# 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.

A Bitmapper's Companion, 2021

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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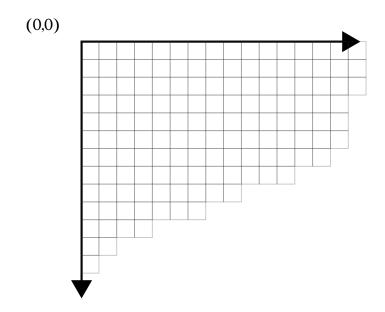


# Part I Introduction

## 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:



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intro

#### Displaying pixels to your screen

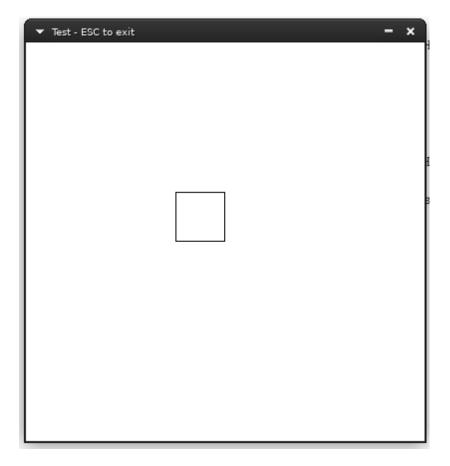
A way to display an *Image* is to use the minifb crate which allows you to create src/bin/introduction.rs: a window and draw pixels directly on it. Here's how you could set it up:



This code file is a PDF attachment

Running this will show you something like this:

intro



# 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
}
```

### 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

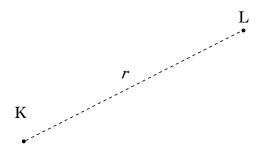
src/bin/xbmtors.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

# 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.

<sup>\*</sup>Equations of a circle page 46

#### **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:

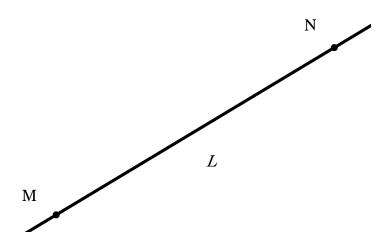
$$y = ax + b$$

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:

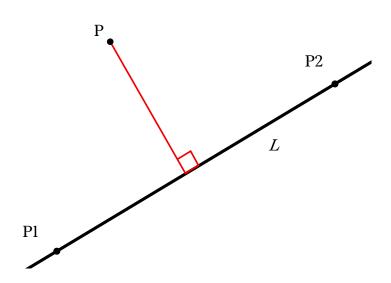
$$c = c_M + (c_N - c_M)t, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$
 
$$c = c_M, t \in R, c \in \{x, y\}$$

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

## Distance from a point to a line



#### 9.1 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

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

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

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

#### 9.3 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

# 10.1 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)
}
```

# 10.2 Find point in line that belongs to the perpendicular of given point

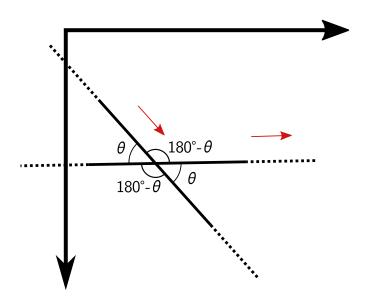
#### The code

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  $L_1, L_2$ :

$$L_1 = (\{x = x_1 + f_1 t\}, \{y = y_1 + g_1 t\})$$
 
$$L_2 = (\{x = x_2 + f_2 s\}, \{y = y_2 + g_2 s\})$$

the formula is:

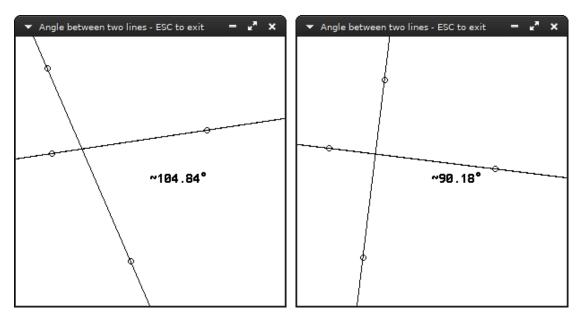
$$\hat{\theta} = \arccos \frac{f_1 f_2 + g_1 g_2}{\sqrt{\left(f_1^2 + g_1^2\right) \left(f_2^2 + g_2^2\right)}}$$

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))
}
```

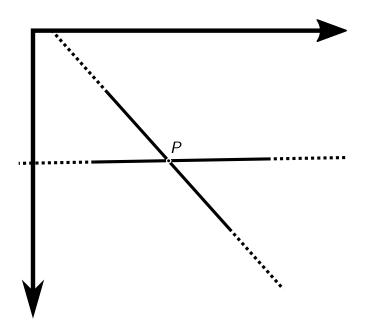
src/bin/anglebe lines
This code file is a PDF

attachment



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

#### 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:

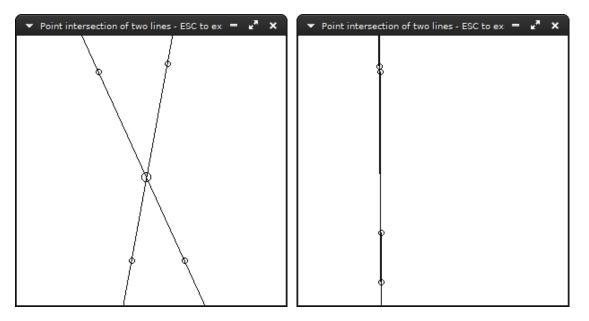
$$P = \left(\frac{b_1c_2 - b_2c_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}, \frac{a_2c_1 - a_1c_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}\right)$$

#### lines

#### The code:

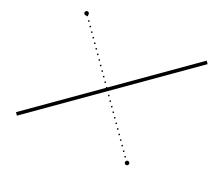
```
fn find_intersection((a1, b1, c1): (i64, i64, i64), (a2, b2, c2): (i64, i64, i64)) ->
    Option<Point> {
    let denom = a1 * b2 - a2 * b1;
    if denom == 0 {
        return None;
    }
    Some(((b1 * c2 - b2 * c1) / denom, (a2 * c1 - a1 * c2) / denom))
}
src/bin/lineintersection.rs:

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



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

### 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.<sup>†</sup> 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

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

<sup>\*</sup>See Line through two points, page 23

<sup>†</sup>See Perpendicular lines, page 26

#### lines

src/bin/equidistant.rs:

This code file is a PDF

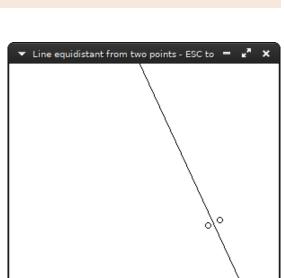
attachment

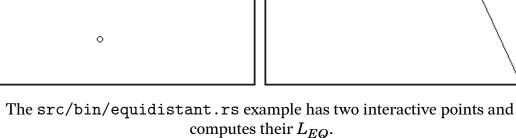
#### The code:

▼ Line equidistant from two points - ESC to = x<sup>3</sup> X

```
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)
}
```





33

# Normal to a line through a point



#### lines

#### **Chapter 15**

# **Angle sectioning**

15.1	Bisection		

#### 15.2 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.

### segments

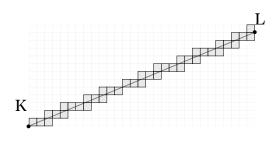
# Part III Points And Line Segments

#### segments

### **Chapter 16**

# 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 ay: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let sx: i64;
    let dx: i64;
```

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

### segments

### **Chapter 18**

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

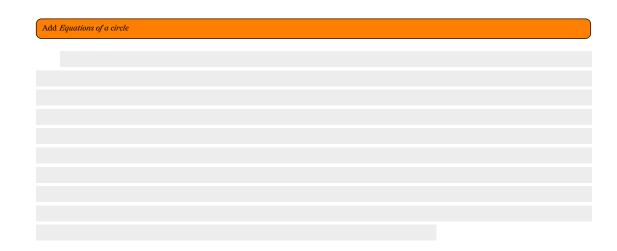
Add code sample in Intersection of two line segments

### 18.1 Fast intersection of two line segments

segments

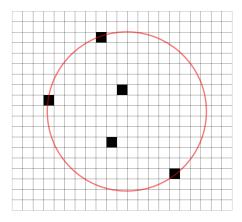
# Part IV Points, Lines and Circles

# **Equations of a circle**



circles

# **Bounding circle**



src/bin/boundingcircle.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

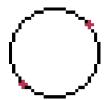
circles

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|

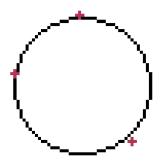
let d_2 = (

(((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 21**

# Rectangles and parallelograms

### 21.1 From a center point

### 21.2 From a corner point

# **Triangles**

22.1 Making a triangle from a point and given angles

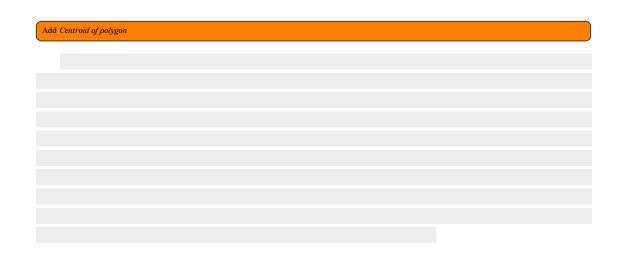
### shapes

## **Chapter 23**

# Union, intersection and difference of polygons

Add Union, intersection and difference of polygons	

# **Centroid of polygon**



shapes

# Polygon clipping

## Triangle filling

for x in x\_min..=x\_max {

Add Triangle filling explanation

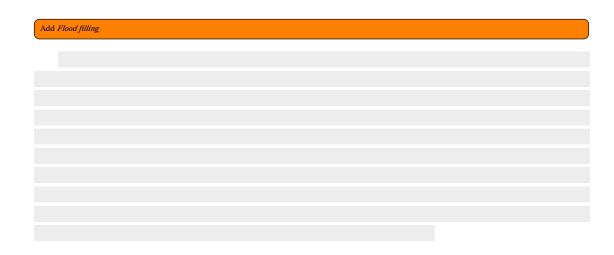
This code is included in the distributed library file in the *Data* representation chapter.

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 =

shapes

# Flood filling



shapes

#### curves

# Part VI

**Curves other than circles** 

# Parametric elliptical arcs



curves

#### curves

## **Chapter 29**

# Bézier curves

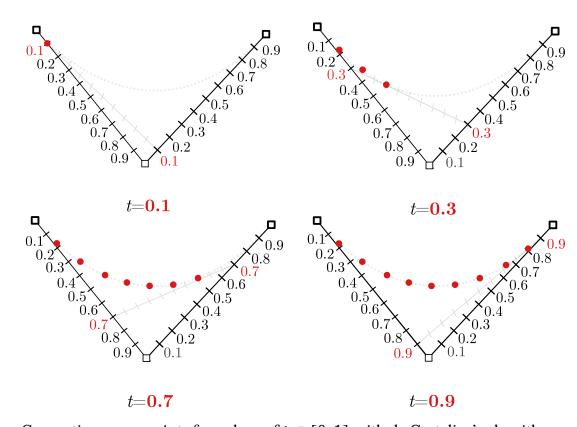


Two cubic  $B\'{e}zier$  curves joined together as displayed in graphics software.

### 29.1 Quadratic Bézier curves

### 29.1.1 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.



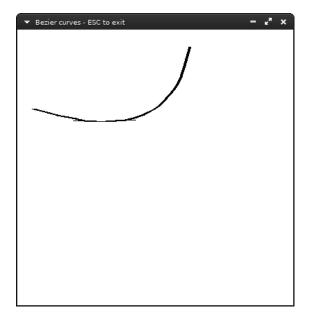
Computing curve points for values of  $t \in [0, 1]$  with de Casteljau's algorithm

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

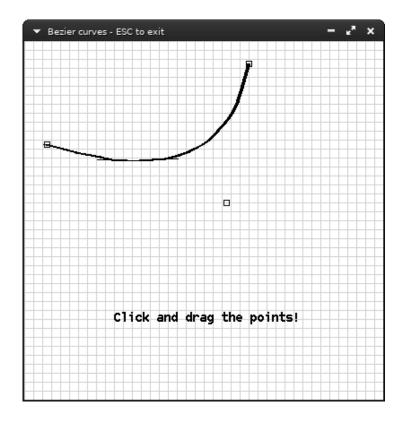
This code file is a PDF

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.



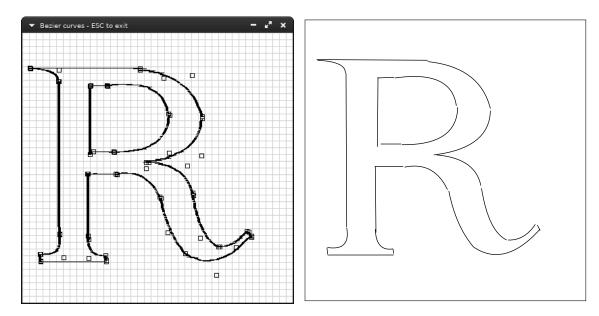
We can go one step further and insult type designers\* and use the tool to make <code>/bezierglyph.rs</code>: a font glyph.

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.

<sup>\*</sup>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);
```





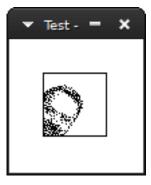
This is the xface of dmr. Instead of displaying the bitmap, this time we will rotate it 0.5 radians. Setup our image first:

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

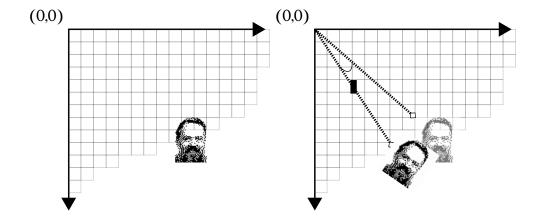
And then, loop for each byte in dmr's face and apply the rotation transformation.

```
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 x = 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:

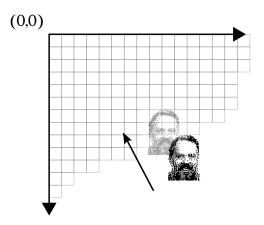
$$x_c = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i$$

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

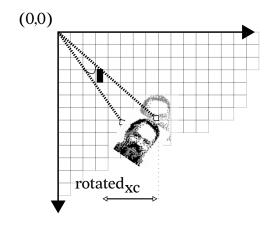
Since in this case we have a rectangle, the centroid has coordinates of half the width and half the height.

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

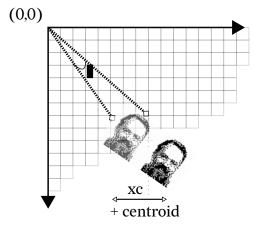
Here's it visually: First subtract the center point.



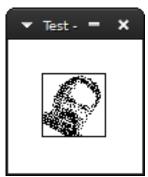
Then, rotate.



And subtract back to the original position.



transformations In code:



The result:

#### **30.1** Fast 2D Rotation



transformations

# 90° Rotation of a bitmap by parallel recursive subdivision





#### transformations

#### **Chapter 32**

# 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.

```
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 dx: i64; //source
let mut dx: i64; //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

#### 32.1 Smoothing enlarged bitmaps

Add Smoothing enlarged bitmaps	

#### transformations

#### 32.2 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:

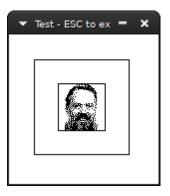
$$M_y = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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.



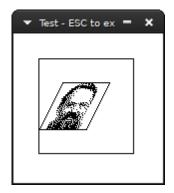


With l being equal to the desired tilt away from the y axis, the transformation is described by the following matrix:

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

Which is as simple as this function:

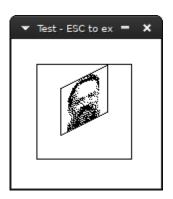
```
fn shear_x((x_p, y_p): (i64, i64), 1: f64) -> (i64, i64) { (x_p+(1*(y_p \text{ as } f64)) \text{ as } i64, y_p)
```



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)
}
```

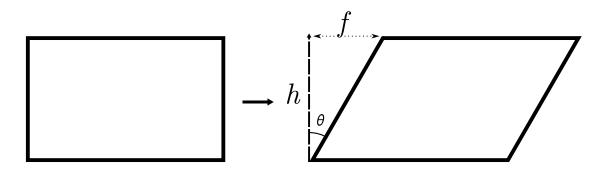


#### A full example:

```
trans-
forma-
tions
```

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

# 34.1 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  $30^{\circ}$  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:

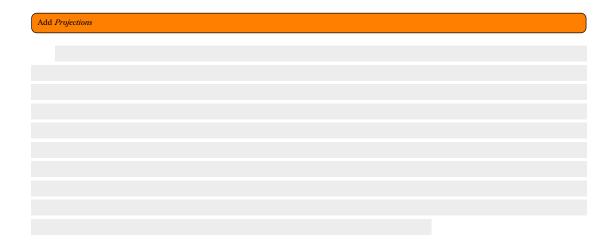
$$\cot \theta = \frac{h}{f}$$

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

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

For example to shear by  $-30^{\circ}$  (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**

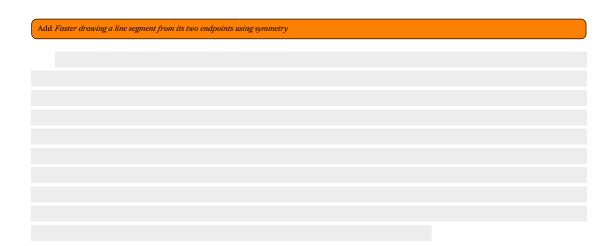


transformations

# Part VIII Addendum

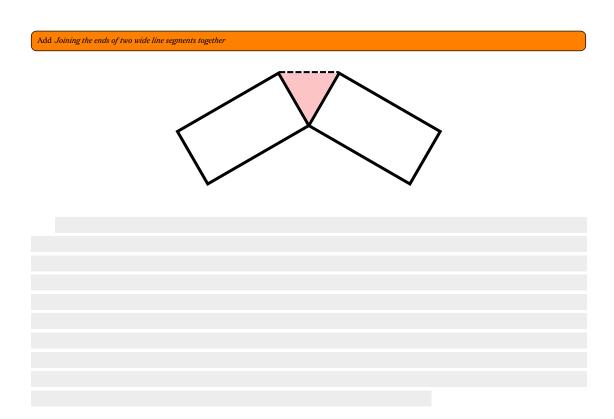


# Faster drawing a line segment from its two endpoints using symmetry



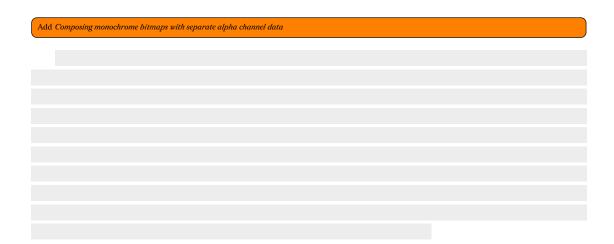


# Joining the ends of two wide line segments together





# Composing monochrome bitmaps with separate alpha channel data





# Orthogonal connection of two points



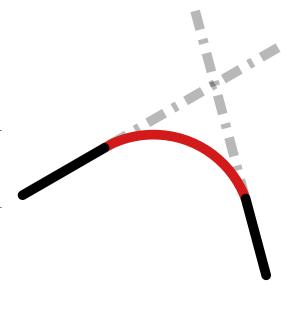


#### addendum

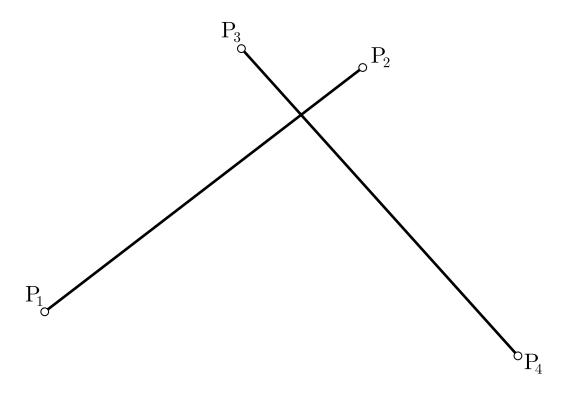
#### Chapter 40

## 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:

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

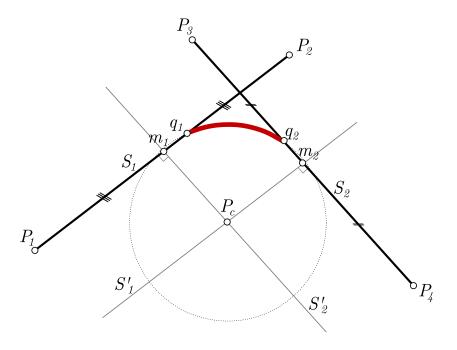
$$m_2 = \frac{P_3 + P_4}{2}$$

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  $S_1$ .

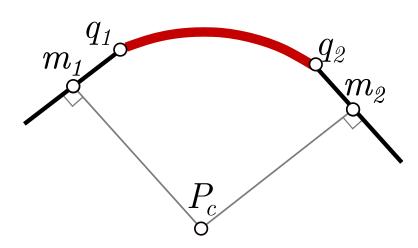
Construct parallel lines  $l_1$  to  $S_1$  that is  $d_1$  pixels away. Repeat with  $l_2$  for  $S_2$  and  $d_2$ .

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.

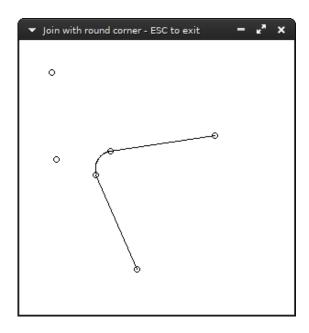


src/bin/roundcorner.rs: The code:

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



This code file is a PDF attachment



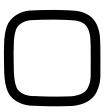
The  $\operatorname{src/bin/roundcorner.rs}$  example has two interactive lines and computes the joining fillet.

addendum

<sup>\*</sup>the  $\mathit{subtended}$  angle of an arc  $\mathit{AC}$  to a point  $\mathit{P}$  is the angle between  $\mathit{PA}$  and  $\mathit{PC}$ :



#### 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 89).

src/bin/squircle.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

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

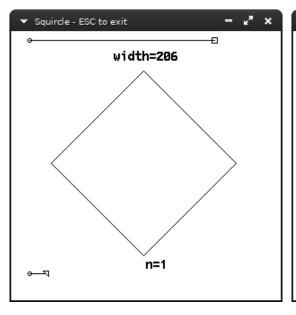
```
pub fn plot_squircle(
    image: &mut Image,
        (xm, ym): (i64, i64),
    width: i64,
    height: i64,
    n: i32,
    _wd: f64,
) {
    let r = width / 2;
    let w = width / 2;
    let h = height / 2;
```

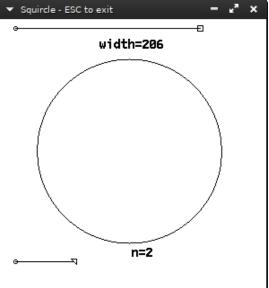
addendum

```
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dum
```

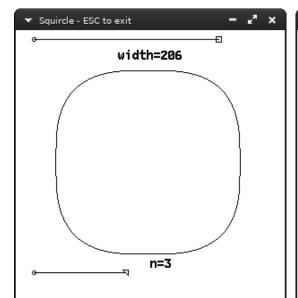
#### Different values of n

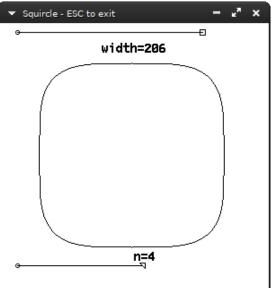
Increasing n in src/bin/squircle.rs makes the hyperellipse corners approach the square's.

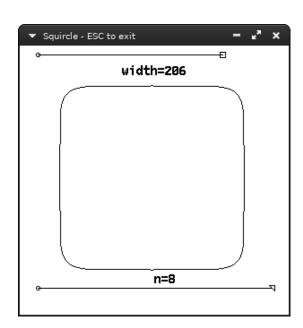




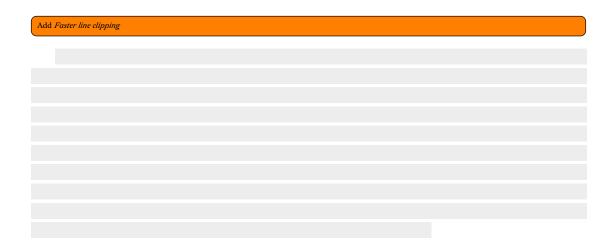








# **Faster line clipping**





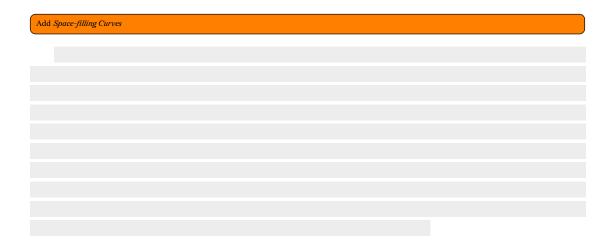
# **Tilings**

Add Tilings

#### 43.1 Hexagon Tiling



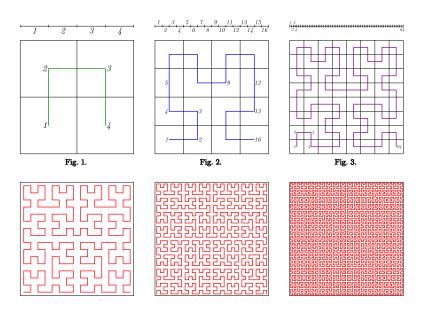
# **Space-filling Curves**





#### 44.1 Hilbert curve

Add Hilbert curve explanation



The first six iterations of the Hilbert curve by Braindrain0000

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

\*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

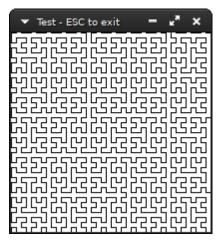
src/bin/hilbert.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

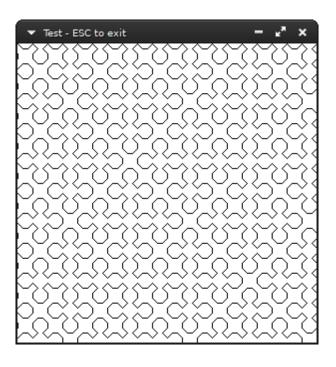


```
let mut image = Image::new(WINDOW_WIDTH, WINDOW_WIDTH, 0, 0);
curve(&mut image, 0, 7, 0, WINDOW_WIDTH as i64);
```



addendum

#### 44.2 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);
```

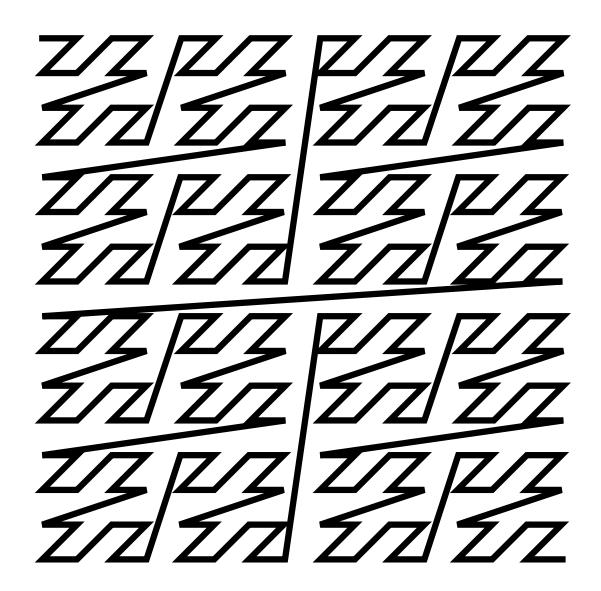
You can draw a Sierpinshi curve of order n by calling curve (&mut image, 0,n+1, 0, 0).

#### 44.3 Peano curve

Add Peano curve

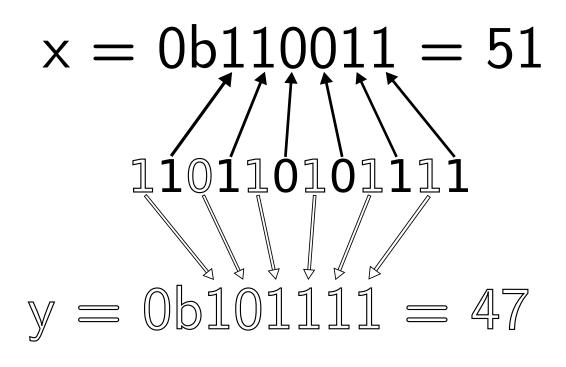
addendum

#### 44.4 Z-order curve



addendum

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:



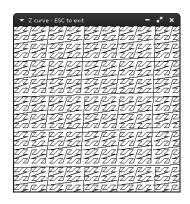
Knowing this, implementing the drawing process will consist of computing the next step, drawing a line segment from the current step and the next, set the current step as the next and continue;

```
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;

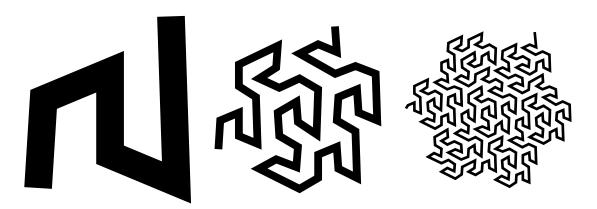
let mut prev_pos = (sx + x_offset, sy + y_offset);
loop {
        let next = b + 1;
        sx = 0;
        if (next & 1) as i64 > 0 {
            sx += STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100 > 0 {
                sx + 2 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10 000 > 0 {
                 sx + 4 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000 > 0 0 {
                 sx + 8 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 16 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 2 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000 = 000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b10_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next & 0b100_000_000_000_000 > 0 {
                 sx + 32 * STEP_SIZE;
        }
        if next &
```

```
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dum
```

```
if next & Ob10_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 > O {
    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_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;
     }
}
```



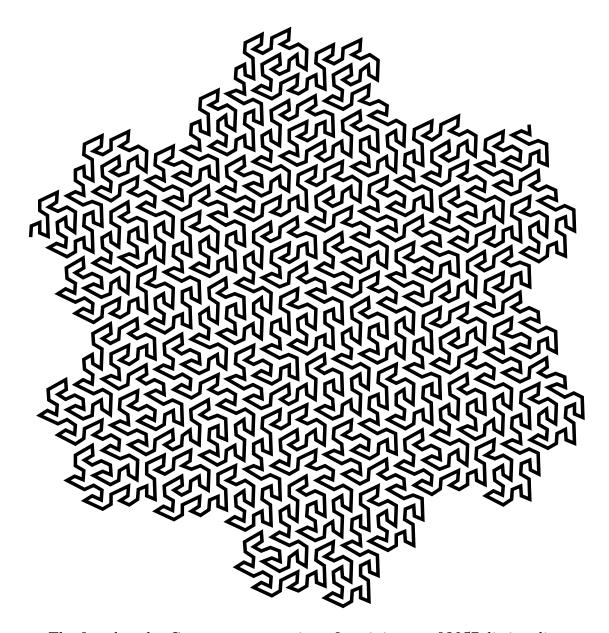
#### 44.5 Flowsnake curve



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).

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



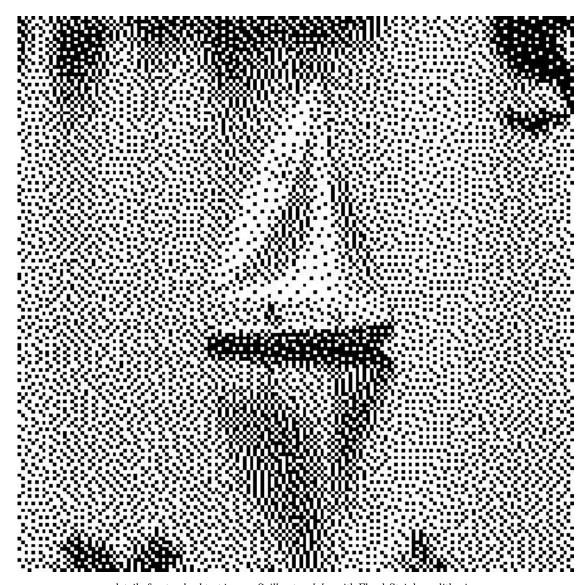
The fourth order Gosper curve consists of a minimum of 2057 distinct line segments (but our algorithm draws 36015)



Dithering



## 45.1 Floyd-Steinberg



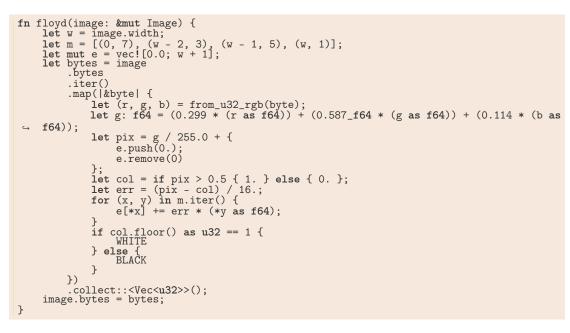
detail of a standard test image,  $\underline{Sailboat\ on\ lake},$  with Floyd-Steinberg dithering



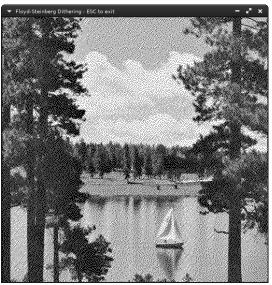
src/bin/floyddither.rs:



This code file is a PDF attachment

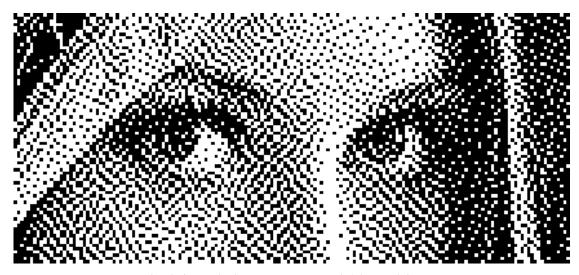






addendum

#### 45.2 Atkinson dithering



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

src/bin/atkinsondither.rs:

This code file is a PDF attachment

addendum 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
```

<sup>\*</sup>Algorithm taken from <a href="https://beyondloom.com/blog/dither.html">https://beyondloom.com/blog/dither.html</a>

```
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```

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





# **Marching squares**

addendum



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- **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.

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