

Reference. The Processing Language was designed to facilitate the creation of sophisticated visual structures. Made by Chrisir on processing forum

<http://www.processing.org/reference/>

INDEX

- (minus).....	217
-- (decrement).....	217
-= (subtract assign).....	217
! (logical NOT).....	79
!= (inequality).....	70
?:(conditional).....	74
* (multiply).....	215
*= (multiply assign).....	215
/ (divide).....	218
/= (divide assign).....	218
& (bitwise AND).....	218
&& (logical AND).....	79
% (modulo).....	214
+ (addition).....	216
++ (increment).....	216
+= (add assign).....	216
< (less than).....	71
<< (left shift).....	219
<= (less than or equal to).....	71
== (equality).....	71
> (greater than).....	72
>= (greater than or equal to).....	72
>> (right shift).....	220
(bitwise OR).....	220
(logical OR).....	80

abs().....	221
acos().....	228
alpha().....	177
ambient().....	170
ambientLight().....	154
append().....	65
applyMatrix().....	146
arc().....	84
Array.....	40
arrayCopy().....	65
ArrayList.....	41
asin().....	228
atan().....	229
atan2().....	229
background().....	173
beginCamera().....	161
beginContour().....	101
beginRaw().....	137
beginRecord().....	138
beginShape().....	101
bezier().....	89
bezierDetail().....	89
bezierPoint().....	90
bezierTangent().....	90
bezierVertex().....	104
binary().....	55
blend().....	192
blendMode().....	200
blue().....	178
boolean.....	36
boolean().....	55
box().....	95
break.....	75
brightness().....	179
BufferedReader.....	119
byte.....	36

byte()	55
camera()	161
case	75
catch	15
ceil()	221
char	37
char()	56
class	16
clear()	173
color	37
color()	179
colorMode()	174
concat()	66
constrain()	221
continue	76
copy()	194
cos()	230
createFont()	205
createGraphics()	201
createImage()	183
createInput()	120
createOutput()	139
createReader()	121
createShape()	80
createWriter()	139
cursor()	31
curve()	91
curveDetail()	92
curvePoint()	93
curveTangent()	94
curveTightness()	94
curveVertex()	104
day()	131
default	76
degrees()	230
directionalLight()	155

displayHeight.....	31
displayWidth.....	32
dist().....	222
double.....	38
draw().....	17
ellipse().....	85
ellipseMode().....	96
else.....	77
emissive().....	171
endCamera().....	162
endContour().....	105
endRaw().....	140
endRecord().....	140
endShape().....	106
exit().....	18
exp().....	222
expand().....	67
extends.....	18
false.....	19
fill().....	175
filter().....	195
final.....	19
float.....	38
float().....	56
FloatDict.....	42
FloatList.....	43
floor().....	222
focused.....	32
for.....	72
frameCount.....	32
frameRate.....	33
frameRate().....	32
frustum().....	163
get().....	197
green().....	180
HALF_PI.....	236

HashMap.....	44
height.....	33
hex().....	56
hour().....	131
hue().....	181
if.....	77
image().....	185
imageMode().....	186
implements.....	19
import.....	20
int.....	39
int().....	57
IntDict.....	44
IntList.....	45
join().....	58
JSONArray.....	46
JSONObject.....	47
key.....	116
keyCode.....	116
keyPressed.....	118
keyPressed().....	117
keyReleased().....	118
keyTyped().....	119
lerp().....	223
lerpColor().....	181
lightFalloff().....	156
lights().....	157
lightSpecular().....	158
line().....	86
loadBytes().....	122
loadFont().....	206
loadImage().....	187
loadJSONArray().....	123
loadJSONObject().....	124
loadPixels().....	197
loadShader().....	202

loadShape()	82
loadStrings()	124
loadTable()	125
loadXML()	126
log()	223
long	39
loop()	20
mag()	224
map()	224
match()	59
matchAll()	60
max()	225
millis()	132
min()	226
minute()	132
modelX()	165
modelY()	166
modelZ()	167
month()	132
mouseButton	110
mouseClicked()	110
mouseDragged()	111
mouseMoved()	112
mousePressed	113
mousePressed()	112
mouseReleased()	113
mouseWheel()	114
mouseX	114
mouseY	114
new	21
nf()	60
nfc()	61
nfp()	62
nfs()	62
noCursor()	33
noFill()	176

noise()	232
noiseDetail()	233
noiseSeed()	234
noLights()	158
noLoop()	21
norm()	226
normal()	159
noSmooth()	97
noStroke()	176
noTint()	188
null	23
Object	48
open()	127
ortho()	163
parseXML()	128
perspective()	164
PFont	205
PGraphics	202
PI	236
PIimage	184
pixels[]	198
pmouseX	115
pmouseY	115
point()	86
pointLight()	159
popMatrix()	147
popStyle()	23
pow()	226
print()	134
printCamera()	165
println()	135
printMatrix()	147
printProjection()	165
PrintWriter	141
private	24
PShader	203

PShape.....	83
public.....	24
pushMatrix().....	148
pushStyle().....	24
PVector.....	213
quad().....	87
quadraticVertex().....	106
QUARTER_PI.....	237
radians().....	230
random().....	234
randomGaussian().....	235
randomSeed().....	236
rect().....	87
rectMode().....	97
red().....	182
redraw().....	25
requestImage().....	188
resetMatrix().....	148
resetShader().....	204
return.....	26
reverse().....	67
rotate().....	149
rotateX().....	149
rotateY().....	150
rotateZ().....	151
round().....	227
saturation().....	182
save().....	135
saveBytes().....	141
saveFrame().....	136
saveJSONArray().....	142
saveJSONObject().....	143
saveStream().....	143
saveStrings().....	144
saveTable().....	129
saveXML().....	144

scale()	151
screenX()	168
screenY()	169
screenZ()	170
second()	133
selectFolder()	130
selectInput()	130
selectOutput()	145
set()	198
setup()	27
shader()	204
shape()	108
shapeMode()	109
shearX()	152
shearY()	153
shininess()	171
shorten()	67
sin()	231
size()	34
smooth()	98
sort()	68
specular()	172
sphere()	95
sphereDetail()	96
splice()	69
split()	63
splitTokens()	63
spotLight()	160
sq()	227
sqrt()	228
static	27
str()	57
String	49
StringDict	50
StringList	51
stroke()	177

strokeCap()	99
strokeJoin()	99
strokeWeight()	100
subset()	69
super	28
switch	78
Table	52
TableRow	53
tan()	231
TAU	237
text()	207
textAlign()	209
textAscent()	212
textDescent()	213
textFont()	208
textLeading()	210
textMode()	211
textSize()	211
texture()	190
textureMode()	191
textureWrap()	192
textWidth()	212
this	28
tint()	189
translate()	154
triangle()	88
trim()	64
true	29
try	30
TWO_PI	237
unbinary()	57
unhex()	58
updatePixels()	199
vertex()	107
void	30
while	74

width.....	35
XML.....	53
year().....	133

Name

O (parentheses)

Examples

```
int a;
a = (4 + 3) * 2;           // Grouping expressions
if (a > 10) {               // Containing expressions
    line(a, 0, a, 100);    // Containing a list of parameters
}
```

Description Grouping and containing expressions and parameters. Parentheses have multiple functions relating to functions and structures. They are used to contain a list of parameters passed to functions and control structures and they are used to group expressions to control the order of execution. Some functions have no parameters and in this case, the space between parentheses is blank.

Syntax

```
function()
function(p1, ..., pN)
structure(expression)
```

Parameters

- p1, ..., pN** list of parameters specific to the function
- structure** Control structure such as if, for, while
- expressions** any valid expression or group of expression

Related [,\(comma\)](#)

Name

, (comma)

Examples

```
// Comma used to separate a list of variable declarations
int a=20, b=30, c=80;

// Comma used to separate a list of values assigned to an array
int[] d = { 20, 60, 80 };

// Comma used to separate a list of parameters passed to a
// function
line(a, b, c, b);
line(d[0], d[1], d[2], d[1]);
```

Description Separates parameters in function calls and elements during assignment.

Syntax value1, ..., valueN
Parameters value1, ..., valueN
 Any int, float, byte, boolean, color, char, String

Name

. (dot)

Examples

```
// Declare and construct two objects (h1 and h2) of the class
HLine
```

```

HLine h1 = new HLine(20, 1.0);
HLine h2 = new HLine(50, 5.0);

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
}

void draw() {
    if (h2.speed > 1.0) { // Dot syntax can be used to get a value
        h2.speed -= 0.01; // or set a value.
    }
    h1.update(); // Calls the h1 object's update() function
    h2.update(); // Calls the h2 object's update() function
}

class HLine { // Class definition
    float ypos, speed; // Data
    HLine (float y, float s) { // Object constructor
        ypos = y;
        speed = s;
    }
    void update() { // Update method
        ypos += speed;
        if (ypos > width) {
            ypos = 0;
        }
        line(0, ypos, width, ypos);
    }
}

```

Description Provides access to an object's methods and data. An object is one instance of a class and may contain both methods (object functions) and data (object variables and constants), as specified in the class definition. The dot operator directs the program to the information encapsulated within an object.

Syntax
`object.method()`
`object.data`

object the object to be accessed

Parameters **method()** a method encapsulated in the object

data a variable or constant encapsulated in the object

Related [Object](#)

Name

[/* */ \(multiline comment\)](#)

Examples

```

/*
    Draws two lines which divides the window
    into four quadrants. First draws a horizontal
    line and then the vertical line
*/
line(0, 50, 100, 50);
line(50, 0, 50, 100);

```

Description Explanatory notes embedded within the code. Comments are used to remind yourself and to inform others about the function of your program. Multiline comments are used for large text descriptions of code or to comment out chunks of code while debugging applications. Comments are ignored by the compiler

Syntax

```

    comment
  */

```

Parameterscommentany sequence of characters

Related [// \(comment\)](#)
[/** */ \(doc comment\)](#)

Name [/** */ \(doc comment\)](#)

/**
 Draws two lines which divides the window
 into four quadrants. First draws a horizontal
 line and then the vertical line

Examples
*/
line(0, 50, 100, 50);
line(50, 0, 50, 100);

Description Explanatory notes embedded within the code and written to the "index.html" file created when the code is exported. Doc comments (documentation comments) are used for sharing a description of your sketch when the program is exported.

Export the code by hitting the "Export" button on the Toolbar.

Syntax comment
 */

Parameterscommentany sequence of characters

Related [// \(comment\)](#)
[/* */ \(multiline comment\)](#)

Name [// \(comment\)](#)

// Draws two lines which divides the window
// into four quadrants

Examples line(0, 50, 100, 50); // Draw the horizontal line
line(50, 0, 50, 100); // Draw the vertical line

Description Explanatory notes embedded within the code. Comments are used to remind yourself and to inform others about the details of the code. Single-line comments are signified with the two forward slash characters. Comments are ignored by the compiler.

Syntax // comment

Parameterscommentany sequence of characters

Related [/* */ \(multiline comment\)](#)
[/** */ \(doc comment\)](#)

Name [; \(semicolon\)](#)

int a; // Declaration statement
a = 30; // Assignment statement
println(i); // Function statement

Description A statement terminator which separates elements of the program. A statement is a complete instruction to the computer and the semicolon is used to separate instructions (this is similar to the period "." in written English). Semicolons are also used to separate the different elements of a **for** structure.

Syntax statement;

Parameters statement a single statement to execute

Related [for](#)

Name

[= \(assign\)](#)

int a;

Examples a = 30; // Assigns the value 30 to the variable 'a'
a = a + 40; // Assigns the value 70 to the variable 'a'

Assigns a value to a variable. The "=" sign does not mean "equals", but is used to place data within a variable. The "=" operator is formally called the assignment operator. There are many different types of variables (int, floats, strings, etc.) and the assignment operator can only assign values which are the same type as the variable it is assigning. For example, if the variable is of type **int**, the value must also be an **int**.

Syntax var = value

var any valid variable name

Parameters **value** any value of the same type as the variable. For example, if the variable is of type "int", the value must also be an int

Related [+= \(add assign\)](#)

[-= \(subtract assign\)](#)

Name

[\[\] \(array access\)](#)

```
int[] numbers = new int[3];  
numbers[0] = 90;
```

Examples numbers[1] = 150;
numbers[2] = 30;
int a = numbers[0] + numbers[1]; // Sets variable 'a' to 240
int b = numbers[1] + numbers[2]; // Sets variable 'b' to 180

The array access operator is used to specify a location within an array. The data at this location can be defined with the syntax **array[element]** = **value** and read with the syntax **value** = **array[element]** as shown in the above example.

Syntax datatype[]

array[element]

datatype any primitive or compound datatype, including user-defined classes

Parameters **array** any valid variable name

element int: must not exceed the length of the array minus 1

Related [Array](#)

Name

[{} \(curly braces\)](#)

Examples int[] a = { 5, 20, 25, 45, 70 };

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100);  
}
```

```
void draw() {
```

```

        for (int i=0; i < a.length; i++) {
            line(0, a[i], 50, a[i]);
        }
    }
}

```

Define the beginning and end of functions blocks and statement blocks such as

Description the **for** and **if** structures. Curly braces are also used for defining initial values in array declarations.

Syntax

```
{ statements }
```

Parameters **statements** any sequence of valid statements
ele0, ..., eleN list of elements separated by commas

Related [\(\)](#) (parentheses)

Name

catch

```

BufferedReader reader;
String line;

void setup() {
    // Open the file from the createWriter() example
    reader = createReader("positions.txt");
}

void draw() {
    try {
        line = reader.readLine();
    } catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
        line = null;
    }
    if (line == null) {
        // Stop reading because of an error or file is empty
        noLoop();
    } else {
        String[] pieces = split(line, TAB);
        int x = int(pieces[0]);
        int y = int(pieces[1]);
        point(x, y);
    }
}

```

Examples

The **catch** keyword is used with **try** to handle exceptions. Sun's Java documentation defines an exception as "an event, which occurs during the execution of a program, that disrupts the normal flow of the program's instructions." This could be, for example, an error while a file is read.

Syntax

```
try {
    tryStatements
} catch (exception) {
    catchStatements
}
```

Parameters **tryStatements** if this code throws an exception, then the code in "catch" is run
exception the Java exception that was thrown
catchStatements code that handles the exception

Name

class

```

// Declare and construct two objects (h1, h2) from the class
HLine
HLine h1 = new HLine(20, 2.0);
HLine h2 = new HLine(50, 2.5);

void setup()
{
    size(200, 200);
    frameRate(30);
}

void draw() {
    background(204);
    h1.update();
    h2.update();
Examples }
```

```

class HLine {
    float ypos, speed;
    HLine (float y, float s) {
        ypos = y;
        speed = s;
    }
    void update() {
        ypos += speed;
        if (ypos > height) {
            ypos = 0;
        }
        line(0, ypos, width, ypos);
    }
}
```

Keyword used to indicate the declaration of a class. A class is a composite of fields (data) and methods (functions that are a part of the class) which may be

Description instantiated as objects. The first letter of a class name is usually uppercase to separate it from other kinds of variables. A related tutorial on [Object-Oriented Programming](#) is hosted on the Oracle website.

```
class ClassName {
    statements
}
```

Syntax **ClassName**Any valid variable name
Parameters **statements**any valid statements

Related [Object](#)

Name

[draw\(\)](#)

Examples float yPos = 0.0;

```

void setup() { // setup() runs once
    size(200, 200);
    frameRate(30);
}

void draw() { // draw() loops forever, until stopped
    background(204);
    yPos = yPos - 1.0;
    if (yPos < 0) {
```

```

        yPos = height;
    }
    line(0, yPos, width, yPos);
}

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
}

// Although empty here, draw() is needed so
// the sketch can process user input events
// (mouse presses in this case).
void draw() { }

void mousePressed() {
    line(mouseX, 10, mouseX, 90);
}

```

Called directly after **setup()**, the **draw()** function continuously executes the lines of code contained inside its block until the program is stopped or **noLoop()** is called. **draw()** is called automatically and should never be called explicitly.

It should always be controlled with **noLoop()**, **redraw()** and **loop()**. After **noLoop()** stops the code in **draw()** from executing, **redraw()** causes the code inside **draw()** to execute once, and **loop()** will cause the code inside **draw()** to resume executing continuously.

Description

The number of times **draw()** executes in each second may be controlled with the **frameRate()** function.

There can only be one **draw()** function for each sketch, and **draw()** must exist if you want the code to run continuously, or to process events such as **mousePressed()**. Sometimes, you might have an empty call to **draw()** in your program, as shown in the above example.

Syntax `draw()`

Returns void

[setup\(\)](#)

[loop\(\)](#)

Related [noLoop\(\)](#)

[redraw\(\)](#)

[frameRate](#)

Name

[exit\(\)](#)

```

void draw() {
    line(mouseX, mouseY, 50, 50);
}

```

Examples

```

void mousePressed() {
    exit();
}

```

Description Quits/stops/exits the program. Programs without a **draw()** function exit automatically after the last line has run, but programs with **draw()** run continuously until the program is manually stopped or **exit()** is run.

Rather than terminating immediately, **exit()** will cause the sketch to exit after **draw()** has completed (or after **setup()** completes if called during the **setup()** function).

For Java programmers, this is *not* the same as `System.exit()`. Further, `System.exit()` should not be used because closing out an application while **draw()** is running may cause a crash (particularly with P3D).

Syntax `exit()`

Returns `void`

Name
extends

Examples

```
DrawDot dd1 = new DrawDot(50, 80);

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
}

void draw() {
    dd1.display();
}

class Dot {
    int xpos, ypos;
}

class DrawDot extends Dot {
    DrawDot(int x, int y) {
        xpos = x;
        ypos = y;
    }
    void display() {
        ellipse(xpos, ypos, 200, 200);
    }
}
```

Allows a new class to *inherit* the methods and data fields (variables and constants) from an existing class. In code, state the name of the new class, followed by the keyword **extends** and the name of the *base class*. The concept of **Description** inheritance is one of the fundamental principles of object oriented programming.

Note that in Java, and therefore also Processing, you cannot extend a class more than once. Instead, see **implements**.

`class`

Related [super](#)

[implements](#)

Name
false

Examples

```
rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
boolean b = false;
if (b == false) {
```

```
        line(20, 10, 90, 80); // This line is drawn
    } else {
        line(20, 80, 90, 10); // This line is not drawn
    }
```

Description Reserved word representing the logical value "false". Only variables of type **boolean** may be assigned the value **false**.

Related [true](#)
[boolean](#)

Name
final

Examples

```
final float constant = 12.84753;
println(constant); // Prints "12.84753" to the console
constant += 12.84; // ERROR! It's not possible to change a
"final" value
```

Keyword used to state that a value, class, or method can't be changed. If the **final** keyword is used to define a variable, the variable can't be changed within the program. When used to define a class, a **final** class cannot be subclassed. When used to define a function or method, a **final** method can't be overridden by

Description subclasses.

This keyword is an essential part of Java programming and is not usually used with Processing. Consult a Java language reference or tutorial for more information.

Name
implements

Examples // No example here yet

Implements an *interface* or group of *interfaces*. Interfaces are used to establish a protocol between classes; they establish the form for a class (method names, return types, etc.) but no implementation. After implementation, an interface can be used and extended like any other class.

Description

Because Java doesn't allow extending more than one class at a time, you can create interfaces instead, so specific methods and fields can be found in the class which implements it. A Thread is an example; it implements the "Runnable" interface, which means the class has a method called "public void run()" inside it.

Related [extends](#)

Name
import

Examples import processing.pdf.*;

```
void setup() {
    size(screenWidth, screenHeight, PDF);
}

void draw() {
```

```
    line(0, 0, width, height);
    line(0, height, width, 0);
}
```

The keyword **import** is used to load a library into a Processing sketch. A library is one or more classes that are grouped together to extend the capabilities of Processing. The * character is often used at the end of the import line (see the code example above) to load all of the related classes at once, without having to reference them individually.

Description

reference them individually.

The import statement will be created for you by selecting a library from the "Import Library..." item in the Sketch menu.

Syntax `import libraryName`

Parameters **libraryName** the name of the library to load (e.g. "processing.pdf.*")

Name

loop()

```
void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    noLoop(); // draw() will not loop
}

float x = 0;

void draw() {
    background(204);
    x = x + .1;
    if (x > width) {
        x = 0;
    }
    line(x, 0, x, height);
}

void mousePressed() {
    loop(); // Holding down the mouse activates looping
}

void mouseReleased() {
    noLoop(); // Releasing the mouse stops looping draw()
}
```

By default, Processing loops through **draw()** continuously, executing the code

Description

within it. However, the **draw()** loop may be stopped by calling **noLoop()**. In that case, the **draw()** loop can be resumed with **loop()**.

Syntax `loop()`

Returns `void`

[noLoop\(\)](#)

Related [redraw\(\)](#)

[draw\(\)](#)

Name

new

Examples `HLine h1 = new HLine();`
`float[] speeds = new float[3];`

```

float ypos;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    speeds[0] = 0.1;
    speeds[1] = 2.0;
    speeds[2] = 0.5;
}

void draw() {
    ypos += speeds[int(random(3))];
    if (ypos > width) {
        ypos = 0;
    }
    h1.update(ypos);
}

class HLine {
    void update(float y) {
        line(0, y, width, y);
    }
}

```

Description Creates a "new" object. The keyword **new** is typically used similarly to the applications in the above example. In this example, a new object "h1" of the datatype "HLine" is created. On the following line, a new array of floats called "speeds" is created.

Name
noLoop()

Examples

```

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    noLoop();
}

void draw() {
    line(10, 10, 190, 190);
}
```

```

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
}

float x = 0.0;

void draw() {
    background(204);
    x = x + 0.1;
    if (x > width) {
        x = 0;
    }
    line(x, 0, x, height);
}

void mousePressed() {
    noLoop();
}
```

```

void mouseReleased() {
    loop();
}

boolean someMode = false;

void setup() {
    noLoop();
}

void draw() {
    if (someMode) {
        // do something
    }
}

void mousePressed() {
    someMode = true;
    redraw(); // or loop()
}

```

Stops Processing from continuously executing the code within **draw()**. If **loop()** is called, the code in **draw()** begins to run continuously again. If using **noLoop()** in **setup()**, it should be the last line inside the block.

Description When **noLoop()** is used, it's not possible to manipulate or access the screen inside event handling functions such as **mousePressed()** or **keyPressed()**. Instead, use those functions to call **redraw()** or **loop()**, which will run **draw()**, which can update the screen properly. This means that when **noLoop()** has been called, no drawing can happen, and functions like **saveFrame()** or **loadPixels()** may not be used.

Note that if the sketch is resized, **redraw()** will be called to update the sketch, even after **noLoop()** has been specified. Otherwise, the sketch would enter an odd state until **loop()** was called.

Syntax `noLoop()`
Returns void
[loop\(\)](#)
Related [redraw\(\)](#)
[draw\(\)](#)

Name `null`

Examples

```

String content = "It is a beautiful day.";
String[] results; // Declare empty String array

results = match(content, "orange");
// The match statement above will fail to find
// the word "orange" in the String 'content', so
// it will return a null value to 'results'.

if (results == null) {
    println("Value of 'results' is null."); // This line is
printed
} else {
    println("Value of 'results' is not null!"); // This line is

```

```
    not printed  
}
```

Description Special value used to signify the target is not a valid data element. In Processing, you may run across the keyword **null** when trying to access data which is not there.

Name

popStyle()

```
ellipse(0, 50, 33, 33); // Left circle  
  
pushStyle(); // Start a new style  
strokeWeight(10);  
fill(204, 153, 0);  
ellipse(50, 50, 33, 33); // Middle circle  
popStyle(); // Restore original style  
  
ellipse(100, 50, 33, 33); // Right circle
```

Examples

```
ellipse(0, 50, 33, 33); // Left circle  
  
pushStyle(); // Start a new style  
strokeWeight(10);  
fill(204, 153, 0);  
ellipse(33, 50, 33, 33); // Left-middle circle  
  
pushStyle(); // Start another new style  
stroke(0, 102, 153);  
ellipse(66, 50, 33, 33); // Right-middle circle  
popStyle(); // Restore the previous style  
  
popStyle(); // Restore original style  
  
ellipse(100, 50, 33, 33); // Right circle
```

The **pushStyle()** function saves the current style settings and **popStyle()** restores the prior settings; these functions are always used together. They allow you to change the style settings and later return to what you had. When a new style is

Description started with **pushStyle()**, it builds on the current style information. The **pushStyle()** and **popStyle()** functions can be embedded to provide more control (see the second example above for a demonstration.)

Syntax `popStyle()`

Returns `void`

Related [pushStyle\(\)](#)

Name

private

Description Keyword used to disallow other classes access the fields and methods within a class. The **private** keyword is used before a field or method that you want to be available only within the class. In Processing, all fields and methods are public unless otherwise specified by the **private** keyword.

This keyword is an essential part of Java programming and is not usually used with Processing. Consult a Java language reference or tutorial for more information.

Related [public](#)

Name
public

Examples

Keyword used to provide other classes access the fields and methods within a class. The **public** keyword is used before a field or method that you want to make available. In Processing, all fields and methods are public unless otherwise specified by the **private** keyword.

Description

This keyword is an essential part of Java programming and is not usually used with Processing. Consult a Java language reference or tutorial for more information.

Related [private](#)

Name
pushStyle()

```
ellipse(0, 50, 33, 33); // Left circle  
  
pushStyle(); // Start a new style  
strokeWeight(10);  
fill(204, 153, 0);  
ellipse(50, 50, 33, 33); // Middle circle  
popStyle(); // Restore original style  
  
ellipse(100, 50, 33, 33); // Right circle
```

Examples `ellipse(0, 50, 33, 33); // Left circle`

```
pushStyle(); // Start a new style  
strokeWeight(10);  
fill(204, 153, 0);  
ellipse(33, 50, 33, 33); // Left-middle circle  
  
pushStyle(); // Start another new style  
stroke(0, 102, 153);  
ellipse(66, 50, 33, 33); // Right-middle circle  
popStyle(); // Restore previous style  
  
popStyle(); // Restore original style
```

```
ellipse(100, 50, 33, 33); // Right circle
```

The **pushStyle()** function saves the current style settings and **popStyle()** restores the prior settings. Note that these functions are always used together. They allow you to change the style settings and later return to what you had. When a new

style is started with **pushStyle()**, it builds on the current style information. The **pushStyle()** and **popStyle()** functions can be embedded to provide more control. (See the second example above for a demonstration.)

The style information controlled by the following functions are included in the style: `fill()`, `stroke()`, `tint()`, `strokeWeight()`, `strokeCap()`, `strokeJoin()`, `imageMode()`, `rectMode()`, `ellipseMode()`, `shapeMode()`, `colorMode()`, `textAlign()`, `textFont()`, `textMode()`, `textSize()`, `textLeading()`, `emissive()`, `specular()`, `shininess()`, `ambient()`

Syntax `pushStyle()`

Returns void

Related [popStyle\(\)](#)

Name

redraw()

```
float x = 0;

void setup() {
  size(200, 200);
  noLoop();
}

void draw() {
  background(204);
  line(x, 0, x, height);
}

void mousePressed() {
  x += 1;
  redraw();
}
```

Executes the code within **draw()** one time. This functions allows the program to update the display window only when necessary, for example when an event registered by **mousePressed()** or **keyPressed()** occurs.

Description In structuring a program, it only makes sense to call **redraw()** within events such as **mousePressed()**. This is because **redraw()** does not run **draw()** immediately (it only sets a flag that indicates an update is needed).

The **redraw()** function does not work properly when called inside **draw()**. To enable/disable animations, use **loop()** and **noLoop()**.

Syntax `redraw()`

Returns void

[draw\(\)](#)

[loop\(\)](#)

[noLoop\(\)](#)

[frameRate](#)

Name

return

```

int val = 30;

void draw() {
    int t = timestwo(val);
    println(t);
}

// The first 'int' in the function declaration
// specifies the type of data to be returned.
int timestwo(int dVal) {
    dVal = dVal * 2;
    return dVal; // Returns an int of 60, in this case
}

```

```
int[] vals = {10, 20, 30};
```

```

void draw() {
    int[] t = timestwo(vals);
    println(t);
    noLoop();
}

```

Examples

```

int[] timestwo(int[] dVals) {
    for (int i = 0; i < dVals.length; i++) {
        dVals[i] = dVals[i] * 2;
    }
    return dVals; // Returns an array of 3 ints: 20, 40, 60
}

```

```

void draw() {
    background(204);
    line(0, 0, width, height);
    if (mousePressed) {
        return; // Break out of draw(), skipping the line statement
        below
    }
    line(0, height, width, 0); // Executed only if mouse is not
    pressed
}

```

Keyword used to indicate the value to return from a function. The value being returned must be the same datatype as defined in the function declaration.

Functions declared with **void** can't return values and shouldn't include a return

Description

The keyword **return** may also be used to break out of a function, thus not allowing the program to the remaining statements. (See the third example above.)

```

Syntax type function {
    statements
    return value
}
type boolean, byte, char, int, float, String, boolean[], byte[], char[], int[],
       float[], or String[]

```

Parameters **function** the function that is being defined

statements any valid statements

value must be the same datatype as the "type" parameter

Name**setup()**

```
void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    background(0);
    noStroke();
    fill(102);
}
```

Examples

```
int a = 0;

void draw() {
    rect(a++%width, 10, 2, 80);
}
```

The **setup()** function is called once when the program starts. It's used to define initial environment properties such as screen size and background color and to load media such as images and fonts as the program starts. There can only be one

Description **setup()** function for each program and it shouldn't be called again after its initial execution. Note: Variables declared within **setup()** are not accessible within other functions, including **draw()**.

Syntax [setup\(\)](#)

Returns void

[size\(\)](#)

[loop\(\)](#)

[noLoop\(\)](#)

[draw\(\)](#)

Name**static**

```
void setup() {
    MinicClass mc1 = new MinicClass();
    MinicClass mc2 = new MinicClass();
    println( mc1.y ); // Prints "10" to the console
    MinicClass.y += 10; // The 'y' variable is shared by 'mc1' and
    'mc2'
    println( mc1.y ); // Prints "20" to the console
    println( mc2.y ); // Prints "20" to the console
}
```

static class MinicClass {

Examples static int y = 10; // Class variable

```
void setup() {
    println(MinicClass.add(3, 4)); // Prints "7" to the console
}
```

```
static class MinicClass {
    static int add(int x, int y) {
        return(x + y);
    }
}
```

Description Keyword used to define a variable as a "class variable" and a method as a "class

method." When a variable is declared with the **static** keyword, all instances of that class share the same variable. When a class is defined with the **static** keyword, its methods can be used without making an instance of the class. The above examples demonstrate each of these uses.

This keyword is an essential part of Java programming and is not usually used with Processing. Consult a Java language reference or tutorial for more information.

Name
super

```
// This example is a code fragment;
// it will not compile on its own.

// Create the DragDrop subclass from
// the Button class. Button becomes
// the superclass of DragDrop.
class DragDrop extends Button {
    int xoff, yoff;
    DragDrop(int x, int y) {
        // Runs the superclass' constructor
        super(x, y);
    }
    void press(int mx, int my) {
        // Runs the superclass' press() method
        super.press();
        xoff = mx;
        yoff = my;
    }
}
```

Examples

Description Keyword used to reference the superclass of a subclass.

Related [class](#)
[extends](#)

Name
this

```
float ypos = 50;

void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
    noLoop();
}

void draw() {
    line(0, 0, 100, ypos);
    // "this" references the Processing sketch,
    // and is not necessary in this case
    this.ypos = 100;
    line(0, 0, 100, ypos);
}
```

Examples

```
import processing.video.*;
```

```

Movie myMovie;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    background(0);
    // "this" references the Processing sketch
    myMovie = new Movie(this, "totoro.mov");
    myMovie.loop();
}

void draw() {
    if (myMovie.available()) {
        myMovie.read();
    }
    image(myMovie, 0, 0);
}

```

Refers to the current object (i.e., "this object"), which will change depending on the context in which **this** is referenced. In Processing, it's most common to use **this** to pass a reference from the current object into one of the libraries.

Description The keyword **this** can also be used to reference an object's own method from within itself, but such usage is typically not necessary. For example, if you are calling the **filter()** method of a **PImage** object named **tree** from another object, you would write **tree.filter()**. To call this method inside the **PImage** object itself, one could simply write **filter()** or, more explicitly, **this.filter()**. The additional level of specificity in **this.filter()** is not necessary, as it is always implied.

Name [true](#)

Examples

```

rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
boolean b = true;
if (b == true) {
    line(20, 10, 90, 80); // This line is drawn
} else {
    line(20, 80, 90, 10); // This line is not drawn
}

```

Description Reserved word representing the logical value "true". Only variables of type **boolean** may be assigned the value **true**.

Related [false](#)
[boolean](#)

Name [try](#)

Examples

```

BufferedReader reader;
String line;

void setup() {
    // Open the file from the createWriter() example
    reader = createReader("positions.txt");
}

void draw() {

```

```

        try {
            line = reader.readLine();
        } catch (IOException e) {
            e.printStackTrace();
            line = null;
        }
        if (line == null) {
            // Stop reading because of an error or file is empty
            noLoop();
        } else {
            String[] pieces = split(line, TAB);
            int x = int(pieces[0]);
            int y = int(pieces[1]);
            point(x, y);
        }
    }
}

```

Description The **try** keyword is used with **catch** to handle exceptions. Sun's Java documentation defines an exception as "an event, which occurs during the execution of a program, that disrupts the normal flow of the program's instructions." This could be, for example, an error while a file is read.

Syntax

```

try {
    tryStatements
} catch (exception) {
    catchStatements
}

```

Parameters **exception** the Java exception that was thrown
catchStatements code that handles the exception

Name

void

Examples

```

void setup() { // setup() does not return a value
    size(200, 200);
}

void draw() { // draw() does not return a value
    line(10, 100, 190, 100);
    drawCircle();
}

void drawCircle() { // This function also does not return a
value
    ellipse(30, 30, 50, 50);
}

```

Description Keyword used indicate that a function returns no value. Each function must either return a value of a specific datatype or use the keyword **void** to specify it returns nothing.

Syntax

```

void function {
    statements
}

```

Parameters **function** any function that is being defined or implemented
statements any valid statements

Name

cursor()

```
// Move the mouse left and right across the image  
// to see the cursor change from a cross to a hand
```

```
void draw()  
{  
Examples if (mouseX < 50) {  
    cursor(CROSS);  
} else {  
    cursor(HAND);  
}  
}
```

Description Sets the cursor to a predefined symbol or an image, or makes it visible if already hidden. If you are trying to set an image as the cursor, the recommended size is 16x16 or 32x32 pixels. It is not possible to load an image as the cursor if you are exporting your program for the Web, and not all MODES work with all browsers. The values for parameters **x** and **y** must be less than the dimensions of the image.

Setting or hiding the cursor does not generally work with "Present" mode (when running full-screen).

```
cursor(kind)  
cursor(img)  
cursor(img, x, y)  
cursor()
```

kind int: either ARROW, CROSS, HAND, MOVE, TEXT, or WAIT

Parameters **img** PImage: any variable of type PImage
 x int: the horizontal active spot of the cursor
 y int: the vertical active spot of the cursor

Returns void

Related [noCursor\(\)](#)

Name

displayHeight

Examples size(displayWidth, displayHeight);
line(0, 0, width, height);

Description System variable that stores the height of the entire screen display. This is used to run a full-screen program on any display size.

Name

displayWidth

Examples size(displayWidth, displayHeight);
line(0, 0, width, height);

Description System variable that stores the width of the entire screen display. This is used to run a full-screen program on any display size.

Name

focused

Examples if (focused) { // or "if (focused == true)"
 ellipse(25, 25, 50, 50);

```
    } else {
        line(0, 0, 100, 100);
        line(100, 0, 0, 100);
    }
```

Confirms if a Processing program is "focused," meaning that it is active and will

Description accept mouse or keyboard input. This variable is "true" if it is focused and "false" if not.

Name

frameCount

```
void setup() {
    frameRate(30);
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
    line(0, 0, width, height);
    println(frameCount);
}
```

The system variable **frameCount** contains the number of frames that have been

Description displayed since the program started. Inside **setup()** the value is 0, after the first iteration of **draw** it is 1, etc.

Related [frameRate](#)

Name

frameRate()

```
void setup() {
    frameRate(4);
}
int pos = 0;
void draw() {
    background(204);
    pos++;
    line(pos, 20, pos, 80);
    if (pos > width) {
        pos = 0;
    }
}
```

Specifies the number of frames to be displayed every second. For example, the function call **frameRate(30)** will attempt to refresh 30 times a second. If the

Description processor is not fast enough to maintain the specified rate, the frame rate will not be achieved. Setting the frame rate within **setup()** is recommended. The default rate is 60 frames per second.

Syntax `frameRate(fps)`

Parameters `fps`: float: number of desired frames per second

Returns void

[setup\(\)](#)
[draw\(\)](#)

Related [loop\(\)](#)
[noLoop\(\)](#)
[redraw\(\)](#)

Name**frameRate**

```
void setup() {  
    frameRate(30);  
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {  
    line(0, 0, width, height);  
    println(frameRate);  
}
```

The system variable **frameRate** contains the approximate frame rate of a running sketch. The initial value is 10 fps and is updated with each frame. The value is averaged over several frames, and so will only be accurate after the draw function has run 5-10 times.

Related[frameRate](#)**Name****height****Examples**

```
noStroke();  
background(0);  
rect(40, 0, 20, height);  
rect(60, 0, 20, height/2);
```

System variable that stores the height of the display window. This value is set by the second parameter of the **size()** function. For example, the function call **size(320, 240)** sets the **height** variable to the value 240. The value of **height** defaults to 100 if **size()** is not used in a program.

Name**noCursor()**

```
// Press the mouse to hide the cursor  
void draw()  
{  
    if (mousePressed == true) {  
        noCursor();  
    } else {  
        cursor(HAND);  
    }  
}
```

Description Hides the cursor from view. Will not work when running the program in a web browser or in full screen (Present) mode.

Syntax `noCursor()`

Returns void

Related [cursor\(\)](#)

Name**size()**

```

size(200, 100);
background(153);
line(0, 0, width, height);

void setup() {
    size(320, 240);
}

void draw() {
    background(153);
    line(0, 0, width, height);
}

```

Examples

```

size(150, 200, P3D); // Specify P3D renderer
background(153);

// With P3D, we can use z (depth) values...
line(0, 0, 0, width, height, -100);
line(width, 0, 0, width, height, -100);
line(0, height, 0, width, height, -100);

//...and 3D-specific functions, like box()
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateX(PI/6);
rotateY(PI/6);
box(35);

```

Defines the dimension of the display window in units of pixels. The **size()** function must be the first line of code, or the first code inside **setup()**. Any code that appears before the **size()** command may run more than once, which can lead to confusing results.

The system variables **width** and **height** are set by the parameters passed to this function. If **size()** is not used, the window will be given a default size of 100x100 pixels.

The **size()** function can only be used once inside a sketch, and it cannot be used for resizing.

Description Do not use variables as the parameters to **size()** function, because it will cause problems when exporting your sketch. When variables are used, the dimensions of your sketch cannot be determined during export. Instead, employ numeric values in the **size()** statement, and then use the built-in **width** and **height** variables inside your program when the dimensions of the display window are needed.

The maximum width and height is limited by your operating system, and is usually the width and height of your actual screen. On some machines it may simply be the number of pixels on your current screen, meaning that a screen of 800x600 could support **size(1600, 300)**, since that is the same number of pixels. This varies widely, so you'll have to try different rendering modes and sizes until you get what you're looking for. If you need something larger, use

createGraphics to create a non-visible drawing surface.

The **renderer** parameter selects which rendering engine to use. For example, if you will be drawing 3D shapes, use **P3D**. In addition to the default renderer, other renderers are:

P2D (Processing 2D): A renderer that supports two-dimensional drawing.

P3D (Processing 3D): 3D graphics renderer that makes use of OpenGL-compatible graphics hardware.

PDF: The PDF renderer draws 2D graphics directly to an Acrobat PDF file. This produces excellent results when you need vector shapes for high-resolution output or printing. You must first use Import Library → PDF to make use of the library. More information can be found in the PDF library reference.

Syntax `size(w, h)`
`size(w, h, renderer)`

w int: width of the display window in units of pixels

Parameters **h** int: height of the display window in units of pixels
rendererString: Either P2D, P3D, or PDF

Returns void

Name
width

Examples `noStroke();`
`background(0);`
`rect(0, 40, width, 20);`
`rect(0, 60, width/2, 20);`

Description System variable that stores the width of the display window. This value is set by the first parameter of the **size()** function. For example, the function call **size(320, 240)** sets the **width** variable to the value 320. The value of **width** defaults to 100 if **size()** is not used in a program.

Name
boolean

```
boolean a = false;
if (!a) {
    rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
}
a = true;
if (a) {
    line(20, 10, 90, 80);
    line(20, 80, 90, 10);
}
```

Description Datatype for the Boolean values **true** and **false**. It is common to use **boolean** values with control statements to determine the flow of a program. The first time

a variable is written, it must be declared with a statement expressing its datatype.

Syntax
boolean var
boolean var = booleanvalue

Parameters **var** variable name referencing the value
booleanvalue true or false

Related [true](#)
 [false](#)

Name **byte**

```
// Declare variable 'a' of type byte
byte a;

// Assign 23 to 'a'
a = 23;
```

Examples // Declare variable 'b' and assign it the value -128
byte b = -128;

```
// Declare variable 'c' and assign it the sum of 'a' and 'b'.
// By default, when two bytes are added, they are converted
// to an integer. To keep the answer as a byte, cast them
// to a byte with the byte() conversion function
byte c = byte(a + b);
```

Datatype for bytes, 8 bits of information storing numerical values from 127 to -128. Bytes are a convenient datatype for sending information to and from the serial port and for representing letters in a simpler format than the **char** datatype.

Description The first time a variable is written, it must be declared with a statement expressing its datatype. Subsequent uses of this variable must not reference the datatype because Processing will think the variable is being declared again.

Syntax
byte var
byte var = value

Parameters **var** variable name referencing the value
value a number between 127 to -128

[int](#)

Related [float](#)
 [boolean](#)

Name **char**

char m; // Declare variable 'm' of type char

Examples m = 'A'; // Assign 'm' the value "A"

int n = '&'; // Declare variable 'n' and assign it the value "&"

Datatype for characters, typographic symbols such as A, d, and \$. A **char** stores letters and symbols in the Unicode format, a coding system developed to support a variety of world languages. Each **char** is two bytes (16 bits) in length and is

Description distinguished by surrounding it with single quotes. Character escapes may also be stored as a **char**. For example, the representation for the "delete" key is 127. The first time a variable is written, it must be declared with a statement expressing its datatype. Subsequent uses of this variable must not reference the datatype

because Processing will think the variable is being declared again.

Syntax
char var
char var = value

Parameters **var** variable name referencing the value
valueany character

Related [String](#)

Name
color

```
color c1 = color(204, 153, 0);
color c2 = #FFCC00;
noStroke();
fill(c1);
rect(0, 0, 25, 100);
fill(c2);
rect(25, 0, 25, 100);
color c3 = get(10, 50);
fill(c3);
rect(50, 0, 50, 100);
```

Examples

Datatype for storing color values. Colors may be assigned with **get()** and **color()** or they may be specified directly using hexadecimal notation such as **#FFCC00** or **0xFFFFCC00**.

Using **print()** or **println()** on a color will produce strange results (usually negative numbers) because of the way colors are stored in memory. A better technique is to use the **hex()** function to format the color data, or use the **red()**, **green()**, and **blue()** functions to get individual values and print those. The **hue()**, **saturation()**, and **brightness()** functions work in a similar fashion. To extract red, green, and blue values more quickly (for instance when analyzing an image or a frame of video), use [bit shifting](#).

Values can also be created using web color notation. For example, "color c = #006699".

Description

Web color notation only works for opaque colors. To define a color with an alpha value, you can either use the **color()** function, or use hexadecimal notation. For hex notation, prefix the values with "0x", for instance "color c = 0xCC006699". In that example, CC (the hex value of 204) is the alpha value, and the remainder is identical to a web color. Note the alpha value is first in the hexadecimal notation (but last when used with the **color()** function, or functions like **fill()** and **stroke()**).

From a technical standpoint, colors are 32 bits of information ordered as AAAAARRRRRRRGGGGGGGGBBBBBBB where the A's contain the alpha value, the R's are the red value, G's are green, and B's are blue. Each component is 8 bits (a number between 0 and 255). These values can be manipulated with [bit shifting](#).

Name**double**

```
double a;           // Declare variable 'a' of type float
a = 1.5387;        // Assign 'a' the value 1.5387
double b = -2.984; // Declare variable 'b' and assign it the
value -2.984
```

Examples

```
double c = a + b;    // Declare variable 'c' and assign it the
sum of 'a' and 'b'
float f = (float)c; // Converts the value of 'c' from a double
to a float
```

Datatype for floating-point numbers larger than those that can be stored in a **float**.

A **float** is a 32-bit values that can be as large as 3.40282347E+38 and as low as

Description -3.40282347E+38. A **double** can be used similarly to a float, but can have a greater magnitude because it's a 64-bit number. Processing functions don't use this datatype, so while they work in the language, you'll usually have to convert to a **float** using the (**float**) syntax before passing into a function.

Syntax

```
double var
```

```
double var = value
```

Parameters **var** variable name referencing the float
value any floating-point value

Related [float](#)

Name**float**

```
float a;           // Declare variable 'a' of type float
a = 1.5387;        // Assign 'a' the value 1.5387
float b = -2.984; // Declare variable 'b' and assign it the
value -2.984
float c = a + b;   // Declare variable 'c' and assign it the sum
of 'a' and 'b'
```

```
float f = 0;
```

Examples

```
for (int i = 0 ; i < 100000; i++) {
    f = f + 0.0001; // Bad idea! See below.
}
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 100000; i++) {
    // The variable 'f' will work better here, less affected by
    rounding
    float f = i / 1000.0; // Count by thousandths
}
```

Data type for floating-point numbers, a number that has a decimal point.

FLOATS are not precise, so avoid adding small values (such as 0.0001) may not always increment because of rounding error. If you want to increment a value in small intervals, use an int, and divide by a float value before using it. (See above example.)

Description

Floating-point numbers can be as large as 3.40282347E+38 and as low as -3.40282347E+38. They are stored as 32 bits (4 bytes) of information. The float data type is inherited from Java, and you can read more about the technical details [here](#) or [here](#).

Processing supports the 'double' datatype from Java as well, however it is not documented because none of the Processing functions use double values, which are overkill for nearly all work created in Processing and use more memory. We do not plan to support doubles, as it would require increasing the number of API functions significantly.

Syntax
float var
float var = value

Parameters var variable name referencing the float
valueany floating-point value

Related [int](#)

Name
int

Examples
int a; // Declare variable 'a' of type int
a = 23; // Assign 'a' the value 23
int b = -256; // Declare variable 'b' and assign it the value -256
int c = a + b; // Declare variable 'c' and assign it the sum of 'a' and 'b'

Description Datatype for integers, numbers without a decimal point. Integers can be as large as 2,147,483,647 and as low as -2,147,483,648. They are stored as 32 bits of information. The first time a variable is written, it must be declared with a statement expressing its datatype. Subsequent uses of this variable must not reference the datatype because Processing will think the variable is being declared again.

Syntax
int var
int var = value

Parameters var variable name referencing the value
valueany integer value

Related [float](#)

Name
long

Examples
long a; // Declare variable 'a' of type long
a = 23; // Assign 'a' the value 23
long b = -256; // Declare variable 'b' and assign it the value -256
long c = a + b; // Declare variable 'c' and assign it the sum of 'a' and 'b'
int i = (int)c; // Converts the value of 'c' from a long to an int

Description Datatype for large integers. While integers can be as large as 2,147,483,647 and as low as -2,147,483,648 (stored as 32 bits), a **long** integer has a minimum value of -9,223,372,036,854,775,808 and a maximum value of 9,223,372,036,854,775,807 (stored as 64 bits). Use this datatype when you need a number to have a greater magnitude than can be stored within an **int**. Processing functions don't use this datatype, so while they work in the language, you'll usually have to convert to a **int** using the **(int)** syntax before passing into a function.

Syntax
long var
long var = value

Parameters **var** variable name referencing the value
value any integer value
Related [int](#)

Name
Array

```
int[] numbers = new int[3];
numbers[0] = 90; // Assign value to first element in the array
numbers[1] = 150; // Assign value to second element in the array
numbers[2] = 30; // Assign value to third element in the array
int a = numbers[0] + numbers[1]; // Sets variable 'a' to 240
int b = numbers[1] + numbers[2]; // Sets variable 'b' to 180
```

Examples

```
int[] numbers = { 90, 150, 30 }; // Alternate syntax
int a = numbers[0] + numbers[1]; // Sets variable 'a' to 240
int b = numbers[1] + numbers[2]; // Sets variable 'b' to 180
```

```
int degrees = 360;
float[] cos_vals = new float[degrees];
// Use a for() loop to quickly iterate
// through all values in an array.
for (int i=0; i < degrees; i++) {
    cos_vals[i] = cos(TWO_PI/degrees * i);
}
```

An array is a list of data. It is possible to have an array of any type of data. Each piece of data in an array is identified by an index number representing its position in the array. The first element in the array is **[0]**, the second element is **[1]**, and so on. Arrays are similar to objects, so they must be created with the keyword **new**.

Description Each array has a variable **length**, which is an integer value for the total number of elements in the array. Note that since index numbering begins at zero (not 1), the last value in an array with a **length** of 5 should be referenced as **array[4]** (that is, the **length** minus 1), not **array[5]**, which would trigger an error.

Another common source of confusion is the difference between using **length** to get the size of an array and **length()** to get the size of a String. Notice the presence of parentheses when working with Strings. (**array.length** is a variable, while **String.length()** is a method specific to the String class.)

Syntax

```
datatype[] var
var[element] = value
var.length
```

datatype any primitive or compound datatype, including user-defined classes
var any valid variable name

Parameters **element** int: must not exceed the length of the array minus 1
value data to assign to the array element; must be the same datatype as the array

Name
ArrayList

Examples

```
// This is a code fragment that shows how to use an ArrayList.
// It won't compile because it's missing the Ball class.
```

```

// Declaring the ArrayList, note the use of the syntax "" to
// indicate
// our intention to fill this ArrayList with Ball objects
ArrayList<Ball> balls;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    balls = new ArrayList<Ball>(); // Create an empty ArrayList
    balls.add(new Ball(width/2, 0, 48)); // Start by adding one
    element
}

void draw() {
    background(255);

    // With an array, we say balls.length. With an ArrayList,
    // we say balls.size(). The length of an ArrayList is dynamic.
    // Notice how we are looping through the ArrayList backwards.
    // This is because we are deleting elements from the list.
    for (int i = balls.size()-1; i >= 0; i--) {
        Ball ball = balls.get(i);
        ball.move();
        ball.display();
        if (ball.finished()) {
            // Items can be deleted with remove().
            balls.remove(i);
        }
    }
}

void mousePressed() {
    // A new ball object is added to the ArrayList, by default to
    // the end.
    balls.add(new Ball(mouseX, mouseY, ballWidth));
}

```

An **ArrayList** stores a variable number of objects. This is similar to making an array of objects, but with an **ArrayList**, items can be easily added and removed from the ArrayList and it is resized dynamically. This can be very convenient, but it's slower than making an array of objects when using many elements. Note that for resizable lists of integers, floats, and Strings, you can use the Processing classes IntList, FloatList, and StringList.

An ArrayList is a resizable-array implementation of the Java List interface. It has **Description** many methods used to control and search its contents. For example, the length of the **ArrayList** is returned by its **size()** method, which is an integer value for the total number of elements in the list. An element is added to an **ArrayList** with the **add()** method and is deleted with the **remove()** method. The **get()** method returns the element at the specified position in the list. (See the above example for context.)

For a list of the numerous **ArrayList** features, please read the [Java reference description](#).

Constructor	<code>ArrayList<Type>()</code> <code>ArrayList<Type>(initialCapacity)</code>
Parameters	Type Class Name: the data type for the objects to be placed in the initialCapacity int: defines the initial capacity of the list; it's empty by default
Related	IntList

[FloatList](#)

[StringList](#)

Name

FloatDict

FloatDict inventory;

```
void setup() {  
    size(200, 200);  
    inventory = new FloatDict();  
    inventory.set("coffee",108.6);  
    inventory.set("flour",5.8);  
    inventory.set("tea",8.2);  
    println(inventory);  
}  
  
noLoop();  
fill(0);  
textAlign(CENTER);  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    float weight = inventory.get("coffee");  
    text(weight, width/2, height/2);  
}
```

Description A simple class to use a String as a lookup for an float value. String "keys" are associated with floating-point values.

Methods

size()	Returns the number of key/value pairs
clear()	Remove all entries
keys()	Return the internal array being used to store the keys
keyArray()	Return a copy of the internal keys array
values()	Return the internal array being used to store the values
valueArray()	Create a new array and copy each of the values into it
get()	Return a value for the specified key
set()	Create a new key/value pair or change the value of one
hasKey()	Check if a key is a part of the data structure
add()	Add to a value
sub()	Subtract from a value
mult()	Multiply a value
div()	Divide a value
remove()	Remove a key/value pair
sortKeys()	Sort the keys alphabetically
sortKeysReverse()	Sort the keys alphabetically in reverse
sortValues()	Sort by values in ascending order
sortValuesReverse()	Sort by values in descending order

Constructor `FloatDict()`

Related [IntDict](#)

[StringDict](#)

Name

FloatList

FloatList inventory;

Examples

```
void setup() {
```

```

        size(200, 200);
        inventory = new FloatList();
        inventory.append(108.6);
        inventory.append(5.8);
        inventory.append(8.2);
        println(inventory);
        noLoop();
        fill(0);
        textAlign(CENTER);
    }

void draw() {
    float nums = inventory.get(2);
    text(nums, width/2, height/2);
}

```

Helper class for a list of floats. Lists are designed to have some of the features of ArrayLists, but to maintain the simplicity and efficiency of working with arrays.

Description

Functions like sort() and shuffle() always act on the list itself. To get a sorted copy, use list.copy().sort().

Methods

<u>size()</u>	Get the length of the list
<u>clear()</u>	Remove all entries from the list
<u>get()</u>	Get an entry at a particular index
<u>set()</u>	Set the entry at a particular index
<u>remove()</u>	Remove an element from the specified index
<u>append()</u>	Add a new entry to the list
<u>hasValue()</u>	Check if a number is a part of the list
<u>add()</u>	Add to a value
<u>sub()</u>	Subtract from a value
<u>mult()</u>	Multiply a value
<u>div()</u>	Divide a value
<u>min()</u>	Return the smallest value
<u>max()</u>	Return the largest value
<u>sort()</u>	Sorts an array, lowest to highest
<u>sortReverse()</u>	Reverse sort, orders values from highest to lowest
<u>reverse()</u>	Reverse sort, orders values by first digit
<u>shuffle()</u>	Randomize the order of the list elements
<u>array()</u>	Create a new array with a copy of all the values

Constructor

FloatList()

Related [IntList](#)
[StringList](#)

Name

HashMap

import java.util.Map;

```
// Note the HashMap's "key" is a String and "value" is an Integer
HashMap<String, Integer> hm = new HashMap<String, Integer>();
```

Examples

```
// Putting key-value pairs in the HashMap
hm.put("Ava", 1);
hm.put("Cait", 35);
hm.put("Casey", 36);
```

```

// Using an enhanced loop to iterate over each entry
for (Map.Entry me : hm.entrySet()) {
    print(me.getKey() + " is ");
    println(me.getValue());
}

// We can also access values by their key
int val = hm.get("Casey");
println("Casey is " + val);

```

Description A **HashMap** stores a collection of objects, each referenced by a key. This is similar to an **Array**, only instead of accessing elements with a numeric index, a **String** is used. (If you are familiar with associative arrays from other languages, this is the same idea.) The above example covers basic use, but there's a more extensive example included with the Processing examples. In addition, for simple pairings of Strings and integers, Strings and floats, or Strings and Strings, you can now use the simpler IntDict, FloatDict, and StringDict classes.

For a list of the numerous **HashMap** features, please read the [Java reference description](#).

Constructor

- HashMap<Key, Value>()
- HashMap<Key, Value>(initialCapacity)
- HashMap<Key, Value>(initialCapacity, loadFactor)
- HashMap<Key, Value>(m)
 - Key** Class Name: the data type for the HashMap's keys
 - Value** Class Name: the data type for the HashMap's values

Parameters

- initialCapacity** int: defines the initial capacity of the map; the default is 16
- loadFactor** float: the load factor for the map; the default is 0.75
- m** Map: gives the new HashMap the same mappings as this Map

Related

- [IntDict](#)
- [FloatDict](#)
- [StringDict](#)

Name

[IntDict](#)

```
IntDict inventory;
```

```

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    inventory = new IntDict();
    inventory.set("cd", 84);
    inventory.set("tapes", 15);
    inventory.set("records", 102);
    println(inventory);
}
noLoop();
fill(0);
textAlign(CENTER);
}

void draw() {
    int numRecords = inventory.get("records");
    text(numRecords, width/2, height/2);
}

```

Description A simple class to use a String as a lookup for an int value. String "keys" are associated with integer values.

	size()	Returns the number of key/value pairs
	clear()	Remove all entries
	keys()	Return the internal array being used to store the keys
	keyArray()	Return a copy of the internal keys array
	values()	Return the internal array being used to store the keys
	valueArray()	Create a new array and copy each of the values into it
	get()	Return a value for the specified key
	set()	Create a new key/value pair or change the value of one
	hasKey()	Check if a key is a part of the data structure
Methods	increment()	Increase the value of a specific key value by 1
	add()	Add to a value
	sub()	Subtract from a value
	mult()	Multiply a value
	div()	Divide a value
	remove()	Remove a key/value pair
	sortKeys()	Sort the keys alphabetically
	sortKeysReverse()	Sort the keys alphabetically in reverse
	sortValues()	Sort by values in ascending order
	sortValuesReverse()	Sort by values in descending order
Constructor	<code>IntDict()</code>	
Related	FloatDict StringDict	

Name

[IntList](#)

```
IntList inventory;

void setup() {
  size(200, 200);
  inventory = new IntList();
  inventory.append(84);
  inventory.append(15);
  inventory.append(102);
  println(inventory);
  noLoop();
  fill(0);
  textAlign(CENTER);
}

void draw() {
  int nums = inventory.get(2);
  text(nums, width/2, height/2);
}
```

Examples

Helper class for a list of ints. Lists are designed to have some of the features of ArrayLists, but to maintain the simplicity and efficiency of working with arrays.

Description

Functions like sort() and shuffle() always act on the list itself. To get a sorted copy, use list.copy().sort().

Methods

size()	Get the length of the list
clear()	Remove all entries from the list
get()	Get an entry at a particular index
set()	Set the entry at a particular index

remove()	Remove an element from the specified index
append()	Add a new entry to the list
hasValue()	Check if a number is a part of the list
increment()	Add one to a value
add()	Add to a value
sub()	Subtract from a value
mult()	Multiply a value
div()	Divide a value
min()	Return the smallest value
max()	Return the largest value
sort()	Sorts the array, lowest to highest
sortReverse()	Reverse sort, orders values from highest to lowest
reverse()	Reverse sort, orders values by first digit
shuffle()	Randomize the order of the list elements
array()	Create a new array with a copy of all the values

Constructor `IntList()`

Related [FloatList](#)
[StringList](#)

Name

JSONArray

```
String[] species = { "Capra hircus", "Panthera pardus", "Equus
zebra" };
String[] names = { "Goat", "Leopard", "Zebra" };

JSONArray values;

void setup() {

    values = new JSONArray();

    for (int i = 0; i < species.length; i++) {

        JSONObject animal = new JSONObject();

        animal.setInt("id", i);
        animal.setString("species", species[i]);
        animal.setString("name", names[i]);
    }
}
```

Examples

```
values.setJSONObject(i, animal);

}

saveJSONArray(values, "data/new.json");
}

// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.json":
// [
//   {
//     "id": 0,
//     "species": "Capra hircus",
//     "name": "Goat"
//   },
//   {
//     "id": 1,
//     "species": "Panthera pardus",
//     "name": "Leopard"
//   }
]
```

```

//      },
//      {
//        "id": 2,
//        "species": "Equus zebra",
//        "name": "Zebra"
//      }
//    ]

```

A **JSONArray** stores an array of JSON objects. **JSONArrays** can be generated from scratch, dynamically, or using data from an existing file. JSON can also be output and saved to disk, as in the example above.

Methods	getString() Gets the String value associated with an index getInt() Gets the int value associated with an index getFloat() Gets the float value associated with an index getBoolean() Gets the boolean value associated with an index getJSONArray() Gets the JSONArray associated with an index value getJSONObject() Gets the JSONObject associated with an index value getStringArray() Gets the entire array as an array of Strings getIntArray() Gets the entire array as array of ints append() Appends a value, increasing the array's length by one setString() Put a String value in the JSONArray setInt() Put an int value in the JSONArray setFloat() Put a float value in the JSONArray setBoolean() Put a boolean value in the JSONArray setJSONArray() Sets the JSONArray value associated with an index value setJSONObject() Sets the JSONObject value associated with an index value size() Gets the number of elements in the JSONArray remove() Removes an element
Constructor	<code>JSONArray()</code>
Related	JSONObject loadJSONObject() loadJSONArray() saveJSONObject() saveJSONArray()

Name

JSONObject
`JSONObject json;`

```

void setup() {

  json = new JSONObject();

  json.setInt("id", 0);
  json.setString("species", "Panthera leo");
  json.setString("name", "Lion");

  saveJSONObject(json, "data/new.json");
}

// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.json":
//{
//  "id": 0,
//  "species": "Panthera leo",
//  "name": "Lion"

```

Examples

```
// }
```

A **JSONObject** stores JSON data with multiple name/value pairs. Values can be numeric, Strings, booleans, other **JSONObject**s or **JSONArray**s, or null.

JSONObject and **JSONArray** objects are quite similar and share most of the same methods; the primary difference is that the latter stores an array of JSON objects, while the former represents a single JSON object.

JSON can be generated from scratch, dynamically, or using data from an existing file. JSON can also be output and saved to disk, as in the example above.

[**getString\(\)**](#) Gets the string value associated with a key

[**getInt\(\)**](#) Gets the int value associated with a key

[**getFloat\(\)**](#) Gets the float value associated with a key

[**getBoolean\(\)**](#) Gets the boolean value associated with a key

[**getJSONArray\(\)**](#) Gets the JSONArray value associated with a key

[**getJSONObject\(\)**](#) Gets the JSONObject value associated with a key

Methods

)

[**setString\(\)**](#) Put a key/String pair in the JSONObject

[**setInt\(\)**](#) Put a key/int pair in the JSONObject

[**setFloat\(\)**](#) Put a key/float pair in the JSONObject

[**setBoolean\(\)**](#) Put a key/boolean pair in the JSONObject

[**setJSONObject\(\)**](#) Sets the JSONObject value associated with a key

[**setJSONArray\(\)**](#) Sets the JSONArray value associated with a key

[**JSONArray**](#)

[**loadJSONObject\(\)**](#)

Related

[**loadJSONArray\(\)**](#)

[**saveJSONObject\(\)**](#)

[**saveJSONArray\(\)**](#)

Name

Object

```
// Declare and construct two objects (h1, h2) from the class  
HLine  
HLine h1 = new HLine(20, 2.0);  
HLine h2 = new HLine(50, 2.5);  
  
void setup()  
{  
    size(200, 200);  
    frameRate(30);  
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    h1.update();  
    h2.update();  
}  
  
class HLine {  
    float ypos, speed;  
    HLine (float y, float s) {  
        ypos = y;  
        speed = s;  
    }  
    void update() {
```

```

        ypos += speed;
        if (ypos > width) {
            ypos = 0;
        }
        line(0, ypos, width, ypos);
    }
}

```

Description Objects are instances of classes. A class is a grouping of related methods (functions) and fields (variables and constants).

Syntax `ClassName instanceName`

Parameters `ClassName` the class from which to create the new object
`instanceName` the name for the new object

Related [class](#)

Name

String

```

String str1 = "CCCP";
char data[] = {'C', 'C', 'C', 'P'};
String str2 = new String(data);
println(str1); // Prints "CCCP" to the console
println(str2); // Prints "CCCP" to the console

```

// Comparing String objects, see reference below.

```

String p = "potato";
if (p == "potato") {
    println("p == potato, yep."); // This will not print
}
// The correct way to compare two Strings
if (p.equals("potato")) {
    println("Yes, the contents of p and potato are the same.");
}
```

// Use a backslash to include quotes in a String

String quoted = "This one has \"quotes\"";

println(quoted); // This one has "quotes"

A string is a sequence of characters. The class **String** includes methods for examining individual characters, comparing strings, searching strings, extracting parts of strings, and for converting an entire string uppercase and lowercase. Strings are always defined inside double quotes ("Abc"), and characters are always defined inside single quotes ('A').

To compare the contents of two Strings, use the **equals()** method, as in "if (a.equals(b))", instead of "if (a == b)". A String is an Object, so comparing them with the == operator only compares whether both Strings are stored in the same

Description memory location. Using the **equals()** method will ensure that the actual contents are compared. (The [troubleshooting](#) reference has a longer explanation.)

Because a String is defined between quotation marks, to include such marks within the String itself you must use the \ (backslash) character. (See the third example above.) This is known as an *escape sequence*. Other escape sequences include \t for the tab character and \n for new line. Because backslash is the escape character, to include a single backslash within a String, you must use two consecutive backslashes, as in: \\

There are more string methods than those linked from this page. Additional documentation is located online in the [official Java documentation](#).

Methods	charAt() Returns the character at the specified index equals() Compares a string to a specified object indexOf() Returns the index value of the first occurrence of a character within the input string length() Returns the number of characters in the input string substring() Returns a new string that is part of the input string toLowerCase() Converts all the characters to lower case toUpperCase() Converts all the characters to upper case
Constructor	<code>String(data)</code> <code>String(data, offset, length)</code>
Parameters	data byte[] or char[]: either an array of bytes to be decoded into characters, or an array of characters to be combined into a string offset int: index of the first character length int: number of characters
Related	char text()

Name

StringDict

```
StringDict inventory;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    inventory = new StringDict();
    inventory.set("coffee", "black");
    inventory.set("flour", "white");
    inventory.set("tea", "green");
    println(inventory);
}

void draw() {
    String s = inventory.get("tea");
    text(s, width/2, height/2);
}
```

Examples

Description A simple class to use a String as a lookup for an String value. String "keys" are associated with String values.

Methods	size() Returns the number of key/value pairs clear() Remove all entries keys() Return the internal array being used to store the keys keyArray() Return a copy of the internal keys array values() Return the internal array being used to store the values valueArray() Create a new array and copy each of the values into it get() Return a value for the specified key set() Create a new key/value pair or change the value of one hasKey() Check if a key is a part of the data structure remove() Remove a key/value pair sortKeys() Sort the keys alphabetically sortKeysReverse() Sort the keys alphabetically in reverse
----------------	---

[**sortValues\(\)**](#) Sort by values in ascending order
[**sortValuesReverse\(\)**](#) Sort by values in descending order

Constructor `StringDict()`

Related [IntDict](#)
[FloatDict](#)

Name

StringList

`StringList inventory;`

```
void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    inventory = new StringList();
    inventory.append("coffee");
    inventory.append("flour");
    inventory.append("tea");
    println(inventory);
}
noLoop();
fill(0);
textAlign(CENTER);
}

void draw() {
    String item = inventory.get(2);
    text(item, width/2, height/2);
}
```

Helper class for a list of Strings. Lists are designed to have some of the features of ArrayLists, but to maintain the simplicity and efficiency of working with arrays.

Description

Functions like `sort()` and `shuffle()` always act on the list itself. To get a sorted copy, use `list.copy().sort()`.

[**size\(\)**](#) Get the length of the list
[**clear\(\)**](#) Remove all entries from the list
[**get\(\)**](#) Get an entry at a particular index
[**set\(\)**](#) Set an entry at a particular index
[**remove\(\)**](#) Remove an element from the specified index
[**append\(\)**](#) Add a new entry to the list
[**hasValue\(\)**](#) Check if a value is a part of the list
[**sort\(\)**](#) Sorts the array in place
[**sortReverse\(\)**](#) Reverse sort, orders values from highest to lowest
[**reverse\(\)**](#) To come...
[**shuffle\(\)**](#) Randomize the order of the list elements
[**lower\(\)**](#) Make the entire list lower case
[**upper\(\)**](#) Make the entire list upper case
[**array\(\)**](#) Create a new array with a copy of all the values

Constructor `StringList()`

Related [IntList](#)
[FloatList](#)

Name

Table

```

Table table;

void setup() {

    table = new Table();

    table.addColumn("id");
    table.addColumn("species");
    table.addColumn("name");

    TableRow newRow = table.addRow();
    newRow.setInt("id", table.lastRowIndex());
    newRow.setString("species", "Panthera leo");
    newRow.setString("name", "Lion");

    saveTable(table, "data/new.csv");
}

// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.csv":
// id,species,name
// 0,Panthera leo,Lion

```

Examples

```

TableRow newRow = table.addRow();
newRow.setInt("id", table.lastRowIndex());
newRow.setString("species", "Panthera leo");
newRow.setString("name", "Lion");

```

```

saveTable(table, "data/new.csv");
}
```

// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.csv":
// id,species,name
// 0,Panthera leo,Lion

Description **Table** objects store data with multiple rows and columns, much like in a traditional spreadsheet. Tables can be generated from scratch, dynamically, or using data from an existing file. Tables can also be output and saved to disk, as in the example above.

Methods

addColumn()	Adds a new column to a table
removeColumn()	Removes a column from a table
getColumnCount()	Gets the number of columns in a table
getRowCount()	Gets the number of rows in a table
clearRows()	Removes all rows from a table
addRow()	Adds a row to a table
removeRow()	Removes a row from a table
getRow()	Gets a row from a table
rows()	Gets multiple rows from a table
getInt()	Get an integer value from the specified row and column
setInt()	Store an integer value in the specified row and column
getFloat()	Get a float value from the specified row and column
setFloat()	Store a float value in the specified row and column
getString()	Get an String value from the specified row and column
setString()	Store a String value in the specified row and column
getStringColumn()	Gets all values in the specified column
findRow()	Finds a row that contains the given value
findRows()	Finds multiple rows that contain the given value
matchRow()	Finds a row that matches the given expression
matchRows()	Finds multiple rows that match the given expression
removeTokens()	Removes characters from the table
trim()	Trims whitespace from values

Constructor

[Table\(\)](#)

[loadTable\(\)](#)

Related [saveTable\(\)](#)

[TableRow](#)

Name

TableRow

```

Table table;

void setup() {

    table = new Table();

    table.addColumn("number", Table.INT);
    table.addColumn("mass", Table.FLOAT);
    table.addColumn("name", Table.STRING);

```

Examples

```

TableRow row = table.addRow();
row.setInt("number", 8);
row.setFloat("mass", 15.9994);
row.setString("name", "Oxygen");

println(row.getInt("number")); // Prints 8
println(row.getFloat("mass")); // Prints 15.9994
println(row.getString("name")); // Prints "Oxygen"
}

```

Description A **TableRow** object represents a single row of data values, stored in columns, from a table.

[getString\(\)](#) Get an String value from the specified column

[getInt\(\)](#) Get an integer value from the specified column

[getFloat\(\)](#) Get a float value from the specified column

[setString\(\)](#) Store a String value in the specified column

[setInt\(\)](#) Store an integer value in the specified column

[setFloat\(\)](#) Store a float value in the specified column

[Table](#)

[addRow\(\)](#)

[removeRow\(\)](#)

[clearRows\(\)](#)

[getRow\(\)](#)

[rows\(\)](#)

Name

XML

```

// The following short XML file called "mammals.xml" is parsed
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.
//
// <?xml version="1.0"?>
// <mammals>
//   <animal id="0" species="Capra hircus">Goat</animal>
//   <animal id="1" species="Panthera pardus">Leopard</animal>
//   <animal id="2" species="Equus zebra">Zebra</animal>
// </mammals>

```

Examples XML xml;

```

void setup() {
    xml = loadXML("mammals.xml");
    XML[] children = xml.getChildren("animal");

    for (int i = 0; i < children.length; i++) {
        int id = children[i].getInt("id");
        String coloring = children[i].getString("species");
        String name = children[i].getContent();
        println(id + ", " + coloring + ", " + name);
    }
}

```

```

        }
    }

// Sketch prints:
// 0, Capra hircus, Goat
// 1, Panthera pardus, Leopard
// 2, Equus zebra, Zebra

```

XML is a representation of an XML object, able to parse XML code. Use **loadXML()** to load external XML files and create **XML** objects.

Description

Only files encoded as UTF-8 (or plain ASCII) are parsed properly; the encoding parameter inside XML files is ignored.

getParent()	Gets a copy of the element's parent
getName()	Gets the element's full name
setName()	Sets the element's name
hasChildren()	Checks whether or not an element has any children
listChildren()	Returns the names of all children as an array
getChildren()	Returns an array containing all child elements
getChild()	Returns the child element with the specified index value or path
addChild()	Appends a new child to the element
removeChild()	Removes the specified child
getAttributeCount()	Counts the specified element's number of attributes
listAttributes()	Returns a list of names of all attributes as an array
hasAttribute()	Checks whether or not an element has the specified attribute
getString()	Gets the content of an attribute as a String
setString()	Sets the content of an attribute as a String
getInt()	Gets the content of an attribute as an int
setInt()	Sets the content of an attribute as an int
getFloat()	Gets the content of an attribute as a float
setFloat()	Sets the content of an attribute as a float
getContent()	Gets the content of an element
getIntContent()	Gets the content of an element as an int
getFloatContent()	Gets the content of an element as a float
setContent()	Sets the content of an element
format()	Formats XML data as a String
toString()	Gets XML data as a String using default formatting

Constructor

`XML (name)`

Parameters `name`: creates a node with this name

[loadXML\(\)](#)

Related [parseXML\(\)](#)
[saveXML\(\)](#)

Name

binary()

```

color c = color(255, 204, 0);
println(c);           // Prints "-13312"
Examples println(binary(c));      // Prints
"111111111111111001100000000000"
println(binary(c, 16)); // Prints "1100110000000000"

```

Converts a byte, char, int, or color to a String containing the equivalent binary notation. For example, the color value produced by **color(0, 102, 153, 255)** will convert to the String value "1111111000000000110011010011001". This

Description function can help make your geeky debugging sessions much happier.

Note that the maximum number of digits is 32, because an **int** value can only represent up to 32 bits. Specifying more than 32 digits will have no effect.

Syntax `binary(value)`

`binary(value, digits)`

Parameters `value`: char, byte, or int: value to convert
`digits`: int: number of digits to return

Returns String

[unbinary\(\)](#)

Related [hex\(\)](#)

[unhex\(\)](#)

Name

boolean()

```
String s = "true";
boolean b = boolean(s);
if (b) {
  Examples  println("The boolean is true");
} else {
  println("The boolean is false");
}
```

Description Converts an int, string, or array to its boolean representation. For int values, the number 0 evaluates to false and all other numbers evaluate to true.

Name

byte()

```
char c = 'E';
byte b = byte(c);
println(c + " : " + b); // Prints "E : 69"
```

Examples

```
int i = 130;
b = byte(i);
println(i + " : " + b); // Prints "130 : -126"
```

Description Converts a primitive datatype or array to its byte representation. A byte can only be a whole number between -128 and 127, therefore when a number outside this range is converted, its value wraps to the corresponding byte representation.

Name

char()

```
int i = 65;
char c = char(i);
```

Examples `println(i + " : " + c); // Prints "65 : A"`

```
byte b = 65;
```

```
c = char(b);  
println(b + " : " + c); // Prints "65 : A"
```

Description Converts a primitive datatype or array to a numeric character representation.

Name [float\(\)](#)

```
int i = 65;  
Examples float f = float(i);  
println(i + " : " + f); // Prints "65 : 65.0"
```

Description Converts an int, string, or array to its floating point representation.

Name [hex\(\)](#)

```
color c = #ffcc00;  
println(c); // Prints "-13312"  
println(hex(c)); // Prints "FFFFCC00"  
println(hex(c, 6)); // Prints "FFCC00"
```

Examples

```
color c = color(255, 204, 0);  
println(c); // Prints "-13312"  
println(hex(c)); // Prints "FFFFCC00"  
println(hex(c, 6)); // Prints "FFCC00"
```

Converts a byte, char, int, or color to a String containing the equivalent hexadecimal notation. For example, the color value produced by [color\(0, 102, 153\)](#) will convert to the String value "FF006699". This function can help make your geeky debugging sessions much happier.

Description

Note that the maximum number of digits is 8, because an **int** value can only represent up to 32 bits. Specifying more than 8 digits will not increase the length of the string further.

Syntax [hex\(value\)](#)
[hex\(value, digits\)](#)

Parameters **value** int, char, or byte: the value to convert
digits int: the number of digits (maximum 8)

Returns String
[unhex\(\)](#)

Related [binary\(\)](#)
[unbinary\(\)](#)

Name [int\(\)](#)

```
float f = 65.0;  
int i = int(f);  
println(f + " : " + i); // Prints "65.0 : 65"
```

Examples

```
char c = 'E';  
i = int(c);  
println(c + " : " + i); // Prints "E : 69"
```

Description Converts a primitive datatype, string, or array to its integer representation.

Name [str\(\)](#)

```
boolean b = false;
byte y = -28;
char c = 'R';
float f = -32.6;
int i = 1024;

String sb = str(b);
Examples String sy = str(y);
String sc = str(c);
String sf = str(f);
String si = str(i);

sb = sb + sy + sc + sf + si;

println(sb); // Prints 'false-28R-32.61024'
```

Description Returns the string representation of primitive datatypes and arrays. For example the integer 3 will return the string "3", the float -12.6 will return the string "-12.6", and a boolean value true will return the string "true".

Name [unbinary\(\)](#)

```
String s1 = "00010000";
String s2 = "00001000";
String s3 = "00000100";
Examples println(unbinary(s1)); // Prints "16"
println(unbinary(s2)); // Prints "8"
println(unbinary(s3)); // Prints "4"
```

Description Converts a String representation of a binary number to its equivalent integer value. For example, **unbinary("00001000")** will return 8.

Syntax unbinary(value)

Parameters valueString: String to convert to an integer

Returns int

[binary\(\)](#)

Related [hex\(\)](#)

[unhex\(\)](#)

Name [unhex\(\)](#)

```
String hs = "FF006699";
int hi = unhex(hs);
Examples fill(hi);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);
```

Description Converts a String representation of a hexadecimal number to its equivalent integer value.

Syntax unhex(value)

Parameters valueString: String to convert to an integer

Returns int
[hex\(\)](#)
Related [binary\(\)](#)
[unbinary\(\)](#)

Name [join\(\)](#)

```
String[] animals = new String[3];
animals[0] = "cat";
animals[1] = "seal";
animals[2] = "bear";
String joinedAnimals = join(animals, " : ");
println(joinedAnimals); // Prints "cat : seal : bear"
```

Examples // Joining an array of ints requires first
// converting to an array of Strings
int[] numbers = new int[3];
numbers[0] = 8;
numbers[1] = 67;
numbers[2] = 5;
String joinedNumbers = join(nf(numbers, 0), ", ");
println(joinedNumbers); // Prints "8, 67, 5"

Combines an array of Strings into one String, each separated by the character(s)

Description used for the **separator** parameter. To join arrays of ints or floats, it's necessary to first convert them to Strings using **nf()** or **nfs()**.

Syntax `join(list, separator)`

Parameters `list` String[]: array of Strings
`separator` char or String to be placed between each item

Returns String
[split\(\)](#)

Related [trim\(\)](#)
[nf\(\)](#)
[nfs\(\)](#)

Name [match\(\)](#)

```
String s = "Inside a tag, you will find <tag>content</tag>.";
String[] m = match(s, "<tag>(.*)?</tag>");
println("Found '" + m[1] + "' inside the tag.");
// Prints to the console:
// "Found 'content' inside the tag."
```

Examples String s1 = "Have you ever heard of a thing called fluoridation.
";
s1 += "Fluoridation of water?";
String s2 = "Uh? Yes, I-I have heard of that, Jack, yes. Yes.";

```
String[] m1 = match(s1, "fluoridation");
if (m1 != null) { // If not null, then a match was found
    // This will print to the console, since a match was found.
    println("Found a match in '" + s1 + "'");
} else {
```

```

        println("No match found in '" + s1 + "'");
    }

String[] m2 = match(s2, "fluoridation");
if (m2 != null) {
    println("Found a match in '" + s2 + "'");
} else {
    // This will print to the console, since no match was found.
    println("No match found in '" + s2 + "'");
}

```

This function is used to apply a regular expression to a piece of text, and return matching groups (elements found inside parentheses) as a String array. If there are no matches, a null value will be returned. If no groups are specified in the regular expression, but the sequence matches, an array of length 1 (with the matched text as the first element of the array) will be returned.

To use the function, first check to see if the result is null. If the result is null, then the sequence did not match at all. If the sequence did match, an array is returned.

Description

If there are groups (specified by sets of parentheses) in the regular expression, then the contents of each will be returned in the array. Element [0] of a regular expression match returns the entire matching string, and the match groups start at element [1] (the first group is [1], the second [2], and so on).

The syntax can be found in the reference for Java's [Pattern](#) class. For regular expression syntax, read the [Java Tutorial](#) on the topic.

Syntax `match(str, regexp)`

Parameters `str` String: the String to be searched
`regexp` String: the regexp to be used for matching

Returns `String[]`

[matchAll\(\)](#)

[split\(\)](#)

Related [splitTokens\(\)](#)
[join\(\)](#)
[trim\(\)](#)

Name

[matchAll\(\)](#)

```
String s = "Inside tags, you will find <tag>multiple</tag> ";
s += "<tag>pieces</tag> of <tag>content</tag>.";
```

```
String[][] m = matchAll(s, "<tag>(.*)</tag>");
for (int i = 0; i < m.length; i++) {
```

Examples `println("Found '" + m[i][1] + "' inside a tag.");`

```
// Prints to the console:
// "Found 'multiple' inside a tag."
// "Found 'pieces' inside a tag."
// "Found 'content' inside a tag."
```

This function is used to apply a regular expression to a piece of text, and return a

Description list of matching groups (elements found inside parentheses) as a two-dimensional String array. If there are no matches, a null value will be returned. If no groups

are specified in the regular expression, but the sequence matches, a two dimensional array is still returned, but the second dimension is only of length one.

To use the function, first check to see if the result is null. If the result is null, then the sequence did not match at all. If the sequence did match, a 2D array is returned.

If there are groups (specified by sets of parentheses) in the regular expression, then the contents of each will be returned in the array. Assuming a loop with counter variable *i*, element *[i][0]* of a regular expression match returns the entire matching string, and the match groups start at element *[i][1]* (the first group is *[i][1]*, the second *[i][2]*, and so on).

The syntax can be found in the reference for Java's [Pattern](#) class. For regular expression syntax, read the [Java Tutorial](#) on the topic.

Syntax `matchAll(str, regexp)`

Parameters `str` String: the String to be searched
`regexpString`: the regexp to be used for matching

Returns `String[][]`
[match\(\)](#)
[split\(\)](#)

Related [splitTokens\(\)](#)
[join\(\)](#)
[trim\(\)](#)

Name [nf\(\)](#)

```
int a=200, b=40, c=90;
String sa = nf(a, 10);
println(sa); // Prints "0000000200"
String sb = nf(b, 5);
println(sb); // Prints "00040"
String sc = nf(c, 3);
println(sc); // Prints "090"
```

Examples

```
float d = 200.94, e = 40.2, f = 9.012;
String sd = nf(d, 10, 4);
println(sd); // Prints "0000000200.9400"
String se = nf(e, 5, 3);
println(se); // Prints "00040.200"
String sf = nf(f, 3, 5);
println(sf); // Prints "009.01200"
```

Utility function for formatting numbers into strings. There are two versions: one for formatting floats, and one for formatting ints. The values for the **digits**, **left**, and **right** parameters should always be positive integers.

Description

As shown in the above example, **nf()** is used to add zeros to the left and/or right of a number. This is typically for aligning a list of numbers. To *remove* digits from a floating-point number, use the **int()**, **ceil()**, **floor()**, or **round()** functions.

Syntax `nf(num, digits)`
`nf(num, left, right)`

Parameters `num` float[], int[], or int: the number(s) to format

digits int: number of digits to pad with zero
left int: number of digits to the left of the decimal point
right int: number of digits to the right of the decimal point

Returns String or String[]

[nfs\(\)](#)

Related [nfp\(\)](#)

[nfc\(\)](#)

Name

[nfc\(\)](#)

```
int i = 500000;
String si = nfc(i);
println(si); // Prints "500,000"
Examples float f = 42525.34343;
String fi = nfc(f, 2);
println(fi); // Prints "42,525.34"
```

Utility function for formatting numbers into strings and placing appropriate commas to mark units of 1000. There are two versions: one for formatting ints, and one for formatting an array of ints. The value for the **right** parameter should

Description always be a positive integer.

For a non-US locale, this will insert periods instead of commas, or whatever is appropriate for that region.

Syntax [nfc\(num\)](#)

[nfc\(num, right\)](#)

Parameters **num** float[], or int[]: the number(s) to format
right int: number of digits to the right of the decimal point

Returns String[]

[nf\(\)](#)

Related [nfp\(\)](#)

[nfc\(\)](#)

Name

[nfp\(\)](#)

```
int a=200, b=-40, c=90;
String sa = nfp(a, 10);
println(sa); // Prints "+0000000200"
String sb = nfp(b, 5);
println(sb); // Prints "-00040"
String sc = nfp(c, 3);
println(sc); // Prints "+090"
```

Examples

```
float d = -200.94, e = 40.2, f = -9.012;
String sd = nfp(d, 10, 4);
println(sd); // Prints "-0000000200.9400"
String se = nfp(e, 5, 3);
println(se); // Prints "+00040.200"
String sf = nfp(f, 3, 5);
println(sf); // Prints "-009.01200"
```

Description Utility function for formatting numbers into strings. Similar to **nf()** but puts a "+"

in front of positive numbers and a "-" in front of negative numbers. There are two versions: one for formatting floats, and one for formatting ints. The values for the **digits**, **left**, and **right** parameters should always be positive integers.

Syntax `nfp(num, digits)`

`nfp(num, left, right)`

num float[], int[], or int: the number(s) to format

digits int: number of digits to pad with zeroes

left int: the number of digits to the left of the decimal point

right int: the number of digits to the right of the decimal point

Returns String or String[]

[nf\(\)](#)

Related [nfs\(\)](#)

[nfc\(\)](#)

Name

[nfs\(\)](#)

```
int a=200, b=-40, c=90;
String sa = nfs(a, 10);
println(sa); // Prints " 0000000200"
String sb = nfs(b, 5);
println(sb); // Prints "-00040"
String sc = nfs(c, 3);
println(sc); // Prints " 090"
```

Examples

```
float d = -200.94, e = 40.2, f = -9.012;
String sd = nfs(d, 10, 4);
println(sd); // Prints "-0000000200.9400"
String se = nfs(e, 5, 3);
println(se); // Prints "00040.200"
String sf = nfs(f, 3, 5);
println(sf); // Prints "-009.01200"
```

Utility function for formatting numbers into strings. Similar to [nf\(\)](#), but leaves a blank space in front of positive numbers so they align with negative numbers in

Description spite of the minus symbol. There are two versions: one for formatting floats, and one for formatting ints. The values for the **digits**, **left**, and **right** parameters should always be positive integers.

Syntax `nfs(num, digits)`

`nfs(num, left, right)`

num float[], int[], or int: the number(s) to format

digits int: number of digits to pad with zeroes

left int: the number of digits to the left of the decimal point

right int: the number of digits to the right of the decimal point

Returns String or String[]

[nf\(\)](#)

Related [nfp\(\)](#)

[nfc\(\)](#)

Name

[split\(\)](#)

Examples `String men = "Chernenko,Andropov,Brezhnev";`
`String[] list = split(men, ',');`

```
// list[0] is now "Chernenko", list[1] is "Andropov"...
```

```
String numbers = "8 67 5 309";
int[] nums = int(split(numbers, ' '));
// nums[0] is now 8, nums[1] is now 67...
```

```
String men = "Chernenko ] Andropov ] Brezhnev";
String[] list = split(men, " ] ");
// list[0] is now "Chernenko", list[1] is "Andropov"...
```

The **split()** function breaks a String into pieces using a character or string as the delimiter. The **delim** parameter specifies the character or characters that mark the boundaries between each piece. A String[] array is returned that contains each of the pieces.

Description If the result is a set of numbers, you can convert the String[] array to to a float[] or int[] array using the datatype conversion functions **int()** and **float()**. (See the second example above.)

The **splitTokens()** function works in a similar fashion, except that it splits using a range of characters instead of a specific character or sequence.

Syntax `split(value, delim)`

Parameters `value` String: the String to be split
`delim` char: the character or String used to separate the data

Returns String[]

Name

splitTokens()

```
String t = "a b";
String[] q = splitTokens(t);
println(q[0]); // Prints "a"
println(q[1]); // Prints "b"
```

Examples // Despite the bad formatting, the data is parsed correctly.
// The ", " as delimiter means to break whenever a comma *or*
// a space is found in the String. Unlike the **split()** function,
// multiple adjacent delimiters are treated as a single break.

```
String s = "a, b c ,,d ";
String[] q = splitTokens(s, ", ");
println(q.length + " values found"); // Prints "4 values found"
println(q[0]); // Prints "a"
println(q[1]); // Prints "b"
println(q[2]); // Prints "c"
println(q[3]); // Prints "d"
```

The **splitTokens()** function splits a String at one or many character delimiters or "tokens." The **delim** parameter specifies the character or characters to be used as a boundary.

Description If no **delim** characters are specified, any whitespace character is used to split. Whitespace characters include tab (\t), line feed (\n), carriage return (\r), form feed (\f), and space.

After using this function to parse incoming data, it is common to convert the data from Strings to integers or floats by using the datatype conversion functions **int()**

and **float()**.

Syntax `splitTokens(value)`
`splitTokens(value, delim)`

Parameters `value` String: the String to be split
`delim` String: list of individual characters that will be used as separators

Returns String[]

[split\(\)](#)

Related [join\(\)](#)
[trim\(\)](#)

Name

[trim\(\)](#)

```
String s1 = "    Somerville MA ";
println(s1); // Prints "    Somerville MA "
String s2 = trim(s1);
println(s2); // Prints "Somerville MA"
```

Examples `String[] a1 = { "inconsistent", "spacing" }; // Note spaces`

```
String[] a2 = trim(a1);
println(a2);
// Prints the following array contents to the console:
// [0] "inconsistent"
// [1] "spacing"
```

Removes whitespace characters from the beginning and end of a String. In

Description addition to standard whitespace characters such as space, carriage return, and tab, this function also removes the Unicode "nbsp" character.

Syntax `trim(str)`
`trim(array)`

Parameters `str` String: any string
`array` String[]: a String array

Returns String or String[]

Related [split\(\)](#)
[join\(\)](#)

Name

[append\(\)](#)

```
String[] sal = { "OH", "NY", "CA" };
String[] sa2 = append(sa1, "MA");
println(sa2);
// Prints updated array contents to the console:
```

Examples `// [0] "OH"`
`// [1] "NY"`
`// [2] "CA"`
`// [3] "MA"`

Expands an array by one element and adds data to the new position. The datatype of the **element** parameter must be the same as the datatype of the array.

Description When using an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: `SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[])
append(originalArray, element)`

Syntax `append(array, value)`

Parameters **array** Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], or byte[]: array to append
value Object, String, float, int, char, or byte: new data for the array
Returns byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object
Related [shorten\(\)](#)
[expand\(\)](#)

Name

arrayCopy()

```
String[] north = { "OH", "IN", "MI" };
String[] south = { "GA", "FL", "NC" };
arrayCopy(north, south);
println(south);
// Prints updated array contents to the console:
// [0] "OH"
// [1] "IN"
// [2] "MI"
```

Examples

```
String[] north = { "OH", "IN", "MI" };
String[] south = { "GA", "FL", "NC" };
arrayCopy(north, 1, south, 0, 2);
println(south);
// Prints updated array contents to the console:
// [0] "IN"
// [1] "MI"
// [2] "NC"
```

Copies an array (or part of an array) to another array. The **src** array is copied to the **dst** array, beginning at the position specified by **srcPosition** and into the position specified by **dstPosition**. The number of elements to copy is determined by **length**. Note that copying values overwrites existing values in the destination array. To append values instead of overwriting them, use **concat()**.

The simplified version with only two arguments — **arrayCopy(src, dst)** — copies an entire array to another of the same size. It is equivalent to **arrayCopy(src, 0, dst, 0, src.length)**.

Description

Using this function is far more efficient for copying array data than iterating through a **for()** loop and copying each element individually.

This function only copies references, which means that for most purposes it only copies one-dimensional arrays (a single set of brackets). If used with a two (or three or more) dimensional array, it will only copy the references at the first level, because a two dimensional array is simply an "array of arrays". This does not produce an error, however, because this is often the desired behavior.

Internally, this function calls Java's [System.arraycopy\(\)](#) method, so most things that apply there are inherited.

```
arrayCopy(src, srcPosition, dst, dstPosition, length)
```

Syntax `arrayCopy(src, dst, length)`

```
arrayCopy(src, dst)
```

src Object: the source array

srcPositionint: starting position in the source array

dst Object: the destination array of the same data type as the source array

dstPositionint: starting position in the destination array

length int: number of array elements to be copied
Returns void
Related [concat\(\)](#)

Name
concat()

```
String[] sa1 = { "OH", "NY", "CA"};
String[] sa2 = { "KY", "IN", "MA"};
String[] sa3 = concat(sa1, sa2);
println(sa3);
// Prints updated array contents to the console:
Examples
// [0] "OH"
// [1] "NY"
// [2] "CA"
// [3] "KY"
// [4] "IN"
// [5] "MA"
```

Concatenates two arrays. For example, concatenating the array { 1, 2, 3 } and the array { 4, 5, 6 } yields { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 }. Both parameters must be arrays of the same datatype.

Description

When using an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: *SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[]) concat(array1, array2)*.

Syntax concat(a, b)
Parameters
a Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: first array to concatenate
b Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: second array to concatenate
Returns boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object
Related [splice\(\)](#)
[arrayCopy\(\)](#)

Name
expand()

```
int[] data = {0, 1, 3, 4};
println(data.length); // Prints "4"
data = expand(data);
println(data.length); // Prints "8"
data = expand(data, 512);
println(data.length); // Prints "512"
Examples
```

```
PImage[] imgs = new PImage[32];
println(imgs.length); // Prints "32"
imgs = (PImage[]) expand(imgs);
println(imgs.length); // Prints "64"
```

Increases the size of an array. By default, this function doubles the size of the array, but the optional **newSize** parameter provides precise control over the increase in size.

When using an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: `SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[]) expand(originalArray)`

Syntax `expand(list)`
`expand(list, newSize)`

Parameters `list` Object, String[], double[], float[], long[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: the array to expand
`newSize` int: new size for the array

Returns boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], long[], float[], double[], String[], or Object

Related [shorten\(\)](#)

Name [reverse\(\)](#)

```
String sa[] = { "OH", "NY", "MA", "CA"};  
sa = reverse(sa);  
println(sa);  
// Prints updated array contents to the console:  
// [0] "CA"  
// [1] "MA"  
// [2] "NY"  
// [3] "OH"
```

Description Reverses the order of an array.

Syntax `reverse(list)`

Parameters `list` Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: booleans[], bytes[], chars[], ints[], floats[], or Strings[]

Returns boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object

Related [sort\(\)](#)

Name [shorten\(\)](#)

```
String[] sa1 = { "OH ", "NY ", "CA "};  
String[] sa2 = shorten(sa1);  
println(sa1); // 'sa1' still contains OH, NY, CA  
println(sa2); // 'sa2' now contains OH, NY
```

Decreases an array by one element and returns the shortened array.

Description When using an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: `SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[]) shorten(originalArray)`

Syntax `shorten(list)`

Parameters `list` Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: array to shorten

Returns boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object

Related [append\(\)](#)
[expand\(\)](#)

Name [sort\(\)](#)

```
float[] a = { 3.4, 3.6, 2, 0, 7.1 };
a = sort(a);
println(a);
// Prints the contents of the sorted array:
// [0] 0.0
// [1] 2.0
// [2] 3.4
// [3] 3.6
// [4] 7.1
```

```
String[] s = { "deer", "elephant", "bear", "aardvark", "cat" };
s = sort(s);
println(s);
// Prints the contents of the sorted array:
```

Examples

```
// [0] "aardvark"
// [1] "bear"
// [2] "cat"
// [3] "deer"
// [4] "elephant"
```

```
String[] s = { "deer", "elephant", "bear", "aardvark", "cat" };
s = sort(s, 3);
println(s);
// Prints the contents of the array, with the first 3 elements
sorted:
// [0] "bear"
// [1] "deer"
// [2] "elephant"
// [3] "aardvark"
// [4] "cat"
```

Sorts an array of numbers from smallest to largest, or puts an array of words in alphabetical order. The original array is not modified; a re-ordered array is

Description returned. The **count** parameter states the number of elements to sort. For example, if there are 12 elements in an array and **count** is set to 5, only the first 5 elements in the array will be sorted.

Syntax
sort(list)
sort(list, count)

Parameters **list** String[], float[], int[], char[], or byte[]: array to sort

count: number of elements to sort, starting from 0

Returns byte[], char[], int[], float[], or String[]

Related [reverse\(\)](#)

Name

splice()

```
String[] a = { "OH", "NY", "CA" };
a = splice(a, "KY", 1); // Splice one value into an array
println(a);
// Prints the following array contents to the console:
// [0] "OH"
// [1] "KY"
// [2] "NY"
// [3] "CA"
```

```
println(); // Prints a blank line
```

```
String[] b = { "VA", "CO", "IL" };
```

```

a = splice(a, b, 2); // Splice one array of values into another
println(a);
// Prints the following array contents to the console:
// [0] "OH"
// [1] "KY"
// [2] "VA"
// [3] "CO"
// [4] "IL"
// [5] "NY"
// [6] "CA"

```

Inserts a value or an array of values into an existing array. The first two parameters must be arrays of the same datatype. The first parameter specifies the initial array to be modified, and the second parameter defines the data to be inserted. The third parameter is an index value which specifies the array position from which to insert data. (Remember that array index numbering starts at zero, so the first position is 0, the second position is 1, and so on.)

When splicing an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: *SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[]) splice(array1, array2, index)*

Syntax

```
splice(list, value, index)
```

list Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: array to splice into

Parameters **value** Object, String[], String, float[], float, int[], int, char[], char, byte[], byte, boolean[], or boolean: value to be spliced in

index int: position in the array from which to insert data

Returns boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object

Related [concat\(\)](#)
[subset\(\)](#)

Name

subset()

```

String[] sal = { "OH", "NY", "CA", "VA", "CO", "IL" };
String[] sa2 = subset(sal, 1);
println(sa2);
// Prints the following array contents to the console:
// [0] "NY"
// [1] "CA"
// [2] "VA"
// [3] "CO"
// [4] "IL"
println();
String[] sa3 = subset(sal, 2, 3);
println(sa3);
// Prints the following array contents to the console:
// [0] "CA"
// [1] "VA"
// [2] "CO"

```

Examples

Extracts an array of elements from an existing array. The **list** parameter defines the array from which the elements will be copied, and the **start** and **count**

Description parameters specify which elements to extract. If no **count** is given, elements will be extracted from the **start** to the end of the array. When specifying the **start**, remember that the first array element is 0. This function does not change the source array.

When using an array of objects, the data returned from the function must be cast to the object array's data type. For example: `SomeClass[] items = (SomeClass[]) subset(originalArray, 0, 4)`

Syntax	<code>subset(list, start)</code> <code>subset(list, start, count)</code>
Parameters	list Object, String[], float[], int[], char[], byte[], or boolean[]: array to extract from start int: position to begin count int: number of values to extract
Returns	boolean[], byte[], char[], int[], float[], String[], or Object
Related	splice()

Name [!= \(inequality\)](#)

```
int a = 22;  
int b = 23;
```

Examples `if (a != b) {
 println("variable a is not equal to variable b");
}`

Description Determines if one expression is not equivalent to another.

Syntax `value1 != value2`

Parameters	value1 int, float, char, byte, boolean, String value2 int, float, char, byte, boolean, String ≥ (greater than) ≤ (less than)
Related	≥ (greater than or equal to) ≤ (less than or equal to) == (equality)

Name [< \(less than\)](#)

```
int a = 22;  
int b = 23;
```

Examples `if (a < b) {
 println("variable a is less than variable b ");
}`

Description Tests if the value on the left is smaller than the value on the right.

Syntax `value1 < value2`

Parameters	value1 int or float value2 int or float ≥ (greater than) ≥ (greater than or equal to)
Related	≤ (less than or equal to) == (equality) != (inequality)

Name

[**<= \(less than or equal to\)**](#)

```
int a = 22;  
int b = 23;
```

Examples

```
if (a <= b) {  
    println("variable a is less or equal to variable b ");  
}
```

Description Tests if the value on the left is less than the value on the right or if the values are equivalent.

Syntax `value1 <= value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float
`value2`int or float

[**> \(greater than\)**](#)
[**< \(less than\)**](#)

Related [**>= \(greater than or equal to\)**](#)

[**== \(equality\)**](#)
[**!= \(inequality\)**](#)

Name

[**== \(equality\)**](#)

```
int a = 23;  
int b = 23;
```

Examples

```
if (a == b) {  
    println("variables a and b are equal");  
}
```

Description Determines if two values are equivalent. The equality operator is different from the assignment operator.

Description

Note that when comparing String objects, you must use the `equals()` method instead of `==` to compare their contents. See the reference for String or the [troubleshooting](#) note for more explanation.

Syntax `value1 == value2`

Parameters `value1`int, float, char, byte, boolean
`value2`int, float, char, byte, boolean

[**> \(greater than\)**](#)
[**< \(less than\)**](#)

Related [**>= \(greater than or equal to\)**](#)

[**== \(equality\)**](#)
[**!= \(inequality\)**](#)

Name

[**> \(greater than\)**](#)

```
int a = 5;  
int b = 13;
```

Examples

```
if (b > a) {  
    println("variable b is larger than variable a");  
}
```

Description Tests if the value on the left is larger than the value on the right.

Syntax value1 > value2
Parameters value1int or float
value2int or float
[< \(less than\)](#)
[>= \(greater than or equal to\)](#)
Related [<= \(less than or equal to\)](#)
[== \(equality\)](#)
[!= \(inequality\)](#)

Name **>= (greater than or equal to)**

Examples int a = 23;
int b = 23;
if (a >= b) {
 println("variable a is greater or equal to variable b ")
}

Description Tests if the value on the left is larger than the value on the right or if the values are equivalent.

Syntax value1 >= value2
Parameters value1int or float
value2int or float
[> \(greater than\)](#)
[< \(less than\)](#)
Related [<= \(less than or equal to\)](#)
[== \(equality\)](#)
[!= \(inequality\)](#)

Name
for

```
for (int i = 0; i < 40; i = i+1) {  
    line(30, i, 80, i);  
}
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 80; i = i+5) {  
    line(30, i, 80, i);  
}
```

Examples

```
for (int i = 40; i < 80; i = i+5) {  
    line(30, i, 80, i);  
}
```

```
// Nested for() loops can be used to  
// generate two-dimensional patterns  
for (int i = 30; i < 80; i = i+5) {  
    for (int j = 0; j < 80; j = j+5) {  
        point(i, j);  
    }
```

```
}
```

```
int[] nums = { 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 };

for (int i : nums) {
    println(i);
}
```

Controls a sequence of repetitions. A basic **for** structure has three parts: **init**, **test**, and **update**. Each part must be separated by a semicolon (;). The loop continues until the **test** evaluates to **false**. When a **for** structure is executed, the following sequence of events occurs:

1. The init statement is run.
2. The test is evaluated to be true or false.
3. If the test is *true*, jump to step 4. If the test is *false*, jump to step 6.
4. Run the statements within the block.
5. Run the update statement and jump to step 2.
6. Exit the loop.

Description

In the first example above, the **for** structure is executed 40 times. In the init statement, the value *i* is created and set to zero. *i* is less than 40, so the test evaluates as *true*. At the end of each loop, *i* is incremented by one. On the 41st execution, the test is evaluated as *false*, because *i* is then equal to 40, so *i < 40* is no longer true. Thus, the loop exits.

A second type of **for** structure makes it easier to iterate over each element of an array. The last example above shows how it works. Within the parentheses, first define the datatype of the array, then define a variable name. This variable name will be assigned to each element of the array in turn as the **for** moves through the entire array. Finally, after the colon, define the array name to be used.

```
for (init; test; update) {
    statements
}
```

Syntax

```
for (datatype element : array) {
    statements
}
```

init statement executed once when beginning loop

test if the test evaluates to *true*, the statements execute

update executes at the end of each iteration

Parameters **statements** collection of statements executed each time through the loop

datatype datatype of elements in the array

element temporary name to use for each element of the array

array name of the array to iterate through

Related [while](#)

Name

while

Examples

```
int i = 0;
while (i < 80) {
    line(30, i, 80, i);
    i = i + 5;
}
```

Controls a sequence of repetitions. The **while** structure executes a series of statements continuously while the **expression** is **true**. The expression must be updated during the repetitions or the program will never "break out" of **while**.

Description This function can be dangerous because the code inside the **while** loop will not finish until the expression inside **while** becomes false. It will lock out all other code from running (e.g., mouse and keyboard events will not be updated). Be careful — if used incorrectly, this can lock up your code (and sometimes even the Processing environment itself).

```
while (expression) {
    statements
}
```

Parameters **expression** a valid expression
statements one or more statements

Related [for](#)

Name [?: \(conditional\)](#)

Examples

```
int s = 0;
for (int i = 5; i < 100; i += 5) {
    s = (i < 50) ? 0 : 255;
    stroke(s);
    line(30, i, 80, i);
}
```

A shortcut for writing an **if** and **else** structure. The conditional operator, **?:** is sometimes called the ternary operator, an operator that takes three arguments. If the **test** evaluates to **true**, **expression1** is evaluated and returned. If the **condition** evaluates to **false**, **expression2** is evaluated and returned.

The following conditional expression:

```
result = test ? expression1 : expression2
```

Description is equivalent to this structure:

```
if (test) {
    result = expression1
} else {
    result = expression2
}
```

Syntax `test ? expression1 : expression2`

test any valid expression which evaluates to true or false

Parameters **expression1** any valid expression

expression2 any valid expression

Related [if](#)

[else](#)

Name [break](#)

```
char letter = 'B';

switch(letter) {
    case 'A':
        println("Alpha"); // Does not execute
        break;
    case 'B':
        println("Bravo"); // Prints "Bravo"
        break;
    default:
        println("Zulu"); // Does not execute
        break;
}
```

Examples Ends the execution of a structure such as **switch**, **for**, or **while** and jumps to the next statement after.

[switch](#)

Related [for](#)
[while](#)

Name [case](#)

```
char letter = 'B';

switch(letter) {
    case 'A':
        println("Alpha"); // Does not execute
        break;
    case 'B':
        println("Bravo"); // Prints "Bravo"
        break;
    default:
        println("Zulu"); // Does not execute
        break;
}
```

Description Denotes the different labels to be evaluated with the parameter in the **switch** structure.

Syntax `case label: statements`

Parameters **label** byte, char, or int
statements one or more valid statements

[switch](#)

Related [default](#)
[break](#)

Name [continue](#)

Examples `for (int i = 0; i < 100; i += 10) {`

```
if (i == 70) { // If 'i' is 70,  
    continue; // skip to the next iteration,  
} // therefore not drawing the line.  
line(i, 0, i, height);  
}
```

Description When run inside of a **for** or **while**, it skips the remainder of the block and starts the next iteration.

Syntax [continue](#)

Related [for](#)
[while](#)

Name [default](#)

```
char letter = 'F';  
  
switch(letter) {  
    case 'A':  
        println("Alpha"); // Does not execute  
        break;  
    case 'B':  
        println("Bravo"); // Does not execute  
        break;  
    default:  
        println("Zulu"); // Prints "Zulu"  
        break;  
}
```

Examples Keyword for defining the default condition of a **switch**. If none of the case labels **Description** match the **switch** parameter, the statement(s) after the **default** syntax are executed. Switch structures don't require a **default**.

Syntax `default: statements`

Parameters `statements` one or more valid statements to be executed

[switch](#)

Related [break](#)
[case](#)

Name [else](#)

```
for (int i = 5; i < 95; i += 5) {  
    if (i < 35) {  
        line(30, i, 80, i);  
    } else {  
        line(20, i, 90, i);  
    }
```

Examples }

```
for (int i = 5; i < 95; i += 5) {  
    if (i < 35) {  
        line(30, i, 80, i);  
    } else if (i < 65) {  
        line(20, i, 90, i);  
    }
```

```
    } else {
        line(0, i, 100, i);
    }
}
```

Extends the **if** structure allowing the program to choose between two or more

Description block of code. It specifies a block of code to execute when the expression in **if** is **false**.

```
if (expression) {
    statements
} else {
    statements
}
```

Syntax `if (expression) {
 statements
} else if (expression) {
 statements
} else {
 statements
}`

Parameters **expression** any valid expression that evaluates to true or false
statements one or more statements to be executed

Related [if](#)

Name [if](#)

```
for (int i = 5; i < height; i += 5) {
    stroke(255); // Set the color to white
    if (i < 35) { // When 'i' is less than 35...
        stroke(0); //...set the color to black
    }
    line(30, i, 80, i);
}
```

Examples Allows the program to make a decision about which code to execute. If the **test** **Description** evaluates to **true**, the statements enclosed within the block are executed and if the **test** evaluates to **false** the statements are not executed.

```
if (test) {
    statements
}
```

Parameters **test** any valid expression that evaluates to true or false
statements one or more statements to be executed

Related [else](#)

Name [switch](#)

```
int num = 1;

switch(num) {
    case 0:
        println("Zero"); // Does not execute
        break;
    case 1:
```

Examples

```

        println("One"); // Prints "One"
        break;
    }

char letter = 'N';

switch(letter) {
    case 'A':
        println("Alpha"); // Does not execute
        break;
    case 'B':
        println("Bravo"); // Does not execute
        break;
    default:           // Default executes if the case labels
        println("None"); // don't match the switch parameter
        break;
}

// Removing a "break" enables testing
// for more than one value at once

char letter = 'b';

switch(letter) {
    case 'a':
    case 'A':
        println("Alpha"); // Does not execute
        break;
    case 'b':
    case 'B':
        println("Bravo"); // Prints "Bravo"
        break;
}

```

Works like an **if else** structure, but **switch** is more convenient when you need to select between three or more alternatives. Program controls jumps to the case with the same value as the expression. All remaining statements in the switch are executed unless redirected by a **break**. Only primitive datatypes which can convert to an integer (byte, char, and int) may be used as the **expression** parameter. The default is optional.

```

switch(expression)
{
    case label:
        statements
    case label:          // Optional
        statements        // "
    default:            // "
        statements        // "
}

```

expression byte, char, or int

Parameters **label** byte, char, or int

statements one or more statements to be executed

[case](#)

[default](#)

Related [break](#)

[if](#)

[else](#)

Name [**!\(logical NOT\)**](#)

Examples

```
boolean a = false;
if (!a) {
    rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
}
a = true;
if (a) {
    line(20, 10, 90, 80);
    line(20, 80, 90, 10);
}
```

Description Inverts the Boolean value of an expression. Returns **true** if the expression is **false** and returns **false** if the expression is **true**. If the expression **(a>b)** evaluates to **true**, then **!(a>b)** evaluates to **false**.

Syntax !expression

Parameters expression any valid expression

[|| \(logical OR\)](#)

Related [&& \(logical AND\)](#)
 [if](#)

Name [**&& \(logical AND\)**](#)

Examples

```
for (int i = 5; i <= 95; i += 5) {
    if ((i > 35) && (i < 60)) {
        stroke(0); // Set color to black
    } else {
        stroke(255); // Set color to white
    }
    line(30, i, 80, i);
}
```

Compares two expressions and returns **true** only if both evaluate to **true**. Returns **false** if one or both evaluate to **false**. The following list shows all possible combinations:

Description

```
true && false // Evaluates false because the second is false
false && true // Evaluates false because the first is false
true && true // Evaluates true because both are true
false && false // Evaluates false because both are false
```

Syntax expression1 && expression2

Parameters expression1 any valid expression
expression2 any valid expression

[|| \(logical OR\)](#)

Related [! \(logical NOT\)](#)
 [if](#)

Name [**|| \(logical OR\)**](#)

```
Examples for (int i = 5 ; i <= 95; i += 5) {  
    if ((i < 35) || (i > 60)) {  
        line(30, i, 80, i);  
    }  
}
```

Compares two expressions and returns **true** if one or both evaluate to **true**. Returns **false** only if both expressions are **false**. The following list shows all possible combinations:

Description

```
true || false // Evaluates true because the first is true  
false || true // Evaluates true because the second is true  
true || true // Evaluates true because both are true  
false || false // Evaluates false because both are false
```

Syntax

expression1 any valid expression
expression2 any valid expression
[&& \(logical AND\)](#)

Related

[!\(logical NOT\)](#)

[if](#)

Name

createShape()

```
PShape square; // The PShape object  
  
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P2D);  
    // Creating the PShape as a square. The  
    // numeric arguments are similar to rect().  
    square = createShape(RECT, 0, 0, 80, 80);  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    shape(square, 10, 10);  
}
```

PShape s; // The PShape object

```
Examples void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P2D);  
    // Creating a custom PShape as a square, by  
    // specifying a series of vertices.  
    s = createShape();  
    s.beginShape();  
    s.fill(0, 0, 255);  
    s.noStroke();  
    s.vertex(0, 0);  
    s.vertex(0, 50);  
    s.vertex(50, 50);  
    s.vertex(50, 0);  
    s.endShape(CLOSE);  
}  
  
void draw() {
```

```

    shape(s, 25, 25);
}

PShape s;

void setup() {
  size(100, 100, P2D);
  s = createShape();
  s.beginShape(TRIANGLE_STRIP);
  s.vertex(30, 75);
  s.vertex(40, 20);
  s.vertex(50, 75);
  s.vertex(60, 20);
  s.vertex(70, 75);
  s.vertex(80, 20);
  s.vertex(90, 75);
  s.endShape();
}

void draw() {
  shape(s, 0, 0);
}

void setup() {
  size(100, 100, P2D);

  // Create the shape group
  alien = createShape(GROUP);

  // Make two shapes
  head = createShape(ELLIPSE, 0, 25, 50, 50);
  head.setFill(color(255));
  body = createShape(RECT, -25, 45, 50, 40);
  body.setFill(color(0));

  // Add the two "child" shapes to the parent group
  alien.addChild(body);
  alien.addChild(head);
}

void draw() {
  background(204);
  translate(50, 15);
  shape(alien); // Draw the group
}

```

The **createShape()** function is used to define a new shape. Once created, this shape can be drawn with the **shape()** function. The basic way to use the function defines new primitive shapes. One of the following parameters are used as the first parameter: **ELLIPSE**, **RECT**, **ARC**, **TRIANGLE**, **SPHERE**, **BOX**, **QUAD**, **LINE**. The parameters for each of these different shapes are the same as their corresponding functions: **ellipse()**, **rect()**, **arc()**, **triangle()**, **sphere()**, **box()**, and **line()**. The first example above clarifies how this works.

Description

Custom, unique shapes can be made by using **createShape()** without a parameter. After the shape is started, the drawing attributes and geometry can be set directly to the shape. See the second example above for specifics.

Geometry that groups vertices to build larger forms such as group of triangles can be created with **createShape()** using the same parameters as **beginShape()**.

These options are **POINTS**, **LINES**, **TRIANGLES**, **TRIANGLE_FAN**, **TRIANGLE_STRIP**, **QUADS**, and **QUAD_STRIP**. See the third example above.

The **createShape()** function can also be used to make a complex shape made of other shapes. This is called a "group" and it's created by using the parameter **GROUP** as the first parameter. See the fourth example above to see how it works.

Syntax
`createShape()
createShape(source)
createShape(type)
createShape(kind, p)`

Parameters
`type int: either POINTS, LINES, TRIANGLES, TRIANGLE_FAN,
TRIANGLE_STRIP, QUADS, QUAD_STRIP
kind int: either LINE, TRIANGLE, RECT, ELLIPSE, ARC, SPHERE, BOX
p float[]: parameters that match the kind of shape`

Returns PShape

[PShape](#)

Related [endShape\(\)](#)
[loadShape\(\)](#)

Name

[loadShape\(\)](#)

```
PShape s;  
  
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100);  
    // The file "bot.svg" must be in the data folder  
    // of the current sketch to load successfully  
    s = loadShape("bot.svg");  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    shape(s, 10, 10, 80, 80);  
}
```

Examples PShape s;

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P3D);  
    // The file "bot.obj" must be in the data folder  
    // of the current sketch to load successfully  
    s = loadShape("bot.obj");  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    translate(width/2, height/2);  
    shape(s, 0, 0);  
}
```

Description Loads geometry into a variable of type **PShape**. SVG and OBJ files may be loaded. To load correctly, the file must be located in the data directory of the current sketch. In most cases, **loadShape()** should be used inside **setup()** because loading shapes inside **draw()** will reduce the speed of a sketch.

Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a NullPointerException if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

Syntax
`loadShape(filename)`
`loadShape(filename, options)`

Parameters `filename`: String: name of file to load, can be .svg or .obj

Returns `PShape`

Related
[PShape](#)
[createShape\(\)](#)

Name

PShape

```
PShape s;

void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
    // The file "bot.svg" must be in the data folder
    // of the current sketch to load successfully
    s = loadShape("bot.svg");
}

void draw() {
    shape(s, 10, 10, 80, 80);
}
```

Examples

```
PShape square; // The PShape object

void setup() {
    size(100, 100, P2D);
    // Creating the PShape as a square. The corner
    // is 0,0 so that the center is at 40,40
    square = createShape(RECT, 0, 0, 80, 80);
}

void draw() {
    shape(square, 10, 10);
}
```

Datatype for storing shapes. Before a shape is used, it must be loaded with the **loadShape()** or created with the **createShape()**. The **shape()** function is used to draw the shape to the display window. Processing can currently load and display SVG (Scalable Vector Graphics) and OBJ shapes. OBJ files can only be opened using the **P3D** renderer and **createShape()** is only available with the **P2D** and

Description **P3D** renderers. The **loadShape()** function supports SVG files created with Inkscape and Adobe Illustrator. It is not a full SVG implementation, but offers some straightforward support for handling vector data.

The **PShape** object contains a group of methods that can operate on the shape data. Some of the methods are listed below, but the full list used for creating and

modifying shapes is [available here in the Processing Javadoc](#).

Fields	<p>width Shape document width height Shape document height</p> <p>isVisible() Returns a boolean value "true" if the image is set to be visible, "false" if not setVisible() Sets the shape to be visible or invisible disableStyle() Disables the shape's style data and uses Processing styles enableStyle() Enables the shape's style data and ignores the Processing styles beginContour() Starts a new contour endContour() Ends a contour endShape() Finishes the creation of a new PShape getChildCount() Returns the number of children</p>
Methods	<p>getChild() Returns a child element of a shape as a PShape object addChild() Adds a new child getVertexCount() Returns the total number of vertices as an int getVertex() Returns the vertex at the index position setVertex() Sets the vertex at the index position translate() Displaces the shape rotateX() Rotates the shape around the x-axis rotateY() Rotates the shape around the y-axis rotateZ() Rotates the shape around the z-axis rotate() Rotates the shape scale() Increases and decreases the size of a shape resetMatrix() Replaces the current matrix of a shape with the identity matrix</p>

Constructor `PShape()`

[loadShape\(\)](#)

Related [createShape\(\)](#)
[shapeMode\(\)](#)

Name

[arc\(\)](#)

```
arc(50, 55, 50, 50, 0, HALF_PI);
noFill();
arc(50, 55, 60, 60, HALF_PI, PI);
arc(50, 55, 70, 70, PI, PI+QUARTER_PI);
arc(50, 55, 80, 80, PI+QUARTER_PI, TWO_PI);
```

Examples

```
arc(50, 50, 80, 80, 0, PI+QUARTER_PI, OPEN);
```

```
arc(50, 50, 80, 80, 0, PI+QUARTER_PI, CHORD);
```

```
arc(50, 50, 80, 80, 0, PI+QUARTER_PI, PIE);
```

Description Draws an arc to the screen. Arcs are drawn along the outer edge of an ellipse defined by the **a**, **b**, **c**, and **d** parameters. The origin of the arc's ellipse may be changed with the **ellipseMode()** function. Use the **start** and **stop** parameters to specify the angles (in radians) at which to draw the arc.

There are three ways to draw an arc; the rendering technique used is defined by the optional seventh parameter. The default mode is OPEN, and the other options are CHORD and PIE. Each is shown in the above examples.

Syntax `arc(a, b, c, d, start, stop)`
`arc(a, b, c, d, start, stop, mode)`

a float: x-coordinate of the arc's ellipse
b float: y-coordinate of the arc's ellipse

c float: width of the arc's ellipse by default
d float: height of the arc's ellipse by default
start float: angle to start the arc, specified in radians
stop float: angle to stop the arc, specified in radians

Returns void

[ellipse\(\)](#)

Related [ellipseMode\(\)](#)
[radians\(\)](#)
[degrees\(\)](#)

Name

[ellipse\(\)](#)

Examples

`ellipse(56, 46, 55, 55);`

Description Draws an ellipse (oval) to the screen. An ellipse with equal width and height is a circle. By default, the first two parameters set the location, and the third and fourth parameters set the shape's width and height. The origin may be changed with the [ellipseMode\(\)](#) function.

Syntax `ellipse(a, b, c, d)`

a float: x-coordinate of the ellipse

b float: y-coordinate of the ellipse
c float: width of the ellipse by default
d float: height of the ellipse by default

Returns void

Related [ellipseMode\(\)](#)
[arc\(\)](#)

Name

[line\(\)](#)

`line(30, 20, 85, 75);`

Examples `line(30, 20, 85, 20);`
`stroke(126);`
`line(85, 20, 85, 75);`
`stroke(255);`
`line(85, 75, 30, 75);`

```
// Drawing lines in 3D requires P3D
// as a parameter to size()
size(100, 100, P3D);
line(30, 20, 0, 85, 20, 15);
stroke(126);
line(85, 20, 15, 85, 75, 0);
stroke(255);
line(85, 75, 0, 30, 75, -50);
```

Description Draws a line (a direct path between two points) to the screen. The version of **line()** with four parameters draws the line in 2D. To color a line, use the **stroke()** function. A line cannot be filled, therefore the **fill()** function will not affect the color of a line. 2D lines are drawn with a width of one pixel by default, but this can be changed with the **strokeWeight()** function. The version with six parameters allows the line to be placed anywhere within XYZ space. Drawing this shape in 3D with the **z** parameter requires the P3D parameter in combination with **size()** as shown in the above example.

Syntax `line(x1, y1, x2, y2)`
`line(x1, y1, z1, x2, y2, z2)`
x1float: x-coordinate of the first point
y1float: y-coordinate of the first point
x2float: x-coordinate of the second point
y2float: y-coordinate of the second point
z1float: z-coordinate of the first point
z2float: z-coordinate of the second point

Returns void
[strokeWeight\(\)](#)
[strokeJoin\(\)](#)
Related [strokeCap\(\)](#)
[beginShape\(\)](#)

Name [point\(\)](#)

```
noSmooth();
point(30, 20);
point(85, 20);
point(85, 75);
point(30, 75);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noSmooth();
point(30, 20, -50);
point(85, 20, -50);
point(85, 75, -50);
point(30, 75, -50);
```

Description Draws a point, a coordinate in space at the dimension of one pixel. The first parameter is the horizontal value for the point, the second value is the vertical value for the point, and the optional third value is the depth value. Drawing this shape in 3D with the **z** parameter requires the P3D parameter in combination with **size()** as shown in the above example.

Syntax `point(x, y)`
`point(x, y, z)`

xfloat: x-coordinate of the point

Parameters **y**float: y-coordinate of the point

zfloat: z-coordinate of the point

Returns void

Name

quad()

Examples

```
quad(38, 31, 86, 20, 69, 63, 30, 76);
```

Description A quad is a quadrilateral, a four sided polygon. It is similar to a rectangle, but the angles between its edges are not constrained to ninety degrees. The first pair of parameters (x1,y1) sets the first vertex and the subsequent pairs should proceed clockwise or counter-clockwise around the defined shape.

Syntax `quad(x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4)`

x1float: x-coordinate of the first corner

y1float: y-coordinate of the first corner

x2float: x-coordinate of the second corner

y2float: y-coordinate of the second corner

Parameters **x3**float: x-coordinate of the third corner

y3float: y-coordinate of the third corner

x4float: x-coordinate of the fourth corner

y4float: y-coordinate of the fourth corner

Returns void

Name

rect()

```
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);
```

Examples

```
rect(30, 20, 55, 55, 7);
```

```
rect(30, 20, 55, 55, 3, 6, 12, 18);
```

Draws a rectangle to the screen. A rectangle is a four-sided shape with every angle at ninety degrees. By default, the first two parameters set the location of the upper-left corner, the third sets the width, and the fourth sets the height. The way these parameters are interpreted, however, may be changed with the **rectMode()** function.

Description To draw a rounded rectangle, add a fifth parameter, which is used as the radius value for all four corners.

To use a different radius value for each corner, include eight parameters. When using eight parameters, the latter four set the radius of the arc at each corner separately, starting with the top-left corner and moving clockwise around the rectangle.

Syntax

```
rect(a, b, c, d)
rect(a, b, c, d, r)
rect(a, b, c, d, tl, tr, br, bl)
```

a float: x-coordinate of the rectangle by default
b float: y-coordinate of the rectangle by default
c float: width of the rectangle by default
d float: height of the rectangle by default

Parameters

r float: radii for all four corners
tl float: radius for top-left corner
tr float: radius for top-right corner
br float: radius for bottom-right corner
bl float: radius for bottom-left corner

Returns void

Related [rectMode\(\)](#)
[quad\(\)](#)

Name [triangle\(\)](#)

Examples

```
triangle(30, 75, 58, 20, 86, 75);
```

A triangle is a plane created by connecting three points. The first two arguments

Description specify the first point, the middle two arguments specify the second point, and the last two arguments specify the third point.

Syntax

```
triangle(x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3)
```

x1 float: x-coordinate of the first point
y1 float: y-coordinate of the first point
x2 float: x-coordinate of the second point
y2 float: y-coordinate of the second point
x3 float: x-coordinate of the third point
y3 float: y-coordinate of the third point

Parameters

Returns void

Related [beginShape\(\)](#)

Name [bezier\(\)](#)

```
noFill();
stroke(255, 102, 0);
line(85, 20, 10, 10);
line(90, 90, 15, 80);
stroke(0, 0, 0);
```

Examples `bezier(85, 20, 10, 10, 90, 90, 15, 80);`

```
noFill();
stroke(255, 102, 0);
line(30, 20, 80, 5);
line(80, 75, 30, 75);
stroke(0, 0, 0);
```

```
bezier(30, 20, 80, 5, 80, 75, 30, 75);
```

Draws a Bezier curve on the screen. These curves are defined by a series of anchor and control points. The first two parameters specify the first anchor point and the last two parameters specify the other anchor point. The middle parameters specify the control points which define the shape of the curve. Bezier curves were developed by French engineer Pierre Bezier. Using the 3D version requires rendering with P3D (see the Environment reference for more information).

Syntax `bezier(x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4)`

```
bezier(x1, y1, z1, x2, y2, z2, x3, y3, z3, x4, y4, z4)
```

x1float: coordinates for the first anchor point

y1float: coordinates for the first anchor point

z1float: coordinates for the first anchor point

x2float: coordinates for the first control point

y2float: coordinates for the first control point

z2float: coordinates for the first control point

x3float: coordinates for the second control point

y3float: coordinates for the second control point

z3float: coordinates for the second control point

x4float: coordinates for the second anchor point

y4float: coordinates for the second anchor point

z4float: coordinates for the second anchor point

Returns void

Related [bezierVertex\(\)](#)
[curve\(\)](#)

Name

bezierDetail()

```
// Move the mouse left and right to see the detail change
```

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P3D);  
    noFill();  
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    int d = int(map(mouseX, 0, 100, 1, 20));  
    bezierDetail(d);  
    bezier(85, 20, 10, 10, 90, 90, 15, 80);  
}
```

Sets the resolution at which Beziers display. The default value is 20. This

Description function is only useful when using the **P3D** renderer; the default **P2D** renderer does not use this information.

Syntax `bezierDetail(detail)`

Parameters `detail`int: resolution of the curves

Returns void

[curve\(\)](#)

Related [curveVertex\(\)](#)
[curveTightness\(\)](#)

Name [bezierPoint\(\)](#)

Examples

```
noFill();
bezier(85, 20, 10, 10, 90, 90, 15, 80);
fill(255);
int steps = 10;
for (int i = 0; i <= steps; i++) {
    float t = i / float(steps);
    float x = bezierPoint(85, 10, 90, 15, t);
    float y = bezierPoint(20, 10, 90, 80, t);
    ellipse(x, y, 5, 5);
}
```

Description Evaluates the Bezier at point t for points a, b, c, d. The parameter t varies between 0 and 1, a and d are points on the curve, and b and c are the control points. This can be done once with the x coordinates and a second time with the y coordinates to get the location of a bezier curve at t.

Syntax `bezierPoint(a, b, c, d, t)`
afloat: coordinate of first point on the curve
bfloat: coordinate of first control point

Parameters
cfloat: coordinate of second control point
dfloat: coordinate of second point on the curve
tfloat: value between 0 and 1

Returns float
[bezier\(\)](#)

Related [bezierVertex\(\)](#)
[curvePoint\(\)](#)

Name [bezierTangent\(\)](#)

Examples

```
noFill();
bezier(85, 20, 10, 10, 90, 90, 15, 80);
int steps = 6;
fill(255);
for (int i = 0; i <= steps; i++) {
    float t = i / float(steps);
    // Get the location of the point
    float x = bezierPoint(85, 10, 90, 15, t);
    float y = bezierPoint(20, 10, 90, 80, t);
    // Get the tangent points
    float tx = bezierTangent(85, 10, 90, 15, t);
    float ty = bezierTangent(20, 10, 90, 80, t);
    // Calculate an angle from the tangent points
    float a = atan2(ty, tx);
    a += PI;
    stroke(255, 102, 0);
    line(x, y, cos(a)*30 + x, sin(a)*30 + y);
    // The following line of code makes a line
    // inverse of the above line
    //line(x, y, cos(a)*-30 + x, sin(a)*-30 + y);
```

```

    stroke(0);
    ellipse(x, y, 5, 5);
}

noFill();
bezier(85, 20, 10, 10, 90, 90, 15, 80);
stroke(255, 102, 0);
int steps = 16;
for (int i = 0; i <= steps; i++) {
  float t = i / float(steps);
  float x = bezierPoint(85, 10, 90, 15, t);
  float y = bezierPoint(20, 10, 90, 80, t);
  float tx = bezierTangent(85, 10, 90, 15, t);
  float ty = bezierTangent(20, 10, 90, 80, t);
  float a = atan2(ty, tx);
  a -= HALF_PI;
  line(x, y, cos(a)*8 + x, sin(a)*8 + y);
}

```

Description Calculates the tangent of a point on a Bezier curve. There is a good definition of [tangent on Wikipedia](#).

Syntax `bezierTangent(a, b, c, d, t)`
afloat: coordinate of first point on the curve
bfloat: coordinate of first control point

Parameters
cfloat: coordinate of second control point
dfloat: coordinate of second point on the curve
tfloat: value between 0 and 1

Returns float

[bezier\(\)](#)

Related [bezierVertex\(\)](#)
[curvePoint\(\)](#)

Name `curve()`

Examples `noFill();
stroke(255, 102, 0);
curve(5, 26, 5, 26, 73, 24, 73, 61);
stroke(0);
curve(5, 26, 73, 24, 73, 61, 15, 65);
stroke(255, 102, 0);
curve(73, 24, 73, 61, 15, 65, 15, 65);`

Description Draws a curved line on the screen. The first and second parameters specify the beginning control point and the last two parameters specify the ending control point. The middle parameters specify the start and stop of the curve. Longer curves can be created by putting a series of `curve()` functions together or using `curveVertex()`. An additional function called `curveTightness()` provides control for the visual quality of the curve. The `curve()` function is an implementation of Catmull-Rom splines. Using the 3D version requires rendering with P3D (see the Environment reference for more information).

Syntax `curve(x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4)`
`curve(x1, y1, z1, x2, y2, z2, x3, y3, z3, x4, y4, z4)`

Parameters
x1float: coordinates for the beginning control point

y1float: coordinates for the beginning control point
x2float: coordinates for the first point
y2float: coordinates for the first point
x3float: coordinates for the second point
y3float: coordinates for the second point
x4float: coordinates for the ending control point
y4float: coordinates for the ending control point
z1float: coordinates for the beginning control point
z2float: coordinates for the first point
z3float: coordinates for the second point
z4float: coordinates for the ending control point

Returns void

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

Related [curveTightness\(\)](#)

[bezier\(\)](#)

Name

[curveDetail\(\)](#)

Examples

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P3D);  
    noFill();  
    noLoop();  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    curveDetail(1);  
    drawCurves(-15);  
    stroke(126);  
    curveDetail(2);  
    drawCurves(0);  
    stroke(255);  
    curveDetail(4);  
    drawCurves(15);  
}  
  
void drawCurves(float y) {  
    curve( 5, 28+y, 5, 28+y, 73, 26+y, 73, 63+y);  
    curve( 5, 28+y, 73, 26+y, 73, 63+y, 15, 67+y);  
    curve(73, 26+y, 73, 63+y, 15, 67+y, 15, 67+y);  
}
```

Sets the resolution at which curves display. The default value is 20. This function **Description** is only useful when using the P3D renderer as the default P2D renderer does not use this information.

Syntax `curveDetail(detail)`

Parameters `detail`: resolution of the curves

Returns void

[curve\(\)](#)

Related [curveVertex\(\)](#)

[curveTightness\(\)](#)

Name [curvePoint\(\)](#)

```
noFill();
curve(5, 26, 5, 26, 73, 24, 73, 61);
curve(5, 26, 73, 24, 73, 61, 15, 65);
fill(255);
ellipseMode(CENTER);
int steps = 6;
```

Examples for (int i = 0; i <= steps; i++) {
 float t = i / float(steps);
 float x = curvePoint(5, 5, 73, 73, t);
 float y = curvePoint(26, 26, 24, 61, t);
 ellipse(x, y, 5, 5);
 x = curvePoint(5, 73, 73, 15, t);
 y = curvePoint(26, 24, 61, 65, t);
 ellipse(x, y, 5, 5);
}

Evaluates the curve at point **t** for points **a**, **b**, **c**, **d**. The parameter **t** may range from 0 (the start of the curve) and 1 (the end of the curve). **a** and **d** are points on

Description the curve, and **b** and **c** are the control points. This can be used once with the **x** coordinates and a second time with the **y** coordinates to get the location of a curve at **t**.

Syntax `curvePoint(a, b, c, d, t)`

afloat: coordinate of first point on the curve

bfloat: coordinate of second point on the curve

Parameters **c**float: coordinate of third point on the curve

dfloat: coordinate of fourth point on the curve

tfloat: value between 0 and 1

Returns float

[curve\(\)](#)

Related [curveVertex\(\)](#)

[bezierPoint\(\)](#)

Name [curveTangent\(\)](#)

```
noFill();
curve(5, 26, 73, 24, 73, 61, 15, 65);
int steps = 6;
for (int i = 0; i <= steps; i++) {
    float t = i / float(steps);
    float x = curvePoint(5, 73, 73, 15, t);
    float y = curvePoint(26, 24, 61, 65, t);
    //ellipse(x, y, 5, 5);
    float tx = curveTangent(5, 73, 73, 15, t);
    float ty = curveTangent(26, 24, 61, 65, t);
    float a = atan2(ty, tx);
    a -= PI/2.0;
    line(x, y, cos(a)*8 + x, sin(a)*8 + y);
}
```

Examples

Description Calculates the tangent of a point on a curve. There's a good definition of [tangent on Wikipedia](#).

Syntax `curveTangent(a, b, c, d, t)`

afloat: coordinate of first point on the curve

bfloat: coordinate of first control point

Parameters **c**float: coordinate of second control point

dfloat: coordinate of second point on the curve

tfloat: value between 0 and 1

Returns float

[curve\(\)](#)

Related [curveVertex\(\)](#)

[curvePoint\(\)](#)

[bezierTangent\(\)](#)

Name

[curveTightness\(\)](#)

```
// Move the mouse left and right to see the curve change
```

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100);  
    noFill();  
}
```

```
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    float t = map(mouseX, 0, width, -5, 5);  
    curveTightness(t);  
    beginShape();  
    curveVertex(10, 26);  
    curveVertex(10, 26);  
    curveVertex(83, 24);  
    curveVertex(83, 61);  
    curveVertex(25, 65);  
    curveVertex(25, 65);  
    endShape();  
}
```

Examples

Modifies the quality of forms created with [curve\(\)](#) and [curveVertex\(\)](#). The parameter **tightness** determines how the curve fits to the vertex points. The value 0.0 is the default value for **tightness** (this value defines the curves to be Catmull-Rom splines) and the value 1.0 connects all the points with straight lines. Values within the range -5.0 and 5.0 will deform the curves but will leave them recognizable and as values increase in magnitude, they will continue to deform.

Syntax `curveTightness(tightness)`

Parameter **tightness** float: amount of deformation from the original vertices

Returns void

Related [curve\(\)](#)

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

Name

[box\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(58, 48, 0);
rotateY(0.5);
noFill();
box(40);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(58, 48, 0);
rotateY(0.5);
noFill();
box(40, 20, 50);
```

Description A box is an extruded rectangle. A box with equal dimensions on all sides is a cube.

Syntax `box(size)`
`box(w, h, d)`

size float: dimension of the box in all dimensions (creates a cube)

Parameters `w` float: dimension of the box in the x-dimension

`h` float: dimension of the box in the y-dimension

`d` float: dimension of the box in the z-dimension

Returns void

Related [sphere\(\)](#)

Name

sphere()

Examples `noStroke();`
`lights();`
`translate(58, 48, 0);`
`sphere(28);`

Description A sphere is a hollow ball made from tessellated triangles.

Syntax `sphere(r)`

Parameters `r` float: the radius of the sphere

Returns void

Related [sphereDetail\(\)](#)

Name

sphereDetail()

```
void setup() {
    size(100, 100, P3D);
}
```

```
void draw() {
    background(200);
    stroke(255, 50);
    translate(50, 50, 0);
    rotateX(mouseY * 0.05);
    rotateY(mouseX * 0.05);
    fill(mouseX * 2, 0, 160);
    sphereDetail(mouseX / 4);
```

Examples

```
    sphere(40);  
}
```

Controls the detail used to render a sphere by adjusting the number of vertices of the sphere mesh. The default resolution is 30, which creates a fairly detailed sphere definition with vertices every $360/30 = 12$ degrees. If you're going to render a great number of spheres per frame, it is advised to reduce the level of detail using this function. The setting stays active until **sphereDetail()** is called again with a new parameter and so should *not* be called prior to every **sphere()** statement, unless you wish to render spheres with different settings, e.g. using less detail for smaller spheres or ones further away from the camera. To control the detail of the horizontal and vertical resolution independently, use the version of the functions with two parameters.

Syntax

```
sphereDetail(res)  
sphereDetail(ures, vres)
```

res int: number of segments (minimum 3) used per full circle revolution

Parameters **ures** int: number of segments used longitudinally per full circle revolution

vres int: number of segments used latitudinally from top to bottom

Returns void

Related [sphere\(\)](#)

Name

ellipseMode()

```
ellipseMode(RADIUS); // Set ellipseMode to RADIUS  
fill(255); // Set fill to white  
ellipse(50, 50, 30, 30); // Draw white ellipse using RADIUS mode  
  
ellipseMode(CENTER); // Set ellipseMode to CENTER  
fill(100); // Set fill to gray  
ellipse(50, 50, 30, 30); // Draw gray ellipse using CENTER mode
```

Examples

```
ellipseMode(CORNER); // Set ellipseMode to CORNER  
fill(255); // Set fill to white  
ellipse(25, 25, 50, 50); // Draw white ellipse using CORNER mode
```

```
ellipseMode(CORNERS); // Set ellipseMode to CORNERS  
fill(100); // Set fill to gray  
ellipse(25, 25, 50, 50); // Draw gray ellipse using CORNERS mode
```

Modifies the location from which ellipses are drawn by changing the way in which parameters given to **ellipse()** are interpreted.

The default mode is **ellipseMode(CENTER)**, which interprets the first two parameters of **ellipse()** as the shape's center point, while the third and fourth parameters are its width and height.

Description

ellipseMode(RADIUS) also uses the first two parameters of **ellipse()** as the shape's center point, but uses the third and fourth parameters to specify half of the shape's width and height.

ellipseMode(CORNER) interprets the first two parameters of **ellipse()** as the upper-left corner of the shape, while the third and fourth parameters are its width

and height.

ellipseMode(CORNERS) interprets the first two parameters of **ellipse()** as the location of one corner of the ellipse's bounding box, and the third and fourth parameters as the location of the opposite corner.

The parameter must be written in ALL CAPS because Processing is a case-sensitive language.

Syntax `ellipseMode(mode)`

Parameters mode int: either CENTER, RADIUS, CORNER, or CORNERS

Returns void

Related [ellipse\(\)](#)
[arc\(\)](#)

Name

[noSmooth\(\)](#)

```
background(0);
noStroke();
smooth();
ellipse(30, 48, 36, 36);
noSmooth();
ellipse(70, 48, 36, 36);
```

Examples Draws all geometry with jagged (aliased) edges. Note that **smooth()** is active by default, so it is necessary to call **noSmooth()** to disable smoothing of geometry, images, and fonts.

Syntax `noSmooth()`

Returns void

Related [smooth\(\)](#)

Name

[rectMode\(\)](#)

```
rectMode(CORNER); // Default rectMode is CORNER
fill(255); // Set fill to white
rect(25, 25, 50, 50); // Draw white rect using CORNER mode

rectMode(CORNERS); // Set rectMode to CORNERS
fill(100); // Set fill to gray
rect(25, 25, 50, 50); // Draw gray rect using CORNERS mode
```

Examples

```
rectMode(RADIUS); // Set rectMode to RADIUS
fill(255); // Set fill to white
rect(50, 50, 30, 30); // Draw white rect using RADIUS mode

rectMode(CENTER); // Set rectMode to CENTER
fill(100); // Set fill to gray
rect(50, 50, 30, 30); // Draw gray rect using CENTER mode
```

Description Modifies the location from which rectangles are drawn by changing the way in

which parameters given to **rect()** are interpreted.

The default mode is **rectMode(CORNER)**, which interprets the first two parameters of **rect()** as the upper-left corner of the shape, while the third and fourth parameters are its width and height.

rectMode(CORNERS) interprets the first two parameters of **rect()** as the location of one corner, and the third and fourth parameters as the location of the opposite corner.

rectMode(CENTER) interprets the first two parameters of **rect()** as the shape's center point, while the third and fourth parameters are its width and height.

rectMode(RADIUS) also uses the first two parameters of **rect()** as the shape's center point, but uses the third and fourth parameters to specify half of the shapes's width and height.

The parameter must be written in ALL CAPS because Processing is a case-sensitive language.

Syntax `rectMode (mode)`

Parameters `mode`: either CORNER, CORNERS, CENTER, or RADIUS

Returns void

Related [rect\(\)](#)

Name

[smooth\(\)](#)

Examples

```
background(0);
noStroke();
smooth();
ellipse(30, 48, 36, 36);
noSmooth();
ellipse(70, 48, 36, 36);
```

Draws all geometry with smooth (anti-aliased) edges. **smooth()** will also improve image quality of resized images. Note that **smooth()** is active by default; **noSmooth()** can be used to disable smoothing of geometry, images, and fonts.

The **level** parameter increases the level of smoothness with the P2D and P3D renderers. This is the level of over sampling applied to the graphics buffer. The value "2" will double the rendering size before scaling it down to the display size.

Description This is called "2x anti-aliasing." The value 4 is used for 4x anti-aliasing and 8 is specified for 8x anti-aliasing. If **level** is set to 0, it will disable all smoothing; it's the equivalent of the function **noSmooth()**. The maximum anti-aliasing level is determined by the hardware of the machine that is running the software.

With the default renderer, **smooth(2)** is bilinear and **smooth(4)** is bicubic.

Nothing implemented on Android 2D.

Syntax

`smooth()`
`smooth(level)`

Parameters `level`: either 2, 4, or 8

Returns void
Related [noSmooth\(\)](#)
[size\(\)](#)

Name [strokeCap\(\)](#)

Examples strokeWeight(12.0);
strokeCap(ROUND);
line(20, 30, 80, 30);
strokeCap(SQUARE);
line(20, 50, 80, 50);
strokeCap(PROJECT);
line(20, 70, 80, 70);

Description Sets the style for rendering line endings. These ends are either squared, extended, or rounded, each of which specified with the corresponding parameters:

SQUARE, PROJECT, and ROUND. The default cap is ROUND.

Syntax strokeCap(cap)

Parameters cap: either SQUARE, PROJECT, or ROUND

Returns void
[stroke\(\)](#)
[strokeWeight\(\)](#)
Related [strokeJoin\(\)](#)
[size\(\)](#)

Name [strokeJoin\(\)](#)

```
noFill();  
strokeWeight(10.0);  
strokeJoin(MITER);  
beginShape();  
vertex(35, 20);  
vertex(65, 50);  
vertex(35, 80);  
endShape();
```

Examples noFill();
strokeWeight(10.0);
strokeJoin(BEVEL);
beginShape();
vertex(35, 20);
vertex(65, 50);
vertex(35, 80);
endShape();

```
noFill();  
strokeWeight(10.0);  
strokeJoin(ROUND);
```

```
beginShape();
vertex(35, 20);
vertex(65, 50);
vertex(35, 80);
endShape();
```

Sets the style of the joints which connect line segments. These joints are either

Descriptionmitered, beveled, or rounded and specified with the corresponding parameters

MITER, BEVEL, and ROUND. The default joint is MITER.

Syntax [strokeJoin\(join\)](#)

Parametersjoinint: either MITER, BEVEL, ROUND

Returns void

[stroke\(\)](#)

Related [strokeWeight\(\)](#)

[strokeCap\(\)](#)

Name

[strokeWeight\(\)](#)

```
strokeWeight(1); // Default
line(20, 20, 80, 20);
strokeWeight(4); // Thicker
line(20, 40, 80, 40);
strokeWeight(10); // Beastly
line(20, 70, 80, 70);
```

Description Sets the width of the stroke used for lines, points, and the border around shapes.
All widths are set in units of pixels.

Syntax [strokeWeight\(weight\)](#)

Parametersweightfloat: the weight (in pixels) of the stroke

Returns void

[stroke\(\)](#)

Related [strokeJoin\(\)](#)

[strokeCap\(\)](#)

Name

[beginContour\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P2D);
translate(50, 50);
stroke(255, 0, 0);
beginShape();
// Exterior part of shape
vertex(-40, -40);
vertex(40, -40);
vertex(40, 40);
vertex(-40, 40);
// Interior part of shape
beginContour();
vertex(-20, -20);
vertex(20, -20);
vertex(20, 20);
```

Examples

```
vertex(-20, 20);
endContour();
endShape(CLOSE);
```

Use the **beginContour()** and **endContour()** function to create negative shapes within shapes. For instance, the center of the letter 'O'. **beginContour()** begins recording vertices for the shape and **endContour()** stops recording. These functions can only be within a **beginShape()/endShape()** pair and they only

Description work with the P2D and P3D renderers.

Transformations such as **translate()**, **rotate()**, and **scale()** do not work within a **beginContour()/endContour()** pair. It is also not possible to use other shapes, such as **ellipse()** or **rect()** within.

Syntax beginContour()

Returns void

Name

beginShape()

```
beginShape();
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape(CLOSE);
```

```
beginShape(POINTS);
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape();
```

beginShape(LINES);

Examples

```
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape();
```

```
noFill();
beginShape();
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape();
```

```
noFill();
beginShape();
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
```

```
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape(CLOSE);

beginShape(TRIANGLES);
vertex(30, 75);
vertex(40, 20);
vertex(50, 75);
vertex(60, 20);
vertex(70, 75);
vertex(80, 20);
endShape();

beginShape(TRIANGLE_STRIP);
vertex(30, 75);
vertex(40, 20);
vertex(50, 75);
vertex(60, 20);
vertex(70, 75);
vertex(80, 20);
vertex(90, 75);
endShape();

beginShape(TRIANGLE_FAN);
vertex(57.5, 50);
vertex(57.5, 15);
vertex(92, 50);
vertex(57.5, 85);
vertex(22, 50);
vertex(57.5, 15);
endShape();

beginShape(QUADS);
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(30, 75);
vertex(50, 75);
vertex(50, 20);
vertex(65, 20);
vertex(65, 75);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(85, 20);
endShape();

beginShape(QUAD_STRIP);
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(30, 75);
vertex(50, 20);
vertex(50, 75);
vertex(65, 20);
vertex(65, 75);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
endShape();

beginShape();

```

```

vertex(20, 20);
vertex(40, 20);
vertex(40, 40);
vertex(60, 40);
vertex(60, 60);
vertex(20, 60);
endShape(CLOSE);

```

Using the **beginShape()** and **endShape()** functions allow creating more complex forms. **beginShape()** begins recording vertices for a shape and **endShape()** stops recording. The value of the **kind** parameter tells it which types of shapes to create from the provided vertices. With no mode specified, the shape can be any irregular polygon. The parameters available for **beginShape()** are POINTS, LINES, TRIANGLES, TRIANGLE_FAN, TRIANGLE_STRIP, QUADS, and QUAD_STRIP. After calling the **beginShape()** function, a series of **vertex()** commands must follow. To stop drawing the shape, call **endShape()**. The **vertex()** function with two parameters specifies a position in 2D and the **vertex()** function with three parameters specifies a position in 3D. Each shape will be outlined with the current stroke color and filled with the fill color.

Transformations such as **translate()**, **rotate()**, and **scale()** do not work within **beginShape()**. It is also not possible to use other shapes, such as **ellipse()** or **rect()** within **beginShape()**.

The P3D renderer settings allow **stroke()** and **fill()** settings to be altered per-vertex, but P2D and the default renderer do not. Settings such as **strokeWeight()**, **strokeCap()**, and **strokeJoin()** cannot be changed while inside a **beginShape()/endShape()** block with any renderer.

Syntax
beginShape()
beginShape(kind)

Parameters
kind: int: Either POINTS, LINES, TRIANGLES, TRIANGLE_FAN, TRIANGLE_STRIP, QUADS, or QUAD_STRIP

Returns void

[PShape](#)

[endShape\(\)](#)

Related
[vertex\(\)](#)
[curveVertex\(\)](#)
[bezierVertex\(\)](#)

Name
bezierVertex()

Examples

```

noFill();
beginShape();
vertex(30, 20);
bezierVertex(80, 0, 80, 75, 30, 75);
endShape();

```

```

beginShape();
vertex(30, 20);
bezierVertex(80, 0, 80, 75, 30, 75);
bezierVertex(50, 80, 60, 25, 30, 20);

```

```
endShape();
```

Specifies vertex coordinates for Bezier curves. Each call to **bezierVertex()** defines the position of two control points and one anchor point of a Bezier curve, adding a new segment to a line or shape. The first time **bezierVertex()** is used within a **beginShape()** call, it must be prefaced with a call to **vertex()** to set the first anchor point. This function must be used between **beginShape()** and **endShape()** and only when there is no MODE parameter specified to **beginShape()**. Using the 3D version requires rendering with P3D (see the Environment reference for more information).

Syntax

```
bezierVertex(x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4)  
bezierVertex(x2, y2, z2, x3, y3, z3, x4, y4, z4)
```

x2float: the x-coordinate of the 1st control point

y2float: the y-coordinate of the 1st control point

z2float: the z-coordinate of the 1st control point

x3float: the x-coordinate of the 2nd control point

y3float: the y-coordinate of the 2nd control point

z3float: the z-coordinate of the 2nd control point

x4float: the x-coordinate of the anchor point

y4float: the y-coordinate of the anchor point

z4float: the z-coordinate of the anchor point

Returns

void

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

Related

[vertex\(\)](#)

[quadraticVertex\(\)](#)

[bezier\(\)](#)

Name

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

```
noFill();  
beginShape();  
curveVertex(84, 91);  
curveVertex(84, 91);  
curveVertex(68, 19);  
curveVertex(21, 17);  
curveVertex(32, 100);  
curveVertex(32, 100);  
endShape();
```

Specifies vertex coordinates for curves. This function may only be used between **beginShape()** and **endShape()** and only when there is no MODE parameter specified to **beginShape()**. The first and last points in a series of **curveVertex()** lines will be used to guide the beginning and end of a the curve. A minimum of

Descriptionfour points is required to draw a tiny curve between the second and third points. Adding a fifth point with **curveVertex()** will draw the curve between the second, third, and fourth points. The **curveVertex()** function is an implementation of Catmull-Rom splines. Using the 3D version requires rendering with P3D (see the Environment reference for more information).

Syntax

```
curveVertex(x, y)
```

```
curveVertex(x, y, z)
```

xfloat: the x-coordinate of the vertex

yfloat: the y-coordinate of the vertex

zfloat: the z-coordinate of the vertex

Returns void

[curve\(\)](#)
[beginShape\(\)](#)

Related

[endShape\(\)](#)
[vertex\(\)](#)
[bezier\(\)](#)
[quadraticVertex\(\)](#)

Name

endContour()

```
size(100, 100, P2D);
translate(50, 50);
stroke(255, 0, 0);
beginShape();
// Exterior part of shape
vertex(-40, -40);
vertex(40, -40);
vertex(40, 40);
vertex(-40, 40);
// Interior part of shape
beginContour();
vertex(-20, -20);
vertex(20, -20);
vertex(20, 20);
vertex(-20, 20);
endContour();
endShape(CLOSE);
```

Examples

Use the **beginContour()** and **endContour()** function to create negative shapes within shapes. For instance, the center of the letter 'O'. **beginContour()** begins recording vertices for the shape and **endContour()** stops recording. These functions can only be within a **beginShape()/endShape()** pair and they only

Description work with the P2D and P3D renderers.

Transformations such as **translate()**, **rotate()**, and **scale()** do not work within a **beginContour()/endContour()** pair. It is also not possible to use other shapes, such as **ellipse()** or **rect()** within.

Syntax `endContour()`

Returns void

Name

endShape()

```
noFill();
```

Examples

```
beginShape();
vertex(20, 20);
vertex(45, 20);
vertex(45, 80);
```

```
endShape (CLOSE) ;  
  
beginShape () ;  
vertex (50, 20) ;  
vertex (75, 20) ;  
vertex (75, 80) ;  
endShape () ;
```

The **endShape()** function is the companion to **beginShape()** and may only be called after **beginShape()**. When **endshape()** is called, all of image data defined

Descriptions since the previous call to **beginShape()** is written into the image buffer. The constant CLOSE as the value for the MODE parameter to close the shape (to connect the beginning and the end).

Syntax
endShape ()
endShape (mode)

Parameters mode: int: use CLOSE to close the shape

Returns void

Related [PShape](#)

[beginShape\(\)](#)

Name
[quadraticVertex\(\)](#)

```
noFill () ;  
strokeWeight (4) ;  
beginShape () ;  
vertex (20, 20) ;  
quadraticVertex (80, 20, 50, 50) ;  
endShape () ;
```

Examples

```
noFill () ;  
strokeWeight (4) ;  
beginShape () ;  
vertex (20, 20) ;  
quadraticVertex (80, 20, 50, 50) ;  
quadraticVertex (20, 80, 80, 80) ;  
vertex (80, 60) ;  
endShape () ;
```

Specifies vertex coordinates for quadratic Bezier curves. Each call to **quadraticVertex()** defines the position of one control points and one anchor point of a Bezier curve, adding a new segment to a line or shape. The first time **quadraticVertex()** is used within a **beginShape()** call, it must be prefaced with a call to **vertex()** to set the first anchor point. This function must be used between **beginShape()** and **endShape()** and only when there is no MODE parameter specified to **beginShape()**. Using the 3D version requires rendering with P3D (see the Environment reference for more information).

Syntax
quadraticVertex(cx, cy, x3, y3)
quadraticVertex(cx, cy, cz, x3, y3, z3)

cxfloat: the x-coordinate of the control point
cyfloat: the y-coordinate of the control point

Parameters
x3float: the x-coordinate of the anchor point
y3float: the y-coordinate of the anchor point
czfloat: the z-coordinate of the control point

z float: the z-coordinate of the anchor point

Returns void

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

Related [vertex\(\)](#)

[bezierVertex\(\)](#)

[bezier\(\)](#)

Name

vertex()

```
beginShape(POINTS);
vertex(30, 20);
vertex(85, 20);
vertex(85, 75);
vertex(30, 75);
endShape();

// Drawing vertices in 3D requires P3D
// as a parameter to size()
size(100, 100, P3D);
beginShape(POINTS);
vertex(30, 20, -50);
vertex(85, 20, -50);
vertex(85, 75, -50);
vertex(30, 75, -50);
endShape();
```

Examples `vertex(30, 75, -50);`
`endShape();`

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
PImage img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
noStroke();
beginShape();
texture(img);
// "laDefense.jpg" is 100x100 pixels in size so
// the values 0 and 100 are used for the
// parameters "u" and "v" to map it directly
// to the vertex points
vertex(10, 20, 0, 0);
vertex(80, 5, 100, 0);
vertex(95, 90, 100, 100);
vertex(40, 95, 0, 100);
endShape();
```

All shapes are constructed by connecting a series of vertices. **vertex()** is used to specify the vertex coordinates for points, lines, triangles, quads, and polygons. It is used exclusively within the **beginShape()** and **endShape()** functions.

Drawing a vertex in 3D using the **z** parameter requires the P3D parameter in **size**, as shown in the above example.

This function is also used to map a texture onto geometry. The **texture()** function declares the texture to apply to the geometry and the **u** and **v** coordinates set define the mapping of this texture to the form. By default, the coordinates used for **u** and **v** are specified in relation to the image's size in pixels, but this relation

can be changed with **textureMode()**.

```
vertex(x, y)
vertex(x, y, z)
vertex(v)
vertex(x, y, u, v)
vertex(x, y, z, u, v)
    float[]: vertex parameters, as a float array of length
    VERTEX_FIELD_COUNT
```

xfloat: x-coordinate of the vertex

yfloat: y-coordinate of the vertex

zfloat: z-coordinate of the vertex

ufloat: horizontal coordinate for the texture mapping

vfloat: vertical coordinate for the texture mapping

Returns void

[beginShape\(\)](#)

[endShape\(\)](#)

[bezierVertex\(\)](#)

[quadraticVertex\(\)](#)

[curveVertex\(\)](#)

[texture\(\)](#)

Name

shape()

```
PShape s;

void setup() {
    s = loadShape("bot.svg");
}
```

```
void draw() {
    shape(s, 10, 10, 80, 80);
}
```

Draws shapes to the display window. Shapes must be in the sketch's "data" directory to load correctly. Select "Add file..." from the "Sketch" menu to add the shape. Processing currently works with SVG, OBJ, and custom-created shapes.

Description The **shape** parameter specifies the shape to display and the coordinate parameters define the location of the shape from its upper-left corner. The shape is displayed at its original size unless the **c** and **d** parameters specify a different size. The **shapeMode()** function can be used to change the way these parameters are interpreted.

shape(shape)

shape(shape, x, y)

shape(shape, a, b, c, d)

shapePShape: the shape to display

x float: x-coordinate of the shape

y float: y-coordinate of the shape

a float: x-coordinate of the shape

b float: y-coordinate of the shape

c float: width to display the shape

d float: height to display the shape

Syntax

Returns void
[PShape](#)
Related [loadShape\(\)](#)
[shapeMode\(\)](#)

Name
[shapeMode\(\)](#)

```
PShape bot

void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
    bot = loadShape("bot.svg");
}

void draw() {
    shapeMode(CENTER);
    shape(bot, 35, 35, 50, 50);
    shapeMode(CORNER);
    shape(bot, 35, 35, 50, 50);
}
```

Examples

Modifies the location from which shapes draw. The default mode is **shapeMode(CORNER)**, which specifies the location to be the upper left corner of the shape and uses the third and fourth parameters of **shape()** to specify the width and height. The syntax **shapeMode(CORNERS)** uses the first and second parameters of **shape()** to set the location of one corner and uses the third and fourth parameters to set the opposite corner. The syntax **shapeMode(CENTER)** draws the shape from its center point and uses the third and forth parameters of **shape()** to specify the width and height. The parameter must be written in "ALL CAPS" because Processing is a case sensitive language.

Syntax `shapeMode(mode)`
Parameters mode: either CORNER, CORNERS, CENTER
Returns void
[PShape](#)
Related [shape\(\)](#)
[rectMode\(\)](#)

Name
[mouseButton](#)

```
// Click within the image and press
// the left and right mouse buttons to
// change the value of the rectangle
void draw() {
    if (mousePressed && (mouseButton == LEFT)) {
        fill(0);
    } else if (mousePressed && (mouseButton == RIGHT)) {
        fill(255);
    } else {
        fill(126);
    }
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Examples

```
}

// Click within the image and press
// the left and right mouse buttons to
// change the value of the rectangle
void draw() {
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}

void mousePressed() {
    if (mouseButton == LEFT) {
        fill(0);
    } else if (mouseButton == RIGHT) {
        fill(255);
    } else {
        fill(126);
    }
}
```

Processing automatically tracks if the mouse button is pressed and which button **Description** is pressed. The value of the system variable **mouseButton** is either **LEFT**, **RIGHT**, or **CENTER** depending on which button is pressed.

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Related

[mousePressed](#)

[mouseReleased\(\)](#)

[mouseMoved\(\)](#)

[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mouseClicked()

```
// Click within the image to change
// the value of the rectangle after
// after the mouse has been clicked

int value = 0;

void draw() {
    fill(value);
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}

void mouseClicked() {
    if (value == 0) {
        value = 255;
    } else {
        value = 0;
    }
}
```

Description The **mouseClicked()** function is called once after a mouse button has been pressed and then released.

Syntax

[mouseClicked\(\)](#)

[mouseClicked\(event\)](#)

Returns

void

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Related

[mouseButton](#)

[mousePressed](#)
[mouseReleased\(\)](#)
[mouseMoved\(\)](#)
[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name [**mouseDragged\(\)**](#)

```
// Drag (click and hold) your mouse across the
// image to change the value of the rectangle

int value = 0;

void draw() {
    fill(value);
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}
```

Examples }

```
void mouseDragged()
{
    value = value + 5;
    if (value > 255) {
        value = 0;
    }
}
```

Description The **mouseDragged()** function is called once every time the mouse moves and a mouse button is pressed.

Syntax `mouseDragged()`
`mouseDragged(event)`

Returns `void`

[mouseX](#)
[mouseY](#)

Related [mousePressed](#)
[mousePressed](#)
[mouseReleased\(\)](#)
[mouseMoved\(\)](#)

Name [**mouseMoved\(\)**](#)

```
// Move the mouse across the image
// to change its value

int value = 0;

void draw() {
    fill(value);
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}

void mouseMoved() {
    value = value + 5;
    if (value > 255) {
        value = 0;
    }
}
```

Examples }

```
}
```

Description The **mouseMoved()** function is called every time the mouse moves and a mouse button is not pressed.

Syntax `mouseMoved()
mouseMoved(event)`

Returns `void`

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Related [mousePressed](#)

[mousePressed](#)

[mouseReleased\(\)](#)

[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mousePressed()

```
// Click within the image to change  
// the value of the rectangle
```

```
int value = 0;
```

```
void draw() {  
    fill(value);  
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Examples }

```
void mousePressed() {  
    if (value == 0) {  
        value = 255;  
    } else {  
        value = 0;  
    }  
}
```

The **mousePressed()** function is called once after every time a mouse button is

Description pressed. The **mouseButton** variable (see the related reference entry) can be used to determine which button has been pressed.

Syntax `mousePressed()
mousePressed(event)`

Returns `void`

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

[mousePressed](#)

Related [mouseButton](#)

[mouseReleased\(\)](#)

[mouseMoved\(\)](#)

[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mousePressed

```
// Click within the image to change
```

```
// the value of the rectangle
```

Examples `void draw() {
 if (mousePressed == true) {`

```
        fill(0);
    } else {
        fill(255);
    }
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}
```

Variable storing if a mouse button is pressed. The value of the system variable

Description**mousePressed** is true if a mouse button is pressed and false if a button is not pressed.

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Related [mouseReleased\(\)](#)

[mouseMoved\(\)](#)

[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mouseReleased()

```
// Click within the image to change
// the value of the rectangle

int value = 0;

void draw() {
    fill(value);
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Examples }

```
void mouseReleased() {
    if (value == 0) {
        value = 255;
    } else {
        value = 0;
    }
}
```

DescriptionThe **mouseReleased()** function is called every time a mouse button is released.

Syntax [mouseReleased\(\)](#)

[mouseReleased\(event\)](#)

Returns void

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

[mousePressed](#)

Related [mouseButton](#)

[mousePressed](#)

[mouseMoved\(\)](#)

[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mouseWheel()

```
void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
```

Examples }

```
void draw() {}
```

```
void mouseWheel(MouseEvent event) {  
    float e = event.getAmount();  
    println(e);  
}
```

The `event.getAmount()` method returns negative values if the mouse wheel has rotated up or away from the user and positive in the other direction. On OS X with "natural" scrolling enabled, the values are opposite.

Syntax `mouseWheel(event)`

Parameters `MouseEvent`: the `MouseEvent`

Returns `void`

Name

mouseX

```
void draw()  
{  
Examples    background(204);  
              line(mouseX, 20, mouseX, 80);  
}
```

Description The system variable **mouseX** always contains the current horizontal coordinate of the mouse.

[mouseY](#)
[mousePressed](#)
[mousePressed](#)
Related [mouseReleased\(\)](#)
[mouseMoved\(\)](#)
[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

mouseY

```
void draw()  
{  
Examples    background(204);  
              line(20, mouseY, 80, mouseY);  
}
```

Description The system variable **mouseY** always contains the current vertical coordinate of the mouse.

[mouseX](#)
[mousePressed](#)
[mousePressed](#)
Related [mouseReleased\(\)](#)
[mouseMoved\(\)](#)
[mouseDragged\(\)](#)

Name

pmouseX

Examples // Move the mouse quickly to see the difference
// between the current and previous position

```

void draw() {
    background(204);
    line(mouseX, 20, pmouseX, 80);
    println(mouseX + " : " + pmouseX);
}

```

The system variable **pmouseX** always contains the horizontal position of the mouse in the frame previous to the current frame.

You may find that **pmouseX** and **pmouseY** have different values inside **draw()** and inside events like **mousePressed()** and **mouseMoved()**. This is because they're used for different roles, so don't mix them. Inside **draw()**, **pmouseX** and **pmouseY** update only once per frame (once per trip through your **draw()**). But,

Description inside mouse events, they update each time the event is called. If they weren't separated, then the mouse would be read only once per frame, making response choppy. If the mouse variables were always updated multiple times per frame, using **line(pmouseX, pmouseY, mouseX, mouseY)** inside **draw()** would have lots of gaps, because **pmouseX** may have changed several times in between the calls to **line()**. Use **pmouseX** and **pmouseY** inside **draw()** if you want values relative to the previous frame. Use **pmouseX** and **pmouseY** inside the mouse functions if you want continuous response.

[pmouseY](#)

Related

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Name

[**pmouseY**](#)

```

// Move the mouse quickly to see the difference
// between the current and previous position
void draw() {

```

Examples

```

    background(204);
    line(20, mouseY, 80, pmouseY);
    println(mouseY + " : " + pmouseY);
}

```

The system variable **pmouseY** always contains the vertical position of the mouse in the frame previous to the current frame.

Description More detailed information about how **pmouseY** is updated inside of **draw()** and mouse events is explained in the reference for **pmouseX**.

[pmouseX](#)

Related

[mouseX](#)

[mouseY](#)

Name

[**key**](#)

```

// Click on the window to give it focus,
// and press the 'B' key.

```

Examples

```

void draw() {
    if (keyPressed) {
        if (key == 'b' || key == 'B') {
            fill(0);
        }
    }
}

```

```
    } else {
      fill(255);
    }
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}
```

The system variable **key** always contains the value of the most recent key on the keyboard that was used (either pressed or released).

Description For non-ASCII keys, use the **keyCode** variable. The keys included in the ASCII specification (BACKSPACE, TAB, ENTER, RETURN, ESC, and DELETE) do not require checking to see if they key is coded, and you should simply use the **key** variable instead of **keyCode**. If you're making cross-platform projects, note that the ENTER key is commonly used on PCs and Unix and the RETURN key is used instead on Macintosh. Check for both ENTER and RETURN to make sure your program will work for all platforms.

[keyCode](#)

Related [keyPressed](#)

[keyPressed](#)

[keyReleased\(\)](#)

Name

keyCode

```
color fillVal = color(126);

void draw() {
  fill(fillVal);
  rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}

void keyPressed() {
  if (key == CODED) {
    if (keyCode == UP) {
      fillVal = 255;
    } else if (keyCode == DOWN) {
      fillVal = 0;
    }
  } else {
    fillVal = 126;
  }
}
```

Examples

The variable **keyCode** is used to detect special keys such as the UP, DOWN, LEFT, RIGHT arrow keys and ALT, CONTROL, SHIFT. When checking for these keys, it's first necessary to check and see if the key is coded. This is done with the conditional "if (key == CODED)" as shown in the example.

Description The keys included in the ASCII specification (BACKSPACE, TAB, ENTER, RETURN, ESC, and DELETE) do not require checking to see if they key is coded, and you should simply use the **key** variable instead of **keyCode**. If you're making cross-platform projects, note that the ENTER key is commonly used on PCs and Unix and the RETURN key is used instead on Macintosh. Check for both ENTER and RETURN to make sure your program will work for all platforms.

For users familiar with Java, the values for UP and DOWN are simply shorter versions of Java's KeyEvent.VK_UP and KeyEvent.VK_DOWN. Other keyCode values can be found in the Java [KeyEvent](#) reference.

[key](#)

Related
[keyPressed](#)
[keyCode](#)
[keyReleased\(\)](#)

Name
[keyPressed\(\)](#)

```
// Click on the image to give it focus,  
// and then press any key.  
  
int value = 0;  
  
void draw() {  
    fill(value);  
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Examples }

```
void keyPressed() {  
    if (value == 0) {  
        value = 255;  
    } else {  
        value = 0;  
    }  
}
```

The **keyPressed()** function is called once every time a key is pressed. The key that was pressed is stored in the **key** variable.

Description For non-ASCII keys, use the **keyCode** variable. The keys included in the ASCII specification (BACKSPACE, TAB, ENTER, RETURN, ESC, and DELETE) do not require checking to see if they key is coded, and you should simply use the **key** variable instead of **keyCode**. If you're making cross-platform projects, note that the ENTER key is commonly used on PCs and Unix and the RETURN key is used instead on Macintosh. Check for both ENTER and RETURN to make sure your program will work for all platforms.

Because of how operating systems handle key repeats, holding down a key may cause multiple calls to **keyPressed()** (and **keyReleased()** as well). The rate of repeat is set by the operating system and how each computer is configured.

Syntax
[keyPressed\(\)](#)
[keyPressed\(event\)](#)

Returns void

[key](#)

Related
[keyCode](#)
[keyPressed](#)
[keyReleased\(\)](#)

Name
[keyPressed](#)

```
// Click on the image to give it focus,  
// and then press any key.  
  
// Note: The rectangle in this example may  
// flicker as the operating system may  
// register a long key press as a repetition  
// of key presses.
```

Examples

```
void draw() {  
    if (keyPressed == true) {  
        fill(0);  
    } else {  
        fill(255);  
    }  
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);  
}
```

Description The boolean system variable **keyPressed** is **true** if any key is pressed and **false** if no keys are pressed.

[key](#)

[keyCode](#)

Related

[keyPressed](#)

[keyReleased\(\)](#)

Name

[**keyReleased\(\)**](#)

```
// Click on the image to give it focus,  
// and then press any key.  
  
int value = 0;  
  
void draw() {  
    fill(value);  
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Examples

```
}  
  
void keyReleased() {  
    if (value == 0) {  
        value = 255;  
    } else {  
        value = 0;  
    }  
}
```

Description The **keyReleased()** function is called once every time a key is released. The key that was released will be stored in the **key** variable. See **key** and **keyReleased** for more information.

Syntax

[keyReleased\(\)](#)
[keyReleased\(event\)](#)

Returns

void

[key](#)

[keyCode](#)

Related

[keyPressed](#)

[keyPressed](#)

Name**keyTyped()**

```
// Run this program to learn how each of these functions
// relate to the others.

void draw() { } // Empty draw() needed to keep the program
running

void keyPressed() {
    println("pressed " + int(key) + " " + keyCode);
}

Examples
void keyTyped() {
    println("typed " + int(key) + " " + keyCode);
}

void keyReleased() {
    println("released " + int(key) + " " + keyCode);
}
```

Description The **keyTyped()** function is called once every time a key is pressed, but action keys such as Ctrl, Shift, and Alt are ignored. Because of how operating systems handle key repeats, holding down a key will cause multiple calls to **keyTyped()**, the rate is set by the operating system and how each computer is configured.

Syntax `keyTyped()`
`keyTyped(event)`

Returns `void`
[keyPressed](#)

Related [key](#)
[keyCode](#)
[keyReleased\(\)](#)

Name**BufferedReader**

```
BufferedReader reader;
String line;

void setup() {
    // Open the file from the createWriter() example
    reader = createReader("positions.txt");
}

void draw() {
    try {
        line = reader.readLine();
    } catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
        line = null;
    }
    if (line == null) {
        // Stop reading because of an error or file is empty
        noLoop();
    } else {
        String[] pieces = split(line, TAB);
        int x = int(pieces[0]);
```

```

        int y = int(pieces[1]);
        point(x, y);
    }
}

```

A **BufferedReader** object is used to read files line-by-line as individual **String** objects.

Description Starting with Processing release 0134, all files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding. In previous releases, the default encoding for your platform was used, which causes problems when files are moved to other platforms.

Parameter

s

[createReader\(\)](#)

Related [try](#)
[catch](#)

Name

[createInput\(\)](#)

```

// Load the local file 'data.txt' and initialize a new
InputStream
InputStream input = createInput("data.txt");

String content = "";

try {
    int data = input.read();
    while (data != -1) {
        content += data;
        data = input.read();
    }
}
catch (IOException e) {
    e.printStackTrace();
}
finally {
    try {
        input.close();
    }
    catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}

println(content);

```

This is a shorthand function for advanced programmers to initialize and open a Java InputStream. It's useful if you want to use the facilities provided by PApplet to easily open files from the data folder or from a URL, but you need an InputStream object so that you can use other parts of Java to take more control of how the stream is read.

Description

The filename passed in can be:

- A URL, as in: **createInput("http://processing.org/")**
- The name of a file in the sketch's **data** folder
- The full path to a file to be opened locally (when running as an application)

If the requested item doesn't exist, null is returned. If not online, this will also check to see if the user is asking for a file whose name isn't properly capitalized. If capitalization is different, an error will be printed to the console. This helps prevent issues that appear when a sketch is exported to the web, where case sensitivity matters, as opposed to running from inside the Processing Development Environment on Windows or Mac OS, where case sensitivity is preserved but ignored.

If the file ends with **.gz**, the stream will automatically be gzip decompressed. If you don't want the automatic decompression, use the related function **createInputRaw()**.

In earlier releases, this function was called **openStream()**.

Syntax `createInput(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: the name of the file to use as input

Returns `InputStream`

Related [createOutput\(\)](#)

Name

createReader()

```
BufferedReader reader;
String line;

void setup() {
    // Open the file from the createWriter() example
    reader = createReader("positions.txt");
}

void draw() {
    try {
        line = reader.readLine();
    } catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
        line = null;
    }
    if (line == null) {
        // Stop reading because of an error or file is empty
        noLoop();
    } else {
        String[] pieces = split(line, TAB);
        int x = int(pieces[0]);
        int y = int(pieces[1]);
        point(x, y);
    }
}
```

Examples

Creates a **BufferedReader** object that can be used to read files line-by-line as individual **String** objects. This is the complement to the **createWriter()** function.

Description

Starting with Processing release 0134, all files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding. In previous releases, the default encoding for your platform was used, which causes problems when files are moved to other platforms.

Syntax `createReader(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of the file to be opened

Returns `BufferedReader`

Related [createWriter\(\)](#)

Name

[loadBytes\(\)](#)

```
// Open a file and read its binary data
byte b[] = loadBytes("something.dat");

// Print each value, from 0 to 255
for (int i = 0; i < b.length; i++) {
    // Every tenth number, start a new line
    if ((i % 10) == 0) {
        println();
    }
    // bytes are from -128 to 127, this converts to 0 to 255
    int a = b[i] & 0xff;
    print(a + " ");
}
// Print a blank line at the end
println();
```

Examples

Reads the contents of a file and places it in a byte array. If the name of the file is used as the parameter, as in the above example, the file must be loaded in the sketch's "data" directory/folder.

Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive

Description letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a NullPointerException if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

Syntax `loadBytes(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of a file in the data folder or a URL.

Returns `byte[]`

[loadStrings\(\)](#)

Related [saveStrings\(\)](#)

[saveBytes\(\)](#)

Name

[loadJSONArray\(\)](#)

```
// The following short JSON file called "data.json" is parsed
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.
//
```

Examples // [

```
//   {
//     "id": 0,
//     "species": "Capra hircus",
```

```

//      "name": "Goat"
//    },
//  {
//    "id": 1,
//    "species": "Panthera pardus",
//    "name": "Leopard"
//  },
//  {
//    "id": 2,
//    "species": "Equus zebra",
//    "name": "Zebra"
//  }
// ]

JSONArray values;

void setup() {

  values = loadJSONArray("data.json");

  for (int i = 0; i < values.size(); i++) {

    JSONObject animal = values.getJSONObject(i);

    int id = animal.getInt("id");
    String species = animal.getString("species");
    String name = animal.getString("name");

    println(id + ", " + species + ", " + name);
  }
}

// Sketch prints:
// 0, Capra hircus, Goat
// 1, Panthera pardus, Leopard
// 2, Equus zebra, Zebra

```

Loads an array of JSON objects from the data folder or a URL, and returns a **JSONArray**. Per standard JSON syntax, the array must be enclosed in a pair of **Description** hard brackets [], and each object within the array must be separated by a comma.

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `loadJSONArray(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of a file in the data folder or a URL

Returns `JSONArray`

[JSONObject](#)

[JSONArray](#)

Related [loadJSONObject\(\)](#)

[saveJSONObject\(\)](#)

[saveJSONArray\(\)](#)

Name

[loadJSONObject\(\)](#)

// The following short JSON file called "data.json" is parsed
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.

Examples

//

// {

```

//   "id": 0,
//   "species": "Panthera leo",
//   "name": "Lion"
// }

JSONObject json;

void setup() {

    json = loadJSONObject("data.json");

    int id = json.getInt("id");
    String species = json.getString("species");
    String name = json.getString("name");

    println(id + ", " + species + ", " + name);
}

// Sketch prints:
// 0, Panthera leo, Lion

```

Loads a JSON from the data folder or a URL, and returns a **JSONObject**.

Description

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `loadJSONObject(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of a file in the data folder or a URL

Returns `JSONObject`

[JSONObject](#)

[JSONArray](#)

Related [loadJSONArray\(\)](#)

[saveJSONObject\(\)](#)

[saveJSONArray\(\)](#)

Name

loadStrings()

```

String lines[] = loadStrings("list.txt");
println("there are " + lines.length + " lines");
for (int i = 0 ; i < lines.length; i++) {
    println(lines[i]);
}

```

Examples

```

String lines[] =
loadStrings("http://processing.org/about/index.html");
println("there are " + lines.length + " lines");
for (int i = 0 ; i < lines.length; i++) {
    println(lines[i]);
}

```

Reads the contents of a file and creates a String array of its individual lines. If the name of the file is used as the parameter, as in the above example, the file must be loaded in the sketch's "data" directory/folder.

Description Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a NullPointerException if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

Starting with Processing release 0134, all files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding. In previous releases, the default encoding for your platform was used, which causes problems when files are moved to other platforms.

Syntax `loadStrings(filename)`
`loadStrings(reader)`

Parameters `filename` String: name of the file or url to load

Returns String[]

[loadBytes\(\)](#)

Related [saveStrings\(\)](#)

[saveBytes\(\)](#)

Name

[loadTable\(\)](#)

```
// The following short CSV file called "mammals.csv" is parsed
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.
//
// id,species,name
// 0,Capra hircus,Goat
// 1,Panthera pardus,Leopard
// 2,Equus zebra,Zebra
```

```
Table table;
```

```
void setup() {
```

```
    table = loadTable("mammals.csv", "header");
```

```
    println(table.getRowCount() + " total rows in table");
```

Examples

```
for (TableRow row : table.rows()) {

    int id = row.getInt("id");
    String species = row.getString("species");
    String name = row.getString("name");

    println(name + " (" + species + ") has an ID of " + id);
}
```

```
}
```

```
// Sketch prints:
// 3 total rows in table
// Goat (Capra hircus) has an ID of 0
// Leopard (Panthera pardus) has an ID of 1
// Zebra (Equus zebra) has an ID of 2
```

Description Reads the contents of a file or URL and creates an Table object with its values. If a file is specified, it must be located in the sketch's "data" folder. The filename parameter can also be a URL to a file found online. By default, the file is assumed to be comma-separated (in CSV format). To use tab-separated data,

include "tsv" in the options parameter.

If the file contains a header row, include "header" in the options parameter. If the file does not have a header row, then simply omit the "header" option.

When specifying both a header and the file type, separate the options with commas, as in: **loadTable("data.csv", "header, tsv")**

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax
`loadTable(filename)
loadTable(filename, options)`

filename String: name of a file in the data folder or a URL.

Parameters **options** String: may contain "header", "tsv", "csv", or "bin" separated by commas

Returns Table

[Table](#)

[saveTable\(\)](#)

Related [loadBytes\(\)](#)

[loadStrings\(\)](#)

[loadXML\(\)](#)

Name

[loadXML\(\)](#)

```
// The following short XML file called "mammals.xml" is parsed  
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.  
//
```

```
// <?xml version="1.0"?>  
// <mammals>  
//   <animal id="0" species="Capra hircus">Goat</animal>  
//   <animal id="1" species="Panthera pardus">Leopard</animal>  
//   <animal id="2" species="Equus zebra">Zebra</animal>  
// </mammals>
```

```
XML xml;
```

```
void setup() {
```

Examples `xml = loadXML("mammals.xml");
XML[] children = xml.getChildren("animal");`

```
for (int i = 0; i < children.length; i++) {  
    int id = children[i].getInt("id");  
    String coloring = children[i].getString("species");  
    String name = children[i].getContent();  
    println(id + ", " + coloring + ", " + name);  
}
```

```
}
```



```
// Sketch prints:  
// 0, Capra hircus, Goat  
// 1, Panthera pardus, Leopard  
// 2, Equus zebra, Zebra
```

Reads the contents of a file or URL and creates an XML object with its values. If

Description a file is specified, it must be located in the sketch's "data" folder. The filename parameter can also be a URL to a file found online.

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `loadXML(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of a file in the data folder or a URL.

Returns `XML`

[XML](#)

[parseXML\(\)](#)

Related [saveXML\(\)](#)

[loadBytes\(\)](#)

[loadStrings\(\)](#)

[loadTable\(\)](#)

Name

[open\(\)](#)

```
void setup() {  
    size(200, 200);  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    // draw() must be present for mousePressed() to work  
}  
  
void mousePressed() {  
    println("Opening Process_4");  
    open("/Applications/Process_4.app");  
}
```

Examples

```
void setup() {  
    size(200, 200);  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    // draw() must be present for mousePressed() to work  
}  
  
void mousePressed() {  
    String[] params = { "/usr/bin/jikes", "-help" };  
    open(params);  
}
```

Attempts to open an application or file using your platform's launcher. The **filename** parameter is a String specifying the file name and location. The location parameter must be a full path name, or the name of an executable in the system's PATH. In most cases, using a full path is the best option, rather than relying on the system PATH. Be sure to make the file executable before attempting to open it (`chmod +x`).

Description

The **argv** parameter is a String or String array which is passed to the command line. If you have multiple parameters, e.g. an application and a document, or a command with multiple switches, use the version that takes a String array, and place each individual item in a separate element.

If **argv** is a String (not an array), then it can only be a single file or application

with no parameters. It's not the same as executing that String using a shell. For instance, `open("jikes -help")` will not work properly.

This function behaves differently on each platform. On Windows, the parameters are sent to the Windows shell via "cmd /c". On Mac OS X, the "open" command is used (type "man open" in Terminal.app for documentation). On Linux, it first tries gnome-open, then kde-open, but if neither are available, it sends the command to the shell without any alterations.

For users familiar with Java, this is not quite the same as `Runtime.exec()`, because the launcher command is prepended. Instead, the `exec(String[])` function is a shortcut for `Runtime.getRuntime().exec(String[])`.

Syntax
`open(filename)`
`open(argv)`

Parameters `filename` String: name of the file
 `argv` String[]: list of commands passed to the command line

Returns void or Process

Name

[parseXML\(\)](#)

```
String data = "<mammals><animal>Goat</animal></mammals>";

void setup() {
    XML xml = parseXML(data);
    if (xml == null) {
        println("XML could not be parsed.");
    } else {
        XML firstChild = xml.getChild("animal");
        println(firstChild.getContent());
    }
}

// Sketch prints:
// Goat
```

Takes a String, parses its contents, and returns an XML object. If the String does not contain XML data or cannot be parsed, a null value is returned.

Description `parseXML()` is most useful when pulling data dynamically, such as from third-party APIs. Normally, API results would be saved to a String, and then can be converted to a structured XML object using `parseXML()`. Be sure to check if null is returned before performing operations on the new XML object, in case the String content could not be parsed.

If your data already exists as an XML file in the data folder, it is simpler to use `loadXML()`.

Syntax `parseXML(xmlString)`
`parseXML(xmlString, options)`

Returns XML
[XML](#)

Related [loadXML\(\)](#)
[saveXML\(\)](#)

Name**saveTable()**

```
Table table;

void setup() {

    table = new Table();

    table.addColumn("id");
    table.addColumn("species");
    table.addColumn("name");

    TableRow newRow = table.addRow();
    newRow.setInt("id", table.getRowCount() - 1);
    newRow.setString("species", "Panthera leo");
    newRow.setString("name", "Lion");

    saveTable(table, "data/new.csv");
}
```

```
// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.csv":
// id,species,name
// 0,Panthera leo,Lion
```

Writes the contents of a Table object to a file. By default, this file is saved to the sketch's folder. This folder is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description Alternatively, the file can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax
`saveTable(table, filename)`
`saveTable(table, filename, options)`

table Table: the Table object to save to a file

Parameters filename String: the filename to which the Table should be saved

options String: can be one of "tsv", "csv", "bin", or "html"

Returns boolean

Related
[Table](#)
[loadTable\(\)](#)

Name**selectFolder()**

```
void setup() {
    selectFolder("Select a folder to process:", "folderSelected");
}
```

Examples
`void folderSelected(File selection) {
 if (selection == null) {
 println("Window was closed or the user hit cancel.");
 } else {
 println("User selected " + selection.getAbsolutePath());
 }
}`

```
}
```

Opens a platform-specific file chooser dialog to select a folder. After the selection is made, the selection will be passed to the 'callback' function. If the dialog is

Descriptionclosed or canceled, null will be sent to the function, so that the program is not waiting for additional input. The callback is necessary because of how threading works.

Syntax `selectFolder(prompt, callback)`
`selectFolder(prompt, callback, file)`
`selectFolder(prompt, callback, file, callbackObject)`
`selectFolder(prompt, callbackMethod, defaultSelection, callbackObject, parentFrame)`

Parameters `prompt` String: message to the user
`callback` String: name of the method to be called when the selection is made

Returns void

Name

`selectInput()`

```
void setup() {  
    selectInput("Select a file to process:", "fileSelected");  
}
```

Examples `void fileSelected(File selection) {
 if (selection == null) {
 println("Window was closed or the user hit cancel.");
 } else {
 println("User selected " + selection.getAbsolutePath());
 }
}`

Opens a platform-specific file chooser dialog to select a file for input. After the selection is made, the selected File will be passed to the 'callback' function. If the dialog is closed or canceled, null will be sent to the function, so that the program is not waiting for additional input. The callback is necessary because of how threading works.

`selectInput(prompt, callback)`
`selectInput(prompt, callback, file)`
`selectInput(prompt, callback, file, callbackObject)`
`selectInput(prompt, callbackMethod, file, callbackObject, parent)`

Parameters `prompt` String: message to the user
`callback` String: name of the method to be called when the selection is made

Returns void

Name

`day()`

```
void setup() {  
    PFont metaBold;  
    metaBold = loadFont("fonts/Meta-Bold.vlw.gz");  
    setFont(metaBold, 44);  
    noLoop();  
}
```

Examples `void draw() {
 int d = day(); // Values from 1 - 31
 int m = month(); // Values from 1 - 12`

```

        int y = year();    // 2003, 2004, 2005, etc.
        String s = String.valueOf(d);
        text(s, 10, 28);
        s = String.valueOf(m);
        text(s, 10, 56);
        s = String.valueOf(y);
        text(s, 10, 84);
    }

```

Description Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **day()** function returns the current day as a value from 1 - 31.

Syntax [day\(\)](#)

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[second\(\)](#)

Related [minute\(\)](#)

[hour\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

hour()

```

void draw() {
    background(204);
    int s = second();    // Values from 0 - 59
    int m = minute();   // Values from 0 - 59
    int h = hour();      // Values from 0 - 23
    line(s, 0, s, 33);
    line(m, 33, m, 66);
    line(h, 66, h, 100);
}

```

Description Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **hour()** function returns the current hour as a value from 0 - 23.

Syntax [hour\(\)](#)

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[second\(\)](#)

Related [minute\(\)](#)

[day\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

millis()

```

void draw() {
    int m = millis();
    noStroke();
    fill(m % 255);
    rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
}

```

Description Returns the number of milliseconds (thousandths of a second) since starting the program. This information is often used for timing events and animation

sequences.

Syntax millis()

Returns int

[second\(\)](#)

[minute\(\)](#)

Related [hour\(\)](#)

[day\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

minute()

```
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    int s = second(); // Values from 0 - 59  
    int m = minute(); // Values from 0 - 59  
    int h = hour(); // Values from 0 - 23  
    line(s, 0, s, 33);  
    line(m, 33, m, 66);  
    line(h, 66, h, 100);  
}
```

Description Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **minute()** function returns the current minute as a value from 0 - 59.

Syntax minute()

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[second\(\)](#)

[hour\(\)](#)

[day\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

month()

```
void setup() {  
    PFont metaBold;  
    metaBold = loadFont("fonts/Meta-Bold.vlw.gz");  
    setFont(metaBold, 44);  
    noLoop();  
}
```

```
void draw() {
```

Examples int d = day(); // Values from 1 - 31
int m = month(); // Values from 1 - 12
int y = year(); // 2003, 2004, 2005, etc.
String s = String.valueOf(d);
text(s, 10, 28);
s = String.valueOf(m);
text(s, 10, 56);
s = String.valueOf(y);
text(s, 10, 84);
}

Description Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **month()** function returns the current month as a value from 1 - 12.

Syntax `month()`

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[second\(\)](#)

[minute\(\)](#)

Related [hour\(\)](#)

[day\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

second()

```
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
    int s = second(); // Values from 0 - 59  
    int m = minute(); // Values from 0 - 59  
    int h = hour(); // Values from 0 - 23  
    line(s, 0, s, 33);  
    line(m, 33, m, 66);  
    line(h, 66, h, 100);  
}
```

Examples Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **second()** function returns the current second as a value from 0 - 59.

Syntax `second()`

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[minute\(\)](#)

[hour\(\)](#)

Related [day\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

[year\(\)](#)

Name

year()

```
void setup() {  
    PFont metaBold;  
    metaBold = loadFont("fonts/Meta-Bold.vlw.gz");  
    setFont(metaBold, 44);  
    noLoop();  
}
```

```
void draw() {  
    int d = day(); // Values from 1 - 31  
    int m = month(); // Values from 1 - 12  
    int y = year(); // 2003, 2004, 2005, etc.  
    String s = String.valueOf(d);  
    text(s, 10, 28);  
    s = String.valueOf(m);  
    text(s, 10, 56);  
    s = String.valueOf(y);  
    text(s, 10, 84);
```

```
}
```

Description Processing communicates with the clock on your computer. The **year()** function returns the current year as an integer (2003, 2004, 2005, etc).

Syntax `year()`

Returns int

[millis\(\)](#)

[second\(\)](#)

[minute\(\)](#)

Related [hour\(\)](#)

[day\(\)](#)

[month\(\)](#)

Name

print()

```
print("begin- ");
float f = 0.3;
int i = 1024;
print("f is " + f + " and i is " + 1024);
String s = " -end";
println(s);
```

```
// The above code prints:
// "begin- f is 0.3 and i is 1024 -end"
```

Writes to the console area of the Processing environment. This is often helpful for looking at the data a program is producing. The companion function **println()** works like **print()**, but creates a new line of text for each call to the function. Individual elements can be separated with quotes ("") and joined with the addition operator (+).

Beginning with release 0125, to print the contents of an array, use **println()**.

Description There's no sensible way to do a **print()** of an array, because there are too many possibilities for how to separate the data (spaces, commas, etc). If you want to print an array as a single line, use **join()**. With **join()**, you can choose any delimiter you like and **print()** the result.

Using **print()** on an object will output **null**, a memory location that may look like "@10be08," or the result of the **toString()** method from the object that's being printed. Advanced users who want more useful output when calling **print()** on their own classes can add a **toString()** method to the class that returns a String.

Syntax `print(what)`

Parameters what: boolean, byte, char, color, int, float, String, Object

Returns void

Related [println\(\)](#)

[join\(\)](#)

Name

println()

```
println("begin");
float f = 0.3;
```

```
println("f is equal to " + f + " and i is equal to " + 1024);
String s = "end";
println(s);
```

```
// The above code prints the following lines:
// "begin"
// "f is equal to 0.3 and i is equal to 1024"
// "end"
```

```
float[] f = { 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 };
println(f);
```

```
// The above code prints:
```

```
// 0.3
// 0.4
// 0.5
```

Writes to the text area of the Processing environment's console. This is often helpful for looking at the data a program is producing. Each call to this function creates a new line of output. Individual elements can be separated with quotes ("") and joined with the string concatenation operator (+). See [print\(\)](#) for more about what to expect in the output.

Description

Calling [println\(\)](#) on an array (by itself) will write the contents of the array to the console. This is often helpful for looking at the data a program is producing. A new line is put between each element of the array. This function can only print one dimensional arrays. For arrays with higher dimensions, the result will be closer to that of [print\(\)](#).

Syntax `println()`
`println(what)`

Parameters `what`: boolean, byte, char, color, int, float, String, Object

Returns void

Related [print\(\)](#)

Name

[save\(\)](#)

```
line(20, 20, 80, 80);
// Saves a TIFF file named "diagonal.tif"
```

Examples `save("diagonal.tif");`
`// Saves a TARGA file named "cross.tga"`
`line(80, 20, 20, 80);`
`save("cross.tga");`

Saves an image from the display window. Append a file extension to the name of the file, to indicate the file format to be used: either TIFF (.tif), TARGA (.tga), JPEG (.jpg), or PNG (.png). If no extension is included in the filename, the image will save in TIFF format and .tif will be added to the name. These files are saved to the sketch's folder, which may be opened by selecting "Show sketch folder"

Description from the "Sketch" menu. Alternatively, the files can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All images saved from the main drawing window will be opaque. To save images without a background, use [createGraphics\(\)](#).

Syntax `save(filename)`

Parameters **filename** String: any sequence of letters and numbers

Returns void

Related [saveFrame\(\)](#)
[createGraphics\(\)](#)

Name

[saveFrame\(\)](#)

```
int x = 0;
void draw()
{
    background(204);
    if (x < 100) {
        line(x, 0, x, 100);
        x = x + 1;
    } else {
        noLoop();
    }
    // Saves each frame as screen-0000.tif, screen-0001.tif, etc.
    saveFrame();
}
```

Examples

```
int x = 0;
void draw()
{
    background(204);
    if (x < 100) {
        line(x, 0, x, 100);
        x = x + 1;
    } else {
        noLoop();
    }
    // Saves each frame as line-000000.png, line-000001.png, etc.
    saveFrame("line-#####.png");
}
```

Saves a numbered sequence of images, one image each time the function is run. To save an image that is identical to the display window, run the function at the end of **draw()** or within mouse and key events such as **mousePressed()** and **keyPressed()**. Use the Movie Maker program in the Tools menu to combine these images to a movie.

If **saveFrame()** is used without parameters, it will save files as screen-0000.tif, screen-0001.tif, and so on. You can specify the name of the sequence with the **filename** parameter, including hash marks (####), which will be replaced by the saved frame count value. (The number of hash marks is used to determine how many digits to include in the file names.) Append a file extension, to indicate the file format to be used: either TIFF (.tif), TARGA (.tga), JPEG (.jpg), or PNG (.png). Image files are saved to the sketch's folder, which may be opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description

Alternatively, the files can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All images saved from the main drawing window will be opaque. To save images

without a background, use **createGraphics()**.

Syntax
saveFrame()
saveFrame(filename)

Parameters filename String: any sequence of letters or numbers that ends with either ".tif", ".tga", ".jpg", or ".png"

Returns void

Related [save\(\)](#)
[createGraphics\(\)](#)

Name

beginRaw()

```
import processing.pdf.*;  
  
void setup() {  
    size(400, 400);  
    beginRaw(PDF, "raw.pdf");  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    line(pmouseX, pmouseY, mouseX, mouseY);  
}  
  
void keyPressed() {  
    if (key == ' ') {  
        endRaw();  
        exit();  
    }  
}
```

To create vectors from 3D data, use the **beginRaw()** and **endRaw()** commands. These commands will grab the shape data just before it is rendered to the screen. At this stage, your entire scene is nothing but a long list of individual lines and triangles. This means that a shape created with **sphere()** function will be made up of hundreds of triangles, rather than a single object. Or that a multi-segment line shape (such as a curve) will be rendered as individual segments.

When using **beginRaw()** and **endRaw()**, it's possible to write to either a 2D or 3D renderer. For instance, **beginRaw()** with the PDF library will write the geometry as flattened triangles and lines, even if recording from the **P3D**

Description renderer.

If you want a background to show up in your files, use **rect(0, 0, width, height)** after setting the **fill()** to the background color. Otherwise the background will not be rendered to the file because the background is not shape.

Using **hint(ENABLE_DEPTH_SORT)** can improve the appearance of 3D geometry drawn to 2D file formats. See the **hint()** reference for more details.

See examples in the reference for the **PDF** and **DXF** libraries for more information.

Syntax beginRaw(renderer, filename)

Parameters rendererString: for example, PDF or DXF
filenameString: filename for output

Returns PGraphics or void

Related [endRaw\(\)](#)

Name

beginRecord()

```
import processing.pdf.*;  
  
void setup() {  
    size(400, 400);  
    beginRecord(PDF, "everything.pdf");  
}
```

Examples void draw() {
 ellipse(mouseX, mouseY, 10, 10);
}

```
void mousePressed() {  
    endRecord();  
    exit();  
}
```

Opens a new file and all subsequent drawing functions are echoed to this file as well as the display window. The **beginRecord()** function requires two parameters, the first is the renderer and the second is the file name. This function is always used with **endRecord()** to stop the recording process and close the file.

Description

Note that beginRecord() will only pick up any settings that happen after it has been called. For instance, if you call `textFont()` before beginRecord(), then that font will not be set for the file that you're recording to.

Syntax `beginRecord(renderer, filename)`

Parameters
`renderer`String: for example, PDF
`filename`String: filename for output

Returns PGraphics or void

Related [endRecord\(\)](#)

Name

createOutput()

Examples

Similar to **createInput()**, this creates a Java **OutputStream** for a given filename or path. The file will be created in the sketch folder, or in the same folder as an exported application.

If the path does not exist, intermediate folders will be created. If an exception occurs, it will be printed to the console, and **null** will be returned.

Description

This function is a convenience over the Java approach that requires you to 1) create a `FileOutputStream` object, 2) determine the exact file location, and 3) handle exceptions. Exceptions are handled internally by the function, which is more appropriate for "sketch" projects.

If the output filename ends with **.gz**, the output will be automatically GZIP

compressed as it is written.

Syntax `createOutput(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of the file to open

Returns `OutputStream`

Related [createInput\(\)](#)

Name

createWriter()

```
PrintWriter output;

void setup() {
    // Create a new file in the sketch directory
    output = createWriter("positions.txt");
}

void draw() {
    point(mouseX, mouseY);
    output.println(mouseX + "t" + mouseY); // Write the coordinate
Examples to the file
}

void keyPressed() {
    output.flush(); // Writes the remaining data to the file
    output.close(); // Finishes the file
    exit(); // Stops the program
}
```

Creates a new file in the sketch folder, and a **PrintWriter** object to write to it. For the file to be made correctly, it should be flushed and must be closed with its **flush()** and **close()** methods (see above example).

Description

Starting with Processing release 0134, all files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding. In previous releases, the default encoding for your platform was used, which causes problems when files are moved to other platforms.

Syntax `createWriter(filename)`

Parameters `filename`: name of the file to be created

Returns `PrintWriter`

Related [createReader\(\)](#)

Name

endRaw()

```
import processing.pdf.*;

void setup() {
    size(400, 400);
    beginRaw(PDF, "raw.pdf");
Examples }

void draw() {
    line(pmouseX, pmouseY, mouseX, mouseY);
}
```

```
void keyPressed() {
    if (key == ' ') {
        endRaw();
        exit();
    }
}
```

Description Complement to **beginRaw()**; they must always be used together. See the [beginRaw\(\)](#) reference for details.

Syntax `endRaw()`

Returns void

Related [beginRaw\(\)](#)

Name

[endRecord\(\)](#)

```
import processing.pdf.*;

void setup() {
    size(400, 400);
    beginRecord(PDF, "everything.pdf");
}
```

Examples `void draw() {
 ellipse(mouseX, mouseY, 10, 10);
}

void mousePressed() {
 endRecord();
 exit();
}`

Description Stops the recording process started by **beginRecord()** and closes the file.

Syntax `endRecord()`

Returns void

Related [beginRecord\(\)](#)

Name

[PrintWriter](#)

```
PrintWriter output;
```

```
void setup() {
    // Create a new file in the sketch directory
    output = createWriter("positions.txt");
}
```

Examples `void draw() {
 point(mouseX, mouseY);
 output.println(mouseX); // Write the coordinate to the file
}

void keyPressed() {
 output.flush(); // Writes the remaining data to the file
 output.close(); // Finishes the file
 exit(); // Stops the program
}`

Description Allows characters to print to a text-output stream. A new PrintWriter object is

created with the **createWriter()** function. For the file to be made correctly, it should be flushed and must be closed with its **flush()** and **close()** methods (see above example).

print() Adds data to the stream

Methods **println()** Adds data to the stream and starts a new line

flush() Flushes the stream

close() Closes the stream

Constructor

Related [createWriter\(\)](#)

Name

saveBytes()

```
byte[] nums = { 0, 34, 5, 127, 52};
```

Examples // Writes the bytes to a file
saveBytes("numbers.dat", nums);

As the opposite of **loadBytes()**, this function will write an entire array of bytes to a file. The data is saved in binary format. This file is saved to the sketch's folder, which is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description Alternatively, the files can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

Syntax saveBytes(filename, data)

Parameters **filenameString**: name of the file to write to
data byte[]: array of bytes to be written

Returns void

[loadStrings\(\)](#)

Related [loadBytes\(\)](#)
[saveStrings\(\)](#)

Name

saveJSONArray()

```
String[] species = { "Capra hircus", "Panthera pardus", "Equus zebra" };
```

```
String[] names = { "Goat", "Leopard", "Zebra" };
```

```
JSONArray values;
```

```
void setup() {
```

```
    values = new JSONArray();
```

Examples

```
for (int i = 0; i < species.length; i++) {  
  
    JSONObject animal = new JSONObject();  
  
    animal.setInt("id", i);  
    animal.setString("species", species[i]);  
    animal.setString("name", names[i]);  
  
    values.setJSONObject(i, animal);
```

```

        }

        saveJSONArray(values, "data/new.json");
    }

    // Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.json":
    [
    {
    "id": 0,
    "species": "Capra hircus",
    "name": "Goat"
    },
    {
    "id": 1,
    "species": "Panthera pardus",
    "name": "Leopard"
    },
    {
    "id": 2,
    "species": "Equus zebra",
    "name": "Zebra"
    }
]

```

Writes the contents of a **JSONArray** object to a file. By default, this file is saved to the sketch's folder. This folder is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description Alternatively, the file can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `saveJSONArray(json, filename)`
`saveJSONArray(json, filename, options)`

Returns boolean

[JSONObject](#)

[JSONArray](#)

Related [loadJSONObject\(\)](#)
[loadJSONArray\(\)](#)
[saveJSONObject\(\)](#)

Name

[saveJSONObject\(\)](#)

```

JSONObject json;

void setup() {

    json = new JSONObject();

```

Examples

```

    json.setInt("id", 0);
    json.setString("species", "Panthera leo");
    json.setString("name", "Lion");

    saveJSONObject(json, "data/new.json");
}

```

```
// Sketch saves the following to a file called "new.json":  
// {  
//   "id": 0,  
//   "species": "Panthera leo",  
//   "name": "Lion"  
// }
```

Writes the contents of a **JSONObject** object to a file. By default, this file is saved to the sketch's folder. This folder is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description Alternatively, the file can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `saveJSONObject(json, filename)`
`saveJSONObject(json, filename, options)`

Returns boolean

[JSONObject](#)

[JSONArray](#)

Related [loadJSONObject\(\)](#)
[loadJSONArray\(\)](#)
[saveJSONArray\(\)](#)

Name

[saveStream\(\)](#)

Examples

Save the contents of a stream to a file in the sketch folder. This is basically `saveBytes(blah, loadBytes())`, but done more efficiently (and with less confusing syntax).

Description

The **target** parameter can be either a String specifying a file name, or, for greater control over the file location, a **File** object. (Note that, unlike some other functions, this will not automatically compress or uncompress gzip files.)

Syntax `saveStream(target, source)`

Parameters **target** File, or String: name of the file to write to
sourceString: location to read from (a filename, path, or URL)

Returns boolean or void

Related [createOutput\(\)](#)

Name

[saveStrings\(\)](#)

```
String words = "apple bear cat dog";  
String[] list = split(words, ' ');
```

Examples

```
// Writes the strings to a file, each on a separate line  
saveStrings("nouns.txt", list);
```

Writes an array of Strings to a file, one line per String. By default, this file is

Descriptions saved to the sketch's folder. This folder is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Alternatively, the file can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

Starting with Processing 1.0, all files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding. In earlier releases, the default encoding for your platform was used, which causes problems when files are moved to other platforms.

Syntax `saveStrings(filename, data)`

filenameString: filename for output

Parameters `data` String[]: string array to be written

Returns void

[loadStrings\(\)](#)

Related [loadBytes\(\)](#)
[saveBytes\(\)](#)

Name

[saveXML\(\)](#)

```
// The following short XML file called "mammals.xml" is parsed
// in the code below. It must be in the project's "data" folder.
//
// <?xml version="1.0"?>
// <mammals>
//   <animal id="0" species="Capra hircus">Goat</animal>
//   <animal id="1" species="Panthera pardus">Leopard</animal>
//   <animal id="2" species="Equus zebra">Zebra</animal>
// </mammals>

XML xml;
```

Examples void setup() {

```
    xml = loadXML("mammals.xml");
    XML firstChild = xml.getChild("animal");
    xml.removeChild(firstChild);
    saveXML(xml, "subset.xml");
}
```

```
// Sketch saves the following to a file called "subset.xml":
// <?xml version="1.0"?>
// <mammals>
//   <animal id="1" species="Panthera pardus">Leopard</animal>
//   <animal id="2" species="Equus zebra">Zebra</animal>
// </mammals>
```

Writes the contents of an XML object to a file. By default, this file is saved to the sketch's folder. This folder is opened by selecting "Show Sketch Folder" from the "Sketch" menu.

Description Alternatively, the file can be saved to any location on the computer by using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows).

All files loaded and saved by the Processing API use UTF-8 encoding.

Syntax `saveXML(xml, filename)`

```
    saveXML(xml, filename, options)
Parameters xml XML: the XML object to save to disk
filename String: name of the file to write to
Returns boolean
Related XML
loadXML\(\)
parseXML\(\)
```

Name [selectOutput\(\)](#)

```
void setup() {
    selectOutput("Select a file to write to:", "fileSelected");
}

void fileSelected(File selection) {
    if (selection == null) {
        println("Window was closed or the user hit cancel.");
    } else {
        println("User selected " + selection.getAbsolutePath());
    }
}
```

Opens a platform-specific file chooser dialog to select a file for output. After the selection is made, the selected File will be passed to the 'callback' function. If the **Description** dialog is closed or canceled, null will be sent to the function, so that the program is not waiting for additional input. The callback is necessary because of how threading works.

Syntax `selectOutput(prompt, callback)`
`selectOutput(prompt, callback, file)`
`selectOutput(prompt, callback, file, callbackObject)`
`selectOutput(prompt, callbackMethod, file, callbackObject, parent)`

Parameters **prompt** String: message to the user
callback String: name of the method to be called when the selection is made

Returns void

Name [applyMatrix\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();
translate(50, 50, 0);
rotateY(PI/6);
stroke(153);
box(35);
Examples // Set rotation angles
float ct = cos(PI/9.0);
float st = sin(PI/9.0);
// Matrix for rotation around the Y axis
applyMatrix( ct, 0.0, st, 0.0,
            0.0, 1.0, 0.0, 0.0,
            -st, 0.0, ct, 0.0,
            0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0);
```

```
stroke(255);  
box(50);
```

Description Multiplies the current matrix by the one specified through the parameters. This is very slow because it will try to calculate the inverse of the transform, so avoid it whenever possible. The equivalent function in OpenGL is `glMultMatrix()`.

Syntax

```
applyMatrix(source)  
applyMatrix(n00, n01, n02, n10, n11, n12)  
applyMatrix(n00, n01, n02, n03, n10, n11, n12, n13, n20, n21,  
n22, n23, n30, n31, n32, n33)
```

n00float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n01float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n02float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n10float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n11float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n12float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n03float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

n13float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

Parameters

n20float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n21float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n22float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n23float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n30float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n31float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n32float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied
n33float: numbers which define the 4x4 matrix to be multiplied

Returns void

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

Related

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

[resetMatrix\(\)](#)

[printMatrix\(\)](#)

Name

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

```
fill(255);  
rect(0, 0, 50, 50); // White rectangle
```

Examples

```
pushMatrix();  
translate(30, 20);  
fill(0);  
rect(0, 0, 50, 50); // Black rectangle  
popMatrix();
```

```
fill(100);  
rect(15, 10, 50, 50); // Gray rectangle
```

Description Pops the current transformation matrix off the matrix stack. Understanding pushing and popping requires understanding the concept of a matrix stack. The `pushMatrix()` function saves the current coordinate system to the stack and `popMatrix()` restores the prior coordinate system. `pushMatrix()` and `popMatrix()` are used in conjunction with the other transformation functions and may be embedded to control the scope of the transformations.

Syntax `popMatrix()`
Returns void
Related [pushMatrix\(\)](#)

Name
printMatrix()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
printMatrix();
// Prints:
// 01.0000 00.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 01.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000 -86.6025
// 00.0000 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000
```

Examples

```
resetMatrix();
printMatrix();
// Prints:
// 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 1.0000
```

Description Prints the current matrix to the Console (the text window at the bottom of Processing).

Syntax `printMatrix()`
Returns void
Related [pushMatrix\(\)](#)
[popMatrix\(\)](#)
[resetMatrix\(\)](#)
[applyMatrix\(\)](#)

Name
pushMatrix()

```
fill(255);
rect(0, 0, 50, 50); // White rectangle
```

Examples

```
translate(30, 20);
fill(0);
rect(0, 0, 50, 50); // Black rectangle
popMatrix();
```

```
fill(100);
rect(15, 10, 50, 50); // Gray rectangle
```

Description Pushes the current transformation matrix onto the matrix stack. Understanding **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()** requires understanding the concept of a matrix stack. The **pushMatrix()** function saves the current coordinate system to the stack and **popMatrix()** restores the prior coordinate system. **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()** are used in conjunction with the other transformation functions and may be embedded to control the scope of the transformations.

Syntax `pushMatrix()`

Returns void
[popMatrix\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)
Related [rotate\(\)](#)
[rotateX\(\)](#)
[rotateY\(\)](#)
[rotateZ\(\)](#)

Name [resetMatrix\(\)](#)

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();
box(80);
printMatrix();
// Prints:
// 01.0000 00.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 01.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000 -86.6025
// 00.0000 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000
```

```
resetMatrix();
box(80);
printMatrix();
// Prints:
// 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000
// 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 1.0000
```

Description Replaces the current matrix with the identity matrix. The equivalent function in OpenGL is [glLoadIdentity\(\)](#).

Syntax `resetMatrix()`
Returns void
[pushMatrix\(\)](#)
Related [popMatrix\(\)](#)
[applyMatrix\(\)](#)
[printMatrix\(\)](#)

Name [rotate\(\)](#)

Examples

```
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotate(PI/3.0);
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Description Rotates a shape the amount specified by the **angle** parameter. Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to TWO_PI) or converted to radians with the [radians\(\)](#) function.

Objects are always rotated around their relative position to the origin and positive

numbers rotate objects in a clockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **rotate(HALF_PI)** and then **rotate(HALF_PI)** is the same as **rotate(PI)**. All transformations are reset when **draw()** begins again.

Technically, **rotate()** multiplies the current transformation matrix by a rotation matrix. This function can be further controlled by the **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()**.

Syntax `rotate(angle)`

`rotate(angle, x, y, z)`

Parameters `angle` float: angle of rotation specified in radians

Returns void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

[rotateX\(\)](#)

Related [rotateY\(\)](#)

[rotateZ\(\)](#)

[scale\(\)](#)

[radians\(\)](#)

Name

[rotateX\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateX(PI/3.0);
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateX(radians(60));
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Rotates a shape around the x-axis the amount specified by the **angle** parameter.

Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to PI*2) or converted to radians with the **radians()** function. Objects are always rotated around their relative position to the origin and positive numbers rotate objects in a

Description counterclockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **rotateX(PI/2)** and then **rotateX(PI/2)** is the same as **rotateX(PI)**. If **rotateX()** is called within the **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again. This function requires using P3D as a third parameter to **size()** as shown in the example above.

Syntax `rotateX(angle)`

Parameters `angle` float: angle of rotation specified in radians

Returns void

Related [popMatrix\(\)](#)

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

[rotate\(\)](#)

[rotateY\(\)](#)

[rotateZ\(\)](#)
[scale\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)

Name

rotateY()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateY(PI/3.0);
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateY(radians(60));
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Rotates a shape around the y-axis the amount specified by the **angle** parameter. Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to PI*2) or converted to radians with the **radians()** function. Objects are always rotated around their relative position to the origin and positive numbers rotate objects in a counterclockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **rotateY(PI/2)** and then **rotateY(PI/2)** is the same as **rotateY(PI)**. If **rotateY()** is called within the **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again. This function requires using P3D as a third parameter to **size()** as shown in the examples above.

Syntax `rotateY(angle)`

Parameters `angle`: float: angle of rotation specified in radians

Returns void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)
[pushMatrix\(\)](#)
[rotate\(\)](#)

Related [rotateX\(\)](#)
[rotateZ\(\)](#)
[scale\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)

Name

rotateZ()

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
rotateZ(PI/3.0);
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
translate(width/2, height/2);
```

```
rotateZ(radians(60));  
rect(-26, -26, 52, 52);
```

Rotates a shape around the z-axis the amount specified by the **angle** parameter. Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to PI*2) or converted to radians with the **radians()** function. Objects are always rotated around their relative position to the origin and positive numbers rotate objects in a counterclockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **rotateZ(PI/2)** and then **rotateZ(PI/2)** is the same as **rotateZ(PI)**. If **rotateZ()** is called within the **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again. This function requires using P3D as a third parameter to **size()** as shown in the examples above.

Syntax `rotateZ(angle)`

Parameters `angle` float: angle of rotation specified in radians

Returns void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)
[pushMatrix\(\)](#)
[rotate\(\)](#)

Related [rotateX\(\)](#)
[rotateY\(\)](#)
[scale\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)

Name

[scale\(\)](#)

```
rect(30, 20, 50, 50);  
scale(0.5);  
rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
```

```
rect(30, 20, 50, 50);  
scale(0.5, 1.3);  
rect(30, 20, 50, 50);
```

Examples

```
// Scaling in 3D requires P3D  
// as a parameter to size()  
size(100, 100, P3D);  
noFill();  
translate(width/2+12, height/2);  
box(20, 20, 20);  
scale(2.5, 2.5, 2.5);  
box(20, 20, 20);
```

Description Increases or decreases the size of a shape by expanding and contracting vertices. Objects always scale from their relative origin to the coordinate system. Scale values are specified as decimal percentages. For example, the function call **scale(2.0)** increases the dimension of a shape by 200%.

Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function multiply the effect. For example, calling **scale(2.0)** and then **scale(1.5)** is the same as **scale(3.0)**. If **scale()** is called within **draw()**, the

transformation is reset when the loop begins again. Using this function with the **z** parameter requires using P3D as a parameter for **size()**, as shown in the third example above. This function can be further controlled with **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()**.

scale(s)

scale(x, y)

scale(x, y, z)

sfloat: percentage to scale the object

xfloat: percentage to scale the object in the x-axis

yfloat: percentage to scale the object in the y-axis

zfloat: percentage to scale the object in the z-axis

Returns void

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

[translate\(\)](#)

Related

[rotate\(\)](#)

[rotateX\(\)](#)

[rotateY\(\)](#)

[rotateZ\(\)](#)

Name

shearX()

Examples

```
size(100, 100);
translate(width/4, height/4);
shearX(PI/4.0);
rect(0, 0, 30, 30);
```

Shears a shape around the x-axis the amount specified by the **angle** parameter. Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to PI*2) or converted to radians with the **radians()** function. Objects are always sheared around their relative position to the origin and positive numbers shear objects in a clockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **shearX(PI/2)** and then **shearX(PI/2)** is the same as **shearX(PI)**. If **shearX()** is called within the **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again.

Technically, **shearX()** multiplies the current transformation matrix by a rotation matrix. This function can be further controlled by the **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()** functions.

Syntax **shearX(angle)**

Parameters **anglefloat:** angle of shear specified in radians

Returns void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

[shearY\(\)](#)

[scale\(\)](#)

[translate\(\)](#)

[radians\(\)](#)

Name **shearY()**

Examples

```
size(100, 100);
translate(width/4, height/4);
shearY(PI/4.0);
rect(0, 0, 30, 30);
```

Shears a shape around the y-axis the amount specified by the **angle** parameter. Angles should be specified in radians (values from 0 to PI*2) or converted to radians with the **radians()** function. Objects are always sheared around their relative position to the origin and positive numbers shear objects in a clockwise direction. Transformations apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **shearY(PI/2)** and then **shearY(PI/2)** is the same as **shearY(PI)**. If **shearY()** is called within the **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again.

Technically, **shearY()** multiplies the current transformation matrix by a rotation matrix. This function can be further controlled by the **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()** functions.

Syntax `shearY(angle)`

Parameters `angle`: float: angle of shear specified in radians

Returns void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)
[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

Related

[shearX\(\)](#)
[scale\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)
[radians\(\)](#)

Name **translate()**

```
translate(30, 20);
rect(0, 0, 55, 55);
```

```
// Translating in 3D requires P3D
// as the parameter to size()
size(100, 100, P3D);
```

Examples

```
// Translate 30 across, 20 down, and
// 50 back, or "away" from the screen.
translate(30, 20, -50);
rect(0, 0, 55, 55);
```

```
rect(0, 0, 55, 55); // Draw rect at original 0,0
translate(30, 20);
rect(0, 0, 55, 55); // Draw rect at new 0,0
translate(14, 14);
```

```
rect(0, 0, 55, 55); // Draw rect at new 0,0
```

Specifies an amount to displace objects within the display window. The **x** parameter specifies left/right translation, the **y** parameter specifies up/down translation, and the **z** parameter specifies translations toward/away from the screen. Using this function with the **z** parameter requires using P3D as a parameter in combination with size as shown in the above example.

Description

Transformations are cumulative and apply to everything that happens after and subsequent calls to the function accumulates the effect. For example, calling **translate(50, 0)** and then **translate(20, 0)** is the same as **translate(70, 0)**. If **translate()** is called within **draw()**, the transformation is reset when the loop begins again. This function can be further controlled by using **pushMatrix()** and **popMatrix()**.

Syntax

```
translate(x, y)
```

```
translate(x, y, z)
```

xfloat: left/right translation

Parameters

yfloat: up/down translation

zfloat: forward/backward translation

Returns

void

[popMatrix\(\)](#)

[pushMatrix\(\)](#)

[rotate\(\)](#)

Related

[rotateX\(\)](#)

[rotateY\(\)](#)

[rotateZ\(\)](#)

[scale\(\)](#)

Name

[ambientLight\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
// The spheres are white by default so
// the ambient light changes their color
ambientLight(51, 102, 126);
translate(20, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
translate(60, 0, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
directionalLight(126, 126, 126, 0, 0, -1);
ambientLight(102, 102, 102);
translate(32, 50, 0);
rotateY(PI/5);
box(40);
translate(60, 0, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Description

Adds an ambient light. Ambient light doesn't come from a specific direction, the

rays have light have bounced around so much that objects are evenly lit from all sides. Ambient lights are almost always used in combination with other types of lights. Lights need to be included in the **draw()** to remain persistent in a looping program. Placing them in the **setup()** of a looping program will cause them to only have an effect the first time through the loop. The **v1**, **v2**, and **v3** parameters are interpreted as either RGB or HSB values, depending on the current color mode.

Syntax

```
ambientLight(v1, v2, v3)
ambientLight(v1, v2, v3, x, y, z)
```

v1float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

v2float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

Parameters **v3**float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

x float: x-coordinate of the light

y float: y-coordinate of the light

z float: z-coordinate of the light

Returns void

[lights\(\)](#)

[directionalLight\(\)](#)

[pointLight\(\)](#)

[spotLight\(\)](#)

Name

[directionalLight\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
directionalLight(51, 102, 126, -1, 0, 0);
translate(20, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
directionalLight(51, 102, 126, 0, -1, 0);
translate(80, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Adds a directional light. Directional light comes from one direction: it is stronger when hitting a surface squarely, and weaker if it hits at a gentle angle. After hitting a surface, directional light scatters in all directions. Lights need to be included in the **draw()** to remain persistent in a looping program. Placing them in the **setup()** of a looping program will cause them to only have an effect the first time through the loop. The **v1**, **v2**, and **v3** parameters are interpreted as either

Description RGB or HSB values, depending on the current color mode. The **nx**, **ny**, and **nz** parameters specify the direction the light is facing. For example, setting **ny** to -1 will cause the geometry to be lit from below (since the light would be facing directly upward).

Syntax

```
directionalLight(v1, v2, v3, nx, ny, nz)
```

Parameters **v1**float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

v2float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)
v3float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)
nxfloat: direction along the x-axis
nyfloat: direction along the y-axis
nzfloat: direction along the z-axis

Returns void

[lights\(\)](#)

Related [ambientLight\(\)](#)
[pointLight\(\)](#)
[spotLight\(\)](#)

Name

[lightFalloff\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noStroke();
background(0);
lightFalloff(1.0, 0.001, 0.0);
Examples pointLight(150, 250, 150, 50, 50, 50);
beginShape();
vertex(0, 0, 0);
vertex(100, 0, -100);
vertex(100, 100, -100);
vertex(0, 100, 0);
endShape(CLOSE);
```

Sets the falloff rates for point lights, spot lights, and ambient lights. Like **fill()**, it affects only the elements which are created after it in the code. The default value is **lightFalloff(1.0, 0.0, 0.0)**, and the parameters are used to calculate the falloff with the following equation:

$d = \text{distance from light position to vertex position}$

Description $\text{falloff} = 1 / (\text{CONSTANT} + d * \text{LINEAR} + (d*d) * \text{QUADRATIC})$

Thinking about an ambient light with a falloff can be tricky. If you want a region of your scene to be lit ambiently with one color and another region to be lit ambiently with another color, you could use an ambient light with location and falloff. You can think of it as a point light that doesn't care which direction a surface is facing.

Syntax `lightFalloff(constant, linear, quadratic)`

constant float: constant value or determining falloff

Parameters **linear** float: linear value for determining falloff

quadratic float: quadratic value for determining falloff

Returns void

[lights\(\)](#)

[ambientLight\(\)](#)

Related [pointLight\(\)](#)
[spotLight\(\)](#)
[lightSpecular\(\)](#)

Name [lights\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
// Sets the default ambient
// and directional light
lights();
translate(20, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
translate(60, 0, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Examples

```
void setup() {
    size(100, 100, P3D);
    background(0);
    noStroke();
}

void draw() {
    // Include lights() at the beginning
    // of draw() to keep them persistent
    lights();
    translate(20, 50, 0);
    sphere(30);
    translate(60, 0, 0);
    sphere(30);
}
```

Description Sets the default ambient light, directional light, falloff, and specular values. The defaults are ambientLight(128, 128, 128) and directionalLight(128, 128, 128, 0, 0, -1), lightFalloff(1, 0, 0), and lightSpecular(0, 0, 0). Lights need to be included in the draw() to remain persistent in a looping program. Placing them in the setup() of a looping program will cause them to only have an effect the first time through the loop.

Syntax `lights()`

Returns `void`

[ambientLight\(\)](#)
[directionalLight\(\)](#)

Related [pointLight\(\)](#)
[spotLight\(\)](#)
[noLights\(\)](#)

Name [lightSpecular\(\)](#)

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
directionalLight(102, 102, 102, 0, 0, -1);
```

```

lightSpecular(204, 204, 204);
directionalLight(102, 102, 102, 0, 1, -1);
lightSpecular(102, 102, 102);
translate(20, 50, 0);
specular(51, 51, 51);
sphere(30);
translate(60, 0, 0);
specular(102, 102, 102);
sphere(30);

```

Sets the specular color for lights. Like **fill()**, it affects only the elements which are created after it in the code. Specular refers to light which bounces off a surface in a preferred direction (rather than bouncing in all directions like a diffuse light) and is used for creating highlights. The specular quality of a light interacts with the specular material qualities set through the **specular()** and **shininess()** functions.

Syntax `lightSpecular(v1, v2, v3)`

v1float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

Parameters **v2**float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

v3float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

[specular\(\)](#)

[lights\(\)](#)

Related [ambientLight\(\)](#)

[pointLight\(\)](#)

[spotLight\(\)](#)

Name

[noLights\(\)](#)

Disable all lighting. Lighting is turned off by default and enabled with the **lights()**

Description function. This function can be used to disable lighting so that 2D geometry (which does not require lighting) can be drawn after a set of lighted 3D geometry.

Syntax `noLights()`

Returns void

Related [lights\(\)](#)

Name

[normal\(\)](#)

```

size(100, 100, P3D);
noStroke();
background(0);
pointLight(150, 250, 150, 10, 30, 50);

```

Examples `beginShape();`

```

normal(0, 0, 1);
vertex(20, 20, -10);
vertex(80, 20, 10);
vertex(80, 80, -10);
vertex(20, 80, 10);
endShape(CLOSE);

```

Sets the current normal vector. Used for drawing three dimensional shapes and surfaces, **normal()** specifies a vector perpendicular to a shape's surface which, in turn, determines how lighting affects it. Processing attempts to automatically assign normals to shapes, but since that's imperfect, this is a better option when you want more control. This function is identical to **glNormal3f()** in OpenGL.

Syntax `normal(nx, ny, nz)`

nxfloat: x direction

nyfloat: y direction

nzfloat: z direction

Returns void

[beginShape\(\)](#)

[endShape\(\)](#)

[lights\(\)](#)

Name

[pointLight\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
pointLight(51, 102, 126, 35, 40, 36);
translate(80, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Adds a point light. Lights need to be included in the **draw()** to remain persistent in a looping program. Placing them in the **setup()** of a looping program will

Description cause them to only have an effect the first time through the loop. The **v1**, **v2**, and **v3** parameters are interpreted as either RGB or HSB values, depending on the current color mode. The **x**, **y**, and **z** parameters set the position of the light.

Syntax `pointLight(v1, v2, v3, x, y, z)`

v1float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

v2float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

Parameters **v3**float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

x float: x-coordinate of the light

y float: y-coordinate of the light

z float: z-coordinate of the light

Returns void

[lights\(\)](#)

[directionalLight\(\)](#)

[ambientLight\(\)](#)

[spotLight\(\)](#)

Name

[spotLight\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
```

```

noStroke();
spotLight(51, 102, 126, 80, 20, 40, -1, 0, 0, PI/2, 2);
translate(20, 50, 0);
sphere(30);

size(100, 100, P3D);
int concentration = 600; // Try 1 -> 10000
background(0);
noStroke();
spotLight(51, 102, 126, 50, 50, 400,
          0, 0, -1, PI/16, concentration);
translate(80, 50, 0);
sphere(30);

```

Adds a spot light. Lights need to be included in the **draw()** to remain persistent in a looping program. Placing them in the **setup()** of a looping program will cause them to only have an effect the first time through the loop. The **v1**, **v2**, and **v3** parameters are interpreted as either RGB or HSB values, depending on the current color mode. The **x**, **y**, and **z** parameters specify the position of the light and **nx**, **ny**, **nz** specify the direction of light. The **angle** parameter affects angle of the spotlight cone, while **concentration** sets the bias of light focusing toward the center of that cone.

Syntax `spotLight(v1, v2, v3, x, y, z, nx, ny, nz, angle, concentration)`

v1	float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)
v2	float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)
v3	float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)
x	float: x-coordinate of the light
y	float: y-coordinate of the light
z	float: z-coordinate of the light
nx	float: direction along the x axis
ny	float: direction along the y axis
nz	float: direction along the z axis
angle	float: angle of the spotlight cone

concentration float: exponent determining the center bias of the cone

Returns void

[lights\(\)](#)

Related [directionalLight\(\)](#)

[pointLight\(\)](#)

[ambientLight\(\)](#)

Name

[beginCamera\(\)](#)

```

size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();

```

Examples

```

beginCamera();
camera();
rotateX(-PI/6);
endCamera();

```

```
translate(50, 50, 0);
rotateY(PI/3);
box(45);
```

The **beginCamera()** and **endCamera()** functions enable advanced customization of the camera space. The functions are useful if you want to more control over camera movement, however for most users, the **camera()** function will be sufficient.

Description The camera functions will replace any transformations (such as **rotate()** or **translate()**) that occur before them in **draw()**, but they will not automatically replace the camera transform itself. For this reason, camera functions should be placed at the beginning of **draw()** (so that transformations happen afterwards), and the **camera()** function can be used after **beginCamera()** if you want to reset the camera before applying transformations.

This function sets the matrix mode to the camera matrix so calls such as **translate()**, **rotate()**, **applyMatrix()** and **resetMatrix()** affect the camera. **beginCamera()** should always be used with a following **endCamera()** and pairs of **beginCamera()** and **endCamera()** cannot be nested.

Syntax `beginCamera()`

Returns void

[camera\(\)](#)
[endCamera\(\)](#)
[applyMatrix\(\)](#)
[resetMatrix\(\)](#)
[translate\(\)](#)
[scale\(\)](#)

Name

[camera\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();
background(204);
camera(70.0, 35.0, 120.0, 50.0, 50.0, 0.0,
       0.0, 1.0, 0.0);
translate(50, 50, 0);
rotateX(-PI/6);
rotateY(PI/3);
box(45);
```

Sets the position of the camera through setting the eye position, the center of the scene, and which axis is facing upward. Moving the eye position and the direction it is pointing (the center of the scene) allows the images to be seen from different angles. The version without any parameters sets the camera to the default

Description position, pointing to the center of the display window with the Y axis as up. The default values are **camera(width/2.0, height/2.0, (height/2.0) / tan(PI*30.0 / 180.0), width/2.0, height/2.0, 0, 0, 1, 0)**. This function is similar to **gluLookAt()** in OpenGL, but it first clears the current camera settings.

`camera()`

Syntax `camera(eyeX, eyeY, eyeZ, centerX, centerY, centerZ, upX, upY, upZ)`

eyeX float: x-coordinate for the eye
eyeY float: y-coordinate for the eye
eyeZ float: z-coordinate for the eye
centerX float: x-coordinate for the center of the scene

Parameters
centerY float: y-coordinate for the center of the scene
centerZ float: z-coordinate for the center of the scene
upX float: usually 0.0, 1.0, or -1.0
upY float: usually 0.0, 1.0, or -1.0
upZ float: usually 0.0, 1.0, or -1.0

Returns void

Related [endCamera\(\)](#)
[frustum\(\)](#)

Name

endCamera()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);  
noFill();
```

Examples
beginCamera();
camera();
rotateX(-PI/6);
endCamera();

```
translate(50, 50, 0);  
rotateY(PI/3);  
box(45);
```

The **beginCamera()** and **endCamera()** functions enable advanced customization

Description of the camera space. Please see the reference for **beginCamera()** for a description of how the functions are used.

Syntax endCamera()

Returns void

Related [camera\(\)](#)

Name

frustum()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);  
noFill();  
background(204);  
frustum(-10, 0, 0, 10, 10, 200);  
rotateY(PI/6);  
box(45);
```

Sets a perspective matrix as defined by the parameters.

Description A frustum is a geometric form: a pyramid with its top cut off. With the viewer's eye at the imaginary top of the pyramid, the six planes of the frustum act as clipping planes when rendering a 3D view. Thus, any form inside the clipping planes is rendered and visible; anything outside those planes is not visible.

Setting the frustum has the effect of changing the *perspective* with which the scene is rendered. This can be achieved more simply in many cases by using [perspective\(\)](#).

Note that the near value must be greater than zero (as the point of the frustum "pyramid" cannot converge "behind" the viewer). Similarly, the far value must be greater than the near value (as the "far" plane of the frustum must be "farther away" from the viewer than the near plane).

Works like glFrustum, except it wipes out the current perspective matrix rather than multiplying itself with it.

Syntax `frustum(left, right, bottom, top, near, far)`

left float: left coordinate of the clipping plane

right float: right coordinate of the clipping plane

bottom float: bottom coordinate of the clipping plane

Parameters **top** float: top coordinate of the clipping plane

near float: near component of the clipping plane; must be greater than zero

far float: far component of the clipping plane; must be greater than the near value

Returns void

[camera\(\)](#)

Related [endCamera\(\)](#)

[perspective\(\)](#)

Name

[ortho\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();
Examples ortho(0, width, 0, height); // same as ortho()
translate(width/2, height/2, 0);
rotateX(-PI/6);
rotateY(PI/3);
box(45);
```

Sets an orthographic projection and defines a parallel clipping volume. All objects with the same dimension appear the same size, regardless of whether they are near or far from the camera. The parameters to this function specify the

Description clipping volume where left and right are the minimum and maximum x values, top and bottom are the minimum and maximum y values, and near and far are the minimum and maximum z values. If no parameters are given, the default is used: `ortho(0, width, 0, height)`.

`ortho()`

Syntax `ortho(left, right, bottom, top)`

`ortho(left, right, bottom, top, near, far)`

left float: left plane of the clipping volume

right float: right plane of the clipping volume

Parameters **bottom** float: bottom plane of the clipping volume

top float: top plane of the clipping volume

near float: maximum distance from the origin to the viewer

far float: maximum distance from the origin away from the viewer

Returns void

Name

perspective()

```
// Re-creates the default perspective
size(100, 100, P3D);
noFill();
float fov = PI/3.0;
float cameraZ = (height/2.0) / tan(fov/2.0);
perspective(fov, float(width)/float(height),
            cameraZ/10.0, cameraZ*10.0);
translate(50, 50, 0);
rotateX(-PI/6);
rotateY(PI/3);
box(45);
```

Examples

Sets a perspective projection applying foreshortening, making distant objects appear smaller than closer ones. The parameters define a viewing volume with the shape of truncated pyramid. Objects near to the front of the volume appear their actual size, while farther objects appear smaller. This projection simulates

Description the perspective of the world more accurately than orthographic projection. The version of perspective without parameters sets the default perspective and the version with four parameters allows the programmer to set the area precisely. The default values are: `perspective(PI/3.0, width/height, cameraZ/10.0, cameraZ*10.0)` where `cameraZ` is $((height/2.0) / \tan(\text{PI} * 60.0 / 360.0))$;

Syntax `perspective()`

fov float: field-of-view angle (in radians) for vertical direction

aspect float: ratio of width to height

zNear float: z-position of nearest clipping plane

zFar float: z-position of farthest clipping plane

Returns void

Name

printCamera()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
printCamera();
```

Examples

```
// The program above prints this data:
// 01.0000 00.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 01.0000 00.0000 -50.0000
// 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000 -86.6025
// 00.0000 00.0000 00.0000 01.0000
```

Description Prints the current camera matrix to the Console (the text window at the bottom of Processing).

Syntax `printCamera()`

Returns void

Related [camera\(\)](#)

Name**printProjection()**

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
printProjection();

Examples // The program above prints this data:
// 01.7321 00.0000 00.0000 00.0000
// 00.0000 -01.7321 00.0000 00.0000
// 00.0000 00.0000 -01.0202 -17.4955
// 00.0000 00.0000 -01.0000 00.0000
```

Description Prints the current projection matrix to the Console (the text window at the bottom of Processing).

Syntax printProjection()

Returns void

Related [camera\(\)](#)

Name**modelX()**

```
void setup() {
    size(500, 500, P3D);
    noFill();
}

void draw() {
    background(0);

    pushMatrix();
    // start at the middle of the screen
    translate(width/2, height/2, -200);
    // some random rotation to make things interesting
    rotateY(1.0); //yrot;
    rotateZ(2.0); //zrot;
    // rotate in X a little more each frame
    rotateX(frameCount / 100.0);
    // offset from center
    translate(0, 150, 0);
```

Examples

```
// draw a white box outline at (0, 0, 0)
stroke(255);
box(50);

// the box was drawn at (0, 0, 0), store that location
float x = modelX(0, 0, 0);
float y = modelY(0, 0, 0);
float z = modelZ(0, 0, 0);
// clear out all the transformations
popMatrix();

// draw another box at the same (x, y, z) coordinate as the
other
pushMatrix();
translate(x, y, z);
stroke(255, 0, 0);
box(50);
popMatrix();
```

```
}
```

Returns the three-dimensional X, Y, Z position in model space. This returns the X value for a given coordinate based on the current set of transformations (scale, rotate, translate, etc.) The X value can be used to place an object in space relative to the location of the original point once the transformations are no longer in use.

Description

In the example, the **modelX()**, **modelY()**, and **modelZ()** functions record the location of a box in space after being placed using a series of translate and rotate commands. After **popMatrix()** is called, those transformations no longer apply, but the (x, y, z) coordinate returned by the model functions is used to place another box in the same location.

Syntax

```
modelX(x, y, z)
```

xfloat: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters

yfloat: 3D y-coordinate to be mapped

zfloat: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related [modelY\(\)](#)

[modelZ\(\)](#)

Name

modelY()

```
void setup() {
    size(500, 500, P3D);
    noFill();
}

void draw() {
    background(0);

    pushMatrix();
    // start at the middle of the screen
    translate(width/2, height/2, -200);
    // some random rotation to make things interesting
    rotateY(1.0); //yrot;
    rotateZ(2.0); //zrot;
    // rotate in X a little more each frame
    rotateX(frameCount / 100.0);
    // offset from center
    translate(0, 150, 0);

    // draw a white box outline at (0, 0, 0)
    stroke(255);
    box(50);

    // the box was drawn at (0, 0, 0), store that location
    float x = modelX(0, 0, 0);
    float y = modelY(0, 0, 0);
    float z = modelZ(0, 0, 0);
    // clear out all the transformations
    popMatrix();

    // draw another box at the same (x, y, z) coordinate as the
    // other
    pushMatrix();
    translate(x, y, z);
```

Examples

```

    stroke(255, 0, 0);
    box(50);
    popMatrix();
}

```

Returns the three-dimensional X, Y, Z position in model space. This returns the Y value for a given coordinate based on the current set of transformations (scale, rotate, translate, etc.) The Y value can be used to place an object in space relative to the location of the original point once the transformations are no longer in use.

Description In the example, the **modelX()**, **modelY()**, and **modelZ()** functions record the location of a box in space after being placed using a series of translate and rotate commands. After **popMatrix()** is called, those transformations no longer apply, but the (x, y, z) coordinate returned by the model functions is used to place another box in the same location.

Syntax `modelY(x, y, z)`
xfloat: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters **yfloat:** 3D y-coordinate to be mapped
zfloat: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related [modelX\(\)](#)
[modelZ\(\)](#)

Name
modelZ()

```

void setup() {
  size(500, 500, P3D);
  noFill();
}

void draw() {
  background(0);

  pushMatrix();
  // start at the middle of the screen
  translate(width/2, height/2, -200);
  // some random rotation to make things interesting
  rotateY(1.0); //yrot;
  rotateZ(2.0); //zrot;
  // rotate in X a little more each frame
  rotateX(frameCount / 100.0);
  // offset from center
  translate(0, 150, 0);

  // draw a white box outline at (0, 0, 0)
  stroke(255);
  box(50);

  // the box was drawn at (0, 0, 0), store that location
  float x = modelX(0, 0, 0);
  float y = modelY(0, 0, 0);
  float z = modelZ(0, 0, 0);
  // clear out all the transformations
  popMatrix();

  // draw another box at the same (x, y, z) coordinate as the

```

Examples

```

    other
    pushMatrix();
    translate(x, y, z);
    stroke(255, 0, 0);
    box(50);
    popMatrix();
}

```

Returns the three-dimensional X, Y, Z position in model space. This returns the Z value for a given coordinate based on the current set of transformations (scale, rotate, translate, etc.) The Z value can be used to place an object in space relative to the location of the original point once the transformations are no longer in use.

Description In the example, the **modelX()**, **modelY()**, and **modelZ()** functions record the location of a box in space after being placed using a series of translate and rotate commands. After **popMatrix()** is called, those transformations no longer apply, but the (x, y, z) coordinate returned by the model functions is used to place another box in the same location.

Syntax **modelZ(x, y, z)**

xfloat: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters **yfloat:** 3D y-coordinate to be mapped

zfloat: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related [modelX\(\)](#)
[modelY\(\)](#)

Name

screenX()

```

void setup() {
  size(100, 100, P3D);
}

void draw() {
  background(204);

  float x = mouseX;
  float y = mouseY;
  float z = -100;

  // Draw "X" at z = -100
  stroke(255);
  line(x-10, y-10, z, x+10, y+10, z);
  line(x+10, y-10, z, x-10, y+10, z);

  // Draw gray line at z = 0 and same
  // x value. Notice the parallax
  stroke(102);
  line(x, 0, 0, x, height, 0);

  // Draw black line at z = 0 to match
  // the x value element drawn at z = -100
  stroke(0);
  float theX = screenX(x, y, z);
  line(theX, 0, 0, theX, height, 0);
}

```

Description Takes a three-dimensional X, Y, Z position and returns the X value for where it

will appear on a (two-dimensional) screen.

Syntax
`screenX(x, y)`
`screenX(x, y, z)`

Parameters
`xfloat`: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters
`yfloat`: 3D y-coordinate to be mapped

`zfloat`: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related
[screenY\(\)](#)
[screenZ\(\)](#)

Name

[screenY\(\)](#)

```
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100, P3D);  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
  
    float x = mouseX;  
    float y = mouseY;  
    float z = -100;  
  
    // Draw "X" at z = -100  
    stroke(255);  
    line(x-10, y-10, z, x+10, y+10, z);  
    line(x+10, y-10, z, x-10, y+10, z);  
  
    // Draw gray line at z = 0 and same  
    // y value. Notice the parallax  
    stroke(102);  
    line(0, y, 0, width, y, 0);  
  
    // Draw black line at z = 0 to match  
    // the y value element drawn at z = -100  
    stroke(0);  
    float theY = screenY(x, y, z);  
    line(0, theY, 0, width, theY, 0);  
}
```

Examples `line(x-10, y-10, z, x+10, y+10, z);`
`line(x+10, y-10, z, x-10, y+10, z);`

Description Takes a three-dimensional X, Y, Z position and returns the Y value for where it will appear on a (two-dimensional) screen.

Syntax
`screenY(x, y)`
`screenY(x, y, z)`

Parameters
`xfloat`: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters
`yfloat`: 3D y-coordinate to be mapped

`zfloat`: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related
[screenX\(\)](#)
[screenZ\(\)](#)

Name

[screenZ\(\)](#)

Examples Coming soon...

Description Takes a three-dimensional X, Y, Z position and returns the Z value for where it will appear on a (two-dimensional) screen.

Syntax `screenZ(x, y, z)`

Parameters `xfloat`: 3D x-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters `yfloat`: 3D y-coordinate to be mapped

Parameters `zfloat`: 3D z-coordinate to be mapped

Returns float

Related [screenX\(\)](#)

[screenY\(\)](#)

Name

[ambient\(\)](#)

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
directionalLight(153, 153, 153, .5, 0, -1);
ambientLight(153, 102, 0);
ambient(51, 26, 0);
translate(70, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Description Sets the ambient reflectance for shapes drawn to the screen. This is combined with the ambient light component of environment. The color components set through the parameters define the reflectance. For example in the default color mode, setting v1=255, v2=127, v3=0, would cause all the red light to reflect and half of the green light to reflect. Used in combination with [emissive\(\)](#), [specular\(\)](#), and [shininess\(\)](#) in setting the material properties of shapes.

Syntax

`ambient(rgb)`

`ambient(gray)`

`ambient(v1, v2, v3)`

rgb int: any value of the color datatype

gray float: number specifying value between white and black

Parameters `v1` float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

`v2` float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

`v3` float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

[emissive\(\)](#)

Related [specular\(\)](#)

[shininess\(\)](#)

Name

[emissive\(\)](#)

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
background(0);
```

```
directionalLight(204, 204, 204, .5, 0, -1);
emissive(0, 26, 51);
translate(70, 50, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Sets the emissive color of the material used for drawing shapes drawn to the

Description screen. Used in combination with **ambient()**, **specular()**, and **shininess()** in setting the material properties of shapes.

Syntax `emissive(rgb)`
`emissive(gray)`
`emissive(v1, v2, v3)`

rgbint: color to set

v1 float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

Parameters **v2** float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

v3 float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

[ambient\(\)](#)

Related [specular\(\)](#)

[shininess\(\)](#)

Name

[shininess\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
background(0);
fill(0, 51, 102);
ambientLight(102, 102, 102);
lightSpecular(204, 204, 204);
directionalLight(102, 102, 102, 0, 0, -1);
specular(255, 255, 255);
translate(30, 50, 0);
shininess(1.0);
sphere(20); // Left sphere
translate(40, 0, 0);
shininess(5.0);
sphere(20); // Right sphere
```

Examples

Sets the amount of gloss in the surface of shapes. Used in combination with **ambient()**, **specular()**, and **emissive()** in setting the material properties of shapes.

Syntax `shininess(shine)`

Parameters **shine** float: degree of shininess

Returns void

[emissive\(\)](#)

Related [ambient\(\)](#)

[specular\(\)](#)

Name

[specular\(\)](#)

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
background(0);
noStroke();
background(0);
fill(0, 51, 102);
lightSpecular(255, 255, 255);
directionalLight(204, 204, 204, 0, 0, -1);
translate(20, 50, 0);
specular(255, 255, 255);
sphere(30);
translate(60, 0, 0);
specular(204, 102, 0);
sphere(30);
```

Sets the specular color of the materials used for shapes drawn to the screen, which sets the color of highlights. Specular refers to light which bounces off a

Description surface in a preferred direction (rather than bouncing in all directions like a diffuse light). Used in combination with [emissive\(\)](#), [ambient\(\)](#), and [shininess\(\)](#) in setting the material properties of shapes.

Syntax `specular(rgb)`

`specular(gray)`
`specular(v1, v2, v3)`

rgbint: color to set

v1 float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

Parameters **v2** float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

v3 float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

[lightSpecular\(\)](#)

[ambient\(\)](#)

[emissive\(\)](#)

[shininess\(\)](#)

Name

background()

```
background(51);
```

Examples `background(255, 204, 0);`

```
PImage img;
img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
background(img);
```

The **background()** function sets the color used for the background of the Processing window. The default background is light gray. This function is typically used within **draw()** to clear the display window at the beginning of each frame, but it can be used inside **setup()** to set the background on the first frame of

Description animation or if the background need only be set once.

An image can also be used as the background for a sketch, although the image's width and height must match that of the sketch window. Images used with **background()** will ignore the current **tint()** setting. To resize an image to the size

of the sketch window, use `image.resize(width, height)`.

It is not possible to use the transparency **alpha** parameter with background colors on the main drawing surface. It can only be used along with a **PGraphics** object and **createGraphics()**.

```
background(rgb)
background(rgb, alpha)
background(gray)
background(gray, alpha)
background(v1, v2, v3)
background(v1, v2, v3, alpha)
background(image)
```

Syntax

rgb int: any value of the color datatype
alpha float: opacity of the background
gray float: specifies a value between white and black
v1 float: red or hue value (depending on the current color mode)
v2 float: green or saturation value (depending on the current color mode)
v3 float: blue or brightness value (depending on the current color mode)
image PImage: PImage to set as background (must be same size as the sketch window)

Returns void

[stroke\(\)](#)

Related

[fill\(\)](#)

[tint\(\)](#)

[colorMode\(\)](#)

Name

clear()

```
PGraphics pg;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    pg = createGraphics(100, 100);
}

void draw() {
    background(204);
    pg.beginDraw();
    pg.stroke(0, 102, 153);
    pg.line(0, 0, mouseX, mouseY);
    pg.endDraw();
    image(pg, 50, 50);
}

// Click to clear the PGraphics object
void mousePressed() {
    pg.clear();
}
```

Examples

Clears the pixels within a buffer. This function only works on **PGraphics** objects created with the **createGraphics()** function; it won't work with the main display window. Unlike the main graphics context (the display window), pixels in additional graphics areas created with **createGraphics()** can be entirely or partially transparent. This function clears everything to make all of the pixels 100% transparent.

Description

Syntax `clear()`

Returns `void`

Name

colorMode()

```
noStroke();
colorMode(RGB, 100);
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < 100; j++) {
        stroke(i, j, 0);
        point(i, j);
    }
}
```

```
noStroke();
colorMode(HSB, 100);
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < 100; j++) {
        stroke(i, j, 100);
        point(i, j);
    }
}
```

Examples

```
// If the color is defined here, it won't be
// affected by the colorMode() in setup().
// Instead, just declare the variable here and
// assign the value after the colorMode() in setup()
//color bg = color(180, 50, 50); // No
color bg; // Yes, but assign it in setup()
```

```
void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
    colorMode(HSB, 360, 100, 100);
    bg = color(180, 50, 50);
}
```

```
void draw() {
    background(bg);
}
```

Changes the way Processing interprets color data. By default, the parameters for **fill()**, **stroke()**, **background()**, and **color()** are defined by values between 0 and 255 using the RGB color model. The **colorMode()** function is used to change the

Description numerical range used for specifying colors and to switch color systems. For example, calling **colorMode(RGB, 1.0)** will specify that values are specified between 0 and 1. The limits for defining colors are altered by setting the parameters range1, range2, range3, and range 4.

```
colorMode(mode)
colorMode(mode, max)
colorMode(mode, max1, max2, max3)
colorMode(mode, max1, max2, max3, maxA)
```

Parameters **mode** int: Either RGB or HSB, corresponding to Red/Green/Blue and Hue/Saturation/Brightness

max float: range for all color elements
max1 float: range for the red or hue depending on the current color mode
max2 float: range for the green or saturation depending on the current color mode
max3 float: range for the blue or brightness depending on the current color mode
maxAfloat: range for the alpha

Returns void

[background\(\)](#)

Related [fill\(\)](#)
[stroke\(\)](#)

Name

[fill\(\)](#)

Examples

```
fill(153);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);
```

```
fill(204, 102, 0);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);
```

Sets the color used to fill shapes. For example, if you run **fill(204, 102, 0)**, all subsequent shapes will be filled with orange. This color is either specified in terms of the RGB or HSB color depending on the current **colorMode()**. (The default color space is RGB, with each value in the range from 0 to 255.)

When using hexadecimal notation to specify a color, use "#" or "0x" before the values (e.g., #CCFFAA or 0xFFCCFFAA). The # syntax uses six digits to specify a color (just as colors are typically specified in HTML and CSS). When using the

Description hexadecimal notation starting with "0x", the hexadecimal value must be specified with eight characters; the first two characters define the alpha component, and the remainder define the red, green, and blue components.

The value for the "gray" parameter must be less than or equal to the current maximum value as specified by **colorMode()**. The default maximum value is 255.

To change the color of an image or a texture, use **tint()**.

```
fill(rgb)
fill(rgb, alpha)
fill(gray)
fill(gray, alpha)
fill(v1, v2, v3)
fill(v1, v2, v3, alpha)
```

rgb int: color variable or hex value

alpha float: opacity of the fill

gray float: number specifying value between white and black

Parameters **v1** float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

v2 float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

v3 float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

[noFill\(\)](#)
[stroke\(\)](#)
Related [tint\(\)](#)
[background\(\)](#)
[colorMode\(\)](#)

Name [noFill\(\)](#)

Examples `rect(15, 10, 55, 55);
noFill();
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);`

Description Disables filling geometry. If both **noStroke()** and **noFill()** are called, nothing will be drawn to the screen.

Syntax `noFill()`

Returns void

Related [fill\(\)](#)

Name [noStroke\(\)](#)

Examples `noStroke();
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);`

Description Disables drawing the stroke (outline). If both **noStroke()** and **noFill()** are called, nothing will be drawn to the screen.

Syntax `noStroke()`

Returns void

Related [stroke\(\)](#)

Name [stroke\(\)](#)

Examples `stroke(153);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);`

`stroke(204, 102, 0);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);`

Sets the color used to draw lines and borders around shapes. This color is either specified in terms of the RGB or HSB color depending on the current **colorMode()** (the default color space is RGB, with each value in the range from 0 to 255).

When using hexadecimal notation to specify a color, use "#" or "0x" before the values (e.g. #CCFFAA, 0xFFCCFFAA). The # syntax uses six digits to specify a

color (the way colors are specified in HTML and CSS). When using the hexadecimal notation starting with "0x", the hexadecimal value must be specified with eight characters; the first two characters define the alpha component and the remainder the red, green, and blue components.

The value for the gray parameter must be less than or equal to the current maximum value as specified by **colorMode()**. The default maximum value is 255.

When drawing in 2D with the default renderer, you may need **hint(ENABLE_STROKE_PURE)** to improve drawing quality (at the expense of performance). See the **hint()** documentation for more details.

```
stroke(rgb)
stroke(rgb, alpha)
stroke(gray)
stroke(gray, alpha)
stroke(v1, v2, v3)
stroke(v1, v2, v3, alpha)
```

rgb int: color value in hexadecimal notation

alpha float: opacity of the stroke

gray float: specifies a value between white and black

Parameters **v1** float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)

v2 float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)

v3 float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

Name

alpha()

```
noStroke();
color c = color(0, 126, 255, 102);
Examples fill(c);
rect(15, 15, 35, 70);
float value = alpha(c); // Sets 'value' to 102
fill(value);
rect(50, 15, 35, 70);
```

Description Extracts the alpha value from a color.

Syntax **alpha(rgb)**

Parameters **rgb**: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)

[green\(\)](#)

[blue\(\)](#)

[hue\(\)](#)

[saturation\(\)](#)

[brightness\(\)](#)

Name

blue()

```
color c = color(175, 100, 220); // Define color 'c'  
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color  
rect(15, 20, 35, 60); // Draw left rectangle
```

Examples

```
float blueValue = blue(c); // Get blue in 'c'  
println(blueValue); // Prints "220.0"  
fill(0, 0, blueValue); // Use 'blueValue' in new fill  
rect(50, 20, 35, 60); // Draw right rectangle
```

Extracts the blue value from a color, scaled to match current **colorMode()**. The value is always returned as a float, so be careful not to assign it to an int value.

The **blue()** function is easy to use and understand, but it is slower than a technique called bit masking. When working in **colorMode(RGB, 255)**, you can

Description achieve the same results as **blue()** but with greater speed by using a bit mask to remove the other color components. For example, the following two lines of code are equivalent means of getting the blue value of the color value **c**:

```
float b1 = blue(c); // Simpler, but slower to calculate  
float b2 = c & 0xFF; // Very fast to calculate
```

Syntax

Parameters `rgb`: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)
[green\(\)](#)
[alpha\(\)](#)

Related [hue\(\)](#)

[saturation\(\)](#)
[brightness\(\)](#)
[>> \(right shift\)](#)

Name

brightness()

```
noStroke();  
colorMode(HSB, 255);  
Examples color c = color(0, 126, 255);  
fill(c);  
rect(15, 20, 35, 60);  
float value = brightness(c); // Sets 'value' to 255  
fill(value);  
rect(50, 20, 35, 60);
```

Description Extracts the brightness value from a color.

Syntax

Parameters `rgb`: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)
[green\(\)](#)
[blue\(\)](#)
[alpha\(\)](#)

[hue\(\)](#)
[saturation\(\)](#)

Name
color()

```
color c = color(255, 204, 0); // Define color 'c'  
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color  
noStroke(); // Don't draw a stroke around shapes  
rect(30, 20, 55, 55); // Draw rectangle
```

```
color c = color(255, 204, 0); // Define color 'c'  
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color  
noStroke(); // Don't draw a stroke around shapes  
ellipse(25, 25, 80, 80); // Draw left circle
```

```
// Using only one value with color()  
// generates a grayscale value.  
c = color(65); // Update 'c' with grayscale value  
Examples fill(c); // Use updated 'c' as fill color  
ellipse(75, 75, 80, 80); // Draw right circle
```

```
color c; // Declare color 'c'  
noStroke(); // Don't draw a stroke around shapes  
  
// If no colorMode is specified, then the  
// default of RGB with scale of 0-255 is used.  
c = color(50, 55, 100); // Create a color for 'c'  
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color  
rect(0, 10, 45, 80); // Draw left rect
```

```
colorMode(HSB, 100); // Use HSB with scale of 0-100  
c = color(50, 55, 100); // Update 'c' with new color  
fill(c); // Use updated 'c' as fill color  
rect(55, 10, 45, 80); // Draw right rect
```

Creates colors for storing in variables of the **color** datatype. The parameters are interpreted as RGB or HSB values depending on the current **colorMode()**. The default mode is RGB values from 0 to 255 and, therefore, the function call **color(255, 204, 0)** will return a bright yellow color (see the first example above).

Description Note that if only one value is provided to **color()**, it will be interpreted as a grayscale value. Add a second value, and it will be used for alpha transparency. When three values are specified, they are interpreted as either RGB or HSB values. Adding a fourth value applies alpha transparency.

More about how colors are stored can be found in the reference for the [color](#) datatype.

```
color(gray)  
color(gray, alpha)  
color(v1, v2, v3)  
color(v1, v2, v3, alpha)
```

Syntax **Parameters** **gray** int: number specifying value between white and black

alpha float, or int: relative to current color range
v1 float, or int: red or hue values relative to the current color range
v2 float, or int: green or saturation values relative to the current color range
v3 float, or int: blue or brightness values relative to the current color range

Returns int

Related [colorMode\(\)](#)

Name

green()

color c = color(20, 75, 200); // Define color 'c'
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color
rect(15, 20, 35, 60); // Draw left rectangle

Examples

```
float greenValue = green(c); // Get green in 'c'  
println(greenValue); // Print "75.0"  
fill(0, greenValue, 0); // Use 'greenValue' in new fill  
rect(50, 20, 35, 60); // Draw right rectangle
```

Extracts the green value from a color, scaled to match current **colorMode()**. The value is always returned as a float, so be careful not to assign it to an int value.

Description The **green()** function is easy to use and understand, but it is slower than a technique called bit shifting. When working in **colorMode(RGB, 255)**, you can achieve the same results as **green()** but with greater speed by using the right shift operator (**>>**) with a bit mask. For example, the following two lines of code are equivalent means of getting the green value of the color value **c**:

```
float r1 = green(c); // Simpler, but slower to calculate  
float r2 = c >> 8 & 0xFF; // Very fast to calculate
```

Syntax **green(rgb)**

Parameters **rgb**: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)
[blue\(\)](#)
[alpha\(\)](#)

Related [hue\(\)](#)

[saturation\(\)](#)
[brightness\(\)](#)
[>>\(right shift\)](#)

Name

hue()

```
noStroke();  
colorMode(HSB, 255);  
color c = color(0, 126, 255);  
fill(c);  
rect(15, 20, 35, 60);  
float value = hue(c); // Sets 'value' to "0"
```

Examples

```
    fill(value);
    rect(50, 20, 35, 60);
```

DescriptionExtracts the hue value from a color.

Syntax hue(rgb)

Parametersrgbint: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)

[green\(\)](#)

[blue\(\)](#)

Related

[alpha\(\)](#)

[saturation\(\)](#)

[brightness\(\)](#)

Name

[lerpColor\(\)](#)

```
stroke(255);
background(51);
color from = color(204, 102, 0);
color to = color(0, 102, 153);
color interA = lerpColor(from, to, .33);
color interB = lerpColor(from, to, .66);
fill(from);
rect(10, 20, 20, 60);
fill(interA);
rect(30, 20, 20, 60);
fill(interB);
rect(50, 20, 20, 60);
fill(to);
rect(70, 20, 20, 60);
```

Examples

Calculates a color or colors between two color at a specific increment. The **amt**

Descriptionparameter is the amount to interpolate between the two values where 0.0 equal to the first point, 0.1 is very near the first point, 0.5 is halfway in between, etc.

Syntax lerpColor(c1, c2, amt)

c1 int: interpolate from this color

Parameters **c2** int: interpolate to this color

amtfloat: between 0.0 and 1.0

Returns int

Related [color\(\)](#)

Name

[red\(\)](#)

```
color c = color(255, 204, 0); // Define color 'c'
fill(c); // Use color variable 'c' as fill color
```

Examples rect(15, 20, 35, 60); // Draw left rectangle

```
float redValue = red(c); // Get red in 'c'
```

```
println(redValue); // Print "255.0"
```

```
fill(redValue, 0, 0); // Use 'redValue' in new fill
```

```
rect(50, 20, 35, 60); // Draw right rectangle
```

Extracts the red value from a color, scaled to match current **colorMode()**. The value is always returned as a float, so be careful not to assign it to an int value.

The **red()** function is easy to use and understand, but it is slower than a technique called bit shifting. When working in **colorMode(RGB, 255)**, you can achieve the same results as **red()** but with greater speed by using the right shift operator (**>>**) with a bit mask. For example, the following two lines of code are equivalent means of getting the red value of the color value **c**:

```
float r1 = red(c); // Simpler, but slower to calculate  
float r2 = c >> 16 & 0xFF; // Very fast to calculate
```

Syntax `red(rgb)`

Parameters `rgb`: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[green\(\)](#)

[blue\(\)](#)

[alpha\(\)](#)

Related [hue\(\)](#)

[saturation\(\)](#)

[brightness\(\)](#)

[>> \(right shift\)](#)

Name

saturation()

```
noStroke();
```

```
colorMode(HSB, 255);
```

Examples

```
color c = color(0, 126, 255);  
fill(c);  
rect(15, 20, 35, 60);  
float value = saturation(c); // Sets 'value' to 126  
fill(value);  
rect(50, 20, 35, 60);
```

Description Extracts the saturation value from a color.

Syntax `saturation(rgb)`

Parameters `rgb`: any value of the color datatype

Returns float

[red\(\)](#)

[green\(\)](#)

[blue\(\)](#)

[alpha\(\)](#)

[hue\(\)](#)

[brightness\(\)](#)

Name

createImage()

Examples

```

PImage img = createImage(66, 66, RGB);
img.loadPixels();
for (int i = 0; i < img.pixels.length; i++) {
    img.pixels[i] = color(0, 90, 102);
}
img.updatePixels();
image(img, 17, 17);

PImage img = createImage(66, 66, ARGB);
img.loadPixels();
for (int i = 0; i < img.pixels.length; i++) {
    img.pixels[i] = color(0, 90, 102, i % img.width * 2);
}
img.updatePixels();
image(img, 17, 17);
image(img, 34, 34);

```

Creates a new **PImage** (the datatype for storing images). This provides a fresh buffer of pixels to play with. Set the size of the buffer with the **width** and **height** parameters. The **format** parameter defines how the pixels are stored. See the **PImage** reference for more information.

Description Be sure to include all three parameters, specifying only the width and height (but no format) will produce a strange error.

Advanced users please note that `createImage()` should be used instead of the syntax `new PImage()`.

Syntax `createImage(w, h, format)`

w int: width in pixels

Parameters **h** int: height in pixels

format int: Either RGB, ARGB, ALPHA (grayscale alpha channel)

Returns **PImage**

Related [PImage](#)
[PGraphics](#)

Name

PImage

Examples

```

PImage img;

void setup() {
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}

void draw() {
    image(img, 0, 0);
}

```

Datatype for storing images. Processing can display **.gif**, **.jpg**, **.tga**, and **.png** images. Images may be displayed in 2D and 3D space. Before an image is used, it must be loaded with the **loadImage()** function. The **PImage** class contains

Description fields for the **width** and **height** of the image, as well as an array called **pixels[]** that contains the values for every pixel in the image. The methods described below allow easy access to the image's pixels and alpha channel and simplify the process of compositing.

Before using the **pixels[]** array, be sure to use the **loadPixels()** method on the image to make sure that the pixel data is properly loaded.

To create a new image, use the **createImage()** function. Do not use the syntax **new PImage()**.

pixels[] Array containing the color of every pixel in the image

Fields	width Image width height Image height loadPixels() Loads the pixel data for the image into its pixels[] array updatePixels() Updates the image with the data in its pixels[] array resize() Changes the size of an image to a new width and height get() Reads the color of any pixel or grabs a rectangle of pixels set() writes a color to any pixel or writes an image into another
Methods	mask() Masks part of an image with another image as an alpha channel filter() Converts the image to grayscale or black and white copy() Copies the entire image blend() Copies a pixel or rectangle of pixels using different blending modes save() Saves the image to a TIFF, TARGA, PNG, or JPEG file
Constructor	PImage() PImage(width, height) PImage(width, height, format) PImage(img)
	width int: image width height int: image height
Parameters	format int: Either RGB, ARGB, ALPHA (grayscale alpha channel)
	img Image: assumes a MediaTracker has been used to fully download the data and the img is valid
Related	loadImage() imageMode() createImage()

Name

image()

```
PImage img;

void setup() {
    // Images must be in the "data" directory to load correctly
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
    image(img, 0, 0);
}
```

```
PImage img;

void setup() {
    // Images must be in the "data" directory to load correctly
}
```

```

    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}

void draw() {
    image(img, 0, 0);
    image(img, 0, 0, width/2, height/2);
}

```

The **image()** function draws an image to the display window. Images must be in the sketch's "data" directory to load correctly. Select "Add file..." from the "Sketch" menu to add the image to the data directory, or just drag the image file onto the sketch window. Processing currently works with GIF, JPEG, and PNG images.

Description The **img** parameter specifies the image to display and by default the **a** and **b** parameters define the location of its upper-left corner. The image is displayed at its original size unless the **c** and **d** parameters specify a different size. The **imageMode()** function can be used to change the way these parameters draw the image.

The color of an image may be modified with the **tint()** function. This function will maintain transparency for GIF and PNG images.

Syntax

```
image(img, a, b)
image(img, a, b, c, d)
```

Parameters

- img**: PImage: the image to display
- a**: float: x-coordinate of the image
- b**: float: y-coordinate of the image
- c**: float: width to display the image
- d**: float: height to display the image

Returns void

[loadImage\(\)](#)
[PImage](#)
[imageMode\(\)](#)
[tint\(\)](#)
[background\(\)](#)
[alpha\(\)](#)

Name [imageMode\(\)](#)

```
PImage img;

void setup() {
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
    imageMode(CORNER);
    image(img, 10, 10, 50, 50); // Draw image using CORNER mode
}
```

```
PImage img;
```

```

void setup() {
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}

void draw() {
    imageMode(CORNERS);
    image(img, 10, 10, 90, 40); // Draw image using CORNERS mode
}

PIImage img;

void setup() {
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}

void draw() {
    imageMode(CENTER);
    image(img, 50, 50, 80, 80); // Draw image using CENTER mode
}

```

Modifies the location from which images are drawn by changing the way in which parameters given to **image()** are interpreted.

The default mode is **imageMode(CORNER)**, which interprets the second and third parameters of **image()** as the upper-left corner of the image. If two additional parameters are specified, they are used to set the image's width and height.

Description **imageMode(CORNERS)** interprets the second and third parameters of **image()** as the location of one corner, and the fourth and fifth parameters as the opposite corner.

imageMode(CENTER) interprets the second and third parameters of **image()** as the image's center point. If two additional parameters are specified, they are used to set the image's width and height.

The parameter must be written in ALL CAPS because Processing is a case-sensitive language.

Syntax `imageMode(mode)`

Parameters `mode` int: either CORNER, CORNERS, or CENTER

Returns void

[loadImage\(\)](#)

Related [PIImage](#)

[image\(\)](#)

[background\(\)](#)

Name

[loadImage\(\)](#)

Examples `PIImage img;`

```

img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);

```

```

PImage img;

void setup() {
    img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
}

void draw() {
    image(img, 0, 0);
}

PImage webImg;

void setup() {
    String url = "http://processing.org/img/processing_cover";
    // Load image from a web server
    webImg = loadImage(url, "gif");
}

void draw() {
    background(0);
    image(webImg, 0, 0);
}

```

Loads an image into a variable of type **PImage**. Four types of images (**.gif**, **.jpg**, **.tga**, **.png**) images may be loaded. To load correctly, images must be located in the data directory of the current sketch.

In most cases, load all images in **setup()** to preload them at the start of the program. Loading images inside **draw()** will reduce the speed of a program. Images cannot be loaded outside **setup()** unless they're inside a function that's called after **setup()** has already run.

Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

Description If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a `NullPointerException` if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

The **extension** parameter is used to determine the image type in cases where the image filename does not end with a proper extension. Specify the extension as the second parameter to **loadImage()**, as shown in the third example on this page.

Depending on the type of error, a **PImage** object may still be returned, but the width and height of the image will be set to -1. This happens if bad image data is returned or cannot be decoded properly. Sometimes this happens with image URLs that produce a 403 error or that redirect to a password prompt, because **loadImage()** will attempt to interpret the HTML as image data.

Syntax

```

loadImage(filename)
loadImage(filename, extension)

```

Parameters **filename** String: name of file to load, can be .gif, .jpg, .tga, or a handful of other

image types depending on your platform

extensionString: type of image to load, for example "png", "gif", "jpg"

Returns PImage

[PImage](#)

Related [image\(\)](#)

[imageMode\(\)](#)

[background\(\)](#)

Name

[noTint\(\)](#)

PImage img;

Examples
img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
tint(0, 153, 204); // Tint blue
image(img, 0, 0);
noTint(); // Disable tint
image(img, 50, 0);

Description Removes the current fill value for displaying images and reverts to displaying images with their original hues.

Syntax noTint()

Returns void

Related [tint\(\)](#)

[image\(\)](#)

Name

[requestImage\(\)](#)

PImage bigImage;

void setup() {
 bigImage = requestImage("something.jpg");
}

void draw() {
 if (bigImage.width == 0) {
 // Image is not yet loaded
 } else if (bigImage.width == -1) {
 // This means an error occurred during image loading
 } else {
 // Image is ready to go, draw it
 image(bigImage, 0, 0);
 }
}

Examples

This function loads images on a separate thread so that your sketch doesn't freeze while images load during **setup()**. While the image is loading, its width and height will be 0. If an error occurs while loading the image, its width and height will be set to -1. You'll know when the image has loaded properly because its **width** and **height** will be greater than 0. Asynchronous image loading (particularly when downloading from a server) can dramatically improve performance.

The **extension** parameter is used to determine the image type in cases where the image filename does not end with a proper extension. Specify the extension as the second parameter to **requestImage()**.

Syntax
`requestImage(filename)`
`requestImage(filename, extension)`

Parameters **filename** String: name of the file to load, can be .gif, .jpg, .tga, or a handful of other image types depending on your platform
extension String: the type of image to load, for example "png", "gif", "jpg"
Returns PImage
Related [PImage](#)
[loadImage\(\)](#)

Name
[tint\(\)](#)

```
PImage img;  
img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");  
image(img, 0, 0);  
tint(0, 153, 204); // Tint blue  
image(img, 50, 0);
```

Examples

```
PImage img;  
img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");  
image(img, 0, 0);  
tint(0, 153, 204, 126); // Tint blue and set transparency  
image(img, 50, 0);
```

```
PImage img;  
img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");  
image(img, 0, 0);  
tint(255, 126); // Apply transparency without changing color  
image(img, 50, 0);
```

Sets the fill value for displaying images. Images can be tinted to specified colors or made transparent by including an alpha value.

To apply transparency to an image without affecting its color, use white as the tint color and specify an alpha value. For instance, `tint(255, 128)` will make an image 50% transparent (assuming the default alpha range of 0-255, which can be changed with **colorMode()**).

Description When using hexadecimal notation to specify a color, use "#" or "0x" before the values (e.g. #CCFFAA, 0xFFCCFFAA). The # syntax uses six digits to specify a color (the way colors are specified in HTML and CSS). When using the hexadecimal notation starting with "0x", the hexadecimal value must be specified with eight characters; the first two characters define the alpha component and the remainder the red, green, and blue components.

The value for the gray parameter must be less than or equal to the current maximum value as specified by **colorMode()**. The default maximum value is 255.

The **tint()** function is also used to control the coloring of textures in 3D.

Syntax

```
tint(rgb)
tint(rgb, alpha)
tint(gray)
tint(gray, alpha)
tint(v1, v2, v3)
tint(v1, v2, v3, alpha)
```

rgb int: color value in hexadecimal notation

alpha float: opacity of the image

gray float: specifies a value between white and black

Parameters

- v1** float: red or hue value (depending on current color mode)
- v2** float: green or saturation value (depending on current color mode)
- v3** float: blue or brightness value (depending on current color mode)

Returns void

Related [noTint\(\)](#)
[image\(\)](#)

Name

texture()

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
noStroke();
PI mage img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
```

Examples

```
beginShape();
texture(img);
vertex(10, 20, 0, 0);
vertex(80, 5, 100, 0);
vertex(95, 90, 100, 100);
vertex(40, 95, 0, 100);
endShape();
```

Sets a texture to be applied to vertex points. The **texture()** function must be called between **beginShape()** and **endShape()** and before any calls to **vertex()**.

Description This function only works with the P2D and P3D renderers.

When textures are in use, the fill color is ignored. Instead, use **tint()** to specify the color of the texture as it is applied to the shape.

Syntax `texture(image)`

Parameters `image` PImage: reference to a PImage object

Returns void

[textureMode\(\)](#)
[textureWrap\(\)](#)

Related [beginShape\(\)](#)
[endShape\(\)](#)
[vertex\(\)](#)

Name

textureMode()

```

size(100, 100, P3D);
noStroke();
PImage img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
textureMode(IMAGE);
beginShape();
texture(img);
vertex(10, 20, 0, 0);
vertex(80, 5, 100, 0);
vertex(95, 90, 100, 100);
vertex(40, 95, 0, 100);
endShape();

```

Examples

```

size(100, 100, P3D);
noStroke();
PImage img = loadImage("laDefense.jpg");
textureMode(NORMAL);
beginShape();
texture(img);
vertex(10, 20, 0, 0);
vertex(80, 5, 1, 0);
vertex(95, 90, 1, 1);
vertex(40, 95, 0, 1);
endShape();

```

Sets the coordinate space for texture mapping. The default mode is **IMAGE**, which refers to the actual coordinates of the image. **NORMAL** refers to a normalized space of values ranging from 0 to 1. This function only works with the P2D and P3D renderers.

Description

With **IMAGE**, if an image is 100 x 200 pixels, mapping the image onto the entire size of a quad would require the points (0,0) (0,100) (100,200) (0,200). The same mapping in **NORMAL** is (0,0) (0,1) (1,1) (0,1).

Syntax `textureMode(mode)`

Parameters `mode`: either IMAGE or NORMAL

Returns void

Related [texture\(\)](#)

[textureWrap\(\)](#)

Name

textureWrap()

```

PImage img;

void setup() {
  size(300, 300, P2D);
  img = loadImage("berlin-1.jpg");
  textureMode(NORMAL);
}

void draw() {
  background(0);
  translate(width/2, height/2);
  rotate(map(mouseX, 0, width, -PI, PI));
  if (mousePressed) {
    textureWrap(REPEAT);
  }
}

```

Examples

```

    } else {
      textureWrap(CLAMP);
    }
  beginShape();
  texture(img);
  vertex(-100, -100, 0, 0);
  vertex(100, -100, 2, 0);
  vertex(100, 100, 2, 2);
  vertex(-100, 100, 0, 2);
  endShape();
}

```

Defines if textures repeat or draw once within a texture map. The two parameters

Description are CLAMP (the default behavior) and REPEAT. This function only works with the P2D and P3D renderers.

Syntax `textureWrap(wrap)`

Parameters `wrap`: Either CLAMP (default) or REPEAT

Returns void

Related [texture\(\)](#)

[textureMode\(\)](#)

Name

blend()

```

background(loadImage("rockies.jpg"));
PImage img = loadImage("bricks.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
blend(img, 0, 0, 33, 100, 67, 0, 33, 100, ADD);

```

```

background(loadImage("rockies.jpg"));
PImage img = loadImage("bricks.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
blend(img, 0, 0, 33, 100, 67, 0, 33, 100, SUBTRACT);

```

Examples

```

background(loadImage("rockies.jpg"));
PImage img = loadImage("bricks.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
blend(img, 0, 0, 33, 100, 67, 0, 33, 100, DARKEST);

```

```

background(loadImage("rockies.jpg"));
PImage img = loadImage("bricks.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
blend(img, 0, 0, 33, 100, 67, 0, 33, 100, LIGHTEST);

```

Blends a region of pixels from one image into another (or in itself again) with full alpha channel support. There is a choice of the following modes to blend the source pixels (A) with the ones of pixels in the destination image (B):

Description BLENDS - linear interpolation of colours: C = A*factor + B

ADD - additive blending with white clip: C = min(A*factor + B, 255)

SUBTRACT - subtractive blending with black clip: C = max(B - A*factor, 0)

DARKEST - only the darkest colour succeeds: $C = \min(A * \text{factor}, B)$

LIGHTEST - only the lightest colour succeeds: $C = \max(A * \text{factor}, B)$

DIFFERENCE - subtract colors from underlying image.

EXCLUSION - similar to DIFFERENCE, but less extreme.

MULTIPLY - Multiply the colors, result will always be darker.

SCREEN - Opposite multiply, uses inverse values of the colors.

OVERLAY - A mix of MULTIPLY and SCREEN. Multiplies dark values, and screens light values.

HARD_LIGHT - SCREEN when greater than 50% gray, MULTIPLY when lower.

SOFT_LIGHT - Mix of DARKEST and LIGHTEST. Works like OVERLAY, but not as harsh.

DODGE - Lightens light tones and increases contrast, ignores darks. Called "Color Dodge" in Illustrator and Photoshop.

BURN - Darker areas are applied, increasing contrast, ignores lights. Called "Color Burn" in Illustrator and Photoshop.

All modes use the alpha information (highest byte) of source image pixels as the blending factor. If the source and destination regions are different sizes, the image will be automatically resized to match the destination size. If the **srcImg** parameter is not used, the display window is used as the source image.

As of release 0149, this function ignores **imageMode()**.

Syntax `blend(sx, sy, sw, sh, dx, dy, dw, dh, mode)`
 `blend(src, sx, sy, sw, sh, dx, dy, dw, dh, mode)`

src PImage: an image variable referring to the source image
 sx int: X coordinate of the source's upper left corner
 sy int: Y coordinate of the source's upper left corner
 sw int: source image width
 sh int: source image height
Parameters **dx** int: X coordinate of the destinations's upper left corner
 dy int: Y coordinate of the destinations's upper left corner
 dw int: destination image width
 dh int: destination image height
 int: Either BLEND, ADD, SUBTRACT, LIGHTEST, DARKEST,
 mode DIFFERENCE, EXCLUSION, MULTIPLY, SCREEN, OVERLAY,
 HARD_LIGHT, SOFT_LIGHT, DODGE, BURN

Returns void

Related [alpha\(\)](#)
[copy\(\)](#)

Name

copy()

```
PImage img = loadImage("eames.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0, width, height);
copy(7, 22, 10, 10, 35, 25, 50, 50);
stroke(255);
noFill();
// Rectangle shows area being copied
rect(7, 22, 10, 10);
```

Examples Copies a region of pixels from the display window to another area of the display window and copies a region of pixels from an image used as the **srcImg** parameter into the display window. If the source and destination regions aren't the same size, it will automatically resize the source pixels to fit the specified target region. No alpha information is used in the process, however if the source image has an alpha channel set, it will be copied as well.

Description

As of release 0149, this function ignores **imageMode()**.

Syntax

```
copy(sx, sy, sw, sh, dx, dy, dw, dh)
copy(src, sx, sy, sw, sh, dx, dy, dw, dh)
```

sx int: X coordinate of the source's upper left corner
sy int: Y coordinate of the source's upper left corner
sw int: source image width
sh int: source image height

Parameters
dx int: X coordinate of the destination's upper left corner
dy int: Y coordinate of the destination's upper left corner
dw int: destination image width
dh int: destination image height
srcPImage: an image variable referring to the source image.

Returns

void

Related

[alpha\(\)](#)
[blend\(\)](#)

Name

filter()

```
PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(THRESHOLD);
```

Examples

```
PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(GRAY);
```

```

PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(INVERT);

PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(PSTERIZE, 4);

PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(BLUR, 6);

PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(ERODE);

PImage img;
img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
filter(DILATE);

PShader blur;
PImage img;

void setup() {
    size(100, 100, P2D);
    blur = loadShader("blur.glsl");
    img = loadImage("apples.jpg");
    image(img, 0, 0);
}

void draw() {
    filter(blur); // Blurs more each time through draw()
}

```

Filters the display window using a preset filter or with a custom shader. Using a shader with **filter()** is much faster than without. Shaders require the P2D or P3D renderer in **size()**.

The presets options are:

THRESHOLD

Description Converts the image to black and white pixels depending if they are above or below the threshold defined by the level parameter. The parameter must be between 0.0 (black) and 1.0 (white). If no level is specified, 0.5 is used.

GRAY

Converts any colors in the image to grayscale equivalents. No parameter is used.

OPAQUE

Sets the alpha channel to entirely opaque. No parameter is used.

INVERT

Sets each pixel to its inverse value. No parameter is used.

POSTERIZE

Limits each channel of the image to the number of colors specified as the parameter. The parameter can be set to values between 2 and 255, but results are most noticeable in the lower ranges.

BLUR

Executes a Guassian blur with the level parameter specifying the extent of the blurring. If no parameter is used, the blur is equivalent to Guassian blur of radius 1. Larger values increase the blur.

ERODE

Reduces the light areas. No parameter is used.

DILATE

Increases the light areas. No parameter is used.

filter(shader)

Syntax filter(kind)

filter(kind, param)

shaderPShader: the fragment shader to apply

Parameters kind int: Either THRESHOLD, GRAY, OPAQUE, INVERT, POSTERIZE, BLUR, ERODE, or DILATE

paramfloat: unique for each, see above

Returns void

Name

get()

```
PImage myImage = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(myImage, 0, 0);
PImage c = get();
image(c, width/2, 0);
```

Examples

```
PImage myImage = loadImage("apples.jpg");
image(myImage, 0, 0);
color c = get(25, 25);
fill(c);
noStroke();
rect(25, 25, 50, 50);
```

Reads the color of any pixel or grabs a section of an image. If no parameters are specified, the entire image is returned. Use the **x** and **y** parameters to get the value of one pixel. Get a section of the display window by specifying additional **w** and

Description **h** parameters. When getting an image, the **x** and **y** parameters define the coordinates for the upper-left corner of the image, regardless of the current **imageMode()**.

If the pixel requested is outside of the image window, black is returned. The numbers returned are scaled according to the current color ranges, but only RGB values are returned by this function. For example, even though you may have drawn a shape with **colorMode(HSB)**, the numbers returned will be in RGB format.

Getting the color of a single pixel with **get(x, y)** is easy, but not as fast as grabbing the data directly from **pixels[]**. The equivalent statement to **get(x, y)** using **pixels[]** is **pixels[y*width+x]**. See the reference for [pixels\[\]](#) for more information.

Syntax
`get(x, y)
get(x, y, w, h)
get()`
Parameters
`x int: x-coordinate of the pixel
y int: y-coordinate of the pixel
wint: width of pixel rectangle to get
h int: height of pixel rectangle to get`
Returns int or PImage
[set\(\)](#)
Related [pixels\[\]](#)
[copy\(\)](#)

Name
[loadPixels\(\)](#)

```
int halfImage = width*height/2;  
PImage myImage = loadImage("apples.jpg");  
image(myImage, 0, 0);
```

Examples
`loadPixels();
for (int i = 0; i < halfImage; i++) {
 pixels[i+halfImage] = pixels[i];
}
updatePixels();`
Loads the pixel data for the display window into the **pixels[]** array. This function must always be called before reading from or writing to **pixels[]**.

Description Certain renderers may or may not seem to require **loadPixels()** or **updatePixels()**. However, the rule is that any time you want to manipulate the **pixels[]** array, you must first call **loadPixels()**, and after changes have been made, call **updatePixels()**. Even if the renderer may not seem to use this function in the current Processing release, this will always be subject to change.

Syntax `loadPixels()`
Returns void
Related [pixels\[\]](#)
[updatePixels\(\)](#)

Name
[pixels\[\]](#)

Examples

```
color pink = color(255, 102, 204);
loadPixels();
for (int i = 0; i < (width*height/2)-width/2; i++) {
    pixels[i] = pink;
}
updatePixels();
```

Array containing the values for all the pixels in the display window. These values are of the color datatype. This array is the size of the display window. For example, if the image is 100x100 pixels, there will be 10000 values and if the window is 200x300 pixels, there will be 60000 values. The **index** value defines the position of a value within the array. For example, the statement **color b = pixels[230]** will set the variable **b** to be equal to the value at that location in the array.

Description

Before accessing this array, the data must be loaded with the **loadPixels()** function. After the array data has been modified, the **updatePixels()** function must be run to update the changes. Without **loadPixels()**, running the code may (or will in future releases) result in a `NullPointerException`.

[loadPixels\(\)](#)
[updatePixels\(\)](#)

Related [get\(\)](#)
[set\(\)](#)
[PImage](#)

Name
set()

Examples

```
color black = color(0);
set(30, 20, black);
set(85, 20, black);
set(85, 75, black);
set(30, 75, black);

for (int i = 30; i < width-15; i++) {
    for (int j = 20; j < height-25; j++) {
        color c = color(204-j, 153-i, 0);
        set(i, j, c);
    }
}
```

```
size(100, 100);
PImage myImage = loadImage("apples.jpg");
set(0, 0, myImage);
line(0, 0, width, height);
line(0, height, width, 0);
```

Changes the color of any pixel, or writes an image directly to the display window.

Description The **x** and **y** parameters specify the pixel to change and the **c** parameter specifies the color value. The **c** parameter is interpreted according to the current color

mode. (The default color mode is RGB values from 0 to 255.) When setting an image, the **x** and **y** parameters define the coordinates for the upper-left corner of the image, regardless of the current **imageMode()**.

Setting the color of a single pixel with **set(x, y)** is easy, but not as fast as putting the data directly into **pixels[]**. The equivalent statement to **set(x, y, #000000)** using **pixels[]** is **pixels[y*width+x] = #000000**. See the reference for **pixels[]** for more information.

Syntax `set(x, y, c)`
`set(x, y, img)`

x int: x-coordinate of the pixel

Parameters **y** int: y-coordinate of the pixel

c int: any value of the color datatype

imgPImage: image to copy into the original image

Returns void

[get\(\)](#)

Related [pixels\[\]](#)

[copy\(\)](#)

Name [updatePixels\(\)](#)

```
PImage img = loadImage("rockies.jpg");
image(img, 0, 0);
int halfImage = img.width * img.height/2;
loadPixels();
for (int i = 0; i < halfImage; i++) {
  pixels[i+halfImage] = pixels[i];
}
updatePixels();
```

Examples Updates the display window with the data in the **pixels[]** array. Use in conjunction with **loadPixels()**. If you're only reading pixels from the array, there's no need to call **updatePixels()** — updating is only necessary to apply changes.

Description Certain renderers may or may not seem to require **loadPixels()** or **updatePixels()**. However, the rule is that any time you want to manipulate the **pixels[]** array, you must first call **loadPixels()**, and after changes have been made, call **updatePixels()**. Even if the renderer may not seem to use this function in the current Processing release, this will always be subject to change.

Currently, while none of the renderers use the additional parameters to **updatePixels()**, this may be implemented in the future.

Syntax `updatePixels()`

Returns void

Related [loadPixels\(\)](#)

[pixels\[\]](#)

Name [blendMode\(\)](#)

```
size(100, 100);
background(0);
blendMode(ADD);
stroke(102);
strokeWeight(30);
line(25, 25, 75, 75);
line(75, 25, 25, 75);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P2D);
blendMode(MULTIPLY);
stroke(51);
strokeWeight(30);
line(25, 25, 75, 75);
line(75, 25, 25, 75);
```

Blends the pixels in the display window according to the defined mode. There is a choice of the following modes to blend the source pixels (A) with the ones of pixels already in the display window (B):

BLEND - linear interpolation of colours: $C = A * \text{factor} + B$. This is the default blending mode.

ADD - additive blending with white clip: $C = \min(A * \text{factor} + B, 255)$

SUBTRACT - subtractive blending with black clip: $C = \max(B - A * \text{factor}, 0)$

DARKEST - only the darkest colour succeeds: $C = \min(A * \text{factor}, B)$

LIGHTEST - only the lightest colour succeeds: $C = \max(A * \text{factor}, B)$

Description DIFFERENCE - subtract colors from underlying image.

EXCLUSION - similar to DIFFERENCE, but less extreme.

MULTIPLY - multiply the colors, result will always be darker.

SCREEN - opposite multiply, uses inverse values of the colors.

REPLACE - the pixels entirely replace the others and don't utilize alpha (transparency) values

For Processing 2.0, we recommend using **blendMode()** and not the previous **blend()** function. However, unlike **blend()**, the **blendMode()** function does not support the following: HARD_LIGHT, SOFT_LIGHT, OVERLAY, DODGE, BURN. On older hardware, the LIGHTEST, DARKEST, and DIFFERENCE modes might not be available as well.

Syntax `blendMode(mode)`

Parameters `mode`: the blending mode to use

Returns `void`

Name

createGraphics()

```

PGraphics pg;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    pg = createGraphics(100, 100);
}

```

Examples

```

void draw() {
    pg.beginDraw();
    pg.background(102);
    pg.stroke(255);
    pg.line(pg.width*0.5, pg.height*0.5, mouseX, mouseY);
    pg.endDraw();
    image(pg, 50, 50);
}

```

Creates and returns a new **PGraphics** object. Use this class if you need to draw into an off-screen graphics buffer. The first two parameters define the width and height in pixels. The third, optional parameter specifies the renderer. It can be defined as P2D, P3D, or PDF. If the third parameter isn't used, the default renderer is set. The PDF renderer requires the filename parameter.

It's important to consider the renderer used with **createGraphics()** in relation to the main renderer specified in **size()**. For example, it's only possible to use P2D or P3D with **createGraphics()** when one of them is defined in **size()**. Unlike Processing 1.0, P2D and P3D use OpenGL for drawing, and when using an OpenGL renderer it's necessary for the main drawing surface to be

Description OpenGL-based. If P2D or P3D are used as the renderer in **size()**, then any of the options can be used with **createGraphics()**. If the default renderer is used in **size()**, then only the default or PDF can be used with **createGraphics()**.

It's important to call any drawing functions between **beginDraw()** and **endDraw()** statements. This is also true for any functions that affect drawing, such as **smooth()** or **colorMode()**.

Unlike the main drawing surface which is completely opaque, surfaces created with **createGraphics()** can have transparency. This makes it possible to draw into a graphics and maintain the alpha channel. By using **save()** to write a PNG or TGA file, the transparency of the graphics object will be honored.

```

createGraphics(w, h)
createGraphics(w, h, renderer)
createGraphics(w, h, renderer, path)
    w    int: width in pixels
    h    int: height in pixels

```

Parameters **rendererString**: Either P2D, P3D, or PDF
path String: the name of the file (can be an absolute or relative path)

Returns PGraphics

Name

PGraphics

```
PGraphics pg;
```

Examples

```

void setup() {
    size(100, 100);
}

```

```

    pg = createGraphics(40, 40);
}

void draw() {
    pg.beginDraw();
    pg.background(100);
    pg.stroke(255);
    pg.line(20, 20, mouseX, mouseY);
    pg.endDraw();
    image(pg, 9, 30);
    image(pg, 51, 30);
}

```

Description Main graphics and rendering context, as well as the base API implementation for processing "core". Use this class if you need to draw into an off-screen graphics buffer. A PGraphics object can be constructed with the [createGraphics\(\)](#) function. The [beginDraw\(\)](#) and [endDraw\(\)](#) methods (see above example) are necessary to set up the buffer and to finalize it. The fields and methods for this class are extensive. For a complete list, visit the [developer's reference](#).

Methods [beginDraw\(\)](#) Sets the default properties for a PGraphics object
[endDraw\(\)](#) Finalizes the rendering of a PGraphics object

Constructor `PGraphics()`

Related [createGraphics\(\)](#)

Name

[loadShader\(\)](#)

```

PShader blur;

void setup() {
    size(640, 360, P2D);
    // Shaders files must be in the "data" folder to load correctly
    blur = loadShader("blur.glsL");
    stroke(0, 102, 153);
    rectMode(CENTER);
}

void draw() {
    filter(blur);
    rect(mouseX-75, mouseY, 150, 150);
    ellipse(mouseX+75, mouseY, 150, 150);
}

```

Examples

Loads a shader into the PShader object. The shader file must be loaded in the sketch's "data" folder/directory to load correctly. Shaders are compatible with the P2D and P3D renderers, but not with the default renderer.

Description Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a NullPointerException if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

Syntax `loadShader(fragFilename)`

```
loadShader(fragFilename, vertFilename)
```

Parameters **fragFilenameString**: name of fragment shader file
vertFilenameString: name of vertex shader file

Returns PShader

Name

PShader

```
PShader blur;
```

```
void setup() {
    size(640, 360, P2D);
    // Shaders files must be in the "data" folder to load correctly
    blur = loadShader("blur.gls");
    stroke(0, 102, 153);
    rectMode(CENTER);
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
    filter(blur);
    rect(mouseX-75, mouseY, 150, 150);
    ellipse(mouseX+75, mouseY, 150, 150);
}
```

This class encapsulates a GLSL shader program, including a vertex and a fragment shader. It's compatible with the P2D and P3D renderers, but not with

Description the default renderer. Use the **loadShader()** function to load your shader code.

[Note: It's strongly encouraged to use **loadShader()** to create a PShader object, rather than calling the PShader constructor manually.]

Methods [set\(\)](#)Sets a variable within the shader

```
PShader()
```

```
PShader(parent)
```

```
PShader(parent, vertFilename, fragFilename)
```

```
PShader(parent, vertURL, fragURL)
```

parent PApplet: the parent program

vertFilenameString: name of the vertex shader

Parameters **fragFilenameString**: name of the fragment shader

vertURL URL: network location of the vertex shader

fragURL URL: network location of the fragment shader

Name

resetShader()

```
PShader edges;
PImage img;
```

```
void setup() {
    size(640, 360, P2D);
    img = loadImage("leaves.jpg");
    edges = loadShader("edges.gls");
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
    shader(edges);
    image(img, 0, 0);
    resetShader();
    image(img, width/2, 0);
```

```
}
```

Description Restores the default shaders. Code that runs after **resetShader()** will not be affected by previously defined shaders.

Syntax
`resetShader()
resetShader(kind)`

Parameters `kind`: int: type of shader, either POINTS, LINES, or TRIANGLES

Returns void

Name

[shader\(\)](#)

```
PShader edges;  
PImage img;  
  
void setup() {  
    size(640, 360, P2D);  
    img = loadImage("leaves.jpg");  
    edges = loadShader("edges.glsl");  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    shader(edges);  
    image(img, 0, 0);  
}
```

Description Applies the shader specified by the parameters. It's compatible with the P2D and P3D renderers, but not with the default renderer.

Syntax
`shader(shader)
shader(shader, kind)`

Parameters `shader`: PShader: name of shader file

Parameters `kind`: int: type of shader, either POINTS, LINES, or TRIANGLES

Returns void

Name

[PFont](#)

```
PFont font;  
// The font must be located in the sketch's  
// "data" directory to load successfully  
font = loadFont("LetterGothicStd-32.vlw");  
textFont(font, 32);  
text("word", 10, 50);
```

PFont is the font class for Processing. To create a font to use with Processing, select "Create Font..." from the Tools menu. This will create a font in the format Processing requires and also adds it to the current sketch's data directory.

Description Processing displays fonts using the .vlw font format, which uses images for each letter, rather than defining them through vector data. The **loadFont()** function constructs a new font and **textFont()** makes a font active. The **list()** method creates a list of the fonts installed on the computer, which is useful information to use with the **createFont()** function for dynamically converting fonts into a format to use with Processing.

Methods [list\(\)](#)Gets a list of the fonts installed on the system

Constructor
`PFont()
PFont(font, smooth)`

```
PFont(font, smooth, charset)
PFont(font, smooth, charset, stream)
PFont(input)
```

Parameters **font** Font: font the font object to create from
smooth boolean: smooth true to enable smoothing/anti-aliasing
charset char[]: array of all unicode chars that should be included
input InputStream: InputStream

Related [loadFont\(\)](#)

Name

createFont()

```
PFont myFont;

void setup() {
    size(200, 200);
    // Uncomment the following two lines to see the available fonts
    //String[] fontList = PFont.list();
    //println(fontList);
    myFont = createFont("Georgia", 32);
    textAlign(CENTER, CENTER);
    text("!@#$%", width/2, height/2);
}
```

Examples

Dynamically converts a font to the format used by Processing from a .ttf or .otf file inside the sketch's "data" folder or a font that's installed elsewhere on the computer. If you want to use a font installed on your computer, use the **PFont.list()** method to first determine the names for the fonts recognized by the computer and are compatible with this function. Not all fonts can be used and some might work with one operating system and not others. When sharing a sketch with other people or posting it on the web, you may need to include a .ttf or .otf version of your font in the data directory of the sketch because other people might not have the font installed on their computer. Only fonts that can legally be distributed should be included with a sketch.

Description The **size** parameter states the font size you want to generate. The **smooth** parameter specifies if the font should be antialiased or not. The **charset** parameter is an array of chars that specifies the characters to generate.

This function allows Processing to work with the font natively in the default renderer, so the letters are defined by vector geometry and are rendered quickly. In the **P2D** and **P3D** renderers, the function sets the project to render the font as a series of small textures. For instance, when using the default renderer, the actual native version of the font will be employed by the sketch, improving drawing quality and performance. With the **P2D** and **P3D** renderers, the bitmapped version will be used to improve speed and appearance, but the results are poor when exporting if the sketch does not include the .otf or .ttf file, and the requested font is not available on the machine running the sketch.

```
createFont(name, size)
createFont(name, size, smooth)
createFont(name, size, smooth, charset)
```

Parameters **name** String: name of the font to load

size float: point size of the font
smooth boolean: true for an antialiased font, false for aliased
charset char[]: array containing characters to be generated

Returns PFont

[PFont](#)

Related [textFont\(\)](#)

[PGraphics](#)

[loadFont\(\)](#)

Name [loadFont\(\)](#)

Examples

```
PFont font;
// The font must be located in the sketch's
// "data" directory to load successfully
font = loadFont("LetterGothicStd-32.vlw");
textFont(font, 32);
text("word", 10, 50);
```

Loads a .vlw formatted font into a **PFont** object. Create a .vlw font by selecting "Create Font..." from the Tools menu. This tool creates a texture for each alphanumeric character and then adds them as a .vlw file to the current sketch's data folder. Because the letters are defined as textures (and not vector data) the size at which the fonts are created must be considered in relation to the size at which they are drawn. For example, load a 32pt font if the sketch displays the font at 32 pixels or smaller. Conversely, if a 12pt font is loaded and displayed at 48pts, the letters will be distorted because the program will be stretching a small graphic to a large size.

Like **loadImage()** and other functions that load data, the **loadFont()** function should not be used inside **draw()**, because it will slow down the sketch considerably, as the font will be re-loaded from the disk (or network) on each frame. It's recommended to load files inside **setup()**

Description To load correctly, fonts must be located in the "data" folder of the current sketch. Alternatively, the file maybe be loaded from anywhere on the local computer using an absolute path (something that starts with / on Unix and Linux, or a drive letter on Windows), or the filename parameter can be a URL for a file found on a network.

If the file is not available or an error occurs, **null** will be returned and an error message will be printed to the console. The error message does not halt the program, however the null value may cause a NullPointerException if your code does not check whether the value returned is null.

Use **createFont()** (instead of **loadFont()**) to enable vector data to be used with the default renderer setting. This can be helpful when many font sizes are needed, or when using any renderer based on the default renderer, such as the PDF library.

Syntax `loadFont(filename)`

Parameters **filename** String: name of the font to load

Returns PFont

[PFont](#)

Related [textFont\(\)](#)

[createFont\(\)](#)

Name

[text\(\)](#)

```
textSize(32);
text("word", 10, 30);
fill(0, 102, 153);
text("word", 10, 60);
fill(0, 102, 153, 51);
text("word", 10, 90);
```

Examples

```
size(100, 100, P3D);
textSize(32);
fill(0, 102, 153, 204);
text("word", 12, 45, -30); // Specify a z-axis value
text("word", 12, 60); // Default depth, no z-value specified
```

```
String s = "The quick brown fox jumped over the lazy dog.";
fill(50);
text(s, 10, 10, 70, 80); // Text wraps within text box
```

Draws text to the screen. Displays the information specified in the first parameter on the screen in the position specified by the additional parameters. A default font will be used unless a font is set with the [textFont\(\)](#) function and a default size will be used unless a font is set with [textSize\(\)](#). Change the color of the text with the [fill\(\)](#) function. The text displays in relation to the [textAlign\(\)](#) function, which gives the option to draw to the left, right, and center of the coordinates.

Description The **x2** and **y2** parameters define a rectangular area to display within and may only be used with string data. When these parameters are specified, they are interpreted based on the current [rectMode\(\)](#) setting. Text that does not fit completely within the rectangle specified will not be drawn to the screen.

Note that Processing now lets you call [text\(\)](#) without first specifying a PFont with [textFont\(\)](#). In that case, a generic sans-serif font will be used instead. (See the third example above.)

```
text(c, x, y)
text(c, x, y, z)
text(str, x, y)
text(chars, start, stop, x, y)
text(str, x, y, z)
text(chars, start, stop, x, y, z)
text(str, x1, y1, x2, y2)
text(num, x, y)
text(num, x, y, z)
```

Syntax

Parameters **c** char: the alphanumeric character to be displayed
x float: x-coordinate of text

y float: y-coordinate of text
z float: z-coordinate of text
chars char[]: the alphanumeric symbols to be displayed
start int: array index at which to start writing characters
stop int: array index at which to stop writing characters
x1 float: by default, the x-coordinate of text, see `rectMode()` for more info
y1 float: by default, the x-coordinate of text, see `rectMode()` for more info
x2 float: by default, the width of the text box, see `rectMode()` for more info
y2 float: by default, the height of the text box, see `rectMode()` for more info
num int, or float: the numeric value to be displayed

Returns void

[textAlign\(\)](#)
[textMode\(\)](#)
[loadFont\(\)](#)
Related [textFont\(\)](#)
[rectMode\(\)](#)
[fill\(\)](#)
[String](#)

Name

textFont()

Examples

```
PFont mono;
// The font "AndaleMono-48.vlw"" must be located in the
// current sketch's "data" directory to load successfully
mono = loadFont("AndaleMono-32.vlw");
background(0);
textFont(mono);
text("word", 12, 60);
```

Sets the current font that will be drawn with the `text()` function. Fonts must be created for Processing with `createFont()` or loaded with `loadFont()` before they can be used. The font set through `textFont()` will be used in all subsequent calls to the `text()` function. If no `size` parameter is input, the font will appear at its original size (the size in which it was created with the "Create Font..." tool) until it is changed with `textSize()`.

Description Because fonts are usually bitmapped, you should create fonts at the sizes that will be used most commonly. Using `textFont()` without the size parameter will result in the cleanest type.

With the default and PDF renderers, it's also possible to enable the use of native fonts via the command `hint(ENABLE_NATIVE_FONTS)`. This will produce vector text in both on-screen sketches and PDF output when the vector data is available, such as when the font is still installed, or the font is created dynamically via the `createFont()` function (rather than with the "Create Font..." tool).

Syntax

```
textFont(which)
textFont(which, size)
```

Parameters **which** PFont: any variable of the type PFont
size float: the size of the letters in units of pixels

Returns void
[createFont\(\)](#)
Related
[PFont](#)
[text\(\)](#)

Name
[textAlign\(\)](#)

```
PFont font;
// The font must be located in the current sketch's
// "data" directory to load successfully
font = loadFont("LetterGothicStd-32.vlw");
textFont(font, 20);
textAlign(RIGHT);
text("WORD", 50, 30);
textAlign(CENTER);
text("WORD", 50, 50);
textAlign(LEFT);
text("WORD", 50, 70);
```

Examples

```
background(0);
stroke(153);
textSize(16);
textAlign(CENTER, BOTTOM);
line(0, 30, width, 30);
text("WORD", 50, 30);
textAlign(CENTER, CENTER);
line(0, 50, width, 50);
text("WORD", 50, 50);
textAlign(CENTER, TOP);
line(0, 70, width, 70);
text("WORD", 50, 70);
```

Sets the current alignment for drawing text. The parameters LEFT, CENTER, and RIGHT set the display characteristics of the letters in relation to the values for the x and y parameters of the **text()** function.

An optional second parameter can be used to vertically align the text. BASELINE is the default, and the vertical alignment will be reset to BASELINE if the second parameter is not used. The TOP and CENTER parameters are straightforward.

The BOTTOM parameter offsets the line based on the current **textDescent()**. For multiple lines, the final line will be aligned to the bottom, with the previous lines

Description appearing above it.

When using **text()** with width and height parameters, BASELINE is ignored, and treated as TOP. (Otherwise, text would by default draw outside the box, since BASELINE is the default setting. BASELINE is not a useful drawing mode for text drawn in a rectangle.)

The vertical alignment is based on the value of **textAscent()**, which many fonts do not specify correctly. It may be necessary to use a hack and offset by a few pixels by hand so that the offset looks correct. To do this as less of a hack, use

some percentage of **textAscent()** or **textDescent()** so that the hack works even if you change the size of the font.

Syntax `textAlign(alignX)
textAlign(alignX, alignY)`

Parameters `alignX`int: horizontal alignment, either LEFT, CENTER, or RIGHT
`alignY`int: vertical alignment, either TOP, BOTTOM, CENTER, or BASELINE

Returns void

[loadFont\(\)](#)

Related [PFont](#)
[text\(\)](#)

Name

[textLeading\(\)](#)

```
// Text to display. The "\n" is a "new line" character
String lines = "L1\nL2\nL3";
textSize(12);
fill(0); // Set fill to black
```

Examples `textLeading(10); // Set leading to 10`
`text(lines, 10, 25);`

```
textLeading(20); // Set leading to 20  
text(lines, 40, 25);
```

```
textLeading(30); // Set leading to 30  
text(lines, 70, 25);
```

Sets the spacing between lines of text in units of pixels. This setting will be used in all subsequent calls to the **text()** function. Note, however, that the leading is reset by **textSize()**. For example, if the leading is set to 20 with **textLeading(20)**, then if **textSize(48)** is run at a later point, the leading will be reset to the default for the text size of 48.

Syntax `textLeading(leading)`

Parameters `leading`float: the size in pixels for spacing between lines

Returns void

[loadFont\(\)](#)

Related [text\(\)](#)
[textFont\(\)](#)

Name

[textMode\(\)](#)

```
import processing.pdf.*;

void setup() {
    size(500, 500, PDF, "TypeDemo.pdf");
    textMode(SHAPE);
    textSize(180);
}
```

```
void draw() {
    text("ABC", 75, 350);
```

```
    exit(); // Quit the program
}
```

Sets the way text draws to the screen, either as texture maps or as vector geometry. The default **textMode(MODEL)**, uses textures to render the fonts. The **textMode(SHAPE)** mode draws text using the glyph outlines of individual characters rather than as textures. This mode is only supported with the **PDF** and **P3D** renderer settings. With the **PDF** renderer, you must call **textMode(SHAPE)** before any other drawing occurs. If the outlines are not available, then **textMode(SHAPE)** will be ignored and **textMode(MODEL)** will be used instead.

The **textMode(SHAPE)** option in **P3D** can be combined with **beginRaw()** to write vector-accurate text to 2D and 3D output files, for instance **DXF** or **PDF**. The **SHAPE** mode is not currently optimized for **P3D**, so if recording shape data, use **textMode(MODEL)** until you're ready to capture the geometry with **beginRaw()**.

Syntax `textMode(mode)`

Parameters `mode`: either MODEL or SHAPE

Returns void

[loadFont\(\)](#)

[text\(\)](#)

Related

[textFont\(\)](#)

[beginRaw\(\)](#)

[createFont\(\)](#)

Name

[textSize\(\)](#)

`background(0);`

Examples

```
fill(255);
textSize(26);
text("WORD", 10, 50);
textSize(14);
text("WORD", 10, 70);
```

Description Sets the current font size. This size will be used in all subsequent calls to the **text()** function. Font size is measured in units of pixels.

Syntax `textSize(size)`

Parameters `size`: the size of the letters in units of pixels

Returns void

[loadFont\(\)](#)

Related

[text\(\)](#)

[textFont\(\)](#)

Name

[textWidth\(\)](#)

Examples

`textSize(28);`

```
char c = 'T';
float cw = textWidth(c);
text(c, 0, 40);
line(cw, 0, cw, 50);

String s = "Tokyo";
float sw = textWidth(s);
text(s, 0, 85);
line(sw, 50, sw, 100);
```

Description Calculates and returns the width of any character or text string.

Syntax `textWidth(c)`
`textWidth(str)`

Parameters `c` char: the character to measure
`str` String: the String of characters to measure

Returns float
[loadFont\(\)](#)
Related [text\(\)](#)
[textFont\(\)](#)

Name

[textAscent\(\)](#)

```
float base = height * 0.75;
float scalar = 0.8; // Different for each font
```

Examples `textSize(32); // Set initial text size`
`float a = textAscent() * scalar; // Calc ascent`
`line(0, base-a, width, base-a);`
`text("dp", 0, base); // Draw text on baseline`

```
textSize(64); // Increase text size
a = textAscent() * scalar; // Recalc ascent
line(40, base-a, width, base-a);
text("dp", 40, base); // Draw text on baseline
```

Returns ascent of the current font at its current size. This information is useful for

Description determining the height of the font above the baseline. For example, adding the [textAscent\(\)](#) and [textDescent\(\)](#) values will give you the total height of the line.

Syntax `textAscent()`
Returns float
Related [textDescent\(\)](#)

Name

[textDescent\(\)](#)

```
float base = height * 0.75;
float scalar = 0.8; // Different for each font
```

Examples `textSize(32); // Set initial text size`
`float a = textDescent() * scalar; // Calc ascent`
`line(0, base+a, width, base+a);`
`text("dp", 0, base); // Draw text on baseline`

```
textSize(64); // Increase text size
a = textDescent() * scalar; // Recalc ascent
line(40, base+a, width, base+a);
text("dp", 40, base); // Draw text on baseline
```

Returns descent of the current font at its current size. This information is useful

Description for determining the height of the font below the baseline. For example, adding the **textAscent()** and **textDescent()** values will give you the total height of the line.

Syntax [textDescent\(\)](#)

Returns float

Related [textAscent\(\)](#)

Name

PVector

```
PVector v1, v2;
```

```
void setup() {
  noLoop();
  v1 = new PVector(40, 20);
  v2 = new PVector(25, 50);
}
```

Examples

```
void draw() {
  ellipse(v1.x, v1.y, 12, 12);
  ellipse(v2.x, v2.y, 12, 12);
  v2.add(v1);
  ellipse(v2.x, v2.y, 24, 24);
}
```

A class to describe a two or three dimensional vector, specifically a Euclidean (also known as geometric) vector. A vector is an entity that has both magnitude and direction. The datatype, however, stores the components of the vector (x,y for 2D, and x,y,z for 3D). The magnitude and direction can be accessed via the methods **mag()** and **heading()**.

In many of the Processing examples, you will see **PVector** used to describe a

Description position, velocity, or acceleration. For example, if you consider a rectangle moving across the screen, at any given instant it has a position (a vector that points from the origin to its location), a velocity (the rate at which the object's position changes per time unit, expressed as a vector), and acceleration (the rate at which the object's velocity changes per time unit, expressed as a vector). Since vectors represent groupings of values, we cannot simply use traditional addition/multiplication/etc. Instead, we'll need to do some "vector" math, which is made easy by the methods inside the **PVector** class.

xThe x component of the vector

yThe y component of the vector

zThe z component of the vector

[set\(\)](#) Set the x, y, and z component of the vector

[set\(\)](#) Set the x, y components of the vector

[random2D\(\)](#) Make a new 2D unit vector with a random direction.

[random3D\(\)](#) Make a new 3D unit vector with a random direction.

[fromAngle\(\)](#) Make a new 2D unit vector from an angle

[get\(\)](#) Get a copy of the vector

[mag\(\)](#) Calculate the magnitude of the vector

Methods

magSq()	Calculate the magnitude of the vector, squared
add()	Adds x, y, and z components to a vector, one vector to another, or two independent vectors
sub()	Subtract x, y, and z components from a vector, one vector from another, or two independent vectors
mult()	Multiply a vector by a scalar
div()	Divide a vector by a scalar
dist()	Calculate the distance between two points
dot()	Calculate the dot product of two vectors
cross()	Calculate and return the cross product
normalize()	Normalize the vector to a length of 1
limit()	Limit the magnitude of the vector
setMag()	Set the magnitude of the vector
heading()	Calculate the angle of rotation for this vector
rotate()	Rotate the vector by an angle (2D only)
lerp()	Linear interpolate the vector to another vector
angleBetween()	Calculate and return the angle between two vectors
array()	Return a representation of the vector as a float array
PVector()	
Constructor	<code>PVector(x, y, z)</code> <code>PVector(x, y)</code> <code>xfloat: the x coordinate.</code>
Parameters	<code>yfloat: the y coordinate.</code> <code>zfloat: the z coordinate.</code>

Name **% (modulo)**

```
int a = 5 % 4;           // Sets 'a' to 1
int b = 125 % 100;        // Sets 'b' to 25
float c = 285.5 % 140.0; // Sets 'c' to 5.5
float d = 30.0 % 33.0;   // Sets 'd' to 30.0
```

Examples `int a = 0;`
`void draw() {`
 `background(200);`
 `a = (a + 1) % width; // 'a' increases between 0 and width`
 `line(a, 0, a, height);`
`}`

Calculates the remainder when one number is divided by another. For example, when 52.1 is divided by 10, the divisor (10) goes into the dividend (52.1) five times ($5 * 10 == 50$), and there is a remainder of 2.1 ($52.1 - 50 == 2.1$). Thus, **52.1 % 10** produces **2.1**.

Description Note that when the divisor is greater than the dividend, the remainder constitutes the value of the entire dividend. That is, a number cannot be divided by any number larger than itself. For example, when 9 is divided by 10, the result is zero with a remainder of 9. Thus, **9 % 10** produces **9**.

Modulo is extremely useful for keeping numbers within a boundary such as keeping a shape on the screen. (See the second example above.)

Syntax `value1 % value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float

`value2`int or float

Related [/\(divide\)](#)

Name

`* (multiply)`

Examples `int e = 50 * 5; // Sets 'e' to 250`
`int f = e * 5; // Sets 'f' to 1250`

Description Multiplies the values of the two parameters. Multiplication is equivalent to a sequence of addition. For example $5 * 4$ is equivalent to $5 + 5 + 5 + 5$.

Syntax `value1 * value2`

Parameters `value1`int, float, byte, or char
`value2`int, float, byte, or char

Related [+\(add\)](#)
[/\(divide\)](#)

Name

`*= (multiply assign)`

Examples `int a = 5;`
`int b = 2;`
`a *= b; // Sets 'a' to 10`

Description Combines multiplication with assignment. The expression `a *= b` is equivalent to `a = a * b`.

Syntax `value1 *= value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float
`value2`any numerical value the same datatype as value1

Related [=\(assign\)](#)
[*\(multiply\)](#)

Name

`+ (addition)`

`int a = 50 + 5; // Sets 'a' to 55`
`int b = a + 5; // Sets 'b' to 60`

`String s1 = "Chernenko";`
`String s2 = "Brezhnev";`
`String sc1 = s1 + s2;`
`String sc2 = s1 + ", Andropov, " + s2;`
`println(sc1); // Prints "ChernenkoBrezhnev"`
`println(sc2); // Prints "Chernenko, Andropov, Brezhnev"`

`String s1 = "Gorbachev";`
`int i = 1987;`
`String sc1 = s1 + i;`
`println(sc1); // Prints "Gorbachev1987"`

Description Adds two values or concatenates string values. As a mathematical operator, it calculates the sum of two values. As a string operator, it combines two strings into one and converts from primitive datatypes into the String datatype if

necessary.

Syntax `value1 + value2`

Parameters `value1String, int, float, char, byte, boolean`

`value2String, int, float, char, byte, boolean`

[++ \(increment\)](#)

Related [+= \(add assign\)](#)

[- \(minus\)](#)

Name

[**++ \(increment\)**](#)

`int a = 1; // Sets 'a' to 1`

Examples `int b = a++; // Sets 'b' to 1, then increments 'a' to 2`

`int c = a; // Sets 'c' to 2`

Increases the value of an integer variable by 1. Equivalent to the operation `i = i + 1`.

Description If the value of the variable `i` is five, then the expression `i++` increases the value of `i` to 6.

Syntax `value++`

Parameters `valueint`

[+ \(add\)](#)

Related [+= \(add assign\)](#)

[-- \(decrement\)](#)

Name

[**+= \(add assign\)**](#)

`int a = 50;`

Examples `int b = 23;`

`a += b; // Sets 'a' to 73`

Description Combines addition with assignment. The expression `a += b` is equivalent to `a = a + b`.

Syntax `value1 += value2`

Parameters `value1int or float`

`value2any numerical value the same datatype as value1`

[= \(assign\)](#)

Related [+ \(add\)](#)

[-= \(subtract assign\)](#)

Name

[**- \(minus\)**](#)

`int c = 50 - 5; // Sets 'c' to 45`

`int d = c - 5; // Sets 'd' to 40`

`int e = d - 60; // Sets 'e' to -20`

Examples

`int a = 5; // Sets 'a' to 5`

`int b = -a; // Sets 'b' to -5`

`int c = -(5 + 3); // Sets 'c' to -8`

Description Subtracts one value from another and may also be used to negate a value. As a subtraction operator, the value of the second parameter is subtracted from the

first. For example, $5 - 3$ yields the number 2. As a negation operator, it is equivalent to multiplying a number by -1. For example, -5 is the same as $5 * -1$.

Syntax `-value1`
`value1 - value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float
`value2`int or float

[-- \(decrement\)](#)

Related [-= \(subtract assign\)](#)
[+ \(add\)](#)

Name [-- \(decrement\)](#)

Examples `int a = 5; // Sets 'a' to 5`
`int b = a--; // Sets 'b' to 5, then decrements 'a' to 4`
`int c = a; // Sets 'c' to 4`
Subtracts the value of an integer variable by 1. Equivalent to the operation $i = i - 1$.

Description If the value of the variable **i** is five, then the expression **i--** decreases the value of **i** to 4.

Syntax `var--`

Parameters `var`int

[- \(minus\)](#)

Related [-= \(subtract assign\)](#)
[++ \(increment\)](#)

Name [-= \(subtract assign\)](#)

Examples `int a = 50;`
`int b = 23;`
`a -= b; // Sets 'a' to 27`
Description Combines subtraction with assignment. The expression **a -= b** is equivalent to **a = a - b**.

Syntax `value1 -= value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float
`value2`int or float

Related [+= \(add assign\)](#)
[- \(minus\)](#)

Name [/ \(divide\)](#)

Examples `int g = 50 / 5; // Assigns 10 to 'g'`
`int h = g / 5; // Assigns 2 to 'h'`

Description Divides the value of the first parameter by the value of the second parameter. The answer to the equation $20 / 4$ is 5. The number 20 is the sum of four occurrences of the number 5. As an equation we see that $5 + 5 + 5 + 5 = 20$.

Syntax `value1 / value2`

Parameters `value1`int or float
`value2`int or float, but not zero (it is not possible divide by zero)

Related [*\(multiply\)](#)
[%\(modulo\)](#)

Name [/= \(divide assign\)](#)

Examples `int a = 12;
int b = 3;
a /= b; // Sets 'a' to 4`

Description Combines division with assignment. The expression **a /= b** is equivalent to **a = a / b**.

Syntax `value1 /= value2`

Parameters `value1` int or float
`value2` any numerical value the same datatype as `value1`

Related [=\(assign\)](#)
[/\(divide\)](#)

Name [& \(bitwise AND\)](#)

```
int a = 207;      // In binary: 11001111
int b = 61;        // In binary: 00111101
int c = a & b; // In binary: 00001101
println(c);       // Prints "13", the decimal equivalent to
00001101
```

Examples `color argb = color(204, 204, 51, 255);
// The syntax "& 0xFF" compares the binary
// representation of the two values and
// makes all but the last 8 bits into a 0.
// "0xFF" is 0000000000000000000000000000000011111111
int a = argb >> 24 & 0xFF;
int r = argb >> 16 & 0xFF;
int g = argb >> 8 & 0xFF;
int b = argb & 0xFF;
fill(r, g, b, a);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);`

Compares each corresponding bit in the binary representation of the values. For each comparison two 1's yield 1, 1 and 0 yield 0, and two 0's yield 0. This is easy to see when we look at the binary representation of numbers

Description `11010110 // 214
& 01011100 // 92

01010100 // 84`

To see the binary representation of a number, use the **binary()** function with **println()**.

Syntax `value & value2`

Parameters `value1` int, char, byte
`value2` int, char, byte

Related [|\(bitwise OR\)](#)
[binary\(\)](#)

Name _____

`<< (left shift)`

```
int m = 1 << 3;    // In binary: 1 to 1000
println(m); // Prints "8"
int n = 1 << 8;    // In binary: 1 to 100000000
println(n); // Prints "256"
int o = 2 << 3;    // In binary: 10 to 10000
println(o); // Prints "16"
int p = 13 << 1;   // In binary: 1101 to 11010
println(p); // Prints "26"
```

Examples

```
// Packs four 8 bit numbers into one 32 bit number
int a = 255;    // Binary: 0000000000000000000000000000000011111111
int r = 204;    // Binary: 0000000000000000000000000000000011001100
int g = 204;    // Binary: 0000000000000000000000000000000011001100
int b = 51;     // Binary: 00000000000000000000000000000000110011
a = a << 24;  // Binary: 11111110000000000000000000000000000000000000000
r = r << 16;  // Binary: 000000001100110000000000000000000000000000000000
g = g << 8;   // Binary: 000000000000000011001100000000000000000000000000
```

Description

of places specified by the number to the right. Each shift to the left doubles the number, therefore each left shift multiplies the original number by 2. Use the left shift for fast multiplication or to pack a group of numbers together into one larger number. Left shifting only works with integers or numbers which automatically convert to an integer such as byte and char.

Syntax

```
value << n
```

Parameters

n int: the number of places to shift left

Related

>> (right shift)

Name _____

>> (right shift)

```
int m = 8 >> 3;      // In binary: 1000 to 1
println(m); // Prints "1"
int n = 256 >> 6;   // In binary: 100000000 to 100
println(n); // Prints "4"
int o = 16 >> 3;    // In binary: 10000 to 10
println(o); // Prints "2"
int p = 26 >> 1;    // In binary: 11010 to 1101
println(p); // Prints "13"
```

Examples

```
// Using "right shift" as a faster technique than red(), green(),  
and blue()  
color argb = color(204, 204, 51, 255);  
int a = (argb >> 24) & 0xFF;  
int r = (argb >> 16) & 0xFF; // Faster way of getting red(argb)  
int g = (argb >> 8) & 0xFF; // Faster way of getting  
green(argb)
```

```

int b = argb & 0xFF;           // Faster way of getting blue(argb)
fill(r, g, b, a);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);

```

Shifts bits to the right. The number to the left of the operator is shifted the number of places specified by the number to the right. Each shift to the right halves the number, therefore each left shift divides the original number by 2. Use the right shift for fast divisions or to extract an individual number from a packed number. Right shifting only works with integers or numbers which automatically convert to an integer such as byte and char.

Description

Bit shifting is helpful when using the **color** data type. A right shift can extract red, green, blue, and alpha values from a color. A left shift can be used to quickly reassemble a color value (more quickly than the **color()** function).

Syntax `value >> n`

Parameters `value` int: the value to shift
`n` int: the number of places to shift right

Related [<< \(left shift\)](#)

Name

| (bitwise OR)

```

int a = 205;    // In binary: 11001101
int b = 45;     // In binary: 00101101
int c = a | b; // In binary: 11101101
println(c);    // Prints "237", the decimal equivalent to
11101101

```

Examples

```

int a = 255 << 24; // Binary: 11111110000000000000000000000000
int r = 204 << 16; // Binary: 00000000110011000000000000000000
int g = 204 << 8; // Binary: 00000000000000001100110000000000
int b = 51;        // Binary: 0000000000000000000000000000000110011
// OR the values together: 111111110011001100110000110011
color argb = a | r | g | b;
fill(argb);
rect(30, 20, 55, 55);

```

Compares each corresponding bit in the binary representation of the values. For each comparison two 1's yield 1, 1 and 0 yield 1, and two 0's yield 0. This is easy to see when we look at the binary representation of numbers

Description

<code>11010110</code>	// 214
<code> 01011100</code>	// 92
<hr/>	
<code>11011110</code>	// 222

To see the binary representation of a number, use the **binary()** function with **println()**.

Syntax `value | value2`

Parameters `value1` int, char, byte
`value2` int, char, byte

Related [& \(bitwise AND\)](#)
[binary\(\)](#)

Name**abs()**

Examples

```
int a = abs(153);      // Sets 'a' to 153
int b = abs(-15);      // Sets 'b' to 15
float c = abs(12.234); // Sets 'c' to 12.234
float d = abs(-9.23);  // Sets 'd' to 9.23
```

Description Calculates the absolute value (magnitude) of a number. The absolute value of a number is always positive.

Syntax `abs(n)`

Parameters `n`: int, or float: number to compute

Returns float or int

Name**ceil()**

Examples

```
float x = 8.22;
int a = ceil(x); // Sets 'a' to 9
```

Description Calculates the closest int value that is greater than or equal to the value of the parameter. For example, `ceil(9.03)` returns the value 10.

Syntax `ceil(n)`

Parameters `n`: float: number to round up

Returns int

Related [floor\(\)](#)
[round\(\)](#)

Name**constrain()**

Examples

```
void draw()
{
    background(204);
    float mx = constrain(mouseX, 30, 70);
    rect(mx-10, 40, 20, 20);
}
```

Description Constrains a value to not exceed a maximum and minimum value.

Syntax `constrain(amt, low, high)`

Parameters `amt`: int, or float: the value to constrain

Parameters `low`: int, or float: minimum limit

`high`: int, or float: maximum limit

Returns float or int

Related [max\(\)](#)
[min\(\)](#)

Name**dist()**

Examples

```
// Sets the background gray value based on the distance
// of the mouse from the center of the screen
void draw() {
```

```
    noStroke();
    float d = dist(width/2, height/2, mouseX, mouseY);
    float maxDist = dist(0, 0, width/2, height/2);
    float gray = map(d, 0, maxDist, 0, 255);
    fill(gray);
    rect(0, 0, width, height);
}
```

Description Calculates the distance between two points.

Syntax `dist(x1, y1, x2, y2)`
`dist(x1, y1, z1, x2, y2, z2)`

x1float: x-coordinate of the first point

y1float: y-coordinate of the first point

Parameters **z1**float: z-coordinate of the first point

x2float: x-coordinate of the second point

y2float: y-coordinate of the second point

z2float: z-coordinate of the second point

Returns float

Name

[exp\(\)](#)

```
float v1 = exp(1.0);
```

Examples `println(v1); // Prints "2.7182817"`

Description Returns Euler's number e (2.71828...) raised to the power of the **n** parameter.

Syntax `exp(n)`

Parameters **n**float: exponent to raise

Returns float

Name

[floor\(\)](#)

```
float x = 2.88;
```

Examples `int a = floor(x); // Sets 'a' to 2`

Description Calculates the closest int value that is less than or equal to the value of the parameter.

Syntax `floor(n)`

Parameters **n**float: number to round down

Returns int

Related [ceil\(\)](#)
[round\(\)](#)

Name

[lerp\(\)](#)

Examples `float a = 20;`
`float b = 80;`
`float c = lerp(a, b, .2);`
`float d = lerp(a, b, .5);`

```

float e = lerp(a, b, .8);
beginShape(POINTS);
vertex(a, 50);
vertex(b, 50);
vertex(c, 50);
vertex(d, 50);
vertex(e, 50);
endShape();

int x1 = 15;
int y1 = 10;
int x2 = 80;
int y2 = 90;
line(x1, y1, x2, y2);
for (int i = 0; i <= 10; i++) {
    float x = lerp(x1, x2, i/10.0) + 10;
    float y = lerp(y1, y2, i/10.0);
    point(x, y);
}

```

Description Calculates a number between two numbers at a specific increment. The **amt** parameter is the amount to interpolate between the two values where 0.0 equal to the first point, 0.1 is very near the first point, 0.5 is half-way in between, etc. The lerp function is convenient for creating motion along a straight path and for drawing dotted lines.

Syntax `lerp(start, stop, amt)`

Parameters `start` float: first value

Parameters `stop` float: second value

Parameters `amt` float: float between 0.0 and 1.0

Returns float

Related [curvePoint\(\)](#)
[bezierPoint\(\)](#)

Name

[**log\(\)**](#)

```

void setup() {
    int i = 12;
    println(log(i));
    println(log10(i));
}

```

Examples

```

// Calculates the base-10 logarithm of a number
float log10 (int x) {
    return (log(x) / log(10));
}

```

Description Calculates the natural logarithm (the base- e logarithm) of a number. This function expects the **n** parameter to be a value greater than 0.0.

Syntax `log(n)`

Parameters `n` float: number greater than 0.0

Returns float

Name

[**mag\(\)**](#)

```
float x1 = 20;  
float x2 = 80;  
float y1 = 30;  
float y2 = 70;
```

Examples `line(0, 0, x1, y1);
println(mag(x1, y1)); // Prints "36.05551"
line(0, 0, x2, y1);
println(mag(x2, y1)); // Prints "85.44004"
line(0, 0, x1, y2);
println(mag(x1, y2)); // Prints "72.8011"
line(0, 0, x2, y2);
println(mag(x2, y2)); // Prints "106.30146"`

Calculates the magnitude (or length) of a vector. A vector is a direction in space commonly used in computer graphics and linear algebra. Because it has no "start"

Description position, the magnitude of a vector can be thought of as the distance from the coordinate 0,0 to its x,y value. Therefore, **mag()** is a shortcut for writing **dist(0, 0, x, y)**.

Syntax `mag(a, b)
mag(a, b, c)`

afloat: first value

Parameters `b`float: second value

`c`float: third value

Returns float

Related [dist\(\)](#)

Name

map()

```
size(200, 200);  
float value = 25;  
float m = map(value, 0, 100, 0, width);  
ellipse(m, 200, 10, 10);
```

```
float value = 110;  
float m = map(value, 0, 100, -20, -10);  
println(m); // Prints "-9.0"
```

Examples `void setup() {
 size(200, 200);
 noStroke();
}

void draw() {
 background(204);
 float x1 = map(mouseX, 0, width, 50, 150);
 ellipse(x1, 75, 50, 50);
 float x2 = map(mouseX, 0, width, 0, 200);
 ellipse(x2, 125, 50, 50);
}`

Re-maps a number from one range to another.

Description

In the first example above, the number 25 is converted from a value in the range

of 0 to 100 into a value that ranges from the left edge of the window (0) to the right edge (width).

As shown in the second example, numbers outside of the range are not clamped to the minimum and maximum parameters values, because out-of-range values are often intentional and useful.

Syntax	<code>map(value, start1, stop1, start2, stop2)</code>
	value float: the incoming value to be converted
	start1 float: lower bound of the value's current range
Parameters	stop1 float: upper bound of the value's current range
	start2 float: lower bound of the value's target range
	stop2 float: upper bound of the value's target range
Returns	float
Related	norm() lerp()

Name

[max\(\)](#)

```
int a = max(5, 9);           // Sets 'a' to 9
int b = max(-4, -12);        // Sets 'b' to -4
float c = max(12.3, 230.24); // Sets 'c' to 230.24
```

Examples

```
int[] values = { 9, -4, 362, 21 }; // Create an array of ints
int d = max(values);             // Sets 'd' to 362
```

Determines the largest value in a sequence of numbers, and then returns that

Descriptionvalue. **max()** accepts either two or three **float** or **int** values as parameters, or an array of any length.

Syntax	<code>max(a, b)</code> <code>max(a, b, c)</code> <code>max(list)</code>
	a float, or int: first number to compare
	b float, or int: second number to compare
Parameters	c float, or int: third number to compare
	list float[], or int[]: array of numbers to compare
Returns	int or float
Related	min()

Name

[min\(\)](#)

```
int d = min(5, 9);           // Sets 'd' to 5
int e = min(-4, -12);        // Sets 'e' to -12
float f = min(12.3, 230.24); // Sets 'f' to 12.3
```

Examples

```
int[] values = { 5, 1, 2, -3 }; // Create an array of ints
int h = min(values);          // Sets 'h' to -3
```

Determines the smallest value in a sequence of numbers, and then returns that

Descriptionvalue. **min()** accepts either two or three **float** or **int** values as parameters, or an array of any length.

Syntax	<code>min(a, b)</code>
---------------	------------------------

```
min(a, b, c)
min(list)
    a int, or float: first number
    b int, or float: second number
Parameters c int, or float: third number
    list float[], or int[]: array of numbers to
        compare
Returns float or int
Related max\(\)
```

Name [norm\(\)](#)

```
float value = 20;
float n = norm(value, 0, 50);
println(n); // Prints "0.4"
```

Examples

```
float value = -10;
float n = norm(value, 0, 100);
println(n); // Prints "-0.1"
```

Normalizes a number from another range into a value between 0 and 1. Identical to **map(value, low, high, 0, 1)**.

Description

Numbers outside of the range are not clamped to 0 and 1, because out-of-range values are often intentional and useful. (See the second example above.)

Syntax `norm(value, start, stop)`

value float: the incoming value to be converted

Parameters **start** float: lower bound of the value's current range

stop float: upper bound of the value's current range

Returns float

Related [map\(\)](#)
[lerp\(\)](#)

Name [pow\(\)](#)

```
float a = pow( 1, 3); // Sets 'a' to 1*1*1 = 1
float b = pow( 3, 5); // Sets 'b' to 3*3*3*3*3 = 243
Examples float c = pow( 3,-5); // Sets 'c' to 1 / 3*3*3*3*3 = 1 / 243 = .
0041
```

```
float d = pow(-3, 5); // Sets 'd' to -3*-3*-3*-3*-3 = -243
```

Facilitates exponential expressions. The **pow()** function is an efficient way of

Description multiplying numbers by themselves (or their reciprocals) in large quantities. For example, **pow(3, 5)** is equivalent to the expression $3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$ and **pow(3, -5)** is equivalent to $1 / 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$.

Syntax `pow(n, e)`

Parameters **n** float: base of the exponential expression

e float: power by which to raise the base

Returns float

Related [sqrt\(\)](#)

Name**round()**

```
float x = 9.2;
int rx = round(x); // Sets 'rx' to 9
```

```
float y = 9.5;
```

Examples int ry = round(y); // Sets 'ry' to 10

```
float z = 9.9;
```

```
int rz = round(z); // Sets 'rz' to 10
```

Description Calculates the integer closest to the **n** parameter. For example, **round(133.8)** returns the value 134.

Syntax `round(n)`

Parameters `n`: number to round

Returns int

Related [floor\(\)](#)

[ceil\(\)](#)

Name**sq()**

```
noStroke();
float a = sq(1); // Sets 'a' to 1
Examples float b = sq(-5); // Sets 'b' to 25
float c = sq(9); // Sets 'c' to 81
rect(0, 25, a, 10);
rect(0, 45, b, 10);
rect(0, 65, c, 10);
```

Description Squares a number (multiplies a number by itself). The result is always a positive number, as multiplying two negative numbers always yields a positive result. For example, $-1 * -1 = 1$.

Syntax `sq(n)`

Parameters `n`: number to square

Returns float

Related [sqrt\(\)](#)

Name**sqrt()**

```
noStroke();
float a = sqrt(6561); // Sets 'a' to 81
Examples float b = sqrt(625); // Sets 'b' to 25
float c = sqrt(1); // Sets 'c' to 1
rect(0, 25, a, 10);
rect(0, 45, b, 10);
rect(0, 65, c, 10);
```

Description Calculates the square root of a number. The square root of a number is always

positive, even though there may be a valid negative root. The square root **s** of number **a** is such that **s*s = a**. It is the opposite of squaring.

Syntax `sqrt(n)`

Parameters `n` float: non-negative number

Returns float

Related [pow\(\)](#)

[sq\(\)](#)

Name

[acos\(\)](#)

```
float a = PI;  
float c = cos(a);  
float ac = acos(c);  
// Prints "3.1415927 : -1.0 : 3.1415927"  
println(a + " : " + c + " : " + ac);
```

Examples

```
float a = PI + PI/4.0;  
float c = cos(a);  
float ac = acos(c);  
// Prints "3.926991 : -0.70710665 : 2.3561943"  
println(a + " : " + c + " : " + ac);
```

The inverse of **cos()**, returns the arc cosine of a value. This function expects the

Description values in the range of -1 to 1 and values are returned in the range **0** to **PI (3.1415927)**.

Syntax `acos(value)`

Parameters `value` float: the value whose arc cosine is to be returned

Returns float

[cos\(\)](#)

Related [asin\(\)](#)

[atan\(\)](#)

Name

[asin\(\)](#)

```
float a = PI/3;  
float s = sin(a);  
float as = asin(s);  
// Prints "1.0471976 : 0.86602545 : 1.0471976"  
println(a + " : " + s + " : " + as);
```

Examples

```
float a = PI + PI/3.0;  
float s = sin(a);  
float as = asin(s);  
// Prints "4.1887903 : -0.86602545 : -1.0471976"  
println(a + " : " + s + " : " + as);
```

The inverse of **sin()**, returns the arc sine of a value. This function expects the values in the range of -1 to 1 and values are returned in the range **-PI/2** to **PI/2**.

Syntax `asin(value)`

Parameters `value` float: the value whose arc sine is to be returned

Returns float

[sin\(\)](#)

Related [acos\(\)](#)

[atan\(\)](#)

Name

[atan\(\)](#)

```
float a = PI/3;
float t = tan(a);
float at = atan(t);
// Prints "1.0471976 : 1.7320509 : 1.0471976"
println(a + " : " + t + " : " + at);
```

Examples

```
float a = PI + PI/3.0;
float t = tan(a);
float at = atan(t);
// Prints "4.1887903 : 1.7320513 : 1.0471977"
println(a + " : " + t + " : " + at);
```

The inverse of [tan\(\)](#), returns the arc tangent of a value. This function expects the **Description** values in the range of -Infinity to Infinity (exclusive) and values are returned in the range **-PI/2 to PI/2**.

Syntax [atan\(value\)](#)

Parameters **value** float: -Infinity to Infinity (exclusive)

Returns float

[tan\(\)](#)

Related [asin\(\)](#)

[acos\(\)](#)

Name

[atan2\(\)](#)

```
void draw() {
    background(204);
    translate(width/2, height/2);
    Examples   float a = atan2(mouseY-height/2, mouseX-width/2);
    rotate(a);
    rect(-30, -5, 60, 10);
}
```

Calculates the angle (in radians) from a specified point to the coordinate origin as measured from the positive x-axis. Values are returned as a **float** in the range from **PI** to **-PI**. The [atan2\(\)](#) function is most often used for orienting geometry to the position of the cursor. Note: The y-coordinate of the point is the first parameter, and the x-coordinate is the second parameter, due to the structure of calculating the tangent.

Syntax [atan2\(y, x\)](#)

Parameters **y** float: y-coordinate of the point

x float: x-coordinate of the point

Returns float

Related [tan\(\)](#)

Name

[cos\(\)](#)

```
    float a = 0.0;
Examples  float inc = TWO_PI/25.0;
for (int i = 0; i < 25; i++) {
  line(i*4, 50, i*4, 50+cos(a)*40.0);
  a = a + inc;
}
```

Calculates the cosine of an angle. This function expects the values of the **angle** parameter to be provided in radians (values from 0 to PI*2). Values are returned in the range -1 to 1.

Syntax `cos(angle)`

Parameters `angle` float: an angle in radians

Returns float

[sin\(\)](#)

Related [tan\(\)](#)

[radians\(\)](#)

Name

[degrees\(\)](#)

```
float rad = PI/4;
```

```
Examples float deg = degrees(rad);
println(rad + " radians is " + deg + " degrees");
```

Converts a radian measurement to its corresponding value in degrees. Radians and degrees are two ways of measuring the same thing. There are 360 degrees in a circle and 2π radians in a circle. For example, $90^\circ = \pi/2 = 1.5707964$. All trigonometric functions in Processing require their parameters to be specified in radians.

Syntax `degrees(radians)`

Parameters `radians` float: radian value to convert to degrees

Returns float

Related [radians\(\)](#)

Name

[radians\(\)](#)

```
float deg = 45.0;
```

```
Examples float rad = radians(deg);
println(deg + " degrees is " + rad + " radians");
```

Converts a degree measurement to its corresponding value in radians. Radians and degrees are two ways of measuring the same thing. There are 360 degrees in a circle and 2π radians in a circle. For example, $90^\circ = \pi/2 = 1.5707964$. All trigonometric functions in Processing require their parameters to be specified in radians.

Syntax `radians(degrees)`

Parameters `degrees` float: degree value to convert to radians

Returns float

Related [degrees\(\)](#)

Name [sin\(\)](#)

```
float a = 0.0;
float inc = TWO_PI/25.0;
Examples
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i=i+4) {
    line(i, 50, i, 50+sin(a)*40.0);
    a = a + inc;
}
```

Calculates the sine of an angle. This function expects the values of the **angle**

Description parameter to be provided in radians (values from 0 to 6.28). Values are returned in the range -1 to 1.

Syntax [sin\(angle\)](#)

Parameters **angle** float: an angle in radians

Returns float

[cos\(\)](#)

Related [tan\(\)](#)

[radians\(\)](#)

Name [tan\(\)](#)

```
float a = 0.0;
float inc = TWO_PI/50.0;
Examples
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i = i+2) {
    line(i, 50, i, 50+tan(a)*2.0);
    a = a + inc;
}
```

Calculates the ratio of the sine and cosine of an angle. This function expects the

Description values of the **angle** parameter to be provided in radians (values from 0 to PI*2).

Values are returned in the range **infinity** to **-infinity**.

Syntax [tan\(angle\)](#)

Parameters **angle** float: an angle in radians

Returns float

[cos\(\)](#)

Related [sin\(\)](#)

[radians\(\)](#)

Name [noise\(\)](#)

```
float xoff = 0.0;
```

Examples void draw() {
 background(204);
 xoff = xoff + .01;

```

        float n = noise(xoff) * width;
        line(n, 0, n, height);
    }

float noiseScale=0.02;

void draw() {
    background(0);
    for (int x=0; x < width; x++) {
        float noiseVal = noise((mouseX+x)*noiseScale,
                               mouseY*noiseScale);
        stroke(noiseVal*255);
        line(x, mouseY+noiseVal*80, x, height);
    }
}

```

Returns the Perlin noise value at specified coordinates. Perlin noise is a random sequence generator producing a more natural, harmonic succession of numbers than that of the standard **random()** function. It was invented by Ken Perlin in the 1980s and has been used in graphical applications to generate procedural textures, shapes, terrains, and other seemingly organic forms.

In contrast to the **random()** function, Perlin noise is defined in an infinite n-dimensional space, in which each pair of coordinates corresponds to a fixed semi-random value (fixed only for the lifespan of the program). The resulting value will always be between 0.0 and 1.0. Processing can compute 1D, 2D and 3D noise, depending on the number of coordinates given. The noise value can be animated by moving through the noise space, as demonstrated in the first example above. The 2nd and 3rd dimensions can also be interpreted as time.

Description

The actual noise structure is similar to that of an audio signal, in respect to the function's use of frequencies. Similar to the concept of harmonics in physics, Perlin noise is computed over several octaves which are added together for the final result.

Another way to adjust the character of the resulting sequence is the scale of the input coordinates. As the function works within an infinite space, the value of the coordinates doesn't matter as such; only the *distance* between successive coordinates is important (such as when using **noise()** within a loop). As a general rule, the smaller the difference between coordinates, the smoother the resulting noise sequence. Steps of 0.005-0.03 work best for most applications, but this will differ depending on use.

noise(x)

noise(x, y)

noise(x, y, z)

xfloat: x-coordinate in noise space

Parameters **yfloat:** y-coordinate in noise space

zfloat: z-coordinate in noise space

Returns float

[noiseSeed\(\)](#)

Related [noiseDetail\(\)](#)

[random\(\)](#)

Name**noiseDetail()**

```
float noiseVal;
float noiseScale=0.02;

void draw() {
    for (int y = 0; y < height; y++) {
        for (int x = 0; x < width/2; x++) {
            noiseDetail(3,0.5);
            noiseVal = noise((mouseX+x) * noiseScale, (mouseY+y) *
noiseScale);
            stroke(noiseVal*255);
            point(x,y);
            noiseDetail(8,0.65);
            noiseVal = noise((mouseX + x + width/2) * noiseScale,
(mouseY + y) * noiseScale);
            stroke(noiseVal * 255);
            point(x + width/2, y);
        }
    }
}
```

Examples

Adjusts the character and level of detail produced by the Perlin noise function. Similar to harmonics in physics, noise is computed over several octaves. Lower octaves contribute more to the output signal and as such define the overall intensity of the noise, whereas higher octaves create finer-grained details in the noise sequence.

Description By default, noise is computed over 4 octaves with each octave contributing exactly half than its predecessor, starting at 50% strength for the first octave. This falloff amount can be changed by adding an additional function parameter. For example, a falloff factor of 0.75 means each octave will now have 75% impact (25% less) of the previous lower octave. While any number between 0.0 and 1.0 is valid, note that values greater than 0.5 may result in **noise()** returning values greater than 1.0.

By changing these parameters, the signal created by the **noise()** function can be adapted to fit very specific needs and characteristics.

Syntax

```
noiseDetail(lod)
noiseDetail(lod, falloff)
```

Parameters **lod** int: number of octaves to be used by the noise
falloff float: falloff factor for each octave

Returns void

Related [noise\(\)](#)

Name**noiseSeed()**

```
float xoff = 0.0;
```

Examples

```
void setup() {
    noiseSeed(0);
    stroke(0, 10);
}
```

```
void draw() {
    xoff = xoff + .01;
    float n = noise(xoff) * width;
    line(n, 0, n, height);
}
```

Sets the seed value for **noise()**. By default, **noise()** produces different results each time the program is run. Set the **seed** parameter to a constant to return the same pseudo-random numbers each time the software is run.

Syntax `noiseSeed(seed)`

Parameters `seed`: seed value

Returns void

[noise\(\)](#)

[noiseDetail\(\)](#)

Related

[random\(\)](#)

[randomSeed\(\)](#)

Name

[random\(\)](#)

```
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    float r = random(50);
    stroke(r*5);
    line(50, i, 50+r, i);
}
```

Examples

```
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    float r = random(-50, 50);
    println(r);
}
```

```
// Get a random element from an array
String[] words = { "apple", "bear", "cat", "dog" };
int index = int(random(words.length)); // Same as int(random(4))
println(words[index]); // Prints one of the four words
```

Generates random numbers. Each time the **random()** function is called, it returns an unexpected value within the specified range. If only one parameter is passed to the function, it will return a float between zero and the value of the **high** parameter. For example, **random(5)** returns values between 0 and 5 (starting at zero, and up to, but not including, 5).

Description

If two parameters are specified, the function will return a float with a value between the two values. For example, **random(-5, 10.2)** returns values starting at -5 and up to (but not including) 10.2. To convert a floating-point random number to an integer, use the **int()** function.

Syntax `random(high)`

`random(low, high)`

Parameters `low` float: lower limit
`high` float: upper limit

Returns float

[randomSeed\(\)](#)

[noise\(\)](#)

Name**randomGaussian()****Examples**

```
for (int y = 0; y < 100; i++) {  
    float x = randomGaussian() * 15;  
    line(50, y, 50 + x, y);  
}  
  
float[] distribution = new float[360];  
  
void setup() {  
    size(100, 100);  
    for (int i = 0; i < distribution.length; i++) {  
        distribution[i] = int(randomGaussian() * 15);  
    }  
}  
  
void draw() {  
    background(204);  
  
    translate(width/2, width/2);  
  
    for (int i = 0; i < distribution.length; i++) {  
        rotate(TWO_PI/distribution.length);  
        stroke(0);  
        float dist = abs(distribution[i]);  
        line(0, 0, dist, 0);  
    }  
}
```

Returns a float from a random series of numbers having a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1. Each time the **randomGaussian()** function is called, it returns a number fitting a Gaussian, or normal, distribution. There is theoretically no minimum or maximum value that **randomGaussian()** might return. Rather, there is just a very low probability that values far from the mean will be returned; and a higher probability that numbers near the mean will be returned.

Syntax `randomGaussian()`**Returns** float**Related** [random\(\)](#)
[noise\(\)](#)**Name****randomSeed()****Examples**

```
randomSeed(0);  
for (int i=0; i < 100; i++) {  
    float r = random(0, 255);  
    stroke(r);  
    line(i, 0, i, 100);  
}
```

Description Sets the seed value for **random()**. By default, **random()** produces different results each time the program is run. Set the **seed** parameter to a constant to

return the same pseudo-random numbers each time the software is run.

Syntax `randomSeed(seed)`

Parameters `seed`: seed value

Returns `void`

[random\(\)](#)

Related [noise\(\)](#)

[noiseSeed\(\)](#)

Name

HALF_PI

```
float x = width/2;
float y = height/2;
```

Examples `float d = width * 0.8;`

`arc(x, y, d, d, 0, QUARTER_PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-20, d-20, 0, HALF_PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-40, d-40, 0, PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-60, d-60, 0, TWO_PI);`

`HALF_PI` is a mathematical constant with the value 1.57079632679489661923.

Description It is half the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. It is useful in combination with the trigonometric functions `sin()` and `cos()`.

[PI](#)

Related [TWO_PI](#)

[TAU](#)

[QUARTER_PI](#)

Name

PI

```
float x = width/2;
float y = height/2;
```

Examples `float d = width * 0.8;`

`arc(x, y, d, d, 0, QUARTER_PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-20, d-20, 0, HALF_PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-40, d-40, 0, PI);`

`arc(x, y, d-60, d-60, 0, TWO_PI);`

`PI` is a mathematical constant with the value 3.14159265358979323846. It is the

Description ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. It is useful in combination with the trigonometric functions `sin()` and `cos()`.

[TWO_PI](#)

[TAU](#)

Related

[HALF_PI](#)

[QUARTER_PI](#)

Name

QUARTER_PI

```
float x = width/2;
float y = height/2;
Examples float d = width * 0.8;
arc(x, y, d, d, 0, QUARTER_PI);
arc(x, y, d-20, d-20, 0, HALF_PI);
arc(x, y, d-40, d-40, 0, PI);
arc(x, y, d-60, d-60, 0, TWO_PI);
```

Description QUARTER_PI is a mathematical constant with the value 0.7853982. It is one quarter the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. It is useful in combination with the trigonometric functions **sin()** and **cos()**.

[PI](#)

Related [TWO_PI](#)
[TAU](#)
[HALF_PI](#)

Name [TAU](#)

```
float x = width/2;
float y = height/2;
Examples float d = width * 0.8;
arc(x, y, d, d, 0, QUARTER_PI);
arc(x, y, d-20, d-20, 0, HALF_PI);
arc(x, y, d-40, d-40, 0, PI);
arc(x, y, d-60, d-60, 0, TAU);
```

Description TAU is an alias for TWO_PI, a mathematical constant with the value 6.28318530717958647693. It is twice the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. It is useful in combination with the trigonometric functions **sin()** and **cos()**.

[PI](#)

Related [TWO_PI](#)
[HALF_PI](#)
[QUARTER_PI](#)

Name [TWO_PI](#)

```
float x = width/2;
float y = height/2;
Examples float d = width * 0.8;
arc(x, y, d, d, 0, QUARTER_PI);
arc(x, y, d-20, d-20, 0, HALF_PI);
arc(x, y, d-40, d-40, 0, PI);
arc(x, y, d-60, d-60, 0, TWO_PI);
```

Description TWO_PI is a mathematical constant with the value 6.28318530717958647693. It is twice the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. It is useful in combination with the trigonometric functions **sin()** and **cos()**.

Related [PI](#)

TAU
HALF_PI
QUARTER_PI
