

# Graphics with TikZ

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**Abstract** Beautiful and expressive documents often require beautiful and expressive graphics. PGF and its front-end TikZ walk a thin line between power, portability and usability, giving a TeX-like approach to graphics. While PGF and TikZ are extensively documented, first-time users may prefer learning about these packages using a collection of graduated examples. The examples presented here cover a wide spectrum of use and provide a starting point for exploration.

## 1 Introduction

Users of TeX and LaTeX intending to create and use graphics within their documents have a multitude of choices. For example, the UK TeX FAQ [1] lists a half dozen systems in its response to “Drawing with TeX.” One of these systems is PGF and its associated front-end, TikZ [4].

All of these systems have similar goals: namely, to provide a language-based approach which allows for the creation of graphics which blend well with TeX and LaTeX documents. This approach stands in contrast to the use of an external drawing program, whose output is subsequently included in the document using the technique of graphics inclusion.

PGF provides a collection of low-level graphics primitives whereas TikZ is a high-level user interface. Our intent is to provide an overview of the capabilities of TikZ and to convey a sense of both its power and relative simplicity. The examples used here have been developed with Version 1.0 of TikZ.

## 2 The name of the game

Users of  $\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$  are accustomed to acronyms; both PGF and TikZ follow in this tradition. PGF refers to **P**ortable **G**raphics **F**ormat. In a tip of the hat to the recursive acronym GNU (i.e., GNU's not UNIX), TikZ stands for “**TikZ** ist kein **Z**eichenprogramm,” a reminder that TikZ is not an interactive drawing program.

## 3 Getting started

TikZ supports both plain  $\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$  and  $\text{L}_\text{A}\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$  input formats and is capable of producing PDF, PostScript, and SVG outputs. However, we limit our discussion to one choice:  $\text{L}_\text{A}\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$  input, with PDF output, processed by pdf $\text{L}_\text{A}\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$ .

TikZ provides a one-step approach to adding graphics to a  $\text{L}_\text{A}\text{T}_\text{E}\text{X}$  document. TikZ commands which describe the desired graphics are simply intermingled with the text. Processing the input source yields the PDF output.

Figure 1 illustrates the layout required for a document which contains TikZ-generated graphics. Of central interest is the `tikzpicture` environment, which is used to specify one graphic. Within the preamble, the `tikz` package must be specified, along with optional PGF-based libraries. Exactly which additional libraries are needed will depend on the type of graphics being produced. The two PGF libraries shown here allow for a variety of arrowheads and “snakes,” a class of wavy lines.

Commands which describe the desired graphic appear within a `tikzpicture` environment. In the simplest case, these commands describe paths consisting of straight line segments joining points in the plane. For more complex graphics, other primitive graphics objects can appear; e.g., rectangles, circles, arcs, text, grids, and so forth.

Figures 2 and 3 illustrate how a diamond can be obtained, using the `draw` command to cause a “pen” to form a closed path joining the four points  $(1,0)$ ,  $(0,1)$ ,  $(-1,0)$ , and  $(0,-1)$ , specified with familiar Cartesian coordinates. The syntax used to specify this path is very similar to that used by MetaPost [2]. Unlike MetaPost, TikZ uses one centimeter as the default unit of measure, so the four points used in this example lie on the  $x$  and  $y$  axes, one centimeter from the origin.

```
\documentclass[11pt]{article}
...
\usepackage{tikz}
% Optional PGF libraries
\usepackage{pgflibraryarrows}
\usepackage{pgflibrarysnakes}
...
\begin{document}
...
  \begin{tikzpicture}
    ...
  \end{tikzpicture}
...
\end{document}
```

Figure 1: Layout of a TikZ-based document.

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (1,0) -- (0,1) -- (-1,0) -- (0,-1) -- cycle;
\end{tikzpicture}
```

Figure 2: Drawing a diamond with a closed path.

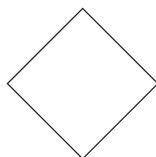


Figure 3: Results produced by Figure 2.

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw[step=0.25cm,color=gray] (-1,-1) grid (1,1);
  \draw (1,0) -- (0,1) -- (-1,0) -- (0,-1) -- cycle;
\end{tikzpicture}

```

Figure 4: Adding a grid.

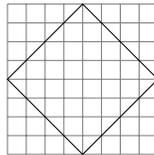


Figure 5: Results produced by Figure 4.

In the process of developing and “debugging” graphics, it can be helpful to include a background grid. Figure 4 expands on the example of Figure 2 by adding a draw command to cause a grid to appear:

```

\draw[step=0.25cm,color=gray] (-1,-1) grid (1,1);

```

Here, the grid is specified by providing two diagonally opposing points:  $(-1, -1)$  and  $(1, 1)$ . The two options supplied give a step size for the grid lines and a specification for the color of the grid lines, using the `xcolor` package [3].

## 4 Specifying points and paths in TikZ

Two key ideas used in TikZ are *points* and *paths*. Both of these ideas were used in the diamond examples. Much more is possible, however. For example, points can be specified in any of the following ways:

- Cartesian coordinates
- Polar coordinates
- Named points
- Relative points

As previously noted, the Cartesian coordinate  $(a, b)$  refers to the point  $a$  centimeters in the  $x$ -direction and  $b$  centimeters in the  $y$ -direction.

A point in polar coordinates requires an angle  $\alpha$ , in degrees, and distance from the origin,  $r$ . Unlike Cartesian coordinates, the distance does not have a default dimensional unit, so one must be supplied. The syntax for a point specified in polar coordinates is  $(\alpha : rim)$ , where  $dim$  is a dimensional unit such as `cm`, `pt`, `in`, or any other  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ -based unit. Other than syntax and the required dimensional unit, this follows usual mathematical usage. See Figure 6.

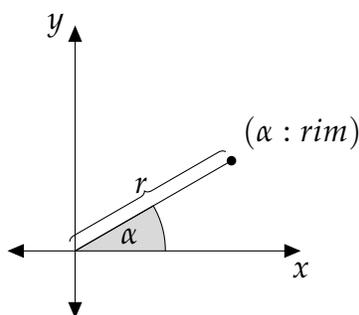


Figure 6: Polar coordinates in TikZ.

It is sometimes convenient to refer to a point by name, especially when this point occurs in multiple `\draw` commands. The command:

```
\path (a,b) coordinate (P);
```

assigns to  $P$  the Cartesian coordinate  $(a, b)$ . In a similar way,

```
\path (\alpha:rim) coordinate (Q);
```

assigns to  $Q$  the polar coordinate with angle  $\alpha$  and radius  $r$ .

Figure 7 illustrates the use of named coordinates and several other interesting capabilities of TikZ. First, infix-style arithmetic is used to help define the points of the pentagon by using multiples of 72 degrees. This feature is made possible by the `calc` package [5], which is automatically included by TikZ. Second, the `\draw` command specifies five line segments, demonstrating how the drawing pen can be moved by omitting the `--` operator.

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  % Define the points of a regular pentagon
  \path (0,0) coordinate (origin);
  \path (0:1cm) coordinate (P0);
  \path (1*72:1cm) coordinate (P1);
  \path (2*72:1cm) coordinate (P2);
  \path (3*72:1cm) coordinate (P3);
  \path (4*72:1cm) coordinate (P4);

  % Draw the edges of the pentagon
  \draw (P0) -- (P1) -- (P2) -- (P3) -- (P4) -- cycle;

  % Add "spokes"
  \draw (origin) -- (P0) (origin) -- (P1) (origin) -- (P2)
        (origin) -- (P3) (origin) -- (P4);
\end{tikzpicture}

```

Figure 7: Using named coordinates.

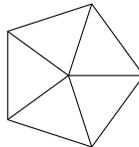


Figure 8: Results produced by Figure 7.

The concept of the *current point* plays an important role when multiple actions are involved. For example, suppose two line segments are drawn joining points  $P$  and  $Q$  along with  $Q$  and  $R$ :

```
\draw (P) -- (Q) -- (R);
```

Viewed as a sequence of actions, the drawing pen begins at  $P$ , is moved to  $Q$ , drawing a first line segment, and from there is moved to  $R$ , yielding a second line segment. As the pen moves through these two segments, the current point changes: it is initially at  $P$ , then becomes  $Q$  and finally becomes  $R$ .

A relative point may be defined by providing offsets in each of the horizontal and vertical directions. If  $P$  is a given point and  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  are two offsets, a new point  $Q$  may be defined using a `++` prefix, as follows:

```
\path (P) ++(\Delta x,\Delta y) coordinate (Q);
```

Alternately, the offset may be specified with polar coordinates. For example, given angle  $\alpha$  and radius  $r$ , with an appropriate dimensional unit *dim*, the command:

```
\path (P) ++(\alpha:rim) coordinate (Q);
```

specifies a new point  $Q$ . See Figure 9.

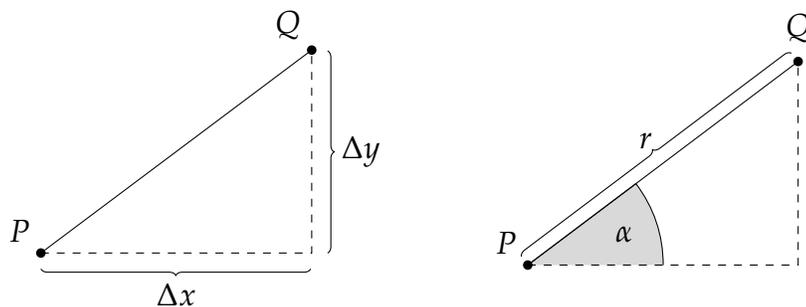


Figure 9: A relative point,  $Q$ , determined with Cartesian or polar offsets.

There are two forms of relative points — one which updates the current point and one which does not. The `++` prefix updates the current point while the `+` prefix does not.

Consider line segments drawn between points defined in a relative manner, as in the example of Figure 10. The path is specified by offsets: the drawing pen starts at the origin and is adjusted first by the offset  $(1,0)$ , followed by the offset  $(1,1)$ , and finally by the offset  $(1,-1)$ .

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) -- ++(1,0) -- ++(1,1) -- ++(1,-1);
\end{tikzpicture}
```

Figure 10: Drawing a path using relative offsets.



Figure 11: Output produced by Figure 10.

By contrast, Figure 12 shows the effect of using the  $+$  prefix. Since the current point is not updated in this variation, every offset which appears is performed relative to the initial point,  $(0,0)$ .

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) -- +(1,0) -- +(0,-1) -- +(-1,0) -- +(0,1);
\end{tikzpicture}
```

Figure 12: Drawing a path using relative offsets without updating the current point.

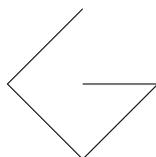


Figure 13: Output produced by Figure 12.

## Beyond line segments

In addition to points and line segments, there are a number of other graphic primitives available. These include:

- Grids and rectangles
- Circles and ellipses
- Arcs
- Bézier curves

As previously discussed, a grid is specified by providing two diagonally opposing points and other options which affect such things as the color and spacing of the grid lines. A rectangle can be viewed as a simplified grid — all that is needed are two diagonally opposing points of the rectangle. The syntax

```
\draw (P) rectangle (Q);
```

draws the rectangle specified by the two “bounding box” points  $P$  and  $Q$ . It is worth noting that the current point is updated to  $Q$ , a fact which plays a role if the `\draw` command involves more than one drawing action. Figure 14 provides an example where three rectangles are drawn in succession. Each rectangle operation updates the current point, which then serves as one of the bounding box points for the following rectangle.

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) rectangle (1,1)
         rectangle (3,2)
         rectangle (4,3);
\end{tikzpicture}
```

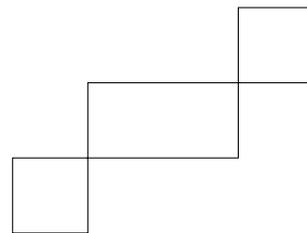


Figure 14: Drawing rectangles.

A circle is specified by providing its center point and the desired radius. The command:

```
\draw (a,b) circle (rim);
```

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) circle (1cm)
           circle (0.6cm)
           circle (0.2cm);
\end{tikzpicture}

```

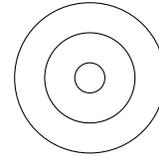


Figure 15: Drawing circles — one draw command with multiple actions.

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) circle (1cm);
  \draw (0.5,0) circle (0.5cm);
  \draw (0,0.5) circle (0.5cm);
  \draw (-0.5,0) circle (0.5cm);
  \draw (0,-0.5) circle (0.5cm);
\end{tikzpicture}

```

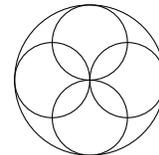


Figure 16: Drawing circles — a sequence of draw commands.

causes the circle with radius  $r$ , with an appropriate dimensional unit, and center point  $(a, b)$  to be drawn. The current point is not updated as a result. Figures 15 and 16 provide examples.

The situation for an ellipse is similar, though two radii are needed, one for each axis. The syntax:

```

\draw (a,b) ellipse (r_1 dim and r_2 dim);

```

causes the ellipse centered at  $(a, b)$  with semi-axes  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  to be drawn. See Figure 17.

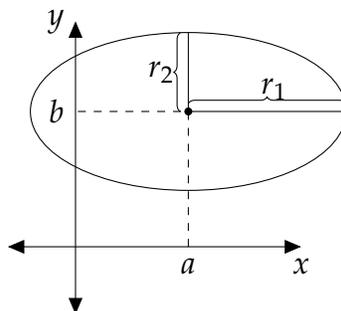


Figure 17: An ellipse in TikZ.

Like `circle`, the `ellipse` command does not change the current point, so multiple ellipses which share the same center point can be drawn with a single draw command, as Figure 18 shows.

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0,0) ellipse (2cm and 1cm)
    ellipse (0.5cm and 1 cm)
    ellipse (0.5cm and 0.25cm);
\end{tikzpicture}
```

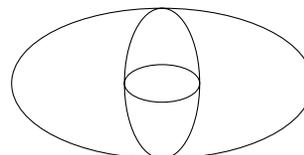


Figure 18: Three ellipses produced with a single draw command.

Arcs may also be specified in TikZ. For a circular arc, what is required is an initial point on the circle, the radius of the circle and an indication of how much of the circle to be swept out. In more detail, the syntax

```
\draw (P) arc ( $\alpha$ : $\beta$ :rim);
```

draws the arc shown in Figure 19. At first glance it might seem unusual to use the point  $P$  and not the center point of the circle. However, when one realizes that the arc might be just one of several components of a draw command, it is very natural to use the point  $P$ , as it will be the current point.

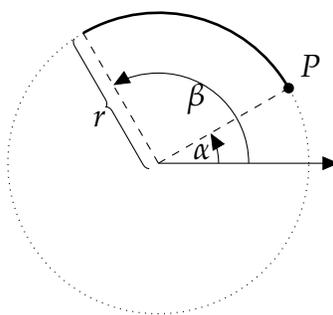


Figure 19: An arc in TikZ.

For example, Figure 20 shows how to draw a portion of an annulus by drawing two arcs and two line segments. This particular figure is drawn by directing

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (0:1cm) -- (0:2cm)
        arc (0:60:2cm) -- (60:1cm)
        arc (60:0:1cm) -- cycle;
\end{tikzpicture}

```

Figure 20: Combining arcs and line segments.

the pen in a counter-clockwise fashion—the horizontal line segment, the outer circular arc, a line segment, and finally the inner arc.

TikZ also provides the ability to produce Bézier curves. The command

```
\draw (P) .. controls (C) and (D) .. (Q);
```

draws the curve shown in Figure 21. Four points are needed: an initial point  $P$ , a final point  $Q$ , and two control points. The location of the control points controls the extent of the curve and the slope of the curve at the initial and final points.

Bézier curves provide for a wealth of variety as Figure 22 indicates.

An alternate syntax for Bézier curves allows for a more convenient specification of the curvature at the starting and ending points. Using polar coordinates with respect to these two points provides this capability. The syntax is as follows:

```
\draw (P) .. controls +(\alpha:r_1im) and +(\beta:r_2im) .. (Q);
```

See Figure 23.

## 5 From coordinates to nodes

A *node* is a generalization of the coordinate primitive. Two characteristics of a node are its *shape* and its *text*. A node allows for arbitrary T<sub>E</sub>X text to appear within a diagram. The command

```
\path (0,0) node[draw,shape=circle] (v0) {\$v_0\$};
```

defines a node named  $v_0$ , centered at the origin, with a circular shape and text component  $v_0$ . The draw option causes the associated shape (in this case, a circle) to be drawn. Figure 24 illustrates how nodes can be used to draw an undirected graph. Notice how line segments which join nodes stop at the boundary

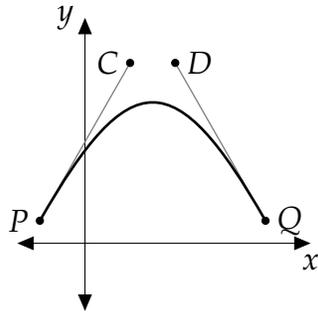


Figure 21: A Bézier curve.

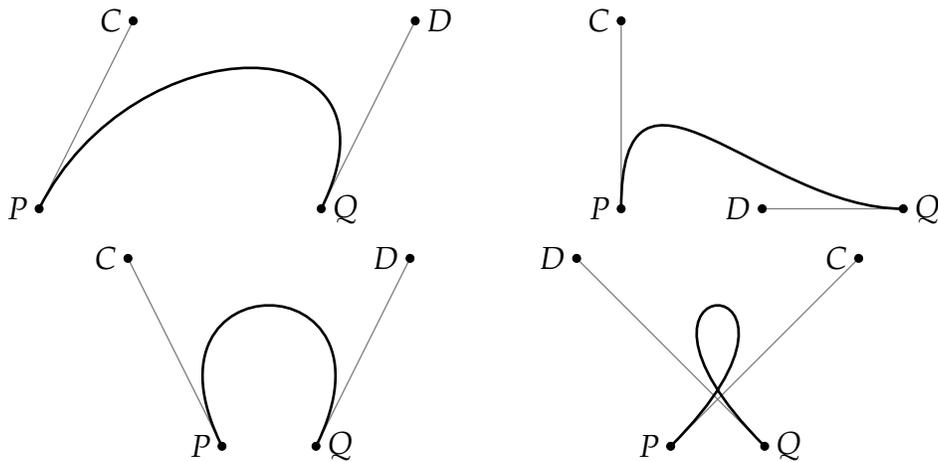


Figure 22: Various Bézier curves.

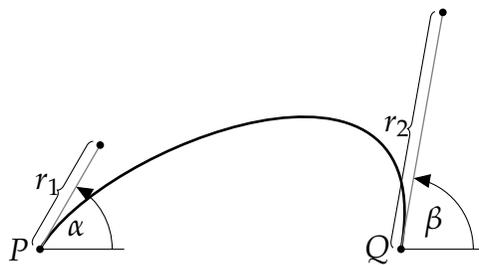


Figure 23: A Bézier curve specified with relative coordinates.

of the shape rather than protruding into the center point of the node. In this example, we have made use of the `tikzstyle` command to factor out code that would otherwise be repeated in each of the node commands.

Additionally, this example illustrates the use of the option `[scale=2.5]`, which indicates the result is to be scaled by a factor of 2.5. Using scale factors allows the picture to be designed in convenient units, then resized as desired. However, scaling a TikZ picture does not scale the font size in use.

```
\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=2.5]
  \tikzstyle{every node}=[draw,shape=circle];
  \path (0:0cm) node (v0) {$v_0$};
  \path (0:1cm) node (v1) {$v_1$};
  \path (72:1cm) node (v2) {$v_2$};
  \path (2*72:1cm) node (v3) {$v_3$};
  \path (3*72:1cm) node (v4) {$v_4$};
  \path (4*72:1cm) node (v5) {$v_5$};

  \draw (v0) -- (v1)
        (v0) -- (v2)
        (v0) -- (v3)
        (v0) -- (v4)
        (v0) -- (v5);
\end{tikzpicture}
```

Figure 24: Drawing an undirected graph with nodes.

There are various features within TikZ which provide fine control over nodes. Many of these are related to how line segments or curves connect a pair of nodes. For example, one can provide specific locations on the node's shape where connections should touch, whether or not to shorten the connection, how and where to annotate the connection with text, and so forth.

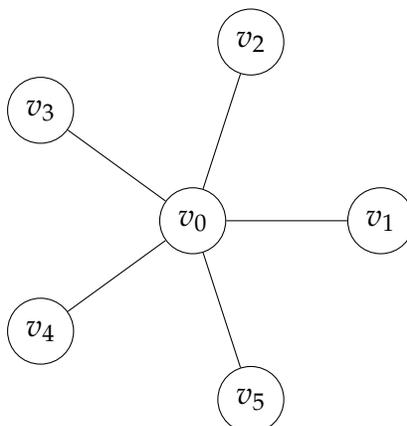


Figure 25: Output produced by Figure 24.

## 6 Loops

TikZ provides a loop structure which can simplify the creation of certain types of graphics. The basic loop syntax is as follows:

```

\foreach \var in {iteration list}
{
  loop body
}
  
```

The loop variable,  $\var$ , takes on the values given in the iteration list. In the simplest case, this list can be a fixed list of values, such as  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  or as an implied list of values, such as  $\{1, \dots, 4\}$ .

Consider the loop in Figure 26. Four coordinates,  $x_1$  through  $x_4$  are introduced at  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(2, 0)$ ,  $(3, 0)$ , and  $(4, 0)$ , respectively. In addition, a small filled circle is drawn at each coordinate.

Figure 27 shows how to extend this idea to yield a bipartite graph. As one might expect, `foreach` loops can be nested, a feature utilized here to specify all the edges in the graph.

Iteration lists need not consist of consecutive integers. An implicit step size is obtained by providing the first two values of the list in addition to the final value.

```

\foreach \i in {1,...,4}
{
  \path (\i,0) coordinate (X\i);
  \fill (X\i) circle (1pt);
}

```

Figure 26: A loop to create four named coordinates

```

\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=2]
  \foreach \i in {1,...,4}
  {
    \path (\i,0) coordinate (X\i);
    \fill (X\i) circle (1pt);
  }
  \foreach \j in {1,...,3}
  {
    \path (\j,1) coordinate (Y\j);
    \fill (Y\j) circle (1pt);
  }
  \foreach \i in {1,...,4}
  {
    \foreach \j in {1,...,3}
    {
      \draw (X\i) -- (Y\j);
    }
  }
\end{tikzpicture}

```

Figure 27: A bipartite graph drawn using loops.

For example,

```
\foreach \angle in {0,60,...,300}
{
  loop body
}
```

causes `\angle` to take on values of the form  $60k$ , where  $0 \leq k \leq 5$ .

Specifying pairs of values in an iteration list provides simultaneous iteration over these values. For example,

```
\foreach \angle / \c in {0/red,120/green,240/blue}
{
  loop body
}
```

produces three iterations of the loop body, successively assigning the pairs (0, red), (120, green), and (240, blue) to the variables `\angle` and `\c`.

## 7 Plotting

A list of points can be plotted using the TikZ `plot` command. Lists can be generated on-the-fly by `gnuplot`[6], read from a file, or specified within a `plot` itself. These three approaches are supported by the following commands:

```
\draw plot function{gnuplot formula};
\draw plot file{filename};
\draw plot coordinates{point sequence};
```

Using other TikZ commands, these graphs can be enhanced with symbols or other desired annotations.

Figure 29 provides an example of one such plot, the graph of  $y = \sin(2x)e^{-x/4}$ . The curve itself is generated with the command:

```
\draw[smooth,domain=0:6.5] plot function{\sin(2*x)*exp(-x/4)};
```

This command causes `gnuplot`<sup>†</sup> to generate points of the graph, saving them in a file, which is subsequently processed by `TikZ`. The `smooth` option joins these points with a curve, in contrast to line segments. Although not used in this example, the `samples` option can be used to control the number of generated points. The `domain` option specifies the desired range of  $x$  values. Everything else which appears in this graph, including axes, tick marks, and multiples of  $\pi/2$  have been added with additional `TikZ` commands.

A list of points can be used to create a bar chart, as illustrated in Figure 30. Each of the bars is drawn by command:

```
\draw[ycomb,color=gray,line width=0.5cm]
  plot coordinates{(1,1) (2,2) (3,3)};
```

The `ycomb` option specifies vertical bars are to be drawn and `line width` establishes the width of the bars.

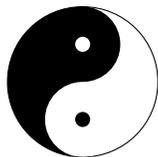
## 8 Clipping and scope

It is sometimes useful to be able to specify regions of a graphic where drawing is allowed to take place — any drawing which falls outside this defined region is “clipped” and is not visible.

This feature is made available by the `\clip` command, which defines the clipping region. For example,

```
\clip (-0.5,0) circle (1cm);
```

specifies that all future drawing should take place relative to the clipping area consisting of the circle centered at  $(-0.5,0)$  with radius 1 cm. Figure 31 shows how to fill a semicircle with clipping. The yin-yang symbol, a popular example, can be easily obtained by superimposing four filled circles on this filled semicircle:




---

†. To generate points with `gnuplot`, `TEX` must be configured to allow external programs to be invoked. For `TEX Live`, this can be accomplished by adjusting `texmf.cnf` to allow a shell escape.

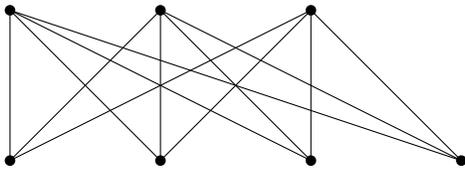


Figure 28: Results produced by Figure 27.

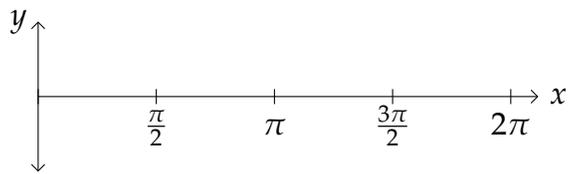


Figure 29: The graph of a function, with tick marks and annotations.

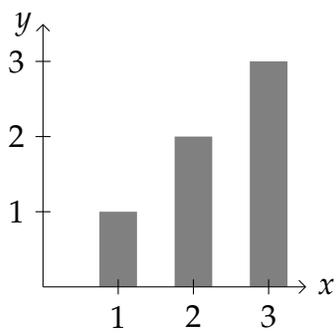


Figure 30: A graph that includes a bar chart.

When multiple `\clip` commands appear, the effective clipping region is the intersection of all specified regions. For example,

```
\clip (-0.5,0) circle (1cm);  
\clip (0.5,0) circle (1cm);
```

defines a clipping area corresponding to the intersection of the two indicated circles. All subsequent commands which cause drawing to occur are clipped with respect to this region.

A scoping mechanism allows a clipping region to be defined for a specified number of commands. This is achieved with a scope environment. Any commands inside this environment respect the clipping region; commands which fall outside behave as usual. For example,

```
\begin{scope}  
  \clip (-0.5,0) circle (1cm);  
  \clip (0.5,0) circle (1cm);  
  \fill (-2,1.5) rectangle (2,-1.5);  
\end{scope}
```

shades the intersection of two overlapping circles, since the filled rectangle is clipped to this region. Commands which follow this scope environment are not subject to this clipping region. Figure 32 shows a complete example which makes use of `\clip` and scoping.

The scoping mechanism may also be used to apply options to a group of actions, as illustrated in Figure 33. In this example, options to control color and line width are applied to each of three successive `\draw` commands, yielding the top row of the figure. At the conclusion of the scope environment, the remaining `\draw` commands revert to the TikZ defaults, yielding the lower row of the figure.

```
\begin{tikzpicture}  
  \draw (0,0) circle (1cm);  
  \clip (0,0) circle (1cm);  
  \fill[black] (0cm,1cm) rectangle (-1cm,-1cm);  
\end{tikzpicture}
```

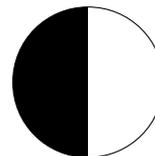


Figure 31: An example of clipping.

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \draw (-2,1.5) rectangle (2,-1.5);
  \begin{scope}
    \clip (-0.5,0) circle (1cm);
    \clip (0.5,0) circle (1cm);
    \fill[color=gray] (-2,1.5)
      rectangle (2,-1.5);
  \end{scope}
  \draw (-0.5,0) circle (1cm);
  \draw (0.5,0) circle (1cm);
\end{tikzpicture}

```

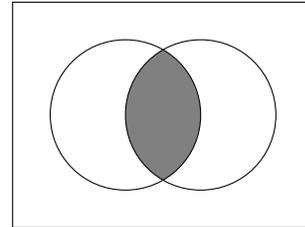


Figure 32: Using clipping and scope to show set intersection.

```

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \begin{scope}[color=gray,line width=4pt]
    \draw (0,0) -- (2,2);
    \draw (2,0) -- (0,2);
    \draw (-1,1) circle (1cm);
  \end{scope}
  \draw (0,0) -- (-2,-2);
  \draw (0,-2) -- (-2,0);
  \draw (1,-1) circle (1cm);
\end{tikzpicture}

```



Figure 33: Using scope to apply options.

## 9 Summary

TikZ, a high-level interface to PGF, is a language-based tool for specifying graphics. It uses familiar graphics-related concepts, such as point, line, and circle and has a concise and natural syntax. It meshes well with pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X in the sense that no additional processing steps are needed. Another positive aspect of TikZ is its ability to blend T<sub>E</sub>X fonts, symbols, and mathematics within the generated graphics.

We are especially indebted to Till Tantau for developing TikZ and for contributing it to the T<sub>E</sub>X community.

## References

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