A Bitmapper's Companion

epilys 2021

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



Table Of Contents	4	toc
Introduction	8	intro
Points And Lines	18	lines
Points and Line Segments	40	segments
Points, Lines and Circles	47	circles
Points, Lines and Shapes	55	shapes
Curves other than circles	69	curves
Vectors, matrices and transformations	78	trans- forma- tions
Patterns	93	patterns
Addendum	109	adden- dum



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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.

A Bitmapper's Companion, 2021

Special Topics ▶ Computer Graphics ▶ Programming

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The source code for this work is available under the GNU GENERAL PUBLIC LICENSE version 3 or later. You can view it, study it, modify it for your purposes as long as you respect the license if you choose to distribute your modifications.

The source code is available here

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

Contents

Int	roduction	9
Da	ata representation	10
Di	splaying pixels to your screen	12
Bi	ts to byte pixels	14
Lo	ading graphics files in Rust	15
Including xbm files in Rust		16
Po	ints And Lines	19
Di	stance between two points	20
Moving a point to a distance at an angle		21
Ec	uations of a line	22
8.1	Line through a point $P = (x_p, y_p)$ and a slope m	22
8.2	Line through two points	23
Drawing a line		25
Di	stance from a point to a line	26
10.1	Using the implicit equation form	26
10.2	Using an L defined by two points P_1, P_2	27
10.3	Using an L defined by a point P_l and angle $\hat{\theta}$	27
Pe	rpendicular lines	28
11.1	Find perpendicular to line that passes through given point	28
11.2	Find point in line that belongs to the perpendicular of given point	28
	Da Di Bir Lo Indo Po Di Ma Ec S.1 8.2 Dr Di 10.1 10.2 10.3 Pe 11.1	Points And Lines Distance between two points Moving a point to a distance at an angle Equations of a line 8.1 Line through a point $P = (x_p, y_p)$ and a slope m 8.2 Line through two points Drawing a line Distance from a point to a line 10.1 Using the implicit equation form 10.2 Using an L defined by two points P_1, P_2 10.3 Using an L defined by a point P_l and angle $\hat{\theta}$ Perpendicular lines 11.1 Find perpendicular to line that passes through given point

5

12	Ar	Angle between two lines 30			
13	Intersection of two lines				
14	Line equidistant from two points				
15	Reflection of point on line			36	
16	No	ormal to	o a line through a point	38	
17	Ar	ngle sec	tioning	39	
	17.1	Bisect	ion	39	
	17.2	Trisec	tion	39	
Ш	[P	oints A	And Line Segments	41	
18	Dı	awing a	a line segment from its two endpoints	42	
19	Dr	rawing l	line segments with width	44	
20	In	tersecti	on of two line segments	46	
	20.1	Fast is	ntersection of two line segments	46	
IV	Po	oints,	Lines and Circles	48	
21	Ec	quations	s of a circle	50	
22	Во	ounding	gcircle	51	
\mathbf{V}	Po	ints, I	Lines and Shapes	56	
23	Re	ectangle	s and parallelograms	57	
	23.1	Square	es	57	
		23.1.1	From a center point	57	
		23.1.2	From a corner point	58	
	23.2	Rectar	ngles	58	
24	Tr	riangles		59	
	24.1	Makin	ng a triangle from a point and given angles	59	
25	Sq	uircle		61	
26	Union, intersection and difference of polygons 64				

27	Centroid of polygon		
28	Polygon clipping		
29	Triangle filling		
30	Flood filling	69	
VI	Curves other than circles	70	
31	Parametric elliptical arcs	71	
32	Bézier curves	73	
3	2.1 Quadratic Bézier curves	74	
	32.1.1 Drawing the quadratic	74	
3	2.2 Cubic Bézier curves	78	
3	2.3 Weighted Béziers	78	
VII	Vectors, matrices and transformations	79	
33	Rotation of a bitmap	80	
3	3.1 Fast 2D Rotation	84	
34	90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision	85	
35	Magnification/Scaling	86	
3	5.1 Smoothing enlarged bitmaps	87	
3	5.2 Stretching lines of bitmaps	87	
36	Mirroring	89	
37	Shearing	90	
3	7.1 The relationship between shearing factor and angle	92	
38	Projections	93	
VII	I Patterns	94	
39	Tilings	95	
3	9.1 Truchet Tiling	96	
3	9.2 Pythagorean Tiling	98	

	39.3	Hexagon tiling	100
40	Sp	ace-filling Curves	101
	40.1	Hilbert curve	102
	40.2	Sierpiński curve	104
	40.3	Peano curve	104
	40.4	Z-order curve	105
	40.5	Flowsnake curve	108
IX	A	ddendum	110
41	Fa	ster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry	111
42	Jo	ining the ends of two wide line segments together	112
43	Co	mposing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data	113
44	Or	thogonal connection of two points	114
45	Jo	in segments with round corners	115
46	Fa	ster line clipping	119
47	Ar	chimedean spiral	120
48	Di	thering	122
	48.1	Floyd-Steinberg	123
	48.2	Atkinson dithering	125
49	Ma	arching squares	127
Inc	lex		129

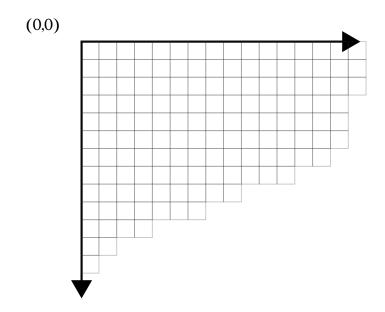


Part I Introduction

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).

```
This code file is a PDF attachment
```

src/lib.rs:

intro

```
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 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,</pre>
      Box<dyn Error>>
      pub fn from_xbm(path: &str, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Result<Self, Box<dyn</pre>
      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_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.

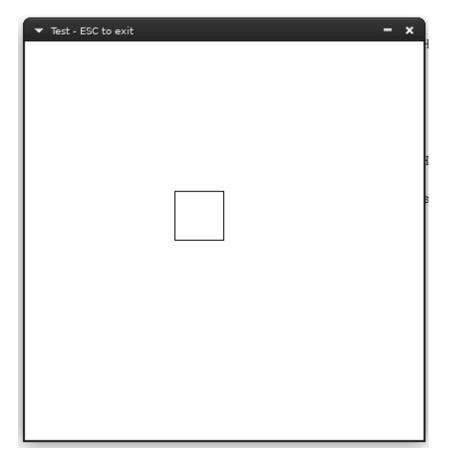
Displaying pixels to your screen

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



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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);
```

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
```

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,
}
```

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:

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

to

```
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:

```
intro
```

```
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:



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

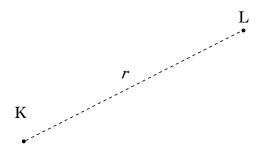
src/bin/xbmtors.rs:



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Part II Points And Lines

Distance between two points



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

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

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 page 50

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:

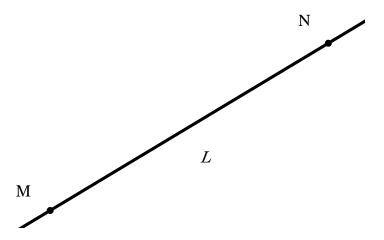
$$y = ax + b$$

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:

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

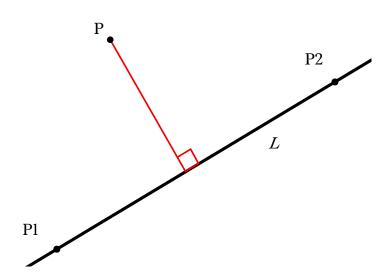
Which is what we were after. We should finish by normalising what we found with $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$, but our coordinates are integers and have no decimal or floating point accuracy.

```
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)
```

Drawing a line

Distance from a point to a line



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.

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

lines

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 $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$.

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

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

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

The code

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
    }
}
```

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

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

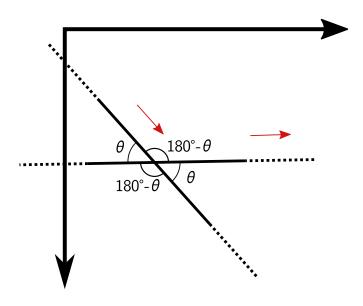
The code

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,
    )
}
```

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:

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

For the following parametric equations of L_1, L_2 :

$$\begin{split} L_1 &= \left(\{ x = x_1 + f_1 t \}, \{ y = y_1 + g_1 t \} \right) \\ L_2 &= \left(\{ x = x_2 + f_2 s \}, \{ y = y_2 + g_2 s \} \right) \end{split}$$

the formula is:

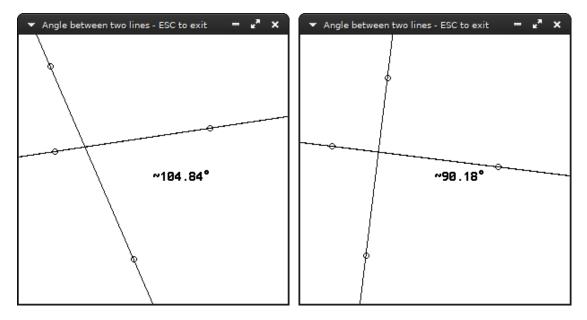
$$\hat{\theta} = \arccos \frac{f_1 f_2 + g_1 g_2}{\sqrt{\left(f_1^2 + g_1^2\right) \left(f_2^2 + g_2^2\right)}}$$

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))
}
```

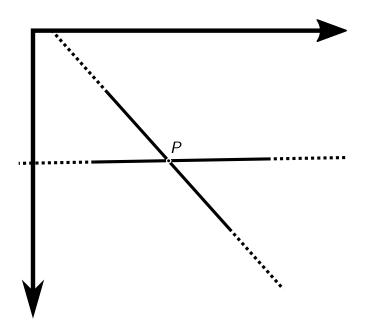
Iines

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

Intersection of two lines



If the lines L_1 , L_2 are in implicit form $(a_1x + b_1y + c = 0 \text{ and } a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0)$, 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:

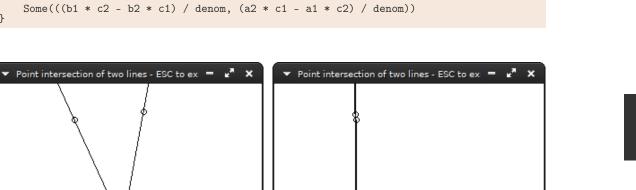
$$P = \left(\frac{b_1c_2 - b_2c_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}, \frac{a_2c_1 - a_1c_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}\right)$$

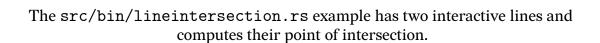
lines

The code:

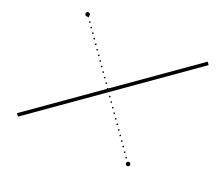
```
fn find_intersection((a1, b1, c1): (i64, i64, i64), (a2, b2, c2): (i64, i64, i64)) ->
    Option<Point> {
    let denom = a1 * b2 - a2 * b1;
    if denom == 0 {
        return None;
    }
    Some(((b1 * c2 - b2 * c1) / denom, (a2 * c1 - a1 * c2) / denom))
}
src/bin/lineintersection.rs:

### This code file is a PDF attachment
```





Line equidistant from two points



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

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

^{*}See Line through two points, page 23

[†]See Perpendicular lines, page 28

lines

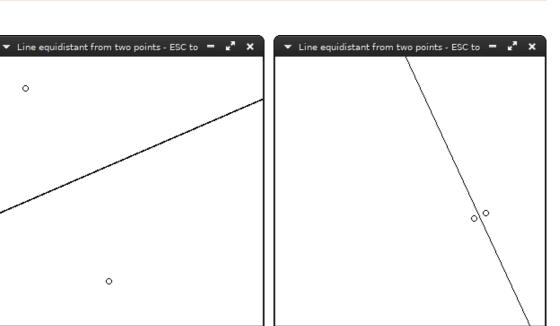
src/bin/equidistant.rs:

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attachment

The code:

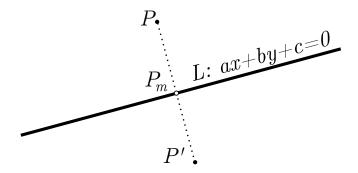
```
fn find_equidistant(point_a: Point, point_b: Point) -> (i64, i64, i64) {
      let (xa, ya) = point_a;
let (xb, yb) = point_b;
let midpoint = ((xa + xb) / 2, (ya + yb) / 2);
      let al = ya - yb;
let bl = xb - xa;
      // If we had subpixel accuracy, we could do:
//assert_eq!(al*midpoint.0+bl*midpoint.1, -cl);
      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} .

0

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:

$$a\mathbf{x} + b\left(\frac{b\mathbf{x} + (aP_y - bP_x)}{a}\right) + c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a\mathbf{x} + \frac{b^2}{a}\mathbf{x} + bP_y - \frac{b^2}{a}P_x + c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (a + \frac{b^2}{a})\mathbf{x} = \frac{b^2}{a}P_x - c - bP_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \left(\frac{\frac{b^2}{a}P_x - c - bP_y}{a + \frac{b^2}{a}}\right)$$

^{*}See Perpendicular lines, page 28

lines

 P_{m_y} is found by substituting P_{m_x} to L. Now, knowing length of $PP_m = \text{length of } P_mP'$, we can find P_x' and P_y' :

$$\begin{split} P_{m_x} - P_x &= P_x' - P_{m_x} \\ P_{m_y} - P_y &= P_y' - P_{m_y} \\ \Longrightarrow P_x' &= 2P_{m_x} - P_x \\ P_y' &= 2P_{m_y} - P_y \end{split}$$

The code

fn find_mirror(point: Point, 1: Line) -> Point {
 let (x, y) = point;
 let (a, b, c) = 1;
 let (a, b, c) = (a as f64, b as f64, c as f64);

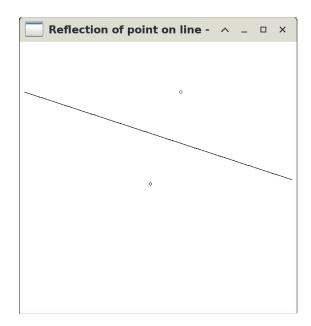
 let b2a = (b * b) / a;
 let mx = (b2a * x as f64 - c - b * y as f64) / (a + b2a);
 let my = (-a * mx - c) / b;
 let (mx, my) = (mx as i64, my as i64);

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



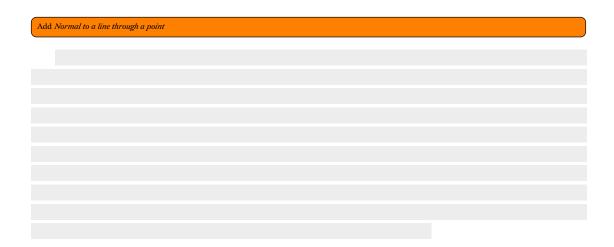
src/bin/mirror

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.

Normal to a line through a point



lines

Chapter 17

Angle sectioning

17.1	Bisection		

17.2 Trisection

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.

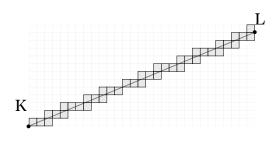
Part III

Points And Line Segments

Chapter 18

Drawing a line segment from its two endpoints

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 x: i64;
    let mut y: i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let ay: i64;
    let sy: i64;
    let sy: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let x: i64;
    le
```

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

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: 164;
    let sx: 164;
    let sx: 164;
    let sx: 164;
    let dx: 164;
    le
```

segments

Chapter 20

Intersection of two line segments

Let points $\mathbf{l} = (x_1, y_1)$, $\mathbf{2} = (x_2, y_2)$, $\mathbf{3} = (x_3, y_3)$ and $\mathbf{4} = (x_4, y_4)$ and $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}, \mathbf{4}$ 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 $r_3 = L_{12}(3)$ and $r_4 = L_{12}(4)$ 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.

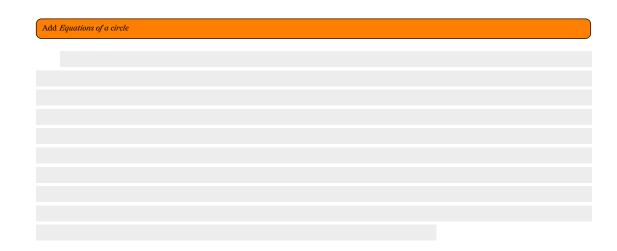
If $r_1 \neq 0, r_2 \neq 0$ and $sgn(r_1) == sign(r_2)$ the line segments don't intersect, so stop.

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

20.1 Fast intersection of two line segments

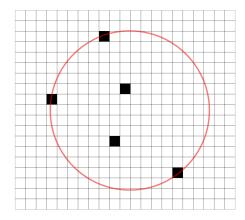
Part IV Points, Lines and Circles

Equations of a circle



circles

Bounding circle



src/bin/boundingcircle.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

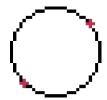
circles

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|

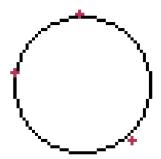
let d_2 = (

(((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:



```
+ (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)
}</pre>
```

The algorithm:

```
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
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)</pre>
```

```
} 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;
}</pre>
             }
      }
      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 /(...)
let d_1 = (
            (((p1.0 + q.0) / 2), (p1.1 + q.1) / 2),
            (distance_between_two_points(p1, q) / 2.0),
      circle
                          + Q)/2.0 and the radius is |(P_1 - Q)/2.0|
       let mut d_prev = d_1;
      } 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;</pre>
             }
      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;
   }
}</pre>
      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.;
      }
```

```
+ (cx + cx - cx - d) / d;

let uy = ((ax * ax + ay * ay) * (cx - bx) + (bx * bx + by * by) * (ax - cx) + (cx * cx + cy * cy) * (bx - ax))
      / (d; d; let mut center = (ux as i64, uy as i64);
      if center.0 < 0 {
    center.0 = 0;</pre>
      if center.1 < 0 {
    center.1 = 0;</pre>
       let d = distance_between_two_points(center, q1);
       (center, d)
fn main() {
      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()
                     ..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) &&
 .update_with_buffer(&buffer, WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_HEIGHT)
                     .unwrap();
             let millis = std::time::Duration::from_millis(100);
             std::thread::sleep(millis);
```

Part V Points, Lines and Shapes

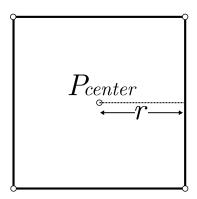
shapes

Chapter 23

Rectangles and parallelograms

23.1 Squares

23.1.1 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);
}
```

23.1.2 From a corner point

23.2 Rectangles

shapes

Chapter 24

Triangles

24.1 Making a triangle from a point and given angles

shapes

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 115).

src/bin/squircle.rs:



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:

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

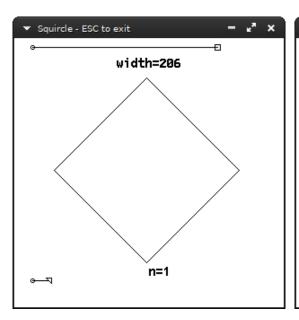
The squircle as a superellipse is usually defined for n = 4.

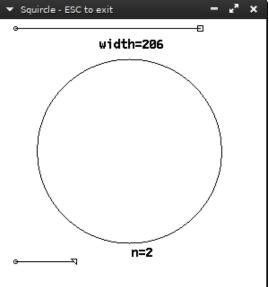
The code

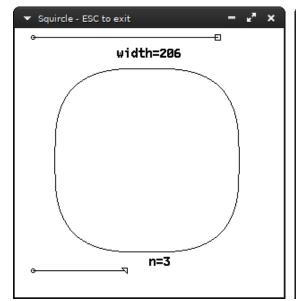
```
pub fn plot_squircle(
    image: &mut Image,
        (xm, ym): (i64, i64),
    width: i64,
    height: i64,
    n: i32,
    _wd: f64,
) {
                  let r = width / 2;
let w = width / 2;
let h = height / 2;
```

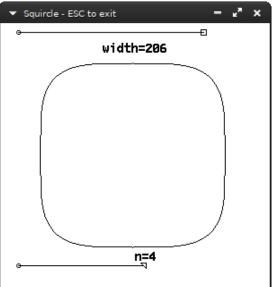
Different values of n

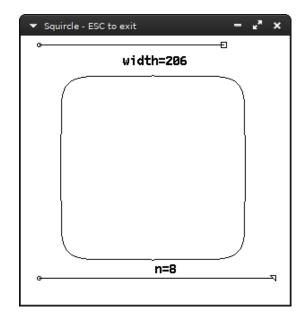
Increasing n in src/bin/squircle.rs makes the hyperellipse corners approach the square's.











Union, intersection and difference of polygons



shapes

shapes

Chapter 27

Centroid of polygon



Polygon clipping

shapes

Triangle filling

Add Triangle filling explanation

The book's library methods include a fill_triangle method:

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

shapes

shapes

Chapter 30

Flood filling

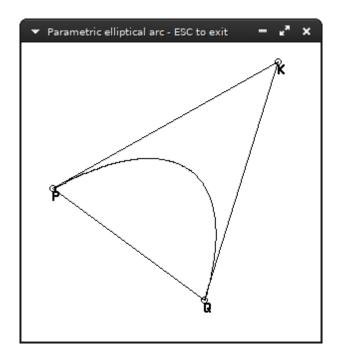
Add Flood filling	

Part VI Curves other than circles

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 $0 < t \le 1$.

^{*}Graphics Gems III page 164

curves

For each point calculation, the point is t radians away from the previous one, so src/bin/parellarc.rs: to increase the amount of points calculated keep t small.

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);

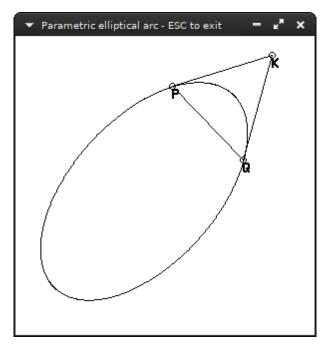
    let j = ((p.0 as f64 - v.0 + 0.5), (p.1 as f64 - v.1 + 0.5));

    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 p = (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;
        v.1 += u.1 * t;
    }
}
```

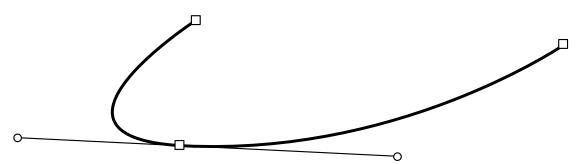


Changing *n* to $\frac{2\pi}{t}$ draws the entire ellipse.

curves

Chapter 32

Bézier curves

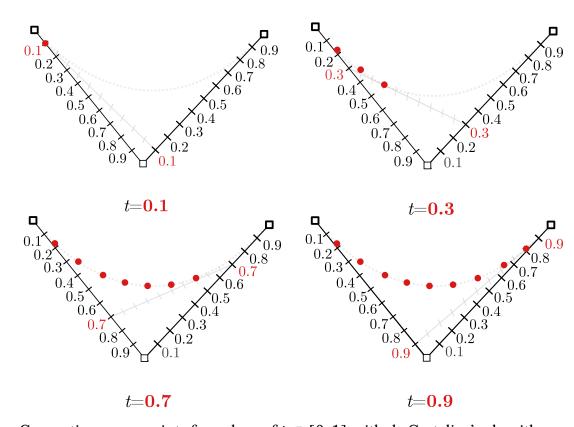


Two cubic $B\'{e}zier$ curves joined together as displayed in graphics software.

32.1 Quadratic Bézier curves

32.1.1 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.

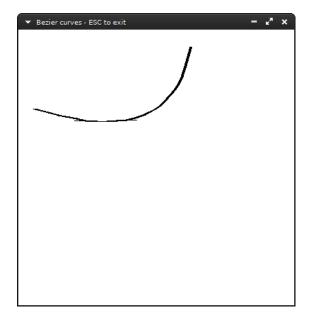


Computing curve points for values of $t \in [0, 1]$ with de Casteljau's algorithm

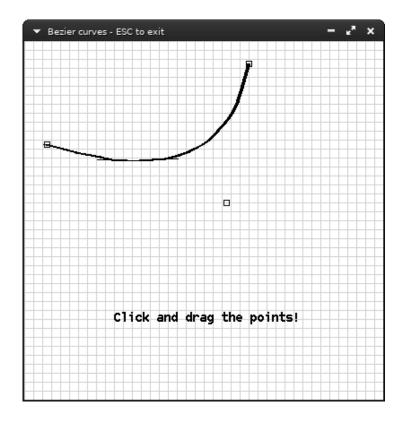
 $_{\rm src/bin/bezier.rs}$: Let's draw the curve $P_1 = (25,115), P_2 = (225,180), P_3 = (250,25)$

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.



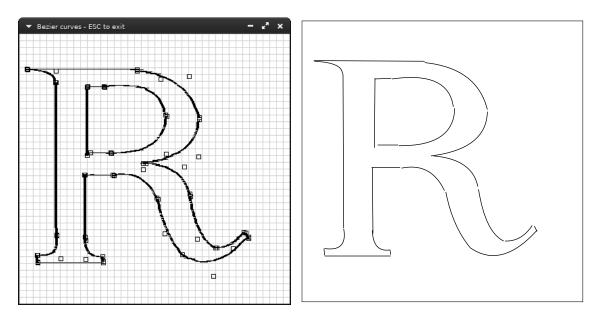
We can go one step further and insult type designers* and use the tool to make <code>/bezierglyph.rs</code>: a font glyph.

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)





 $\it Left$: A font glyph drawn with the interactive bezierglyph.rs tool. $\it Right$: the same glyph exported to SVG.

curves

Part VII

Vectors, matrices and transformations



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*, src/bin/rotation.rs: page 14).

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);
```





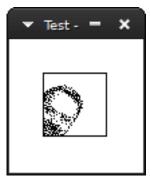
This is the xface of dmr. Instead of displaying the bitmap, this time we will rotate it 0.5 radians. Setup our image first:

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

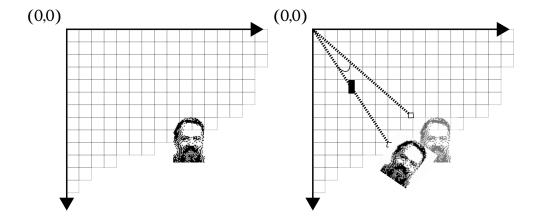
And then, loop for each byte in dmr's face and apply the rotation transformation.

```
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 yr = 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:

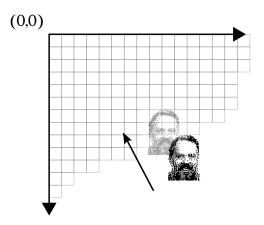
$$x_c = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i$$

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

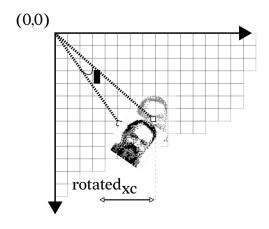
Since in this case we have a rectangle, the centroid has coordinates of half the width and half the height.

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

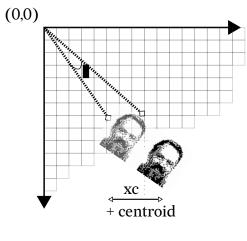
Here's it visually: First subtract the center point.



Then, rotate.



And subtract back to the original position.

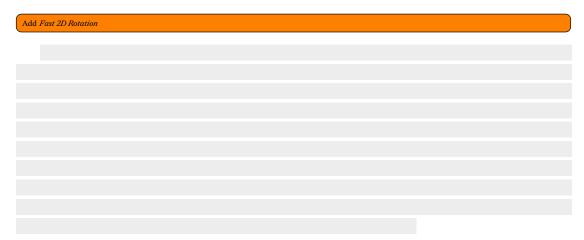


In code:



The result:

33.1 Fast 2D Rotation



transformations

90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision





transformations

Chapter 35

Magnification/Scaling



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

35.1 Smoothing enlarged bitmaps

Add Smoothing enlarged bitmaps	

transformations

35.2 Stretching lines of bitmaps

```
Add Stretching lines of bitmaps
```

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:

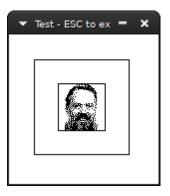
$$M_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

transformations

Shearing



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 This code file is a PDF coordinate is affected, and likewise in *y*-shearing only *y* as well.



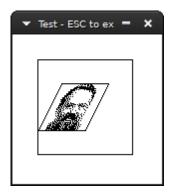


With l being equal to the desired tilt away from the y axis, the transformation is described by the following matrix:

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

Which is as simple as this function:

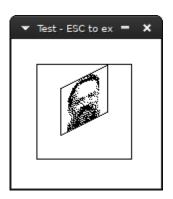
```
fn shear_x((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), 1: f64) -> (i64, i64) { (x_p+(1*(y_p \text{ as } f64)) \text{ as } i64, y_p)
```



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), 1: f64) -> (i64, i64) {
    (x_p, (1*(x_p as f64)) as i64 + y_p)
}
```

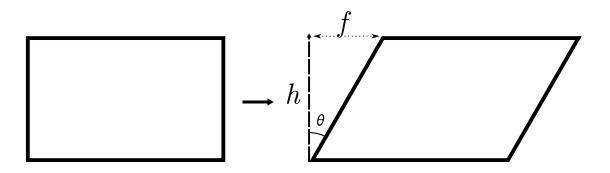


A full example:

```
trans-
forma-
tions
```

```
let 1 = -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 ), 1);
            sheared.plot(p.0+(DMR_WIDTH/2) as i64, p.1+(DMR_HEIGHT/2) as i64);
        }
    }
    sheared.draw_outline();
```

37.1 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 $f = -\frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Projections

Add Projections	

transformations

Part VIII

Patterns

Tilings

39.1 Truchet Tiling

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

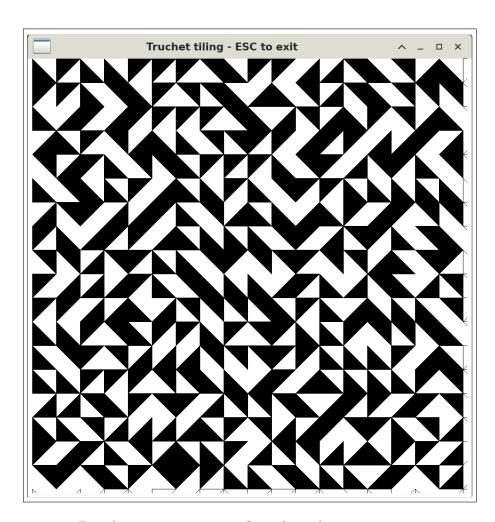








The four tiles



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,
}
        }
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;
```

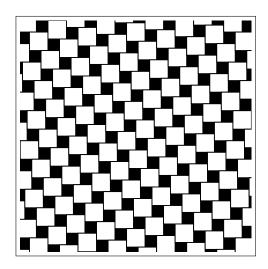
src/bin/floyddither.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

39.2 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

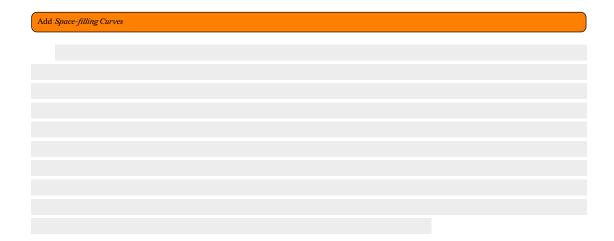
```
patterns
```

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

The output of src/bin/pythagorean.rs

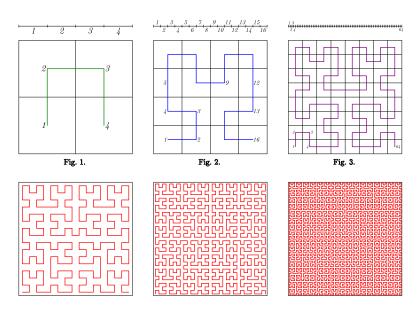
39.3 Hexagon tiling

Space-filling Curves



40.1 Hilbert curve

Add *Hilbert curve* explanation



The first six iterations of the Hilbert curve by Braindrain0000

src/bin/hilbert.rs:

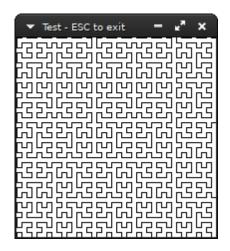
Here's a simple algorithm for drawing a Hilbert curve.*

```
This code file is a PDF attachment
```

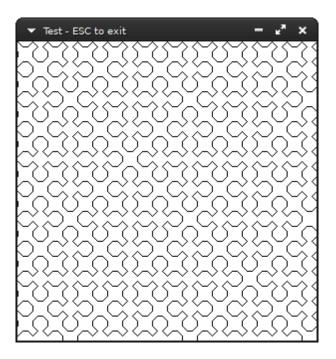
^{*}Griffiths, J. G. (1985). *Table-driven algorithms for generating space-filling curves*. Computer-Aided Design, 17(1), 37–41. doi:10.1016/0010-4485(85)90009-0

```
patterns
```

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



40.2 Sierpiński curve



Switching the table from the Hilbert implementation to this:

And switching two lines from the function to

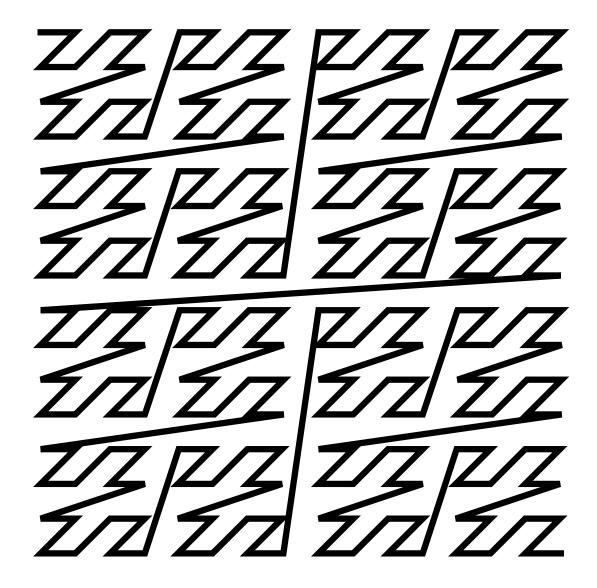
```
- let step = HILBERT[k][j];
- row = (step / 10) - 1;
+ let step = SIERP[k][j];
+ row = (step / 10);
```

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

40.3 Peano curve

Add Peano curve

40.4 Z-order curve

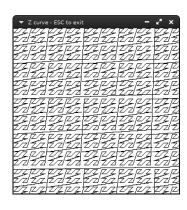


Drawing the Z-order curve is really simple: first, have a counter variable that starts from zero and is incremented by one at each step. Then, you extract the (x,y) coordinates the new step represents from its binary representation. The bits for the x coordinate are located at the odd bits, and for y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

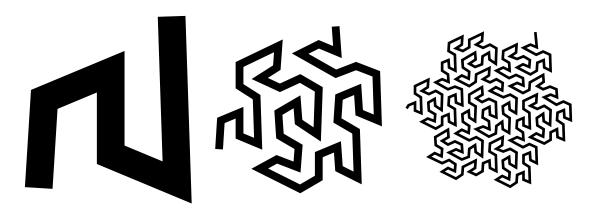
Knowing this, implementing the drawing process will consist of computing the next step, drawing a line segment from the current step and the next, set the current step as the next and continue;

```
patterns
```

```
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 & Ob10) as i64 > 0 {
    sy += STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob1_000 > 0 {
    sy += 2 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob100_000 > 0 {
    sy += 4 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob10_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 8 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob1_000_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 16 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob100_000_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 32 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob10_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 64 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob1_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 128 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob100_000_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
    sy += 256 * STEP_SIZE;
      if next & Ob10_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 {
            break;
      if sx as usize > img.width && sy as usize > img.height {
          break;
     prev_pos = (sx + x_offset, sy + y_offset);
b = next;
}
```



40.5 Flowsnake curve

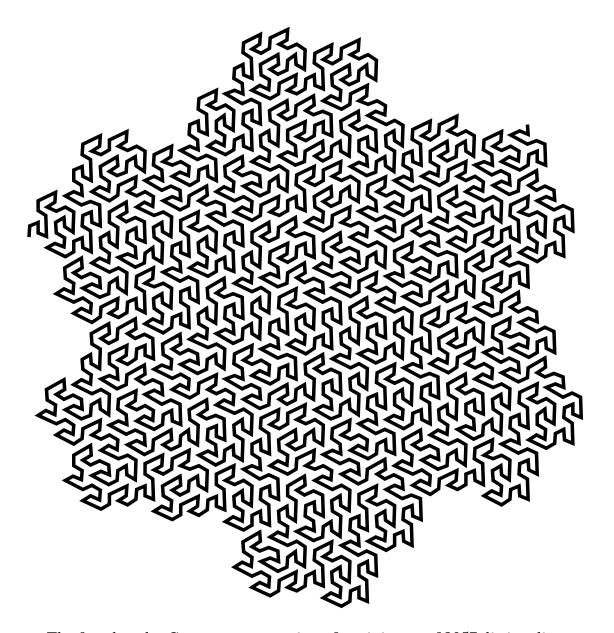


The first three orders of the Gosper curve.

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).

$$A \mapsto A-B--B+A++AA+B-$$

 $B \mapsto +A-BB--B-A++A+B$



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

patterns

Part IX Addendum

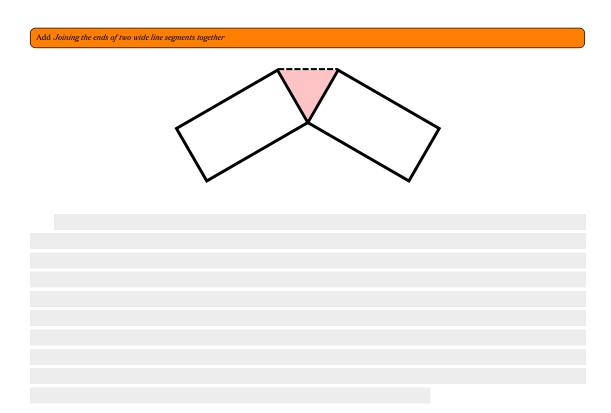


Faster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry

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



Joining the ends of two wide line segments together



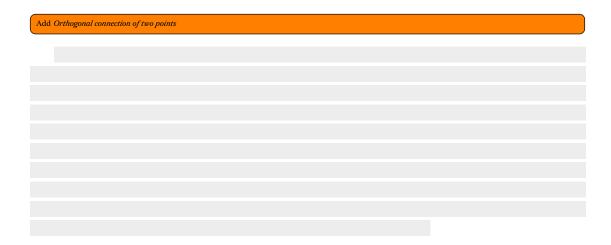


Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data





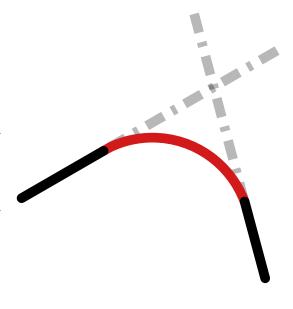
Orthogonal connection of two points





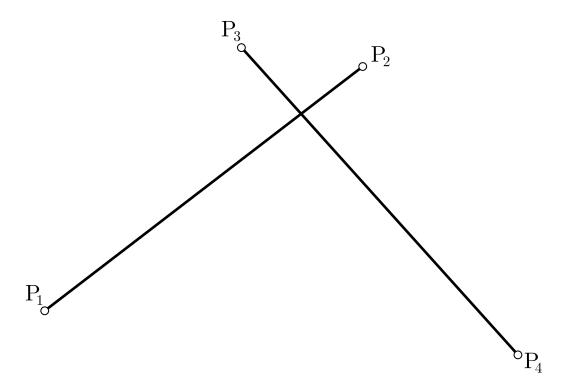
Join segments with round corners

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:

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

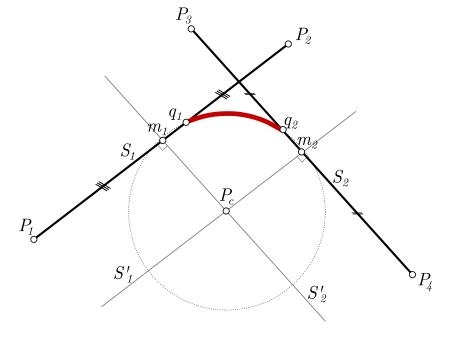
$$m_2 = \frac{P_3 + P_4}{2}$$

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 .

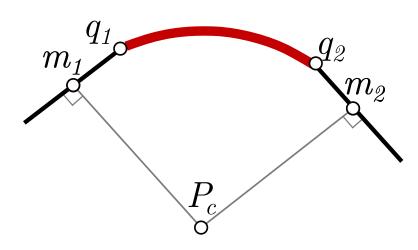
Construct parallel lines l_1 to S_1 that is d_1 pixels away. Repeat with l_2 for S_2 and d_2 .

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.



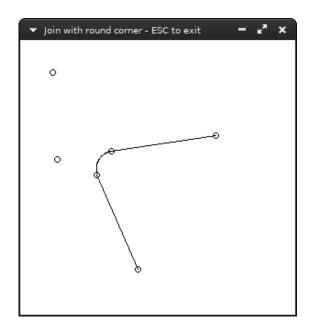
addendum The $\it subtended$ angle* of the arc from the center P_c is found by calculating the dot product of q_1P_c and q_2P_c :

src/bin/roundcorner.rs: The code:



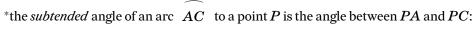


attachment



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







Faster line clipping

Add Faster line clipping	



Archimedean spiral



The code

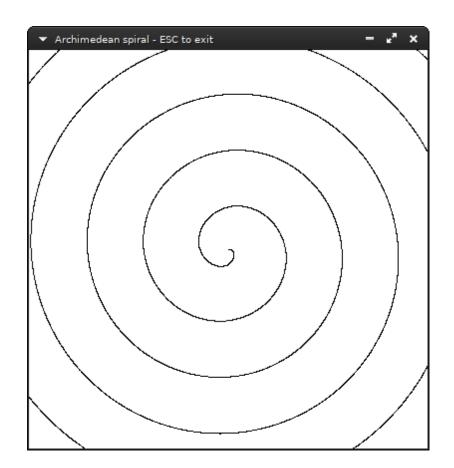


This code file is a PDF attachment

```
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;

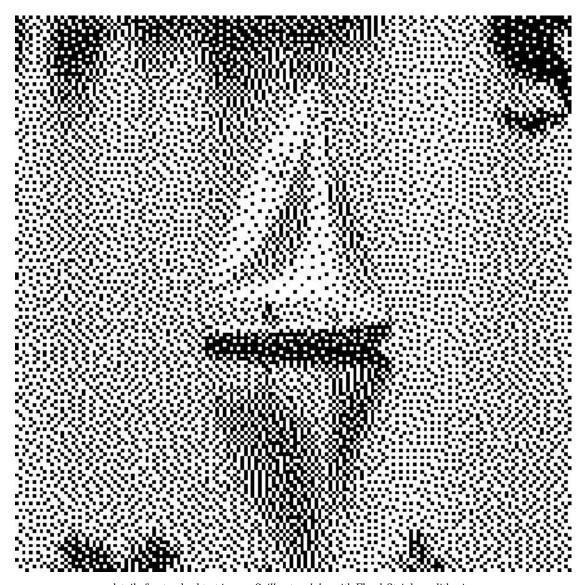
let mut theta = 0.0_f64;
    let (dx, dy) = center;
    let mut prev_point = center;
    while theta < max_angle {
        theta = theta + 0.002_f64;
        let r = a + b * theta;
        let x = (r * theta.cos()) as i64 + dx;
        let y = (r * theta.sin()) as i64 + dy;
        image.plot_line_width(prev_point, (x, y), 1.0);
        prev_point = (x, y);
    }
}</pre>
```



Dithering



48.1 Floyd-Steinberg



 $detail of a standard test image, \underline{\it Sailboat on lake}, with Floyd-Steinberg dithering$

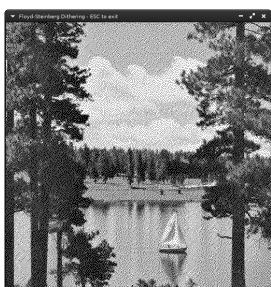


src/bin/floyddither.rs:



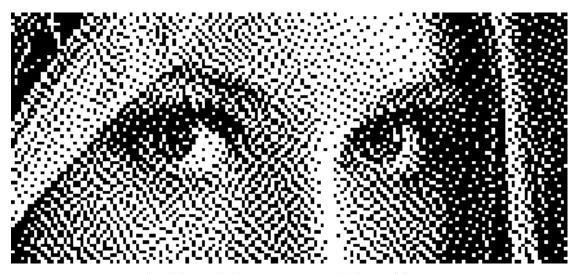
This code file is a PDF attachment





addendum

48.2 Atkinson dithering



detail of a standard test image, $\underline{Lenna},$ with Atkinson dithering

The following code implements Atkinson dithering:*

```
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
```

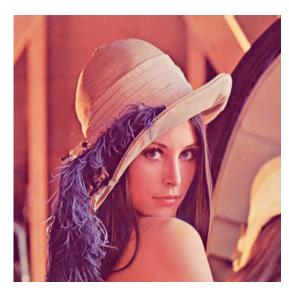
src/bin/atkinsondither.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment



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

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





addendum

Marching squares



Index

alpha channel, 113 angle between two lines, 30 bisectioning, 39 trisectioning, 39 area filling, see flood filling Atkinson dithering, 125	moving a point, 21 point from a line, 26 dithering, 122 Atkinson, 125 Floyd-Steinberg, 123 equidistant line, 34
bucket filling, see flood filling	flood filling, 69 triangle filling, 67
centroid	Flowsnake curve, 108
polygon, 65 rectangle, 82	Floyd-Steinberg dithering, 123
circle	Gosper curve, see Flowsnake curve
bounding, 51	•
equations, 50	hexagon tiling, 100
out of three points, 52	Hilbert curve, 102
out of two points, 52	1.
contour, see marching squares	line
curves	drawing, 25
Bézier, 73	equations, 22
cubic, 78	equidistant, 34
quadratic, 74	intersection, 32
weighted, 78	perpendicular, 28
elliptical, 71	reflection of point, 36
Flowsnake curve, 108	through point and slope, 22
Hilbert curve, 102	through two points, 23
Peano curve, 104	magnification 96
space-filling, 101	magnification, 86 marching squares, 127
de Cesteliau's elsewithm 74	9 1
de Casteljau's algorithm, 74 distance	midpoint, 34, 116
	mirroring, 89
between two points, 20	point to line, 36

Peano curve, 104 shearing, 90 perpendicular, 28 skewing, see shearing smoothing, 87 point stretching, 87 reflection on line, 36 polygon boolean operations, 64 tiling, 95 hexagon, 100 centroid, 65 clipping, 66 Pythagorean, 98 Pythagorean tiling, 98 Truchet, 96 triangle, 59 reflection of point, 36 filling, 67 rotation, 80 from point and angles, 59 Truchet tiling, 96 scaling, 86

About this text

The text has been typeset in $X_{\overline{A}} \text{Le} T_{\overline{E}} X$ using the book class and:

- **Redaction** for the main text.
- $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Fira}}$ $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Sans}}$ for referring to the programming language $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Rust}}$.
- **Redaction20** for referring to the words bitmap and pixels as a concept.

Todo list

Add Normal to a line through a point	38
Add some explanation behind the algorithm in <i>Drawing a line segment from its two endpoints</i>	43
Add <i>Equations of a circle</i>	50
Add Union, intersection and difference of polygons	64
Add Centroid of polygon	65
Add <i>Triangle filling</i> explanation	67
Add Flood filling	69
Add Fast 2D Rotation	84
Add 90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision	85
Add Smoothing enlarged bitmaps	87
Add Stretching lines of bitmaps	87
Add screenshots and figure and code in <i>Mirroring</i>	89
Add Projections	93
Add Space-filling Curves	101
Add <i>Hilbert curve</i> explanation	102
Add Peano curve	104
Add Faster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry	111
Add Joining the ends of two wide line segments together	112
Add Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data	113
Add Orthogonal connection of two points	114
Add Faster line clipping	119