## 2D Clipping Algorithm



## Outline

> Review

- Clipping Basics
- Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping
- Clipping Polygons
- Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping
- Perspective Clipping


## Recap: Homogeneous Coords

- Intuitively:
- The $w$ coordinate of a homogeneous point is typically 1
- Decreasing $w$ makes the point "bigger", meaning further from the origin
- Homogeneous points with $w=0$ are thus "points at infinity", meaning infinitely far away in some direction. (What direction?)
- To help illustrate this, imagine subtracting two homogeneous points: the result is (as expected) a vector


## Recap: Perspective Projection

- When we do 3-D graphics, we think of the screen as a 2-D window onto the 3-D world:



## Recap: Perspective Projection

- The geometry of the situation:

result:

$$
x^{\prime}=\frac{d \cdot x}{z}=\frac{x}{z / d}, \quad y^{\prime}=\frac{d \cdot y}{z}=\frac{y}{z / d}, \quad z=d
$$

## Recap: Perspective Projection Matrix

- Example:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
x \\
y \\
z \\
z / d
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 / d & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
x \\
y \\
z \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Or, in 3-D coordinates:

$$
\left(\frac{x}{z / d}, \frac{y}{z / d}, \quad d\right)
$$

## Recap: OpenGL's Persp. Proj. Matrix

- OpenGL's gluPerspective () command generates a slightly more complicated matrix:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\frac{f}{\text { aspect }} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & f & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {far }}+\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {near }}}{\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {near }}-\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {far }}}\right) & \left(\frac{2 \times \boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {far }} \times \boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {near }}}{\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {near }}-\boldsymbol{Z}_{\text {far }}}\right) \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 0
\end{array}\right]} \\
& \text { where }
\end{aligned} \boldsymbol{f}=\cot \left(\frac{f o v_{y}}{2}\right) .
$$

- Can you figure out what this matrix does?


## Projection Matrices

- Now that we can express perspective foreshortening as a matrix, we can composite it onto our other matrices with the usual matrix multiplication
- End result: can create a single matrix encapsulating modeling, viewing, and projection transforms
- Though you will recall that in practice OpenGL separates the modelview from projection matrix (why?)


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## Next Topic: Clipping

- We've been assuming that all primitives (lines, triangles, polygons) lie entirely within the viewport
- In general, this assumption will not hold



## Clipping

- Analytically calculating the portions of primitives within the viewport



## Why Clip?

- Bad idea to rasterize outside of framebuffer bounds
- Also, don't waste time scan converting pixels outside window


## Clipping

- The naïve approach to clipping lines:
for each line segment for each edge of viewport find intersection points pick "nearest" point if anything is left, draw it
- What do we mean by "nearest"?
- How can we optimize this?


## Trivial Accepts

- Big optimization: trivial accept/rejects
- How can we quickly determine whether a line segment is entirely inside the viewport?
- A: test both endpoints.



## Trivial Rejects

- How can we know a line is outside viewport?
- A: if both endpoints on wrong side of same edge, can trivially reject line



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## Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

- Divide viewplane into regions defined by viewport edges
- Assign each region a 4-bit outcode:



## Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

- To what do we assign outcodes?
- How do we set the bits in the outcode?
- How do you suppose we use them?



## Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

- Set bits with simple tests

$$
\mathrm{x}>\mathrm{x}_{\max } \quad \mathrm{y}<\mathrm{y}_{\min } \quad \text { etc. }
$$

- Assign an outcode to each vertex of line
- If both outcodes = 0, trivial accept
- bitwise AND vertex outcodes together
- If result $\neq 0$, trivial reject
- As those lines lie on one side of the boundary lines

| 1001 | 1000 | 1010 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $y_{\text {max }}$ |  |  |
| 0001 | 0000 | 0010 |
| $y_{\text {min }}$ |  |  |
| 0101 | 0100 | 0110 |

## Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

- If line cannot be trivially accepted or rejected, subdivide so that one or both segments can be discarded
- Pick an edge that the line crosses (how?)
- Intersect line with edge (how?)
- Discard portion on wrong side of edge and assign outcode to new vertex
- Apply trivial accept/reject tests; repeat if necessary


## Cohen-Sutherland Line Clipping

- Outcode tests and line-edge intersects are quite fast (how fast?)
- But some lines require multiple iterations:
- Clip top
- Clip left
- Clip bottom
- Clip right

- Fundamentally more efficient algorithms:
- Cyrus-Beck uses parametric lines
- Liang-Barsky optimizes this for upright volumes


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## Clipping Polygons

- We know how to clip a single line segment
- How about a polygon in 2D?
- How about in 3D?
- Clipping polygons is more complex than clipping the individual lines
- Input: polygon
- Output: polygon, or nothing
- When can we trivially accept/reject a polygon as opposed to the line segments that make up the polygon?


## Why Is Clipping Hard?

- What happens to a triangle during clipping?
- Possible outcomes:


Triangle $\rightarrow$ triangle


Triangle $\rightarrow$ quad


Triangle $\rightarrow 5$-gon

- How many sides can a clipped triangle have?


## Why Is Clipping Hard?

- A really tough case:



## Why Is Clipping Hard?

- A really tough case:

concave polygon $\rightarrow$ multiple polygons


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## Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping

- Basic idea:
- Consider each edge of the viewport individually
- Clip the polygon against the edge equation
- After doing all planes, the polygon is fully clipped



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- After doing all planes, the polygon is fully clipped
- Will this work for non-rectangular clip regions?
- What would

3-D clipping
involve?


## Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping

- Input/output for algorithm:
- Input: list of polygon vertices in order
- Output: list of clipped polygon vertices consisting of old vertices (maybe) and new vertices (maybe)
- Note: this is exactly what we expect from the clipping operation against each edge
- This algorithm generalizes to 3-D
- Show movie...


## Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping

- We need to be able to create clipped polygons from the original polygons
- Sutherland-Hodgman basic routine:
- Go around polygon one vertex at a time
- Current vertex has position $p$
- Previous vertex had position $s$, and it has been added to the output if appropriate


## Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping

- Edge from $s$ to $p$ takes one of four cases:
(Purple line can be a line or a plane)



## Sutherland-Hodgman Clipping

- Four cases:
- $s$ inside plane and $p$ inside plane
- Add $p$ to output
- Note: $s$ has already been added
- $s$ inside plane and $p$ outside plane
- Find intersection point $i$
- Add $i$ to output
- s outside plane and p outside plane
- Add nothing
- $s$ outside plane and $p$ inside plane
- Find intersection point $i$
- Add $i$ to output, followed by $p$


## Point-to-Plane test

- A very general test to determine if a point $p$ is "inside" a plane $\boldsymbol{P}$, defined by $q$ and $n$ :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(p-q) \cdot n<0: & p \text { inside } P \\
(p-q) \cdot n=0: & p \text { on } P \\
(p-q) \cdot n>0: & p \text { outside } P
\end{array}
$$





## Point-to-Plane Test

- Dot product is relatively expensive
- 3 multiplies
- 5 additions
- 1 comparison (to 0 , in this case)
- Think about how you might optimize or specialcase this


## Finding Line-Plane Intersections

- Use parametric definition of edge:
$\boldsymbol{E}(t)=\boldsymbol{s}+t(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{s})$
- If $\mathrm{t}=0$ then $\boldsymbol{E}(\mathrm{t})=\boldsymbol{s}$
- If $\mathrm{t}=1$ then $\boldsymbol{E}(\mathrm{t})=\boldsymbol{p}$
- Otherwise, $E(t)$ is part way from $\boldsymbol{s}$ to $\boldsymbol{p}$


## Finding Line-Plane Intersections

- Edge intersects plane $\boldsymbol{P}$ where $\boldsymbol{E}(t)$ is on $\boldsymbol{P}$
- $\boldsymbol{q}$ is a point on $\boldsymbol{P}$
- $\boldsymbol{n}$ is normal to $\boldsymbol{P}$

$$
\begin{gathered}
(E(t)-\boldsymbol{q}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}=0 \\
(\boldsymbol{s}+t(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{s})-\boldsymbol{q}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}=0 \\
t=[(\boldsymbol{q}-\boldsymbol{s}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}] /[(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{s}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}]
\end{gathered}
$$

- The intersection point $i=E(t)$ for this value of $t$


## Line-Plane Intersections

- Note that the length of $\boldsymbol{n}$ doesn't affect result:

$$
t=[(\boldsymbol{q}-\boldsymbol{s}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}] /[(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{s}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}]
$$

- Again, lots of opportunity for optimization


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