KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)
(Established under Section 3 of UGC Act,1956)

Department of Computer Sciece, Computer Appication & Information Technology

Syllabus

COMPUTER GRAPHICS **4H – 4C**

Instruction Hours / week: L: 4 T: 0 P: 0 **Marks:** Int : **40** Ext : **60** Total: **100**

SCOPE

This course presents an introduction to computer graphics designed to give the student an overview of fundamental principles. The course will include an overview of common graphics hardware, 2D and 3D transformations and viewing, and basic raster graphics concepts such as scan-conversion, and clipping. Methods for modeling objects as polygonal meshes or smooth surfaces, and as rendering such as hidden-surface removal, shading, illumination, and shadows will be investigated.

OBJECTIVES

- Have a knowledge and understanding of the structure of an interactive computer graphics system, and the separation of system components.
- Have a knowledge and understanding of geometrical transformations and 3D viewing.
- Be able to create interactive graphics applications.
- Have a knowledge and understanding of techniques for representing 3D geometrical objects.
- Have a knowledge and understanding of the fundamental principles of local and global illumination models.

UNIT-I

Introduction: Basic elements of Computer graphics, Applications of Computer Graphics.

UNIT-II

Graphics Hardware: Architecture of Raster and Random scan display devices, input/output devices.

UNIT-III

Fundamental Techniques in Graphics : Raster scan line, circle and ellipse drawing, thick primitives, Polygon filling, line and polygon clipping algorithms, 2D and 3D Geometric

Transformations, 2D and 3D Viewing Transformations (Projections- Parallel and Perspective), Vanishing points.

UNIT-IV

Geometric Modeling: Representing curves & Surfaces.

UNIT V

Visible Surface Determination: Hidden surface elimination. **Surface rendering:** Illumination and shading models. Basic color models and Computer Animation.

Suggested Readings

1. J.D., Foley, Van Dan, A., & Feiner Hughes. (1990). Computer Graphics Principles & Practice (2nd Ed.). Addison Wesley.
2. Hearn D. Baker. (2008). Computer Graphics. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.
3. Rogers, D.F. (1997). Procedural Elements for Computer Graphics, McGraw Hill.
4. Rogers, D.F. Adams. (1989). Mathematical Elements for Computer Graphics(2nd ed.),McGraw Hill.

Websites

1. www.explainthatstuff.com/lcdtv.html
2. www.explainthatstuff.com/how-oleds-and-leps-work.html
3. www.electricalbasicprojects.com/led-vs-lcd-difference-between-led-and-lcd
4. https://www.tutorialspoint.com/computer_graphics/computer_graphics_basics.htm
5. http://studentstudyhub.com/raster-scan-system-vs-random-scan-system/
6. https://allaboutbasic.com/

ESE Pattern		
1	Part - A	20 X 1 = 20 Marks
2	Part - B	5 X 2 = 10 Marks
3	Part – C	5 X 6 = 30 Marks
4	**Total**	**60 Marks**

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KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act, 1956)

Coimbatore – 641021, INDIA

Department of Computer Science, Applications & Information Technology

Subject Name: Network Programming **Subject Code: 16ITU502B**

Semester: V **Class: III Bsc. IT**

Staff: B.Bharathi

S.No	Topics	No. of Periods Required	Reference Materials
Unit-I : Transport Layer Protocols			
1	Introduction - The Big Picture	1hr	SR1:31-34
2	User Datagram Protocol, Transmission Control Protocol, Stream Control Transmission Protocol	1hr	SR1:34-36
3	TCP Connection Establishment & Termination	1hr	SR1:37-43,W2
4	TIME_WAIT State, SCTP Association Establishment & Termination	1hr	SR1:43-50
5	Port Number, TCP Port number & Concurrent Servers	1hr	SR1:50-55, W1
6	Buffer Sizes & Limitation	1hr	SR1:55-62
7	Protocol usage by common Internet Applications	1hr	SR1:62-63
8	Recapitulation of Important Topics	1hr	-
	Total Hours	**8 hrs**	

Suggested Readings

SR1: Richard Stevens, W., Bill Fenner., & Andrew, M. Rudoff. (2003). Unix Network Programming, The sockets Networking API, Vol. 1(3rd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

SR2: Forouzan, B. A. (2003). Data Communications and Networking(4th ed.). New Delhi: THM Publishing Company Ltd.,

SR3: Nemeth Synder., & Hein. (2010). Linux Administration Handbook (2nd ed.), New Delhi: Pearson Education.

SR4: Steven, R. (1990). Unix Network Programming (2nd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

Web References

W1: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/unix_sockets/

W2:https://www.udemy.com/learn-socket-programming-in-c-from-scratch/

Unit-II : Socket Programming

1	Introduction, Socket Address Structures, Value-Result Arguments	1hr	SR1:67-77
2	Byte Ordering Functions, Byte Manipulation Function	1hr	SR1:77-86, W1
3	sock_ntop, readn, writen,readline	1hr	SR1:86-92
4	Elementary Socket: socket,connect	1hr	SR1:95-101,W2
5	bind, listen, accept, fork, exec	1hr	SR1:101-114
6	Concurrent Servers, close, getsockname, getpeername	1hr	SR1:114-120
7	TCP Client-Server Example: Server, Client, Normal Startup, Termination	1hr	SR1:121-129,W3
8	Posix Signal, SIGCHILD, waitpid, accept, SIGPIPE, Crashing, Shutdown of Server Host,W3	1hr	SR1:129-139,W2 SR1:142-147
9	Recapitulation of Important Topics	1hr	-
	Total Hours	**9 hrs**	

Suggested Readings

SR1: Richard Stevens, W., Bill Fenner., & Andrew, M. Rudoff. (2003). Unix Network Programming, The sockets Networking API, Vol. 1(3rd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

SR2: Forouzan, B. A. (2003). Data Communications and Networking(4th ed.). New Delhi: THM Publishing Company Ltd.,

SR3: Nemeth Synder., & Hein. (2010). Linux Administration Handbook (2nd ed.), New Delhi: Pearson Education.

SR4: Steven, R. (1990). Unix Network Programming (2nd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

Web References

W1: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/unix_sockets/

W2:https://www.udemy.com/learn-socket-programming-in-c-from-scratch/

W3: https://www.binarytides.com/socket-programming-c-linux-tutorial/

Unit - III I/O Multiplexing using Socket

1	Introduction, I/O Model	1hr	SR1:153-160
2	Select, str_cli, Batch Input & Buffering, shutdown	1hr	SR1:160-172
3	TCP Echo Server,pselect function,poll function	1hr	SR1:173-185
4	Socket option: Introduction, getsockopt, setsockopt, supporting option	1hr	SR1:191-198,W1
5	Socket option, Socket State	1hr	SR1:198-214
6	IPv4 Socket Option ,ICMPv6 Socket Option, TCP Socket Option	1hr	SR1:214-222,W2
7	SCTP Socket option	1hr	SR1:222-233
8	UDP Socket: recfrom, sendto, Echo Client, Server	1hr	SR1:239-245, W3
9	Lost Datagram, Verifying, Sever Not Running, Connect function, dg_cli, Lack of Flow Control	1hr	SR1:245-262
10	Address Conversion	1hr	SR1:303-325
11	Recapitulation of Important Topics	1hr	-
	Total Hours	**11 hrs**	

Suggested Readings

SR1: Richard Stevens, W., Bill Fenner., & Andrew, M. Rudoff. (2003). Unix Network Programming, The sockets Networking API, Vol. 1(3rd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

SR2: Forouzan, B. A. (2003). Data Communications and Networking(4th ed.). New Delhi:

THM Publishing Company Ltd.,

SR3: Nemeth Synder., & Hein. (2010). Linux Administration Handbook (2nd ed.), New Delhi: Pearson Education.

SR4: Steven, R. (1990). Unix Network Programming (2nd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

Web References

W1: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/unix_sockets/

W2:https://www.udemy.com/learn-socket-programming-in-c-from-scratch/

W3: https://www.binarytides.com/socket-programming-c-linux-tutorial/

UNIT-IV : Network Application			
1	Remote Logging – TELNET	1hr	SR2:817-824,W1
2	Email - Scenario	1hr	SR2:824-828
3	Email - User Agent	1hr	SR2:828-834
4	Email - Message Transfer Agent: SMTP,	1hr	SR2:834-837
5	POP,IMAP4,Web Based Mail	1hr	SR2:837-839,W2
6	WWW: Architecture	1hr	SR2:851-854
7	Web Documents, Http	1hr	SR2:854-868,W3
8	Recapitulation of Important Topics	1hr	-
	Total Hours	**8 hrs**	

Suggested Readings

SR1: Richard Stevens, W., Bill Fenner., & Andrew, M. Rudoff. (2003). Unix Network Programming, The sockets Networking API, Vol. 1(3rd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

SR2: Forouzan, B. A. (2003). Data Communications and Networking(4th ed.). New Delhi: THM Publishing Company Ltd.,

SR3: Nemeth Synder., & Hein. (2010). Linux Administration Handbook (2nd ed.), New Delhi: Pearson Education.

SR4: Steven, R. (1990). Unix Network Programming (2nd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

Web References

W1: http://www.pcvr.nl/tcpip/telnet.htm

W2: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/internet_technologies/e_mail_protocols.htm

W3: https://www.w3.org/Protocols/Classic.html

UNIT-V : LAN Administration			
1	TCP/IP Networking: Networking Roadmap, Packet Addressing	1hr	SR3: 271 - 281
2	IP Address, Routing	1hr	SR3: 282-296
3	ARP, DHCP	1hr	SR3: 296- 316
4	Security Issues	1hr	SR3: 316-319
5	PPP, Basic Configuration	1hr	SR3: 320-330
6	Linux Networking	1hr	SR3: 330-332
7	Network Management & Debugging: Ping, ping, traceroute, netstat, Packet Sniffer, Network Management Protocol	1hr	SR3: 643-654
8	SNMP, NET SNMP	1hr	SR3: 659-662
9	Network Management Application, Netflow	1hr	SR3: 662-667
10	Recapitulation of Important Topics	1hr	-
11	Discussion of Previous ESE QP	1hr	-
12	Discussion of Previous ESE QP	1hr	-
	Total Hours	**12 hrs**	
	Total Number of periods (10+10+13+11+16)	**60 hrs**	

Suggested Readings

SR1: Richard Stevens, W., Bill Fenner., & Andrew, M. Rudoff. (2003). Unix Network Programming, The sockets Networking API, Vol. 1(3rd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

SR2: Forouzan, B. A. (2003). Data Communications and Networking(4th ed.). New Delhi: THM Publishing Company Ltd.,

SR3: Nemeth Synder., & Hein. (2010). Linux Administration Handbook (2nd ed.), New Delhi: Pearson Education.

SR4: Steven, R. (1990). Unix Network Programming (2nd ed.). New Delhi: PHI.

Web References

W1: https://www.tutorialspoint.com/ipv4/ipv4_subnetting.htm

W2: https://www.cisco.com/c/en/us/support/docs/ip/routing-information-protocol-rip

W3: https://www.networkmanagementsoftware.com/snmp-tutorial/

SYLLABUS

Introduction: Basic elements of Computer graphics, Applications of Computer Graphics.

INTRODUCTION

Computer Graphic is the discipline of producing picture or images using a computer which include modeling, creation, manipulation, storage of geometric objects, rendering, converting a scene to an image, the process of transformations, rasterization, shading, illumination, animation of the image, etc.

Computer Graphics has been widely used in graphics presentation, paint systems, computer-aided design (CAD), image processing, simulation, etc. From the earliest text character images of a non-graphic mainframe computers to the latest photographic quality images of a high resolution personal computers, from vector displays to raster displays, from 2D input, to 3D input and beyond, computer graphics has gone through its short, rapid changing history.

From games to virtual reality, to 3D active desktops, from unobtrusive immersive home environments, to scientific and business, computer graphics technology has touched almost every concern of our life. Before we get into the details, we have a short tour through the history of computer graphics

1 BASIC ELEMENT OF COMPUTER GRAPHICS:

1.1 VIDEO DISPLAY DEVICES:-

The primary output device in a graphics system is a video monitor (Fig**).** The operation of most video monitors is based on the standard cathode-ray tube (CRT) design, but several other technologies exist and solid-state monitors may eventually predominate.

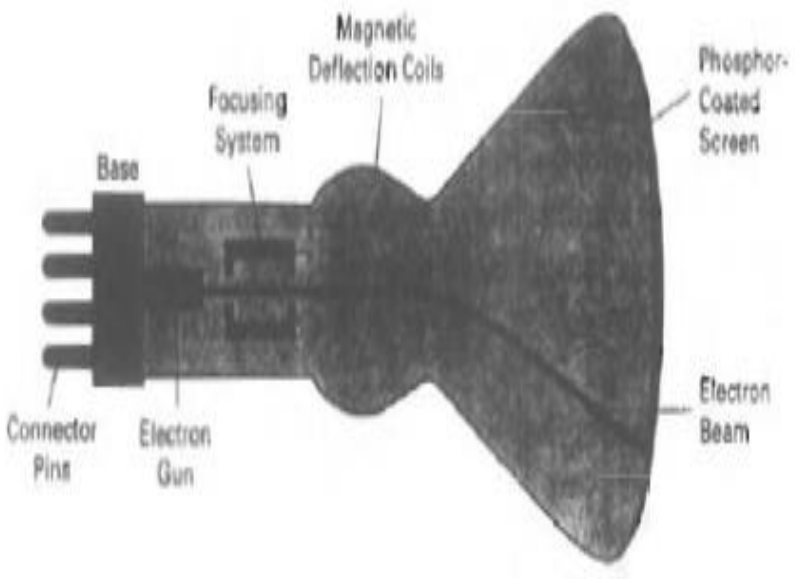
Fig: (A computer graphics workstation)

1.1.1 REFRESH CATHODE-RAY TUBES

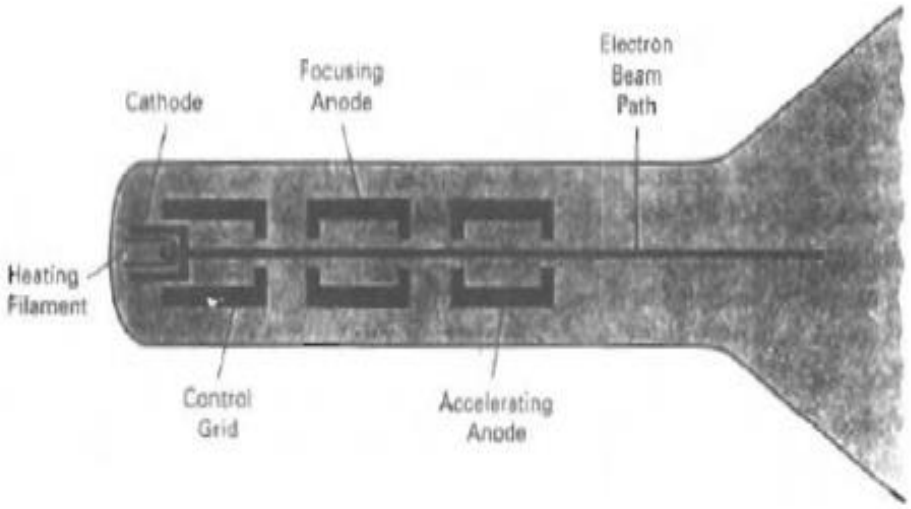
A beam of electrons (cathode rays) emitted by an electron gun, passes through focusing and deflection systems that direct the beam toward specified positions on the phosphor coated screen. The phosphor then emits a small spot of light at each position contacted by the electron beam. Because the light emitted by the phosphor fades very rapidly, some method is needed for maintaining the screen picture. One way to keep the phosphor glowing is to redraw the picture repeatedly by quickly directing the electron beam back over the same points. This type of display is called a refresh CRT.

The primary components of an electron gun in a CRT are the heated metal cathode and a control grid which is shown in below Figure. Heat is supplied to the cathode by directing a current through a coil of wire, called the filament, inside the cylindrical cathode structure. This causes electrons to be 'boiled off" the hot cathode surface. In the vacuum inside the CRT envelope, the free, negatively charged electrons are then accelerated toward the phosphor coating by a high positive voltage.

(Fig: basic design of magnetic deflection CRT)



The accelerating voltage can be generated with a positively charged metal coating on the inside of the CRT envelope near the phosphor screen, or an accelerating anode can be used, Sometimes the electron gun is built to contain the accelerating anode and focusing system within the same unit.



Intensity of the electron beam is controlled by setting voltage levels on the control grid, which is a metal cylinder that fits over the cathode.

A high negative voltage applied to the control grid will shut off the beam by repelling electrons and stopping them from passing through the small hole at the end of the control grid structure. **A** smaller negative voltage on the control grid simply decreases the number of electrons passing through. Since the amount of light emitted by the phosphor coating depends on the number of electrons striking the screen, we control the brightness of a display by varying the voltage on the control grid.

The focusing system in a CRT is needed to force the electron beam to converge into a small spot as it strikes the phosphor. Otherwise, the electrons would repel each other, and the beam would spread out as it approaches the screen. Focusing is accomplished with either electric or magnetic fields. Electrostatic focusing is commonly used in television and computer graphics monitors. With electrostatic focusing, the electron beam passes through a positively charged metal cylinder that forms an electrostatic lens. The action of the electrostatic lens focuses the electron beam at the center of the screen, in exactly the same way that an optical lens focuses a beam of light at a particular focal distance.

Similar lens focusing effects can be accomplished with a magnetic field set up by a coil mounted around the outside of the CRT envelope. Magnetic lens focusing produces the smallest spot size on the screen and is used in special purpose Devices.

Additional focusing hardware is used in high-precision systems to keep the beam in focus at all screen positions. The distance that the electron beam must travel to different points on the screen varies

because the radius of curvature for most CRTs is greater than the distance from the focusing system to the screen center.

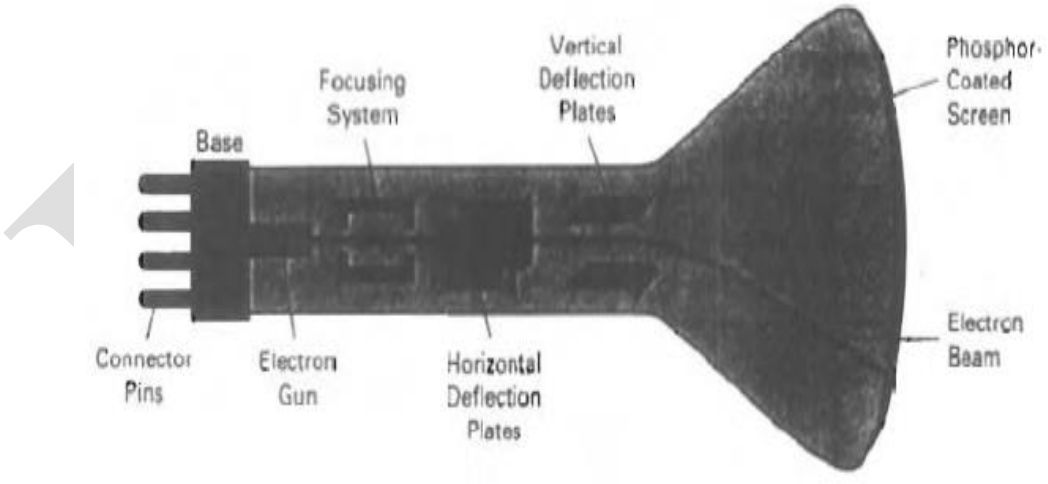
Cathode-ray tubes are now common. Constructed with magnetic deflection coils mounted on the outside of the CRT envelope.

Two pairs of coils are used, with the coils in each pair mounted on opposite sides of the neck of the CRT envelope.

- **One pair is mounted on the top and bottom of the neck and**
- **The other pair is mounted on opposite sides of the neck**

The magnetic, field produced by each pair of coils results in a transverse deflection force that is perpendicular both to the direction of the magnetic field and to the direction of travel of the electron beam. Horizontal deflection is accomplished with one pair of coils, and vertical deflection by the other pair.

The proper deflection amounts are attained by adjusting the current through the coils. When electrostatic deflection is used, two pairs of parallel plates are mounted inside the CRT envelope. One pair of plates is mounted horizontally to control the vertical deflection, and the other pair is mounted vertical to control horizontal deflection.



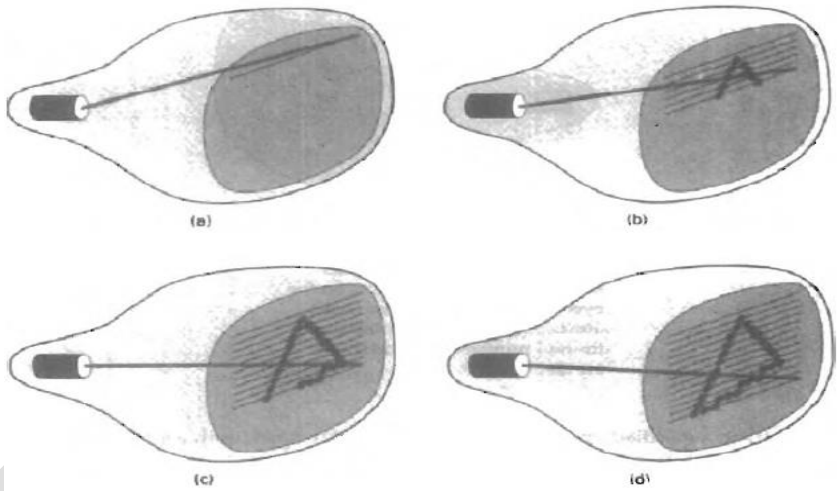
(Fig: Electrostatic deflection of the electron beam in a CRT)

Spots of light are produced on the screen by the transfer of the CRT. Remainder causes electrons in the phosphor atoms to move up to higher quantum- energy levels. After a short time, the "excited phosphor electrons begin dropping back to their stable ground state, giving up their extra energy as small quantum of Light energy.

T**he electron light emissions:** a glowing spot that quickly fades after all the excited phosphor electrons have returned to their ground energy level. The frequency (or color) of the light emitted by the phosphor is proportional to the energy difference between the excited quantum state and the ground state.

1.1.2 RASTER-SCAN DISPLAYS :-

The most common type of graphics monitor employing a CRT is the raster-scan display, based on television technology. In a raster-scan system, the electron beam is swept across the screen, one row at a time from top to bottom. As the electron beam moves across each row, the beam intensity is turned on and off to create a pattern of illuminated spots.



- Picture definition is stored in a memory area called the **refresh buffer or frame buffer.**

This memory area holds the set of intensity values for all the screen points.

- Stored intensity values are then retrieved from the refresh buffer and "painted" on the screen one row (scan line) at a time (in above Figure**).**
- Each screen point is referred to as a **pixel or pel** (shortened forms of picture element).
- Intensity range for pixel positions depends on the capability of the raster system. In a simple black-and-white system, each screen point is either on or off, so only one bit per pixel is needed to control the intensity of screen positions.
- For a bi-level system, a bit value of 1 indicates that the electron beam is to be turn on at that position,
- And a value of 0 indicates that the beam intensity is to be off.

- Additional bits are needed when color and intensity variations can be displayed. Up to 2**4 bits per pixel are included in high-quality systems**, which can require several megabytes of storage for the frame buffer, depending on the resolution of the system.

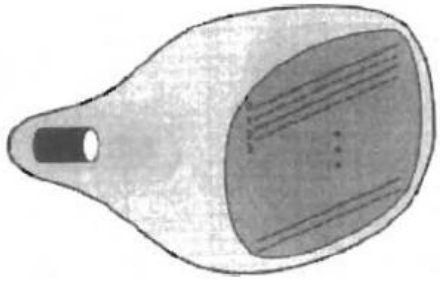
A system with 24 bits per pixel and a screen resolution of 1024 by 1024 requires 3 megabytes of storage for the frame buffer. On a black-and-white system with o**ne bit per pixel, the frame buffer is commonly called a bitmap**.

For systems with multiple bits per pixel, the frame buffer is often referred to as a **pixmap.** Refreshing on raster-scan displays is carried out at the rate of 60 to 80 frames per second, although some systems are designed for higher refresh rates. Sometimes, refresh rates are described in units of cycles per second, or Hertz (Hz), where a cycle corresponds to one frame. Using these units, we would describe

1.1.3 RANDOM-SCAN DISPLAYS

A random-scan display unit, a CRT has the electron beam directed only to the parts of the screen where a picture is to be drawn. Random scan monitors draw a picture one line at a time and for this reason are also referred to as vector displays *(or* stroke-writing or calligraphic displays). The Component lines of a picture can be drawn and refreshed by a random-scan system in any specified order which is shows in below figure.

(Fig: Interlacing scan lines on the raster scan system)



Refresh rate on a random-scan system depends on the number of lines to be displayed. Picture definition is now stored as a set of line drawing commands in an area of memory r e f e d to as the refresh display file. Sometimes the refresh display file is called the display list, display program, or simply the refresh buffer. To display a specified picture, the system cycles through the set of commands After all line drawing commands have been processed, the system cycles back to the first line command in the list. Random-scan displays are designed to draw all the component lines of a picture **30 to 60 times each second.**

High quality vector systems are capable of handling approximately 100,000 "short" lines at this refresh rate. When a small set of lines is to be displayed, each refresh cycle is delayed to avoid refresh

rates greater than 60 frames per second. Otherwise, faster refreshing of the set of lines could bum out the phosphor.

Random-scan systems are designed for line drawing applications and cannot display realistic shaded scenes. Since **picture definition is stored as a set of line drawing instructions and not as a set of intensity values for all screen points**, vector displays generally have higher resolution than raster systems. Also, vector displays produce smooth line drawings because the CRT beam directly follows the line path.

1.1.4 COLOR CRT MONITORS:-

Color Monitors:

A color CRT monitor displays color picture by using a combination of phosphors that emit different colored light. By combining the emitted light a range of colors can be generated. Two basic methods for producing color displays are:

- Beam Penetration Method
- Shadow-Mask Method

Beam Penetration Method

Random scan monitors use the beam penetration method for displaying color picture. In this, the inside of CRT screen is coated two layers of phosphor namely red and green. A beam of slow electrons excites only the outer red layer, while a beam of fast electrons penetrates red layer and excites the inner green layer. At intermediate beam speeds, combinations of red and green light are emitted to show two additional colors- orange and yellow.

Advantages

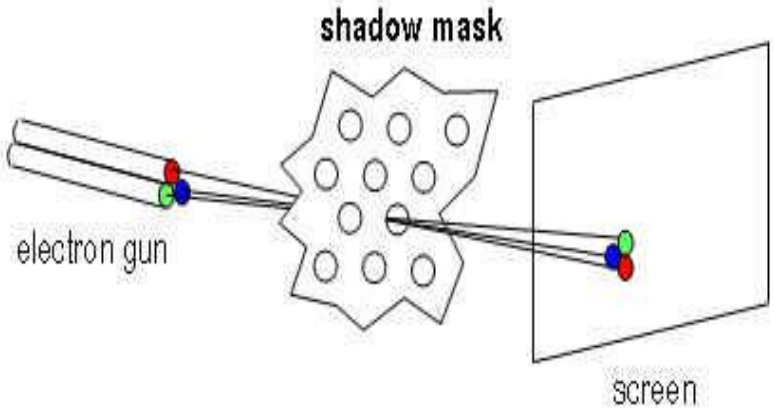
- Less expensive

Disadvantages

- Qualities of images are not good as comparatable with other methods
- Four colors are allowed only

Shadow Mask Method

Raster scan system are use shadow mask methods to produce a much more range of colors than beam penetration method. In this, CRT has three phosphor color dots. One phosphor dot emits a red light, second emits a green light and third emits a blue light. This type of CRT has three electrons guns and a shadow mask grid as shown in figure below:



In this figure, three electrons beams are deflected and focused as a group onto the shadow mask which contains a series of holes. When three beams pass through a hole in shadow mask they activate dot triangle as shown in figure below:

The colors we can see depend on the amount of excitation of red, green and blue phosphor. A white area is a reasult of all three dots with equal intensity while yellow is produced with green and red dots and so on.

Advantages

- Produce realistic images also produced different colors and shadows scenes.

Disadvantages

- low resolution
- expensive
- electron beam directed to whole screen

Color CRTs in graphics systems are designed as RGB monitors. These monitors use shadow mask method and take the intensity level for each gun. A RGB color system with 34 bits of storage per pixel is known as full color system or true color system.

1.1.5 DIRECT VIEW STORAGE TUBES:

- An Alternative method for maintaining a screen image is to store the picture information inside the CRT instead of refreshing the screen.
- DIRECT VIEW STORAGE TUBES stores the picture information as the phosphor-coated screen
- Two electron guns are used in DVST
    1. **Primary Gun-store the picture pattern**
    2. **Flood Gun-Maintains the picture display.**

ADVANTAGES:

Very complex pictures can be displayed at very high resolutions without ficker.

DISADVANTAGES:

- In DVST system ordinarily do not display color and that selected parts of a picture cannot be erased To eliminate a picture section the entire screen must be erased and the modified picture redrawn.
- The erasing and redrawing process can take several seconds for a complex picture.

1.1.6 FLAT-PANEL DISPLAYS:

Although most graphics monitors are still constructed with CRT .Other technologies are emerging that soon replace CRT monitors.

- Flat panel display is refered to class of video devices that have reduce volume weight and power requirements compared to a CRT.
- Flat panel display is that they are thinner than CRTs.
- Since we can write on some flat panel display they will soon be available as pocket notepads.

CURRENT USES:

Small TV monitors,Calculators,Pocket video games,laptop computers and viewing of movies on airlines,advertisement boards in elevators and portable monitors etc..

Flat-panel displays can be divided into two types:

1. Emissive display

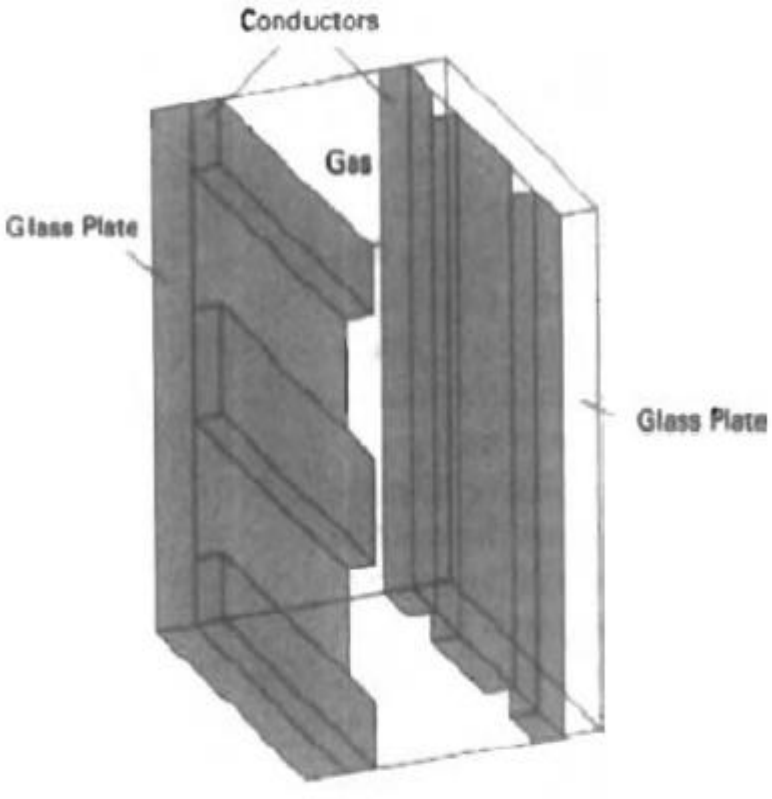
2. Non emissive display

- Emissive display- are device that convert electrical energy into light.

  Examples:-plasma panels,thin flim,electroluminescent display and light emitting diodes
- Non Emissive display-use optical effects to convert sunlight or light from other sources into graphics pattern

  Examples:liquid crystal device
- **Plasma panel- al**so called gas-discharge displays are constructed by filling the region between two glass plates with a mixture of gasses
- Plasma display panels are most often seen as large flat televisions, while vacuum fluorescent displays are used in applications where the information content is fairly low, such as the displays

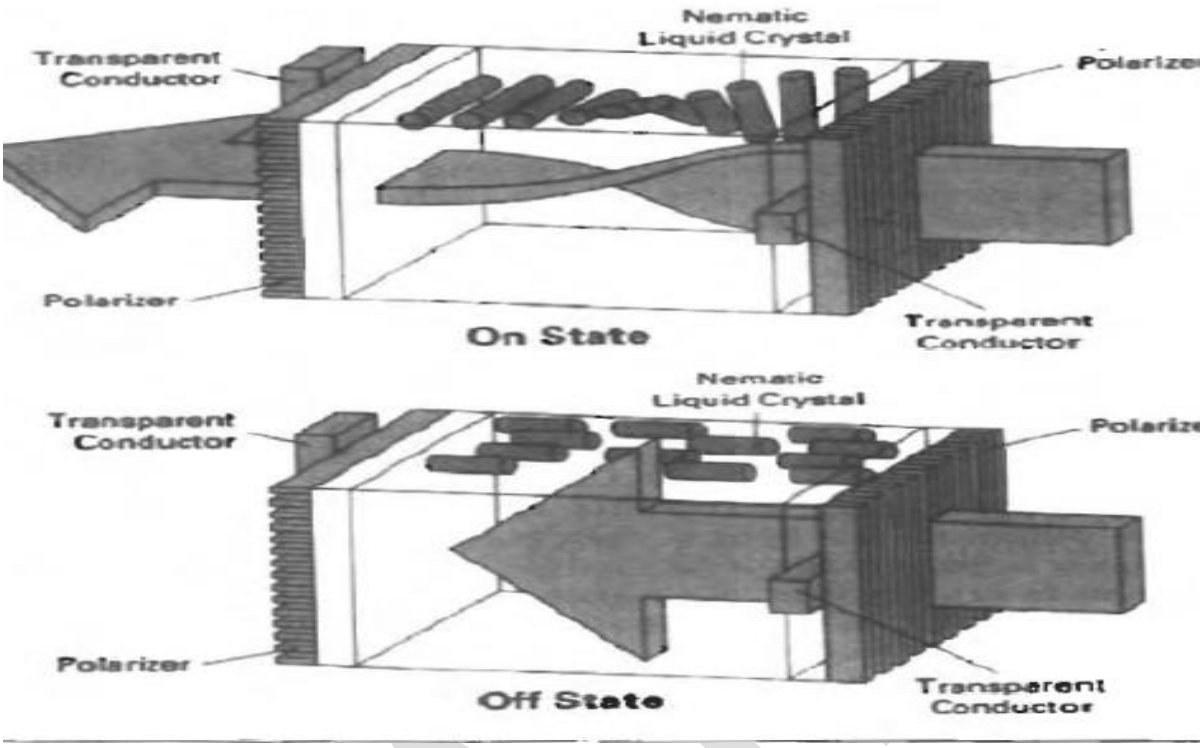
on appliances or in automobiles. Field-emission displays are the most recent of these flat-panel technologies



- **Thin-Film electroluminescent displays:-**are similar construction to a plasma panel. The difference is that region between glass plates is filled with a phosphor .
- A third type of emissive device is the LIGHT -EMITTING DIODE (LED)-A matrix of diodes is arranged to form the pixel positions.

1.1.7 LIQUID CRYSTAL DISPLAY:-

- Liquid crystal displays (LCDS) are commonly used in small systems, such as calculators and portable, laptop computers.
- These non emissive devices produce a picture by passing polarized light from the surroundings or from an internal light **s o w** through a liquid-crystal material that can be aligned to either block or transmit the light.
- **A** flat-panel display can then be constructed with a nematic liquid crystal



- Two glass plates, each containing a light polarizer at right angles to the-other plate, sandwich the liquid-crystal material. Rows of horizontal transparent conductors are built into one glass plate, and columns of vertical conductors are put into the other plate.
- The intersection of two conductors defines a pixel position. Normally, the molecules are aligned as shown in the above figure "on state".

1.2 RASTER SCAN SYSTEMS:-

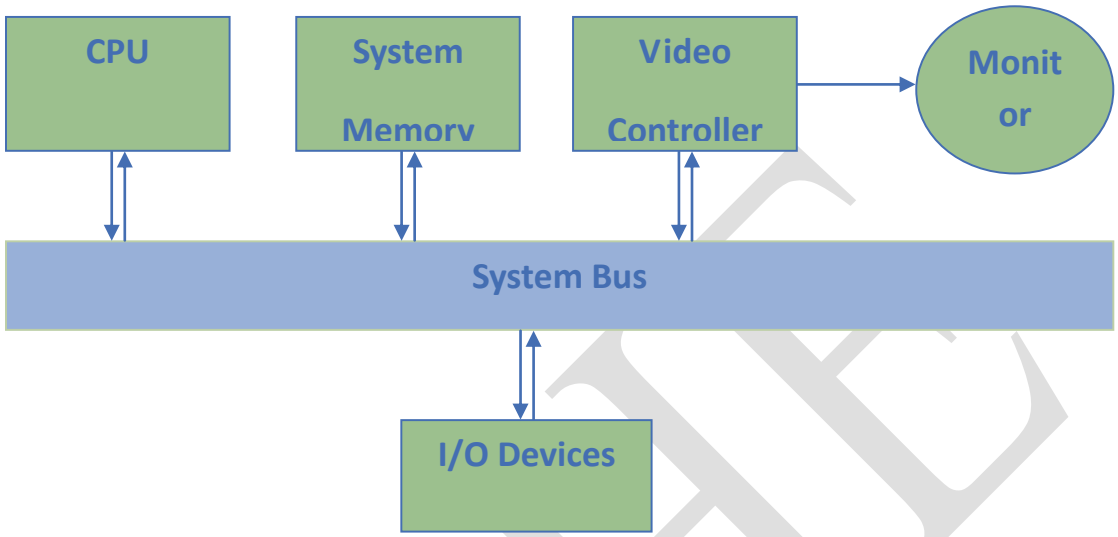
Raster graphics systems typically employ several processing units. In addition to the central processing unit, or CPU, a special-purpose processor, called the video controller or display controller, is used to control the operation of the display device.

1. **Video Controller**
2. **Raster scan display processor**

Video Controller

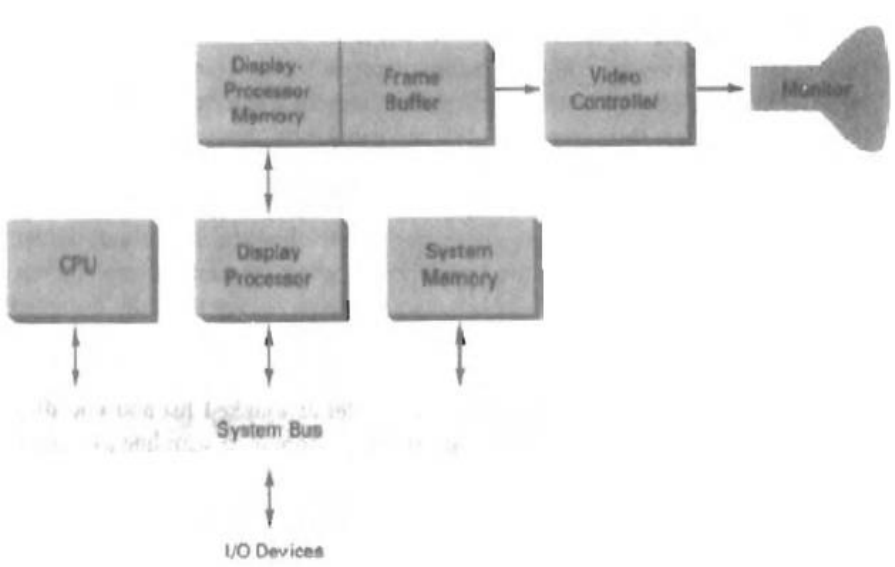
A fixed area of the system memory is reserved for the frame buffer, and the video controller is given direct access to the frame-buffer memory. Frame-buffer locations, and the corresponding screen positions, are referenced in Cartesian coordinates. The screen surface is then represented as the first quadrant of a two-dimensional system, with positive *x* values increasing to the right and positive y values

increasing from bottom to top. Scan lines *are* then labeled from y, at the top of the screen to 0 at the bottom. Along each scan line, screen pixel positions are labeled from 0 to x_{max}



RASTER SCAN DISPLAY PROCESSOR:

The purpose of the display processor is to free the CPU from the graphics chores. In addition to the system memory, a separate display processor memory area can also be provided.



Architecture of raster scan display processor

1.3 RANDOM SCAN SYSTEM:

The organization of a simple random-scan (vector) system is shown in below figure. An application program is input and stored in the system memory along with a graphics package. Graphics commands in the application program are translated.

- The graphics package into a display file stored in the system memory.
- This display file is then accessed by the display processor to refresh the screen.
- The display processor cycles through each command in the display file program once during every refresh cycle. Sometimes the display processor in a random-scan system is referred to as a display processing unit or a graphics controller.

3D-VIEWING DEVICES:-

Graphics monitors for the display of three-dimensional scenes have been devised using a technique that reflects a CRT image from a vibrating, flexible mirror. The operation of such a system is demonstrated in below figure. As the varifocal mirror vibrates, it changes focal length. These vibrations are synchronized with the display of an object on a CRT so that each point on the object is reflected from the mirror into a spatial position corresponding to the distance of that point from a specified viewing position. This allows us to walk around an object or scene and view it from different side.

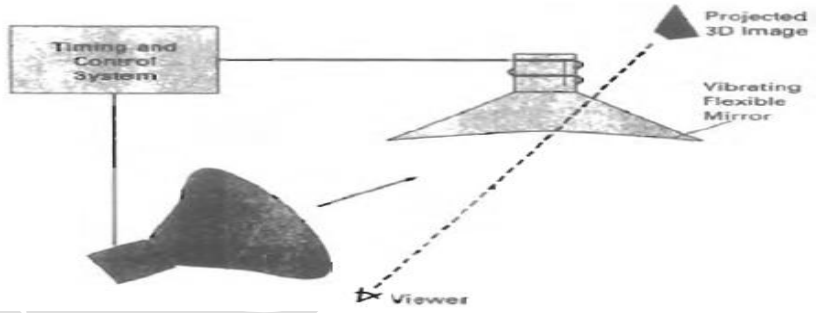


Fig: Operation of a 3D Display system.

RANDOM SCAN SYSTEM:-

The organization of a simple random-scan (vector) system is shown in below figure. An application program is input and stored in the system memory along with a graphics package.

Graphics commands in the application program are translated by the graphics package into a display file stored in the system memory. This display file is then accessed by the display processor to refresh the screen.

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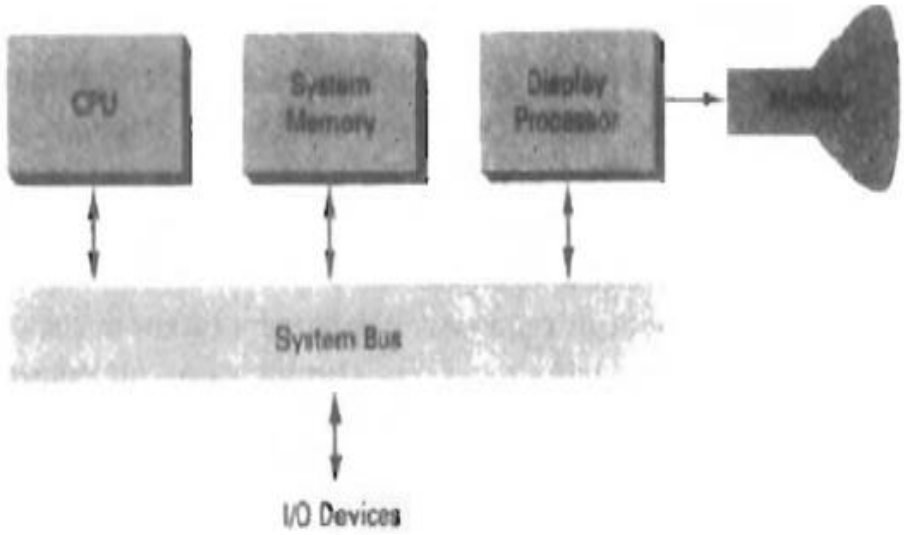


Graphics patterns are drawn on a random-scan system by directing the electron beam along the component lines of the picture.

Lines are defined by the values for their coordinate endpoints, and these input coordinate values are converted to x and y deflection voltages. A scene is then drawn one line at a time by positioning the beam to fill in the line between specified endpoints.

1.4 A SURVEY OF COMPUTER GRAPHICS

Computers have become a powerful tool for the rapid and economical production of pictures. There is virtually no area in which graphical displays cannot be used to some advantage, and so it is not surprising to find the use of computer graphics so widespread.

Although early applications in engineering and science had to rely on expensive and cumbersome equipment, advances in computer technology have made interactive computer graphics a practical tool. Today, we find computer graphics used routinely in such diverse areas as science, engineering, medicine, business, industry, government, art, entertainment, advertising, education, and training.

COMPUTER-AIDED DESIGN

A major use of computer graphics is in design processes, particularly for engineering and architectural systems, but almost all products are now computer designed. Generally referred to as CAD,

computer-aided design methods are now routinely used in the design of buildings, automobiles, aircraft, watercraft, spacecraft, computers, textiles, and many, many other products.

Software packages for CAD applications typically provide the designer with a multi-window environment. Circuits such as the one shown in below Figure and networks for communications, water supply, or other utilities are constructed with repeated placement of a few graphical shapes.

The shapes used in a design represent the different network or circuit components. Standard shapes for electrical, electronic, and logic Circuits are often supplied by the design package. For other applications, a designer can create personalized symbols that are to be used to construct the network or circuit. The system is then designed by successively placing components into the layout, with the graphics package automatically providing the connections between components. This allows the designer t~ quickly try out alternate circuit schematics for minimizing the number of components or the space required for the system.

Fig: A circuit design application using

Animations are often used in CAD applications. Real-time animations using wire frame displays on a video monitor are useful for testing performance of a vehicle or system, when we do not display objects with rendered surfaces, the calculations for each segment of the animation can be performed quickly to produce a smooth real-time motion on the screen. Also, wire frame displays allow the designer to **see** into the interior of the vehicle and to watch the behavior of inner components during motion.

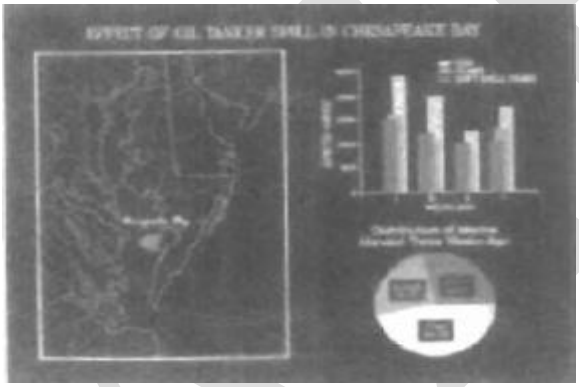
Animations in virtual reality environments are used to determine how vehicle operators are affected by certain motions. This allows the designer to explore various positions of the bucket or backhoe that might obstruct the operator's view, which can then be taken into account in the overall hector design.

PRESENTATION GRAPHICS

Another major application area is presentation graphics, used to produce illustrations for reports or to generate 35-mm slides or transparencies for use with projectors. Presentation graphics is commonly used to summarize financial, statistical, Mathematical, scientific, and economic data for research reports, managerial reports, consumer information bulletins, and other types of reports. Workstation devices and service bureaus exist for converting screen displays into 35-mm slides or overhead transparencies for use in presentations. Typical examples of

Presentation graphics are bar charts, line graphs, surface graphs, pie charts, and other displays showing relationships between multiple parameters.

(Fig: Two dimensional bar chart and pie chart)



COMPUTER ART

Computer graphics methods are widely used in both fine art and commercial art applications. Artists use a variety of computer methods, including special-purpose hardware, artist's paintbrush (such as Lumens), other paint packages (such as Pixel paint and Super paint), specially developed software, symbolic mathematics packages (such as Mathematics), CAD packages, desktop publishing software, and animation packages that provide facilities for designing object shapes and specifying object motions.

Fine artists use a variety of other computer technologies to produce images. For many applications of commercial art (and in motion pictures and other applications), photo realistic techniques are used to render images of a product.

A common graphics method employed in many commercials is morphing, where one object is transformed (metamorphosed) into another. This method has been used in TV commercials to turn an oil can into an automobile engine, an automobile into a tiger, a puddle of water into a tiger, and one person's face into another face

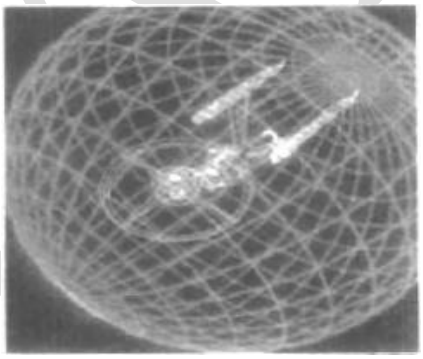
(Fig: Cartoon drawing produced with a paintbrush program)

In above figure illustrates the basic idea behind a paintbrush program that allows artists to "paint" pictures on the screen of a video monitor. Actually, the picture is usually painted electronically on a graphics tablet (digitizer) using a stylus, which can simulate different brush strokes, brush widths, and colors. A paintbrush program was used to create the characters.

ENTERTAINMENT

Computer graphics methods are now commonly used in making motion picture**s,** music videos, and television shows. Sometimes the graphics scenes are displayed by themselves.

- **A** graphics scene generated for the movie Star Trek-the Wrath of Khan is shown in below figure.



(Fig: Graphics developed for the paramount picture movie)

- The planet and spaceship are drawn in wire fame form and will be shaded with rendering methods to produce solid surfaces. Many TV series regularly employ computer graphics methods.
- Music videos use graphics in several ways.

Graphics objects can be combined with the live action, or graphics and image processing techniques can be used to produce a transformation of one person or object into another (morphing).

An example of morphing is shown in the sequence of scenes in below Figure, produced for the David Byme video She's Mad.

(Examples of morphing)

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Computer-generated models of physical, financial, and economic systems are often used as educational aids. Models of physical systems, physiological systems, population trends, or equipment, such as the color coded diagram in below figure, can help trainees to understand the operation of the system.

For some training applications, special systems are designed. Examples of Such specialized systems are the simulators for practice sessions or training of ship captains, aircraft pilots, heavy-equipment operators, and air traffic control personnel.

Some simulators have no video screens**;** for example, a flight simulator with only a control panel for instrument flying. But most simulators provide graphics screens for visual operation.

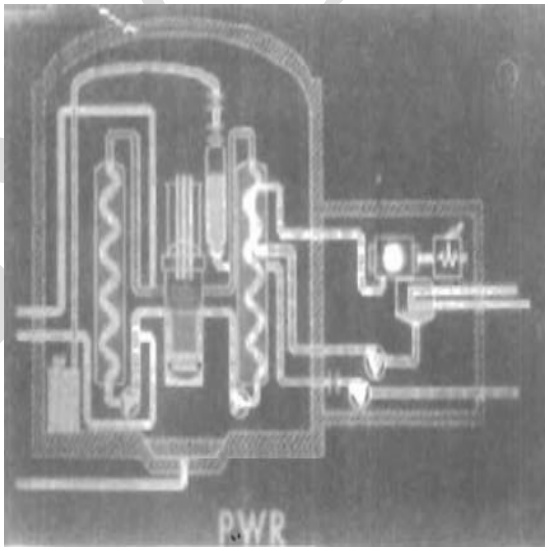


Fig: color coded diagram

IMAGE PROCESSING :-

Although methods used in computer graphics and Image processing overlap, the two areas with fundamentally different operations. In computer graphics, a computer is used to create a picture. Image processing, on the other hand. Applies techniques to modify or interpret existing picture, such as photographs and TV scans. Two principal applications of image processing are

(1) improving picture quality

(2) machine perception of visual information,

It is used in robotics. To apply image processing methods, we first digitize a photograph or other Picture into an image file. Then digital methods can be applied to rearrange picture parts, to enhance color separations, or to improve the quality of shading.

Example of the application of image processing methods to enhance the quality of a picture is shown in Fig. 1-70.

These techniques are used extensively in commercial art applications that involve the retouching and rearranging of sections of photographs and other artwork.

- Similar methods are used to analyze satellite photos of the earth and photos of galaxies.
- Medical applications also make extensive use of image processing techniques for picture enhancements, in tomography and in simulations of operations.

Tomography is a technique of X-ray photography that allows cross-sectional views of physiological systems to be displayed. Both computed X-rav tomography (CT) and position emission tomography (PET) use projection methods to reconstruct cross sections from digital data.

Fig. 1-70 (the blurred photograph of a license plate)

GRAPHICAL USER INTERFACES (GUI):-

It is common now for software packages to provide a graphical interface. A major component of a graphical interface is a window manager that allows a user to display multiple-window areas. Each window can contain a different process that can contain graphical or no graphical displays. To make a particular window active, we simply click in that window using an interactive pointing device. Interfaces also display menus and icons for fast selection of processing options or parameter values. An icon is a graphical symbol that is designed to look like the processing option it represents. The advantages of icons are that they take up less screen space than corresponding textual descriptions and they can be understood more quickly if well designed. Menus contain lists of textual descriptions and icons.

- **multiple window areas**
- **menus and icons**

Fig: A Graphical user interface showing

In above figure illustrates a typical graphical interface, containing a window manager, menu displays, and icons. **Example** the menus allow selection of processing options, color values, and graphics parameters. The icons represent options for painting, drawing, zooming, typing text strings, and other operations connected with picture construction.

Possible Questions

Two Mark Questions

1. What is Computer Graphics?
2. List the types of Flat panels.
3. What is refresh CRT refers to?
4. What is the difference between Raster and Random Scan Display?
5. List the elements of CRT.

Six Mark Questions

1. Discuss about CRT monitor in detail.
2. Write a detail note on VDU.
3. Write in detail about Raster Scan Display.
4. Discuss the usage of CG in the field of Entertainment, Education & Training.
5. What is Computer Graphics? Explain any two application areas in detail.
6. Write a detail note on Random Scan Display Unit.
7. List the type of Flat Panels. Discuss about them in detail.
8. Discuss about the usage of CG in Visualization, Image Processing and GUI.
9. Differentiate Random and Raster Scan Display.
10. Discuss in general about Computer Graphics.

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act, 1956)
Coimbatore – 641021, INDIA
Department of Computer Science, Applications & Information Technology

Unit - I

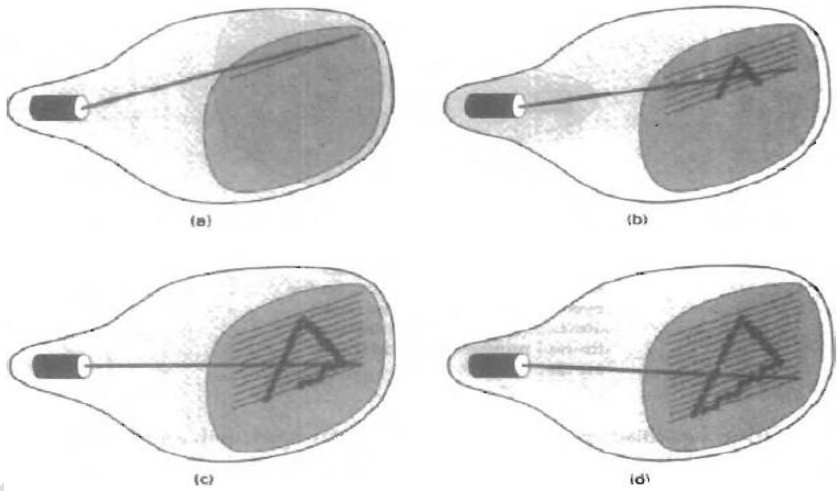
S.No	Questions	opt1	opt2	opt3	opt4	Answer
1	_____ is the discipline of producing picture or images using a computer which include modeling, creation, etc.	HTML	Computer Graphics	Programming	Scipting Language	Computer Graphics
2	CRT stands for————	Control Ray tube	Cathode reverse tube	Cathode Ray Tube	Buffer	Cathode Ray Tube
3	Cathode ray is called as ————	Fluorescent	Electron beam	Electromagnetic	Phosphor	Electron beam
4	———— inside the cylinderical cathode structure.	Control Grid	Pixel	Filament	CRT	Filament
5	Electrostatic focusing is commonly used in ———	television and computer grapics	Programming Language	Spectrometer	Focusing System	television and computer grapics monitor
6	The ———— display is used in television sets.	Persistance	Pixel	Phosphor	Cathode Ray Tube	Cathode Ray Tube
7	Duration of phosphorscene exhibited by the phosphor is called	Pixel	Persistance	Electromagnetic	CRT	Persistance
8	Picture definition is stored in a memory area is called	Memory	Picture definition	Frame Buffer	Fluorecent	Frame Buffer
9	The ———— in CRT is needed to force the electron beam to converge into a small spot as it strikes the	Focusing system	Control grid	Accessing point	Pixel Position	Focusing system
10	Deflection of electron beam can be controlled either with	Potensiometer	Magenetic diode	Pixel or Pel	Electricfield or magnetic field.	Electricfield or magnetic field.
11	The maximum number of points that can be displayed without overlapping on a CRT is referred as the _____	Picture definition	Resolution	Magnetic field	None of the Above	Resolution
12	———— is defined as the time it takes the emitted light from the screen of decay to one- tenth of its original	Raster scan display	Persistance	Random Graphics System	Random Scan device	Persistance
13	The most common type of graphics monitor employing a CRT Is the	Raster scan display	Random Scan device	Picture Definition	Pixel Position	Raster scan display
14	In a raster scan system the electron beam is swept across the	Raster scan display	Random Graphics System	Picture Definition	phosphor screen	phosphor screen
15	In raster scan method electron beam passes ———	Left to right	Top to bottom	bottom to left	Right to left	Top to bottom
16	Picture definition is stored in a memory area called	Raster scan display	Random Graphics System	Picture Definition	Referesh buffer or Frame buffer	Referesh buffer or Frame buffer
17	Each rows in raster scan display are called as ———	Scan lines	raster line	Random line	Pel	Scan lines
18	Picture stored area is called as ————	Emissive displays	Flat panel display	Pixel or Pel	optical effects	Pixel or Pel
19	On black and white system with one bit per pixel the frame buffer is commonly called a	Mega byte	Byte Stored	Bitmap and Pixmap	None of the above	Bitmap and Pixmap
20	Refreshing on raster scan displays is carried out at the rate of	60to80 per sec	20 to 40 per sec	20 to 60 per sec	80 to 100 per sec	60to80 per sec
21	———— refers to a class of video devices that have reduced volume,weight and power requirements	Emissive displays	Flat panel display	liquid crystal	optical effects	Flat panel display
22	Flat panel display is ———— than CRT	Lighter	Heavier	Sharper	Thinner	Thinner
23	Flat panel display is divided into ———— categories	two	three	four	five	two
24	———— convert electrical energy into light	Flat panel display	liquid crystal	optical effects	Emissive displays	Emissive displays
25	Flat CRT's in which electron beams are accelarated parallel to the screen,then deflected degree to the screen.	40˚	90˚	80˚	120˚	90˚
26	Nonemissive displays use ———— effects to convert sunlight.	optical effects	Refresh buffer	liquid crystal	Gas-discharge displays	optical effects
27	Nonemissive flat panel display is a ———— device.	Flat panel display	liquid crystal	optical effects	Emissive displays	liquid crystal
28	Plasma panel also called ————	Gas-discharge displays	Thin film electroluminescent	Video controller or display controller	Virtual reality	Gas-discharge displays
29	Picture definition is stored in ————	Flat panel display	Refresh buffer	Thin film electroluminescent	Video controller or display	Refresh buffer
30	Firing voltage are applied to refresh the pixel position times per second	20	60	40	69	60
31	———— are similar in construction to a plasma panel	display list,display program or	Thin film electroluminescent	scan conversion	display processing unit or graphics	Thin film electroluminescent
32	Stereoscopic viewing is also a component in ——— system	Virtual reality				Virtual reality
33	———— is used to control the operation of the display device	Raster scan	CRT	RCRT	Video controller or display	Video controller or display controller
34	Frame-buffer locations,and the corresponding screen position,are referenced in	Polynomial Coordination	Beam penetration	Cartesian coordinates	Rastor coordination	Cartesian coordinates
35	Scan lines are then labeled from Ymax at the top of the screen to at the bottom	0	1	3	6	0
36	Raster System sometimes referred to as ———	scan conversion	graphics controller or display co-processor	Polynomial Coordination	Beam penetration	graphics controller or display co-processor
37	The digitization process is called ————	scan conversion	Raster scan	CRT	RCRT	scan conversion
38	Random-scan system is refered to as a ————	Pixel beam	scan conversion	Phosphor	Control grid	display processing unit or graphics
39	———— are drawn on a random scan system by directly the electron beam along the component lines of	Data View Storage	Direct Viewing Device	display processing unit or graphics	Raster scan	Graphics patterns
40	The input co-ordinate values are converted to —— deflection voltages	x,y,z	y and z	x and z	X and Y	X and Y
41	Refresh display file is called the ————	Phosphor	Control grid	display list,display program or refresh		display list,display program or refresh
42	Random-scan displays are designed to draw all the component lines of picture in times for each second _____	30to60	50to 60	10 to 40	0 to 50	30to60
43	Refresh cycle is displayed to avoid refresh raster greater than per second	20frames	60 frames	10frames	100frames	60 frames
44	A CRT monitor displays color pictures by using combination of	potassium	Refresh buffer	Electromagnetic	phosphors	phosphors
45	Beam penetration method for displaying color pictures has been used with	Random-scan monitors	Raster scan	CRT	RCRT	Random-scan monitors
46	A beam of slow electrons excites only the outer —— layer	Red	Green	Blue	Yellow	Red
47	A beam of fast electron excite the inner ——— layer	Red	Green	Blue	Yellow	Green
48	Combinations of red and green light are emitted to show two additional colors	Red and Green	Blue and Orange	orange and yellow	RGB	orange and yellow
49	Shadow-mask methods are commonly used in	Random-scan monitors	Raster scan system	CRT	RCRT	Raster scan system
50	A shadow-mask CRT has three phosphor color dots at each position	Random	pixel	Raster	phosphors	pixel
51	RGB refers to————	Red-Green-Blue	Color CRT	Random Graphics System	Black	Red-Green-Blue
52	A gray-scale image is typically coded with—— bits per pixel	2	4	9	8	8
53	TIFF refers to ————	Tagged Image Focus Format	Tagged Image File Format	TIFF Image Format	Trasfer Image File Format	Tagged Image File Format
54	Colors CRT in graphics systems are designed as ——	RGB monitors	Pixel	Phosph	CMYK	RGB monitors
55	High-quality raster graphics systems have ——— per pixel	12bits	64bits	24bits	128bits	24bits
56	RGB color system with——— storage per pixel	12bits	64bits	24bits	128bits	24bits
57	DVST refers to————	Direct View Storage Tubes	Direct Visible Storage Tubes	Data View Storage	Direct Viewing Device	Direct View Storage Tubes
58	———— electron guns are used in DVST	Phosphor	Control grid	Pixel or Pel	primary gun and flood gun	primary gun and flood gun
59	———— is stores the picture pattern	Phosphor	Primary gun	Pixel or Pel	Direct Visible Storage Tubes	Primary gun
60	———— is maintains the picture display	Flood gun	Pixel or Pel	Phosphor	primary gun	Flood gun

SYLLABUS

Graphics Hardware: Architecture of Raster and Random scan display devices, input/output devices

2.1 RASTER-SCAN DISPLAYS :-

The most common type of graphics monitor employing a CRT is the raster-scan display, based on television technology. In a raster-scan system, the electron beam is swept across the screen, one row at a time from top to bottom. As the electron beam moves across each row, the beam intensity is turned on and off to create a pattern of illuminated spots.



- Picture definition is stored in a memory area called the **refresh buffer or frame buffer.**

This memory area holds the set of intensity values for all the screen points.

- Stored intensity values are then retrieved from the refresh buffer and "painted" on the screen one row (scan line) at a time (in above Figure**).**
- Each screen point is referred to as a **pixel or pel** (shortened forms of picture element).
- Intensity range for pixel positions depends on the capability of the raster system. In a simple black-and-white system, each screen point is either on or off, so only one bit per pixel is needed to control the intensity of screen positions.
- For a bi-level system, a bit value of 1 indicates that the electron beam is to be turn on at that position,
- And a value of 0 indicates that the beam intensity is to be off.

- Additional bits are needed when color and intensity variations can be displayed. Up to 2**4 bits per pixel are included in high-quality systems**, which can require several megabytes of storage for the frame buffer, depending on the resolution of the system.

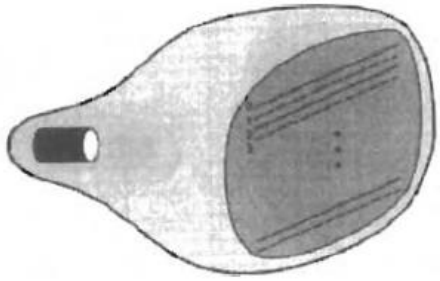
A system with 24 bits per pixel and a screen resolution of 1024 by 1024 requires 3 megabytes of storage for the frame buffer. On a black-and-white system with o**ne bit per pixel, the frame buffer is commonly called a bitmap**.

For systems with multiple bits per pixel, the frame buffer is often referred to as a **pixmap.** Refreshing on raster-scan displays is carried out at the rate of 60 to 80 frames per second, although some systems are designed for higher refresh rates. Sometimes, refresh rates are described in units of cycles per second, or Hertz (Hz), where a cycle corresponds to one frame. Using these units, we would describe

2.2 RANDOM-SCAN DISPLAYS

A random-scan display unit, a CRT has the electron beam directed only to the parts of the screen where a picture is to be drawn. Random scan monitors draw a picture one line at a time and for this reason are also referred to as vector displays *(or* stroke-writing or calligraphic displays). The Component lines of a picture can be drawn and refreshed by a random-scan system in any specified order which is shows in below figure.

(Fig: Interlacing scan lines on the raster scan system)



Refresh rate on a random-scan system depends on the number of lines to be displayed. Picture definition is now stored as a set of line drawing commands in an area of memory r e f e d to as the refresh display file. Sometimes the refresh display file is called the display list, display program, or simply the refresh buffer. To display a specified picture, the system cycles through the set of commands After all line drawing commands have been processed, the system cycles back to the first line command in the list. Random-scan displays are designed to draw all the component lines of a picture **30 to 60 times each second.**

High quality vector systems are capable of handling approximately 100,000 "short" lines at this refresh rate. When a small set of lines is to be displayed, each refresh cycle is delayed to avoid refresh

rates greater than 60 frames per second. Otherwise, faster refreshing of the set of lines could bum out the phosphor.

Random-scan systems are designed for line drawing applications and cannot display realistic shaded scenes. Since **picture definition is stored as a set of line drawing instructions and not as a set of intensity values for all screen points**, vector displays generally have higher resolution than raster systems. Also, vector displays produce smooth line drawings because the CRT beam directly follows the line path.

INPUT DEVICES:-

Various devices *are* available for data input on graphics workstations. Most systems have a keyboard and one or more additional devices specially designed for iterative input. These include a mouse, trackball, space ball, joystick, digitizers, dials, and button boxes. Some other inputs devices are used in particular applications are data gloves, touch panels, image scanners, and voice systems.

KEYBOARD:-

An alphanumeric keyboard on a graphics system is used primarily as a device for entering text strings.

- The keyboard is an efficient device for inputting such non graphic data as picture labels associated with a graphics display.
- Keyboards can also be provided with features to facilitate entry of screen coordinates, menu selections, or graphics functions.
- Cursor-control keys and function keys are common features on general purpose keyboards.
- Function keys allow users to enter frequently used operations in a single keystroke, and cursor-control keys can be used to select displayed objects or coordinate positions by positioning the screen cursor.

Other types of cursor-positioning devices, such as a trackball or joystick, are included on some keyboards. Additionally, a numeric keypad is, often included on the keyboard for fast entry of numeric data. Typical examples of general-purpose keyboards.

- **Alphanumeric Keys - letters and numbers.**
- **Punctuation Keys - comma, period, semicolon, and so on.**
- **Special Keys - function keys, control keys, arrow keys, Caps Lock key, and so on.**

MOUSE:

A mouse is small hand-held box used to position the screen cursor. Wheels or rollers on the bottom of the mouse can be used to record the amount and direction of movement. Another method for detecting mouse motion is with an optical sensor. For these systems, the mouse is moved over a special mouse pad that has a grid of horizontal and vertical lines. The optical sensor detects movement across the lines in the grid. A mouse can be picked up and put down at another position without change in cursor movement; it is used for making relative change in the position of the screen cursor. One, two, or three button usually included on the top of the mouse for signaling the execution of some operation, such as recording cursor position or invoking a function.

MOUSE

Additional devices can be included in the basic mouse design to increase the number of allowable input parameters. The Z mouse includes three buttons, a thumbwheel on the side, a trackball on the top, and a standard mouse ball underneath. This design provides six degrees of freedom to select Input Devices spatial positions, rotations, and other parameters. With the Z mouse, we can pick up an object, rotate it, and move it in any direction, or we can navigate our viewing position and orientation through a three-dimensional scene. Applications of the Z mouse include virtual reality, CAD, and animation.

TRACKBALL AND SPACE BALL:-

Trackball is a ball that can be rotated with the fingers or palm of the hand, to produce screen-cursor movement. Potentiometers, attached to the ball, measure the amount and direction of rotation. Trackballs are often mounted on keyboards or other devices such as the Z mouse. While a trackball is a two-dimensional positioning device,

SPACE BALL:-

Space ball provides six degrees of freedom. Unlike the trackball, a space ball does not actually move. Strain gauges measure the amount of pressure applied to the space ball to provide input for spatial positioning and orientation as the ball is pushed or pulled in various directions.

- Space balls are used for three-dimensional positioning and selection operations in virtual-reality systems, modeling, animation, CAD, and other applications.

JOYSTICKS:-

A joystick consists of a small, vertical lever (called the stick) mounted on a base that is used to steer the screen cursor around. Most joysticks select screen positions with actual stick movement others respond to pressure on the stick. Some joysticks are mounted on a keyboard others function as stand-alone units.

The distance that the stick is moved in any direction from its center position corresponds to screen-cursor movement in that direction. Potentiometers mounted at the base of the joystick measure the amount of movement, and springs return the stick to the center position when it is released. One or more

buttons can be programmed to act as input switches to signal certain actions once a screen position has been selected.

In another type of movable joystick, the stick is used to activate switches that cause the screen cursor to move at a constant rate in the direction selected. Eight switches, arranged in a circle, are sometimes provided, so that the stick can select any one of eight directions for cursor movement. Pressure sensitive joysticks, also called isometric joysticks, have a non movable stick.

JOYSTICKs

DATA GLOVE:-

Data glove that can be used to grasp a "virtual" object. The glove is constructed with a series of sensors that detect hand and finger motions.

- Electromagnetic coupling between transmitting antennas and receiving antennas is used to provide information about the position and orientation of the hand.
- The transmitting and receiving antennas can each be structured as a set of three mutually perpendicular coils, forming a three-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system.
- Input from the glove can be used to position or manipulate objects in a virtual scene.
- A two-dimensional projection of the scene can be viewed on a video monitor, or a three-dimensional projection can be viewed with a headset.

(Fig: A virtual reality screen displayed on a 2-D video monitor with input from data glove and a space ball)

DIGITIZERS:-

A common device for drawing, painting, or interactively selecting coordinate positions on an object is a digitizer. These devices can be used to input coordinate values in either a two-dimensional or a three-dimensional space. Typically, a digitizer is used to scan over a drawing or object and to input a set of discrete coordinate positions, which can be joined with straight- line segments to approximate the curve or surface shapes.

One type of digitizer *is* the graphics tablet (also referred to as a data tablet), which is used to input two-dimensional coordinates by activating a hand cursor or stylus at selected positions on a flat surface. A hand cursor contains cross hairs for sighting positions, while a stylus is a pencil-shaped device that is pointed at positions on the tablet.

- Many graphics tablets are constructed with a rectangular grid of wires embedded in the tablet surface.
- Three-dimensional digitizers use sonic or electromagnetic transmissions to word positions. One electromagnetic transmission method is similar to that used in the data glove.
- A coupling between the transmitter and receiver is used to compute the location of a stylus as it moves over the surface of an object.

DIGITIZERS

IMAGE SCANNERS:-

Drawings, graphs, color and black-and-white photos, or text can be stored for computer processing with an image scanner by passing an optical scanning mechanism over the information to be stored. The gradations of gray scale or color are then recorded and stored in an array. Once we have the internal representation of a picture, we can apply transformations to rotate, scale, or crop the picture to a particular screen area. We can also apply various image-processing methods to modify the array representation of the picture.

For scanned text input, various editing operations can be performed on the stored documents. Some scanners are able to scan either graphical representations or text, and they come in a variety of sizes and capabilities.

IMAGE SCANNERS

TOUCH PANELS:-

Touch panels allow displayed objects or screen positions to be selected with the touch of a finger. A typical application of touch panels is for the selection of processing options that are represented with graphical icons. Some systems, such as the plasma panels are designed with Touch screens

Other systems can be adapted for touch input by fitting a transparent device with a touch sensing mechanism over the video monitor screen. Touch input can be recorded using optical, electrical, or acoustical methods. Optical touch panels employ a line of infrared light-emitting diodes (LEDs).Along one vertical edge and along one horizontal edge of the frame. The opposite vertical and horizontal edges contain light detectors. These detectors are used to record which beams are interrupted when the panel is touched. The two crossing beams that are interrupted identify the horizontal and vertical coordinates of the screen position selected. Positions tin be selected with an accuracy of about ¼ inch With closely spaced LEDs,

The LEDs operate at infrared frequencies, so that the light is not visible to a user. The arrangement of LEDs in an optical touch panel that is designed to match the color and contours of the system to which it is to be fitted.

An electrical touch panel is constructed with two transparent plates separated by a small distance

- **One of the plates is coated with a conducting material,**
- **The other plate is coated with a resistive material**

In acoustical touch panels, high-frequency sound waves are generated in the horizontal and vertical directions across a glass plate. Touching the screen causes part of each wave to be reflected from

the finger to the emitters. The screen position at the point of contact is calculated from a measurement of the time interval between the transmission of each wave and its reflection to the emitter.

TOUCH PANEL

LIGHT PENS:-

In the below figure shows the design of one type of light pen. Such pencil-shaped devices are used to select screen positions by detecting the light coming from points on the CRT screen They are sensitive to *the* short burst of light emitted from the Phosphor coating at the instant the electron beam strikes a particular point. Other Light sources, such as the background light in the room, are usually not detected by a light pen. An activated light pen, pointed at a spot on the screen as the electron beam lights up that spot, generates an electrical pulse that causes the coordinate position of the electron beam to be recorded. As with cursor-positioning devices, recorded Light-pen coordinates can be used to position an object or to select a processing option.

(Fig: Light pen)

- Although Light pens are still with us, they are not as popular.

DISADVANTAGES:-

- Command to other input devices that have been developed. For one, when a light pen is pointed at the screen, part of the screen image is obscured by the hand and pen.
- Light pens require special implementations for some applications because they cannot detect positions within black areas.
- To be able to select positions in any screen area with a light pen, we must have some nonzero intensity assigned to each screen pixel. In addition, light pens. Sometimes give false readings due to background lighting in a room.

VOICE SYSTEMS:-

Speech recognizers are used in some graphics workstations as input devices to accept voice commands the voice-system input can be used to initiate graphics operations or to enter data. These systems operate by matching an input against predefined dictionary of words and phrases. A dictionary is set up for a particular operator by having, the operator speak the command words to be used into the system. Each word is spoken Several times, and the system analyzes the word and establishes a frequency pattern for that word in the dictionary along with the corresponding function to be performed.

Later, when a voice command is given, the system searches the dictionary for a frequency-pattern match. Voice input is typically spoken into a microphone mounted on a headset, as in below

Fig. The microphone is designed to minimize input of other background sounds. If a different operator is to use the System, the dictionary must be reestablished with that operator's voice patterns. Voice systems have some advantage over other input devices, since the attention of the operator does not have to be switched from one device to another to enter a command.

(**Fig: A speech recognition system)**

HARD-COPY DEVICES:-

PRINTERS:

Printers are the most commonly used output device. They are used to print output on the paper. The output may be in the form of characters, symbols and graphics information printed on paper is called hardcopy

The various types of printers in used today are

- **Dot-Matrix Printers**
- **Inkjet Printers**
- **Drum Printers**
- **Laser Printers.**

Printers produce output by either

1. **Impact Printer**
2. **Non impact Printer**

1. Impact Printer

The types of printers that produce output on paper by striking the print hammer or wheel against an inked ribbon are called impact printers. Impact printers work like typewriter. They can print characters and graphics on the paper.

Impact printers are slower in printing and produce low quality output. The printing speed of these printers is measured in characters or lines per minute. They also produce more noise during printing. Today they are not commonly used.

The examples of impact printers are:

1- Dot matrix printer

2- Daisy Wheel printer

3- Line printer

DOT MATRIX PRINTERS:

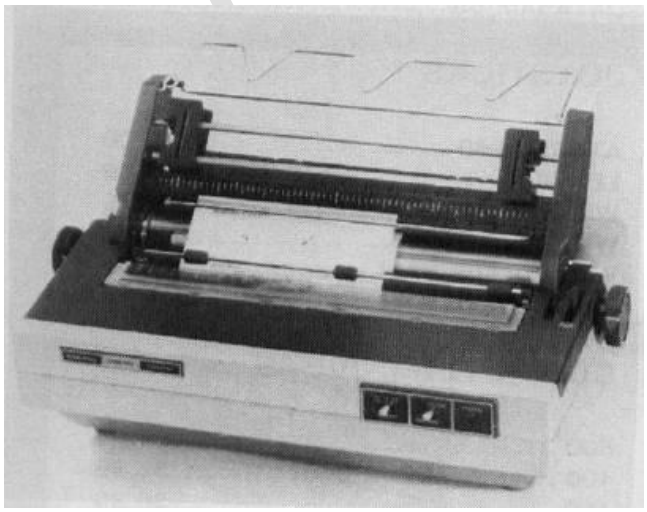
A dot matrix printer is an impact character printer. It makes a hardcopy by printing one character at a time. Its printing speed is from 200 to 1000 or more characters per minute. Dot matrix printer contains a print-head with a matrix of small pins arranged in rows and columns. Dot matrix printer produces output on paper by striking pins against an ink ribbon. Usually, a dot matrix printer uses 100 to 300 dots per inch (DPI) to print output on the paper. Print-heads are available with 9, 18 or 24 pins. The dot matrix printer with 24-pins provides best quality printout.

Dot matrix printers are used with personal computer. They are less expensive. The printout quality of these printers is not bad. They also produce more noise during printing.

DOT MATRIX PRINTER

DAISY WHEEL PRINTER:-

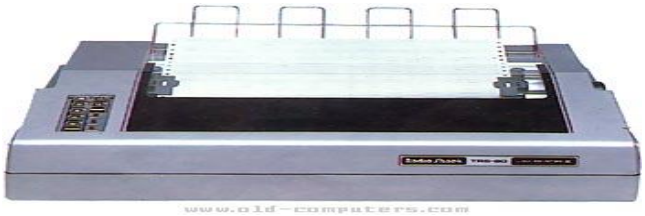
Daisy wheel printer is also an impact character printer. It is similar to typewriter. It has a print wheel with a series of petals. This wheel is known as daisy wheel. Each petal of daisy wheel contains a character at its end. A motor rotates the wheel. When the desired character reaches at the print position on the paper, a hammer strikes a petal against the ribbon. In this way, a character is printed on the paper. This printer is slower than dot-matrix printer. However, its print quality is better than dot matrix printer



DAISY WHEEL PRINTER

LINE PRINTER:-

Line printer is an impact printer. it is very fast printer. It prints a complete line of characters at a time. The printing speed of line printer is measured in lines per minute (lpm). It is up to 3000 lines per minute.



Line printers are normally used with mainframe and mini computers.

Two types of line printers are:-

1- **Chain Printer**

2- **Band Printer**

2. NON IMPACT PRINTERS:-

The printers that produce output on paper without striking the paper are known as non-impact printers. They Use Electrostatic, inkjet, and thermal technologies for printing. Non-Impact printers are faster and produce high quality output than impact printers. They can print up to 24 pages per minute. They produce no noise during printing. These printers are costly than impact printers

The Examples of Non-Impact printers are:

1- **Laser Printer**

2- **Inkjet Printer**

3- **Thermal Printer**

Laser Printer

Laser stands for Light Amplification by Simulated Emission of Radiation. A laser printer is the fastest and high quality non-impact printer. It works like a photocopier. The laser printer transfers the image of output on paper using LASER technology and toner. Toner is an ink powder. It is used in laser printers and photocopiers .

The laser printer has a special drum inside it. first the image of output is created on the drum, and then it is transferred from drum to paper. The image of output is created on the drum by throwing magnetic ink powder in the form of microscopic dots. These dots can be from 300 dpi to 1200 dpi (dpi means dots per inch and these dots refers to microscopic dots).

The Laser printer can print both text and graphics in very high quality resolution. Laser printer prints one page at a time. The laser printers are, therefore also called page printers. The printing speed of laser printer is about 4 to 32 pages per minute for microcomputer and up to 200 pages per minute for mainframe computers.

Ink Jet Printer

Ink-jet printer is type of non-impact printer. It creates output on paper by spraying tiny drops of liquid ink. Inkjet printer has print-head that can spray very fine drops of ink. It consists of print cartridge filled with liquid ink and has small nozzles in form of matrix.

Like dot matrix printer, the combination of nozzles is activated to form the shaper of character or image on the paper by spraying the liquid ink. These printers have resolution ranging from 300 to 720 dpi.

INK JET PRINTER

The ink-jet printers have low price than laser printers. They are also slower and have low print quality than laser printer. However, they are faster and have high print quality than dot matrix printers. The printing speed of ink-jet printer is from 1 to 6 pages per minute.

Thermal Printer

Thermal printer is another type of non-impact printer. It can only print output on a special heat sensitive waxy paper. The image if the output is created on the waxy paper by burning dots on it. For colored output, colored waxy sheets are used.

THERMAL PRINTER

Thermal Printer produces a high quality printout. It is quite expansive as compared to other non-impact printers.

Possible Questions

Two Mark Questions

1. What is Display Processor?
2. List the Input Devices.
3. What is an Output Device?
4. What is an Input Device?
5. List the types of printers.

Six Mark Questions

1. Discuss in general about Random Scan Systems Architecture.
2. Write a note on a) Keyboard b) Trackball
3. Explain about the Raster Scan System Architecture.
4. Write a note on a) Mouse b) Joystick
5. Discuss about various Printers in detail.
6. Write a note on a) Data Glove b) Image Scanner
7. Discuss about a) Keyboard b) Touch Panel
8. Discuss about a) Mouse b) Light Pen
9. Write a detail note on a) Voice System b) Mouse
10. Write a note on a) Mouse b) Joy Stick

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Unit-II

S.No	Questions	opt1	opt2	opt3	opt4	Answer
1	An alphanumeric keyboard on a graphic system is used primarily as a device for entering	Text string	Numeric	Alphanumeric	String	Text string
2	———— and ———— keys are common features on general purpose in keyboards	Mouse	Touch screen	Cursor-control key,function keys	Optical touch	Cursor-control key,function keys
3	The _____ key is used to co-ordinate position by positioning the screen cursor.	Cursor control key	Mouse	Optical touch	Function key	Cursor control key
4	Another method for detecting mouse motion is ——	Primary	Control	Input	optical sensor	optical sensor
5	The tablet use sound waves to detect a system position	Graphics	Acqustic or sonic	Stegnometer	Graphics monitor	Acqustic or sonic
6	Three dimensional digitizers use sonic or ———— transmission to record positions	Electrical Touch panels	Acoustic touch panal	Phosphor	Electromagnetic	Electromagnetic
7	Which dimensional digitizer designed for transmission to apple macintosh computers	Three dimensional	keyboard	Space balls	two dimensional	Three dimensional
8	The plasma panels are designed with ————	Digital	optical sensor	touch screen	Electrical touch pannels	touch screen
9	Touch input can be recorded using ————	optical & electrical	Stegnometer	Graphics monitor	phosphor	optical & electrical
10	———— employe a line of infrared light emitting diodes	Trackballs	Acqustic or sonic	keyboard	optical touch pannels	optical touch pannels
11	Which is constructed with two transperant plates separated by small distance?	Electrical touch pannels	optical touch pannels	Acqustic or sonic	Stegnometer	Electrical touch pannels
12	In ———— high frequency sound waves are generated in horizontal & vertical direction access a glass plates.	Electrical touch pannels	optical touch pannels	Acqustic touch pannel	Digital	Acqustic touch pannel
13	_____is an efficient device for inputting such non graphic data as picture labels associated with a graphics display.	Mouse	keyboard	Monitor	CPU	keyboard
14	_____ keys allow users to enter frequently used operations in a single keystroke, and cursor-control keys	Function	Primary	Control	Input	Function
15	_____ is small hand-held box used to position the screen cursor.	keyboard	Monitor	mouse	CPU	mouse
16	_____detects movement across the lines in the grid.	Digital	optical sensor	Graphics	Analog	optical sensor
17	_____ attached to the ball, measure the amount and direction of rotation.	Stegnometer	Graphics monitor	phosphor	Potentiometer	Potentiometer
18	_____are often mounted on keyboards or other devices such as the Z mouse.	Monitor	Trackballs	Mouse	keyboard	Trackballs
19	_____ are used for three-dimensional positioning and selection operations in virtual-reality systems, modeling, animation, CAD, and other applications.	Trackballs	Mouse	keyboard	Space balls	Space balls
20	A _____consists of a small, vertical lever (called the stick) mounted on a base that is used to steer the screen cursor around.	joystick	Mouse	keyboard	Space balls	joystick
21	_____ is constructed with a series of sensors that detect hand and finger motions.	Mouse	Data glove	keyboard	joystick	Data glove
22	_____coupling between transmitting antennas and receiving antennas is used to provide information about the position and orientation of the hand.	Potentiometer	Electromagnetic	Phosphor	Magnetic device	Electromagnetic
23	A common device for drawing, painting, or interactively selecting coordinate positions on an object is a _____.	digitizer	keyboard	Data glove	Joystick	digitizer
24	A _____ contains cross hairs for sighting positions, while a stylus is a pencil-shaped device that is pointed at positions on the tablet.	Mouse	keyboard	Glove	hand cursor	hand cursor
25	_____ employ a line of infrared light-emitting diodes	Electrical Touch panels	Acoustic touch panal	Optical touch panels	Magnetic touch panel	Optical touch panels
26	An _____ is constructed with two transparent plates separated by a small distance.	Electrical Touch panels	Acoustic touch panal	Optical touch panels	Magnetic touch panel	electrical touch panel
27	_____ have some advantage over other input devices, since the attention of the operator does not have to be switched from one device to another to enter a command.	Voice systems	Panel	Cursor	Speech system	Voice systems
28	_____ press formed character faces against an inked ribbon onto the paper.	Non impact printer	Impact printers	Character impact printer	Inkjet printer	Impact printers
29	_____ and plotters use laser techniques, ink-jet sprays, xerographic processes (as used in photocopying machines), electrostatic methods	Non- impact printers	Impact printers	Character impact printer	Inkjet printer	Non- impact printers
30	_____ often have a dot-matrix print head containing a rectangular array of protruding wire pins	Non- impact printers	Impact printers	Character impact printer	Inkjet printer	Character impact printers
31	___methods produce output by squirting ink in horizontal rows across a roll of paper wrapped on a drum.	Non- impact printers	Impact printers	Character impact printer	Inkjet printer	Ink-jet
32	———— device is used to select screen positions by detecting the light coming from points on the CRT screen	keyboard	Data glove	Joystick	Light pens	Light pens
33	To non-zero intensity assigned to each screen ——	keyboard	pixel	Cursor	Speech system	pixel
34	Which input can be used to initiate graphics operations or to enter data	voice system	digitizer	keyboard	Data glove	voice system
35	———— input is typically spoken into a micro phone mounted on a headset	digitizer	voice system	Cursor	Speech system	voice system
36	———— provides 6 degrees of freedom	space ball	voice system	digitizer	keyboard	space ball
37	Space ball is used in ———— system	voice system	Cursor	Speech system	virtual reality	virtual reality
38	———— attach to the ball to measure the amount and direction of rotation	potentio meter	Electromagnetic	Phosphor	Magnetic device	potentio meter
39	———— is the 2-dimensional positioning device	voice system	track ball	Cursor	Speech system	track ball

SYLLABUS

Fundamental Techniques in Graphics : Raster scan line, circle and ellipse drawing, thick primitives, Polygon filling, line and polygon clipping algorithms, 2D and 3D Geometric Transformations, 2D and 3D Viewing Transformations (Projections- Parallel and Perspective), Vanishing points.

2.1 Raster-Scan Lines

Line Drawing Algorithms

- Equation of straight line is y= mx + b. where m is the slope of straight line and b is the y intercept.
- $M = \frac{y2 - y1}{x2 - x1} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$
- If $|m| < 1$ then Δx is proportional to Δy .
- If $|m| > 1$ then Δy is proportional to Δx .
- Any change in Δx is called as horizontal deflection, any change in Δy is called as vertical deflection. Δy Or Δx .

DDA Line Drawing Algorithm

DDA is a scan conversion line algorithm based on calculating either Δy or Δx .We sample the line at unit intervals in one coordinate and determine corresponding integer nearest to the line path for the other coordinates. Line drawing is accomplished by calculating intermediate positions along the line path between two specified end points. Digital devices display a straight-line segment by plotting discrete points between two end points. Discrete coordinates along the line path are calculated from line equations. Screen locations are referenced with integer values; so plotted positions may only approximate actual line positions between two specified endpoints. The rounding of co-ordinate values to integers causes lines to be displayed with a stair step appearance. To load an intensity value into the frame buffer at a position to column x and line y, the procedure used is

Setpixel (x, y, intensity)

To retrieve the current frame buffer intensity by calling the procedure

Getpixel(x, y)

DDA algorithm is a faster method for calculating pixel positions. The accumulation of round off error in successive additions of the floating-point increment causes the calculated pixel positions to drift away

from the true line path for long line segment. The rounding operations & floating-point arithmetic in DDA procedure is time-consuming. The Cartesian slope intercept equation for a straight line is

$y = m.x+b \rightarrow (1)$

Here m represents slope of the line and b represents y intercept. Let us consider two end points are (x1, y1) & (x2, y2).

Calculating slope and intercept values

$m = y2-y1 / x2-x1 \rightarrow (2)$

$b = y1-m.x1 \rightarrow (3)$

$\Delta y = m.\Delta x \rightarrow (4)$

$\Delta x = \Delta y/m \rightarrow (5)$

Slope magnitudes can set deflection of the voltage.

Lines with the slope magnitude $|m|<1$, Δx have proportional to a small horizontal deflection voltage & vertical deflection proportional to Δy.

$|m|>1$ Δy set to small vertical deflection & horizontal deflection is set to Δx.

$m=1$ $\Delta x=\Delta y$ horizontal and vertical deflection are equal.

DDA algorithm draws lines at unit intervals in one co-ordinate and determines corresponding integer values nearest the line path for the other co-ordinate.

If it is a positive slope

(1) The slope is less than or equal to 1 compute each successive y as

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k + m$$

Subscript k takes integer value starting from 1 and increase by 1 until the final end point is reached.

(2) The slope is greater than 1 then calculate each succeeding x value as

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + (1/m)$$

If the process is from right point to left (ie reverse)

$$Y_{k+1} = Y_k - m$$

$$X_{k+1} = X_k - (1/m)$$

DDA algorithm accepts as a input the two end point pixel positions. Find Horizontal and vertical differences between endpoints positions are assigned to parameters dx and dy. The difference with greater magnitude determines the value of parameter steps. Starting with pixel position (xa, ya), generate next pixel position along the line path. Loop through this process steps times. The value of x and y will get incremented by using algorithm calculations. Then call setpixel for plot pixel. DDA algorithm is faster method. The following algorithm explains the line drawings.

```
#include "device.h"
#define ROUND (a) ((int) (a+0.5))
void lineDDA (int xa, int ya, int xb, int yb)
{
 Int dx=xb-xa, dy=yb-ya, steps, k;
 float xIncrement, yIncrement, x=xa, y=ya;
      if ( abs(dx) > abs(dy) ) then steps :=  abs(dx);
        else steps := abs(dy);
        xIncrement := dx / (float) steps;
        yIncrement := dy / (float) steps;
        setPixel  (ROUND(x) , ROUND(y) );
        for (k := 0;k<steps; k++) {
                x := x + xIncrement;
                y := y + yIncrement;
              setPixel  (ROUND(x) , ROUND(y) );
        }
}
```

Disadvantage: - round of function – drift away from the true line path for long line segment.

Bresenham's Line Drawing Algorithm:

An accurate and efficient raster line generating algorithm, developed by Bresenham, scan converts lines only incremental integer calculation that can be adapted to display circles and other curves. The vertical axes show scan-line positions, and the horizontal axes identity pixel columns. Sampling at unit x intervals in these intervals, we need to find the next closest pixel position in the line, whose value is proportional to difference between the separations of the two pixel positions from the actual path.

Starting from the left endpoint (10,11) we need to determine at the next sample position whether to plot at position (11, 11) or the one at (11, 12).These questions are answered with Bresenham's line algorithm by testing the sign of an integer parameter, whose value is proportional to the difference between the separations of the two pixel positions from the actual line path.

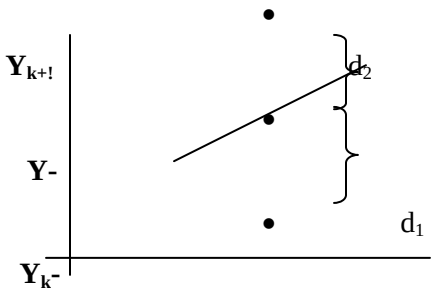
Consider the scan conversion process for lines with positive slope less than 1.Pixel positions along line path are then determined by sampling at unit x intervals. Starting from left end point (xo,yo) of a given line, we step to each successive column and plot pixel whose scan line value is closest to the line

path. Assume we have determined that the pixel $(x_{k,}y_k)$ is to be displayed. Next has to decide which pixel to plot in column x_{k+1}.

The line equation is $y= m(x_k +1)+b$ →eq1)

$d1 = y-y_k$ =→ $m(x_k +1)+b-y_k$ // implemented in eq1

$d2 = (y_k+1)-y$ =→ $y_k+1-m(x_k +1)-b$// implemented in eq1.



The differences between these two separators are

$$M = \Delta y/\Delta x$$

$$d1 - d2 = 2m(x_k +1)-2y_k+2b-1$$

A decision parameter P_k for k th step.

$$P_k = \Delta x(d1-d2)$$

The first parameter can be calculated by the equ $p_0=2\Delta y-\Delta x$. Next point can calculated by $p_{k+1}=p_k+2\Delta y$ and $p_{k+1}=p_k+2\Delta y$.

Bresenham's Line – Drawing Algorithm

- Input the two line endpoints and store the left endpoint in (x_0 , y_0).
- Load (x_0,y_0) into the frame buffer; that is plot the first point.
- Calculate constants Δx, Δy, $2\Delta y$, and $2\Delta y - 2\Delta x$, and obtain the starting value for the decision parameter as

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

- 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

$$p_k + 1 = p_k + 2\Delta y$$

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

$$p_k + 1 = p_k + 2\Delta y - 2\Delta x$$

- Repeat step 4 Δx times.

```
#include "device.h"
void lineBres (int xa, int ya, int xb, int yb)
{
 int dx = abs(xa – xb), dy = abs(ya – yb);
 int p = 2 * dy – dx;
 int twody = 2* dy, twody = 2 * (dy-dx);
 int x, y, xEnd;
   /* determine which point to use as start, which as end */
              if xa  > xb then{
                   x = xb;
                   y = yb;
                xEnd = xa;}
             else{
                   x = xa;
                  y = ya;
                xEnd = xb;}
           setPixel  ( x, y);
           while (x <  xEnd) {
                   x = x ++;
                   if p < 0 then p += twoDy;
                   else{
                        y ++;
                        p += twoDyDx;
                   }
                     setPixel ( x,  y)
         }
     }
```

Circle Generation Algorithm

Properties of a circle:

A circle is defined as the set of points that are all at a given distance r from a center position (x_c, y_c). Pythogorean theorm in caretisan coordinates as $(x-x_c)^2+ (y-y_c)^2= r^{2.}$ By using this calculate position

of points on a circle circumference by stepping along the x axis in unit steps from x_c -r to x_c +r and calculate y as

$$Y= y_c + \text{ or } -\text{sqrt}(r_2-(x_c -r)_2)$$

Problem in this approach

1. Involves more calculations at each step.
2. Spacing between plotted pixel position is not uniform.

To eliminate unequal spaces by polar coordinate as

$$x = x_c + r\cos\theta$$

$$y= y_c + r\sin\theta$$

when a display is generated with these equations using a fixed angular step size, a circle is plotted with equally spaced points along the circumference. θ depends on the application and display device. Shape of the circle is similar in each quadrant. One quadrant are symmetric with respect to the 45° . More efficient circle algorithm are based on incremental calculation of decision parameter. Bresenhams algorithm method for direct distance comparison to test the halfway position between the two pixel to determine this midpoint is inside or outside the circle boundary. Circle function for calculating mid point is

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

$$F_{circle}(x,y)$$

<0 if (x,y) is inside the circle boundary.

=0 if(x,y) is on the circle boundary

>0 if(x,y) is outside the boundary.

Let we consider circle start position (x0,y0)=(0,r).

$P_0 = f_{circle}(1,r-1/2)$

$P_0= 5/4-r$

$P_0 =1-r.$

Midpoint Circle Algorithm

- Input radius r and circle center (x_c,y_c), and obtain the first point on the circumference of a circle centered on the origin as

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

- Calculate the initial value of the decision parameter as

$$p_0 = 5/4 – r$$

- 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 (xk + 1, yk –1) and

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

Where $2x_{k+1} = 2x_k + 2$ and $2y_{k+1} = 2y_k – 2$.

- Determine symmetry points in the other seven octants.
- Move each calculated pixel position (x,y) onto the circular path centered on (x_c, y_c) and plot the coordinate values:

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

- Repeat steps 3 through 5 until x >= y;

```
include"device.h"
void circleMidpoint (int xCenter, int yCenter, int radius);
{
  int  x=0, y=radius;
    int p=1-radius;
void circleplotPoints(int, int, int , int )
/* float first set of points */
Circlefloatpoints(Xcenter, Ycenter, x,y)
While(x<y)
{
   x++;
if (p<0)
     p+=2*x+1;
else
 {
     y--;
     p := p + 2 * (x – y) + 1;
 } }
void circle plotpoints(int xCenter, int yCenter, int x, int y)
{
          setPixel (xCenter + x, yCenter + y);
           setPixel (xCenter - x, yCenter + y);
           setPixel (xCenter + x, yCenter - y);
```

```
        setPixel (xCenter - x, yCenter - y);
        setPixel (xCenter + y, yCenter + x);
        setPixel (xCenter - y, yCenter + x);
        setPixel (xCenter + y, yCenter - x);
        setPixel (xCenter - y, yCenter - x);
    }
```

Two dimensional graphics:

Basic transformation:

1. TRANSLATION.
2. ROTATION.
3. SCALING.

1. TRANSLATION: -

- It is applied to an object by repositioning it along a straight line from one coordinate location to another.
- We translate a 2-D point by adding translation distances, tx & ty to the original coordinate position (x, y) to move the point to a new position (x', y').
- **x' = x +tx & y' = y + ty.**
- The translation distance pair (tx , ty) is called a Translation vector or Shift vector.
- Translation equations as a single matrix equations by column vectors represent the coordinates:

  P' = P +T. → (1)

- Where **P=** $\begin{bmatrix} x1 \\ x2 \end{bmatrix}$**, P' =** $\begin{bmatrix} x1' \\ x2' \end{bmatrix}$**, T =** $\begin{bmatrix} tx \\ ty \end{bmatrix}$
- In terms of coordinate row vectors :

  $P = [x, y]$ & $T = [tx, ty]$

- Translation is a Rigid-body transformation that moves object without deformation.
- A straight-line segment is translated by applying the transformation equation (1) to each of the line endpoints and redraws the line between the new endpoint positions.
- Polygons are translated by adding the translating vector to the coordinate position of each vertex and regenerating the polygons using the new set of vertex coordinates.

- To change the position of a circle or ellipse we translate the center coordinates and redraw the figure in the new location.
- If tx, ty value is higher than the width value then there will be an error [Wraparound].

2. ROTATION:

- A 2-D rotation is applied to an object by repositioning it along a circular path in the XY plane.
- To generate a rotation specify a rotation point (or) pivot point about which the object is to be rotated.
- Positive values for rotation angle define counterclockwise rotation about the pivot point.
- Negative values rotate object in the clockwise direction.
- This transformation can also be described as a rotation about a rotation axis that is perpendicular to the XY plane and passes through the pivot point.
  1. The transformation equation for rotation of a point position P when the pivot point is at the coordinate origin:

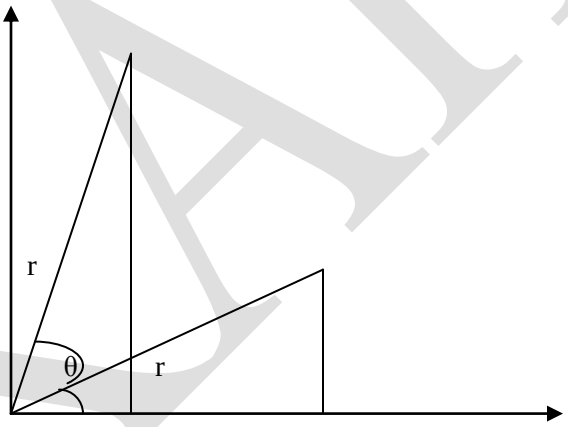


Figure shows the angular and coordinate relationships of the original and transformed point positions:

- In the figure r is the constant distance of the point from the origin.
- Angle Φ is the original angular position of the point from the horizontal.
- Θ is the rotation angle.
- By using the trigonometric identities;

$$\cos\Theta = \frac{adj}{hyp}$$

$$\sin\Theta = \frac{opp}{hyp}$$

$$\tan\Theta = \frac{opp}{adj}$$

$X = r \cos \Phi \rightarrow (1)$

$Y = r \sin \Phi \rightarrow (2)$

$X' = r \cos (\Phi + \Theta) \rightarrow (3)$

$Y' = r \sin (\Phi + \Theta) \rightarrow 4)$

2. Rotation of a point about an arbitrary pivot position:

   Objects can be rotated about an arbitrary point by modifying the equation (7) to include the coordinates (xr , yr) for the selected rotation point.

   - The transformation equations for the rotated coordinates are obtained by the trigonometric relationship.

     $X' = xr + (x - xr) \cos\Theta - (y - yr) \sin\Theta$

     $Y' = yr + (x - xr) \sin\Theta + (y - yr) \cos\Theta$

   - Every point on an object is rotated through the same angle.

3. SCALING:

   - Scaling transformation alters the size of an object.
   - For polygon the scaling can be carried out by multiplying the coordinate values (x , y) of each vertex by scaling factors sx & sy to produce the transformed coordinates (x', y') :

     $x' = x.sx$ & $y' = y.sy \rightarrow (1)$

   - Scaling factors sx scales object in the x-direction & sy in the y-direction.

   - Transformation equation in the matrix form :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} sx & 0 \\ 0 & sy \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

p' =s.p

- Any positive values can be assigned to the scaling factors sx & sy.
- Sx & sy values less than 1 reduce the size of objects.
- Values greater than 1 produces enlarged object.
- Value of sx & sy is 1means leaves the size of objects unchanged.
- When sx & sy are of same value a uniform scaling is produced.
- Unequal values for sx & sy results in a differential scaling.
- We can control the location of a scaled object by choosing a position called the fixed point, which remains unchanged after the scaling transformation.
- Scaling relative to a chosen fixed point (xf , yf) is:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} X &= xf + (x - xf).Sx \\ y &= yf + (y - yf).sy \end{aligned}\right\} \rightarrow \textbf{(3)}$$

(3) Same as

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x' &= x.sx + (1 - sx).xf \\ y' &= y.sy + (1 - sy).yf \end{aligned}\right\}$$

MATRIX REPRESENTATIONS & HOMOGENEOUS COORDINATES:

- To express any 2-D transformation as a matrix multiplication we represent each Cartesian coordinate position (x, y) with the homogeneous coordinate triple (xh, yh, h) where $X = \frac{xh}{h}$ $Y = \frac{yh}{h}$
- Homogeneous coordinate can also be represent as (xh, yh, h).
- For 2-D geometric transformation we choose the homogeneous parameter h to be any non-zero value.
- For 2-D homogeneous coordinates (x, y, 1).
- Other values for parameter h are needed for 3-D viewing transformation.

For translation transformation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & tx \\ 0 & 1 & ty \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} . \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

P'=T (x, y). P

X'=x + tx

Y'=y + ty

1=1

For Rotation Transformation:

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

P'=R (θ). P

X'=x. Cosθ -y. Sinθ

Y'=y Cosθ +x. Sinθ

For Scaling Transformation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} sx & o & o \\ 0 & sy & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} . \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

P'=S (Sx, Sy). P

X'=x. Sx

Y'=y. Sy

- Matrix representations are standard methods for implementing transformation in graphics system.

COMPOSITE TRANSFORMATION:

- It means calculating the matrix product of the individual transformations.
- The resultant matrix is referred to as a concatenation or composition of matrices.

1. **Translations:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & tx2 \\ 0 & 1 & ty2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & tx1 \\ 0 & 1 & ty1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & tx1+tx2 \\ 0 & 1 & ty1+ty2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

T (tx2, ty2). T (tx1, ty1) = T (tx1+tx2, ty1+ty2)

2. **Rotations:**

$P' = R(\theta 1 + \theta 2) . P$

3. **Scaling:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} sx2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & sy2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} sx1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & sy1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} sx1.sx2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & sy1.sy2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

S (sx2, xy2). S (sx1, sy1)=S (sx1.sx2, sy1.sy2)

4. **General Pivot-Point Rotation:**
   - Rotation about any selected pivot-point (x, y) by performing translation-rotation-translation.
   - **Steps:**
     a) Translate the object so that the pivot point position is moved to the coordinate origin.
     b) Rotate the object about the coordinate origin.
     c) Translate the object so that the pivot point is returned to its original position.
5. **General Fixed Point Scaling:**
   a) Translate objects so that the fixed point coincides with the coordinate origin.
   b) Scale the object with respect to the coordinate origin.
   c) Use the inverse translation of step1 to return to the original position.

OTHER TRANSFORMATION:

i.Reflection:

- A reflection is a transformation that produces a mirror image of an object.
- The mirror image for 2-D reflection is generated relative to an axis of reflection by rotating the object 180* about the reflection axis.

i. Reflection about the line y=0 the x-axis is accomplished with the transformation matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This transformation keeps x-values the same but flips the y values of coordinate position.

ii.Reflection about the line x=0 the y-axis is accomplished with the transformation matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this x-coordinates are flipped and y coordinates are same.

iii.If we flip both x and y coordinates of a point by reflecting relative to an axis that is perpendicular to the xy plane and that through the coordinate origin. Matrix representation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

ivReflection axis as the diagonal line y=x the reflection matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Steps:

1) First perform a clockwise rotation through a 45* angle which rotates the line y=x onto the x-axis.
2) Next perform a reflection with respect to the x-axis.
3) Finally rotate the line y=x back to its original position with a counter clock wise rotation through 45*.

Another equivalent steps:

1) First reflect the object about the x-axis.
2) Then to rotate counter clockwise 90*.

[Figure & Derivation Refer Class Notes

Transformation matrix for reflection about the diagonal y= -x.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Steps:

1) Clockwise rotation by 45*
2) Reflection about y-axis.
3) Counter clockwise rotation by 45*

Another Format

1) Reflect about y-axis.
2) Rotate Counter Clockwise 90*.

Shear:

- A transformation that distorts the shape of an object such that the transformed shape appears as if the object were composed of internal layers that had been caused to slide over each other is called a SHEAER.
- A x-direction shear relative to the x-axis:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & shx & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

X value is changed & y value remains same.

- A y-direction shear relative to the line y-axis:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ shy & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Y value is changed & x value remains constant.

Clipping Operation

Generally, any procedure that identifies those portions of a picture that are either inside or outside of a specified region of space is referred to as a clipping algorithm, or simply clipping. The region against which an object is to clipped is called a clip window.

Applications of clipping include extracting part of a defined scene for viewing; identifying visible surfaces in three-dimensiona1 views; anti aliasing line *seg*ments or object boundaries; creating objects using solid-modeling procedures;

Displaying a multi window environment; and drawing and painting operations that allow parts of a picture to be selected for copying, moving, erasing, or duplicating. Depending on the application, the clip window can be a general polygon or it can even have curved boundaries. We first consider clipping methods using rectangular clip regions, then we discuss methods for other clip region shapes.

In the following sections, we consider algorithms for clipping the following primitive types

- Point Clipping
- Line Clipping (straight-line segments)
- Area Clipping (polygons)
- Curve Clipping
- Text Clipping

Line and polygon clipping routines are standard components of graphics packages, but many packages accommodate curved objects, particularly spline curves and conics, such as circles and ellipses. Another way to handle curved objects is to approximate them with straight-line segments and apply the line or polygon clipping procedure.

Point clipping

Assuming that the clip window is a rectangle in standard position, we save a point P = ***(x, y)*** for display if the following inequalities are satisfied:

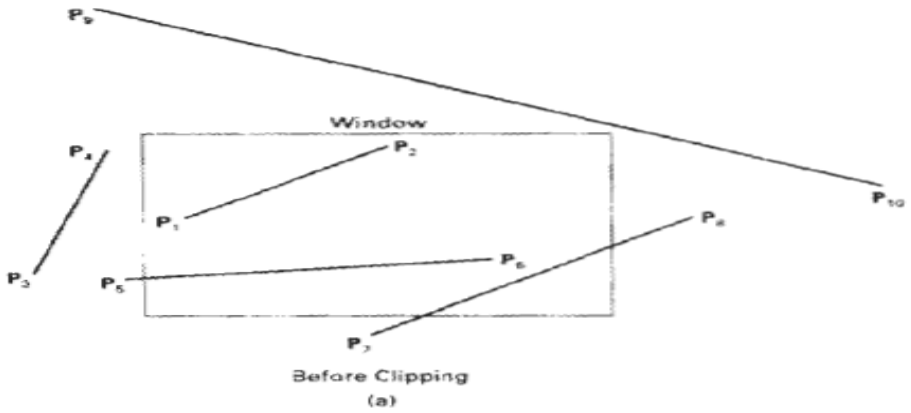
$$xw_{min} \leq x \leq xw_{max}$$

$$yw_{min} \leq y \leq yw_{max}$$

where the edges of the clip window $(xw_{min}, xw_{max}, yw_{min}, yw_{max})$ can be either the world-coordinate window boundaries or view port boundaries. If any one of these four inequalities is not satisfied, the point is clipped (not saved for display). Although point clipping is applied less often than line or polygon clipping, some .applications may require a point clipping procedure. For example, point clipping can be applied to scenes involving explosions or sea foam that are modeled with particles (points) distributed in some region of the scene.

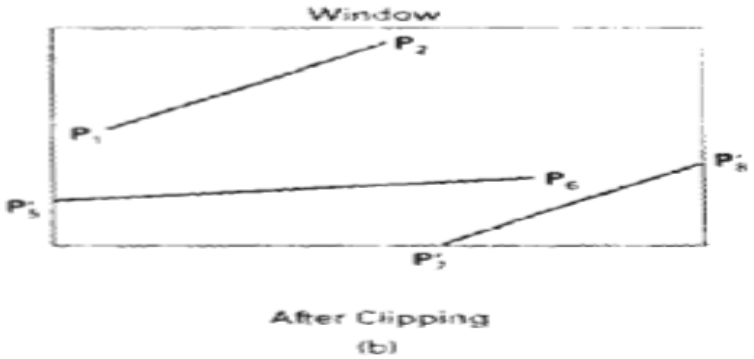
Line clipping

The relationships between line positions and a standard rectangular clipping region. A line clipping procedure involves several parts. First, we can test a given line segment to determine whether it lies completely inside the clipping window. If it does not, we try to determine whether it lies completely outside the window. Finally, if we cannot identify a line as completely inside or completely outside, we must perform intersection calculations with one or more clipping boundaries. We process lines through the "inside-outside" tests by checking the line endpoints. A line with both endpoints inside all clipping boundaries, such as the line from P_1 to P_2, is saved. A line with both endpoints outside any one of the clip boundaries (line $\overline{P_3P_4}$ in Figure) is outside the window.



Line clipping against a rectangular shape window.

All other lines cross one or more clipping boundaries, and may require calculation of multiple intersection points. to minimize calculations, we try to devise clipping algorithms that can efficiently identify outside lines and reduce intersection calculations.



For a line segment with endpoints $(x_1,y_1)$and(x_2,y_2) and one or both endpoints outside the clipping rectangle, the parametric representation.

$$X= x_v+u(x_2-x_1)$$

$$Y= y_v+u (y_2-y_1) \qquad 0<u<1$$

Could be used to determine values of parameter **u** for intersections with the clipping boundary coordinates. If the value of *u* for an intersection with a rectangle boundary edge is outside the range *0* to 1, the line does not enter the interior of the window at that boundary. If the value of *u* is with in the range from 0 to 1, the line segment does indeed cross into the clipping area. This method can be applied to each clipping boundary edge in turn to determine whether any part of the line segment is to be displayed. Line segments that are parallel to window edges can be handled as specia1 cases.

Clipping line segments with these parametric tests requires a good deal of

Computation and faster approaches to clipping are possible. A number of efficient line clippers have been developed, and we survey the major algorithms in the next section. Some algorithm are designed explicitly for two-dimensional Pictures and some are easily adapted to three-dimensional applications.

Cohen-Sutherland line clipping

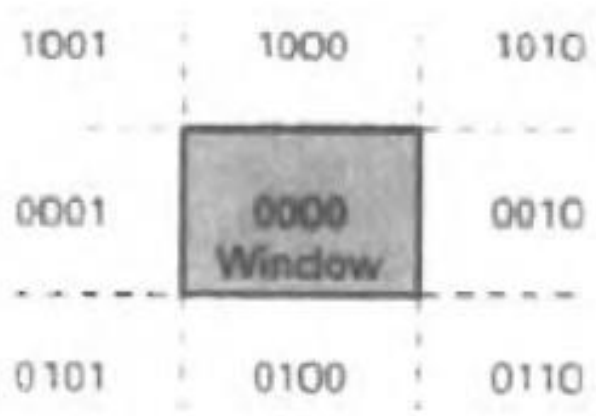
This is one of the oldest and most popular line-clipping procedures. Generally, the method speeds up the processing of line segments performing initial tests that reduce the number of intersections that must he calculated. Every line end Point in a picture is assigned a four-digit binary code, called a region code that identifies the location of the point relative to the boundaries of the clipping rectangle. Regions are set up in reference to the boundaries as shown in Fig.7**.** Each bit position in the region code is used to indicate one of the four relative coordinate positions of the point with respect to the clip window: to the left, right, top, or bottom. By numbering the bit positions in the region code as 1 through 4 from right to left, the coordinate regions can be correlated with the bit positions as

bit 1: left

bit 2: right

bit 3: below

bit 4: above



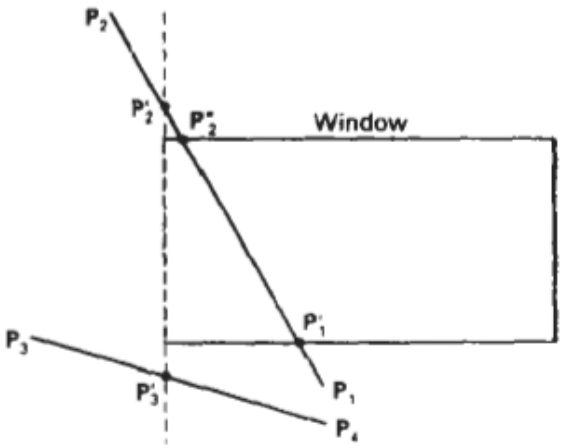
Binary region codes assigned to line endpoints according to relative position with respect to the clipping rectangle.

A value of 1 in any bit position indicates that the point is in that relative position; Otherwise, the bit position is set to 0. If a point is within the clipping rectangle, the region code is 0000. A point that is below and to the left of the rectangle has a region code of 0101. Bit values in the region code are determined by comparing endpoint Coordinate values (x, y) to the clip boundaries. Bit 1 is set to 1 if x $< xw_{min}$,. The other three bit values can be determined using similar comparisons. For languages in which bit manipulation is possible, region-code bit values can be determined with the following two steps: (1) Calculate differences between endpoint coordinates and clipping boundaries. (2) Use the resultant sign bit of each difference calculation to set the corresponding value in the region code. Bit **1** is the sign bit of ***x*** - bit 2 is the sign bit of $xw_{max} - x;$ bit 3 is the sign bit of $y - yw_{min};$ and bit 4 is the sign bit of $yw_{max} - y.$

Once we have established region codes for all line endpoints, we can quickly determine which lines are completely inside the clip window and which are clearly outside. Any lines that are completely contained within the window boundaries have a region code of 0000 for both endpoints, and we trivially accept these lines. Any lines that have a 1 in the same bit position in the region codes for each endpoint are completely outside the clipping rectangle, and we trivially reject these lines. We would discard the line that has a region code of 1001 for one endpoint and a code of 0101 for the other endpoint. Both endpoints of this line are left of the clipping rectangle, as indicated by the 1 in the first bit position of each region code. A method that can be used to test lines for total clipping is to perform the logical and

operation with both region codes. If the result is not 0000, the line is completely outside the clipping region.

Lines that cannot be identified as completely inside or completely outside a Clip window by these tests are checked for intersection with the window boundaries. As shown in Fig.8, such lines may or may not cross into the window interior. We begin the clipping process for a line by comparing an outside endpoint to a clipping boundary to determine how much of the line can be discarded. Then the remaining part of the Line is checked against the other boundaries, and we continue until either the line is totally discarded or a section is found inside the window. We set up our algorithm to check line endpoints against clipping boundaries in the order left, right, bottom, top.



Lines extending from one coordinate region to another may pass through the clip window, or they may intersect clipping boundaries without entering the window.

To illustrate the specific steps in clipping lines against rectangular boundaries using the Cohen-Sutherland algorithm, we show how the lines in Figure could be processed. Starting with the bottom endpoint of the line from P_1 to P_2

We check P, against the left, right, and bottom boundaries in turn and find that this point is below the clipping rectangle. We then find the intersection point Pi with the bottom boundary and discard the line section from P_1 to P'_1. The line now has been reduced to the section from P'_1 to P_2. since P_2 is outside the clip window, we check this endpoint against the boundaries and find that it is to the left of the window. Intersection point P'_2 is calculated, but this point is above the window. So the final intersection calculation yields P''_2, and the line from P'_1 to P''_2 is saved. This completes processing for this line, so we

save this part and go on to the next line. Point P_3 in the next line is to the left of the clipping rectangle, so we determine the intersection P'_3 and eliminate the line section from P_3 to P'_3. By checking region codes for the line section from P'_3 to P_4, we find that the remainder of the line is below the clip window and can be discarded also.

Intersection points with a clipping boundary can be calculated using the Slope-intercept form of the line equation. For a line with endpoint coordinates (x,y,) and (x2, y2), they coordinate of the intersection point with a vertical boundary can be obtained with the calculation.

$$Y=y_1+m(x-x_1)$$

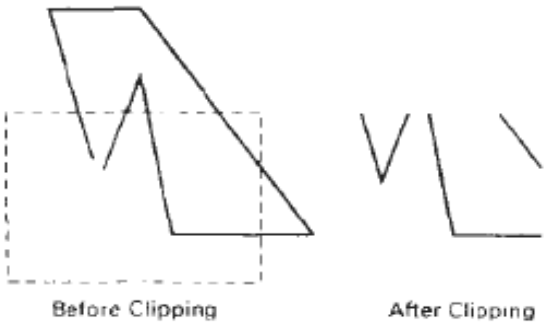
where the ***x*** value is set either to xw_{min} to xw_{max} and the slope of the line is calculated as m=(y2-y1)/(x2-x1).Similarly, if we are looking for the intersection with a horizontal boundary, the ***x*** coordinate can be calculated as

$$x = x_1 + \frac{y - y_1}{m}$$

with y set either to yw_{min} or to yw_{max}

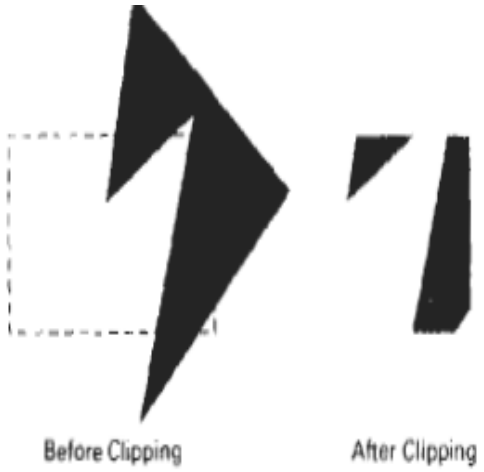
Polygon clipping

To clip polygons, we need to modify the line-clipping procedures discussed in the previous section. A polygon boundary processed with a line clipper may be displayed as a series of unconnected line segments Figure depending on the Orientation of the polygon to the clipping window.



Display of a polygon processed by a line-dipping algorithm

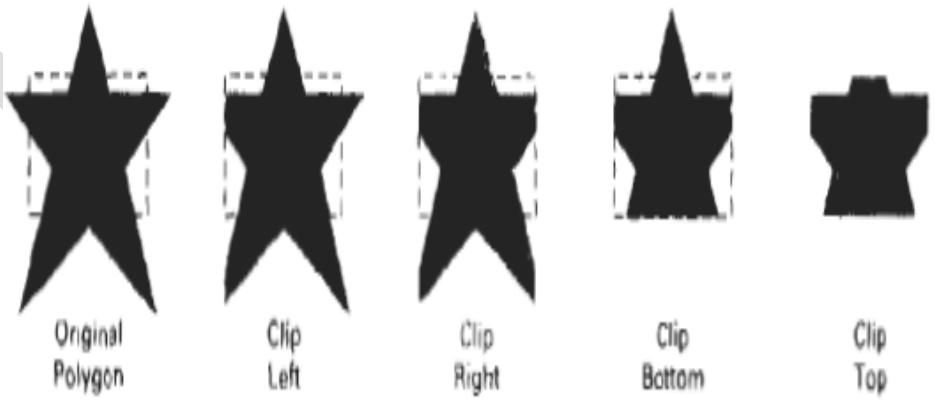
What we really want to display is a bounded area after clipping, as in Figure. For polygon clipping, we require an algorithm that will generate one or more closed areas that are then scan converted for the appropriate area fill. The output of a polygon clipper should be a sequence of vertices that defines the clipped polygon boundaries.



Display of a correctly clipped polygon.

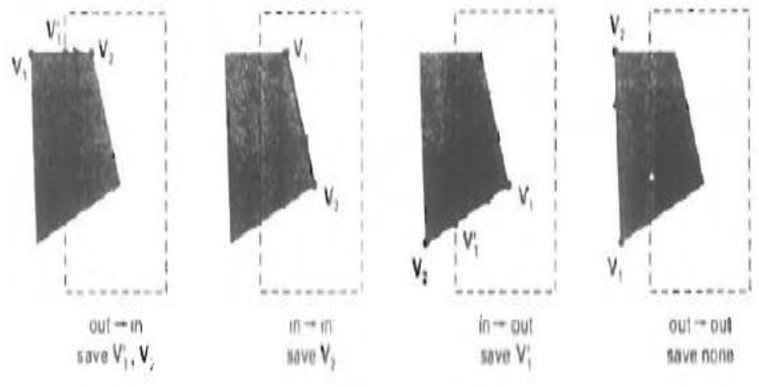
Sutherland-Hodgeman polygon clipping

We can correctly clip a polygon by processing the polygon boundary as a whole against each window edge. This could be accomplished by processing all polygon vertices against each clip rectangle boundary in turn. Beginning with the initial set of polygon vertices, we could first clip the polygon against the left rectangle boundary to produce a new sequence of vertices. The new set of vertices could then k successively passed to a right boundary clipper, a bottom boundary clipper, and a top boundary clipper, as in Fig.11. At each step, a new sequence of output vertices is generated and passed to the next window boundary clipper.



Clipping a polygon against successive window boundaries.

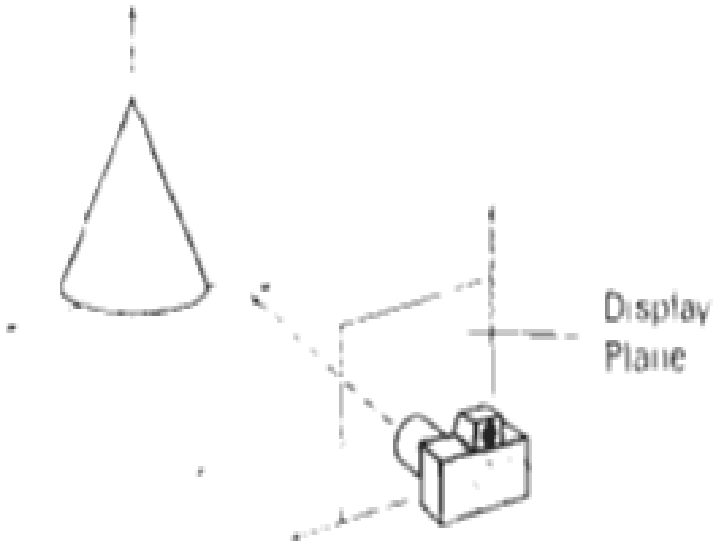
There are four possible cases when processing vertices in sequence around the perimeter of a polygon. As each pair of adjacent polygon vertices is passed to a window boundary clipper, we make the following tests: (1) If the first vertex is Outside the window boundary and the second vertex is inside, both the intersection point of the polygon edge with the window boundary and the second vertex are added to the output vertex list. *(2)* If both input vertices are inside the window boundary, only the second vertex is added to the output vertex list. (3) if the first vertex is inside the window boundary and the second vertex is outside, only the edge intersection with the window boundary is added to the output vertex list. (4) If both input vertices are outside the window boundary, nothing is added to the output list. These four cases are illustrated in Figure for successive pairs of polygon vertices. Once all vertices have been processed for one clip window boundary; the output 1ist of vertices is clipped against the next window boundary.



Successive processing of pairs of polygon vertices against the left window boundary.

Three dimensional display methods

To obtain a display of a three-dimensional scene that has been modeled in world coordinates. We must first set up a coordinate reference for the "camera". This coordinate reference defines the position and orientation for the plane on the camera film Figure, which is the plane we want to use to display a view of the objects in the scene. Object descriptions are then transferred to the camera reference coordinates and projected onto the selected display plane. We can then display the objects in wire frame (outline) form; we can apply lighting and surface rendering techniques to shade the visible surfaces.



Coordinate reference for obtaining a particular view of a three dimensional scene

Three Dimensional Geometric Transformations

Methods for geometric transformations and object modeling in three dimensions are extended from two-dimensional methods by including considerations for the ***z*** coordinate. We now translate an object by specifying a three-dimensional translation vector, which determines how much the object is to be moved in each of the three coordinate directions. Similarly, we scale an object with three coordinate scaling factors. The extension for three-dimensional rotation is less straightforward. When we discussed two-dimensional rotations in the *xy* plane, we needed to consider only rotations about axes that were perpendicular to the *xy* plane. In three-dimensional space, we can now select any spatial orientation for the rotation axis. Most graphics packages handle three-dimensional rotation as a composite of three rotations, one for each of the three Cartesian axes. Alternatively, a user can easily set up a general rotation matrix, given the orientation of the axis and the quired rotation angle. As in the two-dimensional case, we express geometric transformations in matrix form. Any sequence of transformations is then represented as, a single matrix, formed by concatenating the matrices for the individual transformations in the sequence.

Translation

In a three-dimensional homogeneous coordinate representation, a point is translated from position P = *(x,* y, *z)* to position P' = *(x',* y', z') with the matrix operation

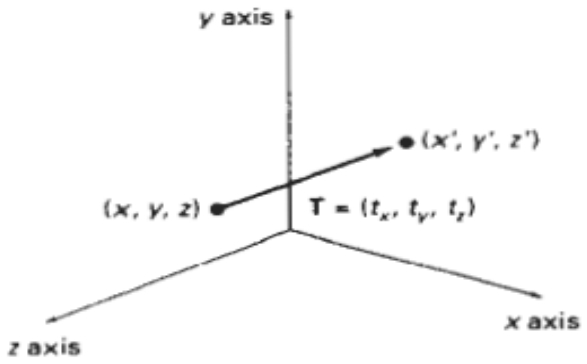
$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Or

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

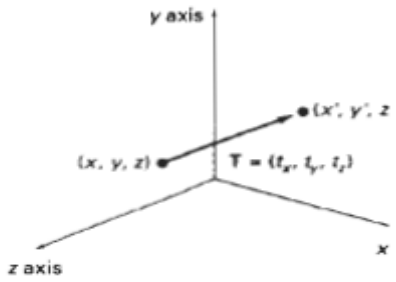
Parameters $t_x, t_y, and\ t_z$, specifying translation distances for the coordinate directions ***x, y,*** and z, are assigned any real values. The matrix representation is equivalent to the three equations,

$$x' = x + t_x, \qquad y' = y + t_y, \qquad z' = z + t_z$$



Translating a point with translation vector $\mathbf{T} = (t_x, t_y, t_z)$.

An object is translated in three dimensions by transforming each of the defining points of the object. For an object represented as a set of polygon surfaces, we translate each vertex of each surface Figure and redraw the polygon facets in the new position.



Translating an object with translation vector T.

We obtain the inverse of the translation matrix in Eq. 11-1 by negating the translation distances t_x,t_y and t_z this produces a translation in the opposite direction, and the product of a translation matrix and its inverse produces the identity Matrix.

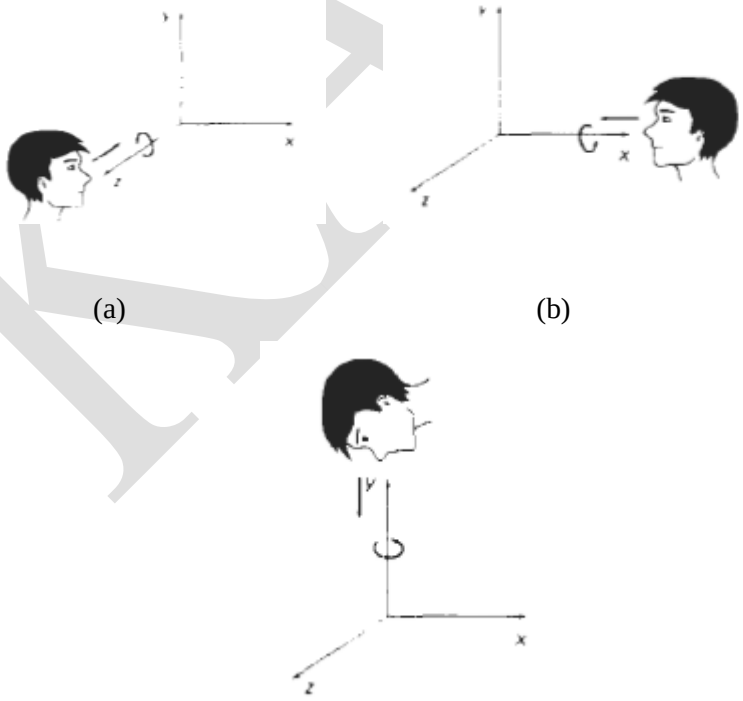
Rotation

To generate a rotation transformation for an object, we must designate an axis of rotation (about which the object is to be rotated) and the amount of angular rotation. Unlike two- dimensional applications, where all transformations are carried

out in the xy plane, a three-dimensional rotation can be specified around any line in space. The easiest rotation axes to handle are those that are parallel to the coordinate axes. Also, we can use combinations of coordinate axis rotations (along with appropriate translations) to specify any general rotation.

By convention, positive rotation angles produce counterclockwise rotations about a coordinate axis, if we are looking along the positive half of the axis toward the coordinate origin Figure. This agrees with our earlier discussion of Rotation in two dimensions, where positive rotations in the xy plane are counterclockwise about axes parallel to the z axis.

Fig3: Positive rotation directions about the coordinate axes are Counterclockwise, when looking toward the origin from a positive coordinate position on each axis.



(a) (b)

(c)

Coordinate-Axes Rotations

The two-dimensional z-axis rotation equations are easily extended to three dimensions:

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

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

$$z' = z$$

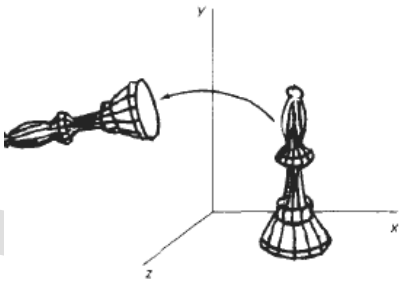
Parameter θ specifies the rotation angle. In homogeneous coordinate form, the three-dimensional z-axis rotation equations are expressed as,

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

which we can write more compactly as,

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

Figure illustrates rotation of an object about the z axis.



Rotation of an object about the z axis

Transformation equations for rotations about the other two coordinate axes can be obtained with a cyclic permutation of the coordinate parameters ***x,*** y, and z in Eqs. 11-4. That is, we use the replacements

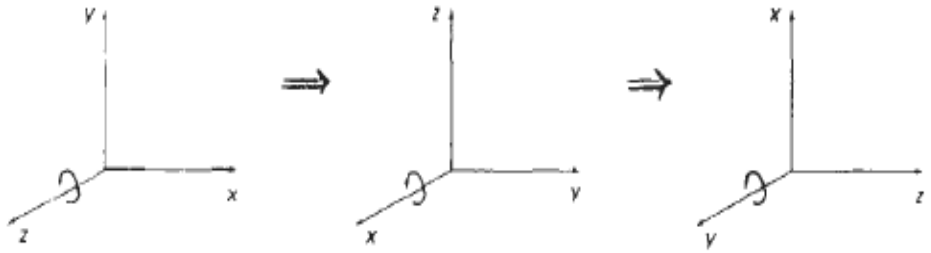
$$x \rightarrow y \rightarrow z \rightarrow x$$

as illustrated in Figure. Substituting permutations, we get the equations for an x-axis rotation:

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

which can be written in the homogeneous coordinate form

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



Cyclic permutation of the Cartesian-coordinate axes to produce the three sets of coordinate-axis rotation equations.

Cyclically permuting coordinates give us the transformation equations for a y-axis rotation:

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

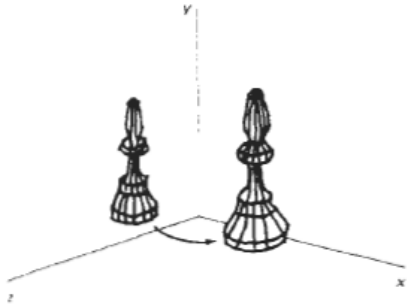
The matrix representation for y-axis rotation is

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

Or

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

An example of y-axis rotation is shown in Figure



Rotation of an object about the y axis.

An inverse rotation matrix is formed by replacing the rotation angle 0 by $-\theta$. Negative values for rotation angles generate rotations in a clockwise direction, so the identity matrix is produced when any rotation matrix is multiplied by its inverse. Since only the sine function is affected by the change in sign of the rotation angle, the inverse matrix can also be obtained by interchanging rows and columns. That is, we can calculate the inverse of any rotation matrix R by evaluating its transpose $(\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}^{T})$. This method for obtaining an inverse matrix holds also for any composite rotation matrix.

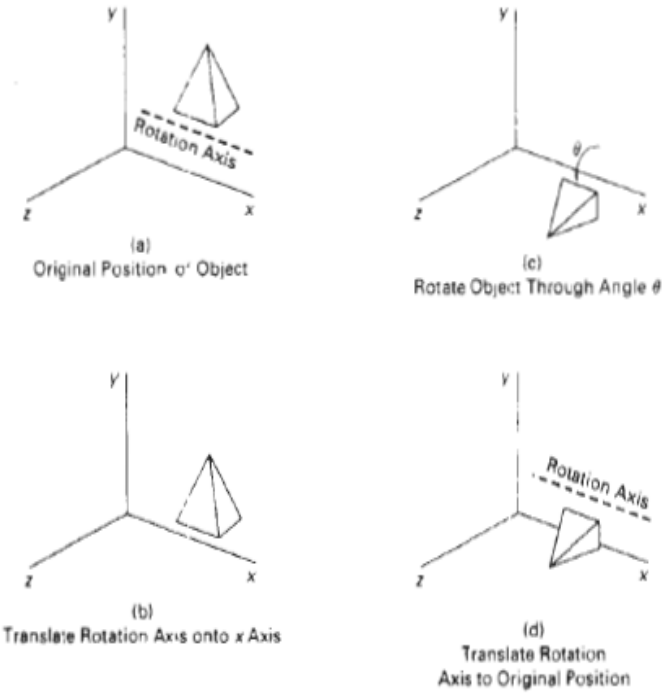
General Three-Dimensional Rotations

A rotation matrix for any axis that does not coincide with a coordinate axis can be set up as a composite transformation involving combinations of translations and the coordinate-axes rotations. We obtain the required composite matrix by first setting up the transformation sequence that moves the selected rotation axis onto one of the coordinate axes. Then we set up the rotation matrix about that coordinate axis for the specified rotation angle. The last step is to obtain the inverse transformation sequence that returns the rotation axis to its original position.

In the special case where an object is to be rotated about an axis that is parallel to one of the coordinate axes, we can attain that desired rotation with the following transformation sequence.

1. Translate the object so that the rotation axis coincides with the parallel coordinate axis.
2. Perform the specified rotation about that axis.
3. Translate the object so that the rotation axis is moved back to its original position.

The steps in this sequence are illustrated in Figure. Any coordinate position P on the object in this figure is transformed with the sequence shown as, $\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_{y}(\theta) \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P}$



Sequence of transformations for rotating an object about an axis that is parallel to the *x* axis

where the composite matrix for the transformation is,

$$\mathbf{R}(\theta) = \mathbf{T}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_x(\theta) \cdot \mathbf{T}$$

which is of the same form as the two-dimensional transformation sequence for rotation about an arbitrary pivot point.

When an object is to be rotated about an axis that **is** not parallel to one of the coordinate axes, we need to perform some additional transformations. In this case, w also need rotations lo align the axis with a selected coordinate axis and to bring the axis hack to its original orientation. Given the specifications for the rotation axis and the rotation angle, we can accomplish the required rotation in five steps.

1 Translate the object so that the rotation axis pass= through the coordinate origin.

2. Rotate the object so that the axis of rotation coincides with one of the coordinate axes.

3. Perform the specified rotation about that coordinate axis.

4. Apply inverse rotations to bring the rotation axis back to its original orientation.

5. Apply the inverse translation to bring the rotahon axis back to its original position.

Scaling

The matrix expression for the scaling transformation of a position P = (x, y, *z)* relative to the coordinate origin can be written as

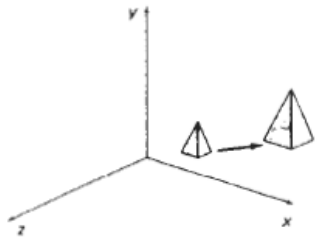
$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Or

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

Where scaling parameters $s_{x,\ syandszare}$ assigned any positive values. Explicit expressions for the coordinate transformations for scaling relative to the origin are

$$x' = x \cdot s_x, \qquad y' = y \cdot s_y, \qquad z' = z \cdot s_z$$



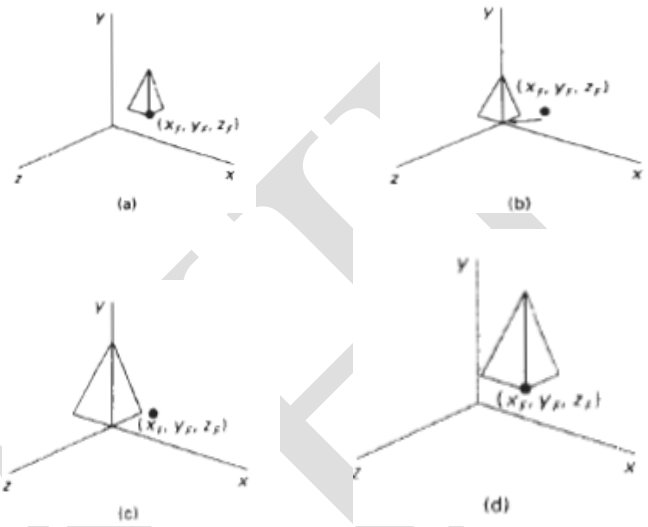
Doubling the sue of an object with transformation 11-42 also moves the object farther from the origin

Scaling an object with transformation 11-42 changes the size of the object and repositions the object relative to the coordinate origin. Also, if the transformation parameters are not all equal, relative dimensions in the object are changed: We preserve the original shape of an object with a uniform scaling $(s_x = s_y = s_z)$. The result of scaling an object uniformly with each scaling parameter set to 2 is shown in Figure. Scaling with respect to a selected fixed position (x_f,y_f,z_f) can be represented with the following transformation sequence:

1. Translate the fixed point to the origin.
2. Scale the object relative to the coordinate origin
3. Translate the fixed point back to its original position.

This sequence of transformations is demonstrated in Figure. The matrix representation for an arbitrary fixed-point scaling can then be expressed as the concatenation of these translate-scale-translate transformations as

$$\mathbf{T}(x_f, y_f, z_f) \cdot \mathbf{S}(s_x, s_y, s_z) \cdot \mathbf{T}(-x_f, -y_f, -z_f) = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & (1-s_x)x_f \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & (1-s_y)y_f \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & (1-s_z)z_f \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Scaling an object relative to the selected fixed point is equivalent to the sequence of transformations shown.

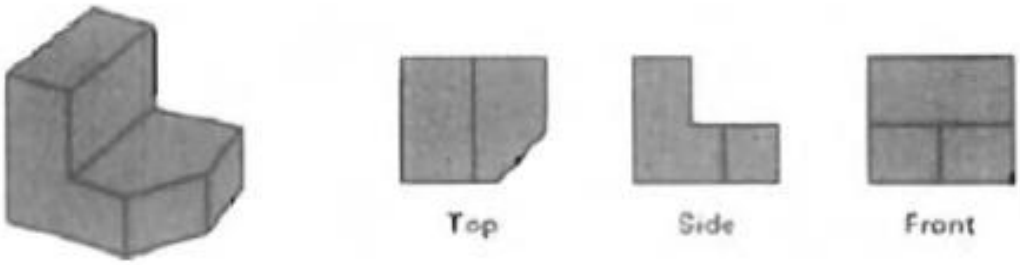
We form the inverse scaling matrix for either by replacing the scaling parameters s_x, s_y and s_z with their reciprocals. The inverse matrix generates an opposite scaling transformation, so the concatenation of any scaling matrix and its inverse produces the identity matrix.

Projections

Parallel Projection

One method for generating a view of a solid object is to project points on the object surface along parallel lines onto the display plane. By selecting different viewing positions, we can project visible points on the object onto the display plane to obtain different two-dimensional views of the object, as in Figure.

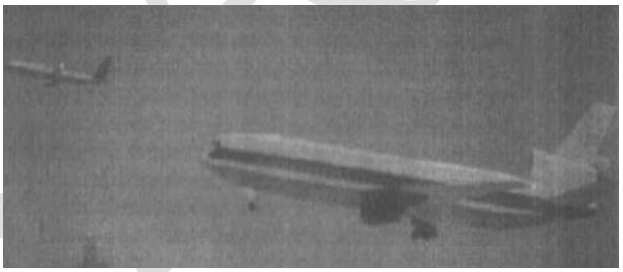
In a Parallel projection, parallel lines in the world-coordinate scene projected into parallel lines on the two-dimensional display plane. This technique is used in engineering and architectural drawings to represent an object with a set of views that maintain relative proportions of the object. The appearance of the solid object can then be reconstructed from the major views.



Three parallel-projection views of an object, showing relative proportions from different viewing positions.

Perspective Projection

Another method for generating a view of a 3 dimensional scene is to project points to the display plane along converging paths. This causes objects farther from the viewing position to be displayed smaller than objects of the same size that are nearer to the viewing position. In a perspective projection, parallel lines in a scene that are not parallel to the display plane are projected into converging lines. Scenes displayed using perspective projections appear more realistic, since this is the way that our eyes and a camera lens form images. In the perspective projection view shown in Figure, parallel lines appear to converge to a distant point in the background, and distant objects appear smaller than objects closer to the viewing position.



A perspective-projection view of an airport scene

Possible Questions

Two Mark Questions

1. Write the syntax to plot a pixel in the screen.
2. What is the syntax to draw a line in C Program?
3. What is clipping?
4. What is Line clipping?
5. What is the use of Bresenham's Algorithm?

Six Mark Questions

1. Explain Bresenham's Line Drawing Algorithm with Example.
2. Write a program to draw Circle using Midpoint algorithm.
3. Write a program to perform Bresenham's Line Drawing Algorithm.
4. Discuss about midpoint Circle Drawing Algorithm.
5. Discuss about Scan Converting Ellipse Algorithm in detail.
6. Write a C program for Line Clipping Algorithm.
7. What is Line Clipping Algorithm? Explain any one Line Clipping Algorithm with example.
8. Write a C Program that Performs 2D Transformation.
9. Explain any one Polygon Clipping Algorithm with example.
10. What is 2D Transformation? Explain it with an example.

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Unit - III

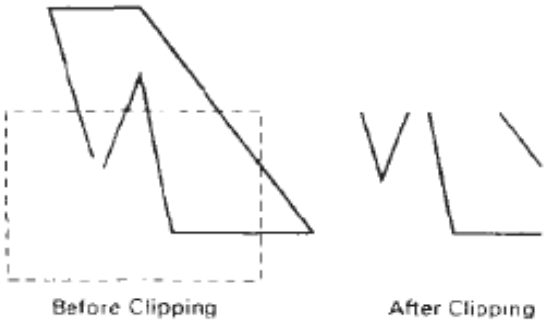
S.No	Questions	opt1	opt2	opt3	opt4	Answer
1	_____ is accomplished by calculating intermediate positions along the line path between two specified endpoint positions.	DDA	Parellel Lines	Line drawing	Bresenham's	Line drawing
2	_____ display a straight line segment by plotting discrete points between the two endpoints.	Digital devices	Parellel Lines	Analog device	Points	Digital devices
3	_____ is a scan-conversion line algorithm.	Line drawing	DDA	Parellel lines	Bresenham's	DDA
4	A random scan system stores point-plotting instruction in the	Frame buffer	display list	Refresh buffer	picture definition	display list
5	Digital devices display a straight line segment by plotting discrete points between the two _____	end points	Electron beam	Electron guns	Control grid	end points
6	Screen locations are referred with ————	Parellel lines	Digital Differential Analyzer	integer value	parameters	integer value
7	To load an intensity value into the frame buffer at a position corresponding to column x along scan line y,we have available a_____ of the form	low level procedure	High level procedures	Cartesian Slope	Deflection slope	low level procedure
8	The cartesian slope-intercept equation for a straight line is	Y or y + 1	y=m,y+5	x+5	y=m.x+6	y=m.x+6
9	On raster systems lines are plotted with ————	pixels	points	lines	parellel	pixels
10	For lines with slope magnitude|m|<1,Δx can be set proportional to a small	vertical delflection	positive slope	negative slope	horizontal deflection voltage	horizontal deflection voltage
11	For lines with slope magnitude|m|>1,Δy can be set proportional to a small	low level voltage	vertical deflection voltage	high level voltage	horizontal deflection voltage	vertical deflection voltage
12	For lines with m=1,Δx=Δy and the horizontal and vertical deflection voltage are	equal	not equal	infinity	null	equal
13	To retrieve the current frame-buffer intensity setting for a	High level procedures	Cartesian Slope	Deflection slope	specified location	specified location
14	DDA stands for————	Data Differential Analyzer	Data devise analysis	Digital Differential algorithms	Digital Differential Analyzer	Digital Differential Analyzer
15	Horizontal and vertical difference between the endpoint positions are assigned to	Arguments	Null values	parameters	P	parameters
16	If the magnitude of dx is greater than the magnitude of dy and xa is less than xb,the values of the increments in the x and y directions are _____respectively	X and y	l and m	x and z	r and m	l and m
17	If the greater change is in the x direction but xa is greater than xb,then the directions _____ are used to generate each new point on the line	#NAME?	#name	Name?	name?	#NAME?
18	The DDA algorithm is faster method for calculating_____ position	Points	Lines	Rows points	pixel	pixel
19	The performance of the DDA algorithm by separating the increaments m and 1/m into parts	integer and fractional	scan line positions	functional line	slope of the curve = -1	integer and fractional
20	A decision parameter Pk for the kth step in the line algorithm can be obtained by	normalized	tranformal	direct	rearranging	rearranging
21	The vertical axes show ————	pixel position	horizontal position	scan line positions	raster line	scan line positions
22	The horizontal axes identify ————	scan line	pixel columns	vertical lines	None of the above	pixel columns
23	Pixel positions along a line path are then determine by sampling at unit	x intervals	y intervals	x and y	x-y	x intervals
24	An implementation of bresenham line drawing for slope in the range _____ given in the following procedure	m>1	0<m<1	m<1	0>m>1	0<m<1
25	The call to ——— loads the intensity value 1 into the frame buffer at the specified (x,y)	get pixel	lines	set pixel	buffering	set pixel
26	——— is the frequently used component in pictures and graphs	lines	circle	semi circle	parellel	circle
27	If the point is outside the circle,the circle funtion is	positive	Pre-filtering	Area filtering	Super filtering	positive
28	The circle funtion is the decision parameter in the	radius	center	midpoint algorithm	drawing algorithm	midpoint algorithm
29	Some monitors use a technique called _____ to double their refreshing rate.	flickering	interlacing	doubling	persistence	interlacing
30	Bresenham's circle generating algorithm will take reflections of _____	Two octets	One octet	Three octets	Four octets	One octet
31	Eight-way symmetry is used by reflecting each calculated point around each ___ axis	35°	180°	45°	90°	45°
32	In Bresenham's circle generating algorithm, if(x,y) is the current pixel position then the x-value of the next pixel position is _____	X	X – 1	X + 1	X + 2	X + 1
33	In Bresenham's circle generating algorithm, if(x,y) is the current pixel position then the y-value of the next pixel position is _____	Y or y + 1	Y alone	Y + 1 or y - 1	Y or y – 1	Y or y – 1
34	The property that adjacent (neighbouring) pixels are likely to have the same characteristics is called	Area coherence	Spatial coherence	Scan line coherence	Pixel coherence	Spatial coherence
35	The property that adjacent pixels on a scan line are likely to have the same characteristics is called	Area coherence	Spatial coherence	Scan line coherence	Pixel coherence	Scan line coherence
36	Filling polygons can be done by setting the pixels	Inside, outside	Inside, boundary	Outside, boundary	In-between	Inside, boundary
37	The design style of set of character is referred to as its	Typeface	Font size	Font style	None of the above	Typeface
38	Character sizes approximately ranges to	1/12 inch	¾ inch	2/5 inch	½ inch	1/12 inch
39	The technique of using a minimum number of intensity levels to obtain increased visual resolution is called _____	Dithering	Depth cueing	Rendering	Halftoning	Halftoning
40	In Bresenham's line generating algorithm, the decision variable is _	D(T)+D(S)	Dx(s-t)	Both a and b	None of the above	Dx(s-t)
41	In Bresenham's circle generating algorithm, the decision variable is _	D(T)+D(S)	Dx(s-t)	Both a and b	None of the above	D(T)+D(S)
42	Character sizes approximately ranges to	10 point	11 points	12 points	14 points	12 points
43	A _____ is a small raster containing the relative locations of the pixels that are used to represent the character	Frame buffer	Mask	Display	Shadow	Mask
44	In Line display of characters _____ test is used to determine the intersecting lines	Integration	Black box	Unit	Minmax	Minmax
45	When _____ is used for a picket fence problem, the distance between pickets are kept close to their true distance	Private aliasing	local aliasing	Global aliasing	Public aliasing	local aliasing
46	When _____ is used for a picket fence problem, the overall length of the picket fence is approximately correct	Private aliasing	local aliasing	Global aliasing	Public aliasing	Global aliasing
47	_____ occurs when an object is not aligned with, or does not fit into, the pixel grid properly.	Staircase	Picket Fence problem	Unequal Brightness	Asymmetric location	Picket Fence problem
48	A _____ technique works on the true signal in the continuous space to derive proper values for individual pixels	Post-filtering	Pre-filtering	Area filtering	Super filtering	Pre-filtering
49	A _____ technique takes discrete samples of the continuous signal and uses the samples to computer pixel values	Post-filtering	Pre-filtering	Area filtering	Super filtering	Post-filtering
50	In using methods like Bresenhams algorithm to scan convert arcs there is a danger of missing the end points of the arc. This may result in _____	infinite loop	ellipse	staircase effect	floating point calculation	infinite loop
51	_____ is a arc with two lines drawn from the center to the end points of the arc.	Circle	Sector	Ellipse	Curve	Sector
52	Ellipse exhibits _____ way symmetry.	two	four	six	eight	four
53	Polynomial method of scan converting an ellipse is inefficient because it uses _____	floating addition and subtraction	logarithmic calculations	square and square root operations	integration and differentiation	square and square root operations
54	In Midpoint algorithm, we split the ellipse into two parts at a point Q where _____	major axis = minor axis	x and y coordinate values are equal	x and y coordinate values are distinct	slope of the curve = -1	slope of the curve = -1
55	In midpoint ellipse algorithm, if the decision parameter is greater than zero the midpoint is _____ the curve	inside	outside	equidistant from	None of the above	outside
56	In midpoint ellipse algorithm, if the decision parameter p< 0 the midpoint is _____ the curve	inside	outside	equidistant from	None of the above	inside
57	For scan converting of ellipse, the first part of the curve the x and y values are obtained by	x is incremented and y is decremented	y is decremented and x is chosen the point close to the true curve	x is incremented and y is chosen the point close to the true curve	both x and y are incremented	x is incremented and y is chosen the point close to the true curve
58	For scan converting of ellipse, the second part of the curve the x and y values are obtained by	x is incremented and y is decremented	y is decremented and x is chosen the point close to the true curve	x is incremented and y is chosen the point close to the true curve	both x and y are incremented	y is decremented and x is chosen the point close to the true curve
59	In trigonometrically defining the ellipse x= a cos θ + h and y = b sin θ + k; then the point (h,k) is the _____ of the ellipse.	major axis	minor axis	center	point on the curve	center

SYLLABUS

Geometric Modeling: Representing curves & Surfaces.

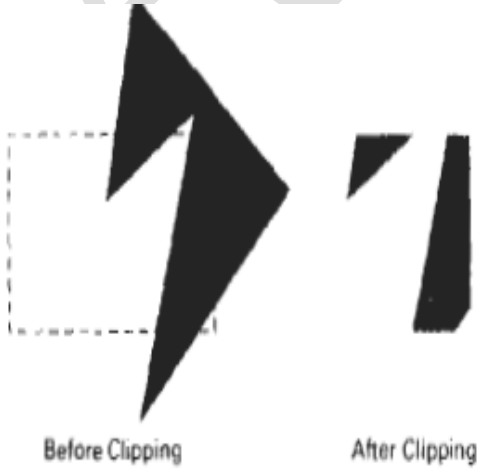
1. Polygon clipping

To clip polygons, we need to modify the line-clipping procedures discussed in the previous section. A polygon boundary processed with a line clipper may be displayed as a series of unconnected line segments Figure depending on the Orientation of the polygon to the clipping window.



Display of a polygon processed by a line-dipping algorithm

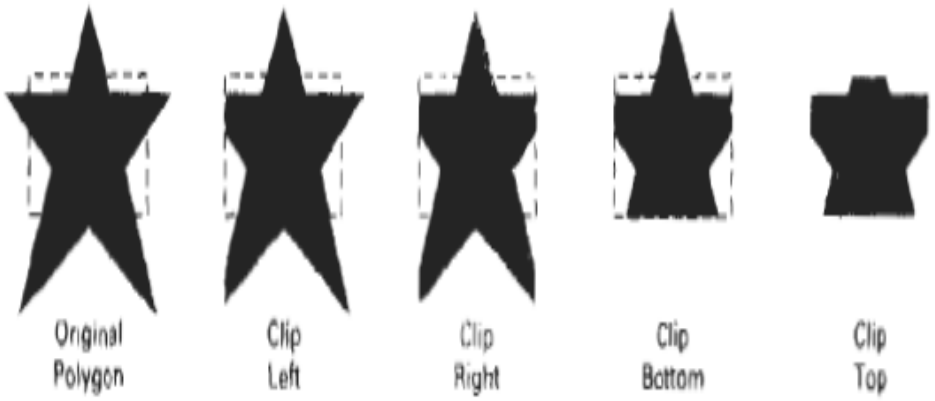
What we really want to display is a bounded area after clipping, as in Figure. For polygon clipping, we require an algorithm that will generate one or more closed areas that are then scan converted for the appropriate area fill. The output of a polygon clipper should be a sequence of vertices that defines the clipped polygon boundaries.



Display of a correctly clipped polygon.

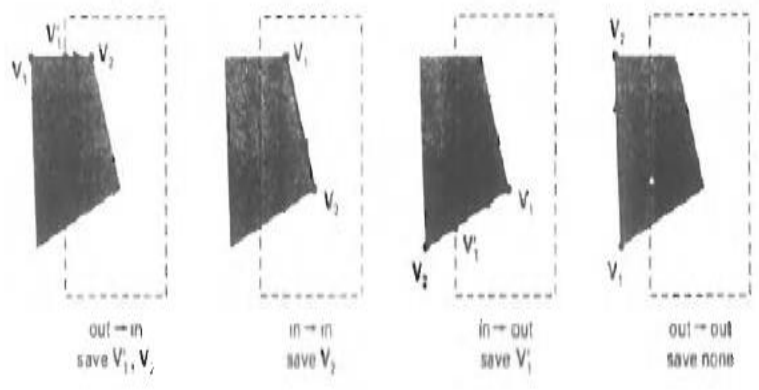
Sutherland-Hodgeman polygon clipping

We can correctly clip a polygon by processing the polygon boundary as a whole against each window edge. This could be accomplished by processing all polygon vertices against each clip rectangle boundary in turn. Beginning with the initial set of polygon vertices, we could first clip the polygon against the left rectangle boundary to produce a new sequence of vertices. The new set of vertices could then k successively passed to a right boundary clipper, a bottom boundary clipper, and a top boundary clipper, as in Fig.11. At each step, a new sequence of output vertices is generated and passed to the next window boundary clipper.



Clipping a polygon against successive window boundaries.

There are four possible cases when processing vertices in sequence around the perimeter of a polygon. As each pair of adjacent polygon vertices is passed to a window boundary clipper, we make the following tests: (1) If the first vertex is Outside the window boundary and the second vertex is inside, both the intersection point of the polygon edge with the window boundary and the second vertex are added to the output vertex list. *(2)* If both input vertices are inside the window boundary, only the second vertex is added to the output vertex list. (3) if the first vertex is inside the window boundary and the second vertex is outside, only the edge intersection with the window boundary is added to the output vertex list. (4) If both input vertices are outside the window boundary, nothing is added to the output list. These four cases are illustrated in Figure for successive pairs of polygon vertices. Once all vertices have been processed for one clip window boundary; the output 1ist of vertices is clipped against the next window boundary.



Successive processing of pairs of polygon vertices against the left window boundary.

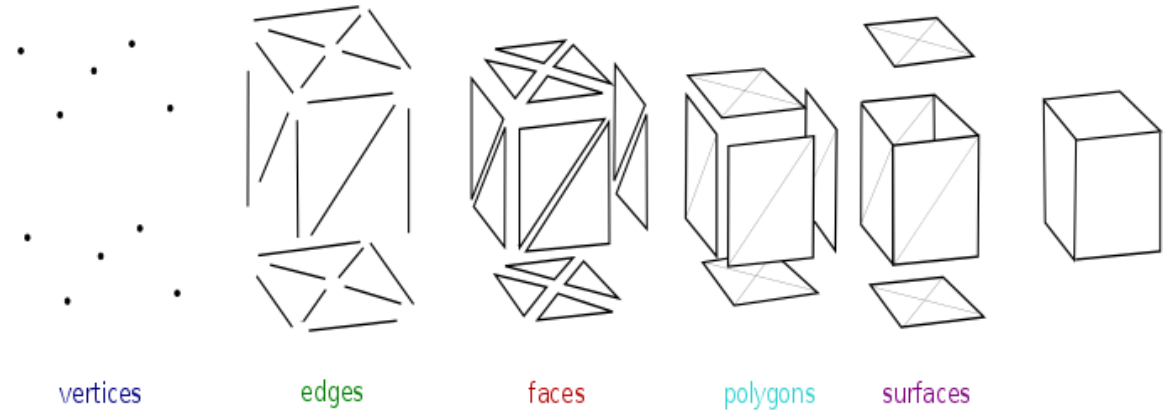
2. Polygon Mesh

A **polygon mesh** is a collection of **vertices**, **edges** and **faces** that defines the shape of a polyhedral object in 3D computer graphics and solid modelling. The faces usually consist of triangles (triangle mesh), quadrilaterals, or other simple convex polygons, since this simplifies rendering, but may also be composed of more general concave polygons, or polygons with holes.

The study of polygon meshes is a large sub-field of computer graphics and geometric modelling. Different representations of polygon meshes are used for different applications and goals. The variety of operations performed on meshes may include Boolean logic, smoothing, simplification, and many others. Volumetric meshes are distinct from polygon meshes in that they explicitly represent both the surface and volume of a structure; while polygon meshes only explicitly represent the surface (the volume is implicit). As polygonal meshes are extensively used in computer graphics, algorithms also exist for ray tracing, collision detection, and rigid-body dynamics of polygon meshes.

Elements

Objects created with polygon meshes must store different types of elements. These include vertices, edges, faces, polygons and surfaces. In many applications, only vertices, edges and either faces or polygons are stored. A renderer may support only 3-sided faces, so polygons must be constructed of many of these, as shown above. However, many renderers either support quads and higher-sided polygons, or are able to convert polygons to triangles on the fly, making it unnecessary to store a mesh in a triangulated form. Also, in certain applications like head modeling, it is desirable to be able to create both 3- and 4-sided polygons.



Vertex

A position (usually in 3D space) along with other information such as color, normal vector and texture coordinates.

Edge

A connection between two vertices.

Face

A closed set of edges, in which a *triangle face* has three edges, and a *quad face* has four edges. A **polygon** is a coplanar set of faces. In systems that support multi-sided faces, polygons and faces are equivalent. However, most rendering hardware supports only 3- or 4-sided faces, so polygons are represented as multiple faces. Mathematically a polygonal mesh may be considered an unstructured grid, or undirected graph, with additional properties of geometry, shape and topology.

Surfaces

More often called **smoothing groups**, are useful, but not required to group smooth regions. Consider a cylinder with caps, such as a soda can. For smooth shading of the sides, all surface normals must point horizontally away from the center, while the normals of the caps must point straight up and down. Rendered as a single, Phong-shaded surface, the crease vertices would have incorrect normals. Thus, some way of determining where to cease smoothing is needed to group smooth parts of a mesh, just as polygons group 3-sided faces. As an alternative to providing surfaces/smoothing groups, a mesh may contain other data for calculating the same data, such as a splitting angle (polygons with normals above this threshold are either automatically treated as separate smoothing groups or some technique such as splitting or chamfering is automatically applied to the edge between them). Additionally, very high resolution meshes are less subject to issues that would require smoothing groups, as their polygons are so small as to make the need irrelevant. Further, another alternative exists in the possibility of simply

detaching the surfaces themselves from the rest of the mesh. Renderers do not attempt to smooth edges across non-contiguous polygons.

groups

Some mesh formats contain **groups**, which define separate elements of the mesh, and are useful for determining separate sub-objects for skeletal animation or separate actors for non-skeletal animation.

Materials

Generally **materials** will be defined, allowing different portions of the mesh to use different shaders when rendered.

UV coordinates

Most mesh formats also support some form of **UV coordinates** which are a separate 2d representation of the mesh "unfolded" to show what portion of a 2-dimensional texture map to apply to different polygons of the mesh. It is also possible for meshes to contain other such vertex *attribute* information such as colour, tangent vectors, weight maps to control animation, etc (sometimes also called *channels*).

Polygon meshes may be represented in a variety of ways, using different methods to store the vertex, edge and face data. These include:

Representation

Face-vertex meshes

A simple list of vertices, and a set of polygons that point to the vertices it uses.

Winged-edge

in which each edge points to two vertices, two faces, and the four (clockwise and counterclockwise) edges that touch them. Winged-edge meshes allow constant time traversal of the surface, but with higher storage requirements.

Half-edge meshes

Similar to winged-edge meshes except that only half the edge traversal information is used. (see OpenMesh)

Quad-edge meshes

which store edges, half-edges, and vertices without any reference to polygons. The polygons are implicit in the representation, and may be found by traversing the structure. Memory requirements are similar to half-edge meshes.

Corner-tables

which store vertices in a predefined table, such that traversing the table implicitly defines polygons. This is in essence the triangle fan used in hardware graphics rendering. The representation is more compact,

and more efficient to retrieve polygons, but operations to change polygons are slow. Furthermore, corner-tables do not represent meshes completely. Multiple corner-tables (triangle fans) are needed to represent most meshes.

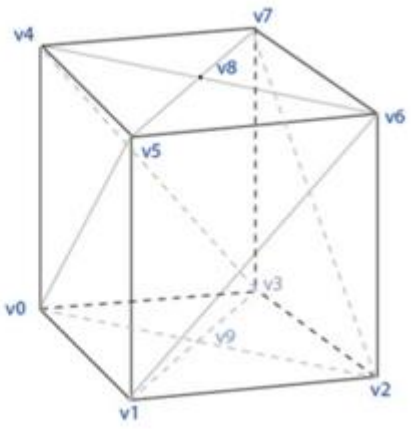
Vertex-vertex meshes

A "VV" mesh represents only vertices, which point to other vertices. Both the edge and face information is implicit in the representation. However, the simplicity of the representation does not allow for many efficient operations to be performed on meshes. Each of the representations above has particular advantages and drawbacks.

The choice of the data structure is governed by the application, the performance required, size of the data, and the operations to be performed. For example, it is easier to deal with triangles than general polygons, especially in computational geometry. For certain operations it is necessary to have a fast access to topological information such as edges or neighbouring faces; this requires more complex structures such as the winged-edge representation. For hardware rendering, compact, simple structures are needed; thus the corner-table (triangle fan) is commonly incorporated into low-level rendering APIs such as DirectX and OpenGL.

Vertex List

v0	0,0,0	v1 v5 v4 v3 v9
v1	1,0,0	v2 v6 v5 v0 v9
v2	1,1,0	v3 v7 v6 v1 v9
v3	0,1,0	v2 v6 v7 v4 v9
v4	0,0,1	v5 v0 v3 v7 v8
v5	1,0,1	v6 v1 v0 v4 v8
v6	1,1,1	v7 v2 v1 v5 v8
v7	0,1,1	v4 v3 v2 v6 v8
v8	.5,.5,1	v4 v5 v6 v7
v9	.5,.5,0	v0 v1 v2 v3



Face-vertex meshes

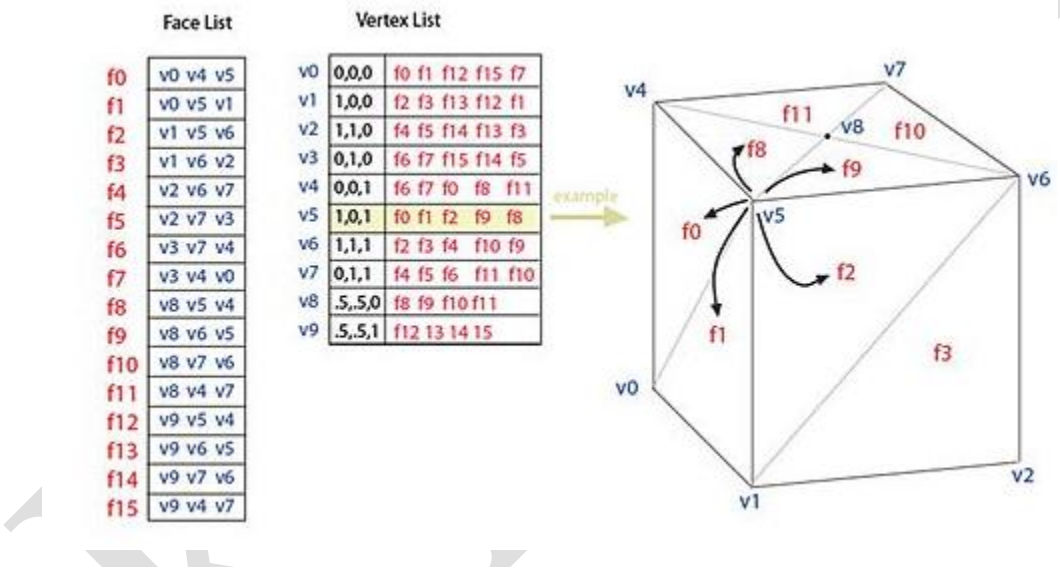
Face-vertex meshes represent an object as a set of faces and a set of vertices. This is the most widely used mesh representation, being the input typically accepted by modern graphics hardware.

Face-vertex meshes improve on VV-mesh for modelling in that they allow explicit lookup of the vertices of a face, and the faces surrounding a vertex. The above figure shows the "box-cylinder" example as an FV mesh. Vertex v5 is highlighted to show the faces that surround it. Notice that, in this example, every

face is required to have exactly 3 vertices. However, this does not mean every vertex has the same number of surrounding faces.

For rendering, the face list is usually transmitted to the GPU as a set of indices to vertices, and the vertices are sent as position/color/normal structures (in the figure, only position is given). This has the benefit that changes in shape, but not geometry, can be dynamically updated by simply resending the vertex data without updating the face connectivity.

Modelling requires easy traversal of all structures. With face-vertex meshes it is easy to find the vertices of a face. Also, the vertex list contains a list of faces connected to each vertex. Unlike VV meshes, both faces and vertices are explicit, so locating neighbouring faces and vertices is constant time. However, the edges are implicit, so a search is still needed to find all the faces surrounding a given face. Other dynamic operations, such as splitting or merging a face, are also difficult with face-vertex meshes.



Render dynamic meshes

Winged-edge meshes are not the only representation which allows for dynamic changes to geometry. A new representation which combines winged-edge meshes and face-vertex meshes is the **render dynamic mesh**, which explicitly stores both, the vertices of a face and faces of a vertex (like FV meshes), and the faces and vertices of an edge (like winged-edge).

Render dynamic meshes require slightly less storage space than standard winged-edge meshes, and can be directly rendered by graphics hardware since the face list contains an index of vertices. In addition, traversal from vertex to face is explicit (constant time), as is from face to vertex. RD meshes do not require the four outgoing edges since these can be found by traversing from edge to face, then face to

neighbouring edge. RD meshes benefit from the features of winged-edge meshes by allowing for geometry to be dynamically updated

3. Parametric Curve

Curves and surfaces can have explicit, implicit, and parametric representations. Parametric representations are the most common in computer graphics.

Re-parameterization

Parameterizations are in general not unique. Consider the following parameterizations for a line:

L(P0,P1) = P0 + u(P1-P0), u = [0...1]

L(P0,P1) = v(P1-P0)/2 + (P1+P0)/2, v = [-1...1]

Parameterizations can be changed to lie between desired bounds. To re-parameterize from u = [a...b] to w = [0...1], we can use w = (u-a)/(b-a), which gives u = w(b-a) + a. Thus, we have:

P(u), u = [a...b] = P(w(b-a)+a), w = [0...1]

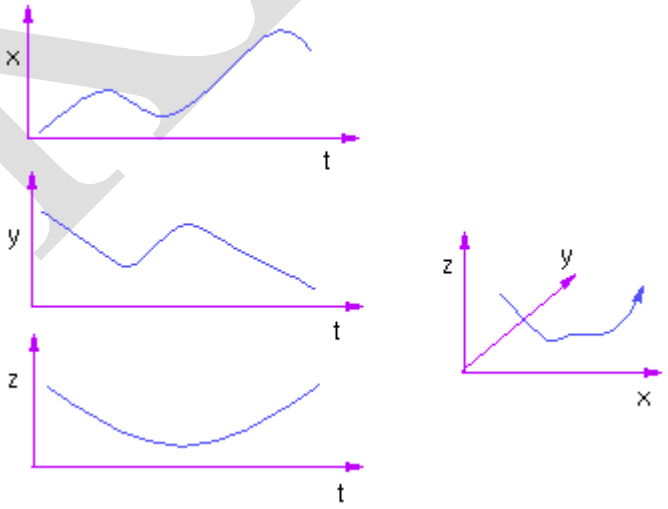
Parametric Cubic Curves

Cubic curves are commonly used in graphics because curves of lower order commonly have too little flexibility, while curves of higher order are usually considered unnecessarily complex and make it easy to introduce undesired wiggles.

A parametric cubic curve in 3D is defined by:

$$x(t) = a_3t^3 + a_2t^2 + a_1t + a_0$$
$$y(t) = b_3t^3 + b_2t^2 + b_1t + b_0$$
$$z(t) = c_3t^3 + c_2t^2 + c_1t + c_0$$

Usually, we consider t = [0...1].



A compact version of the parametric equations can be written as follows:

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} t^3 & t^2 & t & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_3 \\ a_2 \\ a_1 \\ a_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x(t) = T \cdot A$$

A compact version of the parametric equations can be written as follows:

Similarly, we can write

$$y(t) = T\ B$$

$$z(t) = T\ C$$

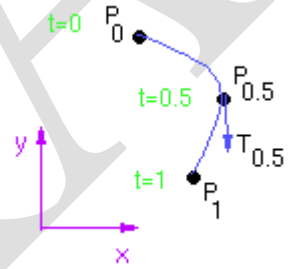
Each dimension is treated independently, so we can deal with curves in any number of dimensions. The derivatives of the curve with respect to t can be expressed as follows:

$$x'(t) = [3t^2\ \ 2t\ \ 1\ \ 0]\ A$$

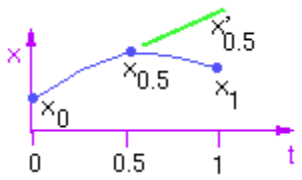
It is often convenient to think of the parameter t as being time in order to visualize some of the properties of the curve. The derivatives also have an intuitive interpretation in the Cartesian space of the curve.

A First Example

Suppose we wish to define a cubic curve such that the user specifies the position of two endpoints and a midpoint, as well as the tangent at the midpoint. The following figure illustrates some sample curves.



We'll first construct the cubic curve for x(t). There are four constraints that are to be met and four unknowns:



$$x(0) = [\,0\ 0\ 0\ 1\,]\ A$$
$$x(0.5) = [\,0.5^3\ 0.5^2\ 0.5^1\ 0.5^0\,]\ A$$
$$x'(0.5) = [\,3(0.5^2)\ \ 2(0.5)\ \ 1\ \ 0\,]\ A$$
$$x(1) = [\,1\ 1\ 1\ 1\,]\ A$$

or $G_x = B\ A$ where

$$G_x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_{0.5} \\ x'_{0.5} \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0.125 & 0.25 & 0.5 & 1 \\ 0.75 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can solve for A using A = B_inv G_x. The final equation for x is thus:

x(t) = T B_inv G_x

The matrix B_inv is often called the basis matrix, which we shall denote by M. We can thus write

x(t) = T M G_x

In this case, we have

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 0 & -4 & 4 \\ 8 & -4 & 6 & -4 \\ -5 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Lastly, we can also write

x(t) = [f1(t) f2(t) f3(t) f4(t)] G_x

where f1(t) ... f4(t) are the functions obtained from the product T M. These are functions are called the blending or basis functions, because they serve to give a weighting to the various components of the geometry vector, G. In this case, these are

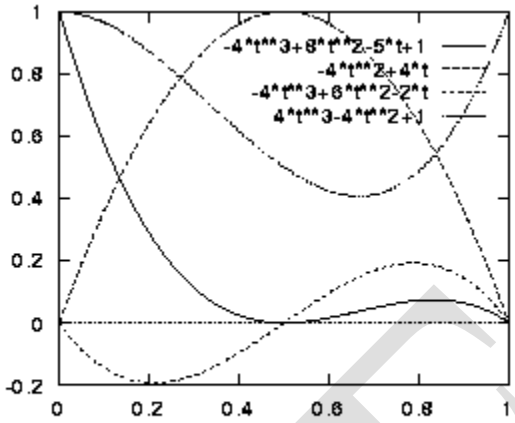
f1(t) = -4t^3 + 8t^2 - 5t + 1

f2(t) = -4t^2 + 4t

f3(t) = -4t^3 + 6t^2 - 2t

f4(t) = 4t^3 - 4t^2 + 1,

where f1(t) is the weighting function for P0, f2(t) is the weighting function for P0.5, f3(t) is the weighting function for T0.5, and f4(t) is the weighting function for P1. These basis functions look as follows:



The curves for y(t) and z(t) are contructed in an analogous fashion to that for x(t). The basis matrix and basis functions thus remain the same. Only the geometry vector changes. The geometry vector for y(t) gives the y components of P0, P0.5, T0.5, and P1. In general, we can write the curve as a single vector equation

$$P(t) = T\ M\ G$$

which encompasses the following three equations:

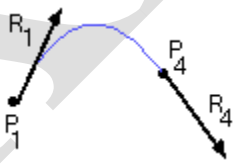
$$x(t) = T\ M\ G\_x$$

$$y(t) = T\ M\ G\_y$$

$$z(t) = T\ M\ G\_z$$

Hermite Curves

As a second example, let's look at Hermite curves. Hermite curves are defined by two points and two tangent vectors.



Let's derive the equation for Hermite curves using the following geometry vector:

$$G\_h = [\ P1\ P4\ R1\ R4\ ]\hat{}T$$

As before, we'll express the curve as:

$$x(t) = T\ A\_h$$

$$= T\ M\_h\ G\_h$$

The constraints we'll use to define the curve are:

x(0) = P1 = [0 0 0 1] A_h

x(1) = P4 = [1 1 1 1] A_h

x'(0) = R1 = [0 0 1 0] A_h

x'(1) = R4 = [3 2 1 0] A_h

Writing these constraints in matrix form gives:

G_h = B_h A_h

A_h = inv(B_h) G_h

x(t) = T A_h

= T inv(B_h) G_h = T M_h G_h

The inverse of B_h is thus defined as the basis matrix for the hermite curve.

$$M_h = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

As before, the basis functions are the weighting factors for the terms in the geometry vector, and are given by the product T M_h. Thus, for basis functions for Hermite curves are

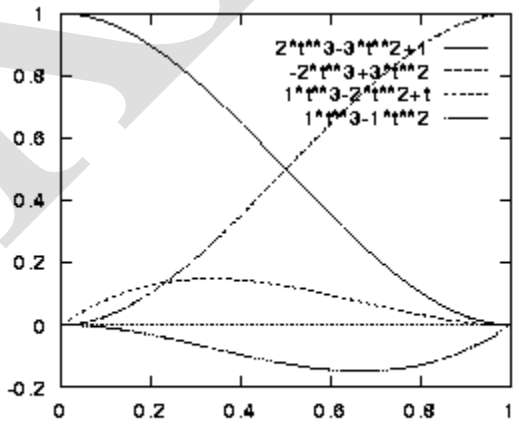
f1(t) = 2t^3 - 3t^2 + 1

f2(t) = -2t^3 + 3t^2

f3(t) = t^3 - 2t^2 + t

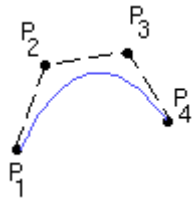
f4(t) = t^3 - t^2

These basis functions look as follows:



Bezier Curves

Bezier curves are a variation of the Hermite curves. They are specified by four points:



The curve is closely related to the Hermite curve:

P1_h = P1

P4_h = P4

R1_h = 3 (P2 - P1)

R4_h = 3 (P4 - P3)

We'll arrive at the basis matrix by expressing the above in matrix form:

[P1_h] [1 0 0 0] [P1]

[P4_h] = [0 0 0 1] [P2]

[R1_h] [-3 3 0 0] [P3]

[R4_h] [0 0 -3 3] [P4]

P_h = M_bh P_b

The equation for a bezier curve can thus be written as:

P(t) = T M_h M_bh P_b

P(t) = T M_b P_b

where

[-1 3 -3 1]

M_b = [3 -6 3 0]

[-3 3 0 0]

[1 0 0 0]

The Bezier basis functions are as follows:

P(t) = T M_b G_b

= f1(t) P1 + f2(t) P2 + f3(t) P3 + f4(t) P4

where

f1(t) = -t^3 + 3t^2 - 3t + 1

f2(t) = 3t^3 - 6t^2 + 3t

f3(t) = -3t^3 + 3t^2

f4(t) = t^3

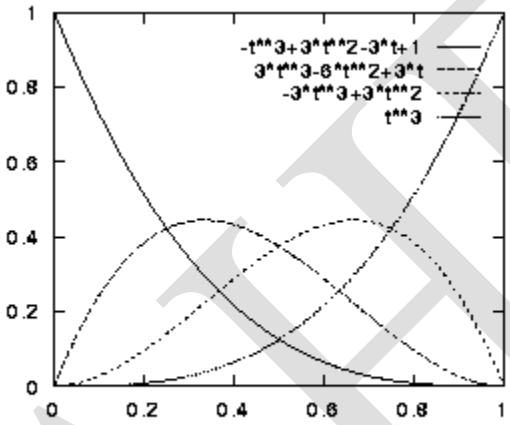
or alternatively,

f1(t) = (1-t)^3

f2(t) = 3t (1-t)^2

f3(t) = 3t^2 (1-t)

f4(t) = t^3



Convex hull property

The convex hull property ensures that the curve will never pass outside of the convex hull formed by the four control vertices. As such, it lends a measure of predictability to the curve. The Bezier basis functions satisfy the conditions necessary for the convex hull property, namely:

0 <= fi(t) <= 1 for t in [0,1].

f1(t) + ... + fn(t) = 1

Geometric and Parametric Continuity

- Geometric Continuity
- G0: curves are joined
- G1: first derivatives are proportional at the join point
- The curve tangents thus have the same direction, but not necessarily the same magnitude. i.e., C1'(1) = (a,b,c) and C2'(0) = (k*a, k*b, k*c).
- G2: first and second derivatives are proportional at join point

Parametric Continuity

- C0: curves are joined
- C1: first derivatives equal
- C2: first and second derivatives are equal
- If t is taken to be time, this implies that the acceleration is continuous.
- Cn: nth derivatives are equal
- As their names imply, geometric continuity requires the geometry to be continuous, while parametric continuity requires that the underlying parameterization be continuous as well.
- Parametric continuity of order n implies geometric continuity of order n, but not vice-versa.

Summary of Bezier and Hermite Curves

- offer local control
- offer C1 continuity
- interpolates (some) control points

Quadric Surface

The implicit surface equation of the form

$$f(x, y, z) = ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2dxy + 2eyz + 2fxz + 2gx + 2hy + 2jz + k = 0 \quad (11.93)$$

defines the family of quadric surfaces. For example, if $a = b = c = -k = 1$ and the remaining coefficients are zero, a unit sphere is defined at the origin. If a through f are zero, a plane is defined. Quadric surfaces are particularly useful in specialized applications such as molecular modeling [PORT79; MAX79], and have also been integrated into solid-modeling systems. Recall, too, that rational cubic curves can represent conic sections; similarly, rational bicubic surfaces can represent quadrics. Hence, the implicit quadratic equation is an alternative to rational surfaces, *if* only quadric surfaces are being represented. Other reasons for using quadrics include ease of

- Computing the surface normal
- Testing whether a point is on the surface (just substitute the point into Eq. (11.93), evaluate, and test for a result within some ε of zero)
- Computing z given x and y (important in hidden-surface algorithms and

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- Computing the surface normal
- Testing whether a point is on the surface (just substitute the point into Eq. (11.93), evaluate, and test for a result within some ε of zero)
- Computing z given x and y (important in hidden-surface algorithms and
- Calculating intersections of one surface with another.

An alternative representation of Eq. (11.93) is:

$$P^{T} \cdot Q \cdot P = 0, \tag{11.94}$$

$$\text{with} \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} a & d & f & g \\ d & b & e & h \\ f & e & c & j \\ g & h & j & k \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{11.95}$$

The surface represented by Q can be easily translated and scaled. Given a 4×4 transformation matrix M of the form developed in Chapter 5, the transformed quadric surface Q' is given by

$$Q' = (M^{-1})^{T} \cdot Q \cdot M^{-1}. \tag{11.96}$$

The normal to the implicit surface defined by $f(x, y, z) = 0$ is the vector $[df/dx \quad df/dy \quad df/dz]$. This surface normal is much easier to evaluate than is the surface normal to a bicubic surface.

Possible Questions

Two Mark Questions

1. List the types of 2D Transformations.
2. List the types of 3D Transformations.
3. What is the syntax to draw a rectangle in C?
4. What is the syntax to draw a circle in C?
5. What is the Syntax to draw a polygon in C?

Six Mark Questions

1. What is 3D Transformation? Explain it with an example.
2. Discuss about Planar Geometric Projection
3. How to fill a Polygon? Explain the algorithm with neat example.
4. Write a C Program that Performs 3D Transformation.
5. Discuss about Quadratic Surface in detail.
6. Write a detail note on Polygon Meshing.
7. Write a program to draw Bezier Curve.
8. Discuss about Parametric Bi-Cubic Surface in detail.
9. Discuss about Parametric Cubic Curve.
10. What is Polygon Clipping Algorithm? Explain Sutherland-Hodge Algorithm.

Unit IV

S.No	Questions	opt1	opt2	opt3	opt4	Answer
1	_____ is defined as a mapping of a point P to its image P' in the view plane.	Transformation	Viewing	Clipping	Projection	Projection
2	The mapping is determined by a line that passes through point P and intersects the view plane, this line is called	projector	normal	vetor	axes	projector
3	Which of these are basic types of projections	parallel projection	perspective projection	Both	None of the above	Both
4	_____ projection is called converging projectors.	Parallel	Perspective	Isometric	Axonometric	Perspective
5	_____ drawings are characterised by vanishing points.	Parallel	Perspective	Isometric	Axonometric	Perspective
6	The perspective projection gives the illusion that certain set of parallel lines appear to meet at a point called	view point	projection point	vanishing point	reference point	vanishing point
7	_____ projection preserves the shape and size of the projected object.	Parallel	Perspective	both	None of the above	Parallel
8	_____ algorithm does not suit for 3 dimensional clipping.	Cohen Sutherland algorithm	Bresenham algorithm	Sutherland Hodgman algorithm	None of the above	Bresenham algorithm
9	_____ defines the spatial extent that is visible through the rectangular window of the view plane.	view point	view volume	viewport	view region	view volume
10	The view plane is also called _____	projection plan	view direction	mapping funtion	reference vector	projection plan
11	The Center of projection is called the ____	view point	view volume	viewport	reference vector	view point
12	Three dimensional viewing of objects requires the specification of _____	view plane	view point	view volume	All the Above	All the Above
13	The unit normal vector N = n1I + n2J + n3 K , |N| = _____	0	1	2	3	1
14	N = n1I + n2J + n3 K in 3D viewing is called the _____	Reference vector	Translation Vector	Unit Normal vector	Up vector	Unit Normal vector
15	Reference Vector U is also known as _____	Co-ordinate Vector	Translation Vector	Unit Normal vector	Up vector	Up vector
16	The triad formed by vectors Ip, Jp and N is called _____	Cartesian co-ordinate system	Vector Coordinate system	Viewing coordinate system	None of the above	Viewing coordinate system
17	_____ coordinate system is choosen because the p and q coordinate axes are superimposed on the display	Left handed	Right handed	Cartesian	3 dimensional	Left handed
18	In Left handed coordinate system the normal vector N point _____,facing the display.	towards the viewer	away from the viewer	the right side of the viewer	left side of the viewer	away from the viewer
19	In Left handed coordinate system increasing distance away from the observer is measured along _____	Ip	Jp	N	Up	N
20	If the xy plan is the view plane then _____ measures the depth or distance of the point from the view plan.	x coordinate	y coordinate	z coordinate	None of the above	z coordinate
21	If the view plan is the xy plane then Ip = I, Jp = J and N = _____	Np	-K	-N	z	-K
22	The right handed world coordinates (x,y,z) can be changed to left handed view plane coordinates (x',y',z') by	z	-z	k	-k	-z
23	The _____ bounds a region in world coordinate space that is clipped and projected to the view plan.	view point	view volume	viewport	view region	view volume
24	The region bounded by the view volume is_____ to the viewplane.	transformed	mapped	clipped	clipped and projected	clipped and projected
25	For a _____ , the view volume corresponding to the given window is a semi-infinite pyramid.	parallel view	prespective view	Axanometric view	Orthographic view	prespective view
26	For parallel projected views, the view volume is ____	a semi infinite pyramid	finite parallelogram	infinite parallelopiped	finite polygon	infinite parallelopiped
27	The view volumes are _____ in extent	finite	infinite	invisible	fixed	infinite
28	For perspective views, very distant objects appear as _____	a semi infinite pyramid	infinite parallelopiped	disjointed structure	indistinguishable spots	indistinguishable spots
29	For perspective views, objects very close to the center of projection appear as _____	disjointed structure	indistinguishable spots	infinite parallelopiped	finite polygon	disjointed structure
30	A finite volume is delimited by front and back clipping planes _____ to the view plane	perpendicular	parallel	similar	normal	parallel
31	In _____ clipping strategy, clipping is done against the original view volume	canonical	normalized	tranformal	direct	direct
32	In _____ clipping strategy, a normalizing transformation is applied to the original view volume before	canonical	normalized	tranformal	direct	canonical
33	When normalizing transformation is applied to the original view volume it is called _____ view volume	canonical	normalized	tranformal	direct	canonical
34	The canonical view volume for a parallel projection is the _____	infinte pyramid	infinte parallelopiped	unit cube	truncated pyramid	unit cube
35	The canonical view volume for a perspectivel projection is the _____	infinte pyramid	infinte parallelopiped	unit cube	truncated pyramid	truncated pyramid
36	After clipping in viewing coordinates, the resulting structure is projected onto the _____	clipping window	projector	World Coordinate system	screen projection plane	screen projection plane
37	In 3D graphics pipeline, viewing transformation and projection are carried out according to the _____ parameters	viewing	projecting	transforming	colour	viewing
38	In 3D graphics pipeline, the result of projection is mapped to workstation viewport via _____	3D viewing transformation	2D viewing transformation	scaling transformation	Rotation transformation	2D viewing transformation
39	Which of these is a complex geometric form.	point	line	curves	polygon	curves
40	_____ and _____ are the basic building blocks of computer graphics.	points and lines	lines and curves	points and curves	polylines and curves surface patches	points and lines
41	_____ is a chain of connected line segments.	points	curves	quadric surfaces	polylines	quadric surfaces
42	_____ is a closed polyline	points	curves	quadric surfaces	polygon	polygon
43	A _____ is a polygon in which all vertices lie on the same plane	convex polygon	concave polygon	planar polygon	None of the above	planar polygon
44	The _____is also called polygonal net or polygonal mesh.	planar polygon	wireframe model	polyline	quadric surface	wireframe model
45	A _____ is a closed polygonal net in which each polygon is planar.	curved surface	polyline	polyhedron	quadric surface	polyhedron
46	_____ is a method of representing a polygonal net model.	Explicit vertex listing	Explicit edge listing	Polygon listing	All the Above	All the Above
47	The polygons are called the _____ of the polyhedron	edges	vertices	faces	sides	faces
48	Which of these is complex in wire frame models	constructing wireframe models	representing curved surfaces	applying geometic transformation	applying coordinate transformation	representing curved surfaces
49	A model constructed using solid objects as building blocks is called _____	Wireframe modeling	Solid object modeling	Block modeling	None of the above	Solid object modeling
50	_____ is a process of building model by assembling simpler objects.	Additive modeling	Subtractive Modeling	Destructive modeling	Constructive modeling	Additive modeling
51	_____ is a process of removing pieces from a given object to create a new object.	Additive modeling	Subtractive Modeling	Destructive modeling	Constructive modeling	Subtractive Modeling
52	A curve is specified by _____	polylines	curved surface pathes	a set of control points	two endpoints	a set of control points
53	The Control points control the _____ of the curve.	length	shape	slope	width	shape
54	Curves are generally _____ with respect to any coordinate system.	single valued	bi-valued	multi-valued	None of the above	None of the above
55	If the movement of the control point affects the shape of the curve only in a small neighbourhood of the control	Coordinate independence	Variation diminishing effect	Versatility	Local controllability.	Local controllability.

fSYLLABUS

Visible Surface Determination: Hidden surface elimination. **Surface Rendering:** Illumination and shading models. Basic color models and Computer Animation

1. Visible Surface Detection Methods

A major consideration in the generation of realistic graphics displays is identifying those parts of a scene that are visible from a chosen viewing position. There are many approaches we can take to solve this problem, and numerous algorithms have been devised for efficient identification of visible objects for different types of applications. Some methods require more memory, some involve more processing time, and some apply only to special types of objects. Deciding upon a method for a particular application can depend on such factors as the complexity of the scene, type of objects to be displayed, available equipment, and whether static or animated displays are to be generated. The various algorithms are referred to as visible-surface detection methods. Sometimes these methods are also referred to as hidden-surface elimination methods, although there can be subtle differences between identifying visible surfaces and eliminating hidden surfaces. For wire frame displays, for example, we may not want to actually eliminate the hidden surfaces, but rather to display them with dashed boundaries or in some other way to retain information about their shape. In this chapter, we explore some of the most commonly used methods for detecting visible surfaces in a three-dimensional scene.

Classification of Visible Surface Detection algorithm

Visible-surface detection algorithms are broadly classified according to whether they deal with object definitions directly or with their projected images. These two approaches are called object-space methods and image-space methods, respectively.

An object-space method compares objects and parts of objects to each other within the scene definition to determine which surfaces, as a whole, we should label as visible. In an image-space algorithm, visibility is decided point by point at each pixel position on the projection plane. Most visible-surface algorithms use image-space methods, although object space methods can be used effectively to locate visible surfaces in some cases. Line display algorithms, on the other hand, generally use object-space methods to identify visible lines in wire frame displays, but many image-space visible-surface algorithms can be adapted easily to visible-line detection.

Although there are major differences in the basic approach taken by the various visible-surface detection algorithms, most use sorting and coherence methods to improve performance. Sorting is used to facilitate depth comparisons by ordering the individual surfaces in a scene according to their distance

from the view plane. Coherence methods are used to take advantage of regularities in a scene. An individual scan line can be expected to contain intervals (runs) of constant pixel intensities, and scan-line patterns often change little from one line to the next. Animation frames contain changes only in the vicinity of moving objects. And constant relationships often can be established between objects and surfaces in a scene.

Back Face Detection

A fast and simple object-space method for identifying the back faces of a polyhedron is based on the "inside-outside" tests discussed in Chapter 10. A point *(x,* y, z) is "inside" a polygon surface with plane parameters A, B, C, and D if

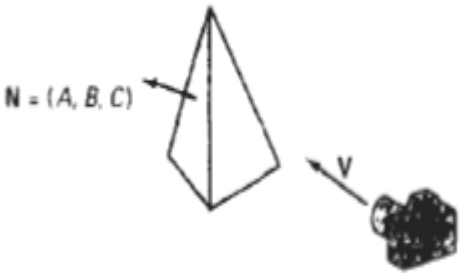
$$Ax + By + Cz + D < 0$$

When an inside point is along the line of sight to the surface, the polygon must be a back face (we are inside that face and cannot see the front of it from our viewing position).

We can simplify this test by considering the normal vector N to a polygon surface, which has Cartesian components (A, B, C). In general, if V is a vector in the viewing direction from the eye (or "camera") position, as shown in Figure, then this polygon is a back face if

$$\mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{N} > 0$$

Furthermore, if object descriptions have been converted to projection coordinates and our viewing direction is parallel to the viewing z,. axis, then $\mathbf{V} = (0, 0, V_z)$ and $\mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{N} = V_z C$ so that we only need to consider the sign of C, the ; component of the normal vector N.

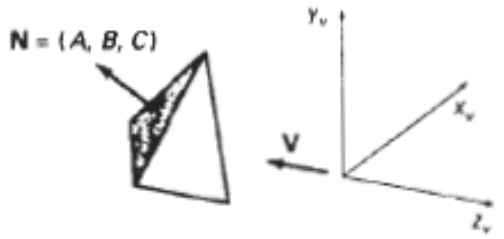


Vector V in the viewing direction and a back-face normal vector N of a polyhedron

In a right-handed viewing system with viewing direction along the negative z axis (Figure), the polygon is a back face if C < 0. Also, we cannot see any face whose normal has z component C - 0, since our

viewing direction is grazing that polygon. Thus, in general, we can label any polygon as a back face if its normal vector has a z-component value:

$$C \leq 0$$



A polygon surface with plane parameter c<0 in a right hand viewing coordinate system is identified as a black face

Similar methods can be used in packages that employ a left-handed viewing system. In these packages, plane parameters A, B, C: and D can be calculated from polygon vertex coordinates specified in a clockwise direction (instead of the counterclockwise direction used in a right-handed system). Inequality 13-1 then remains a valid test for inside points. Also, back faces have normal vectors that point away from the viewing position and are identified by $C \geq 0$ when the Viewing direction is along the positive z_v axis.

By examining parameter C for the different planes defining an object, we can immediately identify all the back faces. For a single convex polyhedron, such as the pyramid in Fig. 3, this test identifies all the hidden surfaces on the object, since each surface is either completely visible or completely hidden. Also, if a scene contains only no overlapping convex polyhedral, then again all hidden surfaces are identified with the back-face method.

View of a concave polyhedron with one face partially hidden by other faces

For other objects, such as the concave polyhedron in Figure, more tests need to be carried out to determine whether there are additional faces that are to ally or partly obscured by other faces. And a general scene can be expected to contain overlapping objects along the line of sight. We then need to determine where the obscured objects are partially or comp1etel.y hidden by other objects. In general, back-face removal can be expected to eliminate about half of the polygon surfaces in a scene from further visibility tests.

Depth Buffer Method

A commonly used image-space approach to detecting visible surfaces is the depth-buffer method, which compares surface depths at each pixel position on the projection plane. This procedure is also referred to as the z-buffer method, since object depth is usually measured from the view plane along the z axis of a viewing system. Each surface of a scene is processed separately, one point at a time across the surface. The method is usually applied to scenes containing only polygon surfaces, because depth values can be computed very quickly and the

method is easy to implement. But the method can be applied to no planar surfaces.

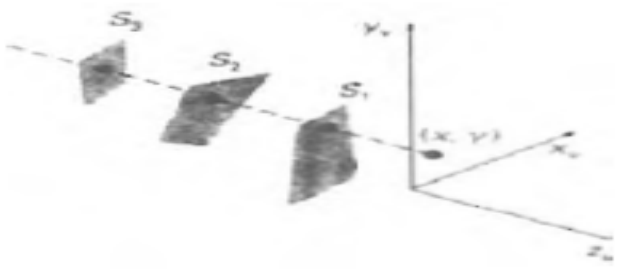
With object descriptions converted to projection coordinates, each (x, y, z) position on a polygon surface corresponds to the orthographic projection point (x, y) on the view plane. Therefore, for each pixel position (x, y) on the view

Plane, object depths can be compared by comparing z values. Figure4, shows three surfaces at varying distances along the orthographic projection line from position (x, y) in a view plane taken as the x_v,y_v, plane. Surface 5, is closest at this position, so its surface intensity value at (x, y) is saved.

We can implement the depth-buffer algorithm in normalized coordinates, so that *z* values range from 0 at the back clipping plane Z_{max} at the front clip ping plane. The value of Z_{max}, can be set either to 1 (for a unit cube) or to the largest value that can be stored on the system.

As implied by the name of this method, two buffer areas are required. A depth buffer is used to store depth values for each (x, y) position as surfaces are processed, and the refresh buffer stores the intensity values for each position. Initially,

all positions in the depth buffer are set to 0 (minimum depth), and the refresh buffer is initialized to the background intensity. Each surface listed in the polygon tables is then processed, one scan line at a time, calculating the depth (z value) at each (x, y) pixel position. The calculated depth is compared to the value Previously stored in the depth buffer at that position. If the calculated depth is p a t e r than the value stored in the depth buffer, the new depth value is stored, and the surface intensity at that position is determined and in the same *xy* location in the refresh buffer.



At view-plane position (x, y), surface S, has the smallest depth from the view plane and so is visible at that position.

We summarize the steps of a depth-buffer algorithm as follows:

1. Initialize the depth buffer and refresh buffer so that for all buffer positions *(x,* y),

$$\text{depth}(x, y) = 0, \qquad \text{refresh}(x, y) = I_{\text{backgnd}}$$

2. For each position on each polygon surface, compare depth values to previously stored values in the depth buffer to determine visibility.

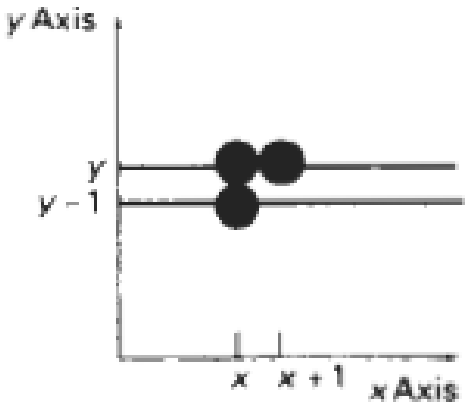
- Calculate the depth ***t*** for each *(x,* y) position on the polygon.
- If $z > \text{depth}(x, y)$, then set

  $\text{depth}(x, y) = z, \qquad \text{refresh}(x, y) = I_{\text{surf}}(x,y)$

Where $l_{background}$ is the value for the background intensity, and $l_{surf(x,y)}$is the projected intensity value for the surface at pixel position (x, y). After all surfaces have been processed, the depth buffer contains depth values for the visible surfaces and the buffer contains the corresponding intensity values for those surfaces.

Depth values for a surface position *(x,* y) are calculated from the plane equation for each surface:

$$z = \frac{-Ax - By - D}{C}$$



From position (x, y) on a scan line, the next position across the line has coordinates *(X* + 1, y), and the position immediately below on the next line has coordinates *(x*, y - 1).

For any scan line adjacent horizontal positions across the line differ by 1, and a vertical y value on an adjacent scan line differs by 1. If the depth of position *(x*, y) has been determined to be z, then the depth *z'* of the next position (x +

1, y) along the scan line is obtained

$$z' = \frac{-A(x+1) - By - D}{C}$$

Or

$$z' = z - \frac{A}{C}$$

The ratio *-A/C* is constant for each surface, so succeeding depth values across a scan line are obtained from preceding values with a single addition.

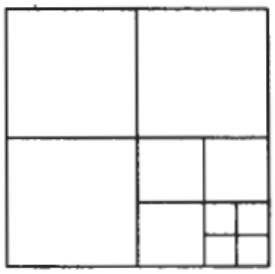
Area Sub division Method

This technique for hidden-surface removal is essentially an image-space method, but object-space operations can be used to accomplish depth ordering of surfaces. The area-subdivision method takes advantage of area coherence in a scene by locating those view areas that represent part of a single surface. We apply this method by successively dividing the total viewing area into smaller and smaller rectangles until each small area is the projection of part of n single visible surface or no surface at all.

To implement this method, we need to establish tests that can quickly identify the area as part of a single surface or tell us that the area is too complex to analyze easily. Starting with the total view, we apply the tests to determine whether we should subdivide the total area into smaller rectangles. If the tests indicate that the view is sufficiently complex, we subdivide it. Next.we apply the tests to each of the smaller areas, subdividing these if the tests indicate that visibility of a single surface is still uncertain. We continue this process until the subdivisions are easily analyzed as belonging to a single surface or until they are reduced to the size of a single pixel. An easy way to do this is to successively divide the area into four equal parts at each step, as shown in Fig. 13-20. This approach is similar to that used in constructing a quad tree. A viewing area with a resolution of 1024 by 1024 could be subdivided ten times in this way before a sub area is reduced to a pint.

Tests to determine the visibility of a single surface within a specified area are made by comparing surfaces to the boundary of the area. There are four possible relationships that a surface can

have with a specified area boundary. We can describe these relative surface characteristics in the following way



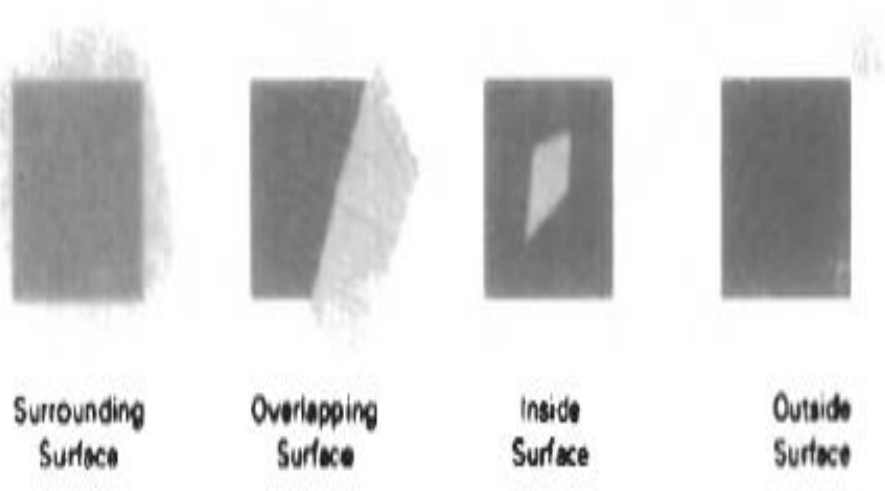
Dividing a square area into equal-sized quadrants at each

Step:

- Surrounding surface-One that completely encloses the area.
- Overlapping surface-One that is partly inside and partly outside the area.
- Inside surface-One that is completely inside the area.
- Outside surface-One that is completely outside the area.

The tests for determining surface visibility within an area can be stated in terms of these four classifications. No further subdivisions of a specified area are needed if one of the following conditions is true:

1. All surfaces are outside surfaces with respect to the area.
2. Only one inside, overlapping, or surrounding surface is in the area.
3. A surrounding surface obscures all other surfaces within the area boundaries.



2. Surface Rendering

Illumination Model:

An illumination model, also called lighting model and sometimes referred to as a shading model, is used to calculate the intensity of light that we should see at a given point on the surface of an object. Surface rendering means a procedure for applying a lighting model to obtain pixel intensities for all the projected surface positions in a scene. A surface-rendering algorithm uses the intensity calculations from an illumination model to determine the light intensity for all projected pixel positions for the various surfaces in a scene. Surface rendering can be performed by applying the illumination model to every visible surface point.

Light Sources

Light sources are referred to as light emitting sources; Reflecting surfaces, such as the walls of a room, are termed light reflecting sources. A luminous object, in general, can be both a light source and a light reflector. The simplest model for a light emitter is a point source.

When light is incident on an opaque surface, part of it is reflected and part is absorbed. The amount of incident light reflected by a surface depends on the type of material. Shiny materials reflect more of the incident light, and dull surfaces absorb more of the incident light. For an illuminated transparent surface, some of the incident light will be reflected and some will be transmitted through the material. Surfaces that are rough, or grainy, tend to scatter the reflected light in all directions. This scattered light is called diffuse reflection. In addition to diffuse reflection, light sources create highlights, or bright spots, called specular reflection. This highlighting effect is more pronounced on shiny surfaces than on dull.

Ambient Light

In our basic illumination model, we can set a general level of brightness for a scene. This is a simple way to model the combination of light reflections from various surfaces to produce a uniform illumination called the ambient light or background light. Ambient light has no spatial or directional characteristics. The amount of ambient light incident on each object is a constant for all surfaces and over all directions.

Diffuse Reflection

Diffuse reflections are constant over each surface in a scene. The fractional amount of the incident light that is diffusely reflected can be set for each surface with parameter k_d, the diffuse-reflection coefficient, or diffuse reflectivity.

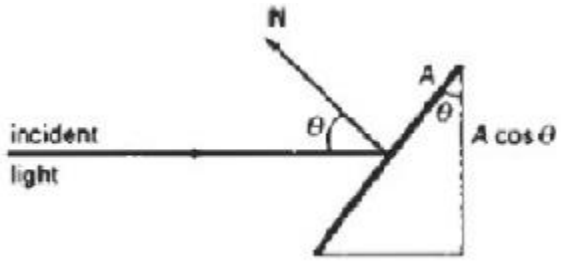
Parameter k_d is assigned a constant value in the interval 0 to 1. we want a highly reflective surface, we set the value of k_d near 1. This produces a bright surface with the intensity of the reflected light near that of

the incident light. To simulate a surface that absorbs most of the incident light, we set the reflectivity to a value near 0.

If a surface is exposed only to ambient light, we can express the intensity of the diffuse reflection at any point on the surface as

$$I_{amb\ diff} = k_d I_a$$

we assume that the diffuse reflections from the surface are scattered with equal intensity in all directions, independent of the viewing directions. Such surfaces are sometimes referred to as ideal diffuse reflectors. They are also called Lambertian reflectors, since radiated light energy from any point on the surface is governed by Lambert's cosine law. If we denote the angle of incidence between the incoming light direction and the surface normal as Θ, then the projected area of a surface patch perpendicular to the light direction is proportional to cos Θ



An illuminated area projected perpendicular to the path of the incoming light rays.

Thus, the amount of illumination (or the "number of incident light rays" cutting across the projected surface patch) depends on cos . Θ. If the incoming light from the source is perpendicular to the surface at a particular point, that point is fully illuminated. As the angle of illumination moves away from the surface normal, the brightness of the point drops off.

If I_l , is the intensity of the point light source, then the diffuse reflection equation for a point on the surface can be written as

$$I_{l,diff} = k_d I_l \cos \Theta$$

A surface is illuminated by a point source only if the angle of incidence is in the range 0° to 90 ° (cos 0 is in the interval from 0 to 1). • When cos Θ is negative, the light source is "behind" the surface.

If N is the unit normal vector to a surface and L is the unit direction vector to the point light source from a position on the surface, then cos Θ = N . L and the diffuse reflection equation for single point-source illumination is $I_{l,diff} = k_d I_l$ N. L

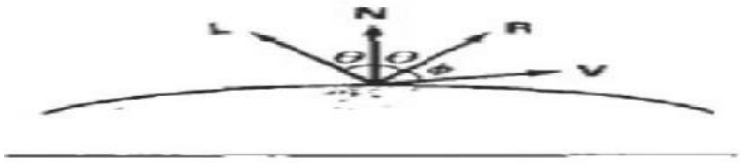
We can combine the ambient and point source intensity calculations to obtain an expression for the total diffuse reflection. • In addition, many graphics packages introduce an ambient-reflection coefficient ka to

modify the ambient light intensity I, for each surface. This simply provides us with an additional parameter to adjust the light conditions in a scene.

Using parameter k_a we can write the total diffuse reflection equation as $I_{l,diff} = k_a I_a + k_d I_l (N. L)$ • where both k a and k d depend on surface material properties and are assigned values in the range from 0 to 1.

Specular Reflection and the Phong Model

We see a highlight, or bright spot, at certain viewing directions. This phenomenon, called specular reflection, is the result of total or near total reflection of the incident light in a concentrated region around the specular reflection angle. The specular-reflection angle equals the angle of the incident light.



Specular-reflection angle equals angle of incidence θ.

In this figure, we use R to represent the unit vector in the direction of ideal specular reflection; L to represent the unit vector directed toward the point light source; and V as the unit vector pointing to the viewer from the surface position. • Angle Θ is the viewing angle relative to the specular-reflection direction R. For an ideal reflector (perfect mirror), incident light is reflected only in the specular-reflection direction. In this case, we would only see reflected light when vectors V and R coincide (Θ = 0). Phong model, sets the intensity of specular reflection proportional to cos n s Θ. Angle Θ can be assigned values in the range 0 to 90, so that cos Θ varies from 0 to 1. The value assigned to specular-reflection parameter ns is determined by the type of surface that we want to display. A very shiny surface is modeled with a large value for ns (say, 100 or more), and smaller values (down to 1) are used for duller surfaces. For a perfect reflector, n_s are infinite.

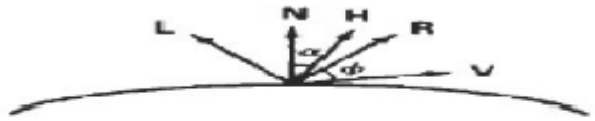
We can approximately model monochromatic specular intensity variations using a specular-reflection coefficient, W (Θ) for each surface. In general, W (Θ) tends to increase as the angle of incidence increases. Using the spectral-reflection function W (Θ), we can write the Phong specular reflection model as

$$I_{spec} = W(\theta) I_l \cos^{n_s} \phi$$

Since V and R are unit vectors in the viewing and specular-reflection directions, we can calculate the value of cos Θ with V . R. Assuming the specular-reflection coefficient is a constant, we can determine the intensity of the specular reflection at a surface point with the calculation

$$I_{spec} = k_s I_l (V. R) ns$$

Simplified Phong model is obtained by using the halfway vector H between L and V to calculate the range of specular reflections. • If we replace V.R in the Phong model with the dot product N. H, this simply replaces the empirical cos Θ calculation with the empirical cos α calculation



Halfway vector H along the bisector of the angle between L and V.

halfway vector is obtained as

$$H = \frac{L + V}{|L + V|}$$

Intensity Attenuation

As radiant energy from a point light source travels through space, its amplitude is attenuated by the factor l/d^2, where d is the distance that the light has travelled. This means that a surface close to the light source (small d) receives higher incident intensity from the source than a distant surface (large d).

A general inverse quadratic attenuation function can be set up as

$$f(d) = \frac{1}{a_0 + a_1 d + a_2 d^2}$$

A user can then fiddle with the coefficients a_o , a_1 , and a_2 , to obtain a variety of lighting effects for a scene. The value of the constant term a_o can be adjusted to prevent f(d) from becoming too large when d is very small.

With a given set of attenuation coefficients, we can limit the magnitude of the attenuation function to 1 with the calculation

$$f(d) = \min\left(1, \frac{1}{a_0 + a_1 d + a_2 d^2}\right) \qquad (14\text{-}12)$$

Using this function, we can then write our basic illumination model as

$$I = k_a I_a + \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(d_i) I_{li} [k_d (N \cdot L_i) + k_s (N \cdot H_i)^{n_s}] \qquad (14\text{-}13)$$

Where d_i is the distance light has travelled from light Source i.

Color Considerations

Most graphics displays of realistic scenes are in color. But the illumination model discussed so far considers only monochromatic lighting effects. To incorporate color, we need to write the intensity equation as a function of the color properties of the light sources and object surfaces. One way to set surface colors is by specifying the reflectivity coefficients as three-element vectors. The diffuse reflection coefficient vector, for example, would then have RGB components.

$$(k_{dR} , k_{dG} , k_{dB})$$

If we want an object to have a blue surface, we select a nonzero value in the range from 0 to 1 for the blue reflectivity component, kdB , while the red and green reflectivity components are set to zero (k_{dR} =0, k_{dG} =0)

Any nonzero red or green components in the incident light are absorbed, and only the blue component is reflected. The intensity calculation for this example reduces to the single expression.

$$I_B = k_{aB} I_{aB} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(d) I_{Bi} [k_{dB}(\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{L}_i) + k_{sB}(\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{H}_i)^{n_s}]$$

Surfaces typically are illuminated with white light sources, and in general we can set surface color so that the reflected light has nonzero values for all three RGB components. Calculated intensity levels for each color component can be used to adjust the corresponding electron gun in an RGB monitor. In his original specular-reflection model, Phong set parameter k_s to a constant value independent of the surface color. This produces specular reflections that are the same color as the incident light (usually white).

Transparency

A transparent surface, in general, produces both reflected and transmitted light. The relative contribution of the transmitted light depends on the degree of transparency of the surface and whether any light sources or illuminated surfaces are behind the transparent surface.

We can combine the transmitted intensity I_{trans} through a surface from a background object with the reflected intensity I_{refl} from the transparent surface using a transparency coefficient k_t. We assign parameter k_t , a value between 0 and 1 to specify how much of the background light is to be transmitted.

Total surface intensity is then calculated as

$$I = (1 - k_t) I_{refl} + k_t I_{trans}$$

The term (1-k_t) is the opacity factor. For highly transparent object, we assign k_l a value near 1. Nearly opaque object transmits very little light from background object and we can set $k_1$to the value near 0 for

these materials. It is possible to allow k_l to be a function of position over the surface, so that different part of an object can transmit more or less background intensity according to the values assigned to k_l.

Shadow

By applying a hidden-surface method with a light source at the view position, we can determine which surface sections cannot be "seen" from the light source. • These are the shadow areas. • Once we have determined the shadow areas for all light sources, the shadows could be treated as surface patterns and stored in pattern arrays. Surfaces that are visible from the view position are shaded according to the lighting model, which can be combined with texture patterns. • We can display shadow areas with ambient-light intensity only, or we can combine the ambient light with specified surface textures.

Recursive Ray Tracing

In computer graphics, **ray tracing** is a rendering technique for generating an image by tracing the path of light as pixels in an image plane and simulating the effects of its encounters with virtual objects. The technique is capable of producing a very high degree of visual realism, usually higher than that of typical scan-line rendering methods, but at a greater computational cost. This makes ray tracing best suited for applications where the image can be rendered slowly ahead of time, such as in still images and film and television visual effects, and more poorly suited for real-time applications like video games where speed is critical. Ray tracing is capable of simulating a wide variety of optical effects, such as reflection and refraction, scattering, and dispersion phenomena (such as chromatic aberration).

Algorithm

Optical ray tracing describes a method for producing visual images constructed in 3D computer graphics environments, with more photorealism than either ray casting or scan line rendering techniques. It works by tracing a path from an imaginary eye through each pixel in a virtual screen, and calculating the colour of the object visible through it. Scenes in ray tracing are described mathematically by a programmer or by a visual artist (typically using intermediary tools). Scenes may also incorporate data from images and models captured by means such as digital photography. Typically, each ray must be tested for intersection with some subset of all the objects in the scene. Once the nearest object has been identified, the algorithm will estimate the incoming light at the point of intersection, examine the material properties of the object, and combine this information to calculate the final colour of the pixel. Certain illumination algorithms and reflective or translucent materials may require more rays to be re-cast into the scene. It may at first seem counterintuitive or "backwards" to send rays *away* from the camera, rather than *into* it (as actual light does in reality), but doing so is many orders of magnitude more efficient. Since the overwhelming majority of light rays from a given light source do not make it directly into the viewer's

eye, a "forward" simulation could potentially waste a tremendous amount of computation on light paths that are never recorded. Therefore, the shortcut taken in ray-tracing is to presuppose that a given ray intersects the view frame. After either a maximum number of reflections or a ray traveling a certain distance without intersection, the ray ceases to travel and the pixel's value is updated.

Chromatic Color

Chromatics Inc. was a colour graphics display manufacturer based in Tucker, Georgia.[1] Their systems predated the personal computer era of inexpensive graphics displays, and were typically used as peripheral devices, connected to a mainframe or minicomputer. In some configurations, a Chromatics graphics terminal could be used as a stand-alone workstation, with disk drives and an operating system.

Chromatics pursued the higher performance end of the graphics marketplace, including such applications as flight simulation and air traffic control. They sold many systems into military and government contracts. Several configurations received Tempest certification. Others were ruggedized to withstand shock and vibration.

CG Series

The CG series included a graphics display, processor, and memory. In its most basic configuration, it would be connected via an RS-232 serial port to a larger computer. Programs running on that "host" machine would generate commands in Chromatics' proprietary graphics language, and transmit them to the CG. Such commands would cause the CG to draw primitive shapes (lines, circles, rectangles, etc.) in various colors, which could be combined to form more complex images. A typical command to draw a circle would be: **<02> C 256,256,100,** where the single ASCII character **<02>** (or STX) represents the Plot command, **C** indicates a circle, and the three numbers represent the circle's X-Y position and radius.

A CG system could also include 8" floppy diskette drives, a disk operating system for storing graphics images, and a version of Microsoft BASIC. These allowed the CG to be used as a standalone workstation, able to generate images without being connected to a host machine. Later enhancements included a Color Lookup Table and arithmetic processing unit

CGC 7900

The CGC 7900 was developed as a successor to the CG. It had a larger display, a more powerful processor, and more displayable colors (256 vs. 8). It retained backward compatibility with the CG's graphics language. A Color Lookup Table allowed each of its 256 displayable colors to be mapped to any of 2^{24} (16,777,216) colors. This enabled smooth shading of certain images, but not true photographic realism. The display hardware also included a text overlay frame buffer capable of displaying 85x48 characters in 8 colors, on top of the main graphic image. Screen resolution was 1024x768 pixels at 60 Hz

refresh rate (interlaced). The 7900 could also be configured with disk drives, including a Quantum 8" hard drive storing 40 MB. The drives could be used for simple file storage, as with the CG. A version of Idris, a Unix-like operating system, was also available.

Entry-level price for the 7900 (without disk drives) was $19,995, for a display system comparable to the XGA displays which would be a standard feature of personal computers less than a decade later.

CT Series

The CT series was a lower-cost product for Chromatics, designed around the recently introduced NEC µPD7220 graphics display controller chip. It was their only product built using a single circuit board. It was also the only series which could not be configured with disk storage and a disk-based operating system. The CT4100 model had the same form factor as other CT series machines, but was the only Chromatics system with character-cell (not pixel-addressable) graphics. It was intended to directly compete in the process control display terminal market, against Hughey's previous company, Intelligent Systems. Due to the limited graphics flexibility available in this type of display, the CT4100 also included a downloadable character set allowing user-definable glyphs.

Possible Questions

Two Mark Questions

1. What is Object coherence?
2. What is Face Coherence?
3. What is Edge Coherence?
4. What is Depth Coherence?
5. What is the use of Appel's Algorithm?

Six Mark Questions

1. Write a detail note on RGB Color Model.
2. Discuss about Transparency in detail.
3. Write a detail note on CMY Color Model.
4. Write about Z-Buffer Algorithm.
5. Write a short notes on a) RGB Color Model b) CMY Color Model
6. Discuss about List Priority Algorithm
7. Write a detail note on Scan-Line Algorithm.
8. Discuss about Octrees Algorithm.
9. Write short notes on shading models used in Polygon.
10. Discuss about Two Variable Functions in detail.

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act, 1956)
Coimbatore – 641021, INDIA
Department of Computer Science, Applications & Information Technology

Unit - V

S.No	Questions	opt1	opt2	opt3	opt4	Answer
1	The perception of color arises from _____ entering our visual system.	image	view volume	light	color	light
2	Light is a _____ energy.	electrical	mechanical	kinetic	electromagnetic	electromagnetic
3	The wavelength of the visual light ranges form _____nanometer.	100 to 500	400 to 700	30 to 90	600 to 1400	400 to 700
4	Which of these is the characteristics of light	brightness	hue	saturation	All the Above	All the Above
5	_____ coresponds to the physical property called luminance.	brightness	hue	saturation	purity	brightness
6	_____ property distinguishes a white light from a red or green light.	brightness	hue	saturation	purity	hue
7	_____ coresponds to the physical property called excitation purity.	brightness	hue	saturation	luminance	saturation
8	_____ describes the degree of vividness.	brightness	hue	saturation	luminance	saturation
9	Hue corresponds to another physical property called the _____	excitation purity	dominant wavelength	brightness	luminance	dominant wavelength
10	The receptor cells in the retina of the eye, that are sensitive to color is _____	rods	cones	cubes	lines	cones
11	The international Commission on Illumination defined the _____ colour model.	RGB	CMY	XYZ	YIQ	XYZ
12	XYZ colors were the result of an _____ transformation applied to three real primaries	Wavelet	Gamut	3 dimentional	Affine	Gamut
13	_____ of human eye coresponds to the eye's response to light of constant luminance.	dominant wavelength	luminous efficiency	excitation purity	None of the above	luminous efficiency
14	The curved triangular figure of CIE Chromaticity Diagram encompases _____	Whole Light spectrum	only the white light	all perceivable colors and their luminance	all perceivable colors by ignoring the luminance	all perceivable colors by ignoring the luminance
15	_____ refers to NTSC	National Telecommunication System committee	National Telecasting system committee	National Television System committee	National Tel-system Committee	National Television System committee
16	_____Model , main focus is on the direct impact of the light coming from the light source	Global Illumination	Local Illumination	Specular Illumination	diffuse Illumination	Local Illumination
17	_____ Model, attempts to include secondary effects as light going through transparent / translucent material and light bouncing from one object surface to another	Global Illumination	Specular Illumination	Local Illumination	diffuse Illumination	Global Illumination
18	In _____ reflection, light energy from the light source gets reflectd / bounced off equally in all the direction	Global reflection	Local reflection	Specular reflection	diffuse reflection	diffuse reflection
19	_____ reflection, attempts to capture the characteristics of a shiny or mirror-like surface	diffuse reflection	Local reflection	Specular reflection	Global reflection	Specular reflection
20	In _____ shading, Instead of color values, normal vector is found Interpolatively	Phong	constant	Gouraud	sutherland	Phong
21	Regular or Irregular surface feature details are colectively referred to as _____	watermark texture	glomming texture	surface texture	scaleable texture	surface texture
22	When an AND operation is used, a texture area with _____ shades will appear unaltered if the original color is white	black	white	red	magenta	magenta
23	When an AND operation is used, a texture area with _____ shades will appear unaltered if the original color is yellow	black	white	red	magenta	red
24	_____ texture is an effective tool when target surface are relatively flat and facing the reference plane	projected	solid	mapping	interpolative	projected
25	In _____ texture, we can wrap around the surface of an object, stretch or shrink it so as to follow the shape of the object	projected	solid	texture mapping	interpolative	texture mapping
26	_____ is a 3D representation of the internal structure of some nonhomogeneous material.	projected	solid	texture mapping	interpolative	solid
27	A Global illumination model that accounts for the transport of light energy beyond the direct contribution from the light sources	Light Tracing	Ray Tracing	basic Tracing	none of the above	Ray Tracing
28	Which among the following is NOT, the three components of the surface shading used in several secondary ray	local	reflected	transmitted	refracted	refracted
29	A Vector is defined by its	direction and starting point	direction and end point	only direction	direction and magnitude	direction and magnitude
30	A Ray is determined by its	direction and starting point	direction and end point	only direction	direction and magnitude	direction and starting point
31	_____ contribution refers to the direct contribution from the light source	refracted	reflected	transmitted	local	local
32	_____ contribution refers to the reflection of light energy coming from aother object surface	reflected	refracted	transmitted	local	reflected
33	_____ contribution refers to the transmission of light energy coming from behind the surface	reflected	refracted	transmitted	local	transmitted
34	a Family of vector are calculated using the formulae	|s + td - c |	s + td	| s-c |	|s - td - c |	s + td
35	An Opaque object _____ light	transmit	pass through	does not transmit	does not pass through	does not transmit
36	The value of the reflection coefficents of the objects along the path of reflection - Kr1, Kr2, Kr3	0.01	0.1	0.2	2	0.1
37	Dull object _____ specular reflection	transmit	does not transmit	produce	does not produce	does not produce
38	Purpose of Bounding Volume Extension technique is to identify object, especially _____ object	simple	complex	curved	flat	complex
39	_____ technique is based on the observation that only objects that are in the path of a ray may intersect by the ray	bounding volume extension	adaptive depth control	hierarchy of bounding volume	spatial coherence	spatial coherence
40	The vector equation for the sphere is _____	| s-c |	|p -c|	|d-c|	|s-t|	| s-c |
41	In ____ sampling, a separate primary ray is sent and traced through the center of each subpixel	spatial	stochastic	super	adaptive flter	super
42	_____ send one ray through the center of a pixel and four additional rays through its corners	Adaptive supersampling	stochastic	super	adaptive flter	Adaptive supersampling
43	In _____ ray deviate from using the fixed pixel grid by scattering th erays evenly across the pixel area.	Adaptive supersampling	stochastic supersampling	super	adaptive flter	stochastic supersampling
44	_____ are then distributed to these zones via random selection	soft shadow	burry reflection	transulency	motion blur	soft shadow
45	The distribution of the angle is subject to the same _____ reflectance function the governs hightlights	circle-shaped	rounded-shaped	star shaped	bell-shaped	bell-shaped

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)

(Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

COIMBATORE – 641 021

B.Sc. DEGREE EXAMINATION

Fifth Semester - I Internal Examination

Information Technology

Computer Graphics

Time: 2 Hrs **Max.Marks: 50**

Date: **Class: III B.Sc (IT) - 'A' & 'B'**

Part - A **(10 X 1 = 20)**

1. Picture in Raster is stored in Memory area called _____

   a) RAM b) ROM c) Memory Buffer d) Frame Buffer

2. Each Screen Point in Raster Display is called _____

   a) Spot Light b) Beam Point c) Coordinates d) Pixel

3. Frame in Raster is Collection of _____

   a) Pixels b) Spot lights c) Fit Lines d) Scatter Lines

4. The return to the left of the screen after refreshing in Raster is called _____

   a) Vertical Retrace b) Longitude Retrace c) Horizontal Retrace d) Picture Retrace

5. The Maximum number of Points that can be displayed without any overlapping in CRT is called_____

   a) Pixel b) Resolution c) Persistence d) None of the above

6. _____ Panel are also called as gas-discharge displays.

   a) LED b) LCD c) ELED d) Plasma

7. LED refers to _____

   a) Laser Emitting Diode b) Light Emitting Diode c) Light Emitting Display d) Laser Emitting Display

8. LCD are Commonly used with _____

   a) Higher End Machines b) Small Device c) Portable Devices d) all

9. _____ is referred as graphics controller in Raster Scan Display.

   a) Scan Converter b) Scan Analyser c) Display Processor d) Digital displayer

10. _____ is a method of encoding raster as a rectangular area.

    a) Cell Encoding b) Mobile Encoding c) run-length encoding d) All

11. Which of the following is not a graphics input device?

    a) Joystick b) Track Ball c) Data Glove d) Printer

12. Light pen is _____device.

    a) Storage b) Output c) input d) Scanning

13. Coordinates generally have ____values in 2D.

    a) 2 b) 3 c) 4 d) 1

14. Line function in C language takes _____parameters

    a) 3 b) 2 c) 4 d) 5

15. drawcircle function of C language _____ parameters

    a) 3 b) 2 c) 4 d) 5

16. The putpixel function of C language takes _____ parameters.

    a) 3 b) 4 c) 2 d) 5

17. _____ is a special header used in C language for supporting graphics.

    a) stdlib b) graph c) graphics d) conio

18. initgraph of c program takes ____as a second parameter.

    a) Address of driver b) Address of mode c) Path of BGI d) empty

19. _____ is the output device.

    a) Data glove b) Joystick c) Printer d) All

20. There are ____colour beams needed for CRT colour display.

    a) 4 b) 2 c) 3 d) 5

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

21. What is refresh rate in CRT?
22. What is Retrace in Raster Display?
23. What is an electron and anode?

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

24. a) Write in detail about the working principles of CRT monitor.

    (or)

    b) Write a detail note on i) Direct View Storage Tube ii) Flat Panel Display

25. a) What is Computer Graphics? Discuss about the applications of it in various fields.

    (or)

    b) Discuss about i) Raster Scan Display ii) Random Scan Display

26. a) What is Raster Scan System? Explain it along with its architecture.

    (or)

    b) List the set of Input devices available for Computer Graphics. Explain any three.

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

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B.Sc. DEGREE EXAMINATION

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   a) Vertical Retrace b) Longitude Retrace c) **Horizontal Retrace** d) Picture Retrace

5. The Maximum number of Points that can be displayed without any overlapping in CRT is called_____

   a) Pixel b) **Resolution** c) Persistence d) None of the above

6. _____ Panel are also called as gas-discharge displays.

   a) LED b) LCD c) ELED d) **Plasma**

7. LED refers to _____

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a) Address of driver b) **Address of mode** c) Path of BGI d) empty

19. _____ is the output device.

a) Data glove b) Joystick c) **Printer** d) All

20. There are ____colour beams needed for CRT colour display.

a) 4 b) 2 c) **3** d) 5

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

21. What is refresh rate in CRT?

Ans: The number of times a frame refresh in a Second is called refresh rate in CRT.

22. What is Retrace in Raster Display?

Ans: The Moving of beam light from right of current to next lines left or from end of frame to start of a frame is commonly called retrace.

23. What is an electron and anode?

Ans: The Positive signal produced in CRT initially is called Electron and the negative signal that pulls the electron is called anode.

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

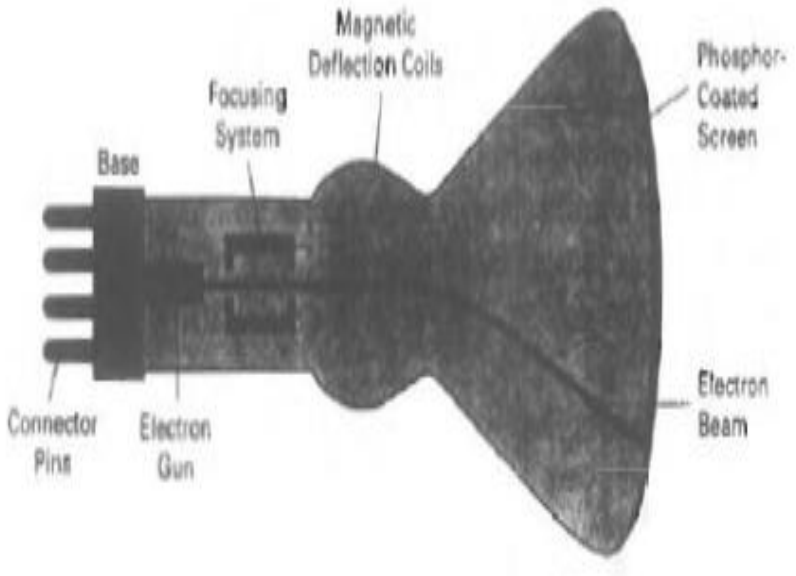
24. a) Write in detail about the working principles of CRT monitor.

Ans: A beam of electrons (cathode rays) emitted by an electron gun, passes through focusing and deflection systems that direct the beam toward specified positions on the phosphor coated screen. The phosphor then emits a small spot of light at each position contacted by the electron beam. Because the light emitted by the phosphor fades very rapidly, some method is needed for maintaining the screen picture. One way to keep the phosphor glowing is to redraw the picture repeatedly by quickly directing the electron beam back over the same points. This type of display is called a refresh CRT.

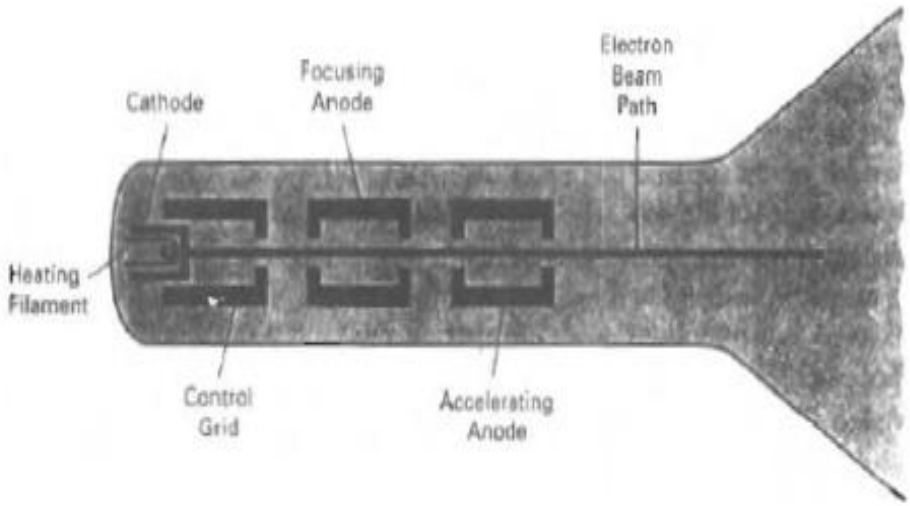
The primary components of an electron gun in a CRT are the heated metal cathode and a control grid which is shown in below Figure. Heat is supplied to the cathode by directing a current

through a coil of wire, called the filament, inside the cylindrical cathode structure. This causes electrons to be 'boiled off" the hot cathode surface. In the vacuum inside the CRT envelope, the free, negatively charged electrons are then accelerated toward the phosphor coating by a high positive voltage.

(Fig: basic design of magnetic deflection CRT)



The accelerating voltage can be generated with a positively charged metal coating on the inside of the CRT envelope near the phosphor screen, or an accelerating anode can be used, Sometimes the electron gun is built to contain the accelerating anode and focusing system within the same unit.



Intensity of the electron beam is controlled by setting voltage levels on the control grid, which is a metal cylinder that fits over the cathode.

A high negative voltage applied to the control grid will shut off the beam by repelling electrons and stopping them from passing through the small hole at the end of the control grid structure. **A** smaller negative voltage on the control grid simply decreases the number of electrons passing through. Since the amount of light emitted by the phosphor coating depends on the number of electrons striking the screen, we control the brightness of a display by varying the voltage on the control grid.

The focusing system in a CRT is needed to force the electron beam to converge into a small spot as it strikes the phosphor. Otherwise, the electrons would repel each other, and the beam would spread out as it approaches the screen. Focusing is accomplished with either electric or magnetic fields. Electrostatic focusing is commonly used in television and computer graphics monitors. With electrostatic focusing, the electron beam passes through a positively charged metal cylinder that forms an electrostatic lens. The action of the electrostatic lens focuses the electron beam at the center of the screen, in exactly the same way that an optical lens focuses a beam of light at a particular focal distance.

Similar lens focusing effects can be accomplished with a magnetic field set up by a coil mounted around the outside of the CRT envelope. Magnetic lens focusing produces the smallest spot size on the screen and is used in special purpose Devices.

Additional focusing hardware is used in high-precision systems to keep the beam in focus at all screen positions. The distance that the electron beam must travel to different points on the screen varies because the radius of curvature for most CRTs is greater than the distance from the focusing system to the screen center.

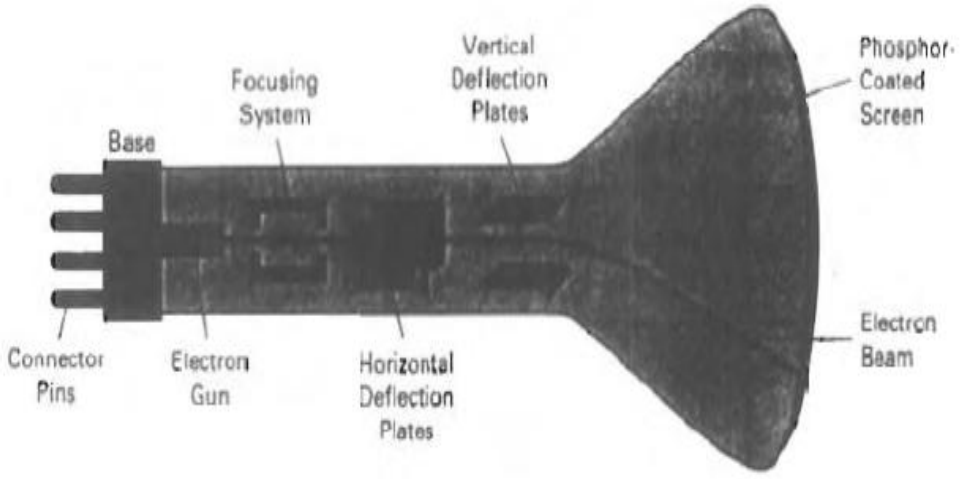
Cathode-ray tubes are now common. Constructed with magnetic deflection coils mounted on the outside of the CRT envelope.

Two pairs of coils are used, with the coils in each pair mounted on opposite sides of the neck of the CRT envelope.

- **One pair is mounted on the top and bottom of the neck and**
- **The other pair is mounted on opposite sides of the neck**

The magnetic, field produced by each pair of coils results in a transverse deflection force that is perpendicular both to the direction of the magnetic field and to the direction of travel of the electron beam. Horizontal deflection is accomplished with one pair of coils, and vertical deflection by the other pair.

The proper deflection amounts are attained by adjusting the current through the coils. When electrostatic deflection is used, two pairs of parallel plates are mounted inside the CRT envelope. One pair of plates is mounted horizontally to control the vertical deflection, and the other pair is mounted vertical to control horizontal deflection.



(Fig: Electrostatic deflection of the electron beam in a CRT)

Spots of light are produced on the screen by the transfer of the CRT. Remainder causes electrons in the phosphor atoms to move up to higher quantum- energy levels. After a short time, the "excited phosphor electrons begin dropping back to their stable ground state, giving up their extra energy as small quantum of Light energy.

T**he electron light emissions:** a glowing spot that quickly fades after all the excited phosphor electrons have returned to their ground energy level. The frequency (or color) of the light emitted by the phosphor is proportional to the energy difference between the excited quantum state and the ground state.

(or)

b) Write a detail note on i) Direct View Storage Tube ii) Flat Panel Display

Ans: a) **Direct View Storage Tubes:**

- An Alternative method for maintaining a screen image is to store the picture information inside the CRT instead of refreshing the screen.
- DIRECT VIEW STORAGE TUBES stores the picture information as the phosphor-coated screen
- Two electron guns are used in DVST

  1. Primary Gun-store the picture pattern

  2. Flood Gun-Maintains the picture display.

  Advantages:

  Very complex pictures can be displayed at very high resolutions without ficker.

DISADVANTAGES:

In DVST system ordinarily do not display color and that selected parts of a picture cannot be erased To eliminate a picture section the entire screen must be erased and the modified picture redrawn.

- The erasing and redrawing process can take several seconds for a complex picture.

b) **FLAT-PANEL DISPLAYS:**

Although most graphics monitors are still constructed with CRT .Other technologies are emerging that soon replace CRT monitors.

- Flat panel display is refered to class of video devices that have reduce volume weight and power requirements compared to a CRT.
- Flat panel display is that they are thinner than CRTs.
- Since we can write on some flat panel display they will soon be available as pocket notepads.

Current uses:

Small TV monitors,Calculators,Pocket video games,laptop computers and viewing of movies on airlines,advertisement boards in elevators and portable monitors etc..

Flat-panel displays can be divided into two types:

1. Emissive display

2. Non emissive display

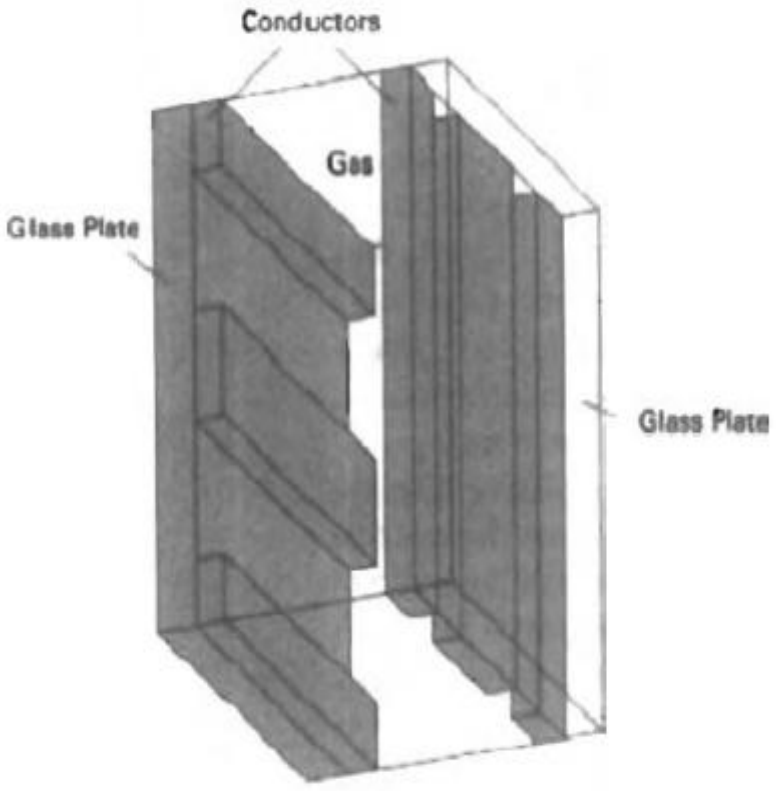
- Emissive display- are device that convert electrical energy into light.

Examples:-plasma panels,thin flim,electroluminescent display and light emitting diodes

- Non Emissive display-use optical effects to convert sunlight or light from other sources into graphics pattern

Examples: liquid crystal device

- **Plasma panel- al**so called gas-discharge displays are constructed by filling the region between two glass plates with a mixture of gasses
- Plasma display panels are most often seen as large flat televisions, while vacuum fluorescent displays are used in applications where the information content is fairly low, such as the displays on appliances or in automobiles. Field-emission displays are the most recent of these flat-panel technologies



- **Thin-Film electroluminescent displays:-**are similar construction to a plasma panel. The difference is that region between glass plates is filled with a phosphor
- A third type of emissive device is the LIGHT -EMITTING DIODE (LED)-A matrix of diodes is arranged to form the pixel positions.

25. a) What is Computer Graphics? Discuss about the applications of it in various fields.

Ans: Computer Graphic is the discipline of producing picture or images using a computer which include modeling, creation, manipulation, storage of geometric objects, rendering, converting a scene to an image, the process of transformations, rasterization, shading, illumination, animation of the image, etc.

Computer-Aided Design

A major use of computer graphics is in design processes, particularly for engineering and architectural systems, but almost all products are now computer designed. Generally referred to as CAD, computer-aided design methods are now routinely used in the design of buildings, automobiles, aircraft, watercraft, spacecraft, computers, textiles, and many, many other products.

Software packages for CAD applications typically provide the designer with a multi-window environment. Circuits such as the one shown in below Figure and networks for communications, water supply, or other utilities are constructed with repeated placement of a few graphical shapes.

The shapes used in a design represent the different network or circuit components. Standard shapes for electrical, electronic, and logic Circuits are often supplied by the design package. For other applications, a designer can create personalized symbols that are to be used to construct the network or circuit. The system is then designed by successively placing components into the layout, with the graphics package automatically providing the connections between components. This allows the designer t~ quickly try out alternate circuit schematics for minimizing the number of components or the space required for the system.

Fig: A circuit design application using

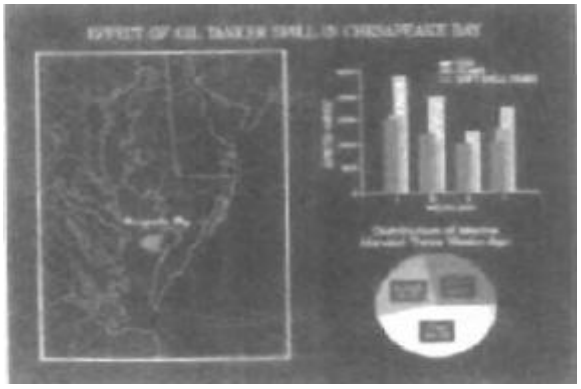
Animations are often used in CAD applications. Real-time animations using wire frame displays on a video monitor are useful for testing performance of a vehicle or system, when we do not display objects with rendered surfaces, the calculations for each segment of the animation can be performed quickly to produce a smooth real-time motion on the screen. Also, wire frame displays allow the designer to **see** into the interior of the vehicle and to watch the behavior of inner components during motion.

Animations in virtual reality environments are used to determine how vehicle operators are affected by certain motions. This allows the designer to explore various positions of the bucket or backhoe that might obstruct the operator's view, which can then be taken into account in the overall hector design.

Presentation Graphics

Another major application area is presentation graphics, used to produce illustrations for reports or to generate 35-mm slides or transparencies for use with projectors. Presentation graphics is commonly used to summarize financial, statistical, Mathematical, scientific, and economic data for research reports, managerial reports, consumer information bulletins, and other types of reports. Workstation devices and service bureaus exist for converting screen displays into 35-mm slides or overhead transparencies for use in presentations. Typical examples of Presentation graphics are bar charts, line graphs, surface graphs, pie charts, and other displays showing relationships between multiple parameters.

(Fig: Two dimensional bar chart and pie chart)

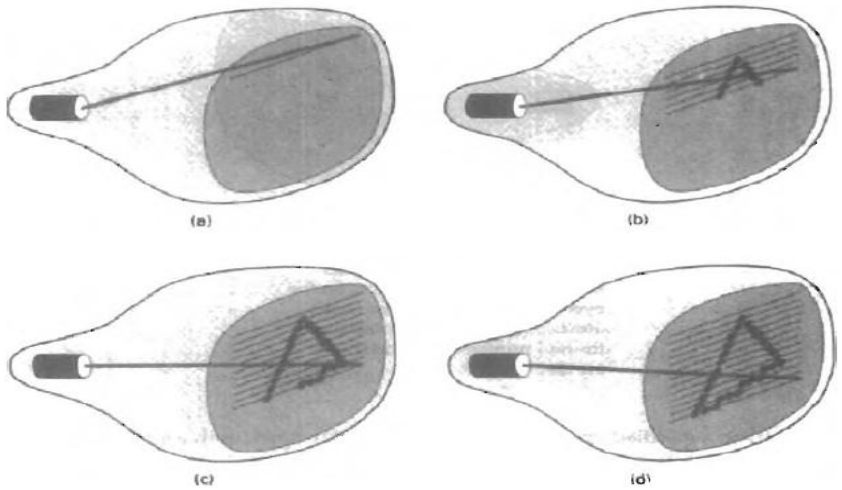


(or)

b) Discuss about i) Raster Scan Display ii) Random Scan Display

Ans: RASTER-SCAN DISPLAYS :-

The most common type of graphics monitor employing a CRT is the raster-scan display, based on television technology. In a raster-scan system, the electron beam is swept across the screen, one row at a time from top to bottom. As the electron beam moves across each row, the beam intensity is turned on and off to create a pattern of illuminated spots.



- Picture definition is stored in a memory area called the **refresh buffer or frame buffer.** This memory area holds the set of intensity values for all the screen points.
- Stored intensity values are then retrieved from the refresh buffer and "painted" on the screen one row (scan line) at a time (in above Figure**).**
- Each screen point is referred to as a **pixel or pel** (shortened forms of picture element).
- Intensity range for pixel positions depends on the capability of the raster system. In a simple black-and-white system, each screen point is either on or off, so only one bit per pixel is needed to control the intensity of screen positions.

- For a bi-level system, a bit value of 1 indicates that the electron beam is to be turn on at that position,
- And a value of 0 indicates that the beam intensity is to be off.
- Additional bits are needed when color and intensity variations can be displayed. Up to 2**4 bits per pixel are included in high-quality systems**, which can require several megabytes of storage for the frame buffer, depending on the resolution of the system.

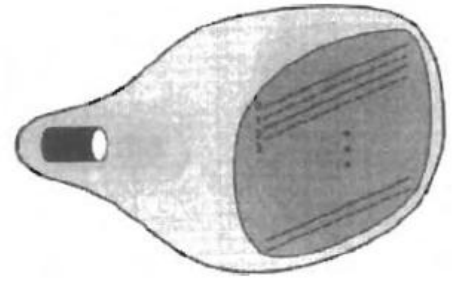
A system with 24 bits per pixel and a screen resolution of 1024 by 1024 requires 3 megabytes of storage for the frame buffer. On a black-and-white system with o**ne bit per pixel, the frame buffer is commonly called a bitmap**.

For systems with multiple bits per pixel, the frame buffer is often referred to as a **pixmap.** Refreshing on raster-scan displays is carried out at the rate of 60 to 80 frames per second, although some systems are designed for higher refresh rates. Sometimes, refresh rates are described in units of cycles per second, or Hertz (Hz), where a cycle corresponds to one frame. Using these units, we would describe

b) Random-Scan Displays

A random-scan display unit, a CRT has the electron beam directed only to the parts of the screen where a picture is to be drawn. Random scan monitors draw a picture one line at a time and for this reason are also referred to as vector displays *(or* stroke-writing or calligraphic displays). The Component lines of a picture can be drawn and refreshed by a random-scan system in any specified order which is shows in below figure.

(Fig: Interlacing scan lines on the raster scan system)



Refresh rate on a random-scan system depends on the number of lines to be displayed. Picture definition is now stored as a set of line drawing commands in an area of memory r e f e d to as the refresh display file. Sometimes the refresh display file is called the display list, display program, or simply the refresh buffer. To display a specified picture, the system cycles through the set of commands After all line drawing commands have been processed, the system cycles back to the first line command in the list. Random-scan displays are designed to draw all the component lines of a picture **30 to 60 times each second.**

High quality vector systems are capable of handling approximately 100,000 "short" lines at this refresh rate. When a small set of lines is to be displayed, each refresh cycle is delayed to

avoid refresh rates greater than 60 frames per second. Otherwise, faster refreshing of the set of lines could bum out the phosphor.

Random-scan systems are designed for line drawing applications and cannot display realistic shaded scenes. Since **picture definition is stored as a set of line drawing instructions and not as a set of intensity values for all screen points**, vector displays generally have higher resolution than raster systems. Also, vector displays produce smooth line drawings because the CRT beam directly follows the line path.

26. a) What is Raster Scan System? Explain it along with its architecture.

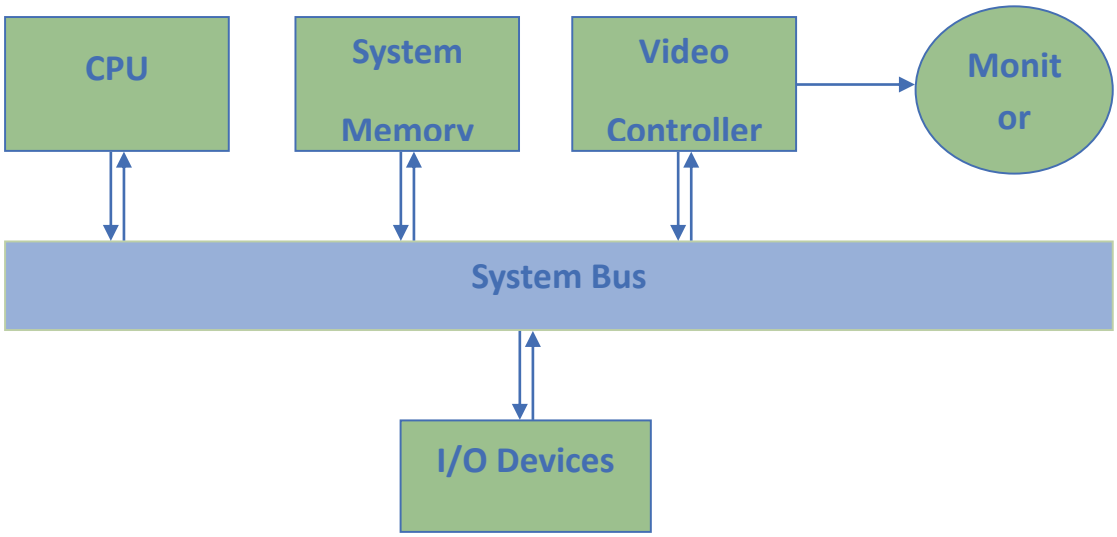
Ans: Raster Scan Systems:-

Raster graphics systems typically employ several processing units. In addition to the central processing unit, or CPU, a special-purpose processor, called the video controller or display controller, is used to control the operation of the display device.

1. **Video Controller**
2. **Raster scan display processor**

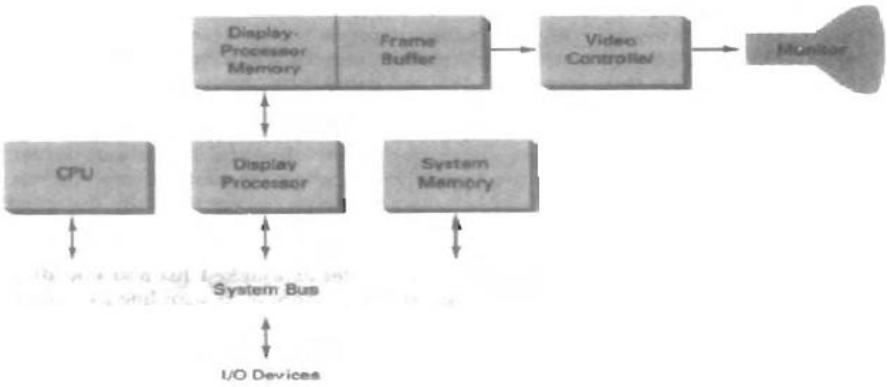
Video Controller

A fixed area of the system memory is reserved for the frame buffer, and the video controller is given direct access to the frame-buffer memory. Frame-buffer locations, and the corresponding screen positions, are referenced in Cartesian coordinates. The screen surface is then represented as the first quadrant of a two-dimensional system, with positive *x* values increasing to the right and positive y values increasing from bottom to top. Scan lines *are* then labeled from y, at the top of the screen to 0 at the bottom. Along each scan line, screen pixel positions are labeled from 0 to x_{max}



Raster scan display processor:

The purpose of the display processor is to free the CPU from the graphics chores. In addition to the system memory, a separate display processor memory area can also be provided.



Architecture of raster scan display processor

Random Scan System:

The organization of a simple random-scan (vector) system is shown in below figure. An application program is input and stored in the system memory along with a graphics package. Graphics commands in the application program are translated.

- The graphics package into a display file stored in the system memory.
- This display file is then accessed by the display processor to refresh the screen.
- The display processor cycles through each command in the display file program once during every refresh cycle. Sometimes the display processor in a random-scan system is referred to as a display processing unit or a graphics controller.

3D-Viewing Devices

Graphics monitors for the display of three-dimensional scenes have been devised using a technique that reflects a CRT image from a vibrating, flexible mirror. The operation of such a system is demonstrated in below figure. As the varifocal mirror vibrates, it changes focal length. These vibrations are synchronized with the display of an object on a CRT so that each point on the object is reflected from the mirror into a spatial position corresponding to the distance of that point from a specified viewing position. This allows us to walk around an object or scene and view it from different side.

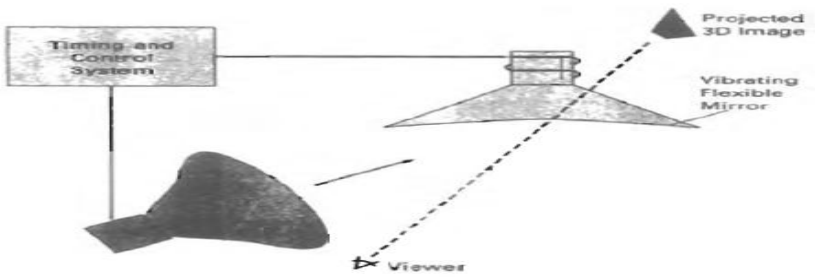


Fig: Operation of a 3D Display system.

(or)

b) List the set of Input devices available for Computer Graphics. Explain any three.

Ans: INPUT DEVICES:-

Various devices *are* available for data input on graphics workstations. Most systems have a keyboard and one or more additional devices specially designed for iterative input. These include a mouse, trackball, space ball, joystick, digitizers, dials, and button boxes. Some other inputs devices are used in particular applications are data gloves, touch panels, image scanners, and voice systems.

KEYBOARD:-

An alphanumeric keyboard on a graphics system is used primarily as a device for entering text strings.

- The keyboard is an efficient device for inputting such non graphic data as picture labels associated with a graphics display.
- Keyboards can also be provided with features to facilitate entry of screen coordinates, menu selections, or graphics functions.
- Cursor-control keys and function keys are common features on general purpose keyboards.
- Function keys allow users to enter frequently used operations in a single keystroke, and cursor-control keys can be used to select displayed objects or coordinate positions by positioning the screen cursor.

Other types of cursor-positioning devices, such as a trackball or joystick, are included on some keyboards. Additionally, a numeric keypad is, often included on the keyboard for fast entry of numeric data. Typical examples of general-purpose keyboards.

- **Alphanumeric Keys - letters and numbers.**
- **Punctuation Keys - comma, period, semicolon, and so on.**
- **Special Keys - function keys, control keys, arrow keys, Caps Lock key, and so on.**

MOUSE:

A mouse is small hand-held box used to position the screen cursor. Wheels or rollers on the bottom of the mouse can be used to record the amount and direction of movement. Another method for detecting mouse motion is with an optical sensor. For these systems, the mouse is moved over a special mouse pad that has a grid of horizontal and vertical lines. The optical sensor detects movement across the lines in the grid. A mouse can be picked up and put down at another position without change in cursor movement; it is used for making relative change in the position of the screen cursor. One, two, or three button usually included on the top of the mouse for signaling the execution of some operation, such as recording cursor position or invoking a function.

MOUSE

Additional devices can be included in the basic mouse design to increase the number of allowable input parameters. The Z mouse includes three buttons, a thumbwheel on the side, a trackball on the top, and a standard mouse ball underneath. This design provides six degrees of freedom to select Input Devices spatial positions, rotations, and other parameters. With the Z mouse, we can pick up an object, rotate it, and move it in any direction, or we can navigate our viewing position and orientation through a three-dimensional scene. Applications of the Z mouse include virtual reality, CAD, and animation.

TRACKBALL AND SPACE BALL:-

Trackball is a ball that can be rotated with the fingers or palm of the hand, to produce screen-cursor movement. Potentiometers, attached to the ball, measure the amount and direction of rotation. Trackballs are often mounted on keyboards or other devices such as the Z mouse. While a trackball is a two-dimensional positioning device,

SPACE BALL:-

Space ball provides six degrees of freedom. Unlike the trackball, a space ball does not actually move. Strain gauges measure the amount of pressure applied to the space ball to provide input for spatial positioning and orientation as the ball is pushed or pulled in various directions.

- Space balls are used for three-dimensional positioning and selection operations in virtual-reality systems, modeling, animation, CAD, and other applications.

JOYSTICKS:-

A joystick consists of a small, vertical lever (called the stick) mounted on a base that is used to steer the screen cursor around. Most joysticks select screen positions with actual stick movement others respond to pressure on the stick. Some joysticks are mounted on a keyboard others function as stand-alone units.

The distance that the stick is moved in any direction from its center position corresponds to screen-cursor movement in that direction. Potentiometers mounted at the base of the joystick measure the amount of movement, and springs return the stick to the center position when it is released. One or more buttons can be programmed to act as input switches to signal certain actions once a screen position has been selected.

In another type of movable joystick, the stick is used to activate switches that cause the screen cursor to move at a constant rate in the direction selected. Eight switches, arranged in a circle, are sometimes provided, so that the stick can select any one of eight directions for cursor movement. Pressure sensitive joysticks, also called isometric joysticks, have a non movable stick.

JOYSTICK

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)

(Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

COIMBATORE – 641 021

B.Sc. DEGREE EXAMINATION

Fifth Semester - II Internal Examination

Information Technology

Computer Graphics

Time: 2 Hrs **Max.Marks: 50**

Date: **Class: III B.Sc (IT) - 'A' & 'B'**

Part - A **(10 X 1 = 20)**

Answer all the Questions

1. Which of following defines the formulae of a Line?

   a) $f(x,y) = ax+by+c$ b) $r^2=x^2+y^2$ c) $f(x,y) = -r^2 + x^2+y^2$ d) None of the Above

2. The number of parameters used for drawing a line in C language is _____

   a) 4 b) 2 c) 3 d) 5

3. Which of following defines the formulae of a circle?

   a) $f(x,y) = ax+by+c$ b) $r^2=x^2+y^2$ c) $f(x,y) = -r^2 + x^2+y^2$ d) both b & c

4. The number of parameters used to draw a bar3D is _____

   a) 6 b) 5 c) 7 d) 3

5. Which of the following are supported in 2D-Transformation?

   a) Translation b) Rotation c) Reflexion d) All

6. The algorithms that supports to draw a circle are _____

   a) Midpoint b) Polar Equation c) Incremental d) both a & b

7. initgraph of c program takes ____as a First parameter.

   a) Address of driver b) Address of mode c) Path of BGI d) empty

8. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on NE for a Line is denoted as ____

   a) $–y_i+1$ b) $–y_i+1/2$ c) y_i+1 d) $y_i+1/2$

9. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Line is denoted as ____

   a) $–y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) $-y_i+1$ d) y_i

10. The x-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on NE for a Line is denoted as ____

    a) $–x_i+1$ b) $–x_i+1/2$ c) x_i+1 d) $x_i+1/2$

11. Which of the following is the input device?

    a)Mouse b) Keyboard c) Data Glove d) All the Above

12. The x-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Line is denoted as ____

    a) $–x_i+1$ b) $–x_i+1/2$ c) x_i+1 d) $x_i+1/2$

13. The midpoint 'M' of the Line drawing algorithm is denoted as _____

a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i+1/2$ c) y_i+1 d) $y_i+1/2$

14. _____ is a special header used in C language for supporting graphics.

a) stdlib b) graph c) graphics d) conio

15. The midpoint 'M' of the Circle drawing algorithm is denoted as _____

a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i+1/2$ c) $y_i-1/2$ d) both b & c

16. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Circle is denoted as ____

a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) $-y_i+1$ d) y_i

17. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on SE for a Circle is denoted as ____

a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) y_i-1 d) $y_i - 1/2$

18. The putpixel function of C language takes _____ parameters.

a) 3 b) 4 c) 2 d) 5

19. _____ is the Input device.

a) Data glove b) VDU c) Printer d) All

20. DDA stands for ____

a) Digital Differential Algorithm b) Differential Digital Algorithm

c) Designing Define Algorithmd) None

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

Answer all the Questions

21. Write the syntax of plotting a pixel in C.
22. List the names of Circle Drawing algorithms.
23. What is an input Device?

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

Answer all the Questions

24. a) Discuss in detail about the types of printers.

(OR)

b) Write a C program that performs 3D-Transformations.

25. a) Elaborate the Midpoint Circle algorithm.

(OR)

b) Write a C program that performs 2D-Transformations.

26. a) Write a C program that draws a line using Bresenham's Algorithm.

(OR)

b) Discuss about Line Clipping Algorithm in detail.

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

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Part - A **(10 X 1 = 20)**

Answer all the Questions

1. Which of following defines the formulae of a Line?

   a) **f(x,y) = ax+by+c** b) $r^2=x^2+y^2$ c) $f(x,y) = -r^2 + x^2+y^2$ d) None of the Above

2. The number of parameters used for drawing a line in C language is _____

   a) **4** b) 2 c) 3 d) 5

3. Which of following defines the formulae of a circle?

   a) f(x,y) = ax+by+c b) $r^2=x^2+y^2$ c) $f(x,y) = -r^2 + x^2+y^2$ d) **both b & c**

4. The number of parameters used to draw a bar3D is _____

   a) **6** b) 5 c) 7 d) 3

5. Which of the following are supported in 2D-Transformation?

   a) Translation b) **Rotation** c) Reflexion d) All

6. The algorithms that supports to draw a circle are _____

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7. initgraph of c program takes ____as a First parameter.

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8. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on NE for a Line is denoted as ____

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9. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Line is denoted as ____

   a) $–y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) $-y_i+1$ d) $\mathbf{y_i}$

10. The x-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on NE for a Line is denoted as ____

    a) $–x_i+1$ b) $–x_i+1/2$ c) $\mathbf{x_i+1}$ d) $x_i+1/2$

11. Which of the following is the input device?

    a)Mouse b) Keyboard c) Data Glove d) **All the Above**

12. The x-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Line is denoted as ____

    a) $–x_i+1$ b) $–x_i+1/2$ c) $\mathbf{x_i+1}$ d) $x_i+1/2$

13. The midpoint ‘M’ of the Line drawing algorithm is denoted as _____

    a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i+1/2$ c) y_i+1 d) **$y_i+1/2$**

14. _____ is a special header used in C language for supporting graphics.

    a) stdlib b) graph c) **graphics** d) conio

15. The midpoint ‘M’ of the Circle drawing algorithm is denoted as _____

    a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i+1/2$ c) $y_i-1/2$ d) **both b & c**

16. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on E for a Circle is denoted as ____

    a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) $-y_i+1$ d) **y_i**

17. The y-coordinate of the Pixel that exist on SE for a Circle is denoted as ____

    a) $-y_i+1$ b) $-y_i$ c) y_i-1 d) **$y_i - 1/2$**

18. The putpixel function of C language takes _____ parameters.

    a) **3** b) 4 c) 2 d) 5

19. _____ is the Input device.

    a) **Data glove** b) VDU c) Printer d) All

20. DDA stands for ____

    a) **Digital Differential Algorithm** b) Differential Digital Algorithm

    c) Designing Define Algorithm d) None

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

Answer all the Questions

21. Write the syntax of plotting a pixel in C.

    Ans: putpixel(x,y,COLOR);

22. List the names of Circle Drawing algorithms.

    Ans: Polar modulation, Midpoint circle drawing algorithm

23. What is an input Device?

    Ans: The device that is used to give values to the program is called Input Device.

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

Answer all the Questions

24. a) Discuss in detail about the types of printers.

    Ans: Printers: Printers are the most commonly used output device. They are used to print output on the paper. The output may be in the form of characters, symbols and graphics information printed on paper is called hardcopy

    The various types of printers in used today are

    - Dot-Matrix Printers
    - Inkjet Printers
    - Drum Printers
    - Laser Printers.

    Printers produce output by either a) Impact Printer b) Non-impact Printer

1. Impact Printer

The types of printers that produce output on paper by striking the print hammer or wheel against an inked ribbon are called impact printers. Impact printers work like typewriter. They can print characters and graphics on the paper. Impact printers are slower in printing and produce low quality output. The printing speed of these printers is measured in characters or lines per minute. They also produce more noise during printing. Today they are not commonly used.

The examples of impact printers are:

- Dot matrix printer
- Daisy Wheel printer
- Line printer

Dot matrix printers:

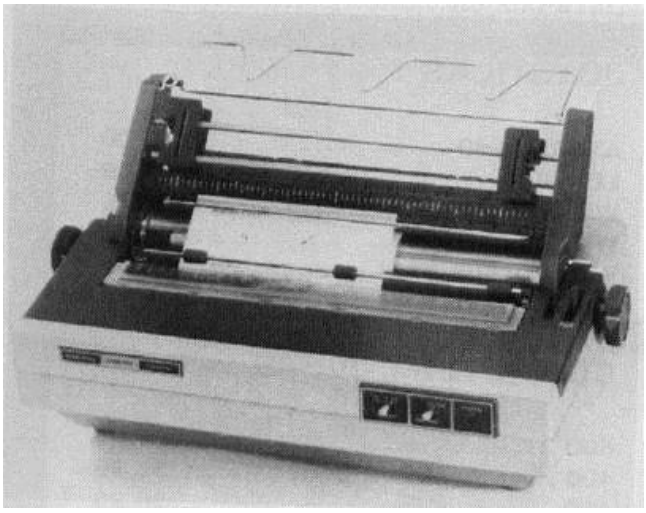
A dot matrix printer is an impact character printer. It makes a hardcopy by printing one character at a time. Its printing speed is from 200 to 1000 or more characters per minute. Dot matrix printer contains a print-head with a matrix of small pins arranged in rows and columns. Dot matrix printer produces output on paper by striking pins against an ink ribbon. Usually, a dot matrix printer uses 100 to 300 dots per inch (DPI) to print output on the paper. Print-heads are available with 9, 18 or 24 pins. The dot matrix printer with 24-pins provides best quality printout. Dot matrix printers are used with personal computer. They are less expensive. The printout quality of these printers is not bad. They also produce more noise during printing.

Dot Matrix Printer

Daisy wheel printer:

Daisy wheel printer is also an impact character printer. It is similar to typewriter. It has a print wheel with a series of petals. This wheel is known as daisy wheel. Each petal of daisy wheel contains a character at its end. A motor rotates the wheel. When the desired character reaches at the print position on the paper, a hammer strikes a petal against the ribbon. In this way, a

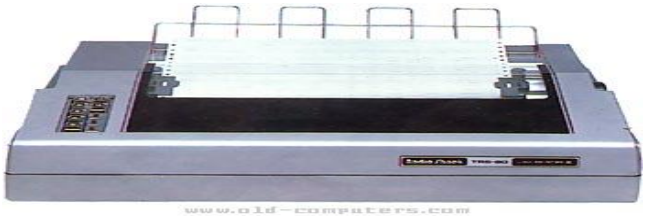
character is printed on the paper. This printer is slower than dot-matrix printer. However, its print quality is better than dot matrix printer



DAISY WHEEL PRINTER

Line Printer

Line printer is an impact printer. it is very fast printer. It prints a complete line of characters at a time. The printing speed of line printer is measured in lines per minute (lpm). It is up to 3000 lines per minute.



Line printers are normally used with mainframe and mini computers.

Two types of line printers are:-

- Chain Printer
- Band Printer

Non-Impact Printers

The printers that produce output on paper without striking the paper are known as non-impact printers. They Uses Electrostatic, inkjet, and thermal technologies for printing. Non-Impact printers are faster and produce high quality output than impact printers. They can print up to 24 pages per minute. They produce no noise during printing. These printers are costly than impact printers

The Examples of Non-Impact printers are:

- Laser Printer
- Inkjet Printer
- Thermal Printer

Laser Printer

Laser stands for Light Amplification by Simulated Emission of Radiation. A laser printer is the fastest and high quality non-impact printer. It works like a photocopier. The laser printer transfers the image of output on paper using LASER technology and toner. Toner is an ink powder. It is used in laser printers and photocopiers.

The laser printer has a special drum inside it. first the image of output is created on the drum, and then it is transferred from drum to paper. The image of output is created on the drum by throwing magnetic ink powder in the form of microscopic dots. These dots can be from 300 dpi to 1200 dpi (dpi means dots per inch and these dots refers to microscopic dots).

The Laser printer can print both text and graphics in very high quality resolution. Laser printer prints one page at a time. The laser printers are, therefore also called page printers. The printing speed of laser printer is about 4 to 32 pages per minute for microcomputer and up to 200 pages per minute for mainframe computers.

Ink Jet Printer

Ink-jet printer is type of non-impact printer. It creates output on paper by spraying tiny drops of liquid ink. Inkjet printer has print-head that can spray very fine drops of ink. It consists of print cartridge filled with liquid ink and has small nozzles in form of matrix.

Like dot matrix printer, the combination of nozzles is activated to form the shaper of character or image on the paper by spraying the liquid ink. These printers have resolution ranging from 300 to 720 dpi.

INK JET PRINTER

The ink-jet printers have low price than laser printers. They are also slower and have low print quality than laser printer. However, they are faster and have high print quality than dot matrix printers. The printing speed of ink-jet printer is from 1 to 6 pages per minute.

Thermal Printer

Thermal printer is another type of non-impact printer. It can only print output on a special heat sensitive waxy paper. The image if the output is created on the waxy paper by burning dots on it. For coloured output, coloured waxy sheets are used.

THERMAL PRINTER

Thermal Printer produces a high quality printout. It is quite expansive as compared to other non-impact printers.

(OR)

b) Write a C program that performs 3D-Transformations.

Ans:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
#include<graphics.h>
#include<math.h>
void trans();
void scale();
void rotate();
int maxx,maxy,midx,midy;
void main()
{
        int ch;
        int gd=DETECT,gm;
        initgraph(&gd,&gm,"c:\\turboc3\\bgi");
        printf("\n1.Translation \n2.Scaling \n3.Rotation \n4.exit\n");
        printf("Enter your choice:");
        scanf("%d",&ch);
```

```
        switch(ch)
        {
                case 1:
                        trans();
                        getch();
                        break;
                case 2 :
                        scale();
                        getch();
                        break;
                case 3 :
                        rotate();
                        getch();
                        break;
        }
}
void trans()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        //bar3d(midx+50,midy-100,midx+60,midy-90,10,1);
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,10,1);
        printf("\nEnter translation factor of x & y:");
        scanf("%d%d",&x,&y);
        printf("\nAfter translation");
        //bar3d(midx+x+50,midy-(y+100),midx+x+60,midy-(y+90),10,1);
        bar3d(midx+x-50,midy-(y-100),midx+x-60,midy-(y-90),10,1);
}
void scale()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,5,1);
        printf("\nBefore translation\n");
        printf("Enter scaling factors:");
```

```
        scanf("%d %d %d", &x,&y,&z);
        printf("\nAfter scaling\n");
        bar3d(midx-(x*50),midy+(y*100),midx-(x*60),midy+(y*90),5*z,1);
}
void rotate()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,5,1);
        printf("\nEnter rotating angle:");
        scanf("%d",&o);
        x1=50*cos(o*3.14/180)-100*sin(o*3.14/180);
        x2=60*cos(o*3.14/180)-90*sin(o*3.14/180);
        printf("\nAfter rotation  about x & y axis");
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+x1,midx-60,midy+x2,5,1);
        bar3d(midx-x1,midy+100,midx-x2,midy+90,5,1);
}
```

25. a) Elaborate the Midpoint Circle algorithm.

Ans: Midpoint Circle Algorithm:

- Input radius r and circle center (x_c,y_c), and obtain the first point on the circumference of a circle centered on the origin as

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

- Calculate the initial value of the decision parameter as

  $$p_0 = 5/4 – r$$

- 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 (xk + 1, yk –1) and

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

  Where $2x_{k+1} = 2x_k + 2$ and $2y_{k+1} = 2y_k – 2$.

- Determine symmetry points in the other seven octants.
- Move each calculated pixel position (x,y) onto the circular path centered on (x_c, y_c) and plot the coordinate values:

  $$x = x + x_c \text{ , } y= y + y_c$$

- Repeat steps 3 through 5 until x >= y;

```
#include”device.h”
void circleMidpoint (int xCenter, int yCenter, int radius);
{
        int  x=0, y=radius;
        int p=1-radius;
        void circleplotPoints(int, int, int , int );
        /* float first set of points */
        Circlefloatpoints(Xcenter, Ycenter, x,y);
        While(x<y)
        {
                x++;
                if (p<0)
                        p+=2*x+1;
                else
                {
                        y--; p := p + 2 * (x – y) + 1;
                }
        }
}
void circle plotpoints(int xCenter, int yCenter, int x, int y)
{
        setPixel (xCenter + x, yCenter + y);
        setPixel (xCenter - x, yCenter + y);
        setPixel (xCenter + x, yCenter - y);
        setPixel (xCenter - x, yCenter - y);
        setPixel (xCenter + y, yCenter + x);
        setPixel (xCenter - y, yCenter + x);
        setPixel (xCenter + y, yCenter - x);
        setPixel (xCenter - y, yCenter - x);
}
```

(OR)

b) Write a C program that performs 2D-Transformations.

Ans:

```
#include <graphics.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <conio.h>
```

```
#include<math.h>
void main()
{
        int gm;
        int gd=DETECT;
        int x1,x2,x3,y1,y2,y3,nx1,nx2,nx3,ny1,ny2,ny3,c;
        int sx,sy,xt,yt,r;
        float t;
        initgraph(&gd,&gm,"c:\\turboc3\\bgi");
        printf("\t Program for basic transactions");
        printf("\n\t Enter the points of triangle");
        scanf("%d%d%d%d%d%d",&x1,&y1,&x2,&y2,&x3,&y3);
        cleardevice();
        line(x1,y1,x2,y2);
        line(x2,y2,x3,y3);
        line(x3,y3,x1,y1);
        getch();
        printf("\n 1.Transaction\n 2.Rotation\n 3.Scalling\n 4.exit\n");
        printf("Enter your choice:");
        scanf("%d",&c);
        switch(c)
        {
                case 1:
                        printf("\n Enter the translation factor");
                        scanf("%d%d",&xt,&yt);
                        nx1=x1+xt;
                        ny1=y1+yt;
                        nx2=x2+xt;
                        ny2=y2+yt;
                        nx3=x3+xt;
                        ny3=y3+yt;
                        line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
                        line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                        line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                        getch();
                        break;
```

```
                case 2:
                        printf("\n Enter the angle of rotation");
                        scanf("%d",&r);
                        t=3.14*r/180;
                        nx1=abs(x1*cos(t)-y1*sin(t));
                        ny1=abs(x1*sin(t)+y1*cos(t));
                        nx2=abs(x2*cos(t)-y2*sin(t));
                        ny2=abs(x2*sin(t)+y2*cos(t));
                        nx3=abs(x3*cos(t)-y3*sin(t));
                        ny3=abs(x3*sin(t)+y3*cos(t));
                        line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
                        line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                        line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                        getch();
                        break;
            case 3:
                        printf("\n Enter the scalling factor");
                        scanf("%d%d",&sx,&sy);
                        nx1=x1*sx;
                        ny1=y2*sy;
                        nx2=x2*sx;
                        ny2=y2*sy;
                        nx3=x3*sx;
                        ny3=y3*sy;
                        line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
                        line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                        line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                        getch();
                        break;
                case 4:
                        break;
                default:
                        printf("Enter the correct choice");
    }
    closegraph();
}
```

26. a) Write a C program that draws a line using Bresenham's Algorithm.

Ans:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<graphics.h>
#include<conio.h>
void main()
{
        int gdriver=DETECT, gmode, x0, y0, x1, y1;
        int dx,dy,p,x,y;
        clrscr();
        printf("Enter co-ordinates of first point: ");
        scanf("%d%d",&x0,&y0);
        printf("Enter co-ordinates of second point: ");
        scanf("%d%d",&x1,&y1);
        initgraph(&gdriver, &gmode, "c:\\tc\\BGI");
        dx=x1-x0;
        dy=y1-y0;
        x=x0;
        y=y0;
        p=2*dy-dx;
        while(x<x1)
        {
                if(p>=0)
                {
                        putpixel(x,y,7);
                        x=x+1;
                        y=y+1;
                        p=p+2*dy-2*dx;
                }
                else
                {
                        putpixel(x,y,7);
                        x=x+1;
                        p=p+2*dy;
                }
        }
        getch(); }
```

(OR)

b) Discuss about Line Clipping Algorithm in detail.

Ans: Cohen-Sutherland line clipping

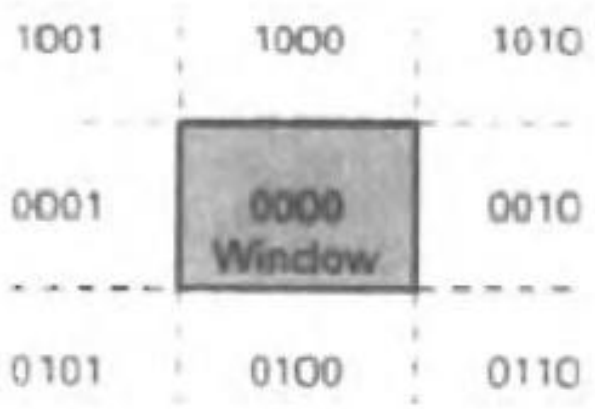
This is one of the oldest and most popular line-clipping procedures. Generally, the method speeds up the processing of line segments performing initial tests that reduce the number of intersections that must he calculated. Every line end Point in a picture is assigned a four-digit binary code, called a region code that identifies the location of the point relative to the boundaries of the clipping rectangle. Regions are set up in reference to the boundaries as shown in Fig.7**.** Each bit position in the region code is used to indicate one of the four relative coordinate positions of the point with respect to the clip window: to the left, right, top, or bottom. By numbering the bit positions in the region code as 1 through 4 from right to left, the coordinate regions can be correlated with the bit positions as

bit 1: left

bit 2: right

bit 3: below

bit 4: above



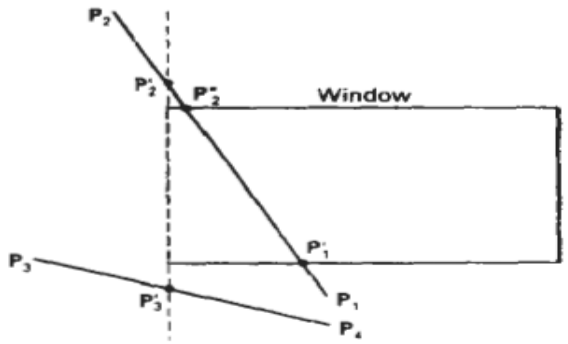
Binary region codes assigned to line endpoints according to relative position with respect to the clipping rectangle.

A value of 1 in any bit position indicates that the point is in that relative position; Otherwise, the bit position is set to 0. If a point is within the clipping rectangle, the region code is 0000. A point that is below and to the left of the rectangle has a region code of 0101. Bit values in the region code are determined by comparing endpoint Coordinate values (x, y) to the clip boundaries. Bit 1 is set to 1 if x $<^{xw_{min}}$,. The other three bit values can be determined using similar comparisons. For languages in which bit manipulation is possible, region-code bit values can be determined with the following two steps: (1) Calculate differences between endpoint coordinates and clipping boundaries. (2) Use the resultant sign bit of each difference

calculation to set the corresponding value in the region code. Bit **1** is the sign bit of ***x*** - bit 2 is the sign bit of $xw_{max} - x$; bit 3 is the sign bit of $y - yw_{min}$; and bit 4 is the sign bit of $yw_{max} - y$.

Once we have established region codes for all line endpoints, we can quickly determine which lines are completely inside the clip window and which are clearly outside. Any lines that are completely contained within the window boundaries have a region code of 0000 for both endpoints, and we trivially accept these lines. Any lines that have a 1 in the same bit position in the region codes for each endpoint are completely outside the clipping rectangle, and we trivially reject these lines. We would discard the line that has a region code of 1001 for one endpoint and a code of 0101 for the other endpoint. Both endpoints of this line are left of the clipping rectangle, as indicated by the 1 in the first bit position of each region code. A method that can be used to test lines for total clipping is to perform the logical and operation with both region codes. If the result is not 0000, the line is completely outside the clipping region.

Lines that cannot be identified as completely inside or completely outside a Clip window by these tests are checked for intersection with the window boundaries. As shown in Fig.8, such lines may or may not cross into the window interior. We begin the clipping process for a line by comparing an outside endpoint to a clipping boundary to determine how much of the line can be discarded. Then the remaining part of the Line is checked against the other boundaries, and we continue until either the line is totally discarded or a section is found inside the window. We set up our algorithm to check line endpoints against clipping boundaries in the order left, right, bottom, top.



Lines extending from one coordinate region to another may pass through the clip window, or they may intersect clipping boundaries without entering the window.

To illustrate the specific steps in clipping lines against rectangular boundaries using the Cohen-Sutherland algorithm, we show how the lines in Figure could be processed. Starting with the bottom endpoint of the line from P_1 to P_2.

We check P, against the left, right, and bottom boundaries in turn and find that this point is below the clipping rectangle. We then find the intersection point Pi with the bottom boundary and discard the line section from P_1 to P_1'. The line now has been reduced to the section from P_1' to P_2. since P_2 is outside the clip window, we check this endpoint against the boundaries and find that it is to the left of the window. Intersection point P_2' is calculated, but this point is above the window. So the final intersection calculation yields P_2'', and the line from P_1' to P_2'' is saved. This completes processing for this line, so we save this part and go on to the next line. Point P_3 in the next line is to the left of the clipping rectangle, so we determine the intersection P_3' and eliminate the line section from P_3 to P_3'. By checking region codes for the line section from P_3' to P_4, we find that the remainder of the line is below the clip window and can be discarded also.

Intersection points with a clipping boundary can be calculated using the Slope-intercept form of the line equation. For a line with endpoint coordinates (x,y,) and (x2, y2), they coordinate of the intersection point with a vertical boundary can be obtained with the calculation.

$$Y=y_1+m(x-x_1)$$

where the ***x*** value is set either to xw_{min} to xw_{max} and the slope of the line is calculated as m=(y2-y1)/(x2-x1).Similarly, if we are looking for the intersection with a horizontal boundary, the ***x*** coordinate can be calculated as

$$x = x_1 + \frac{y - y_1}{m}$$

with y set either to yw_{min} or to yw_{max}

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)

(Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

COIMBATORE – 641 021

B.Sc. DEGREE EXAMINATION

Fifth Semester - III Internal Examination

Information Technology

Computer Graphics

Time: 2 Hrs **Max.Marks: 50**

Date: **Class: III B.Sc (IT) - 'A' & 'B'**

Part - A **(10 X 1 = 20)**

Answer all the Questions

1. The Center of projection is called the ____

   a) View Point b) View Panel c) View Port d) All

2. The view volumes are _____ in extent

   a) Finite b) infinite c) invisible b) fixed

3. A _____ is a polygon in which all vertices lie on the same plane

   a) Convex polygon b) concave polygon c) planar polygon d) none of the above

4. The Control points control the _____ of the curve

   a) Length b) shape c) slope d) width

5. The wavelength of the visual light ranges form _____nanometer

   a) 100 to 500 b) 400 to 700 c) 30 to 90 d) 600 to 1400

6. XYZ colors were the result of an _____ transformation applied to three real primaries

   a) Wavelet b) Gamut c) 3 Dimensional d) Affine

7. In _____ texture, we can wrap around the surface of an object, stretch or shrink it so as to follow the shape of the object

   a) projected b) solid c) texture mapping d) interpolative

8. Dull object _____ specular reflection

   a) Transmit b) does not transmit c) produce d) does not produce

9. The mapping is determined by a line that passes through point P and intersects the view plane, this line is called _____

   a) Projector b) normal c) vector d) axes

10. _____ algorithm does not suit for 3 dimensional clipping

    a) Cohen Sutherland b) Bresenham c) Sutherland Hodgman d) Mid-point

11. In Left handed coordinate system the normal vector N point _____,facing the display

    a) Towards the viewer b) away from the viewer c) the right side of the viewer d) left side of the viewer

12. In Left handed coordinate system increasing distance away from the observer is measured along _____

    a) Ip b) Jp c) N d) Up

13. _____ are then distributed to these zones via random selection

    a) Soft Shadow b) Burry Reflection c) Translucency d) Motion Blur

14. The international Commission on Illumination defined the _____ colour model

    a) RGB b) CMY c) XYZ d) YIQ

15. _____ corresponds to the physical property called luminance

    a) Brightness b) Hue c) Saturation d) Purity

16. The polygons are called the _____ of the polyhedron

    a) edges b) vertices c) faces d) sides

17. Which among the following is NOT, the three components of the surface shading used in several secondary ray?

    a) local b) reflected c) transmitted d) refracted

18. _____ contribution refers to the direct contribution from the light source

    a) refracted b) reflected c) transmitted d) local

19. An Opaque object _____ light

    a) transmit b) pass through c)does not transmit d) does not pass through

20. The vector equation for the sphere is _____

    a) | s-c | b) |p -c| c) |d-c| d) |s-t|

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

Answer all the Questions

21. Define Transformation.
22. What is clipping?
23. What is Face Coherence?

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

Answer all the Questions

24. a) Write a program to draw Bezier Curve.

    (OR)

    b) Express your thought on Parametric Bi-Cubic Surface in detail.

25. a) What is Line Clipping Algorithm? Explain any one Line Clipping Algorithm with example.

    (OR)

    b) Write a C Program that Performs 2D Transformation.

26. a) How to fill a Polygon? Explain the algorithm with neat example.

    (OR)

    b) Write a C Program that Performs 3D Transformation.

Reg.No ----------

[16ITU501A**]**

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   a) View Point b) **View Panel** c) View Port d) All

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   a) Convex polygon b) concave polygon c) **planar polygon** d) none of the above

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    d) left side of the viewer

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    a) Ip b) Jp c) **N** d) Up

13. _____ are then distributed to these zones via random selection

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16. The polygons are called the _____ of the polyhedron

    a) edges b) vertices c) **faces** d) sides

17. Which among the following is NOT, the three components of the surface shading used in several secondary ray?

    a) local b) **reflected** c) transmitted d) refracted

18. _____ contribution refers to the direct contribution from the light source

    a) refracted b) reflected c) transmitted d) **local**

19. An Opaque object _____ light

    a) transmit b) pass through c)**does not transmit** d) does not pass through

20. The vector equation for the sphere is _____

    a) **| s-c |** b) |p -c| c) |d-c| d) |s-t|

Part - B **(3 X 2 = 6)**

Answer all the Questions

21. Define Transformation.

    Ans: A movement of an object from original coordinates to other coordinates is called Transformation.

22. What is clipping?

    Ans: Clipping is the process of removing the parts of the object that are not in view panel.

23. What is Face Coherence?

    Ans: When the faces are general surfaces and not planes, it is usual for properties of the face to vary smoothly across it, and this should be taken into account when designing computational methods. This process is called Face Coherence.

Part - C **(3 X 8 = 24)**

Answer all the Questions

24. a) Write a program to draw Bezier Curve.

    Ans:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
#include<dos.h>
```

```
#include<graphics.h>
void main()
{
        int gd=DETECT,gm;
        int x[4],y[4],px,py,i,n;
        double t;
        initgraph(&gd,&gm,"c:\\Turboc3\\BGI");
        printf("Enter the no of control points");
        scanf("%d",&n);
        printf("Enter the control points of bezier curve: ");
        for(i=0;i<n;i++)
        {
                scanf("%d%d",&x[i],&y[i]);
                putpixel(x[i],y[i],GREEN);
        }
        for(t=0.0;t<=1.0;t+=0.001)
        {
                px=(1-t)*(1-t)*(1-t)*x[0]+3*t*(1-t)*(1-t)*x[1]+3*t*t*(1-t)*x[2]+t*t*t*x[3];
                py=(1-t)*(1-t)*(1-t)*y[0]+3*t*(1-t)*(1-t)*y[1]+3*t*t*(1-t)*y[2]+t*t*t*y[3];
                putpixel(px,py,WHITE);
                delay(2);
        }
        getch();
        closegraph();
}
```

(OR)

b) Express your thought on Parametric Bi-Cubic Surface in detail.

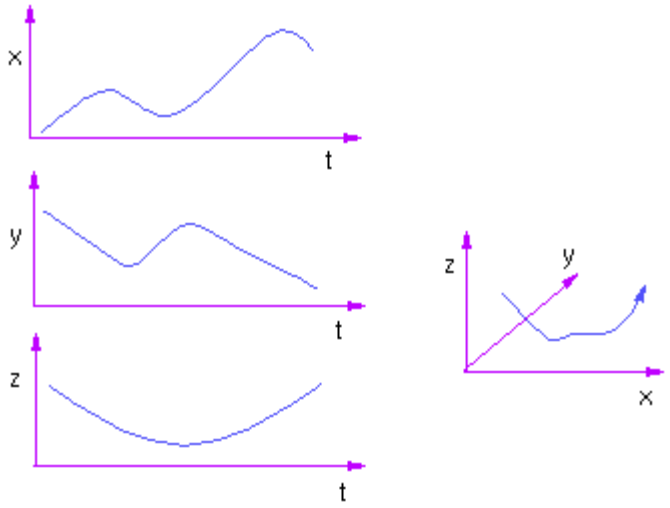
Ans: Parametric Cubic Curves

Cubic curves are commonly used in graphics because curves of lower order commonly have too little flexibility, while curves of higher order are usually considered unnecessarily complex and make it easy to introduce undesired wiggles.

A parametric cubic curve in 3D is defined by:

$$x(t) = a_3t^3 + a_2t^2 + a_1t + a_0$$
$$y(t) = b_3t^3 + b_2t^2 + b_1t + b_0$$
$$z(t) = c_3t^3 + c_2t^2 + c_1t + c_0$$

Usually, we consider t = [0...1].



A compact version of the parametric equations can be written as follows:

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} t^3 & t^2 & t & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_3 \\ a_2 \\ a_1 \\ a_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x(t) = T \cdot A$$

A compact version of the parametric equations can be written as follows:

Similarly, we can write

$$y(t) = T\ B$$

$$z(t) = T\ C$$

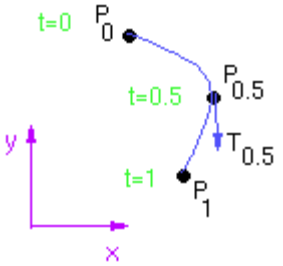
Each dimension is treated independently, so we can deal with curves in any number of dimensions. The derivatives of the curve with respect to t can be expressed as follows:

$$x'(t) = [3t^2\ \ 2t\ \ 1\ \ 0]\ A$$

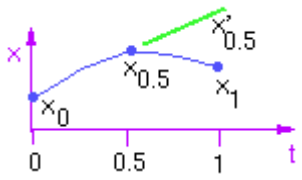
It is often convenient to think of the parameter t as being time in order to visualize some of the properties of the curve. The derivatives also have an intuitive interpretation in the Cartesian space of the curve.

A First Example

Suppose we wish to define a cubic curve such that the user specifies the position of two endpoints and a midpoint, as well as the tangent at the midpoint. The following figure illustrates some sample curves.



We'll first construct the cubic curve for x(t). There are four constraints that are to be met and four unknowns:



$$x(0) = [\,0\ 0\ 0\ 1\,]\ A$$
$$x(0.5) = [\,0.5^3\ \ 0.5^2\ \ 0.5^1\ \ 0.5^0\,]\ A$$
$$x'(0.5) = [\,3(0.5^2)\ \ 2(0.5)\ \ 1\ \ 0\,]\ A$$
$$x(1) = [\,1\ 1\ 1\ 1\,]\ A$$

or $G_x = B\ A$ where

$$G_x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_{0.5} \\ x'_{0.5} \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0.125 & 0.25 & 0.5 & 1 \\ 0.75 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can solve for A using A = B_inv G_x. The final equation for x is thus:

$$x(t) = T\ B\_inv\ G\_x$$

The matrix B_inv is often called the basis matrix, which we shall denote by M. We can thus write

$$x(t) = T\ M\ G\_x$$

In this case, we have

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 0 & -4 & 4 \\ 8 & -4 & 6 & -4 \\ -5 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

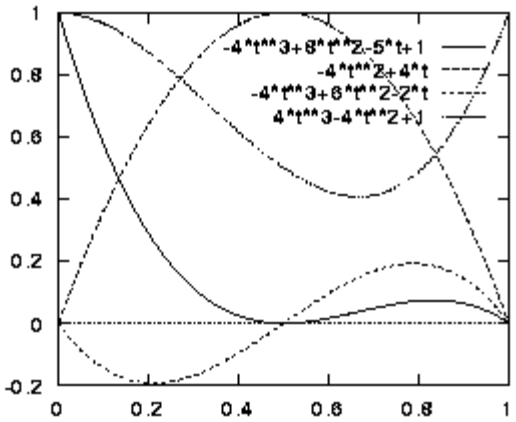
Lastly, we can also write

$$x(t) = [\,f1(t)\ f2(t)\ f3(t)\ f4(t)\,]\ G\_x$$

where f1(t) ... f4(t) are the functions obtained from the product T M. These are functions are called the blending or basis functions, because they serve to give a weighting to the various components of the geometry vector, G. In this case, these are

$$f1(t) = -4t\text{^}3 + 8t\text{^}2 - 5t + 1$$
$$f2(t) = -4t\text{^}2 + 4t$$
$$f3(t) = -4t\text{^}3 + 6t\text{^}2 - 2t$$
$$f4(t) = 4t\text{^}3 - 4t\text{^}2 + 1,$$

where f1(t) is the weighting function for P0, f2(t) is the weighting function for P0.5, f3(t) is the weighting function for T0.5, and f4(t) is the weighting function for P1. These basis functions look as follows:



The curves for y(t) and z(t) are contructed in an analogous fashion to that for x(t). The basis matrix and basis functions thus remain the same. Only the geometry vector changes. The geometry vector for y(t) gives the y components of P0, P0.5, T0.5, and P1. In general, we can write the curve as a single vector equation

$$P(t) = T\ M\ G$$

which encompasses the following three equations:

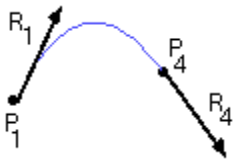
$$x(t) = T\ M\ G\_x$$

$$y(t) = T\ M\ G\_y$$

$$z(t) = T\ M\ G\_z$$

Hermite Curves

As a second example, let's look at Hermite curves. Hermite curves are defined by two points and two tangent vectors.



Let's derive the equation for Hermite curves using the following geometry vector:

$$G\_h = [\ P1\ P4\ R1\ R4\ ]^T$$

As before, we'll express the curve as:

$$x(t) = T\ A\_h$$

$$= T\ M\_h\ G\_h$$

The constraints we'll use to define the curve are:

$$x(0) = P1 = [\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ ]\ A\_h$$

$$x(1) = P4 = [\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ ]\ A\_h$$

$$x'(0) = R1 = [\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ ]\ A\_h$$

$$x'(1) = R4 = [\ 3\ 2\ 1\ 0\ ]\ A\_h$$

Writing these constraints in matrix form gives:

$$G_h = B_h A_h$$

$$A_h = \text{inv}(B_h)\, G_h$$

$$x(t) = T A_h$$

$$= T\, \text{inv}(B_h)\, G_h = T M_h G_h$$

The inverse of B_h is thus defined as the basis matrix for the hermite curve.

$$M_h = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

As before, the basis functions are the weighting factors for the terms in the geometry vector, and are given by the product T M_h. Thus, for basis functions for Hermite curves are

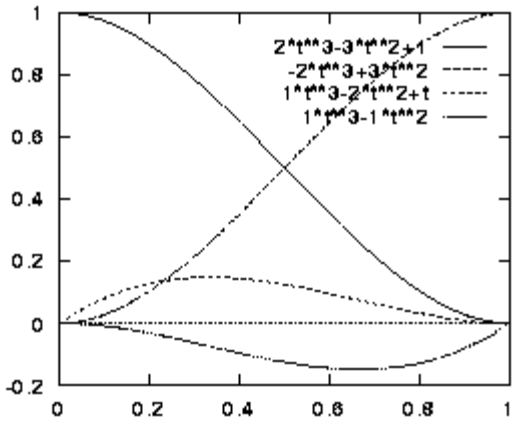
$$f1(t) = 2t^3 - 3t^2 + 1$$

$$f2(t) = -2t^3 + 3t^2$$

$$f3(t) = t^3 - 2t^2 + t$$

$$f4(t) = t^3 - t^2$$

These basis functions look as follows:



25. a) What is Line Clipping Algorithm? Explain any one Line Clipping Algorithm with example.

Ans:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
const int INSIDE = 0; // 0000
const int LEFT = 1; // 0001
const int RIGHT = 2; // 0010
const int BOTTOM = 4; // 0100
const int TOP = 8; // 1000
```

```
const int x_max = 10;
const int y_max = 8;
const int x_min = 4;
const int y_min = 4;
int computeCode(double x, double y)
{
	int code = INSIDE;
	if (x < x_min)     // to the left of rectangle
		code |= LEFT;
	else if (x > x_max) // to the right of rectangle
		code |= RIGHT;
	if (y < y_min)     // below the rectangle
		code |= BOTTOM;
	else if (y > y_max) // above the rectangle
		code |= TOP;
	return code;
}
void cohenSutherlandClip(double x1, double y1,double x2, double y2)
{
	int code1 = computeCode(x1, y1);
	int code2 = computeCode(x2, y2);
	int accept = 0;
	while (1)
	{
		if ((code1 == 0) && (code2 == 0))
		{
			// If both endpoints lie within rectangle
			accept = 1;
			break;
		}
		else if (code1 & code2)
		{
			// If both endpoints are outside rectangle,
			// in same region
			break;
		}
		else
		{
```

```
// Some segment of line lies within the
// rectangle
int code_out;
double x, y;
if (code1 != 0)
        code_out = code1;
else
        code_out = code2;

// Find intersection point;
// using formulas y = y1 + slope * (x - x1),
// x = x1 + (1 / slope) * (y - y1)
if (code_out & TOP)
{
        // point is above the clip rectangle
        x = x1 + (x2 - x1) * (y_max - y1) / (y2 - y1);
        y = y_max;
}
else if (code_out & BOTTOM)
{
        // point is below the rectangle
        x = x1 + (x2 - x1) * (y_min - y1) / (y2 - y1);
        y = y_min;
}
else if (code_out & RIGHT)
{
        // point is to the right of rectangle
        y = y1 + (y2 - y1) * (x_max - x1) / (x2 - x1);
        x = x_max;
}
else if (code_out & LEFT)
{
        // point is to the left of rectangle
        y = y1 + (y2 - y1) * (x_min - x1) / (x2 - x1);
        x = x_min;
}

// Now intersection point x,y is found
```

```
                        // We replace point outside rectangle
                        // by intersection point
                        if (code_out == code1)
                        {
                                x1 = x;
                                y1 = y;
                                code1 = computeCode(x1, y1);
                        }
                        else
                        {
                                x2 = x;
                                y2 = y;
                                code2 = computeCode(x2, y2);
                        }
                }
        }
        if (accept)
        {
                printf("Line Accepted from %lf,%lf to %lf,%lf\n",x1,y1,x2,y2);
        }
        else
                printf("Line Rejected\n");
}
void main()
{
        // First Line segment
        // P11 = (5, 5), P12 = (7, 7)
        clrscr();
        cohenSutherlandClip(5, 5, 7, 7);
        // Second Line segment
        // P21 = (7, 9), P22 = (11, 4)
        cohenSutherlandClip(7, 9, 11, 4);
        // Third Line segment
        // P31 = (1, 5), P32 = (4, 1)
        cohenSutherlandClip(1, 5, 4, 1);
        getch();
}
```

(OR)

b) Write a C Program that Performs 2D Transformation.

Ans:

```
#include <graphics.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <conio.h>
#include<math.h>
void main()
{
        int gm;
        int gd=DETECT;
        int x1,x2,x3,y1,y2,y3,nx1,nx2,nx3,ny1,ny2,ny3,c;
        int sx,sy,xt,yt,r;
        float t;
        initgraph(&gd,&gm,"c:\\turboc3\\bgi");
        printf("\t Program for basic transactions");
        printf("\n\t Enter the points of triangle");
        scanf("%d%d%d%d%d%d",&x1,&y1,&x2,&y2,&x3,&y3);
        cleardevice();
        line(x1,y1,x2,y2);
        line(x2,y2,x3,y3);
        line(x3,y3,x1,y1);
        getch();
        printf("\n 1.Transaction\n 2.Rotation\n 3.Scalling\n 4.exit\n");
        printf("Enter your choice:");
        scanf("%d",&c);
        switch(c)
        {
                case 1:
                        printf("\n Enter the translation factor");
                        scanf("%d%d",&xt,&yt);
                        nx1=x1+xt;
                        ny1=y1+yt;
                        nx2=x2+xt;
                        ny2=y2+yt;
                        nx3=x3+xt;
                        ny3=y3+yt;
                        line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
```

```
                line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                getch();
                break;
        case 2:
                printf("\n Enter the angle of rotation");
                scanf("%d",&r);
                t=3.14*r/180;
                nx1=abs(x1*cos(t)-y1*sin(t));
                ny1=abs(x1*sin(t)+y1*cos(t));
                nx2=abs(x2*cos(t)-y2*sin(t));
                ny2=abs(x2*sin(t)+y2*cos(t));
                nx3=abs(x3*cos(t)-y3*sin(t));
                ny3=abs(x3*sin(t)+y3*cos(t));
                line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
                line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                getch();
                break;
    case 3:
                printf("\n Enter the scalling factor");
                scanf("%d%d",&sx,&sy);
                nx1=x1*sx;
                ny1=y2*sy;
                nx2=x2*sx;
                ny2=y2*sy;
                nx3=x3*sx;
                ny3=y3*sy;
                line(nx1,ny1,nx2,ny2);
                line(nx2,ny2,nx3,ny3);
                line(nx3,ny3,nx1,ny1);
                getch();
                break;
        case 4:
                break;
        default:
                printf("Enter the correct choice");
}
```

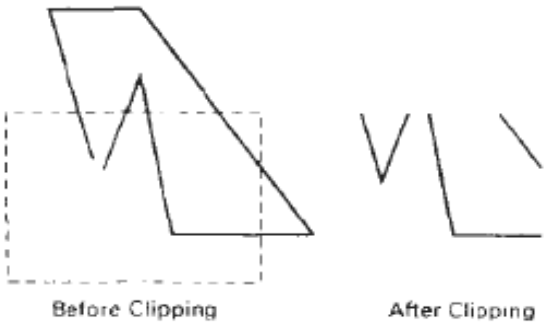
```
    closegraph();
}
```

26. a) How to fill a Polygon? Explain the algorithm with neat example.

Ans:

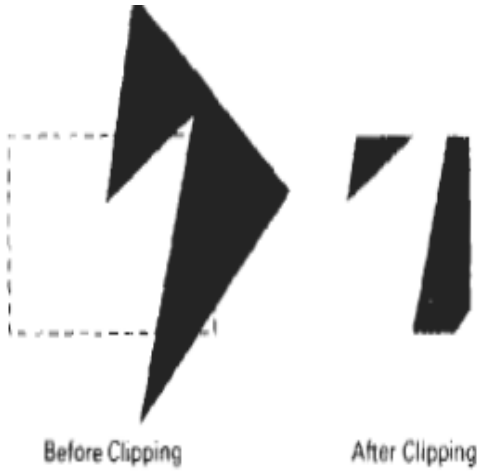
Polygon Filling

To clip polygons, we need to modify the line-clipping procedures discussed in the previous section. A polygon boundary processed with a line clipper may be displayed as a series of unconnected line segments Figure depending on the Orientation of the polygon to the clipping window.



Display of a polygon processed by a line-dipping algorithm

What we really want to display is a bounded area after clipping, as in Figure. For polygon clipping, we require an algorithm that will generate one or more closed areas that are then scan converted for the appropriate area fill. The output of a polygon clipper should be a sequence of vertices that defines the clipped polygon boundaries.

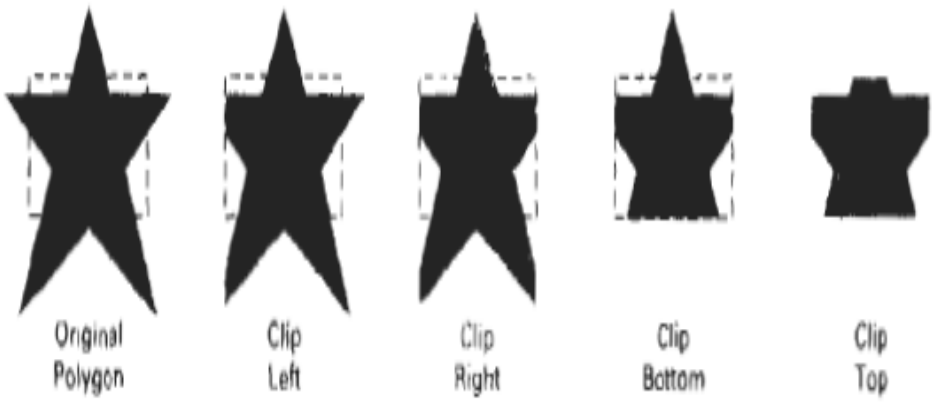


Display of a correctly clipped polygon.

Sutherland-Hodgeman

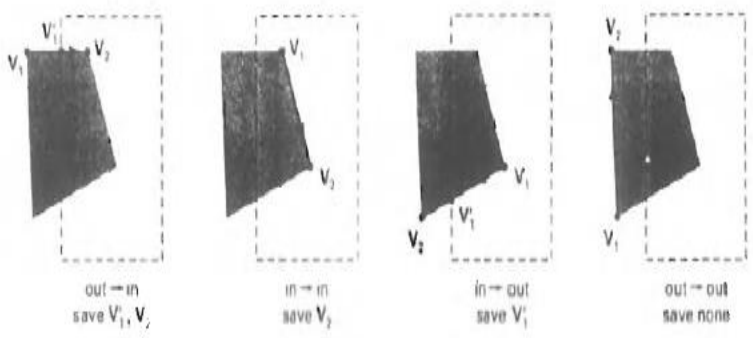
We can correctly clip a polygon by processing the polygon boundary as a whole against each window edge. This could be accomplished by processing all polygon vertices against each clip rectangle boundary in turn. Beginning with the initial set of polygon vertices, we could first clip the polygon against the left rectangle boundary to produce a new

sequence of vertices. The new set of vertices could then k successively passed to a right boundary clipper, a bottom boundary clipper, and a top boundary clipper, as in Fig.11. At each step, a new sequence of output vertices is generated and passed to the next window boundary clipper.



Filling a polygon against successive window boundaries.

There are four possible cases when processing vertices in sequence around the perimeter of a polygon. As each pair of adjacent polygon vertices is passed to a window boundary clipper, we make the following tests: (1) If the first vertex is Outside the window boundary and the second vertex is inside, both the intersection point of the polygon edge with the window boundary and the second vertex are added to the output vertex list. *(2)* If both input vertices are inside the window boundary, only the second vertex is added to the output vertex list. (3) if the first vertex is inside the window boundary and the second vertex is outside, only the edge intersection with the window boundary is added to the output vertex list. (4) If both input vertices are outside the window boundary, nothing is added to the output list. These four cases are illustrated in Figure for successive pairs of polygon vertices. Once all vertices have been processed for one clip window boundary; the output 1ist of vertices is clipped against the next window boundary.



Successive processing of pairs of polygon vertices against the left window boundary.

(OR)

b) Write a C Program that Performs 3D Transformation.

Ans:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
#include<graphics.h>
#include<math.h>
void trans();
void scale();
void rotate();
int maxx,maxy,midx,midy;
void main()
{
        int ch;
        int gd=DETECT,gm;
        initgraph(&gd,&gm,"c:\\turboc3\\bgi");
        printf("\n1.Translation \n2.Scaling \n3.Rotation \n4.exit\n");
        printf("Enter your choice:");
        scanf("%d",&ch);
        switch(ch)
        {
                case 1:
                        trans();
                        getch();
                        break;
                case 2 :
                        scale();
                        getch();
                        break;
                case 3 :
                        rotate();
                        getch();
                        break;
        }
}
void trans()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
```

```
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        //bar3d(midx+50,midy-100,midx+60,midy-90,10,1);
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,10,1);
        printf("\nEnter translation factor of x & y:");
        scanf("%d%d",&x,&y);
        printf("\nAfter translation");
        //bar3d(midx+x+50,midy-(y+100),midx+x+60,midy-(y+90),10,1);
        bar3d(midx+x-50,midy-(y-100),midx+x-60,midy-(y-90),10,1);
}
void scale()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,5,1);
        printf("\nBefore translation\n");
        printf("Enter scaling factors:");
        scanf("%d %d %d", &x,&y,&z);
        printf("\nAfter scaling\n");
        bar3d(midx-(x*50),midy+(y*100),midx-(x*60),midy+(y*90),5*z,1);
}
void rotate()
{
        int x,y,z,o,x1,x2,y1,y2;
        midx=getmaxx()/2;
        midy=getmaxy()/2;
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+100,midx-60,midy+90,5,1);
        printf("\nEnter rotating angle:");
        scanf("%d",&o);
        x1=50*cos(o*3.14/180)-100*sin(o*3.14/180);
        x2=60*cos(o*3.14/180)-90*sin(o*3.14/180);
        printf("\nAfter rotation  about x & y axis");
        bar3d(midx-50,midy+x1,midx-60,midy+x2,5,1);
        bar3d(midx-x1,midy+100,midx-x2,midy+90,5,1);
}
```