and $s_n = s_o + 1$)

Right case ($r_n = r_o + 1$ and $s_n = s_o + 1$)

For both cases:

$$P_o = 2 * \Delta x * (s_o + 1 - b) - 2 * r_o * \Delta y - \Delta y$$



Predictor P: $P = 2 * \Delta x * (s+1-b) - 2 * r * \Delta y - \Delta y$

New Point Left Case (ro,so+1):

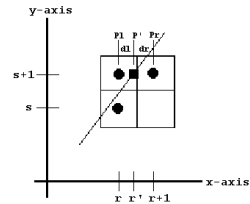
$$P_n = 2 * \Delta x * ((s_o+1)+1-b) - 2 * r_o * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

$$P_o = 2 * \Delta x * (s_o+1-b) - 2 * r_o * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

Subtracting P_o from P_n gives ΔP

Result:

$$\Delta P = 2 * \Delta x$$



New Point Right Case (ro+1,so+1):

$$P_n = 2 * \Delta x * ((s_o+1)+1-b) - 2 * (r_o+1) * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

$$P_o = 2 * \Delta x * (s_o+1-b) - 2 * r_o * \Delta y - \Delta y$$

Again subtracting P_o from P_n gives ΔP :

$$\Delta P = 2 * (\Delta x - \Delta y)$$

- Both results are very simple (Integers!!)
- Look at current value of the predictor:

If ($P < 0$) // left case

$$P = P + 2 * \Delta x$$

$$x = x$$

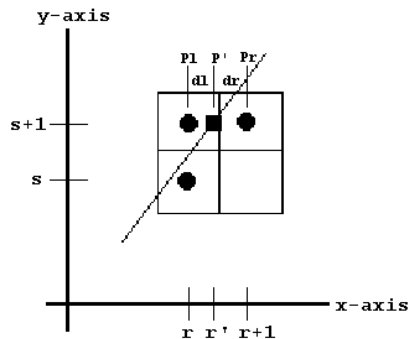
$$y = y + 1$$

If ($P > 0$) // right case

$$P = P + 2 * (\Delta x - \Delta y)$$

$$x = x + 1$$

$$y = y + 1$$



- But to start things off, we need an initial value P_0 of the predictor
- Substitute left-hand endpoint (x_1, y_1) into predictor definition:

$$P = 2 \cdot \Delta x \cdot (s+1-b) - 2 \cdot r \cdot \Delta y - \Delta y \implies$$

$$P_0 = 2 \cdot \Delta x \cdot (y_1+1-b) - 2 \cdot x_1 \cdot \Delta y - \Delta y$$

- And use fact that (x_1, y_1) is on line:

$$\text{i.e., } y_1 = (\Delta y / \Delta x) \cdot x_1 + b$$

$$P_0 = 2 \cdot \Delta x \cdot ((\Delta y / \Delta x) \cdot x_1 + b + 1 - b) - 2 \cdot x_1 \cdot \Delta y - \Delta y$$

$$P_0 = 2 \cdot \Delta y \cdot x_1 + 2 \cdot \Delta x - 2 \cdot x_1 \cdot \Delta y - \Delta y$$

- Result: $P_0 = 2 \cdot \Delta x - \Delta y$

Case-A Bresenham Algorithm (Steep positive slope)

```

If (x1 > x2) swap endpoints;
del_x = x2 - x1; del_y = y2 - y1;
P = 2 * del_x - del_y;
cleft = 2 * del_x; cright = 2 * del_x - 2 * del_y;
x = x1; y = y1; num_pts = |del_y| + 1;
Repeat num_pts times
  SetPixel(x,y); y = y + 1;
  If (P < 0)
    P = P + cleft;
  Else
    {P = P + cright; x = x + 1;}

```

- Can be generalized to handle Case-C (steep negative slope) lines
- Compute $sd_y = \text{sign}(\Delta y)$
 - = 1 if $y_2 > y_1$
 - = -1 if not
- Then, in definition of P and c_{right} :
 - Replace Δy with $sd_y * \Delta y$
 - Replace $y = y + 1$ with $y = y + sd_y$
- Then both Case-A and Case-C lines are handled

More Info on Bresenham Line-drawing Algorithm

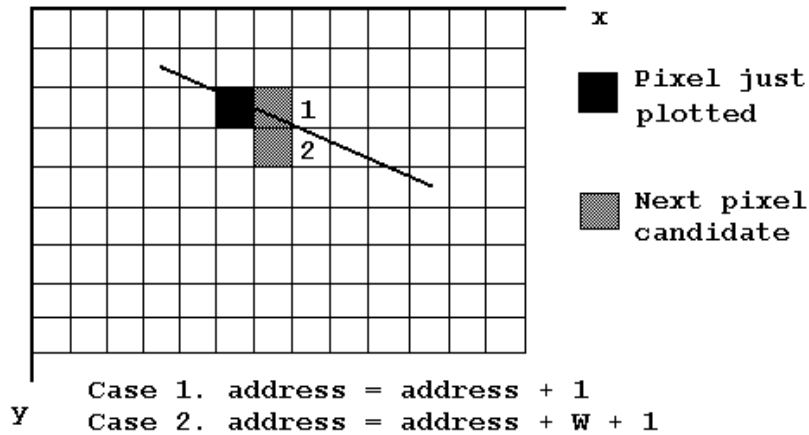
- See Hearn & Baker Text Book
- Section 3-1 (pages 88-95)
- Specifically Case-B lines

Speeding Up Bresenham

- Bresenham's algorithm calls SetPixel()
- Not optimized
 - SetPixel(x,y) must work for any pixel
 - For W x H screen, Address = W*y + x
 - Multiply involved (even though hidden)
- Bresenham: We know next pixel is one of two choices
- Faster to access frame buffer directly using addresses -- not values of x and y

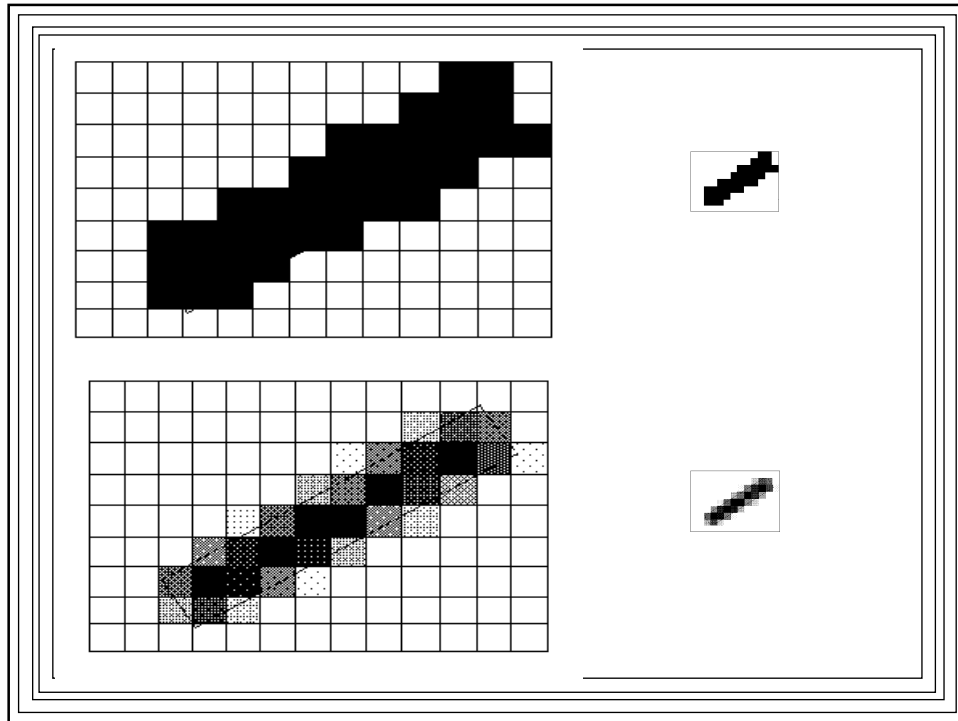
- Assume Row major order
- Take advantage of symmetry
- Store addresses instead of coordinates (x,y)
- Example: W x H x 256 direct color mode
 - One byte per pixel
 - Byte Address = W*y + x
 - Look at Case A (gradual +m)
 - Only integer add needed

Case A Line (gradual +m)



Aliasing (Jaggies)

- Inherent in Raster Scan systems
- Anti-aliasing technique for grayscale:
 - Consider broad line covering several pixels
 - Border pixels
 - Set intensity proportional to % of pixel inside line
 - Produces blurring
 - Looks less jagged
 - But must compute areas (compute intensive)
 - Can use statistical sampling instead



Polyline Algorithm

```

Polyline (POINT *p, int n)
{
  int xo, yo, xn, yn;
  if (n==0) return;
  xo=p[0].x; yo=p[0].y;
  if (n==1) {SetPixel(xo, yo); return;}
  for (i=1; i<n; i++)
    {xn=p[i].x; yn=p[i].y;
     Line(xo,yo,xn,yn);
     xo=xn; yo=yn;}
}

```

Calling the Polyline Algorithm

```
POINT pt[3];  
pt[0].x=50; pt[0].y=10;  
pt[1].x=250; pt[1].y=50;  
pt[2].x=125; pt[2].y=130;  
Polyline(pt,3);
```

Scan Converting Circles

Given:

Center: (h,k)

Radius: r

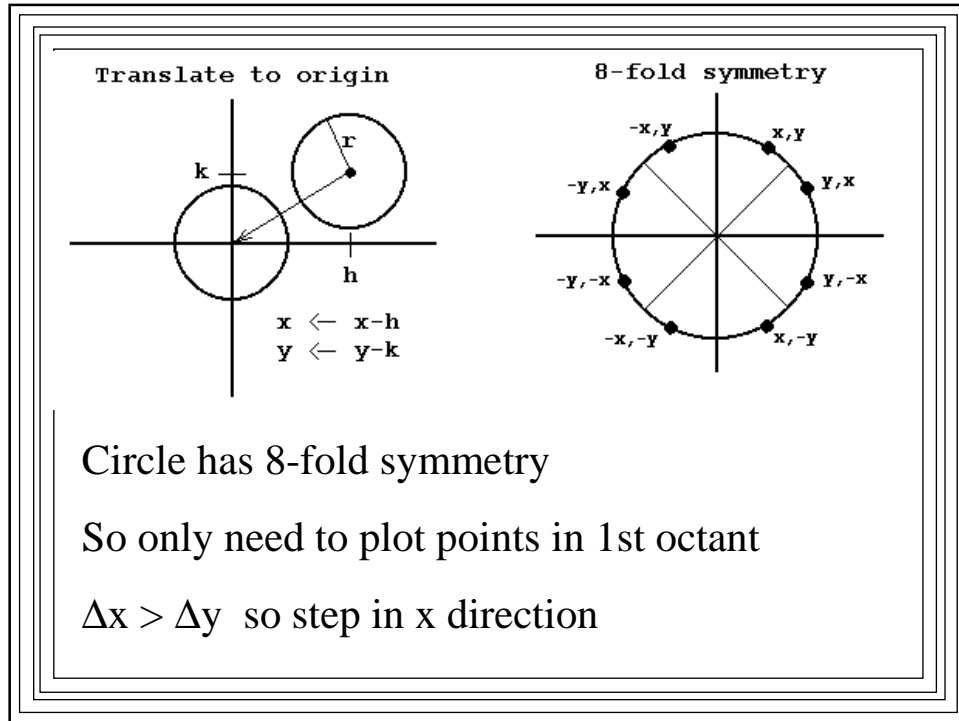
Equation:

$$(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2 = r^2$$

To simplify we'll translate origin to center

Simplified Equation:

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



Brute Force Circle Algorithm

Suppose we have a Set8pixel() routine

$x_{fin} = 0.707 * r$

For (x=0; x<=xfin ; x++)

{

 y = SQRT(r*r - x*x);

 Set8Pixel(round(x), round(y));

}

TOO SLOW!!

The Set8Pixel(x,y) routine

```
SetPixel(x,y);  
SetPixel(x,-y);  
SetPixel(-x,y);  
SetPixel(-x,-y);  
SetPixel(y,x);  
SetPixel(y,-x);  
SetPixel(-y,x);  
SetPixel(-y,-x);
```

Could Use Parametric Equations

```
for (theta=90; theta<=45; theta- -)  
{  
  x = r*cos(theta);  
  y = r*sin(theta);  
  Set8Pixel(round(x), round(y));  
}
```

EVEN SLOWER!

DDA Circle Approximation

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

Take Derivative:

$$2*x+2*y*(dy/dx) = 0$$

$$dy = (-x/y)*dx$$

Step in x direction (dx=1)

$$dy = -x/y$$

$$y = y + dy \text{ (approximation)}$$

DDA Circle Algorithm

x=0; y=r;

xfin=0.707*r;

while (x<=xfin)

{

Set8Pixel(round(x), round(y));

y = y - (x/y);

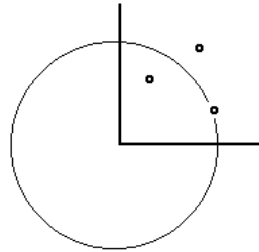
x = x + 1;

}

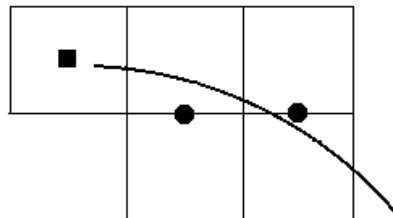
Floating Pt. Divide--STILL TOO SLOW!

Midpoint Circle Algorithm

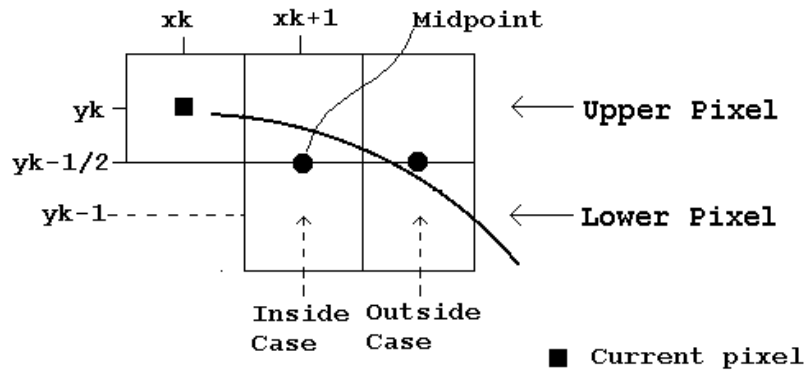
- Extension of Bresenham ideas
- Circle equation: $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$
- Define a circle function:
$$f = x^2 + y^2 - r^2$$
- $f=0 \implies (x,y)$ is on circle
- $f<0 \implies (x,y)$ is inside circle
- $f>0 \implies (x,y)$ is outside circle



- We've just plotted (x_k, y_k)
- $(\Delta x > \Delta y)$, so we're stepping in x
- Next pixel is either:
 $(x_k + 1, y_k)$ -- the "top" case or
 $(x_k + 1, y_k - 1)$ -- the "bottom" case
- Look at midpoint



Midpoint Circle Choices



Inside: $f < 0 \implies$ choose upper pixel
 Outside: $f > 0 \implies$ choose lower pixel

- Evaluate f at midpoint
 $(x=x_k+1, y=y_k-1/2)$
- Define Predictor: $P_k = f(x_k+1, y_k-1/2)$
 $P_k < 0 \implies$ inside (choose top pixel)
 $P_k > 0 \implies$ outside (choose bottom pixel)
 $P_k = (x_k+1)^2 + (y_k-1/2)^2 - r^2$
- $P_k = x_k^2 + 2x_k + 5/4 + y_k^2 - y_k - r^2$
- As for Bresenham, try to get a recurrence relation for P

- Top Case ($x_{k+1} = x_k + 1$, $y_{k+1} = y_k$):

$$P_{k+1} = f(x_{k+1} + 1, y_{k+1} - 1/2)$$

$$\text{But } x_{k+1} = x_k + 1 \text{ and } y_{k+1} = y_k$$

$$\text{So } P_{k+1} = ((x_k+1) + 1)^2 + (y_k - 1/2)^2 - r^2$$

$$P_{k+1} = (x_k+2)^2 + (y_k - 1/2)^2 - r^2$$

$$P_{k+1} = x_k^2 + 4x_k + 4 + y_k^2 - y_k + 1/4 - r^2$$

$$\text{But, } P_k = x_k^2 + 2x_k + 5/4 + y_k^2 - y_k - r^2$$

$$\Delta P_k = P_{k+1} - P_k$$

$$\text{So } \Delta P_k = 2x_k + 3, \quad \text{But } x_{k+1} = x_k + 1$$

$$\text{So } \Delta P_k = 2x_{k+1} + 1$$

- Bottom Case ($x_{k+1} = x_k + 1$, $y_{k+1} = y_k - 1$):

$$P_{k+1} = f(x_{k+1} + 1, y_{k+1} - 1/2)$$

- $P_{k+1} = ((x_k+1) + 1)^2 + ((y_k-1) - 1/2)^2 - r^2$

$$= (x_k+2)^2 + (y_k - 3/2)^2 - r^2$$

$$= x_k^2 + 4x_k + 4 + y_k^2 - 3y_k + 9/4 - r^2$$

$$\text{But } P_k = x_k^2 + 2x_k + 5/4 + y_k^2 - y_k - r^2$$

$$\Delta P_k = P_{k+1} - P_k$$

$$\text{So } \Delta P_k = 2x_k - 2y_k + 5$$

$$\Delta P_k = 2(x_{k+1} - y_{k+1}) + 1$$

- Initial P:

$P_0 (x_0=0, y_0=r)$

$P_0 = (x_0 + 1)^2 + (y_0 - 1/2)^2 - r^2$

$P_0 = 5/4 - r \rightarrow 1-r$ (rounding to integer)

Midpoint Circle Algorithm

$x=0; y=r; P=1-r;$

Set8Pixel(x,y);

while (x<y)

{

$x = x + 1; \text{Set8Pixel}(x,y);$

if (P < 0)

$P = P + x \ll 1 + 1;$

else

$\{ y = y - 1; P = P + (x-y) \ll 1 + 1; \}$

}