A Bitmapper's Companion

epilys

2021

an introduction
to basic bitmap
mathematics
and algorithms
with code
samples in **Rust**

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All non-screenshot figures were generated by hand in Inkscape unless otherwise stated.

The skull in the cover is a transformed bitmap of the skull in the 1533 oil painting by Hans Holbein the Younger, *The Ambassadors*, which features a floating distorted skull rendered in anamorphic perspective.

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Special Topics ▶ Computer Graphics ▶ Programming
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The source code is available here

https://github.com/epilys/bitmappers-companion

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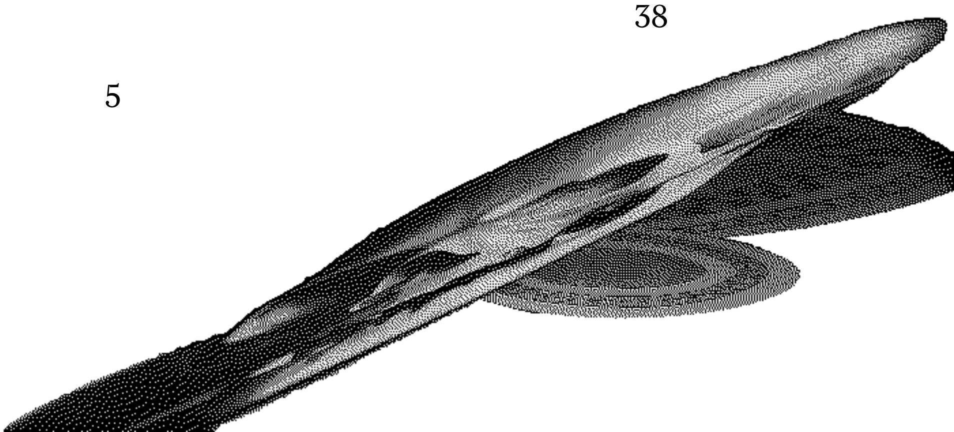

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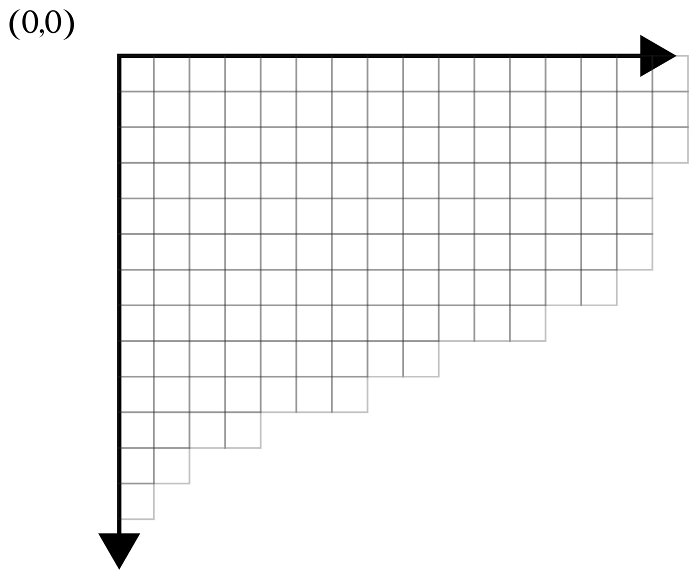
Part I

Introduction

Chapter 1
Data representation

The data structures we're going to use is *Point* and *Image*. *Image* represents a bitmap, although we will use full RGB colors for our points therefore the size of a pixel in memory will be u8 instead of 1 bit.

We will work on the cartesian grid representing the framebuffer that will show us the pixels. The *origin* of this grid (i.e. the center) is at $(0, 0)$.



We will represent points as pairs of signed integers. When actually drawing them though, negative values and values outside the window's geometry will be ignored (clipped).

`src/lib.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
pub type Point = (i64, i64);
pub type Line = (i64, i64, i64);

pub const fn from_u8_rgb(r: u8, g: u8, b: u8) -> u32 {
    let (r, g, b) = (r as u32, g as u32, b as u32);
    (r << 16) | (g << 8) | b
}
pub const AZURE_BLUE: u32 = from_u8_rgb(0, 127, 255);
pub const RED: u32 = from_u8_rgb(157, 37, 10);
pub const WHITE: u32 = from_u8_rgb(255, 255, 255);
```

```
pub const BLACK: u32 = 0;

pub struct Image {
    pub bytes: Vec<u32>,
    pub width: usize,
    pub height: usize,
    pub x_offset: usize,
    pub y_offset: usize,
}

impl Image {
    pub fn new(width: usize, height: usize, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Self;
    pub fn magick_open(path: &str, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Result<Self,
 ↪  Box<dyn Error>>;
    pub fn from_xbm(path: &str, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Result<Self, Box<dyn
 ↪  Error>>;
    pub fn draw(&self, buffer: &mut Vec<u32>, fg: u32, bg: Option<u32>, window_width:
 ↪  usize);
    pub fn draw_outline(&mut self);
    pub fn clear(&mut self);
    pub fn plot(&mut self, x: i64, y: i64);
    pub fn get(&mut self, x: i64, y: i64) -> u32;
    pub fn plot_ellipse(
        &mut self,
        (xm, ym): (i64, i64),
        (a, b): (i64, i64),
        quadrants: [bool; 4],
        _wd: f64,
    );
    pub fn plot_line_width(&mut self, point_a: Point, point_b: Point, wd: f64);
    pub fn flood_fill(&mut self, mut x: i64, y: i64);
}
```

An RGB color with coordinates (r,g,b) where r,g,b `: u8` values is represented as a u32 number with the red component shifted 16 bits to to the left, the green component 8 bits, and the final 8 bits are the blue component. It's essentially laying the r,g,b values sequentially and forming a 32 bit value out of three 8 bit values.

Our `Image::plot(x,y)` function sets the (x,y) pixel to black. To do that we set the element `y * width + x` of the `Image's` buffer to the black color as RGB.

Chapter 2

Displaying pixels to your screen

intro

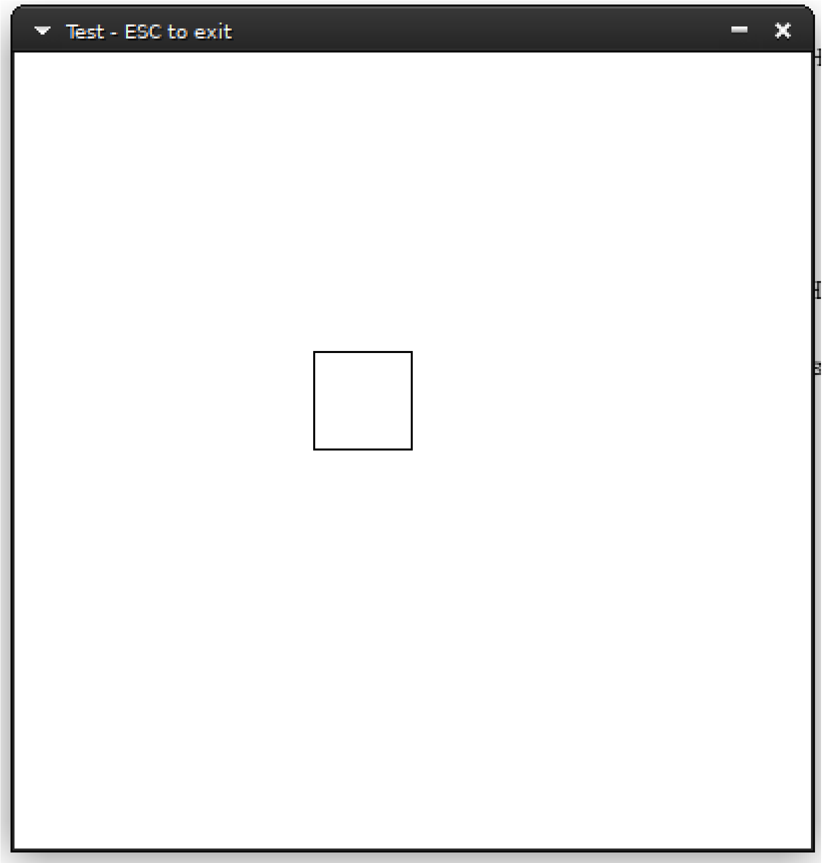
A way to display an *Image* is to use the `minifb` crate which allows you to create a window and draw pixels directly on it. Here's how you could set it up:

`src/bin/introduction.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
use bitmappers_companion::*;
use minifb::{Key, Window, WindowOptions};

const WINDOW_WIDTH: usize = 400;
const WINDOW_HEIGHT: usize = 400;

fn main() {
    let mut buffer: Vec<u32> = vec![WHITE; WINDOW_WIDTH * WINDOW_HEIGHT];
    let mut window = Window::new(
        "Test - ESC to exit",
        WINDOW_WIDTH,
        WINDOW_HEIGHT,
        WindowOptions {
            title: true,
            //borderless: true,
            //resize: false,
            //transparency: true,
            ..WindowOptions::default()
        },
    )
    .unwrap();

    // Limit to max ~60 fps update rate
    window.limit_update_rate(Some(std::time::Duration::from_micros(16600)));

    let mut image = Image::new(50, 50, 150, 150);
    image.draw_outline();
    image.draw(&mut buffer, BLACK, None, WINDOW_WIDTH);

    while window.is_open()
         && !window.is_key_down(Key::Escape)
         && !window.is_key_down(Key::Q) {
        window
            .update_with_buffer(&buffer, WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_HEIGHT)
            .unwrap();
        let millis = std::time::Duration::from_millis(100);
        std::thread::sleep(millis);
    }
}
```

Running this will show you something like this:



By drawing each individual pixel with the `Image::plot` and `Image::plot_color` functions, we can draw any possible RGB picture of the buffer size. In this book's chapters, we will usually calculate pixels by using discrete calculations of each pixels as integers, or by using rational values (with 64 bit floating point representation) and then calculating their integer values with the `floor` function. This can also be done by casting an `f64` type to `i64` with `as`:

```
let val: f64 = 5.5;
let val: i64 = val as i64;
assert_eq!(5i64, val);
```

Chapter 3
Bits to byte pixels

If we worked with 1 bit images (black and white) it could be a more space-efficient representation to store the pixels as bits: 8 pixels in 1 byte. For this book we accept that our images can have RGB colors. The `xbm` format stores pixels like that, and we might wish to convert them to our representation.

Let's define a way to convert bit information to a byte vector:

```
pub fn bits_to_bytes(bits: &[u8], width: usize) -> Vec<u32> {
    let mut ret = Vec::with_capacity(bits.len() * 8);
    let mut current_row_count = 0;
    for byte in bits {
        for n in 0..8 {
            if byte.rotate_right(n) & 0x01 > 0 {
                ret.push(BLACK);
            } else {
                ret.push(WHITE);
            }
            current_row_count += 1;
            if current_row_count == width {
                current_row_count = 0;
                break;
            }
        }
    }
    ret
}
```

Chapter 4
Loading graphics files in Rust

The book's library includes a method to load `xbm` files on runtime (see *Including xbm files in **Rust*** for including them in your binary at compile time). If your system has `ImageMagick` installed and the commands `identify` and `magick` are in your `PATH` environment variable, you can use the `Image::magick_open` method:

```
impl Image {
    ...
    pub fn magick_open(path: &str, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Result<Self,
    Box<dyn Error>>;
    ...
}
```

It simply converts the image file you pass to it to raw bytes using the invocation `magick convert` *`path`* `RGB:-` which prints raw RGB content to `stdout`.

If you have another way to load pictures such as your own code or a picture format library crate, all you have to do is convert the pixel information to an `Image` whose definition we repeat here:

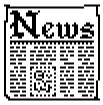
```
pub struct Image {
    pub bytes: Vec<u32>,
    pub width: usize,
    pub height: usize,
    pub x_offset: usize,
    pub y_offset: usize,
}
```

Chapter 5
Including `xbm` files in Rust

The end of this chapter includes a short **Rust** *program to automatically convert* `xbm` *files to equivalent* **Rust** *code.*

`xbm` files are C source code files that contain the pixel information for an image as macro definitions for the dimensions and a static `char` array for the pixels, with each bit column representing a pixel. If the width dimension doesn't have 8 as a factor, the remaining bit columns are left blank/ignored.

They used to be a popular way to share user avatars in the old internet and are also good material for us to work with, since they are small and numerous. The following is such an image:



Then, we can convert the `xbm` file from C to **Rust** with the following transformations:

```c
#define news_width 48
#define news_height 48
static char news_bits[] = {
```

to

```rust
const NEWS_WIDTH: usize = 48;
const NEWS_HEIGHT: usize = 48;
const NEWS_BITS: &[u8] = &[
```

And replace the closing `}` with `]`.

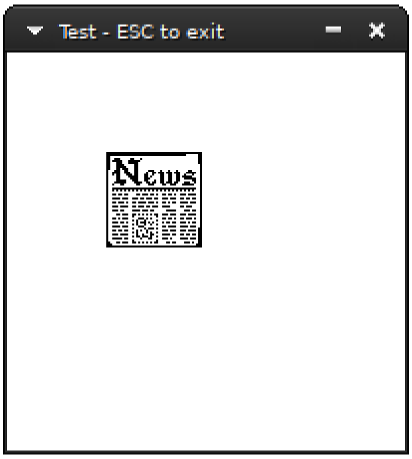
We can then include the new file in our source code:

```rust
include!("news.xbm.rs");
```

load the image:

```
let mut image = Image::new(NEWS_WIDTH, NEWS_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
image.bytes = bits_to_bytes(NEWS_BITS, NEWS_WIDTH);
```

and finally run it:



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The following short program uses the `regex` crate to match on these simple rules and print the equivalent code in `stdout`. You can use it like so:

```
cargo run --bin xbmtors -- file.xbm > file.xbm.rs
```

src/bin/xbmtors.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
use regex;
use regex::Regex;
use std::fs::File;
use std::io::prelude::*;

fn main() {
    let args = std::env::args().skip(1).collect::<Vec<String>>();
    if args.len() != 1 {
        println!("one argument expected, the xbm file path to convert.");
        return;
    }
    let mut file = match File::open(&args[0]) {
        Err(err) => panic!("couldn't open {}: {}", args[0], err),
        Ok(file) => file,
    };

    let mut s = String::new();
    if let Err(err) = file.read_to_string(&mut s) {
        panic!("couldn't read {}: {}", args[0], err);
    }

    let re = Regex::new(
        r"(?imx)
  ^\s*\x23\s*define\s+(?P<i>.+?)_width\s+(?P<w>\d\d*)$
  \s*
  ^\s*\x23\s*define\s+.+?_height\s+(?P<h>\d\d*)$
  \s*
  ^\s*static(\s+unsigned){0,1}\s+char\s+.+?_bits..\s*=\s*\{(?P<b>[^}]+)\};
",
    )
    .unwrap();
```

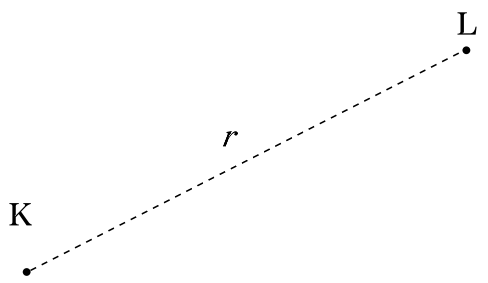
```
    let caps = re
        .captures(&s)
        .expect("Could not convert file, regex doesn't match :(");
    let ident = caps.name("i").unwrap().as_str().to_uppercase();
    let out = re.replace_all(&s, format!("const {i}_WIDTH: usize = $w;\nconst {i}_HEIGHT:
↪   usize = $h;\nconst {i}_BITS: &[u8] = &[$b];", i = &ident));
    println!("{}", out.trim());
}
```

intro

Part II

Points And Lines

Chapter 6
Distance between two points



Given two points, K and L, an elementary application of Pythagoras' Theorem gives the distance between them as

$$r = \sqrt{(x_L - x_K)^2 + (y_L - y_K)^2} \tag{6.1}$$

which is simply coded:

```
pub fn distance_between_two_points(p_k: Point, p_l: Point) -> f64 {
    let (x_k, y_k) = p_k;
    let (x_l, y_l) = p_l;
    let xlk = x_l - x_k;
    let ylk = y_l - y_k;
    f64::sqrt((xlk*xlk + ylk*ylk) as f64)
}
```

Chapter 7

Moving a point to a distance at an angle

Moving a point $P = (x, y)$ at distance d at an angle of r radians is solved with simple trigonometry:

$$P' = (x + d \times \cos r, y + d \times \sin r)$$

Why? The problem is equivalent to calculating the point of a circle with P as the center, d the radius at angle r and as we will later* see this is how the points of a circle are calculated.

```
pub fn move_point(p: Point, d: f64, r: f64) -> Point {
  let (x, y) = p;
  (x + (d * f64::cos(r)).round() as i64, y + (d * f64::sin(r)).round() as i64)
}
```

*Equations of a circle and an ellipse page 46

Chapter 8

Equations of a line

There are several ways to describe a line mathematically. We'll list the convenient ones for drawing pixels.

The equation that describes every possible line on a two dimensional grid is the *implicit* form $ax + by = c, (a, b) \neq (0, 0)$. We can generate equivalent equations by adding the equation to itself, i.e. $ax + by = c \equiv 2ax + 2by = 2c \equiv a'x + b'y = c', a' = 2a, b' = 2b, c' = 2c$ as many times as we want. To "minimize" the constants a, b, c we want to satisfy the relationship $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, and thus can convert the equivalent equations into one representative equation by multiplying the two sides with $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$; this is called the normalized equation.

The *slope intercept form* describes any line that intercepts the y axis at $b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a specific slope a:

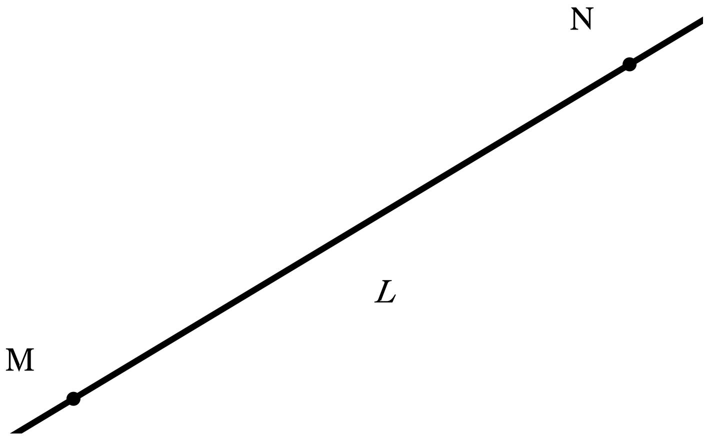
$$y = ax + b$$

The *parametric* form...

8.1 Line through a point $P = (x_p, y_p)$ and a slope m

$$y - y_p = m(x - x_p)$$

8.2 Line through two points



It seems sufficient, given the coordinates of two points M, N, to calculate a, b and c to form a line equation:

$$ax + by + c = 0$$

If the two points are not the same, they necessarily form such a line. To get there, we start from expressing the line as parametric over t: at $t = 0$ it's at point M and at $t = 1$ it's at point N:

$$c = c_M + (c_N - c_M)t, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$
$$c = c_M, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$

Substituting t in one of the equations we get:

$$(y_M - y_N)x + (x_N - x_M)y + (x_M y_N - x_N y_M) = 0$$

Which is what we were after. We should finish by normalising what we found with $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$, but our coordinates are integers and have no decimal or floating point accuracy.

```
fn find_line(point_a: Point, point_b: Point) -> (i64, i64, i64) {
    let (xa, ya) = point_a;
    let (xb, yb) = point_b;
    let a = yb - ya;
    let b = xa - xb;
    let c = xb * ya - xa * yb;

    (a, b, c)
}
```

Chapter 9

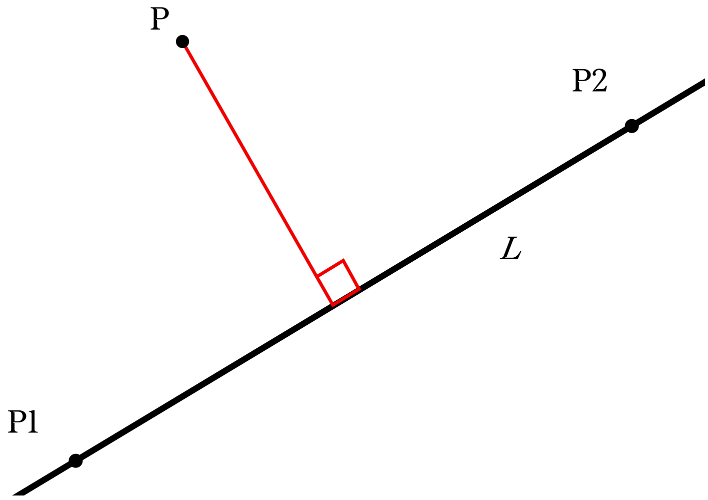
Drawing a line

lines

```
fn plot_line(image: &mut Image, (a, b, c): (i64, i64, i64)) {
    let x = if a != 0 { -1 * (c) / a } else { 0 };
    let mut prev_point = (x, 0);
    for y in 0..(WINDOW_HEIGHT as i64) {
        // ax+by+c =0 =>
        // x=(-c-by)/a
        let x = if a != 0 { -1 * (c + b * y) / a } else { 0 };
        let new_point = (x, y);
        image.plot_line_width(prev_point, new_point, 1.0);
        prev_point = new_point;
    }
}
```

Chapter 10

Distance from a point to a line



lines

10.1 Using the implicit equation form

Let's find the distance from a given point P and a given line L. Let d be the distance between them. Bring L to the implicit form $ax + by = c$.

$$d = \frac{|ax_p + by_p + c|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}$$

10.2 Using an L defined by two points P_1, P_2

With $P = (x_0, y_0)$, $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$.

$$d = \frac{|(x_2 - x_1)(y_1 - y_0) - (x_1 - x_0)(y_2 - y_1)|}{\sqrt{((x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}}$$

10.3 Using an L defined by a point P_l and angle $\hat{\theta}$

$$d = \left|\cos(\hat{\theta})(P_{ly} - y_p) - \sin(\hat{\theta})(P_{lx} - P_x)\right|$$

The code

This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data representation* chapter.

This function uses the implicit form.

```
type Line = (i64, i64, i64);
pub fn distance_line_to_point((x, y): Point, (a, b, c): Line) -> f64 {
    let d = f64::sqrt((a * a + b * b) as f64);
    if d == 0.0 {
        0.
    } else {
        (a * x + b * y + c) as f64 / d
    }
}
```

Chapter 11
Perpendicular lines

11.1 Find perpendicular to line that passes through given point

Now, we wish to find the equation of the line that passes through P and is perpendicular to L. Let's call it $L_\perp$. L in implicit form is $ax + by + c = 0$. The perpendicular will be:

$$L_\perp : bx - ay + (aP_y - bP_x) = 0$$

The code

This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data representation* chapter.

```
type Line = (i64, i64, i64);
fn perpendicular((a, b, c): Line, p: Point) -> Line {
    (b, -1 * a, a * p.1 - b * p.0)
}
```

11.2 Find point in line that belongs to the perpendicular of given point

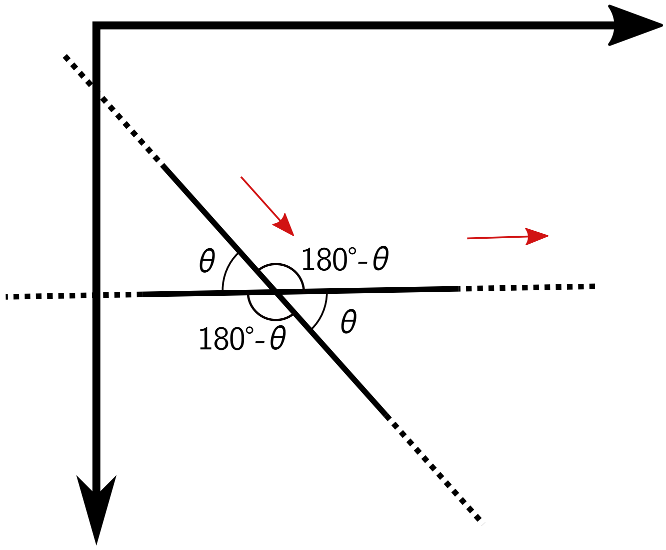
The code

This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data representation* chapter.

```
fn point_perpendicular((a, b, c): Line, p: Point) -> Point {
    let d = (a * a + b * b) as f64;
    if d == 0. {
        return (0, 0);
    }
    let cp = a * p.1 - b * p.0;
    (
        ((-a * c - b * cp) as f64 / d) as i64,
        ((a * cp - b * c) as f64 / d) as i64,
    )
}
```

Chapter 12

Angle between two lines



By angle we mean the angle formed by the two directions of the lines; and direction vectors start from the origin (in the figure, they are the red arrows). So if we want any of the other three angles, we already know them from basic geometry as shown in the figure above.

If you prefer using the implicit equation, bring the two lines L_1 and L_2 to that form ($a_1x + b_1y + c = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$) and you can directly find $\hat{\theta}$ with the formula:

$$\hat{\theta} = \arccos \frac{a_1a_2 + b_1b_2}{\sqrt{\left(a_1^2 + b_1^2\right)\left(a_2^2 + b_2^2\right)}}$$

For the following parametric equations of L_1, L_2:

$$L_1 = (\{x = x_1 + f_1t\}, \{y = y_1 + g_1t\})$$
$$L_2 = (\{x = x_2 + f_2s\}, \{y = y_2 + g_2s\})$$

the formula is:

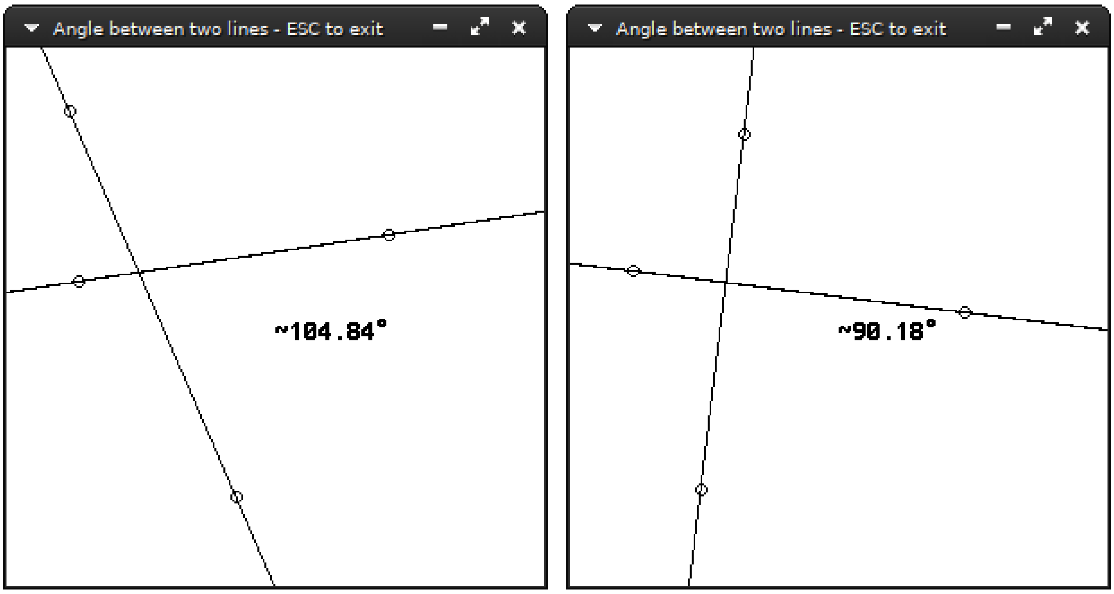
$$\hat{\theta} = \arccos \frac{f_1 f_2 + g_1 g_2}{\sqrt{(f_1^2 + g_1^2)\,(f_2^2 + g_2^2)}}$$

The code:

```
fn find_angle((a1, b1, c1): (i64, i64, i64), (a2, b2, c2): (i64, i64, i64)) -> f64 {
    let nom = (a1 * a2 + b1 * b2) as f64;
    let denom = ((a1 * a1 + b1 * b1) * (a2 * a2 + b2 * b2)) as f64;
    f64::acos(nom / f64::sqrt(denom))
}
```

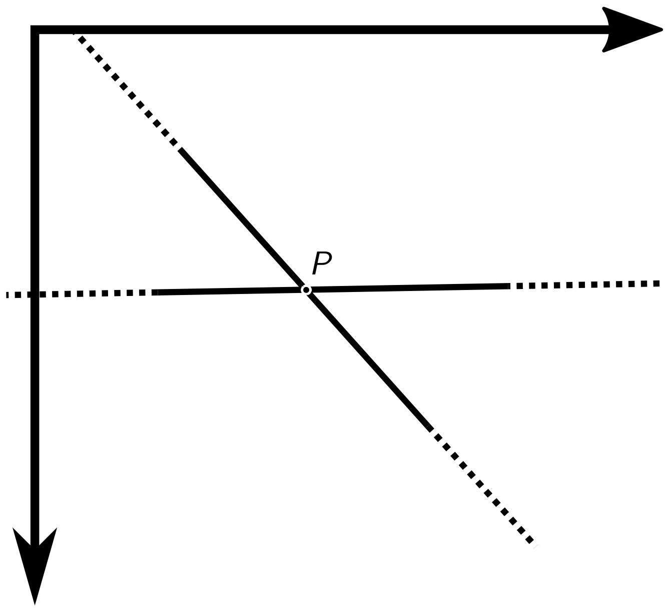
src/bin/anglebetweenlines.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment



The src/bin/anglebetweenlines.rs example has two interactive lines and computes their angle with 64bit floating point accuracy.

Chapter 13
Intersection of two lines



If the lines L_1, L_2 are in implicit form ($a_1x + b_1y + c = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$), the result comes after checking if the lines are parallel (in which case there's no single point of intersection):

$$a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \neq 0$$

If they are not parallel, P is:

$$P = \left(\frac{b_1c_2 - b_2c_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}, \frac{a_2c_1 - a_1c_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}\right)$$

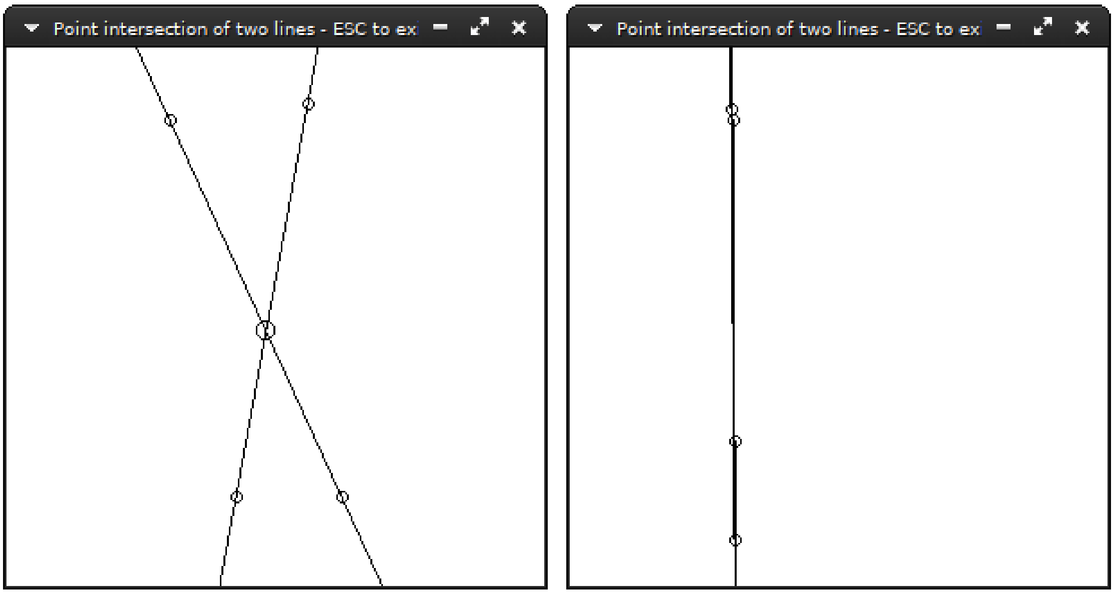
The code:

src/bin/lineintersection.rs

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
fn find_intersection((a1, b1, c1): (i64, i64, i64), (a2, b2, c2): (i64, i64, i64)) ->
↪   Option<Point> {
    let denom = a1 * b2 - a2 * b1;
    if denom == 0 {
        return None;
    }
```

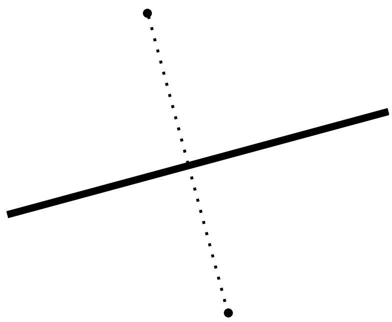
```
    Some(((b1 * c2 - b2 * c1) / denom, (a2 * c1 - a1 * c2) / denom))
}
```



The `src/bin/lineintersection.rs` example has two interactive lines and computes their point of intersection.

lines

Chapter 14
Line equidistant from two points



lines

Let's name this line L. From previous chapter* we know how to get the line L that's created by the two points M and N:

$$L : (y_M - y_N)x + (x_N - x_M)y + (x_M y_N - x_N y_M) = 0$$

We need the perpendicular line over the midpoint of L.† The midpoint also satisfies L's equation. The midpoint's coordinates are intuitively:

$$P_{mid} = \left(\frac{x_M + x_N}{2}, \frac{y_M + y_N}{2}\right)$$

The perpendicular's $L_\perp$ equation is

$$L_{EQ} = L_\perp : yx - ay + \left(aP_{mid_y} - bP_{mid_x}\right) = 0$$

The code:

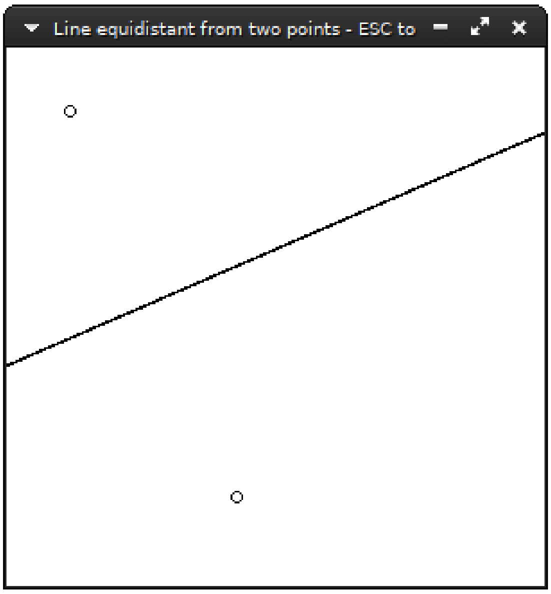
src/bin/equidistant.rs:

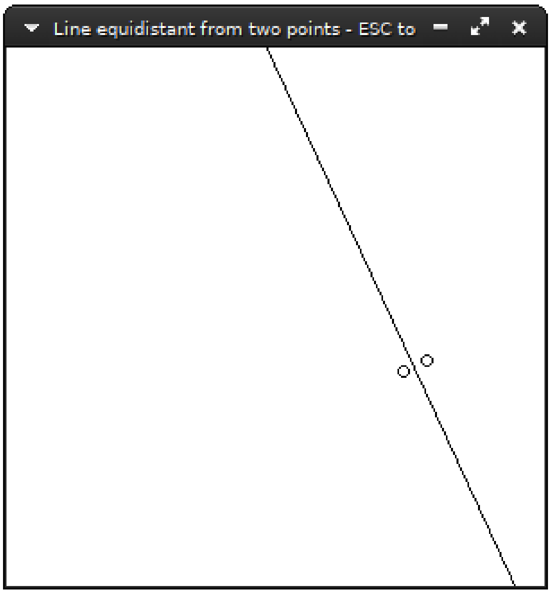
This code file is a PDF attachment

```
fn find_equidistant(point_a: Point, point_b: Point) -> (i64, i64, i64) {
    let (xa, ya) = point_a;
    let (xb, yb) = point_b;
    let midpoint = ((xa + xb) / 2, (ya + yb) / 2);

    let al = ya - yb;
    let bl = xb - xa;

    // If we had subpixel accuracy, we could do:
    //assert_eq!(al*midpoint.0+bl*midpoint.1, -cl);
```

*See *Line through two points*, page 24
†See *Perpendicular lines*, page 29

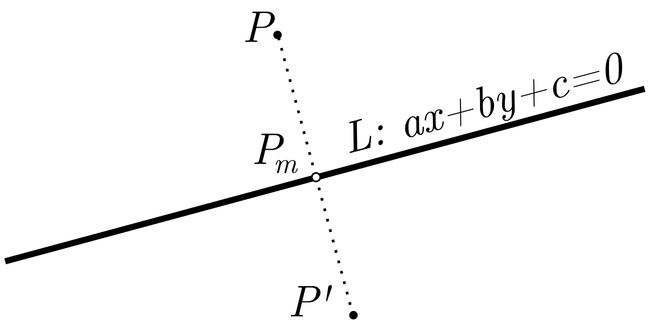
```
    let a = bl;
    let b = -1 * al;
    let c = (al * midpoint.1) - (bl * midpoint.0);

    (a, b, c)
}
```





The `src/bin/equidistant.rs` example has two interactive points and computes their L_{EQ}.

Chapter 15
Reflection of point on line



Line PP' will be perpendicular to $L : ax + by + c = 0$, meaning they will satisfy the equation $L_\perp : bx - ay + (aP_y - bP_x) = 0$.* We will find the middlepoint P_m. L and $L_\perp$ intercept at P_m, so substituting $L_\perp$'s y to L gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a\mathbf{x} + b\left(\frac{b\mathbf{x} + (aP_y - bP_x)}{a}\right) + c = 0 \\
\implies & a\mathbf{x} + \frac{b^2}{a}\mathbf{x} + bP_y - \frac{b^2}{a}P_x + c = 0 \\
\implies & (a + \frac{b^2}{a})\mathbf{x} = \frac{b^2}{a}P_x - c - bP_y \\
\implies & \mathbf{x} = \left(\frac{\frac{b^2}{a}P_x - c - bP_y}{a + \frac{b^2}{a}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

P_{m_y} is found by substituting P_{m_x} to L. Now, knowing length of PP_m = length of P_mP', we can find P'_x and P'_y:

*See *Perpendicular lines*, page 29

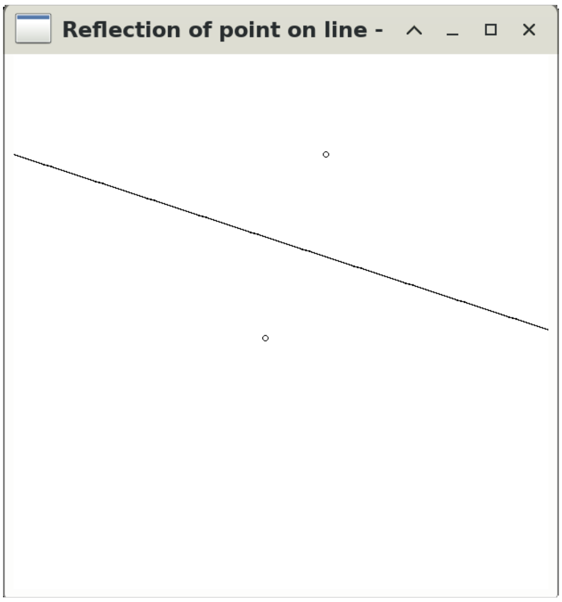
$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{m_x} - P_x = P'_x - P_{m_x} \\
& P_{m_y} - P_y = P'_y - P_{m_y} \\
\implies & P'_x = 2P_{m_x} - P_x \\
& P'_y = 2P_{m_y} - P_y
\end{aligned}
$$

The code

```
fn find_mirror(point: Point, l: Line) -> Point {
    let (x, y) = point;
    let (a, b, c) = l;
    let (a, b, c) = (a as f64, b as f64, c as f64);

    let b2a = (b * b) / a;
    let mx = (b2a * x as f64 - c - b * y as f64) / (a + b2a);
    let my = (-a * mx - c) / b;
    let (mx, my) = (mx as i64, my as i64);

    (2 * mx - x, 2 * my - y)
}
```

src/bin/mirror.

This code file is a PDF attachment



The `src/bin/mirror.rs` example lets you drag a point and draws its reflection across a line.

Chapter 16
Angle sectioning

16.1 Bisection

Add *angle bisectioning*

16.2 Trisection

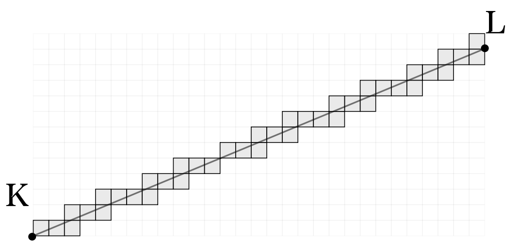
Add *angle trisectioning*

If the title startled you, be assured it's not a joke. It's totally possible to trisect an angle... with a ruler. The adage that angle trisection is impossible refers to using only a compass and unmarked straightedge.

Chapter 17
Drawing a line segment from its two endpoints

lines

For any line segment with any slope, pixels must be matched with the infinite amount of points contained in the segment. As shown in the following figure, a segment *touches* some pixels; we could fill them using an algorithm and get a bitmap of the line segment.



The algorithm presented here was first derived by Bresenham. In the *Image* implementation, it is used in the `plot_line_width` method.

```
pub fn plot_line_width(&mut self, (x1, y1): (i64, i64), (x2, y2): (i64, i64)) {
    /* Bresenham's line algorithm */
    let mut d;
    let mut x: i64;
    let mut y: i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let ay: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let sy: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dy: i64;

    dx = x2 - x1;
    ax = (dx * 2).abs();
    sx = if dx > 0 { 1 } else { -1 };

    dy = y2 - y1;
    ay = (dy * 2).abs();
    sy = if dy > 0 { 1 } else { -1 };

    x = x1;
    y = y1;

    let b = dx / dy;
    let a = 1;
    let double_d = (_wd * f64::sqrt((a * a + b * b) as f64)) as i64;
    let delta = double_d / 2;

    if ax > ay {
        d = ay - ax / 2;
```

```
        loop {
            self.plot(x, y);
            if x == x2 {
                return;
            }
            if d >= 0 {
                y = y + sy;
                d = d - ax;
            }
            x = x + sx;
            d = d + ay;
        }
    } else {
        d = ax - ay / 2;
        let delta = double_d / 3;
        loop {
            self.plot(x, y);
            if y == y2 {
                return;
            }
            if d >= 0 {
                x = x + sx;
                d = d - ay;
            }
            y = y + sy;
            d = d + ax;
        }
    }
}
```


Add some explanation behind the algorithm in *Drawing a line segment from its two endpoints*

Chapter 18
Drawing line segments with width


```
pub fn plot_line_width(&mut self, (x1, y1): (i64, i64), (x2, y2): (i64, i64), _wd: f64) {
    /* Bresenham's line algorithm */
    let mut d;
    let mut x: i64;
    let mut y: i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let ay: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let sy: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dy: i64;

    dx = x2 - x1;
    ax = (dx * 2).abs();
    sx = if dx > 0 { 1 } else { -1 };

    dy = y2 - y1;
    ay = (dy * 2).abs();
    sy = if dy > 0 { 1 } else { -1 };

    x = x1;
    y = y1;

    let b = dx / dy;
    let a = 1;
    let double_d = (_wd * f64::sqrt((a * a + b * b) as f64)) as i64;
    let delta = double_d / 2;

    if ax > ay {
        d = ay - ax / 2;
        loop {
            self.plot(x, y);
            {
                let total = |_x| _x - (y * dx) / dy + (y1 * dx) / dy - x1;
                let mut _x = x;
                loop {
                    let t = total(_x);
                    if t < -1 * delta || t > delta {
                        break;
                    }
                    _x += 1;
                    self.plot(_x, y);
                }
                let mut _x = x;
                loop {
                    let t = total(_x);
                    if t < -1 * delta || t > delta {
                        break;
                    }
                    _x -= 1;
                    self.plot(_x, y);
                }
            }
            if x == x2 {
                return;
            }
            if d >= 0 {
                y = y + sy;
                d = d - ax;
            }
            x = x + sx;
            d = d + ay;
        }
    } else {
        d = ax - ay / 2;
        let delta = double_d / 3;
        loop {
```

```
            self.plot(x, y);
            {
                let total = |_x| _x - (y * dx) / dy + (y1 * dx) / dy - x1;
                let mut _x = x;
                loop {
                    let t = total(_x);
                    if t < -1 * delta || t > delta {
                        break;
                    }
                    _x += 1;
                    self.plot(_x, y);
                }
                let mut _x = x;
                loop {
                    let t = total(_x);
                    if t < -1 * delta || t > delta {
                        break;
                    }
                    _x -= 1;
                    self.plot(_x, y);
                }
            }
            if y == y2 {
                return;
            }
            if d >= 0 {
                x = x + sx;
                d = d - ay;
            }
            y = y + sy;
            d = d + ax;
        }
    }
}
```

Chapter 19
Intersection of two line segments

Let points **1** $= (x_1, y_1)$, **2** $= (x_2, y_2)$, **3** $= (x_3, y_3)$ and **4** $= (x_4, y_4)$ and **1,2**, **3,4** two line segments they form. We wish to find their intersection:

First, get the equation of line L_{12} and line L_{34} from chapter *Equations of a line*.

Substitute points **3** and **4** in equation L_{12} to compute $r_3 = L_{12}(\mathbf{3})$ and $r_4 = L_{12}(\mathbf{4})$ respectively.

If $r_3 \neq 0$, $r_4 \neq 0$ and $sgn(r_3) == sign(r_4)$ the line segments don't intersect, so stop.

In L_{34} substitute point **1** to compute r_1, and do the same for point **2**.

If $r_1 \neq 0$, $r_2 \neq 0$ and $sgn(r_1) == sign(r_2)$ the line segments don't intersect, so stop.

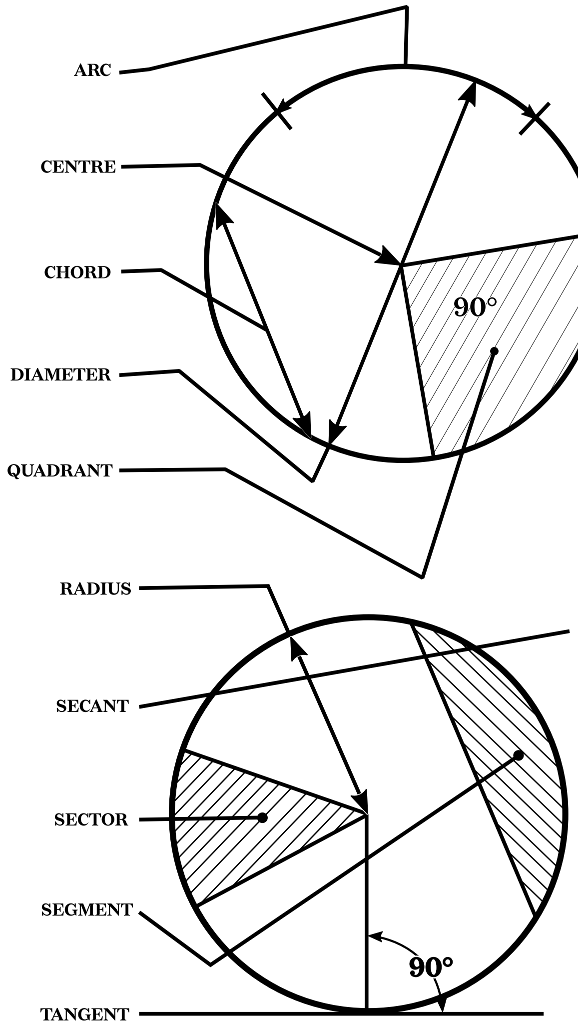
At this point, L_{12} and L_{34} either intersect or are equivalent. Find their intersection point. (See *Intersection of two lines* page 32)

19.1 *Fast* intersection of two line segments

Part III

Shapes

Chapter 20
Circles and Ellipses



Parts of a circle. Figures reproduced from *K. Morling – GEOMETRIC and ENGINEERING DRAWING, second edition, 1974*

20.1 Equations of a circle and an ellipse

Add *Equations of a circle and an ellipse*

20.2 Constructions of Circles and Ellipses

20.2.1 Construction with given center and radius/radiii.

shapes

We present a very easy algorithm that can draw an ellipse with inputs center x_c, y_c and radii a, b. An advantage of this algorithm is that at every step you are computing a point in all four quadrants due to symmetry, so, if you wish you can only draw specific quadrants and skip others.

To draw a circle with centre $P = (x, y)$ and radius r, you will need to call this algorithm with $x_c = x, y_c = y$ and radii $a = r, b = r$.

This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data representation* chapter.

```
fn plot_circle(center: Point, r: i64) {
    plot_ellipse(center, (r, r), [true, true, true, true])
}

fn plot_ellipse(
    (xm, ym): (i64, i64),
    (a, b): (i64, i64),
    quadrants: [bool; 4],
) {
    let mut x = -a;
    let mut y = 0;
    let mut e2 = b;
    let mut dx = (1 + 2 * x) * e2 * e2;
    let mut dy = x * x;
    let mut err = dx + dy;
    loop {
        if quadrants[0] {
            plot(xm - x, ym + y); /*   I. Quadrant */
        }
        if quadrants[1] {
            plot(xm + x, ym + y); /*  II. Quadrant */
        }
        if quadrants[2] {
            plot(xm + x, ym - y); /* III. Quadrant */
        }
        if quadrants[3] {
            plot(xm - x, ym - y); /*  IV. Quadrant */
        }
        e2 = 2 * err;
        if e2 >= dx {
            x += 1;
            dx += 2 * b * b;
            err += dx;
            //err += dx += 2*(long)b*b; }    /* x step */
```

```
        }
        if e2 <= dy {
            y += 1;
            dy += 2 * a * a;
            err += dy;
            //err += dy += 2*(long)a*a; }    /* y step */
        }
        if x > 0 {
            break;
        }
    }
    while y < b {
        /* to early stop for flat ellipses with a=1, */
        y += 1;
        plot(xm, ym + y); /* -> finish tip of ellipse */
        plot(xm, ym - y);
    }
}
```

20.2.2 Circle from three given points

shapes

The naive way: Calculate the lines defined by the line segments created by taking a point and one of each of the rest. The order and pairings don't matter. The intersection point of their perpendiculars that pass through the middle of those line segments is the circle's center.

20.2.3 Circle inscribed in given polygon (e.g. a triangle) as list of vertices

Bisect any two angles and take the intersection point of the bisecting lines. This point, called the *incentre* is the centre of the circle and the distance of the centre from the line defined by any side is the radius.

20.2.4 Circumscribed circle of given regular polygon (e.g. a triangle) as list of vertices

Just like with three points, take the perpendicular lines through the middle point of any of two sides. Their intersection point, called the *circumcentre* is the center of the circumscribed circle. The radius is the distance of the centre from any vertice.

20.2.5 Circle that passes through given point A and point B on line L

Add *Circle that passes through given point* A *and point* B *on line* L

20.2.6 Tangent line of given circle

Add *Tangent line of given circle*

20.2.7 Tangent line of given circle that passes through point P

Add *Tangent line of given circle that passes through point P*

shapes

20.2.8 Tangent line common to two given circles

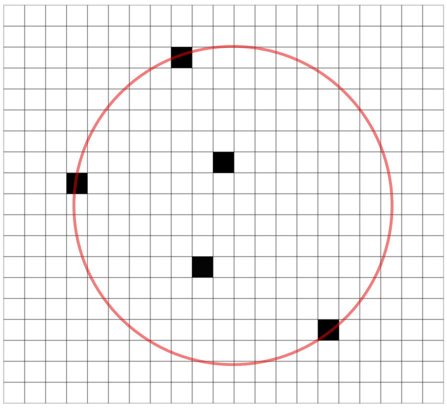
Add *Tangent line common to two given circles*

shapes

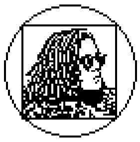
20.3 Bounding circle

src/bin/boundingcircle.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

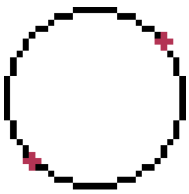


A bounding circle is a circle that includes all the points in a given set. Usually we're interested in one of the smallest ones possible.



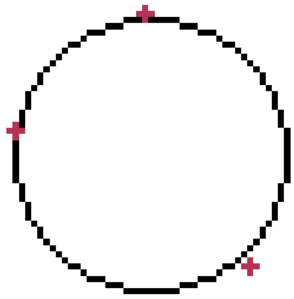
We can use the following methodology to find the bounding circle: start from two points and the circle they make up, and for each of the rest of the points check if the circle includes them. If not, make a bounding circle that includes every point up to the current one. To do this, we need some primitive operations.

We will need a way to construct a circle out of two points:



```
    let p1 = points[0];
    let p2 = points[1];
    //The circle is determined by two points, P and Q. The center of the circle
↪   is
    //at (P + Q)/2.0 and the radius is |(P - Q)/2.0|
    let d_2 = (
    (((p1.0 + p2.0) / 2), (p1.1 + p2.1) / 2),
    (distance_between_two_points(p1, p2) / 2.0),
    );
```

And a way to make a circle out of three points:



```
fn min_circle_w_3_points(q1: Point, q2: Point, q3: Point) -> Circle {
    let (ax, ay) = (q1.0 as f64, q1.1 as f64);
    let (bx, by) = (q2.0 as f64, q2.1 as f64);
    let (cx, cy) = (q3.0 as f64, q3.1 as f64);

    let mut d = 2. * (ax * (by - cy) + bx * (cy - ay) + cx * (ay - by));
    if d == 0.0 {
        d = std::cmp::max(
            std::cmp::max(
                distance_between_two_points(q1, q2) as i64,
                distance_between_two_points(q2, q3) as i64,
            ),
            distance_between_two_points(q1, q3) as i64,
        ) as f64
            / 2.;
    }
    let ux = ((ax * ax + ay * ay) * (by - cy)
        + (bx * bx + by * by) * (cy - ay)
        + (cx * cx + cy * cy) * (ay - by))
        / d;
    let uy = ((ax * ax + ay * ay) * (cx - bx)
        + (bx * bx + by * by) * (ax - cx)
        + (cx * cx + cy * cy) * (bx - ax))
        / d;
    let mut center = (ux as i64, uy as i64);

    if center.0 < 0 {
        center.0 = 0;
    }
    if center.1 < 0 {
        center.1 = 0;
    }
    let d = distance_between_two_points(center, q1);
    (center, d)
}
```

The algorithm:

```rust
use bitmappers_companion::*;
use minifb::{Key, Window, WindowOptions};
use rand::seq::SliceRandom;
use rand::thread_rng;
use std::f64::consts::{FRAC_PI_2, PI};

include!("../me.xbm.rs");

const WINDOW_WIDTH: usize = 400;
const WINDOW_HEIGHT: usize = 400;

pub fn distance_between_two_points(p_k: Point, p_l: Point) -> f64 {
    let (x_k, y_k) = p_k;
    let (x_l, y_l) = p_l;
    let xlk = x_l - x_k;
    let ylk = y_l - y_k;
    f64::sqrt((xlk * xlk + ylk * ylk) as f64)
}

fn image_to_points(image: &Image) -> Vec<Point> {
    let mut ret = Vec::with_capacity(image.bytes.len());
    for y in 0..(image.height as i64) {
        for x in 0..(image.width as i64) {
            if image.get(x, y) == Some(BLACK) {
                ret.push((x, y));
            }
        }
    }
    ret
}

type Circle = (Point, f64);

fn bc(image: &Image) -> Circle {
    let mut points = image_to_points(image);
    points.shuffle(&mut thread_rng());
    min_circle(&points)
}
fn min_circle(points: &[Point]) -> Circle {
    let mut points = points.to_vec();
    points.shuffle(&mut thread_rng());

    let p1 = points[0];
    let p2 = points[1];
    //The  circle  is  determined  by  two  points,  P  and  Q.  The  center  of the
↪   circle  is
    //at  (P  +  Q)/2.0  and  the  radius  is  |(P  -  Q)/2.0|
    let d_2 = (
        (((p1.0 + p2.0) / 2), (p1.1 + p2.1) / 2),
        (distance_between_two_points(p1, p2) / 2.0),
    );

    let mut d_prev = d_2;

    for i in 2..points.len() {
        let p_i = points[i];
        if distance_between_two_points(p_i, d_prev.0) <= (d_prev.1) {
            // then d_i = d_(i-1)
        } else {
            let new = min_circle_w_point(&points[..i], p_i);
            if distance_between_two_points(p_i, new.0) <= (new.1) {
                d_prev = new;
            }
        }
    }

    d_prev
}

fn min_circle_w_point(points: &[Point], q: Point) -> Circle {
    let mut points = points.to_vec();

    points.shuffle(&mut thread_rng());
    let p1 = points[0];
    //The  circle  is  determined  by  two  points,  P_1  and  Q.  The  center  of the
↪   circle  is
    //at  (P_1  +  Q)/2.0  and  the  radius  is  |(P_1  -  Q)/2.0|
    let d_1 = (
        (((p1.0 + q.0) / 2), (p1.1 + q.1) / 2),
```

shapes

```
        (distance_between_two_points(p1, q) / 2.0),
    );
    let mut d_prev = d_1;
    for j in 1..points.len() {
        let p_j = points[j];
        if distance_between_two_points(p_j, d_prev.0) <= (d_prev.1) {
            //d_prev = d_prev;
        } else {
            let new = min_circle_w_points(&points[..j], p_j, q);
            if distance_between_two_points(p_j, new.0) <= (new.1) {
                d_prev = new;
            }
        }
    }
    d_prev
}
fn min_circle_w_points(points: &[Point], q1: Point, q2: Point) -> Circle {
    let mut points = points.to_vec();
    let d_0 = (
        (((q1.0 + q2.0) / 2), (q1.1 + q2.1) / 2),
        (distance_between_two_points(q1, q2) / 2.0),
    );
    let mut d_prev = d_0;
    for k in 0..points.len() {
        let p_k = points[k];
        if distance_between_two_points(p_k, d_prev.0) <= (d_prev.1) {
        } else {
            let new = min_circle_w_3_points(q1, q2, p_k);
            if distance_between_two_points(p_k, new.0) <= (new.1) {
                d_prev = new;
            }
        }
    }
    d_prev
}
fn min_circle_w_3_points(q1: Point, q2: Point, q3: Point) -> Circle {
    let (ax, ay) = (q1.0 as f64, q1.1 as f64);
    let (bx, by) = (q2.0 as f64, q2.1 as f64);
    let (cx, cy) = (q3.0 as f64, q3.1 as f64);
    let mut d = 2. * (ax * (by - cy) + bx * (cy - ay) + cx * (ay - by));
    if d == 0.0 {
        d = std::cmp::max(
            std::cmp::max(
                distance_between_two_points(q1, q2) as i64,
                distance_between_two_points(q2, q3) as i64,
            ),
            distance_between_two_points(q1, q3) as i64,
        ) as f64
            / 2.;
    }
    let ux = ((ax * ax + ay * ay) * (by - cy)
        + (bx * bx + by * by) * (cy - ay)
        + (cx * cx + cy * cy) * (ay - by))
        / d;
    let uy = ((ax * ax + ay * ay) * (cx - bx)
        + (bx * bx + by * by) * (ax - cx)
        + (cx * cx + cy * cy) * (bx - ax))
        / d;
    let mut center = (ux as i64, uy as i64);
    if center.0 < 0 {
        center.0 = 0;
    }
    if center.1 < 0 {
        center.1 = 0;
    }
    let d = distance_between_two_points(center, q1);
    (center, d)
}
fn main() {
```

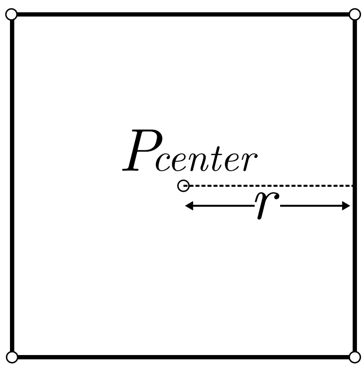
```
    let mut buffer: Vec<u32> = vec![WHITE; WINDOW_WIDTH * WINDOW_HEIGHT];
    let mut window = Window::new(
        "Test - ESC to exit",
        WINDOW_WIDTH,
        WINDOW_HEIGHT,
        WindowOptions {
            title: true,
            //borderless: true,
            resize: true,
            //transparency: true,
            ..WindowOptions::default()
        },
    )
    .unwrap();

    // Limit to max ~60 fps update rate
    window.limit_update_rate(Some(std::time::Duration::from_micros(16600)));

    let mut full = Image::new(WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_HEIGHT, 0, 0);
    let mut image = Image::new(ME_WIDTH, ME_HEIGHT, 45, 45);
    image.bytes = bits_to_bytes(ME_BITS, ME_WIDTH);
    let (center, r) = bc(&image);
    image.draw_outline();

    full.plot_circle((center.0 + 45, center.1 + 45), r as i64, 0.);
    while window.is_open() && !window.is_key_down(Key::Escape) && !window.is_key_down(Key::Q) {
        image.draw(&mut buffer, BLACK, None, WINDOW_WIDTH);
        full.draw(&mut buffer, BLACK, None, WINDOW_WIDTH);

        window
            .update_with_buffer(&buffer, WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_HEIGHT)
            .unwrap();

        let millis = std::time::Duration::from_millis(100);

        std::thread::sleep(millis);
    }
}
```

Chapter 21

Rectangles and parallelograms

21.1 Squares

21.1.1 From a center point



Square from given center point P_{center} and radius r

```
fn plot_square(image: &mut Image, center: Point, r: i64, wd: f64) {
  let (cx, cy) = center;
  let a = (cx - r, cy - r);
  let b = (cx + r, cy - r);
  let c = (cx + r, cy + r);
  let d = (cx - r, cy + r);
  image.plot_line_width(a, b, wd);
  image.plot_line_width(b, c, wd);
  image.plot_line_width(c, d, wd);
```

```
    image.plot_line_width(d, a, wd);
}
```

21.1.2 From a corner point

```
fn calc_center_point(p: Point, top: bool, right: bool, r: i64) -> Point {
    let (x, y) = p;
    match (top, right) {
        // Top right
        (true, true) => (x - r, y + r),
        // Top left
        (true, false) => (x + r, y + r),
        // Bottom right
        (false, true) => (x - r, y - r),
        // Bottom left
        (false, false) => (x + r, y - r),
    }
}

let r = 50;
let center_p = calc_center_point((155, 215), false, false, r);
//image.plot_circle(center_p, 3, 1.0);
plot_square(&mut image, center_p, r, 1.0);
```


21.2 Rectangles

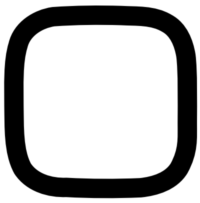
Chapter 22
Triangles

shapes

22.1 Making a triangle from a point and given angles

Add *Making a triangle from a point and given angles*

Chapter 23
Squircle



A *squircle* is a compromise between a square and a circle. It is purported to be more pleasing to the eye because the rounding corner is smoother than that of a circle arc (like the result of *Join segments with round corners*, page 70).

src/bin/squircle.rs:

This code file i
attachment

shapes

A way to describe a squircle is as a superellipse, meaning a generalization of the ellipse equation $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ by making the exponent parametric:

$$|x - a|^n + |y - b|^n = 1$$

The squircle as a superellipse is usually defined for $n = 4$.

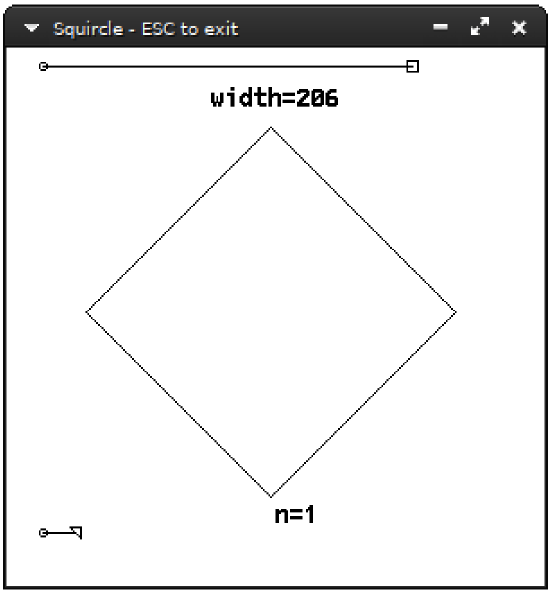
The code

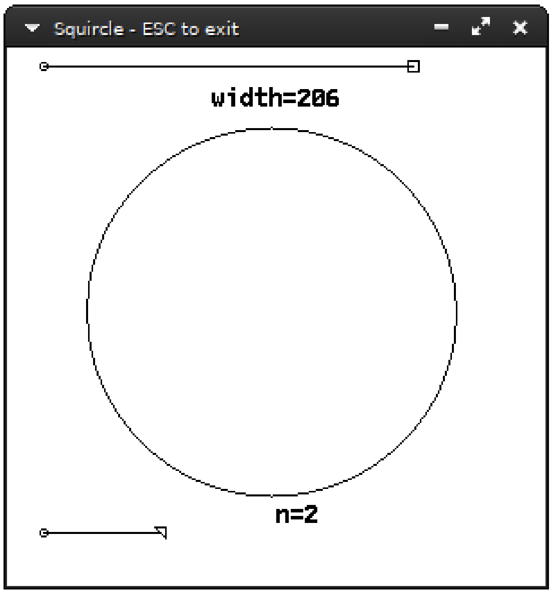
```
pub fn plot_squircle(
    image: &mut Image,
    (xm, ym): (i64, i64),
    width: i64,
    height: i64,
    n: i32,
    _wd: f64,
) {
    let r = width / 2;
    let w = width / 2;
    let h = height / 2;

    let mut prev_pos = (xm - w, xm - h);

    for i in 0..(2 * r + 1) {
        let x: i64 = (i - r) + w;
        let y: i64 = ((r as f64).powi(n) - (i as f64 - r as f64).abs().powi(n)).powf(1. /
↪   n as f64)
            as i64
            + h;
        if i != 0 {
            image.plot_line_width(prev_pos, (xm - x as i64, ym - y), _wd);
        }
        prev_pos = (xm - x as i64, ym - y);
    }
    for i in (2 * r)..(4 * r + 1) {
```

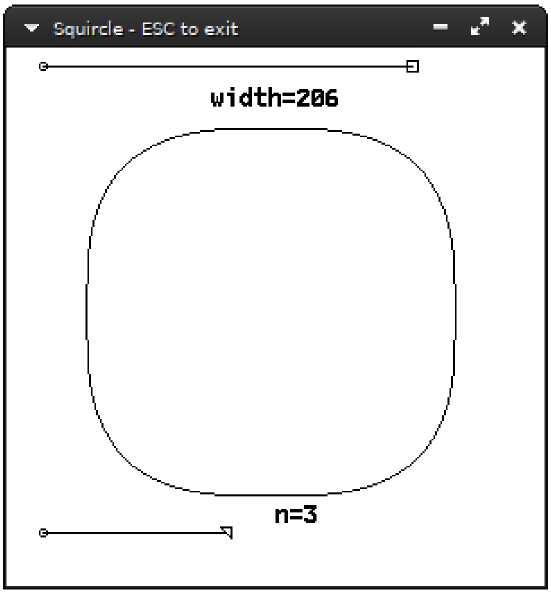
```
        let x: i64 = (3 * r - i) + w;
        let y = -1
            * (((r as f64).powi(n) - ((3 * r - i) as f64).abs().powi(n)).powf(1. / n as f64))
                as i64
            + h;
        image.plot_line_width(prev_pos, (xm - x as i64, ym - y), _wd);
        prev_pos = (xm - x as i64, ym - y);
    }
}
```

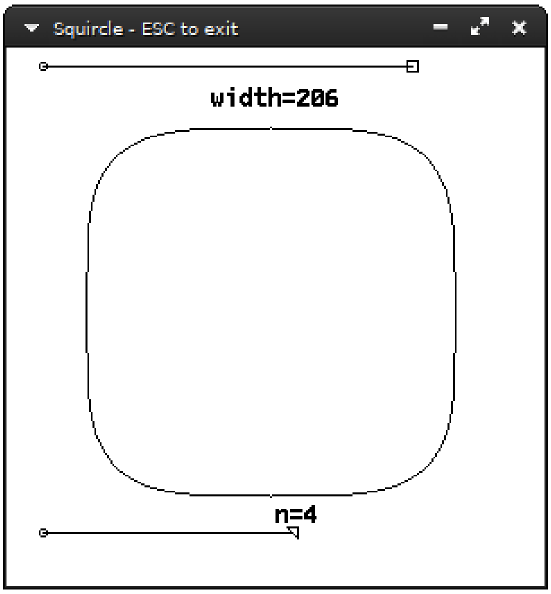

Different values of *n*

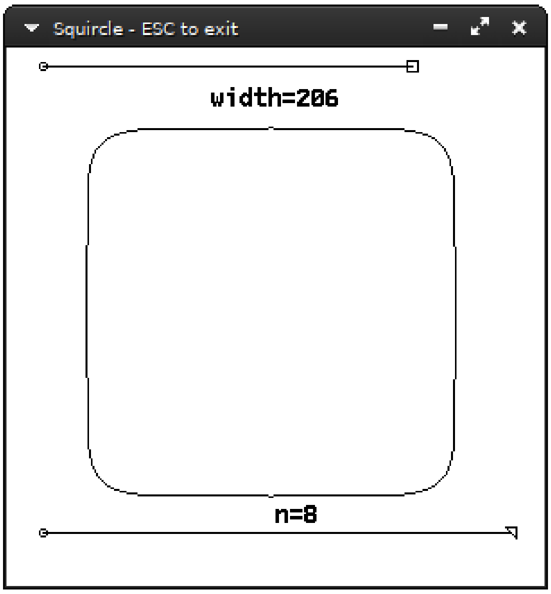
Increasing *n* in `src/bin/squircle.rs` makes the hyperellipse corners approach the square's.






Squircle - ESC to exit
width=206
n=3


Squircle - ESC to exit
width=206
n=4


Squircle - ESC to exit
width=206
n=8

Chapter 24

Polygons with rounded edges

Add *Polygons with rounded edges*

shapes

Chapter 25

Union, intersection and difference of polygons

Add *Union, intersection and difference of polygons*

shapes

Chapter 26

Centroid of polygon

Add *Centroid of polygon*

shapes

Chapter 27
Polygon clipping

Add *Polygon clipping*

shapes

Chapter 28
Triangle filling

Add *Triangle filling* explanation

This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data representation* chapter.

shapes

The book's library methods include a `fill_triangle` method:

```
pub fn fill_triangle(&mut self, q1: Point, q2: Point, q3: Point) {
    let make_equation =
        |p1: Point, p2: Point, p3: Point, a: &mut i64, b: &mut i64, c: &mut i64| {
            *a = p2.1 - p1.1;
            *b = p1.0 - p2.0;
            *c = p1.0 * p2.1 - p1.1 * p2.0;

            if *a * p3.0 + *b * p3.1 + *c < 0 {
                *a = -*a;
                *b = -*b;
                *c = -*c;
            }
        };
    let mut x_min = q1.0;
    let mut y_min = q1.1;
    let mut x_max = q1.0;
    let mut y_max = q1.1;
    let mut a = [0_i64; 3];
    let mut b = [0_i64; 3];
    let mut c = [0_i64; 3];

    // find bounding box
    for q in [q1, q2, q3] {
        x_min = std::cmp::min(x_min, q.0);
        x_max = std::cmp::max(x_max, q.0);

        y_min = std::cmp::min(y_min, q.1);
        y_max = std::cmp::max(y_max, q.1);
    }
    make_equation(q1, q2, q3, &mut a[0], &mut b[0], &mut c[0]);
    make_equation(q1, q3, q2, &mut a[1], &mut b[1], &mut c[1]);
    make_equation(q2, q3, q1, &mut a[2], &mut b[2], &mut c[2]);

    let mut d0 = a[0] * x_min + b[0] * y_min + c[0];
    let mut d1 = a[1] * x_min + b[1] * y_min + c[1];
    let mut d2 = a[2] * x_min + b[2] * y_min + c[2];

    for y in y_min..=y_max {
        let mut f0 = d0;
        let mut f1 = d1;
        let mut f2 = d2;

        d0 += b[0];
        d1 += b[1];
        d2 += b[2];

        for x in x_min..=x_max {
            if f0 >= 0 && f1 >= 0 && f2 >= 0 {
                self.plot(x, y);
            }
            f0 += a[0];
            f1 += a[1];
            f2 += a[2];
        }
    }
}
```

Chapter 29
Flood filling

Add *Flood filling*

Part IV

Curves

Chapter 30

Seamlessly joining lines and curves

Add *Seamlessly joining lines and curves*

30.1 Centre of arc which blends with two given line segments at right angles

Add *Centre of arc which blends with two given line segments at right angles*

30.2 Centre of arc which blends given line with given circle

Add *Centre of arc which blends given line with given circle*

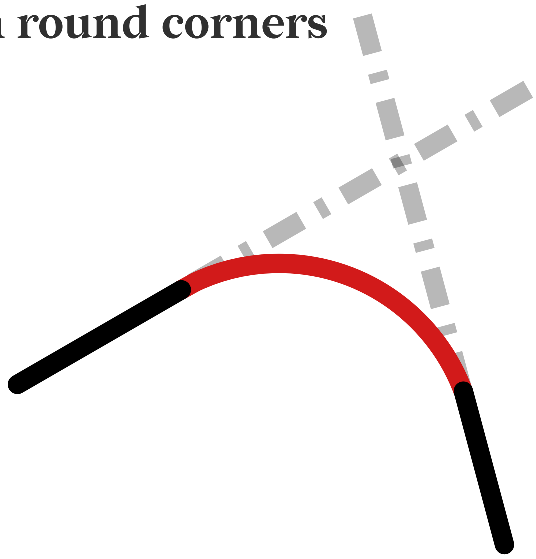
curves

30.3 Centre of arc which blends two given circles

Add *Centre of arc which blends two given circles*

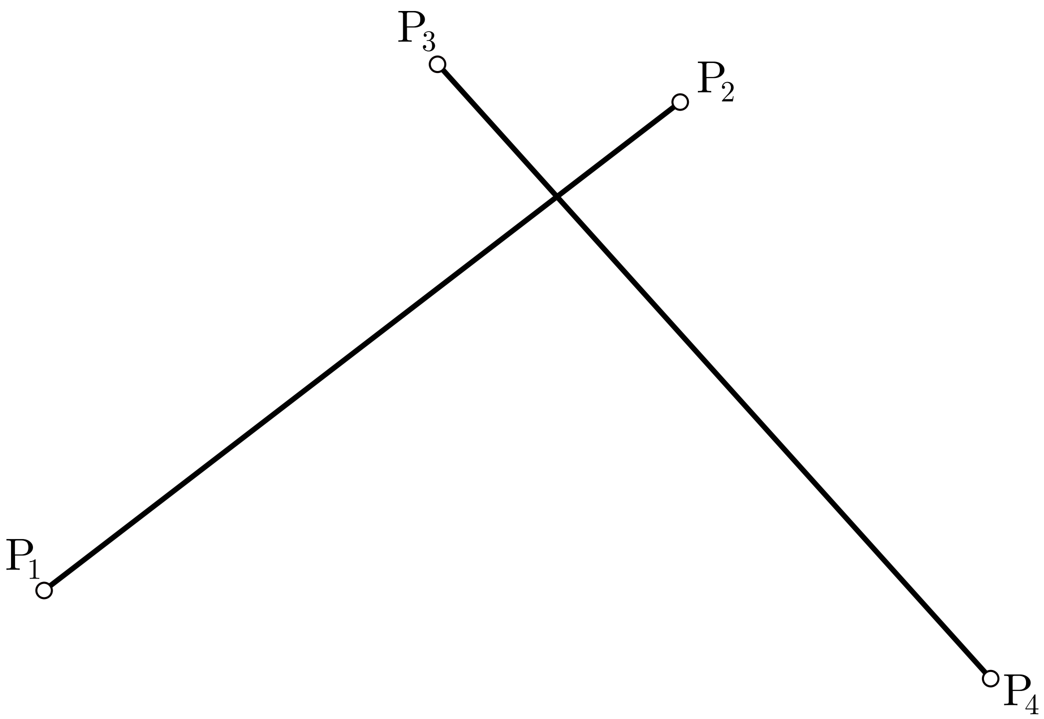
curves

30.4 Join segments with round corners



Round corners are everywhere around us. It is useful to know at least one method of construction. This specific method constructs a circle that has a common point with each given line segment, and calculates the arc that when added to the line segments they are smoothly joined. The excess length, since those common points will be before the end of the line segments, must be erased. Therefore, it's best to begin with just the points of the two segments before starting to draw anything.

Since the segments intercept, the round corner will end up beneath the intersection. We wish to find a circle that has a common point with each segment and the arc made up from those points and the circle is the round corner we are after.



We are given 4 points, P_1, P_2 and P_3, P_4 that make up segments S_1 and S_2. Begin by finding the midpoints m_1 and m_2 of segments S_1 and S_2. These will be:

$$m_1 = \frac{P_1 + P_2}{2}$$

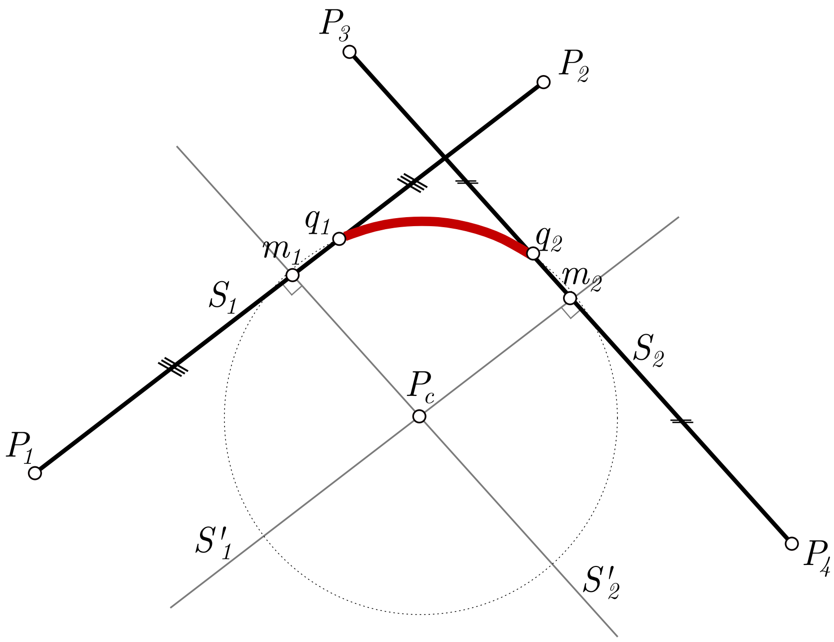
$$m_2 = \frac{P_3 + P_4}{2}$$

Then, find the signed distances (i.e. don't use the absolute value of distance) d_1 of m_1 from S_2 and d_2 of m_2 from S_1.

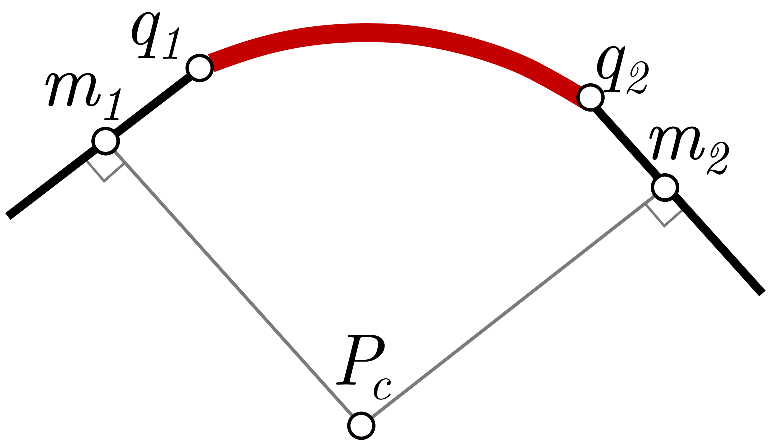
Construct parallel lines l_1 to S_1 that is d_1 pixels away. Repeat with l_2 for S_2 and d_2.

Their intersection is the circle's center, P_c.

The intersection of l_1, l_2 with the two segments are the points where we should clip or extend the segments: q_1 and q_2.



The starting angle is found by calculating the angle of q_1P_c with the x-axis with the `atan2` math library procedure.



curves

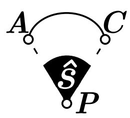
The *subtended* angle* of the arc from the center P_c is found by calculating the dot product of $q_1 P_c$ and $q_2 P_c$:

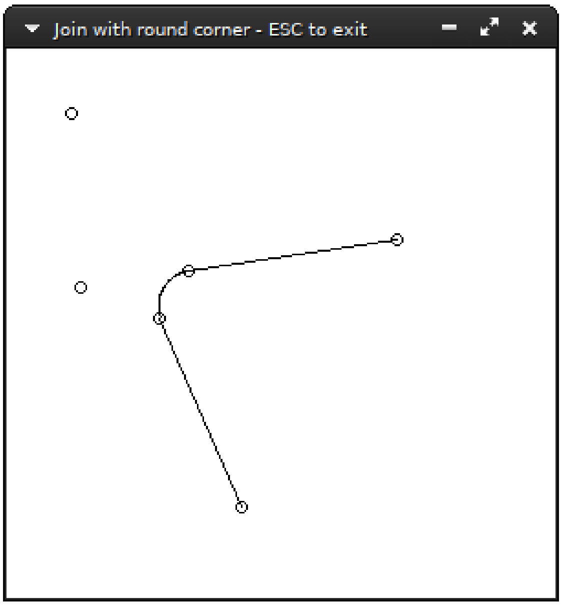
`src/bin/roundcorner.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

The code:

*the *subtended* angle of an arc $\overset{\frown}{AC}$ to a point P is the angle between PA and PC:



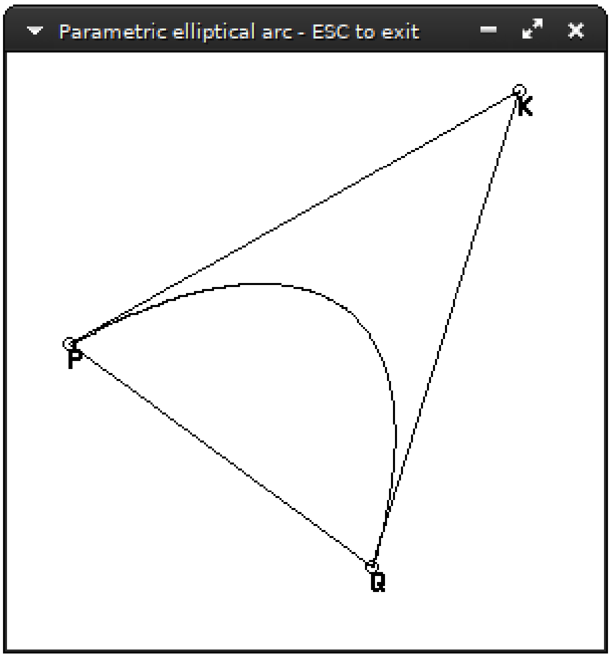


The `src/bin/roundcorner.rs` example has two interactive lines and computes the joining fillet.

curves

Chapter 31

Parametric elliptical arcs



P, Q and K are the arc's control points.

This algorithm[*] draws an elliptical arc starting from point P and ending at Q. The control point K mirrors the ellipse's center J: drawing the quadrilateral $PKQJ$ would appear as a lozenge, or rhombus.

The parameter t defines the step angle in radians and is limited to $0 < t \leq 1$. For each point calculation, the point is t radians away from the previous one, so to increase the amount of points calculated keep t small.

`src/bin/parellarc.rs`:

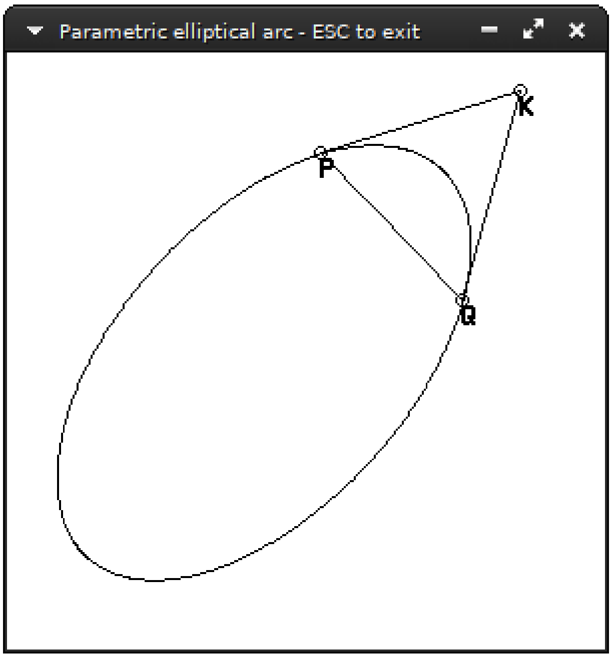
This code file is a PDF attachment

```
fn parellarc(image: &mut Image, p: Point, q: Point, k: Point, t: f64) {
    if t <= 0. || t > 1. {
        return;
    }
    let mut v = ((k.0 - q.0) as f64, (k.1 - q.1) as f64);
    let mut u = ((k.0 - p.0) as f64, (k.1 - p.1) as f64);
    let j = ((p.0 as f64 - v.0 + 0.5), (p.1 as f64 - v.1 + 0.5));
```

[*] *Graphics Gems III* page 164

curves

```
    u = (
        (u.0 * f64::sqrt(1. - t * t * 0.25) - v.0 * t * 0.5),
        (u.1 * f64::sqrt(1. - t * t * 0.25) - v.1 * t * 0.5),
    );
    let n = (std::f64::consts::FRAC_PI_2 / t).floor() as u64;
    let mut prev_pos = p;
    for _ in 0..n {
        let x = (v.0 + j.0).round() as i64;
        let y = (v.1 + j.1).round() as i64;
        let new_point = (x, y);
        image.plot_line_width(prev_pos, new_point, 1.);
        prev_pos = new_point;
        u.0 -= v.0 * t;
        v.0 += u.0 * t;
        u.1 -= v.1 * t;
        v.1 += u.1 * t;
    }
}
```



Changing n to $\frac{2\pi}{t}$ draws the entire ellipse.

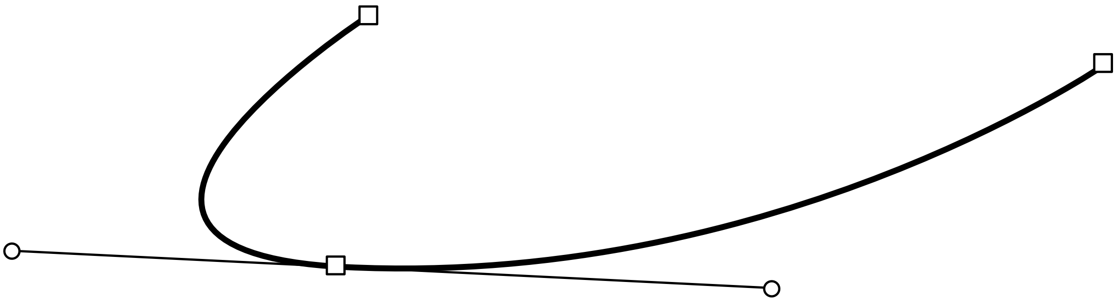
Chapter 32

B-spline

Add *B-spline*

curves

Chapter 33
Bézier curves

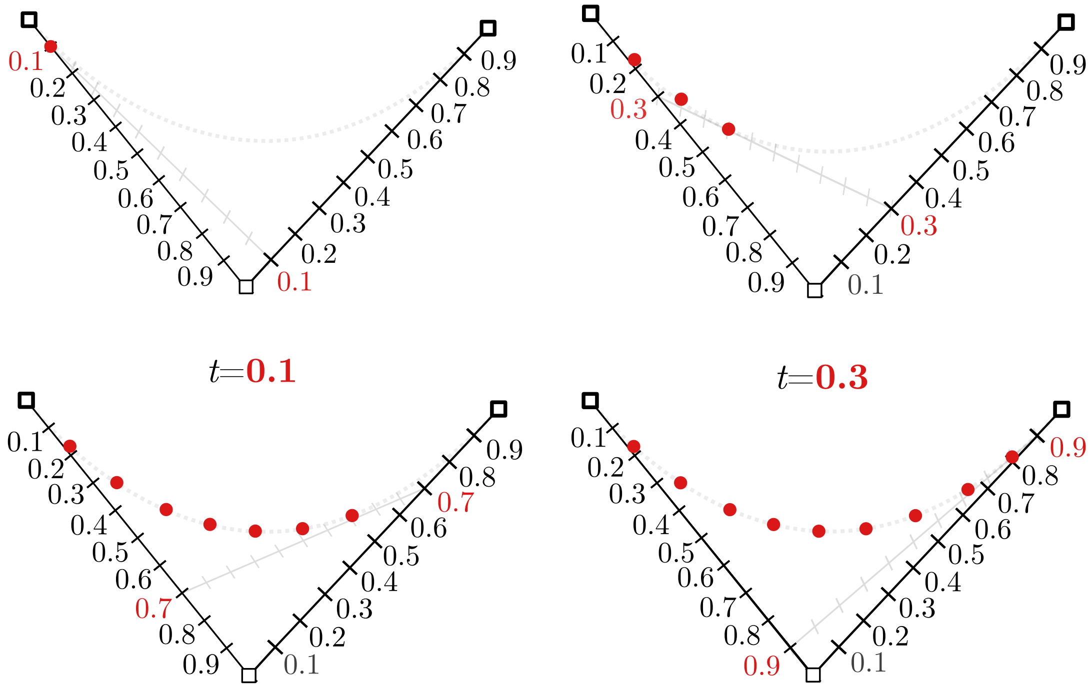


Two cubic *Bézier* curves joined together as displayed in graphics software.

33.1 Quadratic Bézier curves

33.1.1 Drawing the quadratic

To actually draw a curve, i.e. with points P_1, P_2, P_3 we will use *de Casteljau's algorithm*. The gist behind the algorithm is that the length of the curve is visited at specific percentages (e.g. 0%, 0.2%, 0.4% ... 99.8%, 100%), meaning we will have that many steps, and for each such percentage t we calculate a line starting at the t-nth point of P_1P_2 and ending at the t-nth point of P_2P_3. The t-eth point of that line also belongs to the curve, so we plot it.



t=**0.1** t=**0.3**

t=**0.7** t=**0.9**

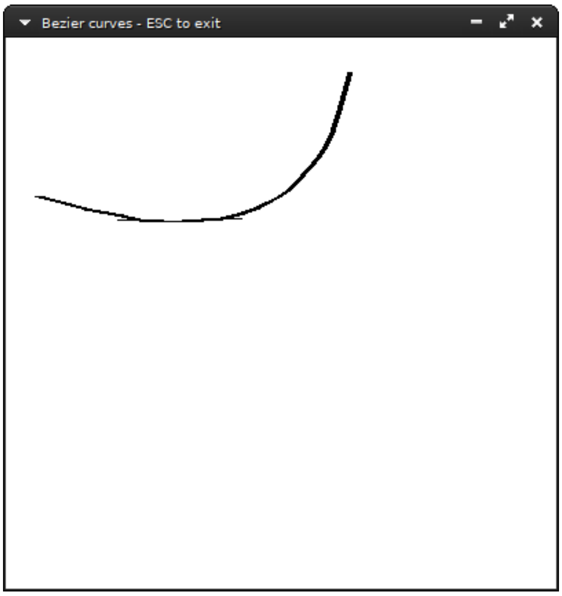
Computing curve points for values of $t \in [0, 1]$ with de Casteljau's algorithm

Let's draw the curve $P_1 = (25, 115), P_2 = (225, 180), P_3 = (250, 25)$

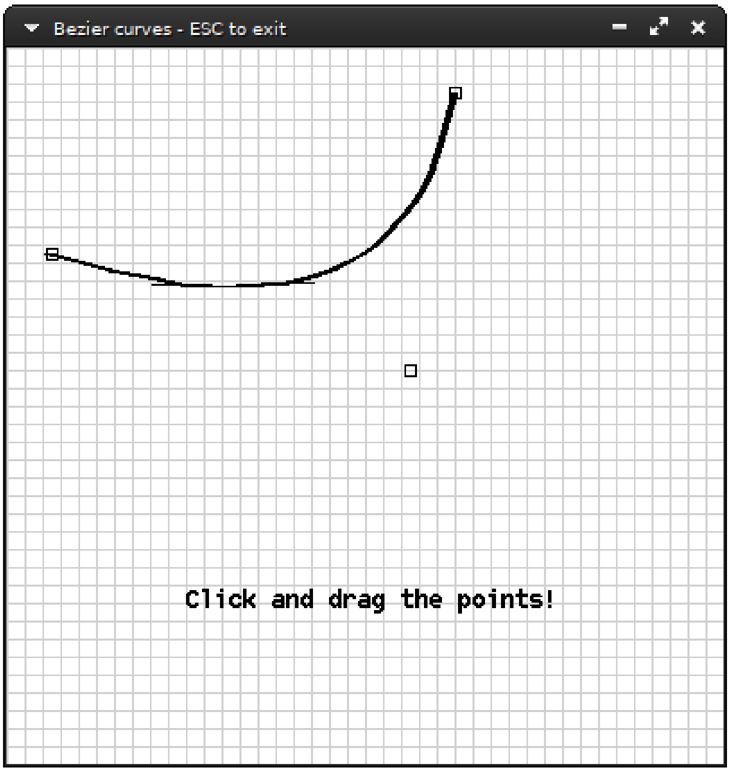
src/bin/bezier.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

The result:



The minifb library allows to track user input, so we detect user clicks and the mouse's position; thus we can interactively modify a curve with some modifications in the code:



Interactively modifying a curve with the `bezier.rs` tool.

curves

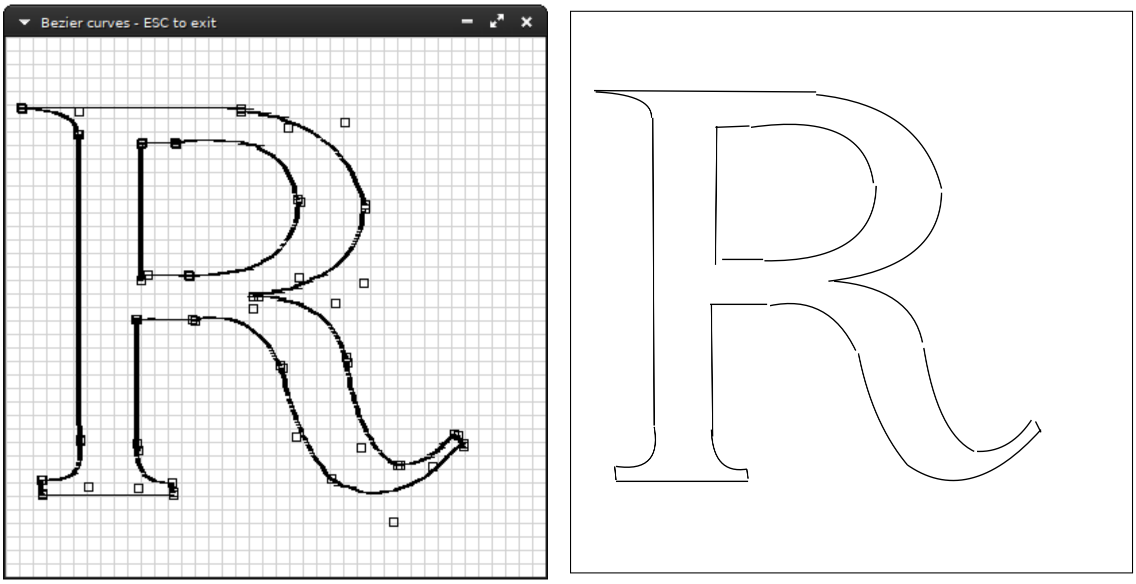
We can go one step further and insult type designers* and use the tool to make a font glyph.

`src/bin/bezierglyph.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

Of course, it requires effort to match the beginning and end of each curve that makes up the glyph. That's why font designing tools have *point snapping* to ensure curve continuation. But for a quick font designer app prototype, it's good enough.

*who use cubic Béziers or other fancier curves (*splines*)



Left: A font glyph drawn with the interactive `bezierglyph.rs` tool. *Right*: the same glyph exported to SVG.

curves

33.2 Cubic Bézier curves

Add *Cubic Bézier curves*

33.3 Weighted Béziers

Add *Weighted Béziers*

Chapter 34
Archimedean spiral

Add *Archimedean spiral*

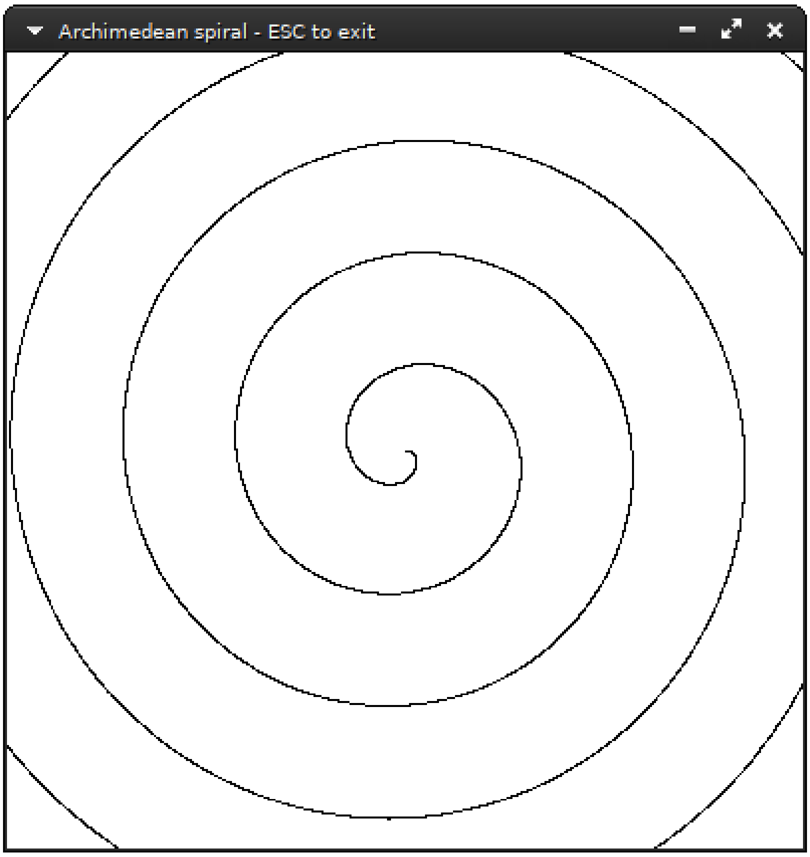
The code

src/bin/archimedeanspiral.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
pub fn arch(image: &mut Image, center: Point) {
    let a = 1.0_f64;
    let b = 9.0_f64;

    // max_angle = number of spirals * 2pi.
    let max_angle = 5.0_f64 * 2.0_f64 * std::f64::consts::PI;

    let mut theta = 0.0_f64;
    let (dx, dy) = center;
    let mut prev_point = center;
    while theta < max_angle {
```

```
        theta = theta + 0.002_f64;

        let r = a + b * theta;
        let x = (r * theta.cos()) as i64 + dx;
        let y = (r * theta.sin()) as i64 + dy;
        image.plot_line_width(prev_point, (x, y), 1.0);
        prev_point = (x, y);
    }
}
```



curves

Part V

Vectors, matrices and transformations

trans-
forma-
tions

Chapter 35
Rotation of a bitmap

$$p' = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_p \\ y_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c = \cos\theta, s = \sin\theta, x_{p'} = x_p c - y_p s, y_{p'} = x_p s + y_p c.$$

Let's load an `xface`. We will use `bits_to_bytes` (See *Bits to byte pixels*, page 15).

`src/bin/rotation.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
include!("dmr.rs");
const WINDOW_WIDTH: usize = 100;
const WINDOW_HEIGHT: usize = 100;
let mut image = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH, DMR_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
image.bytes = bits_to_bytes(DMR_BITS, DMR_WIDTH);
```

This is the `xface` of `dmr`. Instead of displaying the bitmap, this time we will rotate it 0.5 radians. Setup our image first:

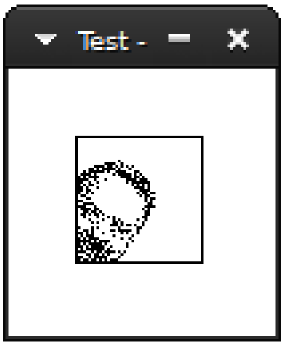
```
let mut image = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH, DMR_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
image.draw_outline();
let dmr = bits_to_bytes(DMR_BITS, DMR_WIDTH);
```

And then, loop for each byte in `dmr`'s face and apply the rotation transformation.

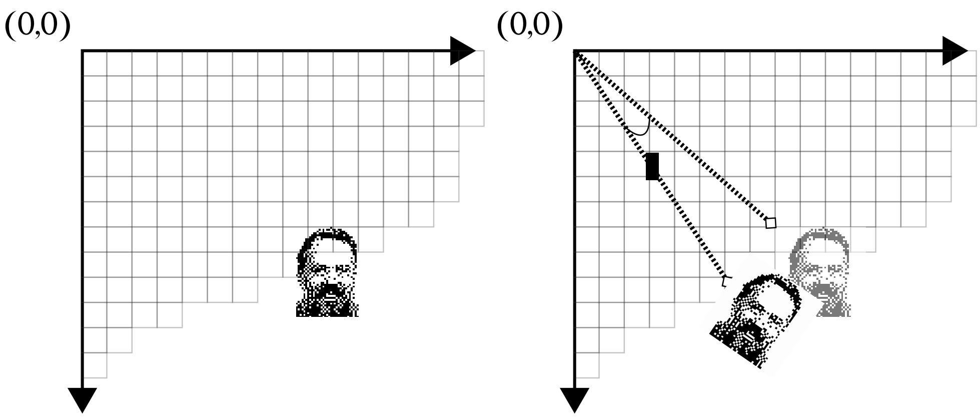
trans-forma-tions

```
let angle = 0.5;

let c = f64::cos(angle);
let s = f64::sin(angle);

for y in 0..DMR_HEIGHT {
    for x in 0..DMR_WIDTH {
        if dmr[y * DMR_WIDTH + x] == BLACK {
            let x = x as f64;
            let y = y as f64;
            let xr = x * c - y * s;
            let yr = x * s + y * c;
            image.plot(xr as i64, yr as i64);
        }
    }
}
```

The result:



We didn't mention in the beginning that the rotation has to be relative to a *point* and the given transformation is relative to the *origin*, in this case the upper left corner $(0,0)$. So `dmr` was rotated relative to the origin:



(the distance to the origin (actually 0 pixels) has been exaggerated for the sake of the example)

Usually, we want to rotate something relative to itself. The right point to choose is the *centroid* of the object.

If we have a list of n points, the centroid is calculated as:

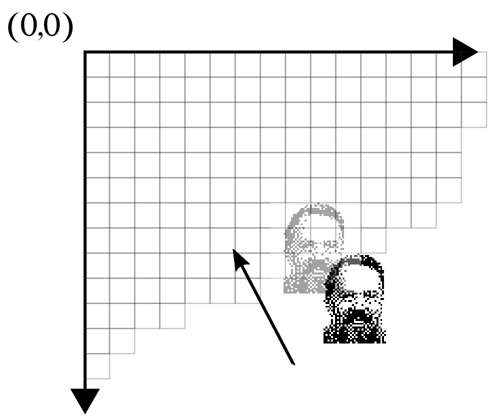
$$x_c = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i$$

$$y_c = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n} y_i$$

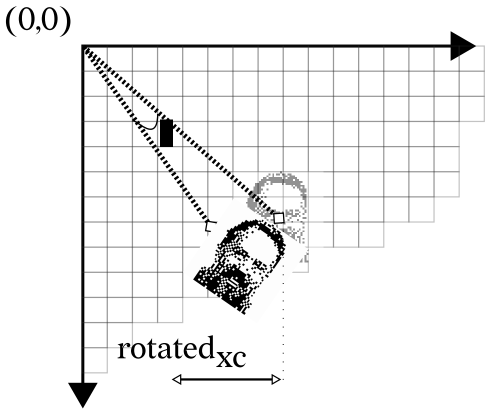
Since in this case we have a rectangle, the centroid has coordinates of half the width and half the height.

By subtracting the centroid from each point before we apply the transformation and then adding it back after we get what we want:

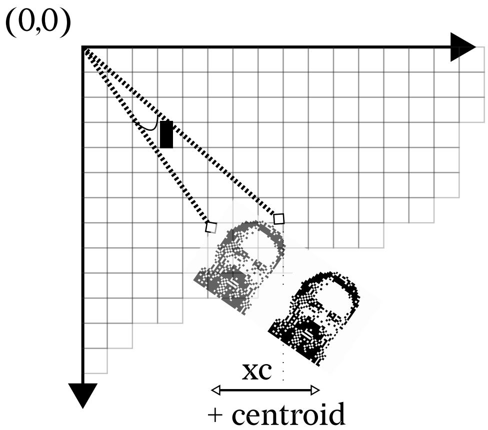
Here's it visually: First subtract the center point.



Then, rotate.



And subtract back to the original position.



In code:

```
let center_point = ((DMR_WIDTH/2) as i64, (DMR_HEIGHT/2) as i64);
for y in 0..DMR_HEIGHT {
    for x in 0..DMR_WIDTH {
        if dmr[y * DMR_WIDTH + x] == BLACK {
            let x = (x as i64 -center_point.0) as f64;
            let y = (y as i64 -center_point.1) as f64;
            let xr = x * c - y * s;
            let yr = x * s + y * c;
            image.plot(xr as i64+center_point.0,
                       yr as i64 + center_point.1);
        }
    }
}
```

The result: 

35.1 Fast 2D Rotation

Add *Fast 2D Rotation*

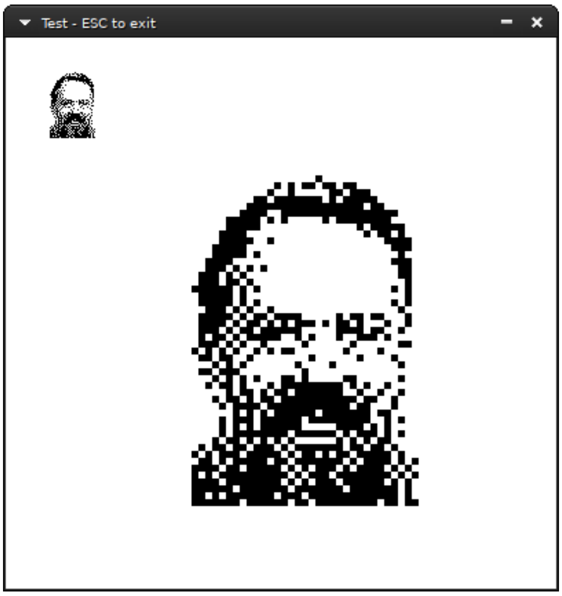
Chapter 36

90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision

Add *90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision*

trans-
forma-
tions

Chapter 37
Magnification/Scaling



trans-
forma-
tions

We want to magnify a bitmap without any smoothing. We define an `Image` scaled to the dimensions we want, and loop for every pixel in the scaled `Image`. Then, for each pixel, calculate its source in the original bitmap: if the coordinates in the scaled bitmap are (x, y) then the source coordinates (sx, sy) are:

$$sx = \frac{x * original.width}{scaled.width}$$

$$sy = \frac{y * original.height}{scaled.height}$$

So, if (sx, sy) are painted, then (x, y) must be painted as well.

src/bin/scale.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

```
let mut original = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH, DMR_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
original.bytes = bits_to_bytes(DMR_BITS, DMR_WIDTH);
original.draw(&mut buffer, BLACK, None, WINDOW_WIDTH);

let mut scaled = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH * 5, DMR_HEIGHT * 5, 100, 100);
let mut sx: i64; //source
let mut sy: i64; //source
let mut dx: i64; //destination
let mut dy: i64 = 0; //destination
```

```
let og_height = original.height as i64;
let og_width = original.width as i64;
let scaled_height = scaled.height as i64;
let scaled_width = scaled.width as i64;

while dy < scaled_height {
    sy = (dy * og_height) / scaled_height;
    dx = 0;
    while dx < scaled_width {
        sx = (dx * og_width) / scaled_width;
        if original.get(sx, sy) == Some(BLACK) {
            scaled.plot(dx, dy);
        }
        dx += 1;
    }
    dy += 1;
}
scaled.draw(&mut buffer, BLACK, None, WINDOW_WIDTH);
```

37.1 Smoothing enlarged bitmaps

Add *Smoothing enlarged bitmaps*

37.2 Stretching lines of bitmaps

Add *Stretching lines of bitmaps*

transformations

Chapter 38
Mirroring

Add screenshots and figure and code in *Mirroring*

Mirroring to an axis is the transformation of one coordinate to its equidistant value across the axis:

To mirror a pixelacross the x axis, simply multiply its coordinates with the following matrix:

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

This results in the y coordinate's sign being flipped.

For y-mirroring, the transformation follows the same logic:

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

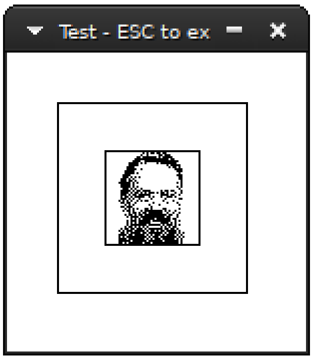
Chapter 39

Shearing

src/bin/shearing.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

Simple shearing is the transformation of one dimension by a distance proportional to the other dimension, In x-shearing (or horizontal shearing) only the x coordinate is affected, and likewise in y-shearing only y as well.



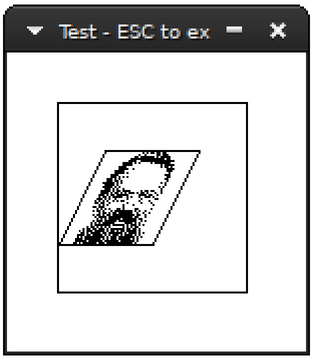
trans-forma-tions

With l being equal to the desired tilt away from the y axis, the transformation is described by the following matrix:

$$S_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & l \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which is as simple as this function:

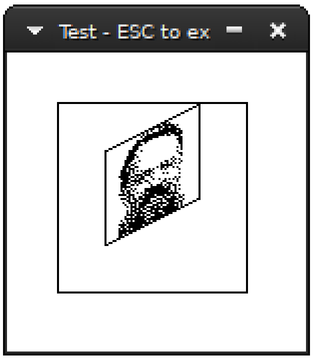
```
fn shear_x((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), l: f64) -> (i64, i64) {
    (x_p+(l*(y_p as f64)) as i64, y_p)
}
```



For y-shearing, we have the following:

$$S_y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ l & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
fn shear_y((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), l: f64) -> (i64, i64) {
    (x_p, (l*(x_p as f64)) as i64 + y_p)
}
```

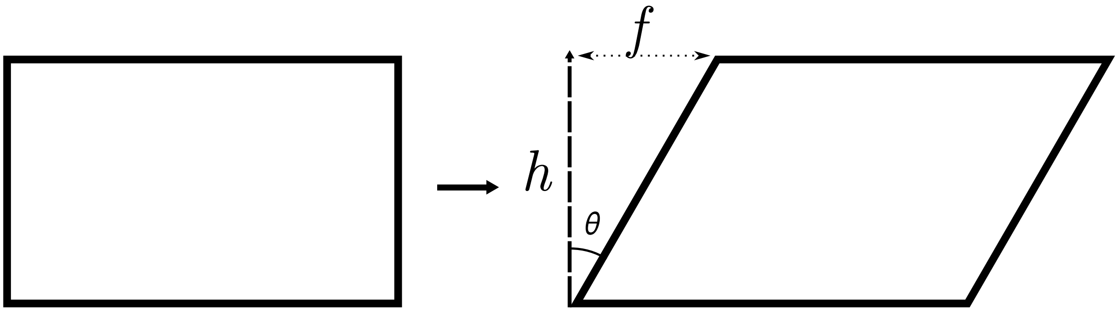


A full example:

```
include!("../dmr.xbm.rs");
const WINDOW_WIDTH: usize = 200;
const WINDOW_HEIGHT: usize = 200;
fn shear_x((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), l: f64) -> (i64, i64) {
    (x_p+(l*(y_p as f64)) as i64, y_p)
}
fn shear_y((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), l: f64) -> (i64, i64) {
    (x_p, (l*(x_p as f64)) as i64 + y_p)
}
let mut image = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH, DMR_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
image.bytes = bits_to_bytes(DMR_BITS, DMR_WIDTH);
image.draw_outline();
```

```
let l = -0.5;
let mut sheared = Image::new(DMR_WIDTH*2, DMR_HEIGHT*2, 25, 25);
for x in 0..DMR_WIDTH {
    for y in 0..DMR_HEIGHT  {
        if image.bytes[y * DMR_WIDTH + x] == BLACK {
          let p = shear_x((x as i64 ,y as i64 ), l);
          sheared.plot(p.0+(DMR_WIDTH/2) as i64, p.1+(DMR_HEIGHT/2) as i64);
        }
    }
}
sheared.draw_outline();
```

39.1 The relationship between shearing factor and angle



Shearing is a delta movement in one dimension, thus the point before moving and the point after form an angle with the x axis. To move a point $(x, 0)$ by $30°$ forward we will have the new point $(x + f, 0)$ where f is the shear factor. These two points and (x, h) where h is the height of the bitmap form a triangle, thus the following are true:

$$\cot\theta = \frac{h}{f}$$

Therefore to find your factor for any angle θ replace its cotangent in the following formula:

$$f = \frac{h}{\cot\theta}$$

For example to shear by $-30°$ (meaning the bitmap will move to the right, since rotations are always clockwise) we need $\cot(-30deg) = -\sqrt{3}$ and $f = -\frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Chapter 40
Anamorphic transformations

Reproduce cover skull

trans-
forma-
tions

Chapter 41

Projections

Add *Projections*

trans-
forma-
tions

Part VI

Patterns

Chapter 42

The 17 Wallpaper groups

Add *The 17 Wallpaper groups*

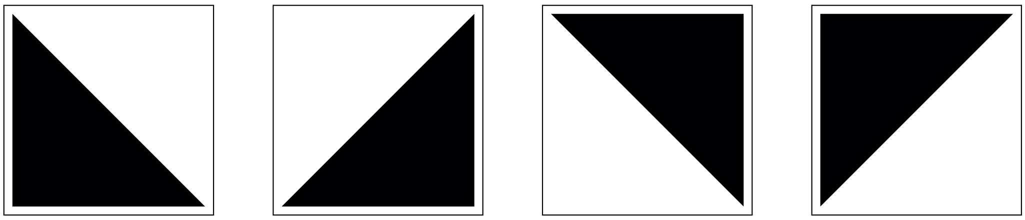
patterns

Chapter 43
Tilings and Tessellations

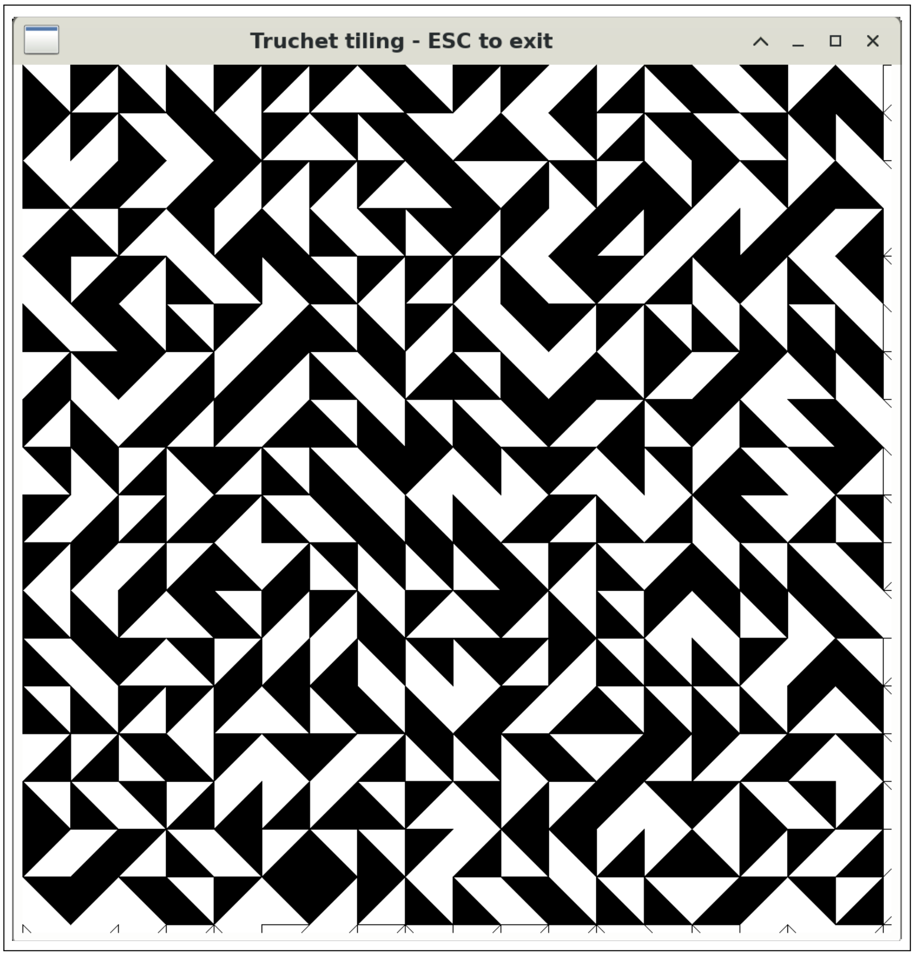
patterns

43.1 Truchet Tiling

Truchet tiling is a repetition of four specific tiles in any specific order. It can be random or deterministic.



The four tiles



Random arrangement of truchet tiles using `rand`.

The code

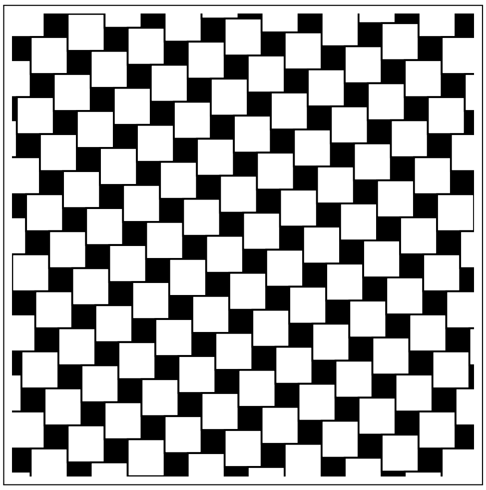
```
fn truchet(image: &mut Image, size: i64) {
    let mut x = 0;
    let mut y = 0;
    #[repr(u8)]
    enum Tile {
        A = 0,
        B,
        C,
        D,
    }
    let tiles = [Tile::A, Tile::B, Tile::C, Tile::D];
    let width = image.width as i64;
    let height = image.height as i64;
    let mut rng = thread_rng();
    while y < height {
        while x < width {
            let t = tiles.choose(&mut rng).unwrap();
            let (a, b, c) = match t {
                Tile::A => {
                    let a = (x, y + size);
                    let b = (x + size, y + size);
                    let c = (x + size, y);
                    (a, b, c)
                }
                Tile::B => {
                    let a = (x, y);
                    let b = (x, y + size);
                    let c = (x + size, y + size);
                    (a, b, c)
                }
                Tile::C => {
                    let a = (x, y);
                    let b = (x + size, y);
                    let c = (x, y + size);
                    (a, b, c)
                }
                Tile::D => {
                    let a = (x, y);
                    let b = (x + size, y);
                    let c = (x + size, y + size);
                    (a, b, c)
                }
            };
            image.plot_line_width(a, b, 1.);
            image.plot_line_width(b, c, 1.);
            image.plot_line_width(c, a, 1.);
            let c = ((a.0 + b.0 + c.0) / 3, (a.1 + b.1 + c.1) / 3);
            image.flood_fill(c.0, c.1);
            x += size;
        }
        x = 0;
        y += size;
    }
}
```

`src/bin/floyddither.rs`:

This code file is a PDF attachment

43.2 Pythagorean Tiling

Pythagorean tiling consists of two squares, one filled and one blank and is described by the ratio of their sizes.



Pythagorean tiling using the golden ratio $\phi \equiv \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$

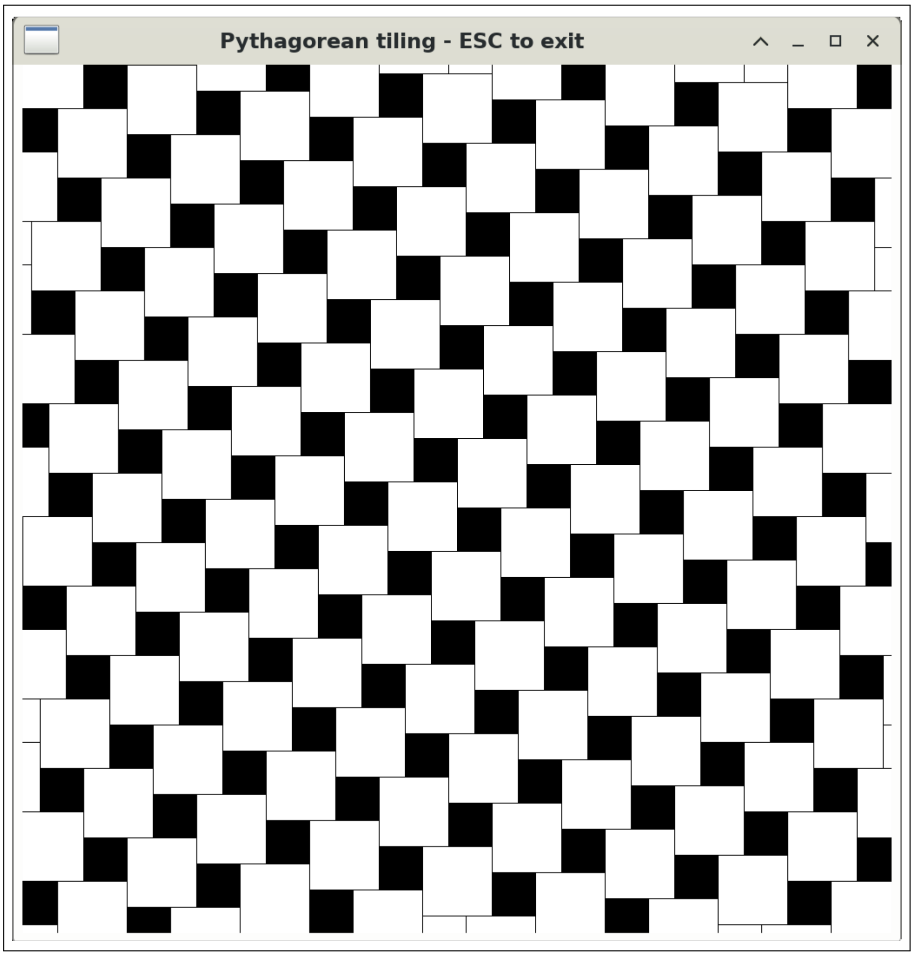
The code

src/bin/pythagorean.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment


```
fn pythagorean(image: &mut Image, size_a: i64, size_b: i64) {
    let width = image.width as i64;
    let height = image.height as i64;
    let times = 4 * width / (size_a + size_b);
    for i in -times..times {
        let mut x = -width + i * (size_b - size_a);
        let mut y = -height - i * (size_b + size_a);
        while y < 2 * height && x < 2 * width {
            // Draw the first smaller and filled rectangle
            let a = (x, y);
            let b = (x + size_a, y);
            let c = (x + size_a, y + size_a);
            let d = (x, y + size_a);
            image.plot_line_width(a, b, 0.);
            image.plot_line_width(b, c, 0.);
            image.plot_line_width(c, d, 0.);
            image.plot_line_width(d, a, 0.);
            // Calculate the center point of the rectangle in order to start flood
 ↪  filling from it
            let (cx, cy) = ((a.0 + b.0 + c.0 + d.0) / 4, (a.1 + b.1 + c.1 + d.1) / 4);
            image.flood_fill(cx, cy);
            x += size_a;
            // Draw the second bigger rectangle
            let a = b;
            let b = (a.0 + size_b, y);
            let c = (a.0 + size_b, y + size_b);
            let d = (a.0, y + size_b);
            image.plot_line_width(a, b, 1.);
            image.plot_line_width(b, c, 1.);
            image.plot_line_width(c, d, 1.);
```

```
                image.plot_line_width(d, a, 1.);
                y += size_b;
            }
        }
}
```



The output of `src/bin/pythagorean.rs`

43.3 Hexagon tiling

Add *Hexagon tiling*

Chapter 44

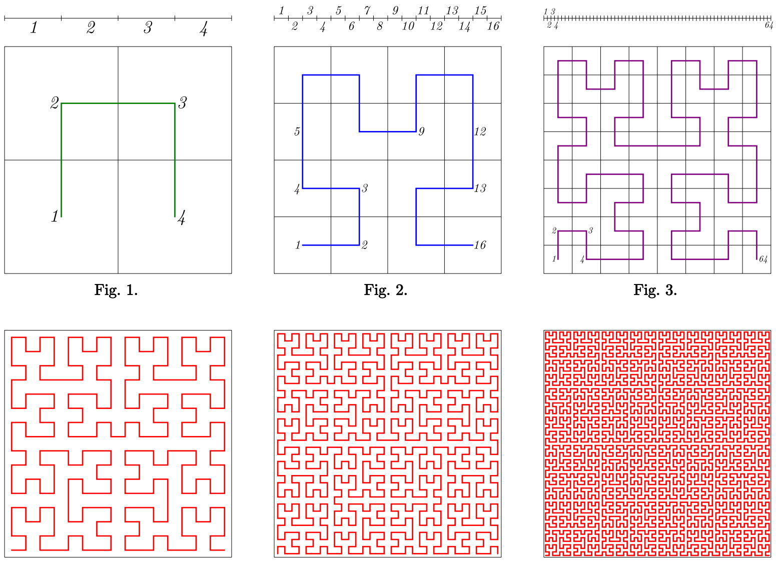
Space-filling Curves

Add *Space-filling Curves*

patterns

44.1 Hilbert curve

Add *Hilbert curve* explanation



The first six iterations of the Hilbert curve by `Braindrain0000`

src/bin/hilbert.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

Here's a simple algorithm for drawing a Hilbert curve.*

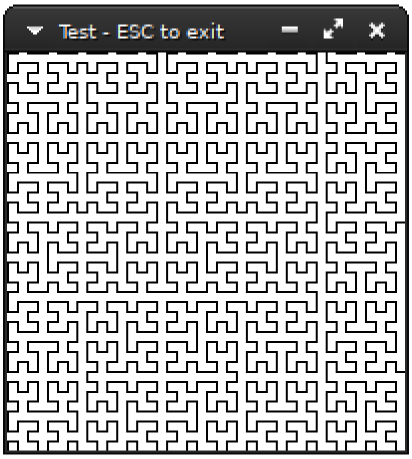
```
const HILBERT: &[&[usize]] = &[
    &[22, 10, 16, 38],
    &[10, 22, 24, 48],
    &[44, 36, 30, 18],
    &[36, 44, 42, 28],
];

fn curve(img: &mut Image, k: usize, order: i64, mut x: i64, mut y: i64) -> (i64, i64) {
    const STEP_SIZE: i64 = 5;
    let mut row: usize;
    let mut direction: usize;
    if order > 0 {
        for j in 0..4 {
            let step = HILBERT[k][j];
            row = (step / 10) - 1;
            let (xn, yn) = curve(img, row, order - 1, x, y);
            x = xn;
            y = yn;
            direction = step % 10;
            let prev = (x, y);
            match direction {
                8 => {
                    // null op
                }
                2 => {
                    //N
                    y -= STEP_SIZE;
                }
                1 => {
```

*Griffiths, J. G. (1985). *Table-driven algorithms for generating space-filling curves*. Computer-Aided Design, 17(1), 37–41. doi:10.1016/0010-4485(85)90009-0

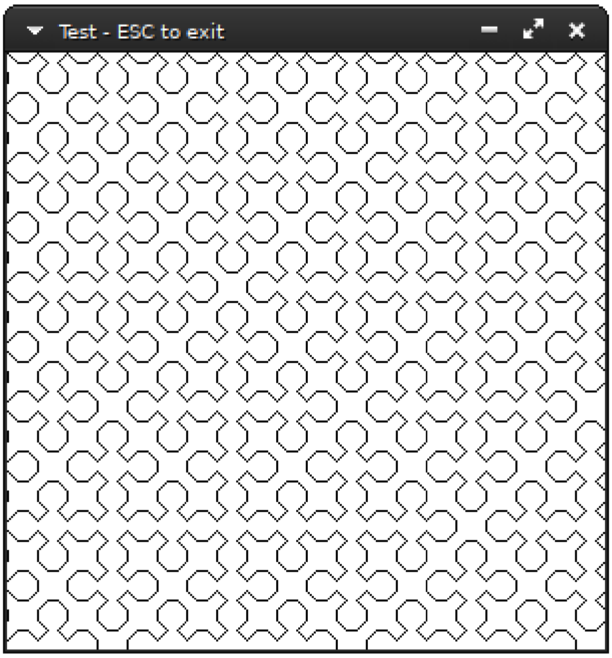
```
                    // NE
                    y -= STEP_SIZE;
                    x += STEP_SIZE;
                }
                0 => {
                    //E
                    x += STEP_SIZE;
                }
                7 => {
                    //SE
                    x += STEP_SIZE;
                    y += STEP_SIZE;
                }
                6 => {
                    //S
                    y += STEP_SIZE;
                }
                5 => {
                    //SW
                    y += STEP_SIZE;
                    x -= STEP_SIZE;
                }
                4 => {
                    //W
                    x -= STEP_SIZE;
                }
                3 => {
                    //NW
                    y -= STEP_SIZE;
                    x -= STEP_SIZE;
                }
                other => unreachable!("{}", other),
            }
            img.plot_line_width(prev, (x, y), 0.);
        }
    }
    (x, y)
}
```

```
let mut image = Image::new(WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_WIDTH, 0, 0);
curve(&mut image, 0, 7, 0, WINDOW_WIDTH as i64);
```

patterns



44.2 Sierpiński curve



Switching the table from the Hilbert implementation to this:

```
const SIERP: &[&[usize]] = &[
    &[17, 25, 33, 41],
    &[17, 20, 41, 18],
    &[25, 36, 17, 28],
    &[33, 44, 25, 38],
    &[41, 12, 33, 48],
];
```

patterns

And switching two lines from the function to

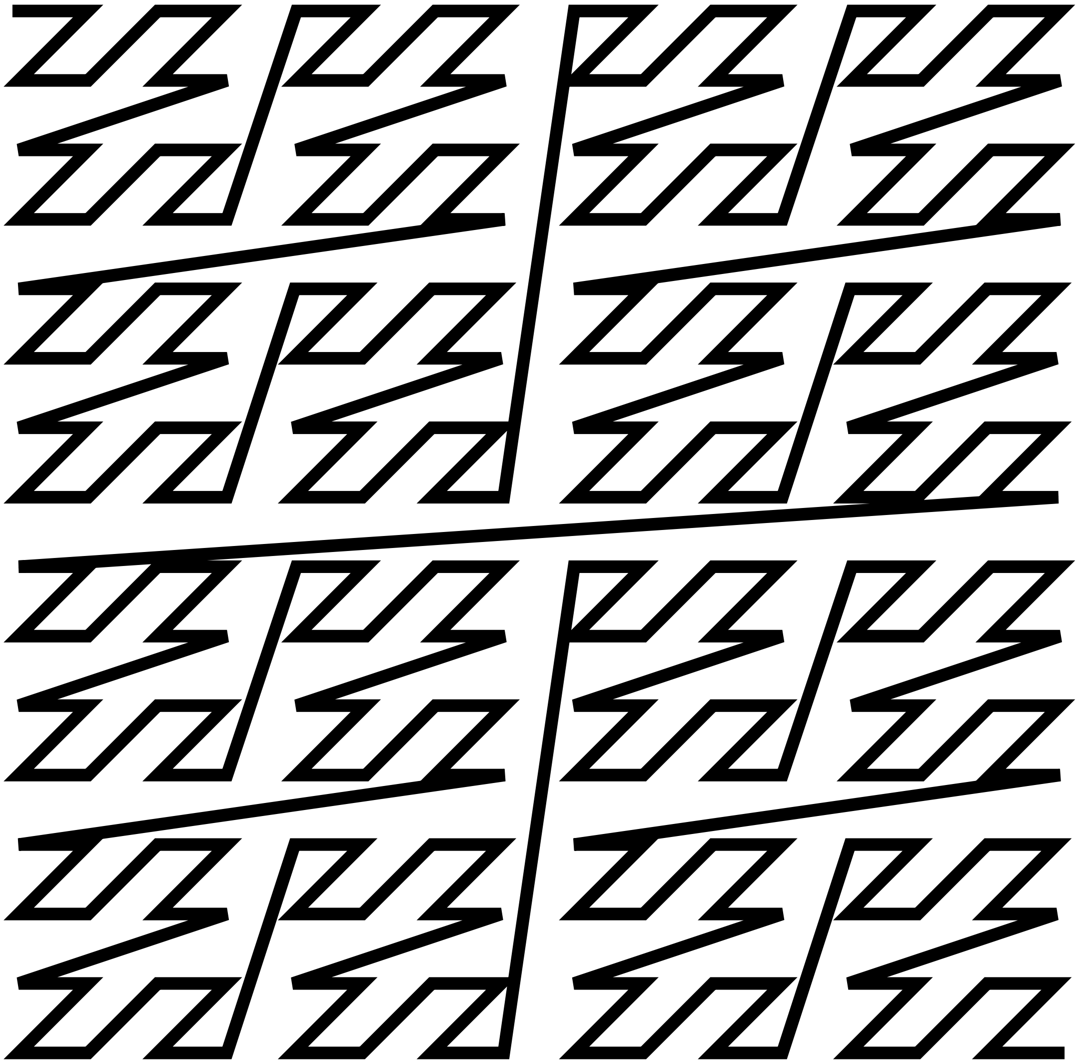
```
- let step = HILBERT[k][j];
- row = (step / 10) - 1;
+ let step = SIERP[k][j];
+ row = (step / 10);
```

You can draw a Sierpinshi curve of order n by calling `curve(&mut image, 0,n+1, 0, 0)`.

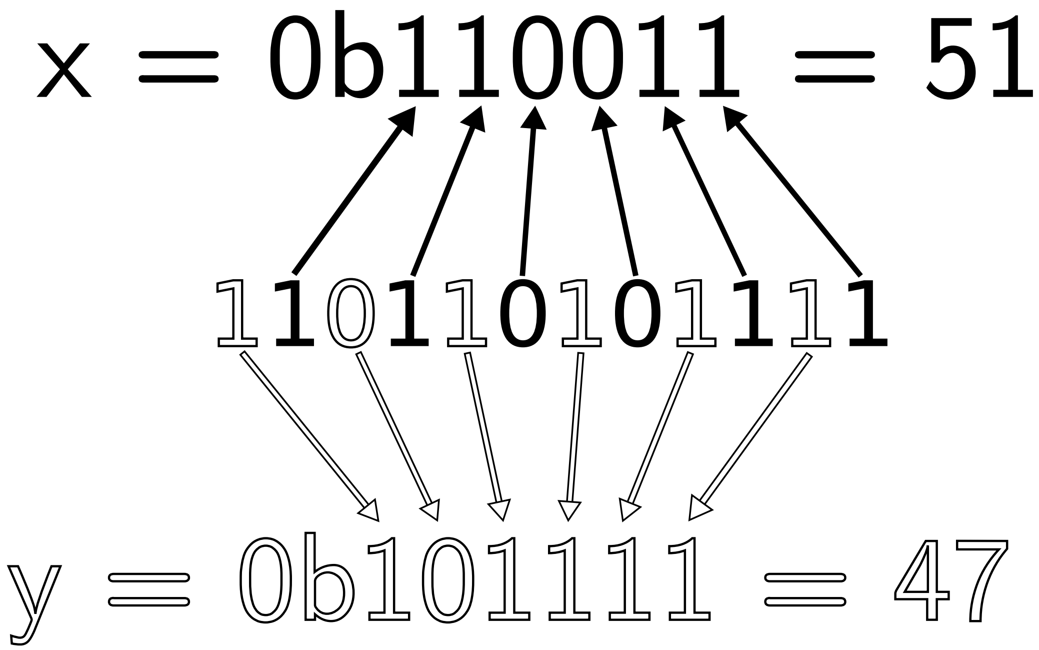
44.3 Peano curve

Add *Peano curve*

44.4 Z-order curve



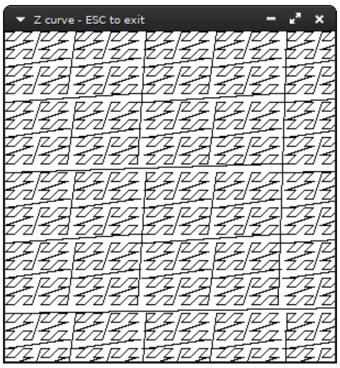
Drawing the Z-order curve is really simple: first, have a counter variable that starts from zero and is incremented by one at each step. Then, you extract the (x, y) coordinates the new step represents from its binary representation. The bits for the x coordinate are located at the odd bits, and for y at the even bits. I.e. the values are interleaved as bits in the value of the step:



Knowing this, implementing the drawing process will consist of computing the next step, drawing a line segment from the current step and the next, set the current step as the next and continue;

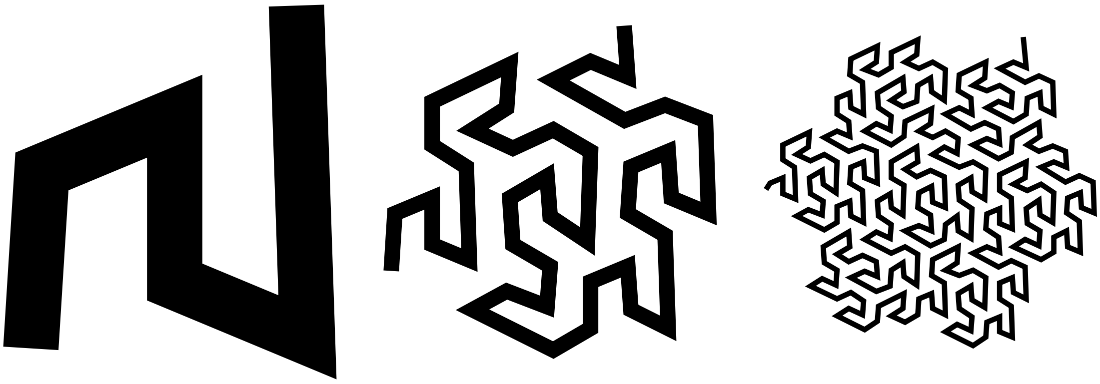
```
fn zcurve(img: &mut Image, x_offset: i64, y_offset: i64) {
    const STEP_SIZE: i64 = 8;
    let mut sx: i64 = 0;
    let mut sy: i64 = 0;
    let mut b: u64 = 0;

    let mut prev_pos = (sx + x_offset, sy + y_offset);
    loop {
        let next = b + 1;
        sx = 0;
        if (next & 1) as i64 > 0 {
            sx += STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100 > 0 {
            sx += 2 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000 > 0 {
            sx += 4 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 8 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 16 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 64 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 128 * STEP_SIZE;
```

```
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 256 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sx += 512 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        sy = 0;
        if (next & 0b10) as i64 > 0 {
            sy += STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000 > 0 {
            sy += 2 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000 > 0 {
            sy += 4 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 8 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 16 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 64 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b1_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 128 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 256 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
            sy += 512 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        img.plot_line_width(prev_pos, (sx + x_offset, sy + y_offset), 1.0);

        if next == 0b111_111_111_111_111_111_111_111 {
            break;
        }
        if sx as usize > img.width && sy as usize > img.height {
            break;
        }

        prev_pos = (sx + x_offset, sy + y_offset);
        b = next;
    }
}
```



patterns

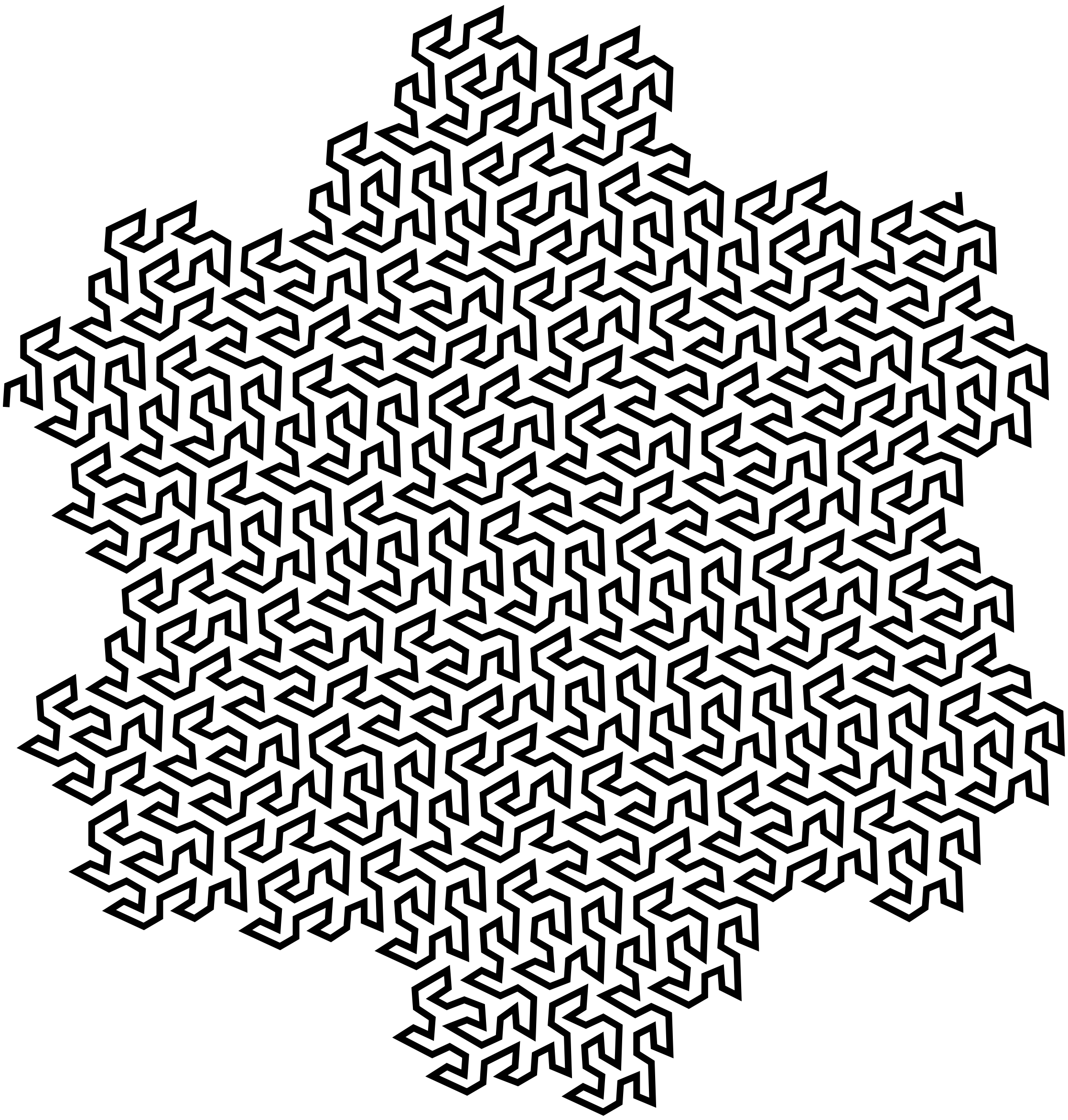
44.5 Flowsnake curve



The first three orders of the Gosper curve.

As a fractal curve, the *flowsnake curve* or *Gosper curve* is defined by a set of recursive rules for drawing it. There are four kind of rules and two of them define rulesets (i.e. they are non-terminal steps).

$$
\begin{aligned}
A &\mapsto A{-}B{-}{-}B{+}A{+}{+}AA{+}B{-} \\
B &\mapsto {+}A{-}BB{-}{-}B{-}A{+}{+}A{+}B
\end{aligned}
$$



The fourth order Gosper curve consists of a minimum of 2057 distinct line segments (but our algorithm draws 36015)

Chapter 45
Flow fields

Add *Flow fields*

patterns

Part VII

Interaction

interacti

Chapter 46

Infinite panning and zooming

Add *Infinite panning and zooming*

Chapter 47

Nearest neighbours

Add *Nearest neighbours*

interacti

Chapter 48

Point in polygon

Add *Point in polygon*

interacti

Part VIII

Colors

Chapter 49

Mixing colors

Add *Mixing colors*

colors

Chapter 50
Bilinear interpolation

Add *Bilinear interpolation*

colors

Chapter 51

Barycentric coordinate blending

Add *Barycentric coordinate blending*

colors

Part IX

Addendum

addenddum

Chapter 52

Faster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry

Add *Faster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry*

addendum

Chapter 53

Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data

Add *Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data*

addendum

Chapter 54
Orthogonal connection of two points

Add *Orthogonal connection of two points*

Chapter 55

Faster line clipping

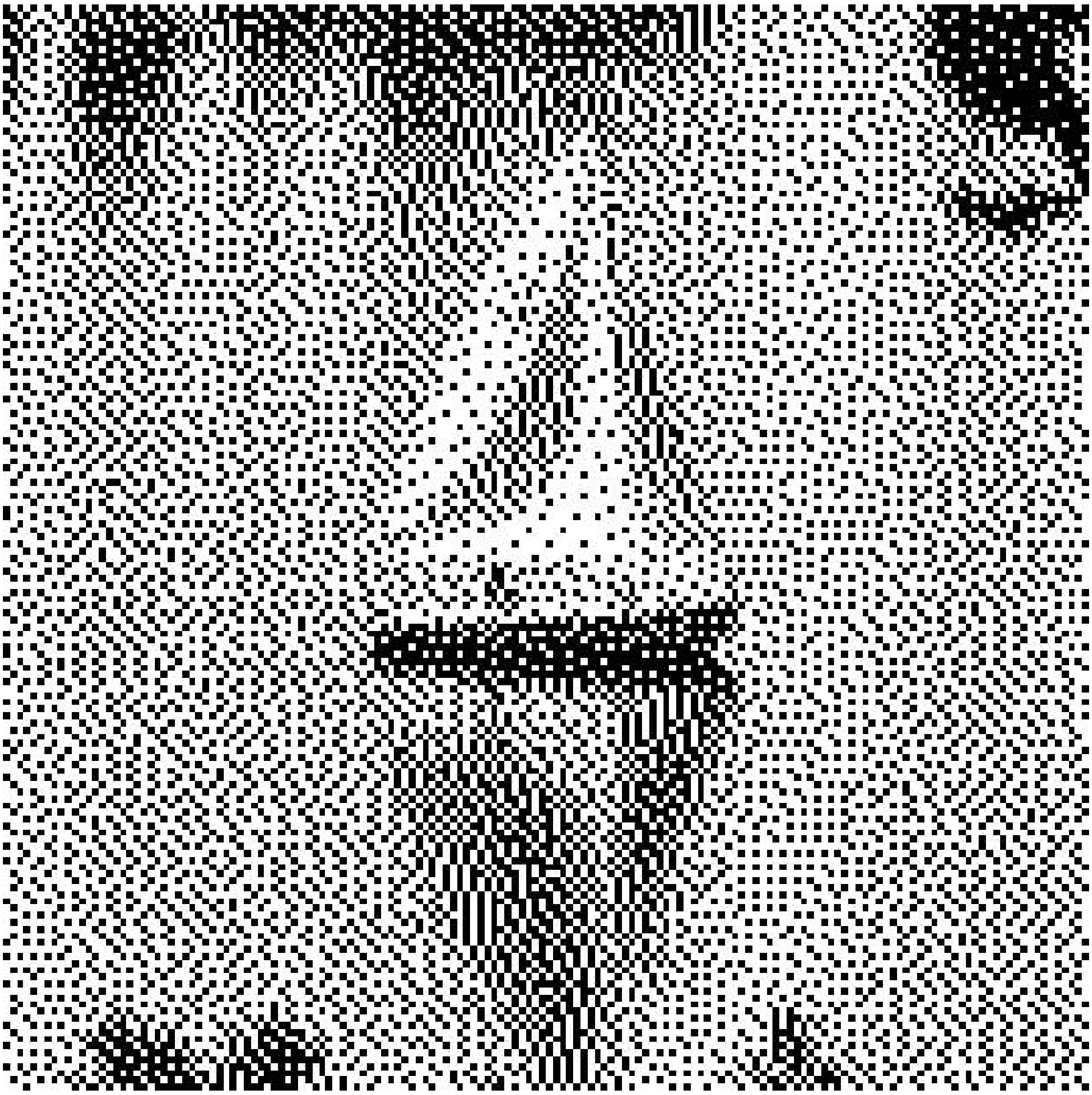
Add *Faster line clipping*

adden-
dum

Chapter 56
Dithering

addendum

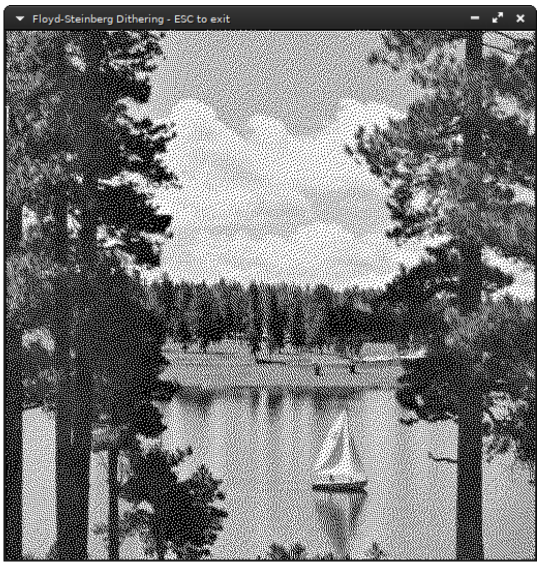
56.1 Floyd-Steinberg



detail of a standard test image, *Sailboat on lake*, with Floyd-Steinberg dithering src/bin/floyddither.rs:

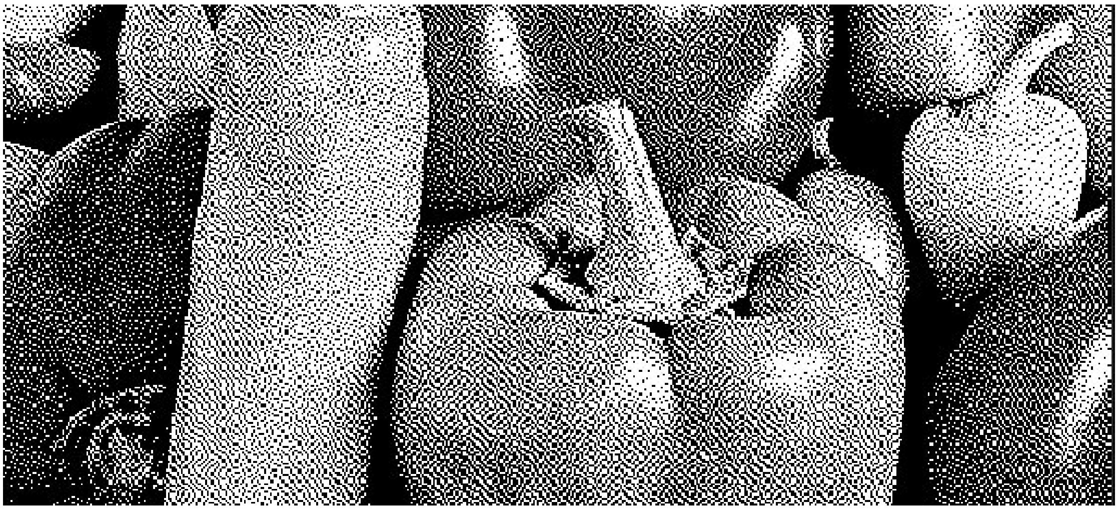
This code file is a PDF attachment

```
fn floyd(image: &mut Image) {
    let w = image.width;
    let m = [(0, 7), (w - 2, 3), (w - 1, 5), (w, 1)];
    let mut e = vec![0.0; w + 1];
    let bytes = image
        .bytes
        .iter()
        .map(|&byte| {
            let (r, g, b) = from_u32_rgb(byte);
            let g: f64 = (0.299 * (r as f64)) + (0.587_f64 * (g as f64)) + (0.114 * (b as
    f64));
            let pix = g / 255.0 + {
                e.push(0.);
                e.remove(0)
            };
            let col = if pix > 0.5 { 1. } else { 0. };
            let err = (pix - col) / 16.;
            for (x, y) in m.iter() {
                e[*x] += err * (*y as f64);
            }
            if col.floor() as u32 == 1 {
                WHITE
            } else {
                BLACK
            }
        })
        .collect::<Vec<u32>>();
    image.bytes = bytes;
}
```



addendum

56.2 Atkinson dithering



detail of a standard test image, *peppers*, with Atkinson dithering

The following code implements Atkinson dithering:*

src/bin/atkinsondither.rs:

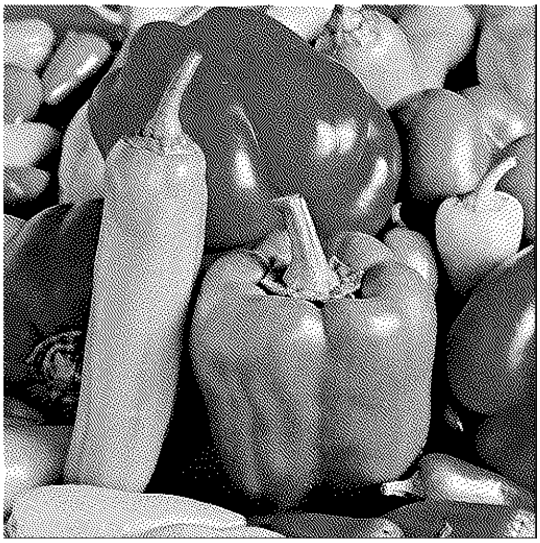
This code file is a PDF attachment

```
fn atkinson(image: &mut Image) {
    let w= image.width;
    let mut e = vec![0.0;2*w];
    let m = [0, 1, w-2, w-1, w, 2*w-1];
    for byte in image.bytes.iter_mut() {
        let (r,g,b) = from_u32_rgb(*byte);
        let g:f64 = ((0.299*(r as f64)) ) + ((0.587_f64*(g as f64)) ) + ((0.114*(b as
↪   f64)) );
        let pix = g/255.0 + { e.push(0.); e.remove(0)};
        let col = if pix > 0.5 { 1. } else { 0. };
        let err = (pix-col)/8.;
        for m in m.iter() {
            e[*m] += err;
        }
        *byte = if (col.floor() as u32 == 1) {
            WHITE
```

addendum

*Algorithm taken from https://beyondloom.com/blog/dither.html

```
        } else {
            BLACK
        };
    }
}
```



addendum

Chapter 57

Marching squares

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About this text

The text has been typeset in XƎLaTeX using the `book` class and:

- **Redaction** for the main text.
- **Fira Sans** for referring to the programming language **Rust** .
- **Redaction20** for referring to the words bitmap and pixels as a concept.

Todo list