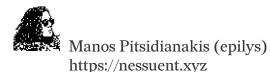
# A Bitmapper's Companion

epilys November 29, 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.

A Bitmapper's Companion, 2021

Special Topics ► Computer Graphics ► Programming

006.6'6-dc20

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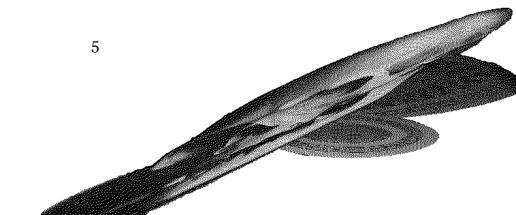
The source code for this work is available under the GNU GENERAL PUBLIC LICENSE version 3 or later. You can view it, study it, modify it for your purposes as long as you respect the license if you choose to distribute your modifications.

The source code is available here

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

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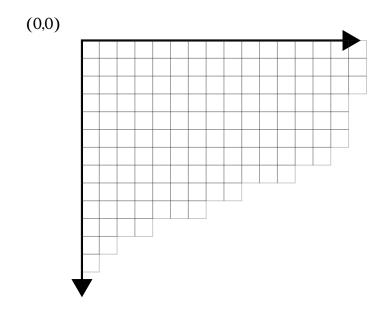


# Part I Introduction

## **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).

src/lib.rs:



```
pub type Point = (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 struct Image {
    pub bytes: Vec<u32>,
    pub width: usize,
    pub height: usize,
    pub height: usize,
    pub fn new(width: usize, height: usize, x_offset: usize, y_offset: usize) -> Self;
    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, x: i64, y: i64) -> u32;
    pub fn plot(&mut self, x: i64, y: i64) -> u32;
    pub fn plot(&mut self, x: i64, y: i64) -> u32;
    pub fn plot(i64, i64),
        (a, b): (i64, i64),
        (uadrants: [bool; 4],
        _wd: f64,
    );
    pub fn flood_fill(&mut self, mut x: i64, y: i64);
}
```

## Displaying pixels to your screen

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:

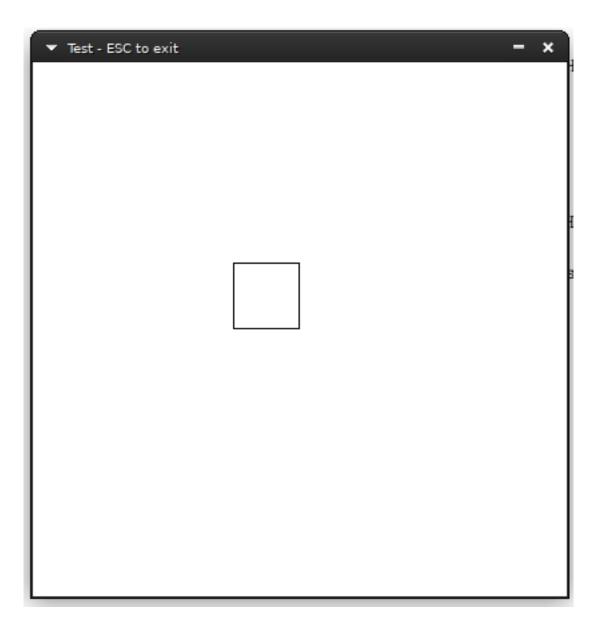
src/bin/introduction.rs:

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() {
    },
    .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:



#### intro

### **Chapter 3**

# Bits to byte pixels

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
```

#### intro

## Chapter 4

# Real pixels to byte pixels



## Loading xbm files in Rust

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 ].

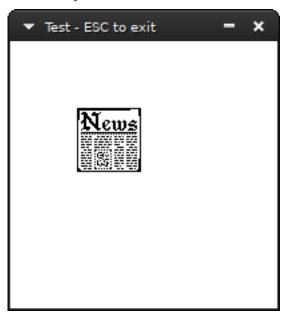
We can then include the new file in our source code:

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

#### load the image:

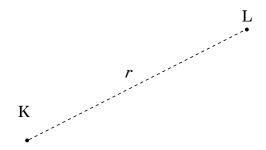
```
let mut image = Image::new(NEWS_WIDTH, NEWS_HEIGHT, 25, 25);
image.bytes = bits_to_bytes(NEWS_BITS, NEWS_WIDTH);
```

#### and finally run it:



# 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)
}
```

## **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...

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

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

#### 7.2 Line through two points

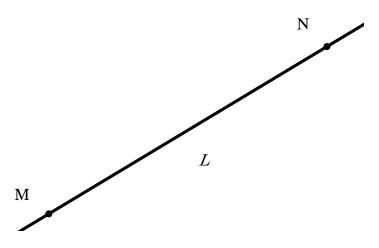


Figure 7.1:

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:

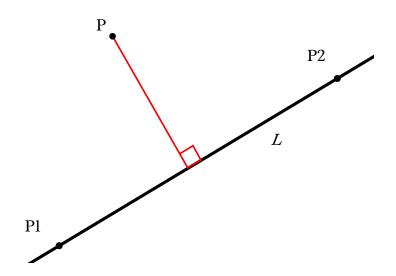
$$c = c_M + (c_N - c_M)t, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$
$$c = c_M, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$

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 finish by normalising what we found with  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2+h^2}}$ :

## Distance from a point to a line



#### 8.1 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.

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

### **8.2** Using an L defined by two points $P_1, P_2$

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

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

### 8.3 Using an L defined by a point $P_l$ and angle $\theta$

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

#### lines

## **Chapter 9**

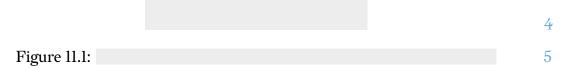
# Angle between two lines



# Intersection of two lines



## Line equidistant from two points



Let's name this line L. From the previous chapter we know how to get the line that's created by the two points M and N. If only we knew how to get a perpendicular line over the midpoint of a line segment!

Thankfully that midpoint also satisfies *L*'s equation, ax + by + c. The midpoint's coordinates are intuitively:

$$(\frac{x_M + x_N}{2}, \frac{y_M + y_N}{2})$$

Putting them into the equation we can generate a triple of (a',b',c') and then normalize it to get L.

### **Chapter 12**

## Normal to a line through a point

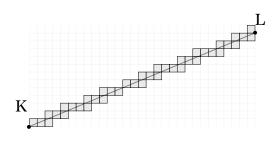


# Part III Points And Line Segments

#### **Chapter 13**

## 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 d;
    let mut x: i64;
    let mut y: i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let t dx: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let x: i64;
```

```
segments
```

#### Chapter 14

### 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 x; i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let ax: i64;
    let x: i64;
    let x: i64;
    let x: i64;
    let dx: i64;
    let dx
```

```
segments
```

#### **Chapter 15**

### 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  $r_3 = L_{12}(\mathbf{3})$  and  $r_4 = L_{12}(\mathbf{4})$  respectively.

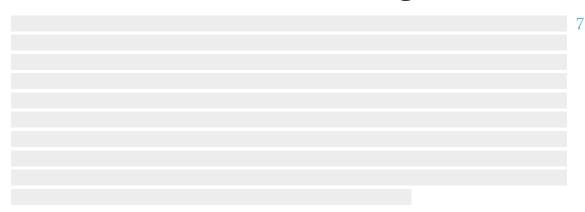
If  $r_3 \neq 0$ ,  $r_4 \neq 0$  and  $sgn(r_3) == sign(r_4)$  the line segments don't intersect, so stop.

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. (Refer to *Intersection of two lines*.)

#### 15.1 Fast intersection of two line segments



#### circles

## Part IV Points, Lines and Circles

```
8
```



#### circles

## **Chapter 16**

## **Equations of a circle**



#### circles

## **Chapter 17**

## **Bounding circle**



#### curves

## Part V Curves other than circles

#### curves

## **Chapter 18**

## Parametric elliptical arcs

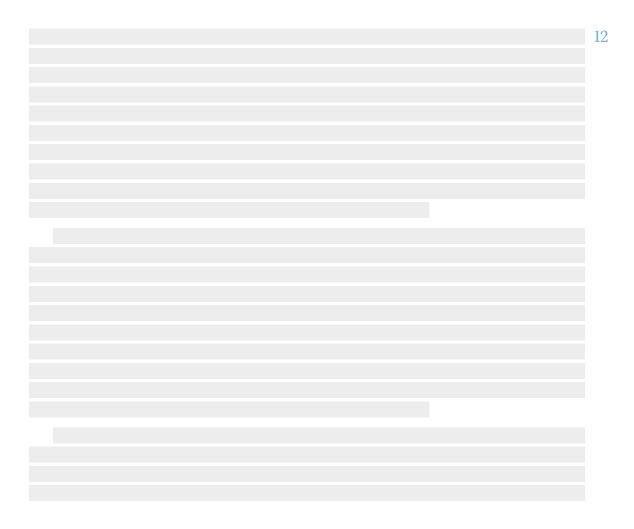


# Part VI Points, Lines and Shapes

#### shapes

### **Chapter 19**

## Union, intersection and difference of polygons



#### shapes

## **Chapter 20**

## **Centroid of polygon**



#### shapes

## **Chapter 21**

## Flood filling



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CHAPTER 21.	だしののり	<i>FILLIJING</i>

71

shapes



### Part VII

# Vectors, matrices and transformations





### Rotation of a bitmap

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

$$c=cos\theta, s=sin\theta, x_{p'}=x_pc-y_ps, y_{p'}=x_ps+y_pc.$$

Let's load an xface. We will use bits\_to\_bytes (See Introduction).

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



transformations

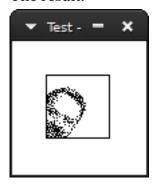
src/bin/rotation.rs:

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

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

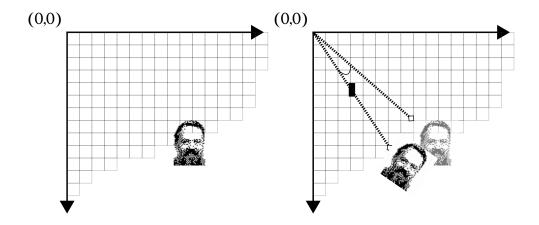
```
let angle = 0.5;
let c = f64::cos(angle);
let s = f64::sin(angle);
for y in 0..DMR_HEIGHT {
    for x in 0..DMR_WIDTH {
        if dmr[y * DMR_WIDTH + x] == BLACK {
            let x = x as f64;
            let y = y as f64;
            let xr = x * c - y * s;
            let yr = x * s + y * c;
            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:

transformations



(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:

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

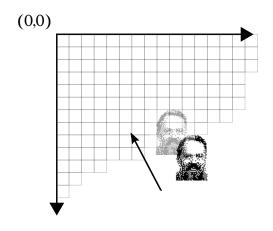
$$y_c = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n y_i$$

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

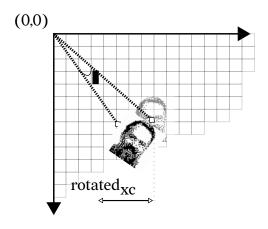
By subtracting the centroid from each point before we apply the transformation and then adding it back after we get what we want:

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

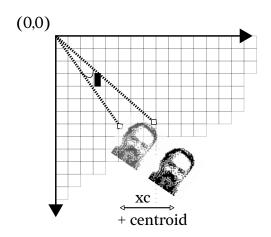




Then, rotate.



And subtract back to the original position.

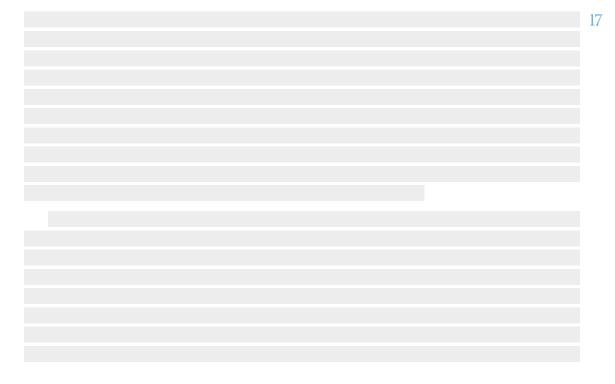


In code:



The result:

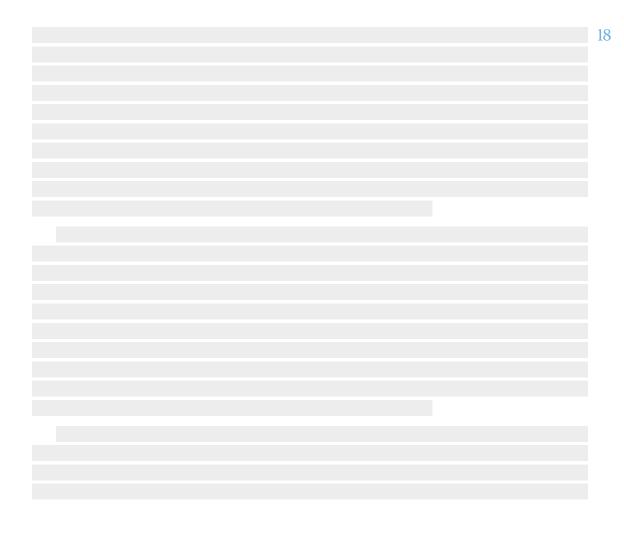
### 22.1 Fast 2D Rotation



transformations



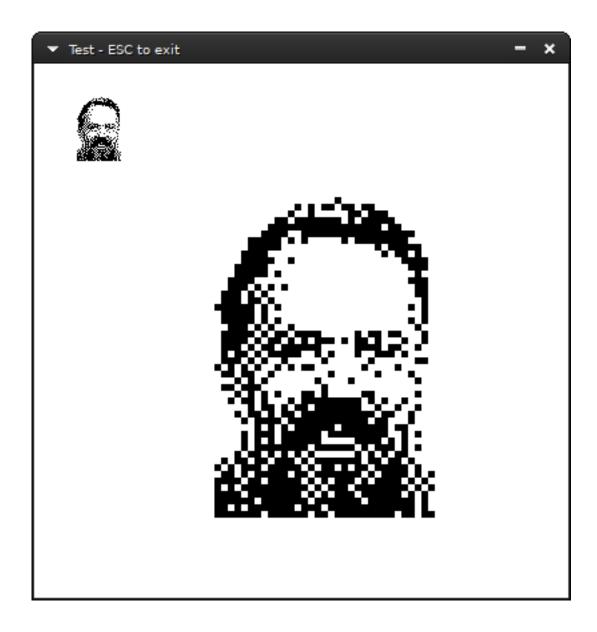
# 90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision







## Magnification/Scaling





```
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);</pre>
```

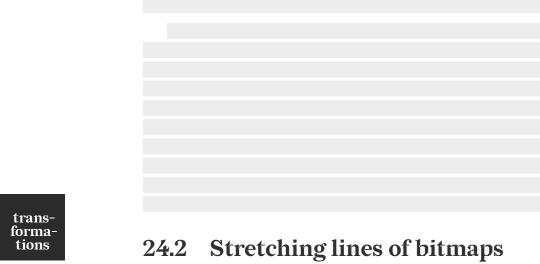
src/bin/scale.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

### 24.1 Smoothing enlarged bitmaps

transformations







### **Mirroring**

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

To mirror a across 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:

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





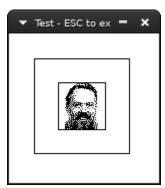
### Shearing

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 coordinate is affected, and likewise in y-shearing only y as well.

src/bin/shearing.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment



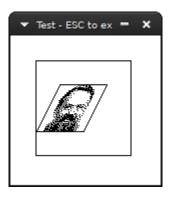
With l being equal to the desired tilt away from the y axis, the transformation is described by the following matrix:

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

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 as f64)) as i64, y_p)
}
```

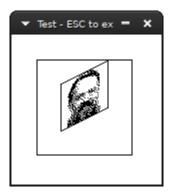




For *y*-shearing, we have the following:

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

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



#### A full example:

transformations



# **Projections**



transformations



### **Part VIII**

### **Advanced**



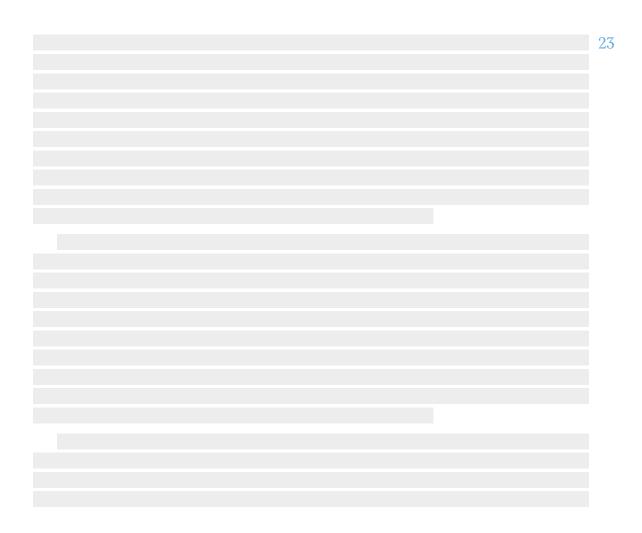
# 27.1 Faster Drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using Symmetry



advanced

#### advanced

# Joining the ends of two wide line segments together







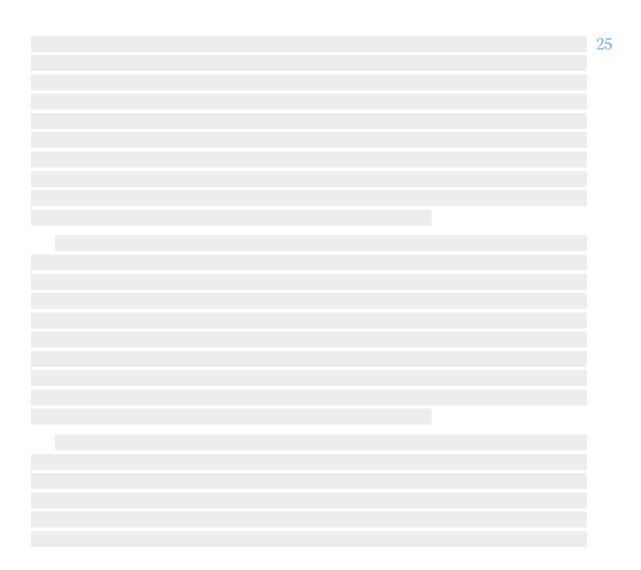
# Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data







## Orthogonal connection of two points





#### advanced

## Join segments with round corners





#### advanced

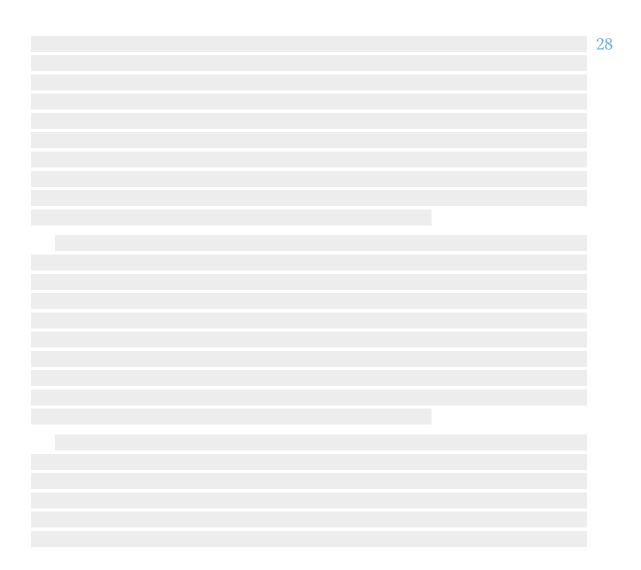
## Faster line clipping





#### advanced

# **Space-filling Curves**







### 33.1 Hilbert curves







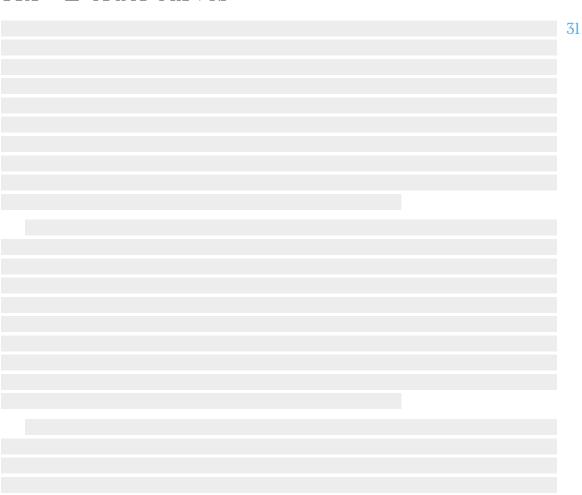
### 33.2 Peano curves







### 33.3 Z-order curves



advanced



## Index

 $centroid,\,65,\,77$ 

shearing, 91

### About this text

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

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