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Published in the Slovak Republic European Journal of Medicine Has been issued since 2013. E-ISSN: 2310-3434 2019, 7(2): 68-91

DOI: 10.13187/ejm.2019.2.68 www.ejournal5.com

Value: 1 Number 12 Spreader 2017 Image: Constant of Cons

Articles

Multi-Beam Interference Patterns of Living Sarcoma Cells may be Approximated by a Fractal Julia Set and Rieman Spheres or Fatou Components Decoded as a Siegel Discs

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Abstract

It's well known, that the morphology of a carcinoma cells was studied many a time and oft (on repeated occasions) from the second part of the XX century. But mathematical approximations of such sarcoma cell structures are not very good on the grounds of non-regular semi-chaotic elements in morphogenesis and morphology of cancer cells. Many approximations in sarcoma oncology works are not applying for cell morphology as is, despite the fact of good morphological representation of sarcoma cells in different microscopic and specific-staining methods. Our work is a first work where the multi-beam interference patterns of living sarcoma cells are approximated by a fractal Julia set and Fatou components known as a Siegel discs.

Keywords: sarcoma, oncomorphology, interference microscopy, multi-beam interference, Fatou components, Siegel discs, Riman spheres, Julia set.

1. Introduction

1. Why the carcinoma cell is optimal object for analytical morphology?

It's well known, that the morphology of a carcinoma cells was studied many a time and oft (on repeated occasions) from the second part of the XX century. They were analyzed not only in static, but also in dynamic (kinetic) reaction conditions, which may be applied as potential therapeutic agents, including a respiration and morphology of sarcoma cells exposed to liquid nitrogen (Hodapp et al., 1952).

We can separate physical or physiotherapeutic and chemical or chemotherapeutic agents (Prince, 1962) of this reaction studies into multiple dimensions of multi-descriptor scores (or manifolds):

I. channelome-mediated agent pulls (Civitelli et al., 1992);

II. second messenger pulls (for example, cyclic adenosine monophosphate = 3',5'-cyclic adenosine monophosphate, which is equivalent to cAMP, cyclic AMP, in abbreviations) (Mitchell et al., 1978));

III. cytoskeleton-associated agent pulls (for example – ABP-assisted pulls [Actin-Binding Protein], in particular – vinculin^{*} phosphorylation pulls (Kellie et al., 1986);

^{*} By definitions: 1) vinculin is a membrane-cytoskeletal protein in focal adhesion plaques that is involved in linkage of integrin adhesion molecules to the actin cytoskeleton; 2) vinculin is a cytoskeletal protein associated with cell-cell and cell-matrix junctions, where it is thought to function as one of several interacting proteins involved in anchoring F-actin to the membrane; 3) vinculin is actin binding protein localized in focal

IV. dose dependent effect pulls (for some agents, such as sodium butyrate), including inhibition of proliferation pulls, differentiation induction and repression induction (repression of gene expression) pulls (Altenburg et al., 1976);

V. sarcoma growth factors and their derivatives or mimetics (Keski-Oja et al., 1980; Tokuyama and Tokuyama, 1989);

VI. pulls of clonal factors (Earle, 1975);

VII. mitotropic and nucleotropic agents (Seegers et al., 1992);

VIII. virological agent pulls (Smidová et al., 1968; Altenburg et al., 1976);

IX. pulls of oncogenic agents *sensu stricto* (Chaturvedi, 2013);

X. snake venom cytotoxin pulls (Pate et al., 1969).

But mathematical approximations of such sarcoma cell structures are not very good on the grounds of non-regular semi-chaotic elements in morphogenesis and morphology of cancer cells. Many approximations in sarcoma oncology works are not applying for cell morphology as is (Svoboda and Hasek, 1956), despite the fact of good morphological representation of sarcoma cells in different microscopic and specific-staining methods. In different years for sarcoma oncology studies many different microscopic and specific-staining methods was applied. Among them were noted:

A. electron microscopy (Gandzii, 1956; Yasuzumi et al., 1960; Luse, 1960; Driessens et al., 1964; Kubo et al., 1969; Courington and Vogt, 1967; Rice et al., 1973; Waldo, 1979; Kukuté and Smirnova, 1981; Choux et al., 1981; Kanaya et al., 1985; Husain and Nguyen, 1995; Marquart, 2006)

B. combined electron and light microscopy (Weinberger and Banfield, 1965; Fabrizio and Cottrell, 1972; Fj et al., 1975; Varela and Diazflores, 1977; Waldo et al., 1983; Akerman, 1988; Åkerman et al., 1988; Beziat et al, 1989);

C. comparative scanning electron microscopy and transmission electron microscopy (Llombart-Bosch and Peydro-Olaya, 1983)

D. mass determination of sarcoma virus virions by scanning transmission electron microscopy (Vogt and Simon, 1999);

E. cryo-electron microscopy (Briggs et al., 2006);

F. immunoelectron microscopy (Aoki et al., 1973; Houston, 1974; Hiraki et al., 1974; Kawauchi, 1995; Becker et al., 1991);

G. comparative electron microscopic and immunohistochemical studies (Mukai et al., 1983; Oord et al., 1986; Welch, et al., 1986; Nonomura et al., 1988; Nanomuna, 1988; Pettinato et al., 1989; Nishio et al., 2003);

H. comparative light-scattering spectroscopy and electron microscopy for determination of hydrodynamic radiuses of viruses in sarcoma cells (Salmeen et al., 1976;

I. electron microscopy of viruses in sarcoma cells (Nishimi et al., 1961; Hanaichi et al., 1975; Orenstein et al., 1997; Said et al., 1997);

J. electron microscopy of nucleic acids of sarcoma cells (Guntaka et al., 1976; Murti et al., 1981);

K. conventional or light microscopy (Siegler, 1970; Ackerman, 1979; Amazon and Rywlin, 1979; Tsokos et al., 1988);

L. correlation studies between microscopy data, magnetic resonance imaging data and positron emission tomography data [or two-photon emission tomography data, which are equivalents] (Plowman et al., 2016);

M. phase contrast microscopy (Ludford and Smiles, 1950; Kato and Makino, 1962; Veselý and Pluta, 1972);

N. florescence microscopy (Dorfman, 1962), including epiluminescent microscopy (Krischer et al., 1999);

O. ultraviolet microscopy (Roe and King, 1950; Zhudina and Shalumovich, 1969;

P. in vivo reflectance confocal microscopy (Grazziotin et al., 2010; Paganelli et al., 2018);

Q. structured illumination microscopy (Fu et al., 2016);

adhesions and cell-cell junctions; 4) vinculin is tyrosine phosphorylated in platelets spread on fibrinogen and that the phosphorylation is Src kinases dependent.

R. interference microsopy and quantitative cytology / cytopathology based on this technique, including multiple-beam interference microscopy and similar analytical protocols (Mellors et al., 1953).

2. Why interference microscopy is optimal micro-technique for analytical morphology?

Unfortunately, despite this fact (particularly, despite the quantitative character of multiplebeam interference microscopy, consequently, the quantitative character of interference cytometric and cytopathological data), as a general rule interference microscopy are not usable as a wild-field histological method for carcinoma cell morphology visualization, detection and quantification. It is not very good simplification of research protocols and microdiagnostic approaches, because the photometric methods for the measurement of the organic mass of cells, cell components (including sets of chromosomes) by multiple beam interference microscopy are not only possible, but also they are very effective (Melors, 1953, 1954)!

Multiple-beam interference microscopy was developed initially not only as a technique for material science and metallography (Faust, 1952), but from the third quarter of the XX century they was applied predominantly for metal structure analysis (Tolansky, 1970; Richardson, 1972) and (much later) for liquid crystal measurements, based on the phase retardation principles (Chernyaev et al., 2008). Multiple-beam interference microscopy was reborn in 2000th, when multiple beam interference confocal microscopy was designed and implemented in cell biology laboratories (Joshi and Medina, 2000; Joshi and Medina, 2000b), including biophysical departments, where some effects of an electric field on the motility of cells was examined by multiple-beam interference microscopy in 2004 (Joshi et al., 2004). Diffential interference phase contrast microscopy using multiple beam shearing interferometry for bio-imaging was applied in 2006 (Roy et al., 2006). Capturing and sorting of multiple cells by polarization-controlled three-beam interference was realized in 2016 (Hou et al., 2016). But such methods were not applied for carcinoma cells.

3. What kind of interference microscopy is optimal for the target cells?

Everyone would very much like to eliminate this omission, because methods of interference microscopy and by interference phase microscopy of cancer cells were developed from 1960th (Sandritter et al., 1960; Hirst, 1961) and very good developed to date or by now (in frames of spatial light interference microscopy (Majeed et al., 2015, 2016), differential interference contrast microscopy assisted by nanoparticles (Sun et al., 2008, 2010), reflection interference contrast microscopy (Matsuzaki et al, 2016)). It is a very specialized branch of the general trend of interference microscopy of living cells, provided in different techniques, such as:

1) digital holographic interferention microscopy (Kizilova et al., 2010);

2) spatial light interference microscopy (Babacan et al., 2011; Popescu and Wang, 2012), including deconvolved spatial light interference microscopy for live cell imaging (Haldar et al., 2011);

3) interference reflection microscopy (Gingell and Todd, 1979; Verschueren, 1985), including quantitative reflection interference contrast microscopy or RICM (Schindl et al., 1995; Usson et al., 1997; Holt et al., 2008; Limozin and Sengupta, 2009);

4) fluorescence interference-contrast microscopy (Braun and Fromherz, 1997);

5) phase-shifting interference microscopy (Dunn and Zicha, 1993);

6) correlational mapping between interference-reflexion and indirectimmunofluorescence microscopy photoregistrograms (Wehland et al., 1979);

7) laser interference microscopy with volumetric and cytorefractometric measurements (Yusipovich et al., 2011) and coherent phase microscopy (Tychinsky and Tikhonov, 2010a; Tychinsky and Tikhonov, 2010b);

- 8) phase-modulation laser interference microscopy (Brazhe et al., 2008);
- 9) interference microscopy under double-wavelet analysis (Sosnovtseva et al., 2005);
- 10) dual-interference-channel quantitative-phase microscopy (Shaked et al., 2009);
- 11) scanning angle interference microscopy (Paszek et al., 2012);

12) Nomarski differential interference contrast microscopy (Geissinger and Bond, 1971; Geissinger and Duitschaever, 1971) and other (for example – Pluto DIC) differential interference contrast microscopy techniques (Falimirski et al., 2007);

13) total internal reflection aqueous fluorescence overcomes a basic ambiguity of interference reflection microscopy (Todd et al., 1988); etc.

4. Why multiple beam interference microscopy is informative source?

It's known, that the multiple beam interference may be used for discrete signal transmission with small noise levels (Bhardwaj et al., 2017; Hibino and Takatsuji, 2002). Multiple-beam interference effects in Fabry-Perot interferometer with small wedge between mirrors, deriving expressions for light beams path, were researched in 1970th not only in USA, but also in USSR (Koniukhov, 1971). Mechano-optical transductors / sensors based on multiple-beam interference were introduced for optical waveguide measurements in XXI century (El-Diastry, 2001), but their physical and technical principles were developed in XX century, where the Barakat group was started the project on the GRIN optical waveguides (Barakat et al., 1985, 1988, 2001), despite the fact, that the first Barakat works for multiple beam interference studies were published in 1960th (Barakat and Abouzakhm, 1985; Barakat et al., 1965). Earliest works on multiple beam interference fringes and their applications were published from 1940th to 1960th (Tolansky, 1945; Brossel, 1946; Tolansky and Barakat, 1950; Bruce, 1951; Glauert, 1951; Smith, F. D. 1952; Tolansky and Emara, 1955; Hargreaves, 1963; Burnett, 1965; Herriott, 1965, 1966; Fulinska, 1966). Some very beautiful works were published in 1970th (Roberge and Boivin, 1971; Koppelmann, 1972, 1974; Koppelmann and Vosskuhl, 1973) and 1980th (El-Dehemy et al., 1981; Baumbach et al, 1989). Fist articles by Tolansky were republished in 1990th – 2000th in "SPIE milestone series" (Tolansky, 1991, 2000). Many interesting applications for multiple beam interference fringes were provided in 1990th – 2000th (Shao-po, 1999; Tadmor et al., 2003; Abdelsalam et al., 2010; Hamza et al., 2010; El-Hennawi et al., 2012).

2. Relevance

Different types of cells may be measured and quantitative or semi-quantitative visualized by different methods of interference microscopy (Mellors, 1953; Barer and Joseph, 1957; Dunn, Zicha, 1994). Examples include:

• calculation of lignin concentration and porosity of cell-wall regions by interference microscopy (Boutelje, 1972; Donaldson, 1985);

- dry mass and cell area measurements (Goldacre et al., 1957; Lee at al., 1960);
- cell-substrate interactions in amoeboid locomotion (King et al., 1983);
- interaction between intracellular vacuoles and the cell surface (Gingell, 1982);
- growth cone interactions with cell and substrate adhesion molecules of cells (Drazba et al., 1997);
 - visualization of red cell membranes (Miller and Dvorak, 1973);

• bacterial cell identification in DIC interference contrast microscopy in label-free conditions (Obara et al., 2013);

- radiation dose effect analysis (Lee and Richards, 1964);
- comparative analysis of epithelial cells (Pappelis et al., 1976);

• real time 3D and "4D" imaging of cells (Salmon et al., 1998; Li et al., 2007; Tsunoda et al., 2008), from yeast cells to cancer cels.



Fig. 1. Multiple beam interference image of living sarcoma cells in a tissue culture

3. Materials and methods

It has been known that biological membranes as thin films are characterized by multiplebeam interference and, consequently, can be directly detected using multiple-beam interference microscopy. Multiple beam interference microscopy patterns of membranous cellular structures with different surface tension levels are different from the standard optical images of these objects. This follows at once from physical considerations. Thin-film interference occurs when the incident light waves reflected by the upper and lower boundaries of the membrane cell film interfere with one another to form a new wave.



A B **Fig. 2.** A fractal Julia set with a Siegel disc (A) and a filled Julia set for the golden mean rotation number with the the Siegel disc and some orbits inside (B)



Fig. 3. Infolding Siegel disc near 2/7

4. Results





Fig. 4. Infolding Siegel disc near 1/3. One can see virtual Siegel disc

This is sketched in Fig. 1 representing a multiple beam interference image of living sarcoma cells in a tissue culture in air (magnification: 1.000). Optically identical regions are presented as light and dark elliptical zones which together form a topographic map of the cell. The cell thickness, shape and intramembranous volume can be easily calculated from the interference pattern.

In accordance with the modern standards the above method may seem to provide insufficient resolution and low information. However, there are still no mathematical approximations of intermembrane interference patterns, different from the ones derivable from the first physical principles. We propose here to apply Julia sets and Fatou components, such as Herman ring and Siegel disc for approximating carcinoma cells. The definition of Siegel disc is provided in the Table **1**. Fig. 2 (compare with Fig. 1) shows an example of such an approach application, representing the early iterations of a fractal Julia set with a Siegel disc and an "isosurface-like" ("equipotential line – like") visualization of this filled Julia set for the golden mean rotation number with the Siegel disc and some orbits inside. It can be seen that Fig. 2 satisfactory simulates the morphology from Fig. 1. Thus, there is an appropriate approximation for this morphology due to the membranous properties of the cell represented here formally using Fatou components. A similar visualization can be obtained using the Herman ring, but this is beyond the scope of this report for the lack of space. The morphology of cells with filopodia also may6 be approximated by Siegel disc formalism, including dynamic representation (see Fig. 3 – "Infolding Siegel disc near 2/7" and Fig. 4 – "Infolding Siegel disc near 1/3").

Table 1. Definition of Siegel disc



- % c Fixed complex number, of form a + bi
- % total_iterations Number of iterations of $z = z^2 + c$
- % image_size 2D vector with number of complex coordinates in

%		x and y directions
%	limits	Vector with 4 elements: min x, max x, min y, max y
%		
%	Outputs:	
%		
%	colour	Matrix of doubles, with size equal to image_size.
%		Plotting this matrix will produce a julia set

```
im_step = (limits(4) - limits(3)) / (image_size(2) - 1);
re_step = (limits(2) - limits(1)) / (image_size(1) - 1);
```

```
reals = limits(1) : re_step : limits(2); % Real numbers
imags = limits(3) : im_step : limits(4); % Imaginary numbers
z = bsxfun(@plus, reals(:), (imags(:) * 1i)'); % Complex coordinates
colour = inf(size(z)); % Colour of Julia set
```

```
for iteration = 1:total_iterations
    index = isinf(z);
    % Only perform calculation on the z values that are less than infinity
    z(~index) = z(~index).^2 + c;
    % Colour depends on number of iterations to reach infinity
    colour(index & isinf(colour)) = iteration;
end
```

```
colour = colour'; % Transpose so that plot will have reals on the x axis
```

end

```
https://codereview.stackexchange.com/questions/145752/function-for-plotting-julia-set function Julia(c,k,v)
```

% JULIA(C,K,V) draws the Julia set with the following parameters:
% c is a complex number used in the map f(z) = z² + c.
% k gives the number of iterations
% v determines the number of points on the x-axis.

% JULIA uses c = 0.2+0.65i, k = 14, v = 500.

```
% This file was generated by students as a partial fulfillment
% for the requirements of the course "Fractals", Winter term
% 2004/2005, Stuttgart University.
```

```
% Author : Sylvia Frey
% Date : Nov 2004
% Version: 1.1
% default settings
if nargin < 3
c = 0.2+0.65i;
k = 14;
v = 500;
end
```

% radius of the circle beyond which every point diverges r = max(abs(c),2);

```
% divide the x-axis
      d = linspace(-r,r,v);
      % create the matrix A containing complex numbers
      A = ones(v,1)*d+i*(ones(v,1)*d)';
      % create the point matrix
      B = zeros(v,v);
      % iteration
     for s = 1:k
        B = B + (abs(A) < =r);
        % the map
        A = A.*A + ones(v,v).*c;
      end;
      % plot settings
     imagesc(B);
     colormap(jet);
     hold off;
      axis equal;
     axis off;
     http://m2matlabdb.ma.tum.de/download.jsp?MC ID=5&SC ID=13&MP ID=283
     Julia(c.k.v) draws the Julia set with the following parameters:
c is a complex number used in the map f(z) = z^2 + c.
k gives the number of iterations.
v determines the number of points on the x-axis.
     Julia uses c = 0.2+0.65i, k = 14, v = 500.
     This file was generated by students as a partial fulfillment
for the requirements of the course "Fractals",
Winter term 2004/2005, Stuttgart University.
```

Visualize Julia Sets using Matlab

```
function myjulia(Zmax,c,N)
% Generate and visualize guadratic Julia Sets
% More information about Julia Sets can be found here:
% http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Julia set
% this code is for the assignment of the "Introduction to Matlab" offered
by MITOPENCOURSEWARE
% Coded by http://scriptdemo.blogspot.com
if (nargin==1)
 Ndemo=Zmax; clear Zmax
 switch Ndemo
 case \{1\}
   myjulia(1,-0.297491+i*0.641051,100);
   return;
 case \{2\}
   myjulia(0.35,-0.297491+i*0.641051,250);
   return:
 otherwise
  disp('Not defined demo type!')
  help myjulia;
  return
 end
```

```
elseif (nargin\sim=3)
 help myjulia;
 return
end
% generate the basic matrix
NM=500;
[Z,tmpy]=meshgrid(linspace(-Zmax,Zmax,NM),zeros(1,NM));
Z=Z+i*Z'; clear tmpy
% compute the escape velocity
myM=reshape(escapeVelocity(Z(:),c,N),NM,NM);
% visualize the results
imagesc(atan(0.1*myM)); figurenicer;axis xy;
function n=escapeVelocity(zo,c,N)
n=zo*o:
NLen=length(zo);
IndZ=1:length(zo);
IndZ=IndZ';
for ni=1:N
   IndLT=find(abs(zo)<2);</pre>
   IndGE=find(abs(zo)>=2);
   n(IndZ(IndGE))=ni:
   if (length(IndLT)>0)
    zo(IndLT)=zo(IndLT).*zo(IndLT)+c;
   end
   zo(IndGE)=[]:
   IndZ(IndGE)=[];
end
if ~isempty(IndZ)
 n(IndZ)=N;
end
```

Basin of attraction to infinity = exterior of filled-in Julia set and The Divergence Scheme = Escape Time Method (ETM)

First read definitions Here one computes *forward iterations* of a complex point Z_o :

Here is function which computes the *last iteration*, that is the first iteration that lands in the target set (for example leaves a circle around the origin with a given *escape radius* ER) for the iteration of the complex quadratic polynomial above. It is a iteration (integer) for which (abs(Z)>ER). It can also be improved ^[2]

C version (here ER2=ER*ER) using double floating point numbers (without complex type numbers):

```
int GiveLastIteration(double Zx, double Zy, double Cx, double Cy, int IterationMax, int ER2)
{
    double Zx2, Zy2; /* Zx2=Zx*Zx; Zy2=Zy*Zy */
    int i=0;
    Zx2=Zx*Zx;
    Zy2=Zy*Zy;
    while (i<IterationMax && (Zx2+Zy2<ER2)) /* ER2=ER*ER */
}</pre>
```

```
Zy=2*Zx*Zy + Cy;
Zx=Zx2-Zy2 +Cx;
Zx2=Zx*Zx;
Zy2=Zy*Zy;
i+=1;
}
return i;
}
```

C with complex type from GSL :[3]

```
#include <qsl/qsl_complex.h>
#include <gsl/gsl_complex_math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
// gcc -L/usr/lib -lgsl -lgslcblas -lm t.c
// function fc(z) = z^*z + c
gsl_complex f(gsl_complex z, gsl_complex c) {
return gsl_complex_add(c, gsl_complex_mul(z,z));
int main () {
 gsl complex c = gsl complex rect(0.123, 0.125);
 gsl_complex z = gsl_complex_rect(0.0, 0.0);
 int i;
 for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
  z = f(z, c);
  double zx = GSL_REAL(z);
  double zy = GSL_IMAG(z);
 printf("Real: %f4 Imag: %f4\n", zx, zy);
 }
 return 0;
}
```

```
C++ versions:
```

```
int GiveLastIteration(complex C,complex Z, int imax, int ER)
{
    int i; // iteration number
    for(i=0;i<=imax-1;i++) // forward iteration
    {
        Z=Z*Z+C; // overloading of operators
        if(abs(Z)>ER) break;
    }
    return i;
}
#include <complex> // C++ complex library
// bailout2 = bailout * bailout
// this function is based on function esctime from mndlbrot.cpp
// from program mandel ver. 5.3 by Wolf Jung
// http://www.mndynamics.com/indexp.html
```

int escape_time(complex<double> Z, complex<double> C , int iter_max, double bailout2)

```
{
 // z = x + y^* i z = 0
 long double x =Z.real(), y =Z.imag(), u, v;
 int iter; // iteration
 for ( iter = 0; iter <= iter_max-1; iter++)</pre>
 \{ u = x^*x; \}
  v = y^*y;
  if (u + v \le bailout2)
    {
     y = 2 * x * y + C.imag();
     x = u - v + C.real();
    } // if
  else break;
 }//for
 return iter;
} // escape_time
```

[4]

Delphi version (using user defined complex type, cabs and f functions)

```
function GiveLastIteration(z,c:Complex;ER:real;iMax:integer):integer;
var i:integer;
begin
i:=0;
while (cabs(z)<ER) and (i<iMax) do
    begin
    z:= f(z,c);
    inc(i);
    end;
result := i;
end;</pre>
```

where :

type complex = record x, y: real; end;

function cabs(z:complex):real; begin cabs:=sqrt(z.x*z.x+z.y*z.y) end;

```
function f(z,c:complex):complex; // complex quadratic polynomial
var tmp:complex;
begin
tmp.x := (z.x*z.x) - (z.y*z.y) + c.x;
tmp.y := 2*z.x*z.y + c.y;
result := tmp;
```

end;

Delphi version without explicit definition of complex numbers :

```
function GiveLastIteration(zx0,zy0,cx,cy,ER2:extended;iMax:integer):integer;
// iteration of z=zx+zy*i under fc(z)=z*z+c
// where c=cx+cy*i
```

```
// until abs(z) < ER ( ER2 = ER * ER ) or i > = iMax
var i:integer;
   zx,zy,
   zx2,zy2:extended;
begin
zx:=zxo;
zy:=zy0;
ZX2:=ZX^*ZX;
zy2:=zy*zy;
i:=0:
while (zx2+zy2<ER2) and (i<iMax) do
  begin
   zy:=2*zx*zy + cy;
   zx:=zx2-zy2 +cx;
   zx2:=zx^*zx;
   zy2:=zy*zy;
   //
  inc(i);
  end;
result := i;
end:
```

Euler version by R. Grothmann (with small change : from z^2-c to z^2+c) [5]

function iter (z,c,n=100) ...

h=z; loop 1 to n; h=h^2 + c; if totalmax(abs(h))>1e20; m=#; break; endif; end; return {h,m}; endfunction

Lisp version

This version uses complex numbers. It makes the code short but is also inefficien.

```
((DEFUN GIVELASTITERATION (Z_0_C IMAX ESCAPE_RADIUS)
(SETQ Z Z_0)
(SETQ I 0)
(LOOP WHILE (AND (< I IMAX) (< (ABS Z) ESCAPE_RADIUS)) DO
(INCF I)
(SETQ Z (+ (* Z Z) _C)))
I)
```

Maxima version :

```
/* easy to read but very slow version, uses complex type numbers */
GiveLastIteration(z,c):=
block([i:0],
while abs(z)<ER and i<iMax
    do (z:z*z + c,i:i+1),
    i)$
/* faster version, without use of complex type numbers,</pre>
```

```
compare with c version, ER2=ER*ER */
GiveLastIter(zx,zy,cx,cy,ER2,iMax):=
block(
[i:0,zx2,zy2],
zx2:zx*zx,
zy2:zy*zy,
while (zx2+zy2<ER2) and i<iMax do
(
zy:2*zx*zy + cy,
zx:zx2-zy2 +cx,
zx2:zx*zx,
zy2:zy*zy,
i:i+1
),
return(i)
);
```

Boolean Escape time [edit]

Algorithm: for every point z of dynamical plane (z-plane) compute iteration number (last iteration) for which magnitude of z is greater than escape radius. If last_iteration=max_iteration then point is in filled-in Julia set, else it is in its complement (attractive basin of infinity). Here one has 2 options, so it is named boolean algorithm.

if (LastIteration==IterationMax) then color=BLACK; /* bounded orbits = Filled-in Julia set */ else color=WHITE; /* unbounded orbits = exterior of Filled-in Julia set */

In theory this method is for drawing Filled-in Julia set and its complement (exterior), but when c is Misiurewicz point (Filled-in Julia set has no interior) this method draws nothing. For example for c=i. It means that it is good for drawing interior of Filled-in Julia set.

ASCII graphic[edit]

Source: https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Fractals/Iterations_in_the_complex_plane/Julia_set

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