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plt was originally written by Paul Albrecht, and is currently maintained by George Moody (george@mit.edu). The most recent version of plt, and of this book, can always be obtained from PhysioNet (http://www.physionet.org/); see appendix F, page 115, for details.

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## Contents

1 Introduction

1.1 A brief history of plt ........................................... 2
1.2 How to read this book ........................................... 2
1.3 How to avoid reading this book .............................. 4

2 Getting Started with plt

2.1 plt Essentials ................................................... 5
2.2 Using plt without an X server ............................... 6
2.3 More about options ............................................. 7
2.4 Tutorial: Simple Plots .......................................... 8
   2.4.1 Screen and printed plots ................................. 10
   2.4.2 Adding titles and axis labels ......................... 10
   2.4.3 Setting up the axes ..................................... 12
   2.4.4 A simple scatter plot ................................ 14
   2.4.5 Using color ............................................... 14
2.5 Plotting an image .............................................. 15
2.6 Plotting a function of a single variable .................. 16

3 Preparing Input for plt

3.1 Text data files .................................................. 19
3.2 Comma-separated value (CSV) files ....................... 20
3.3 Binary data files .............................................. 20
3.4 Data specifications ............................................ 21
3.5 Generating abscissas automatically ....................... 22
3.6 Format files .................................................... 22
3.7 String arrays .................................................. 24

4 Coordinate Systems ............................................... 25

5 Titles and Axes

5.1 “Quickplot” mode ............................................... 29

6 Plotting Data

6.1 A gallery of plotstyles ......................................... 33
CONTENTS

7 Plotting Two or More Data Sets Together 49
7.1 Plotting multiple data sets on one set of axes 49
7.2 Legends 52
7.3 Placing multiple plots on a page 55

8 Labelling Your Plot 61
8.1 Concatenating labels 62

9 Drawing Line Segments, Arrows, and Boxes 67

10 Suppressing Plot Elements 71

11 Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts 73

12 Advanced Axis Options 85

A Color Names 91

B Preparing Printed Output 97
B.1 Generating EPSF using plt 99
B.2 Including plt figures in a LATEX document 100
B.3 Margins, cropping, and bounding boxes 102
B.4 Processing, previewing and printing 104
B.5 Using plt with pdflATEX 105

C Preparing Plots for the Web 107

D On-Screen Plots 109

E Scripting with plt 113

F How to get and install plt 115
F.1 Compiling plt under Linux or Unix 115
F.2 Compiling and Using plt under Mac OS X (Darwin) 116
F.3 Compiling and Using plt under MS-Windows 117

G What's New? 119
G.1 Known bugs 120

H man Pages for the plt Package 121
List of Figures

2.1 A simple plot ................................................. 9
2.2 Simple screen plot ........................................... 11
2.3 Simple printed plot ....................................... 11
2.4 Simple plot with titles and axis labels ................... 12
2.5 Simple plot with customized axes and grid ............... 13
2.6 Scatter plot .................................................. 14
2.7 Scatter plot in color ....................................... 15
2.8 Using imageplt .............................................. 16
2.9 Function plot made using pltf ............................ 18
3.1 Example with data specification ........................... 23
4.1 Data, window, and page coordinates ....................... 26
4.2 Text box coordinates ...................................... 27
5.1 Generating title and axis labels .......................... 30
5.2 Using a format file ......................................... 31
5.3 Henon attractor, produced in quickplot mode .......... 32
6.1 Changing line styles ....................................... 35
6.2 Open and filled plot symbols ................................ 36
6.3 Plotstyle C .................................................... 39
6.4 Plotstyle e+Z ................................................ 39
6.5 Plotstyle e-X ................................................ 40
6.6 Plotstyle e:+ ............................................... 40
6.7 Plotstyle E+0 ................................................ 41
6.8 Plotstyle E-ftriangle ....................................... 41
6.9 Plotstyle E:square ......................................... 42
6.10 Plotstyle f .................................................. 42
6.11 Plotstyle i .................................................. 43
6.12 Plotstyle l .................................................. 43
6.13 Plotstyle m ................................................ 44
6.14 Plotstyle n ................................................ 44
6.15 Plotstyle N ................................................ 45
LIST OF FIGURES

6.16 Plotstyle o ................................................. 45
6.17 Plotstyle O .................................................. 46
6.18 Plotstyle sO .................................................. 46
6.19 Plotstyle Sfdiamond ......................................... 47
6.20 Plotstyle t ..................................................... 47

7.1 Normal and scatter plots ...................................... 50
7.2 Overlaid plots .................................................. 51
7.3 Making legends with symbols ................................ 53
7.4 Scaling and placement ........................................ 56
7.5 Single-window framed plot ................................... 57
7.6 Two-window framed plot ...................................... 58
7.7 Four-window framed plot ..................................... 59

8.1 Labelling a plot ................................................ 63
8.2 Labels with superscripts and font changes ................. 65

9.1 Line segments, arrows, and boxes ........................... 68

11.1 Samples of available fonts .................................. 74
11.2 Line styles and grey levels .................................. 75
11.3 Using font group specifications ............................. 77
11.4 Creating special effects using font groups ............... 79
11.5 Using color in plots .......................................... 83

12.1 Advanced axis options ....................................... 87
12.2 A complex plot ............................................... 89

B.1 An EPS plot in “natural size” ................................. 101
B.2 A rescaled EPS plot ........................................... 102
B.3 A rescaled, stretched, and rotated figure .................. 103
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I welcome your comments, corrections, and suggestions for improvements; please send them to george@mit.edu.
Chapter 1

Introduction

This book describes plt, a non-interactive plotting utility originally written for Unix by Paul Albrecht. plt can produce publication-quality 2D plots in PostScript from easily-produced text or binary data files, and can also create screen plots under the X Window System. Compared to most other software for 2D graphics, plt has several significant advantages:

- plt generates compact vector PostScript output, which can be transmitted quickly yet can be resized without introducing raster artifacts.

- plt works well with a wide variety of tools that create and manipulate readable text files.

- plt is scriptable; if you need to make 100 plots of 100 data sets, you don’t need to point and click for hours.

- Complex overlays and multi-part plots are easy to make, using multiple invocations of plt to write to a single window or page.

- plt can read data from a pipe, so it can be used to observe real-time signals or the outputs of computationally intensive processes as they become available.

- plt imposes no fixed limits on the number of points in a plot (even the total amount of available memory is not a constraint if the data are read from a pipe and the axis limits are pre-specified).

- plt is free, open-source software that can be modified as needed for unique applications. (plt can be compiled under GNU/Linux, Mac OS X, MS-Windows, or any version of Unix.)

- plt is easy to pronounce (say: P-L-T) and is almost as easy to spell :-)
1.1  A brief history of plt

Early versions of Unix included an elegant utility called graph, which accepted simple text files such as:

```
1 1
2 4
3 9
4 16
```

producing from them neatly scaled and labelled 2D plots in a device-independent format. graph was accompanied by plot, which consisted of a family of interpreters (drivers) that translated graph’s output for a wide variety of mostly obsolete graphics terminals. I wrote a number of plot drivers for slightly-less obsolete devices around 1982, and Paul Albrecht wrote the first version of plt as a replacement for graph when it disappeared from the standard Unix toolkit, sometime after Version 6. (Try it out: type the numbers above into a file named squares, putting two numbers on each line, then run the command “plt squares”. It’s that easy!)

Early versions of plt used drivers I had written for the Tektronix 4010 (a vector graphics terminal with a storage display; we had a few of them around the lab), the Tektronix 4662 XY plotter that was capable of changing pens (the first color output device we had), the NEC Spinwriter (an impact printer with fine-resolution paper control, for which a special type wheel with a brass “.” was available, for plotting applications such as ours), and even dumb terminals (with 80x24 resolution). During the mid-1980s, MIT’s Project Athena produced the first versions of the X Window System, and Apple produced the first PostScript printer (the LaserWriter). Paul wrote X11 and PostScript drivers and integrated them with plt, in order to make better use of the enhanced capabilities of these environments than was possible using only the Unix plot API. It is these two drivers, with updates I have made since the early 1990s, that are the nucleus of plt today.

1.2  How to read this book

Stop! Install the current version of plt (see appendix F, beginning on page 115) if it is not already installed on your system, or if the version you have already was installed before April 26, 2005. Do this now, then come back here and read on.

This book attempts to be both a tutorial and a reference manual. It describes every plt option, including many that have been undocumented since plt was written in the mid-1980s. Although you can read this book from cover to cover, in most cases you will not need to do so in order to make high-quality plots. plt has a bewildering number of options, but it is very easy to make simple plots using only a small subset of these options.

If you have never used plt before, begin with chapter 2, Getting Started with plt, try out the examples there, and then try making a few plots of your own before continuing. Many readers will not need to go any further.
1.2. HOW TO READ THIS BOOK

If you have used earlier versions of \texttt{plt}, you may wish to look first at appendix G, \textit{What’s New?}, for a brief summary of recent changes.

A good strategy for many users is to find in these pages an example that illustrates features you would like to include in your plot, then read the description of how the example was created. In this sense, this book is best used like a cookbook. All of the scripts and data files used to generate these examples are included in the \texttt{doc} subdirectory of the \texttt{plt} distribution (see appendix F).

Chapter 3, \textit{Preparing Input for plt}, is completely new. Even if you have been using \texttt{plt} for years, you will probably find some surprises here. Chapter 4 is also new; it contains a systematic presentation of the four major coordinate systems (data, window, page, and text) used by \texttt{plt}.

Chapter 5, \textit{Titles and Axes}, is essential reading if you have not used \texttt{plt} previously. On the other hand, almost no one will need to know everything in chapter 6, \textit{Plotting Data}, but it is worthwhile to skim through it, so that you will know what is possible.

Chapter 7, \textit{Plotting Two or More Data Sets Together}, will be helpful if you are trying to create a group of related plots; it offers several ways to accomplish the task of presenting multiple data sets.

Often a few well-chosen text labels can clarify a plot; chapter 8, \textit{Labelling Your Plot}, shows how to make them. Chapter 9, \textit{Drawing Line Segments, Arrows, and Boxes}, continues with the related subjects of adding arrows, outlined or shaded boxes, and arbitrary line segments to your plots.

Occasionally you may need to prepare a plot without one or more of the standard elements, such as axes or titles; chapter 10, \textit{Suppressing Plot Elements}, shows how to do this without using whiteout, as well as how to include data points that fall outside of the axis ranges without inking them in.

Throughout this book are examples that use a variety of line styles, shading, color, and text fonts. Chapter 11, \textit{Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts}, discusses how to control these aspects of your plots’ appearance.

Chapter 12, \textit{Advanced Axis Options} describes a variety of special-purpose options for fine control over axes, including how to make logarithmic axes and how to create extra labelled axis ticks.

At the end of this book, appendix A, \textit{Color Names}, contains a complete list of the named colors that can be used for PostScript and X window output. Appendix B, \textit{Preparing Printed Output}, contains details on creating printed plots on PostScript and other printers, and on embedding plots in \LaTeX\ documents such as this one. Appendix D, \textit{On-Screen Plots}, describes how to use \texttt{plt} in an X Window System environment. A few hints on writing shell scripts with \texttt{plt} appear in appendix E, \textit{Scripting with plt}. Appendix F, \textit{How to get and install plt}, describes how to obtain \texttt{plt} and how to compile and install it. Appendix G, \textit{What’s New?}, summarizes new features in \texttt{plt}, and includes a (short) list of known bugs. Finally, appendix H reproduces the \texttt{man} page for \texttt{plt}.
1.3  How to avoid reading this book

If you are temperamentally opposed to reading manuals, you may still be able to figure out enough of `plt` to use it from a quick look at chapter 2. The `doc` directory of the `plt` distribution contains two shell scripts:

- `xdemo.sh`, for generating and displaying the output of `plt` in an X window. Start your X server (use Cygwin/X under MS-Windows) before running `xdemo.sh`.

- `psdemo.sh`, for generating and displaying PostScript output from `plt` via `gv` (freely available for Mac OS X from Fink, for MS-Windows from Cygwin, or for GNU/Linux and Unix from SourceForge). Other PostScript viewers such as `ggv` and `gsview` can also be used (see `gvcat` in the `src` directory).

Try out one or both of these scripts to see `plt` in action, and examine the scripts to see how they work. Of course, this book is always available when you need it!
Chapter 2

Getting Started with plt

If you have never used plt, this chapter contains the essential information you need to begin making your own plots with plt. The first section describes how plt commands are constructed; don’t skip this section, because it introduces important concepts and terminology that are used throughout the book. A few notes on using plt without an X server follow in section 2.2. The chapter concludes with a tutorial, section 2.4, in which you create a simple plot and then produce several increasingly elaborate variations that illustrate a number of the most useful features of plt. Be sure to work through these examples, and then try making a few plots of your own before continuing.

2.1 plt Essentials

The general form of a plt command is:

```
plt data-spec data-file column-number ... options
```

plt recognizes its command-line arguments by looking at the first character of each argument. If an argument begins with “:”, it’s a data-spec. If it begins with a digit (0-9), it’s a column-number; if it’s either “#” or “%”, it’s shorthand for “all of the available column-numbers, in order.” If it begins with a hyphen (-), it’s an option. If it begins with “(” (left parenthesis) or “[” (left square bracket), it’s a fontgroup specification (not discussed further in this section; see chapter 11). If the argument begins with none of these special characters, it may be the name of a data-file.

A data-spec is a string that describes the format of the data-file. Most plots do not require a data-spec (described in section 3.4), and you may omit this argument in such cases. If you provide a data-spec, it must precede the data-file name in the command line.

The data-file contains the data you wish to plot, normally in text format as columns of decimal numbers (other formats are described in chapter 3). File example1.data illustrates the usual format:
This file contains three columns (from left to right: column numbers 0, 1, and 2) and five rows (from the top: row numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5). The data-file's name, including the suffix if any, is completely arbitrary; if the name of your data-file begins with one of the special characters listed above, simply prefix it with "./" (since "./" is always synonymous with the current directory, "./anything" is an alternate name for "anything"). If you omit the name of the data-file, plt reads data from its standard input. This feature allows you to pipe data from another program into plt without writing them to a file first.

You must specify at least one column-number (an integer ≥ 0) in order to plot data. The column numbers must always follow the name of the data file in the argument list (unless your data are supplied via the standard input). If you specify only one column number, plt assumes that the values it reads from that column are the y values, and it either reads the x values from column 0 (if the data file contains more than one column), or it generates a set of successive integers, beginning with 0, to use as the x values by default.

There are many options described in the following chapters. Many of them accept or require additional arguments. In most cases, plt can determine a reasonable default value for these arguments. If you supply a “-” (hyphen) on the command line in place of such an argument, plt will choose a default. In this book, options normally follow the data-file and column-number arguments on plt's command line. This ordering is not necessary in most cases, but this convention makes it easier for humans to parse the command line.

### 2.2 Using plt without an X server

The X Window System is a standard component of GNU/Linux and virtually all current versions of Unix, including Mac OS X. A high-quality implementation of X is freely available for MS-Windows (Cygwin/X, from http://www.cygwin.com/); if you use MS-Windows, it will be well worth the modest effort required to download and install an X server. If you will be using plt with an X server, please skip ahead to section 2.3 below.

If you have not already installed plt, please see appendix F, beginning on page 115. plt can generate PostScript plots, which can be printed directly on PostScript printers or (via ghostscript) on a variety of non-PostScript printers. ghostscript can also render PostScript on-screen, but this is most easily managed using a GUI wrapper such as gv, ggv, mgv, ghostview, or GSView. All of these require an X server, except that GSView can use native graphics when running on MS-Windows or OS/2. See http://www.cs.wisc.edu/ ghost/gv/ for details on these GUI wrappers for ghostscript.
2.3. MORE ABOUT OPTIONS

When using plt without an X server running, always send the output to lwcat. There are two ways to do this:

1. Send the output via a pipe, as in “plt ... | lwcat”. (This is the recommended method.)

2. Collect the output in a file, as in “plt ... >output.plt”, then read the file, as in “lwcat <output.plt”. Note that the output file does not contain a PostScript prolog, so it cannot be printed directly; lwcat is responsible for adding the prolog.

You can easily follow along with all of the examples in this book, which work using the PostScript driver in exactly the same way as when using the X driver, if you simply add “| lwcat -gv” to the end of each plt command. (You may omit “-gv” if you are running within a Cygwin/bash window under MS-Windows.) When you do this, the output of plt is opened in a gv or GSView window. Using gv or GSView’s controls, you can save the plot as a file, print it (on any printer supported by GhostScript, not just on PostScript printers), and view it at natural or magnified scales. (Drivers for a vast range of printers are included with GhostScript; see http://www.ghostscript.com/ for a list of supported printers.)

You might reasonably wonder why lwcat is not part of plt. The reason is that the output of several plt commands can be concatenated and supplied to lwcat in a single batch to create multiple plots on a single page (see chapter 7). To do this, group the plt commands together within a pair of parentheses, separating them with newlines or semicolons; then send the output of the entire group to lwcat, either like this:

```
( plt data1 ... ; plt data2 ...; plt data3 ... ) | lwcat
```

or like this:

```
( plt data1 ... ; plt data2 ...; plt data3 ... ) >output.plt
lwcat <output.plt
```

If you are paying particularly close attention while reading the rest of this book, you may notice that plt accepts the option -T lw to specify PostScript output. If an X server is not running, this is the default, so that the -T lw option can be omitted. Furthermore, lwcat accepts the option -gv to specify that the output is to be opened using gv (GSView under MS-Windows), but this is the default if you are running plt and lwcat in a Cygwin/bash window, so that the -gv option can be omitted in this case. If you attempt to run plt and lwcat under MS-Windows in a DOS window (which is not recommended), or in some other way (also not recommended), you will need to use the -gv option explicitly.

2.3 More about options

One of the most useful options is -h, which causes plt to print a (very) concise summary of its options on the standard output. Since there are many options, the output of “plt -h” will scroll off of your screen, so you may wish to send it to more (or a similar pager):
If the -h option is followed by one or more strings (which should not begin with hyphens), plt prints one-line summaries of all options beginning with those strings only.

As an alternative to supplying options and their arguments on the command line, you may write them into a format file that can be read by plt. This facility is particularly useful when you create a series of complex plots using some or all of the same options. You can put some of your options in a format file and supply others on the command line. Within a format file, omit the initial hyphen (-) from each option name. To use a format file, supply the option -f followed by the name of the format file, as in:

```
plt data-file 0 1 -f format-file
```

A third way to pass options to plt is within a quoted format string, following the -F option. Use the same syntax in a format string as in a format file. For examples of -f and -F, compare figures 5.2 and 6.1 on pages 31 and 35.

Let’s see how a simple plot can be created, using example1.data. If we would like the first column to be the set of x coordinates and the third column to be the set of y coordinates, we can type:

```
plt example1.data 0 2
```

and our plot would look like figure 2.1.

Notice that in the command line, the argument “0” corresponds to the first column of example1.data, and the argument “2” to the third column. Column 0 becomes the x axis; column 2 becomes the y axis. Likewise, the argument “1” in either of these two positions would correspond to column 1 (the second column) of example1.data, and would become either the x or the y axis depending upon its position.

plt can produce both screen and printed plots. If you try the examples exactly as shown in the main part of this book, you will obtain screen plots. Although you can use other software to make and print screen dumps of these plots, this is neither the best nor the easiest way to print your plots on paper. The following sections show how you can obtain publication-quality plots on PostScript or other types of printers, with only minor changes to the plt commands needed to make the corresponding screen plots.

### 2.4 Tutorial: Simple Plots

Please try out the examples shown below (and throughout this book) on your own computer. You can find the necessary input files in the doc directory of the plt distribution (where you will also find the LATEX sources for this book, and a printable PostScript version of it). For this tutorial, you will need only one file from the plt distribution, a text data file named heartrate.data, which begins:
2.4. TUTORIAL: SIMPLE PLOTS

Figure 2.1: Produced using the command:

```
plt example1.data 0 2
```

To see how to include plt output as a figure in a \LaTeX{} document such as this one, refer to appendix B.2, Including plt figures in a \LaTeX{} document, page 100. The frame lines surrounding most of the figures in this book show their bounding boxes (corresponding to the borders of the plt window for an on-screen plot, or of the page for a printed plot.)

As the excerpt above shows, heartrate.data contains two columns of numbers; in all, there are 297 rows (lines) in the file. The numbers on the left (in column 0) represent elapsed time in seconds, and those on the right (in column 1) indicate instantaneous heart rate in beats per minute. (See doc/Makefile in the plt distribution if you are interested in knowing more about these data.)
2.4.1 Screen and printed plots

The simplest way to plot these data is to type this command into a terminal window:

```
plt heartrate.data
```

A new window will open, containing a plot as in figure 2.2. You may be surprised to see `plt` exit to the shell prompt while the window containing the plot remains on-screen. If you run `plt` again, it will draw its output into the same window as the first. This feature allows you to create complex overlaid plots using several invocations of `plt`, as described in chapter 7, beginning on page 49. To dismiss the window, type an `Esc` (or `Q`, or `X`) into it. (If you wish to look at two or more plots in separate windows, open a new window for `plt` using `xpltwin`; see appendix D, beginning on page 109, for details). The same capability for creating overlays is also available when producing printed output; see appendix B, beginning on page 97, for details.

In order to illustrate the appearance of a `plt` screen plot, figure 2.2 was prepared from a screen dump. You can make printed plots of much better quality using `plt`, however, and with much less trouble than required to print a screen dump. The same plot can be printed simply by adding the optional arguments `"-T lw"` to the `plt` command, and then redirecting its output to `lwcat`, like this:

```
plt heartrate.data -T lw | lwcat
```

This command will send the plot to the default printer, producing output as in figure 2.3. Since PostScript plots are in vector rather than raster form, they can be rescaled in documents such as this without introducing artifacts, and their resolution is generally much higher than raster images despite their much smaller file sizes.

If you wish to capture the PostScript output in order to include it in a document such as this one, use `lwcat`’s `-eps` option, and redirect its standard output to a file, as in:

```
plt heartrate.data -T lw | lwcat -eps >heartrate.eps
```

See appendix B for more examples and additional details about making PostScript plots and including them in other documents.

2.4.2 Adding titles and axis labels

Now that we know how to make simple screen and printed plots, let’s refine the plot a bit. First, we can provide a title for the plot, and for the x and y axes using the `-t`, `-x`, and `-y` options, like this:

```
plt heartrate.data -t "Heart rate time series"  
   -x "Time (seconds)" -y "Heart rate (beats per minute)"
```

(The "\" at the end of the first line means that the command is continued on the next line; you may enter the command on two lines, ending the first with a backslash, or you may combine both lines into one, omitting the backslash.)
2.4. TUTORIAL: SIMPLE PLOTS

Figure 2.2: Simple screen plot

Figure 2.3: Simple printed plot
2.4.3 Setting up the axes

As you may have noticed, plt chose appropriate ranges for the x and y axes based on the ranges of x and y values in its input. Often, you may wish to specify the axis ranges, however, particularly if several plots are to be compared (in which case the plots should be prepared with the same scales and axis ranges). The next version of our plot, shown in figure 2.5, illustrates the −xa and −ya options for setting up the axes:

```
plt heartrate.data -t "Heart rate time series" \
   -x "Time (seconds)" -y "Heart rate (beats per minute)" \
   -xa 60 300 15 - 4 0 -ya 0 80 20 -g grid,sub
```

The −xa and −ya options each take an argument list containing up to six arguments. In this example, the argument list for −xa is “60 300 15 - 4 0”, and that for −ya is “0 80 20” (plt recognizes −g as another option, rather than as part of −ya’s argument list, because −g consists of a hyphen followed by a letter).
The first two arguments following --xa and --ya specify the x and y axis ranges. Notice that the x axis range (60 to 300) excludes a number of the points at the beginning of the data file. If you try this command, plt will warn you (by printing a message in your terminal emulator window) that points were excluded from the plot; note that there is no indication of this on the plot itself, however.

The third argument following each of --xa and --ya specifies the interval between axis ticks (in the units of the data). We have chosen 15 units for the x axis tick interval, since the x units are seconds and this allows us to arrange for a numbered tick at the beginning of each minute (the 4 following --xa specifies that every fourth tick is to be numbered).

The “-” between the 15 and the 4 is an example of a default argument. In most cases, where plt expects an argument, it will choose a reasonable default if you provide “-” instead of a specific value. The value that “-” replaces in this case is a format string that can be used to control how the numbered x axis ticks are printed. Note that, as in the argument list for --ya in this example, it is also usually acceptable to omit arguments at the end of a list if plt’s defaults are acceptable to you. For further details on using the --xa and --ya options, see chapter 5.

The --g option and its argument (grid, sub) specifies that plt should draw gridlines across the plot at every axis tick. See chapter 12 for details about using --g to control the appearance of the grid.
2.4.4 A simple scatter plot

In the figures above, the data are plotted by connecting the points with straight line segments. This is plt’s default plot style, and for many plots, it is adequate. For heartrate.dat, however, a scatter plot may be a more appropriate format. The next version of our plot adds the option “-p 0,1Scircle” to the plt command in order to create a scatter plot, as shown in figure 2.6:

```
plt heartrate.data -t "Heart rate time series" \
-x "Time (seconds)" -y "Heart rate (beats per minute)" \
-xa 60 300 15 - 4 0 -ya 0 80 20 -g grid,sub \ 
-p 0,1Scircle
```

The use of the -p option to specify a plot style is described in chapter 6; plt offers a wide range of styles. The argument “0,1Scircle” specifies that columns 0 and 1 of the data are to be used to make a plot in style S (a scatter plot) using an open circle to mark each data point.

2.4.5 Using color

We conclude this tutorial by adding a transient fontgroup specification (see chapter 11) that has the effect of modifying the appearance of the scatter plot symbols. To do this, we append “(P/2,Cblue)” to the argument of the -p option, like this:
2.5. PLOTTING AN IMAGE

The `plt` package includes a tiny program named `imageplt` that can be used together with `plt` to plot a greyscale image, as shown in figure 2.8. The input to `imageplt` should be a list of grey levels (0 = black, 1 = white) for each pixel in the image, beginning at the lower left corner, going up each column, then continuing from the bottom of the next column, etc. For example, suppose the input file `image.data` contains:

```
plt heartrate.data -t "Heart rate time series" \
-x "Time (seconds)" -y "Heart rate (beats per minute)" \
-xa 60 300 15 -4 0 -ya 0 80 20 -g grid,sub \
-p "0,1Scircle(P/2,Cblue)"
```

(Since the shell (command interpreter) normally treats parentheses as special characters, it is necessary to enclose the entire argument of `-p` in quotation marks, in order to pass it as shown to `plt` without shell interpretation.)

Fontgroup modifications provide an extremely powerful and flexible way to control the appearance of a plot. In this example, “P/2” reduces the size of the circles by a factor of 2, and “Cblue” causes them to be drawn in blue. (A complete list of color names is included in appendix A.)
These data can be plotted as a 3x5 image to produce figure 2.8. For further details, see Appendix H.

2.6 Plotting a function of a single variable

plt plots \((x, y)\) coordinate pairs, but often you may wish to plot a continuous function of \(x\) expressed symbolically. This can be done easily using two small programs, ftable and pltf, both of which are included with plt.

Both of these programs accept a symbolic function definition (as the first command-line argument) and up to three optional arguments: the lower and upper bounds for the
independent variable (which is always $x$), and the $x$-increment.

`ftable` produces a script that generates a table of coordinate pairs when processed by the standard `bc` utility. This table can then be used as input to `plt`. For example, the command:

```
ftable 'x^2 - 4*x + 7' 0 5 .1 | bc -l
```

produces on its standard output a table of values of the function $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 7$ for values of $x$ between 0 and 5, with a step size of .1 in $x$. Note that the independent variable in the function is always $x$, and that multiplication must be indicated explicitly using `*`. In this example, the output begins like this:

```
0 7
.1 6.61
.2 6.24
.3 5.89
.4 5.56
.5 5.25
.6 4.96
.7 4.69
```

The `bc` utility is an arbitrary-precision calculator included in all versions of Unix and GNU/Linux, and available for Mac OS X (from http://fink.sourceforge.net/) and for MS-Windows (as part of the free Cygwin package from http://www.cygwin.com/). See the documentation for `bc` for details on the function syntax.

The shell script `pltf` is included in the `misc` directory of the `plt` distribution. `pltf` accepts the same arguments as `ftable` (the function, the lower and upper bounds for $x$, and the $x$-increment), but it invokes `bc` and `plt` to produce a neatly labelled plot of your function, as illustrated in figure 2.9:

```
pltf 's(40*x)*s(3*x)' 0 5 .01
```
Figure 2.9: Function plot made using pltf
Chapter 3

Preparing Input for plt

Conceptually, all data presented to plt must be organized in rows and columns. Columns are numbered beginning with zero, and each column contains values for a variable that can be used as an abscissa (x coordinate), ordinate (y coordinate), or (with appropriate options discussed later in this book) a grey level, color, or other plot attributes. Rows are numbered beginning with one, and each row contains a value for each column. Within a data file, values are always arranged in row-major order (all elements of row 1, followed by all elements of row 2, etc.).

plt can read data from a file or from a pipe. A command-line argument that is not otherwise recognized by plt is assumed to be the name of a data file. Any legal file name is acceptable; if it begins with a character that would cause plt to interpret it as an option, simply prefix the name with "./". If no data file is named, plt reads data from the standard input.

3.1 Text data files

Usually, data must be in text form in order for plt to read them. Each non-empty, non-comment line (row) in the input should contain a value for each column that will be plotted; any additional values or other extra text at the end of a row will be ignored. Columns can be separated by any number of spaces or tabs. Commas and single or double quotation marks can also be used as column separators with current versions of plt, though not with older versions. It is not necessary to line up the values in each row. There may also be spaces or tabs at the beginning of a line, and these will also be ignored. For example, here is squares.data, a text data file that can be read by plt:
# This is a text data file. It doesn’t need to begin with a
# comment, although this one does. Comments and empty lines
# are ignored in text data files.

-1 1 # This is row 1. It contains two columns.
0 0 # This is row 2. Columns don’t need to be lined up neatly.
1 1 # Row 3. Whitespace separates columns and is otherwise ignored.
1.5 2.25 # Row 4. Most common formats for base 10 numbers are acceptable.
# Note, however, that only "." can be used to separate
# the integer and fractional parts ("," is treated as a
# column separator).

2 4 # Row 5 (the empty and comment lines aren’t counted.)
2.5 6.25 8 # The "8" is ignored, since row 1 has only 2 columns.
3 9
4,16 # Comma-separated value (CSV) format is acceptable.
"5","25" # Quoted CSV format is also acceptable.
6 3.6e1 # Standard notation for floating-point numbers is acceptable.
7 490e-1 # Here’s another, with a negative exponent.
8 64.
9 +81.0 # The "+" is redundant, but acceptable.
10 1e2

# There can be more comments such as these at the end ....

### 3.2 Comma-separated value (CSV) files

Many programs record data in comma-separated value format. Current versions of plt can read most CSV files. It is still necessary for each row to be on a separate line, but commas are acceptable as whitespace equivalents for separating data values within a single row (line). If your CSV file contains quoted values, plt ignores the (single or double) quotation marks.

### 3.3 Binary data files

plt can also read some types of binary data files. You can create files of these types by writing the data as a sequence of short integer, float, or double format numbers. These types may not be mixed in a single data file. The sizes of these data types and their byte ordering rules are architecture-dependent, so that binary data files, unlike text data files, are not necessarily portable between computers of different types.

The structure of binary data files is similar to that of text data files, in that data are (conceptually) organized in rows and columns. If your file contains values for \( N \) variables (columns), each row must contain \( N \) values, one for each column. The data file does not contain any row boundary markers; you must specify the number of
columns and the data type using either an embedded two-byte descriptive header at the
beginning of the data file, or an appropriate data specification on the plt command
line, so that the input can be parsed correctly.

A binary data file can be most easily used by plt if its first two bytes describe its
format. To do this, the first byte should contain the number of bytes per data value (on
most current CPUs, this is 2 for short, 4 for float, or 8 for double values), and
the second byte should contain the number of columns per row. These header bytes
should be followed immediately by the data. plt can recognize binary files of this
type because text files should contain printing characters and whitespace only (the byte
values 2, 4, and 8 correspond to non-printing, non-whitespace control characters).

The two-byte header is optional. If it is omitted, however, you must use a data
specification (see the next section) in order to advise plt of the format of your data.
Binary data files to be used as input to plt should not contain any information other
than the optional header and the data themselves, although it is possible to skip over an
embedded prolog or epilog in most cases.

### 3.4 Data specifications

Use a data specification to advise plt of the format of your data file, or to select rows
from the file that you wish to plot. Any plt command may include a data specification.
A data specification is required in order to use a binary data file that lacks a header.
The data specification is a string beginning with “:”, and always precedes the name
of the data file in the plt command line. Up to four optional specifiers, separated by
commas, can follow the “:”, as in:

```plaintext
plt :s2,1024,2049,1 ecg.dat 
    -cz 8 .00781 -F"p 0,1n(Cred) 0,2n(Cblue)"
```

This command produces Figure 3.1 on page 23. The data specification in this example
is “:s2,1024,2049,1”, the data file is ecg.dat, the -cz option is described in
the next section, and the remaining arguments are options described later in this book.
All four optional specifiers are shown in this example; in order, they are:

**format** This specifier is used for binary data files only. It is a letter that indicates the
data type, followed by a number that indicates the number of values (columns)
per row. Use one of “s”, “f”, or “d” to specify short (integer), float, or
double format data respectively. In the example, format is “s2”, indicating
that the input is a binary data file containing short integer data in 2 columns.
If format is omitted, plt assumes the input is a text data file.

**min-row** If present, plt excludes rows with smaller row numbers. In the example,
min-row is 1024.

**max-row** If present, plt excludes rows with equal or greater row numbers. In the example,
max-row is 2049.
CHAPTER 3. PREPARING INPUT FOR PLT

dec If present, plt includes only one of every dec rows, beginning with min-row. In the example, dec is 1 (all rows are plotted); this is the default, and could have been omitted.

Omitted specifiers are replaced with default values; the defaults are to include all rows. For example, the specification “:100” excludes rows 1-99 and includes all others; the specification “:2,2” excludes all odd-numbered rows, and “:1,,2” (or “::,2”) excludes all even-numbered rows.

If your data file contains an embedded prolog of a type other than the two-byte header used by plt, you may be able to skip over it using an appropriate value of min-row in your data specification. If the file contains binary data, and if the length of the prolog is not a multiple of the size of a row in bytes, you will need to use another method; the Unix utility dd may be useful for this purpose, as in:

```
dd ibs=1 skip=nbytes <data-file | plt ...
```

3.5 Generating abscissas automatically

If plt’s argument list includes only one column-number, plt reads the y values (the ordinates) from that column of the data file. In this case, if the data file contains more than one column, plt reads the x values (the abscissas) from column 0. If the data file contains only one column, plt automatically supplies the abscissas. The automatically generated abscissas can be referred to as column 0, and the ordinates become column 1.

If you have multi-column data that lacks abscissas, you can force plt to generate a column of abscissas using the -cz (column zero) option. When you use -cz, your data columns are renumbered, so that the first one (which would normally be called column 0) becomes column 1, the second becomes column 2, etc.

When plt supplies the x values, it creates a column of x values starting with xfrom (by default, 0), and incrementing by xincr (by default, 1) for each subsequent value of x. The -cz option can be used to change these values, as follows:

```
-cz xfrom xincr
```

This feature is illustrated in figure 3.1. The data file ecg.dat contains samples of two ECG signals taken at 128 samples per signal per second, hence xincr is set to \( \frac{1}{128} \), or 0.00781, so that the x units on the plot are seconds. Since the plot begins with row 1024 (8 \cdot 128), xfrom is set to 8, so that the x axis marks indicate the elapsed time in seconds from the beginning of the data file.

3.6 Format files

As noted earlier, plt’s command-line options can also be collected into format files, which are read by plt if named following the -f option. The names of format files, as for data files, are completely arbitrary (in this book, format files have the suffix .format, but this is only for clarity).
Figure 3.1: Produced using the command:

```plaintext
plt :s2,1024,2049,1 ecg.dat \
    -cz 8 .00781 -F"p 0,1n(Cred) 0,2n(Cblue)"
```

X is 8 to 16.005, Y is -222 to 359
CHAPTER 3. PREPARING INPUT FOR \texttt{plt}

Format files are text files. Like data files, they may contain empty lines, and any line beginning with ‘#’ is taken to be a comment and is ignored.

The active ingredients in format files are \texttt{plt} options and their arguments. In a format file, you must omit the initial hyphen (‘-’) from each option named. See chapter 5 for examples of figures made using command-line arguments with hyphenated options, and using a format file containing unhyphenated options.

3.7 String arrays

In chapter 6, you will encounter \texttt{plt} options that make use of yet another type of input, namely arrays of strings. String arrays can be supplied to \texttt{plt} using the \texttt{-fs}, \texttt{-ts}, and \texttt{-tf} options. These options take arguments as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
-fs "string_0 string_1 ..."
-ts "string_0 string_1 ..." tbc
-tf file tbc
\end{verbatim}

The string argument of \texttt{-fs} and \texttt{-ts} is treated as an array of strings (words) separated by white space. The \texttt{file} argument of \texttt{-tf} is the name of a file that contains an array of strings separated by newlines (the strings may include spaces or tabs in this case). The \texttt{-fs} option defines the fontgroup string array; the \texttt{-ts} and \texttt{-tf} options define the text string array. In each case, strings within a string array are referred to by their index numbers, and (as for the column numbers in the data file) the index number of the first string in a string array is 0, not 1.

Entries in the text string array can be plotted in the same manner as data points, by using other options described in chapter 6, together with a data file that specifies the data coordinates and the index numbers of the strings within the text string array. The \texttt{tbc} argument of \texttt{-tf} and \texttt{-ts} is optional; if provided, it specifies a text box coordinate used to determine how the strings are placed relative to the coordinates specified by the data file (see chapter 4). If \texttt{tbc} is omitted, \texttt{plt} centers the strings on the specified coordinates.

The fontgroup string array associated with \texttt{-fs} has a different purpose; using the appropriate options, these strings can be used to set the font, line style (solid, dotted, etc.), or plotting color. Examples of the use of these options appear in chapter 6.
Chapter 4

Coordinate Systems

Using appropriate `plt` options, you can place labels anywhere in a plot, and you can place plots anywhere on a page. These `plt` options use four coordinate systems to specify position.

First is the data coordinate system: the coordinates defined by your plot’s axes. The ranges of the data coordinates depend on the ranges of $x$ and $y$ values, or on the ranges you specify using the $-xa$ and $-ya$ (or $-X$ and $-Y$) options. The lower left corner of the data coordinate system is $(x_{min}, y_{min})$, and the upper right corner is $(x_{max}, y_{max})$.

Second is the window coordinate system. Window coordinates, $(xw, yw)$, always range from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$. The window coordinates $(0, 0)$ correspond to the data coordinates $(x_{min}, y_{min})$, and the window coordinates $(1, 1)$ map to the data coordinates $(x_{max}, y_{max})$.

Third is the page coordinate system. Page coordinates, $(xp, yp)$, always range from $(0, 0)$, at the lower left corner of the page, to $(1, 1)$ at the upper right corner. Using the $-w$ option described later on, you can specify a rectangle in page coordinates in which the plot is to be drawn; this option thus allows you to draw multiple plots in any desired layout on a page. When you make a screen plot, the “page” may be the entire screen, or it may be an X window. When you make a printable plot, the “page” may be the entire sheet of paper, or the printable area (generally less than the full sheet), or it may represent a PostScript bounding box for a plot that can be incorporated into another document such as this book.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the relationships among data, window, and page coordinates. Note that it is always possible to refer to data, window, or page coordinates outside of the ranges of these coordinate systems. Depending on the `plt` options you have chosen, and in some cases on the output device (screen or printer), out-of-bounds elements may or may not appear in the output.

A fourth coordinate system, called text box coordinates, is used by `plt` to allow fine control over the positioning of text on plots.

`plt` places an imaginary text box around each string it prints. Descenders (the lower portions of “g”, “j”, “p”, “q”, “y”, and “”) fall outside of the box, but each text box includes extra space above the top of the characters (30% to 40% of the basic height of the text) for any descenders from the line above. Text box coordinates are
Figure 4.1: Data, window, and page coordinates
symbolic and discrete rather than numeric and continuous. Each text box has twelve points defined as shown in figure 4.2. Thus point CT is at the center of the top side of the text box, RB is the lower right corner, etc.

When you tell plt to print a string at \((x,y)\), plt usually places text box point CC at \((x,y)\), thus centering the string on \((x,y)\). By naming the appropriate text box point as an argument to any of the options described in chapter 8, *Labelling Your Plot*, you can choose instead to place any of the four corners, the center of any side, or any of the other defined points of the text box at \((x,y)\).
Chapter 5

Titles and Axes

By now you should know how to make a simple plot of data as in the previous examples. You are now ready to label your plot. Using the \(-x\) and \(-y\) options, you can label the x and y axes respectively. Using the \(-t\) option, you can give your plot a title. Figure 5.1 demonstrates the use of these options.

```
plt example1.data 0 2 -t "Time vs Amp" \ 
  -x "time in seconds" -y "amplitude in cm"
```

Note that the data file name and the column numbers should immediately follow "plt".

With the \(-xa\) (x axis) and \(-ya\) (y axis) options, you can specify min and max (the endpoints of your axes), tick (how often you want tick marks to appear), fmt (the format in which to print the numbers, e.g., %.3f, %.2e), tskip (how often to skip when labelling the ticks, and cross (where you want the axis you are specifying to cross the other axis, in units of the other axis). If you do not need to change the default ticks and axis crossing points, the \(-X\) and \(-Y\) options accept axis endpoint arguments only. These options take their arguments as follows:

```
-xa xmin xmax tick fmt tskip ycros
-ya ymin ymax tick fmt tskip xcros
-X xmin xmax
-Y xmin xmax
```

Figure 5.2, on page 31, demonstrates how \(-xa\) and \(-ya\) are used, and also the use of the \(-f\) option with a format file. The format file, named example3.format, looks like this:

```
t Time vs Amp
x time in seconds
y amplitude in cm
xa 0 5 .5 - 2 0
ya 0 5 .5 - 2 0
```
Figure 5.1: Produced using the command:

```
plt example1.data 0 2 -t "Time vs Amp" \
-x "time in seconds" -y "amplitude in cm"
```

As for the data file, the name of the format file, including the suffix if any, is completely arbitrary. Note that each option within the format file (in this example, t, x, y, xa, and ya) must be given without an initial "-", but that a "-" in place of an option argument will cause plt to choose its own "suitable value" for that argument. Either a number based on the size of the plot and data limits will be chosen, or plt will use a default value in place of the "-" argument.

plt offers a large number of options that give you control over virtually every aspect of how axes are drawn and labelled; these are described in chapter 12, beginning on page 85.
5.1. “QUICKPLOT” MODE

In normal operation, `plt` performs two passes over its input data. During the first pass, it reads the data from a file or from its standard input, allocates memory sufficient to keep the data to be plotted, and determines suitable axis ranges; during the second pass, `plt` renders the plot. When making a screen plot, the intermediate steps are not visible; for efficiency, the `plt` window is not (re)drawn until the entire image has been prepared in memory.

If, however, you specify both `x` and `y` axis ranges using any of the `-xa`, `-ya`, `-X`, and `-Y` options described above, and if you are making only one plot (i.e., not using any of the methods described in chapter 7 to plot multiple data sets on a single set of axes), then `plt` runs in quickplot mode. In quickplot mode, the data are read and plotted immediately without buffering, so that for large data sets the memory requirements and the time needed to render the plot are significantly reduced. Quickplot mode allows you

```
plt example1.data 0 2 -f example3.format
```
to plot data sets that are larger than the total amount of available memory. Furthermore, under Unix, GNU/Linux, and Mac OS X, quickplot mode permits progressive display of screen plots, so that you do not need to wait for plt to read an entire multi-megabyte input file before seeing any output. If the data are provided by a pipe from another process, plt can render them in real time (depending on your hardware speed, at rates up to 50 frames per second, or even faster if you change the symbol QPFREQ in xw.c and recompile plt; see appendix F).

Figure 5.3 illustrates the final state of a plot of 25,000 points from a Hénon series. The command used to generate the figure was:

```
henon | plt % -p s. -X -1.5 1.5 -Y -.5 .5 -t "Henon Attractor"
```

You can see quickplot mode in action if you compile henon from the source (a file named henon.c, provided in the doc directory of the plt distribution) and then run the command above. Delays are included in henon.c so that you will be able to see what happens even with a fast CPU. Over a period of several seconds, the picture of the Hénon attractor emerges.

Figure 5.3: Hénon attractor, produced in quickplot mode.
Chapter 6

Plotting Data

Most of the previous examples have illustrated how two columns of data can be plotted as a connected set of line segments. This is `plt`'s default style for plotting data, but many other styles are supported using the `-p` option to choose a **plotstyle**. For example, data can be plotted using points, characters, strings, or symbols (scatter plots); with error bars; or using lines of various widths, grey levels, colors, or patterns (solid, dotted, etc.).

To specify a plotstyle, we can use the `-p` option, followed by sub-options that control how the points are plotted. Each sub-option can also have an optional argument following it. This argument can change the font, point size, color, grey scale, line width, or line style (solid, dotted, dashed, etc.) of the current plot. (If you want to use those control options that enable you to make font changes, you will need to read and understand chapter 11, *Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts*, beginning on page 73.)

Each plotstyle “takes” (consumes) one or more data columns. If you use more than one plotstyle, you must include enough data column numbers for all of the plotstyles in the `plt` command line. Note that you may repeat data column numbers if necessary to satisfy the requirements of the plotstyles you select; see the examples below to see how this can be done.

If you have not used `plt` previously, it is probably a bad idea to read through this chapter from beginning to end, because the usage of the plotstyles (especially the first one listed below, `c`) is mind-bogglingly convoluted. A better strategy is to begin by studying the examples in this chapter; find one or more that illustrate features you would like to use in your own plots, then see which plotstyles were used to obtain these features.
C The sub-options to -p are:

- Takes three data columns \((x, y, c)\). Each \(c\) value tells `plt` what to do with the corresponding \(x\) and \(y\) values. The values for \(c\) can be:

  0  continue (draw) path to \((x, y)\)
  1  move to \((x, y)\) without drawing (i.e., with the “pen” up), then put the pen down (begin a new path)
  2  put a dot at \((x, y)\)
  3  put a small box at \((x, y)\)
  9  paint the path (usually done as the default when a new path is begun without specifying what to do with the old one)
 10  continue to \((x, y)\), close path and fill the inside with grey level specified by the argument to the \(c\) sub-option
 11  continue to \((x, y)\), close path and fill the inside with grey level specified by the argument to the \(c\) sub-option; then draw a black border
 12 - 13 continue to \((x, y)\), close path and fill the inside with grey level specified by \(c - 12\) (12.0 = black, 13.0 = white)
 14 - 15 continue to \((x, y)\), close path and fill the inside with grey level specified by \(c - 14\) (14.0 = black, 15.0 = white); then draw a black border
 20  (requires -fs option, see section 3.7, String arrays, page 24) change font to that specified by string number \(x\) from the -fs string array
 21  change point size to \(x\)
 22  change line width to \(x\)
 23  (requires -fs option, see section 3.7) change line style to that specified by string number \(x\) from the -fs string array; legal line styles are “solid”, “dotted”, “shortdashed”, “dotdashed”, and “longdashed”. Note that \(y\) is ignored (see figure 6.1).
 24  change grey level to \(x\) (0 = black, 1 = white); \(y\) is ignored.
 25  (requires -fs option, see section 3.7) change color to that specified by string number \(x\) from the fontgroup string array (see appendix A for details on how to specify colors by name; also, note that \(y\) is ignored)
 30 - 39 put symbol number \(c - 30\) at \((x, y)\) (see figure 6.2)
100, 101, 102, ... (requires -tf or -ts option, see section 3.7) put string number control-100 from the text string array at \((x, y)\)

- Takes two columns, \(x\) and \(y\), assumed to be the vertices of a polygon. The polygon is drawn by connecting consecutive vertices and by connecting the last vertex to the first, and then it is filled in the current color (default: black). Nonconvex and self-intersecting polygons are filled properly. See figure 6.3, page 39.
The two lines in the data file (at right, above) in which the third column \(c\) is 23 change the line styles to string \(x\) (the number specified in the first column) from the fontgroup string array. The fontgroup string array is defined in the command line above (string 0 is “helvetica”, not used in this example; string 1 is “longdashed”; and string 2 is “dotted”). Thus when \texttt{plt} reads 1 7 23, the line style changes from the default (“solid”) to the style specified by string 1 (“\texttt{tt longdashed}”; the 7 is ignored), and when it reads 2 6 23, the line style becomes “\texttt{dotted}” (and the 6 is similarly ignored).

The line segments are not connected, because each non-zero \(c\) value causes the previous segment to be drawn, and a new segment begins at the next \((x, y)\) pair. If you wish to connect line segments in a plot such as this, the input file must provide the segments’ common endpoints twice, once each before and after the line that changes \texttt{plt}’s line style.
Figure 6.2: The ten symbols that can be plotted using plotstyles c (suboptions 30 through 39), E, and S. Numeric (0-9) and mnemonic ("circle", "square", etc.) names appear to the right of each symbol; either form may be used when specifying a symbol to be used with plotstyles E or S. The open symbols (0 through 4) have opaque centers; these are particularly recommended for relatively dense scatter plots because it is still possible to distinguish and count individual data points even when the symbols partially overlap. The size of the symbols is determined by the current font’s point size (see the description of the –sf option in chapter 11), Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts, beginning on page 73.
e+c Takes three columns \((x, y, \text{ and } e)\). This sub-option makes a scatter plot, like \(s\) (see below), but including error bars. Each \(e\) value tells \(\texttt{plt}\) the size of the error associated with the corresponding \(x\) and \(y\). When using the \(e\) sub-option, you may specify the character (default: "*") to use when plotting \((x, y)\), and you must indicate if you wish to plot the top, bottom, or both halves of the error bars, as follows:

- \(e+c\) plot \((x, y)\) as "c", with top half of error bars only
- \(e-c\) plot \((x, y)\) as "c", with bottom half of error bars only
- \(e:c\) plot \((x, y)\) as "c", with both top and bottom error bars; the ":" may be omitted unless \(c\) is either "+" or "-"

E+n Takes three columns \((x, y, \text{ and } e)\). Exactly like its counterpart, \(e\), except that this sub-option allows you to plot a specified symbol (identified by a symbol number \(n\) between 0 and 9 inclusive) instead of a character.

E-n Takes three columns \((x, y, \text{ and } e)\). Exactly like its counterpart, \(e\), except that this sub-option allows you to plot a specified symbol (identified by a symbol number \(n\) between 0 and 9 inclusive) instead of a character.

f Takes three columns \((x, y_0, \text{ and } y_1)\) and fills the area defined by the normal plots of \((x, y_0)\) and \((x, y_1)\) in the current color (default: black). See figure 6.10, page 42.

i Takes two columns, \(x\) and \(y\). The \((x, y)\) pairs are plotted in impulse response form. See figure 6.11, page 43.

l Takes four columns, \(x_0, y_0, x_1, \text{ and } y_1\). The line segments with endpoints \((x_0, y_0)\) and \((x_1, y_1)\) are plotted. See figure 6.12, page 43.

m Takes one column \((y)\). The \(x\) values are always taken from column 0 of the input. The output is a normal plot of \((x, y)\) pairs. (If you supply only one data column number to \(\texttt{plt}\) and do not specify a plotstyle, this is the type of plot you will obtain by default.) See figure 6.13, page 44.

n Takes two columns, \(x\) and \(y\). The output is a normal plot of \((x, y)\) pairs. (If you supply two data column numbers to \(\texttt{plt}\) and do not specify a plotstyle, this is the type of plot you will obtain by default.) See figure 6.14, page 44.

N Takes two columns, \(x\) and \(y\). The area bounded by the normal plot of the \((x, y)\) pairs and the \(x\) axis is filled with the current color (default: black). See figure 6.15, page 45.

o Takes three columns \((x, y_0, \text{ and } y_1)\) and outlines the area defined by the normal plots of \((x, y_0)\) and \((x, y_1)\) in the current color (default: black). See figure 6.16, page 45.

O Takes three columns \((x, y_0, \text{ and } y_1)\), outlines the area defined by the normal plots of \((x, y_0)\) and \((x, y_1)\) in black, and fills this area in the current color (default: black). See figure 6.17, page 46.

sc Takes two columns, \(x\) and \(y\). The output is a scatter plot of \((x, y)\) pairs, where each pair is plotted using the character specified by \(c\) (a character suffixed to the plotstyle name, \(s\)). See figure 6.18, page 46.
$sn$ Takes two columns, $x$ and $y$. Exactly like its counterpart, $s$, except that this plotstyle allows you to plot a specified symbol (identified by a symbol number $n$ between 0 and 9 inclusive), instead of a character. See figure 6.19, page 47.

t Takes three columns, $x$, $y$, and $n$. This plotstyle must be used together with the -$tf$ or -$ts$ option (see section 3.7). The $n$ values specify strings from the -$tf$ or -$ts$ string array; plt prints these at the locations given by the corresponding $(x, y)$ pairs (adjusting the string positions according to the text box coordinates provided to the -$tf$ or -$ts$ option). See figure 6.20, page 47.

6.1 A gallery of plotstyles

This section contains a series of plots made using many of the plotstyles described in the previous pages. Each plot was made using the same data file, $styles.data$, which contains:

```
0 0 0 0
1 -1 .25 1
2 -2 .5 2
3 1 .25 1
4 4 1 4
5 1 .25 1
6 -2 .5 2
7 -1 .25 1
8 0 0 0
```

In several of these examples, the data are plotted in 90% grey, to make clear how certain plotstyles use the plot color. plt is told to do this by the “(G.90)” appended to the plotstyle specification in each case; see chapter 11 for details on using color and grey level definitions such as these.
6.1. A GALLERY OF PLOTSTYLES

Figure 6.3: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p "0,1C(G.90)" -t "Plotstyle C"
```

Figure 6.4: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2e+Z -t "Plotstyle e+Z"
```
CHAPTER 6. PLOTTING DATA

Figure 6.5: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2e-X -t "Plotstyle e-X"
```

Figure 6.6: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2e:+ -t "Plotstyle e:+"
```
6.1. A GALLERY OF PLOTSTYLES

Figure 6.7: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2E+0 -t "Plotstyle E+0"
```

Figure 6.8: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2E-ftriangle -t "Plotstyle E-ftriangle"
```
CHAPTER 6. PLOTTING DATA

Figure 6.9: Produced using the command:
```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2E:square -t "Plotstyle E:square"
```

Figure 6.10: Produced using the command:
```
plt styles.data -p "0,1,2f(G.90)" -t "Plotstyle f"
```
6.1. A GALLERY OF PLOTSTYLES

Figure 6.11: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1i -t "Plotstyle i"
```

Figure 6.12: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,0,3l -t "Plotstyle l"
```
Figure 6.13: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p lm -t "Plotstyle m"
```

Figure 6.14: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,ln -t "Plotstyle n"
```
6.1. A GALLERY OF PLOTSTYLES

Figure 6.15: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p "0,1N(G.90)" -t "Plotstyle N"
```

Figure 6.16: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,2o -t "Plotstyle o"
```
Figure 6.17: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p "0,1,2O(G.90)" -t "Plotstyle O"
```

Figure 6.18: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1sO -t "Plotstyle sO"
```
6.1. A GALLERY OF PLOTSTYLES

Figure 6.19: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1Sfdiamond -t "Plotstyle Sfdiamond"
```

Figure 6.20: Produced using the command:

```
plt styles.data -p 0,1,3t -t "Plotstyle t" -ts "Do Re Mi Fa Sol La Ti" CB
```
Chapter 7

Plotting Two or More Data Sets Together

Until now, most of the plots we have seen show only one data set. Often, as in figure 3.1, on page 23, it may be useful to plot two or more data sets together. There are several ways to arrange more than one plot on a page or window. This chapter shows first how you can overlay plots; how you can use different plot styles and create legends (or keys) so that overlaid plots can be distinguished; and finally how you can arrange plots side-by-side on a page or window.

7.1 Plotting multiple data sets on one set of axes

plt can plot more than one data set on the same set of axes. There are several ways to overlay plots.

Figure 7.1 demonstrates the use of the -p option to specify multiple plots in a single invocation of plt, using a data file that includes a column of ordinates for each plot. The figure can be produced using any of these commands:

\begin{verbatim}
plt example5.data 0 3 0 2 1 -F"p s+ s* m"
   -x "x axis" -y "y axis" -t "plot of y=x; y=2x and y=3x"

plt example5.data 0 1 2 3 -F"p 0,3s+ 0,2s* 1m"
   -x "x axis" -y "y axis" -t "plot of y=x; y=2x and y=3x"

plt example5.data % -F"p 0,3s+ 0,2s* 1m"
   -x "x axis" -y "y axis" -t "plot of y=x; y=2x and y=3x"
\end{verbatim}

There are several ways of specifying the data columns to be “taken” by the -p plotstyles. In the first command, the data columns are listed (after the name of the data file) in the order they are taken (the first ’s’ takes column 0 as \( x \) and column 3 as \( y \), the second ’s’ takes column 0 as \( x \) and column 2 as \( y \), and the ’m’ takes column 1 as \( y \) and...
CHAPTER 7. PLOTTING TWO OR MORE DATA SETS TOGETHER

Data

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.1: Produced using the command:

```
plt example5.data 0 3 0 2 1 -F"p s+ s* m" -x "x axis" -y "y axis" -t "plot of y=x; y=2x and y=3x"
```

This command produces three traces on the same pair of axes (using “+” to make a scatter plot of columns 0 and 3, “*” to make another scatter plot of columns 0 and 2, and using columns 0 and 1 to make a normal plot).
7.1. PLOTTING MULTIPLE DATA SETS ON ONE SET OF AXES

7.1. PLOTTING MULTIPLE DATA SETS ON ONE SET OF AXES

Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>y = 5x+20</th>
<th>y = 2x²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.2: Overlaid plots (see text for explanation).

implicitly takes column 0 as \( x \). In the second command, *all of* the data columns are listed in order after the name of the data file, and each plotstyle name is prefixed with a comma-separated list of the data columns it takes. The third command illustrates how ‘%’ can be used as shorthand for “all of the data columns, in order”; it is equivalent to the second command.

If the data sets to be overlaid come from different files, it will be easiest to invoke `plt` once with each data file, and to use a different method to create the overlay. The `-fa` and `-o` options allow you to do this. Plot the data from the first file in the usual way, but use `-fa` to record the axis limits into a format file. Then plot the data from the second file using this format file and the `-o` option, which suppresses all output except your new data plot. Study figure 7.2, which overlays the plot of \( y = 5x + 20 \) over that of \( y = 2x² \). In this example, the axis specifications for the plot of \( y = 2x² \) are written into the format file `example7.axes`:

```
plt example7.data 0 1 -f example7.format
```

where `example7.format` contains:
52  

CHAPTER 7. PLOTTING TWO OR MORE DATA SETS TOGETHER

Plot of \( y = 5x + 20 \) and \( y = 2x \)

\( x \) \( \times \) \( \times \) \( x \) \( x \) \( \text{axis} \)

\( y \) \( y \) \( \text{axis} \)

\( xa \) \(-6\) \( 6\) \( 1\) \(-1\) \( 0\)

\( ya \) \(-5\) \( 5\) \( 5\) \(-5\) \( 0\)

\( fa \) \( \text{example7.axes} \)

[In \text{example7.format}, the second line \((L(P^{*}.8) - - LB 2)\) appends a small superscript 2 to the plot title. \((P^{*}.8)\) reduces the point size to 80\% of the default, and \(“- - LB”\) aligns the left bottom point of the 2 at the RC point of the previous string (the title). See chapter 11 for a discussion of how text styles, including point size, can be modified; and see chapter 8 for details on the \(-L\) option and on creating superscripts and subscripts in plot titles and other text.]

The information written by the command above into \text{example7.axes} is recalled in the command below (using the \(-f\) option), and the new plot is then overlaid using the \(-o\) option.

\[
\text{plt example7.data} 0 2 -f \text{example7.axes} -o
\]

Although a single data file, \text{example7.data}, contains data for both plots in this example, the data might just as easily have been collected from different files. Note that if you know ahead of time what axis limits you will use, you don’t need \(-fa\); just use \(-xa, -ya, -X, \text{or } -Y\) with the appropriate axis limits when making the second plot.

7.2 Legends

A legend (also known as a key) is useful when two or more data plots are drawn on the same axes, as in the previous section. A legend typically includes \textit{sample plot segments} (short segments drawn using the same line styles used for the data plots), each of which is followed by \textit{legend text} (typically a description of the associated plot). Figure 7.3 illustrates a plot that includes a boxed legend.

The \(-lp\) option is used to specify the location for the legend, and the \(-le\) option is used to define an entry to be shown as part of the legend. These options take their arguments as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\(-lp\)} & \quad \text{\(xw0\)} \; \text{\(yw0\)} \; \text{boxscale} \; \text{seglength} \; \text{opaque} \\
\text{\(-le\)} & \quad \text{\(\text{linenumber}\)} \; \text{\(\text{plotnumber}\)} \; \text{\(\text{text}\)}
\end{align*}
\]

The first two arguments of \(-lp\) define the window coordinates of the upper left corner (LT) of the legend text. \text{plt} draws a box around the legend text, determining the width and height of the box based on the size of the text and sample plot segments it encloses, but you can adjust the width of the box using the optional \textit{boxscale} argument (which is a factor that multiplies the width calculated by \text{plt}). Thus a \textit{boxscale} of 1.05 creates a box 5\% larger than the default size; as a special case, a \textit{boxscale} of 0 suppresses the box entirely. The optional \textit{seglength} argument tells \text{plt} how long to
make the sample plot segments in the legend, as a fraction of the x axis length (by default, plt draws these segments so that they are 5% of the length of the x axis). If opaque is yes (default), the background of the legend box is opaque white; otherwise, the legend box is transparent (any previously drawn material remains visible through the legend box).

The first argument of -1e specifies the line number of the entry within the legend (the top line is line number 0). Each plot drawn by plt has an implicit plotnumber (the first has a plotnumber of 0); this is the second argument of -1e, used to determine the line style for the entry’s sample plot segment. The third and final argument of -1e is the text to be shown next to the sample plot segment.

Study figure 7.3 to see how these options work. This plot was produced using the command

```
plt example10.data % -f example10.format
```

where the data file, example10.data, was produced by this program fragment.
for (i = 0; i < 20; i++)
    printf("%d %.3lf %.3lf %.3lf
",
           i,
           sin(0.4*i*PI) + 1.5,
           (double)random()/(double)RAND_MAX + 3.8,
           .1 + 0.15*(double)random()/(double)RAND_MAX);

and example10.format contains:

 t Making Legends with Symbols
 x X Axis Units
 xa 0 20 1
 ya 0 5

 # Move the y axis slightly to the left.
 yo .02

 # Make four plots on the same set of axes.
 p 0,1n(W5,L1) 0,1S1 0,2n(W12,G.8) 0,2,3E0

 # Put legend text at window coordinates (.67,.64) and
 # widen the legend box by 5%.
 lp .67 .64 1.05

 # Describe plot 2 in the top line (line 0) of the legend.
 le 0 2 Random Series

 # Plot 3 is the same as plot 2, but with a different
 # plotstyle (using symbols). By using a second "le"
 # command for line 0 here, we create a sample plot
 # segment that is composed by overlaying the two
 # plotstyles. The text has already been supplied in
 # the previous command, so it is omitted here.
 le 0 3

 # The plot number is omitted from the next "le" command,
 # because the text that is to appear on line 1 of the
 # legend is a continuation of the description of the
 # data in line 0. The "-" means that no sample data
 # segment will be drawn when this command is executed.
 le 1 - (Synthesized)

 # Describe plots 0 and 1.
 le 2 0 Sine Function
 le 2 1

 (The -yo option is described in chapter 12.) The line beginning with "p 0..."
makes four plots using several different plot styles:

- Plot number 0 \((0, 1n (W5, L1))\) plots columns 0 and 1 in normal plot \((n)\) style, using a line width of 5 \((W5)\), slightly broader than the default, 3 or 4) and a dotted line \((L1)\).

- Plot number 1 \((0, 1S1)\) replots columns 0 and 1, this time as a scatter plot \((S1)\), where the “1” indicates the use of symbol number 1 (an open inverted triangle).

- Plot number 2 \((0, 2n (W12, G.8))\) plots columns 0 and 2 in normal plot style, using a broad line \((W12)\) drawn in 80% grey \((G.8)\).

- Plot number 3 \((0, 2, 3E0)\) replots columns 0 and 2 as a scatter plot with error bars from column 3, using symbol number 0 (an open circle).

Transient fontgroup modifications such as “(W5, L1)” and “(W12, G.8)” are described in detail in chapter 11. Note that the order of the overlay affects the appearance; since the open symbols (numbers 0 through 4) used in plots 1 and 3 have opaque centers, they appear differently if drawn on top of (after) other elements than if drawn below (before) those elements.

### 7.3 Placing multiple plots on a page

In this section, the concept of using multiple windows within a single screen or page is introduced. You will need to become familiar with the following options:

\[ -w \ x p0 \ y p0 \ x p1 \ y p1 \]
\[-w \ t y p \ s u b s e c t i o n \]

The arguments of the \(-w\) option are the page coordinates of the lower left \((xp0, yp0)\) and upper right \((xp1, yp1)\) corners of the plot window. (Recall that the default plot window, which fills the entire page or screen, has corners with page coordinates \((0, 0)\) and \((1, 1)\).) All output is scaled to fit within this window.

Study figure 7.4, in which the \(-w\) option is used to scale entire plots and the \(-s\) option (see chapter 10) is used to suppress erasure so that the plots appear on the same page.

The \(-w\) option can address several windows that have been predefined for convenience. The first argument of \(-w\) may be \(m\) (a single window that fits within a frame to be described shortly), \(b\) (one of two windows covering either the top or bottom of the page), or \(q\) (one of four windows covering the upper left, upper right, lower left, or lower right quadrant of the page). The variant types \(ms\), \(bs\), and \(qs\) are windows of reduced size to allow extra room for axis labels. Use the \(subsection\) argument (which may have values 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4) to specify which window is to be used for the current plot. By convention, subsection 0 is used to start a new page (erase the screen) and to draw a grid and a title for the page. When using subsections 1, 2, 3, or 4, the plot is drawn on the current page without erasing anything that may have been plotted there already.
Figure 7.4: This example demonstrates how a plot can be scaled and placed on the page; it was produced using these commands:

```bash
plt ldemo.data 2 3 -t "FREQUENCY RESPONSE OF THE FILTER" -x "FREQUENCY IN HERTZ" -y "THIS IS THE AMPLITUDE" -sf all P16
plt ldemo.data 2 3 -t "FREQUENCY RESP." -x "FREQUENCY" -y "AMPLITUDE" -W .3 .3 .5 .45 -se -sf all P12
plt ldemo.data 2 3 -t "FREQUENCY RESPONSE" -x "FREQUENCY" -y "AMPLITUDE" -W .6 .55 .9 .8 -se -sf all P14
```
7.3. PLACING MULTIPLE PLOTS ON A PAGE

Figures 7.5, 7.6, and 7.7 illustrate the use of \(-\text{wm}\), \(-\text{wb}\), and \(-\text{wq}\) respectively. All three use the data file \texttt{example11.data}, which contains:

\begin{verbatim}
0 0 0 9 1
1 3 1 6 0
2 2 2 7 1
3 4 3 4 2
4 3 4 5 3
5 5 3 3 4
6 4 2 4 3
7 7 1 2 2
8 6 0 3 1
9 9 1 0 0
\end{verbatim}

When reducing the size of a plot, it is often desirable to avoid rescaling any text in the plot, so that it remains readable. The \(-\text{ch}\) option makes this possible:
Figure 7.6: This plot was created using the commands:

```
plt -wb 0 -t "This is the main title for the plot"
plt example11.data 0 1 -wb 1 -t "Window 1"
plt example11.data 0 2 -wb 2 -t "Window 2"
```
7.3. PLACING MULTIPLE PLOTS ON A PAGE

Figure 7.7: This plot was created using the commands:

```
plt -wq 0 -t "This is the main title for the plot"
plt example11.data 0 1 -wq 1 -t "Window 1"
plt example11.data 0 2 -wq 2 -t "Window 2"
plt example11.data 0 3 -wq 3 -t "Window 3"
plt example11.data 0 4 -wq 4 -t "Window 4"
```
\texttt{-ch height-factor width-factor} Use this option to resize text; the arguments specify factors by which the normal height and width of characters output by \texttt{plt} are to be enlarged (or reduced, if a factor is less than 1).
Chapter 8

Labelling Your Plot

The -hl and -vl options allow you to create horizontal and vertical labels anywhere within your plot, using window coordinates, \((xw, yw)\), to specify the location for the label; and a text box coordinate, \(tbc\) (e.g., “CB”, “RT”, etc.), to specify which point in the text box should coincide with \((xw, yw)\). These options take their arguments as follows:

- \(-hl \ xw \ yw \ tbc \ nlines \ file\)
- \(-vl \ xw \ yw \ tbc \ nlines \ file\)

All arguments are optional (but if a specified argument follows an omitted argument, you must supply a “-” as a placeholder for the omitted argument). If \(xw\) or \(yw\) is omitted, the missing coordinate is set to that of the \(RC\) point of the previous label, allowing labels to be concatenated (see below). If \(tbc\) is omitted, the default value is “CC”, i.e., the label will be centered on \((xw, yw)\). If specified, \(nlines\) is a number indicating how many input lines are to be used to form the label (line breaks are reproduced by \(plt\) as they appear in the input).

If \(file\) is specified, the text for the label is read from the first \(nlines\) lines of \(file\). If \(nlines\) is not specified, the entire contents of \(file\) are used for the label.

If \(file\) is not specified, the next \(nlines\) lines of the \(plt\) -f format file or \(plt\) -F format string form the label; in this case, if \(nlines\) is also not specified, the label is formed from only one line (the next line) of the format file or string.

The -L and -l options can be used in a similar way to create horizontal labels. The arguments for these options are supplied as follows:

- \(-L \ xw \ yw \ tbc \ text\)
- \(-l \ x \ y \ tbc \ text\)

As for -hl, the \(tbc\) argument is one of the twelve named text box coordinates. The \textit{text} argument is the string to be used for the label; it may include whitespace, but it ends at the end of the line on which it appears. The difference between -L and -l is that the former takes window coordinates \((xw, yw)\), and the latter takes data coordinates \((x, y)\).
These options are demonstrated in figure 8.1, which uses the format file example9.format, containing:

```
xa 0 600
ya 0 500
x Time Between Stimulations (msecs)
y Refractory Period (msecs)
# Note: the next line ends with a lower-case L, not a numeral 1!
p 0,1,2,3,l
  t ch 1.2
  l 400 200 CC fires every beat
  L .1 .9 CC . . .
  hl .45 .81 CC 2
  fires every other beat
  hl .25 .92 - 4
  fires every third beat

and the data file example9.data, containing:
```
```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

In figure 8.1, notice especially how whitespace at the beginning of two lines in the second hl option’s text is preserved in the plot. Note also how both data and window coordinates are used with several plt options. The next chapter describes several more options that can be used in the same way. Options -A, -B, -C, -D, -L, -hl, -vl, -le, and -lp accept window coordinates; options -a, -b, -c, -d, and -l accept data coordinates. For now, note that you often have a choice of using data or window coordinates, since many of these options come in two varieties: upper-case options that use window coordinates, and similar lower-case options that use data coordinates.

### 8.1 Concatenating labels

Labels can be concatenated if you wish to incorporate font changes, subscripts or superscripts, or other special effects in labels. The plot title in figure 7.2, page 51, illustrates how this can be done. plt keeps track of the RC point of each label, and uses these coordinates in place of omitted \((x, y)\) or \((xw, yw)\) coordinates in label options. If the coordinates are omitted from the first label in any given plot, the RC point of the plot title is used to determine the label coordinates.
8.1. CONCATENATING LABELS

Figure 8.1: Labelling a plot using the \texttt{-h}, \texttt{-l}, and \texttt{-L} options. This plot was produced using the command

\begin{verbatim}
plt example9.data % -f example9.format
\end{verbatim}
This facility would be of little use if it were not possible to change the style used by `plt` for rendering the text of labels. This can be done using `fontgroup substitution`, as described in detail in chapter 11, beginning on page 11. In a nutshell, what you do is to describe the style you want in an extra argument that is enclosed in parentheses and that immediately follows the option name, as in:

```
-L (Ft-b-i,P20,Cmaroon) .5 .5 CC Marooned!
```

(This sets the label “Marooned!” in 20-point Times Bold Italic of an appropriate color.)

If you wish simply to concatenate labels, perhaps changing the font or text color, use `LC` as the text box coordinate for the second (and subsequent) labels, as in:

```
-L (Cblue,Fh) .4 .7 CC Hello,
-L (Cgreen,Fh-o) -- LC " World!"
```

These commands produce a blue Helvetica “Hello,” centered on window coordinates (.4,.7) followed by a green Helvetica-Oblique “World!”.* Note that the entire string is not centered on (.4,.7); if you want to center a multi-part label you will need to do some experimentation. Also note the use of quotation marks to force the inclusion of the initial space before “World!”.

In the following example, Greek and Roman letters are mixed to produce the equation $y = A \sin(\omega t + \phi)$:

```
-L .3 .5 CC $y = A \sin($
-L (Fs) -- LC $\omega$
-L -- LC "$t + "$
-L (Fs) -- LC $f$
-L -- LC $)$
```

To create a subscript or superscript, use `LN` or `LB` respectively as the text box coordinate for the label containing the subscript or superscript, and use `LB` or `LN` to return to the original baseline afterwards. It is often effective to reduce the point size of superscripts and subscripts, as in this example, which produces $y = x^\alpha + x_0 \beta$:

```
L .6 .3 LC $y = x$
-L (Fs,P*.8) -- LB $a$
-L -- LN "$ + x$"
-L (P*.8) -- LN $0$
-L (Fs) -- LB $b$
```

The same effects are possible in a vertical label, as in this example:
8.1. CONCATENATING LABELS

Figure 8.2: Labels with superscripts and font changes

\[ y = \cos^2(q) \]

See figure 8.2 for examples of this technique. This figure was created using the command:
```
plt cos2.data 0 1 -f labels.format
```
where `cos2.data` was created using this program fragment:
```
for (i = -180; i <= 180; i += 5) {
    c = cos(M_PI*i/180.0);
    printf("\%d %g\n", i, c*c);
}
```
and `labels.format` contains:
```
v1 .6 .5 LC 1 -
y = x
v1 (Ps,P*.8) -- LB 1 - a
v1 -- LN 1 -
  + x
v1 (P*.8) -- LN 1 -
0
v1 (Fs) -- LB 1 - b
```
Another way to create subscripts and superscripts is to specify an appropriate $y$ or $y\prime$ while omitting the x coordinate (for horizontal labels). Some experimentation may be needed to achieve the desired results.

These methods cannot be used directly to concatenate text in axis labels. If you need to do this, suppress plt’s standard axis label, either by supplying an empty string as the argument for $-x$ or $-y$, or by using the appropriate $-s$ option (see chapter 10); then create your own axis label using the options described above.
Chapter 9

Drawing Line Segments, Arrows, and Boxes

Well-chosen annotations can make a good plot better. In the previous chapter, we saw how labels can be placed anywhere on a plot, using either data or window coordinates. `plt` also allows you to draw arbitrary line segments, arrows, and boxes on your plot.

Use the `–C` and `–c` (connect) options to draw arbitrary line segments, as follows:

```
–C xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1
–c x0 y0 x1 y1
```

These options connect the two points specified by their arguments with a line segment. The `–C` option connects the points with window coordinates \((xw0, yw0)\) and \((xw1, yw1)\). The `–c` option connects the points with data coordinates \((x0, y0)\) and \((x1, y1)\).

The `–A` and `–a` (arrow) options work in the same way as `–C` and `–c`, respectively, but they also draw an arrowhead pointing toward the first specified point, \((xw0, yw0)\) or \((x0, y0)\):

```
–A xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1
–a x0 y0 x1 y1
```

Note that the size of the arrowhead is determined by the specified point size in the figure (`f`) font group, or in local override instructions (see figure 11.4).

The `–B` and `–b` (box) options similarly accept arguments specifying two points, but in this case the points are diagonally opposite corners of a box (rectangle) that is to be drawn:

```
–B xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1
–b x0 y0 x1 y1
```

The `–D` and `–d` (dark box) options work in the same way as `–B` and `–b` respectively, but boxes drawn when using these options are filled. The filling is black by default, but
How to Hack

Figure 9.1: Line segments, arrows, and boxes

may be changed by setting the grey level or color in the \( f \) (figure) font group (see figure 11.5).

\[-d \ xw0 \ yw0 \ xw1 \ yw1\]
\[-d \ x0 \ y0 \ x1 \ y1\]

Remember that in each case, as with \(-L\) and \(-l\), the upper case version of the option takes window coordinates, and the lower case version takes data coordinates.

These options are illustrated in figure 9.1, which was produced using the command:

```
plt -f flowchart.format
```

where the format file, `flowchart.format`, contains:
The \texttt{-s} option, used in this example to suppress the axes, is described in the next chapter. The \texttt{-sf} option, used to set the default characteristics for the figures and labels in the example, is discussed in chapter 11, beginning on page 73.
Chapter 10

Suppressing Plot Elements

The \(-s\) option allows you to suppress (i.e., to avoid drawing) selected features of your plots. The sub-options following \(-s\) specify which elements to suppress. The sub-options are as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
e & \quad \text{don’t begin a new page (erase screen) before plotting} \\
a & \quad \text{suppress anything associated with axes} \\
x & \quad \text{suppress anything associated with the x axis} \\
y & \quad \text{suppress anything associated with the y axis} \\
g & \quad \text{suppress the grid} \\
m & \quad \text{suppress x axis and y axis tick marks} \\
n & \quad \text{suppress x axis and y axis tick mark numbers} \\
t & \quad \text{suppress titles for x axis, y axis, and graph} \\
l & \quad \text{suppress user-supplied labels (\(-hl\), \(-vl\), \(-l\), and \(-L\) options)} \\
p & \quad \text{suppress all data plotting} \\
f & \quad \text{suppress all “figures” (boxes, line segments, arrows, and legends)} \\
c & \quad \text{enable all plot features (undo effects of previous \(-s\) sub-options)} \\
x & \quad \text{subsequent \(-s\) sub-options apply only to the x axis} \\
y & \quad \text{subsequent \(-s\) sub-options apply only to the y axis} \\
a & \quad \text{subsequent \(-s\) sub-options apply to both axes (default)}
\end{align*}
\]

Two or more sub-options can be grouped, as in:

\[-s \text{ eg} \]

By default, data points that fall outside of the axis limits are suppressed. If any data points are not plotted for this reason, \texttt{plt} produces a warning message indicating the number of points that were excluded from the plot. The \(-\text{ex}\) option overrides this behavior:

\[-\text{ex} \quad \text{Use this option to ensure that all data points that fall on the page will be plotted.}\]
Chapter 11

Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts

The user can separately control how text and line segments are rendered in five different contexts: axes and their numbering (a), figures (lines, boxes, and arrows, f), labels (l), data plots (p), axis and graph titles (t), and all of these at once (all). The contexts (a, f, l, p, and t) are the five predefined font groups. The table below matches each of the predefined font groups with the plt options having related outputs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Font Group</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>xa, ya, X, Y (axes and numbering)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>A, a, B, b, C, c, D, d, l, l, lp (figures and legends)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>L, l, h, v, h (labels)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>p and sub-options (data plots)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>x, y, t (titles)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A font group is defined by the following six parameters:

- **F** font name (see figure 11.1), one of:
  - courier
  - helvetica
  - times
  - courier-bold
  - helvetica-bold
  - times-bold
  - courier-oblique
  - helvetica-oblique
  - times-italic
  - courier-bold-oblique
  - helvetica-bold-oblique
  - times-bold-italic

- **P** point size (an integer \( \geq 0 \); 12 or 14 are normal point sizes)

- **C** color (see appendix A, Color Names, beginning on page 91)

- **G** grey level (see figure 11.2); the grey level can be between 0.0 (black) and 1.0 (white)
Using fonts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Font Style</th>
<th>Font Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courier</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courier Bold</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courier Oblique</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courier Bold Oblique</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helvetica</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helvetica Bold</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helvetica Oblique</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helvetica Bold Oblique</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times Bold</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times Italic</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times Bold Italic</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ ~!@#$%^&amp;*()_+{}: &lt;&gt;?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11.1: Samples of available fonts

\[ W \] line width (an integer \( \geq 0 \)); a normal line width is 3 or 4. By convention, a line width of 0 produces the narrowest possible line; on some high-resolution devices, such lines may not be visible, however. See figure 11.2.

\[ L \] line style (see figure 11.2); select from the following using either the number (0-4) or the one-word name:

- 0 solid
- 1 dotted
- 2 shortdashed
- 3 dotdashed
- 4 longdashed

Use the \(-sf\) option to define a font group or to modify the parameters of a predefined font group:

\[-sf \text{fontgroup specs} ...\]
Figure 11.2: Line widths and styles, and grey levels. On very high resolution output devices, lines rendered with zero width (W0) may not be visible; a safer choice for a thin line is (W1). On older PostScript printers, however, zero-width lines are usually visible because resolution is not too high, and they often are rendered much faster than lines of any other width. Note that grey levels can also be specified using colors; for example, the font group specification (Cgrey45) is equivalent to (G.45).
The fontgroup argument is the name of the font group; this can be one of a, f, l, p, or t, or you can specify any other name you choose for a custom font group. The specs arguments can include any of the parameter names F, P, C, G, W, or L, followed immediately by the value to be given to the parameter; separate parameters with commas. For example, the following specifies that titles should be shown using 18-point Times Bold Oblique:

\[-sf t Ft-b-o,P18\]

Before it produces any output, plt scans the entire command line (and the format file, if -f is used) for font group definitions made using -sf. Thus the position of -sf among the other options makes no difference to the final result.

Fontgroup substitution can be used to make plt use any desired fontgroup to control the appearance of any desired element. Although each plt option that renders text or graphics has an associated font group that normally determines its appearance, any other font group can take on this function if you substitute it by naming it when using the option. For most plt options, do this by supplying the font group’s name in parentheses immediately after the option, as in these examples:

\[-B "(p)" .1 .1 .3 .5\]
\[-L "(t)" .6 .4 CB "Group A (n=25)"\]

(The quotation marks should be omitted within a format file; they are needed on the command line to protect the parentheses from the shell.) When using fontgroup substitution after a -p option, however, the font group name should follow the plotstyle specification, as in:

\[-p "0,1triangle(t)"\]

Even more flexibility is possible using transient fontgroup modifications. These can be performed using the same syntax as for fontgroup substitutions, except that what goes inside the parentheses is a list of fontgroup parameters, for example:

\[-D "(Cmagenta)" .1 .6 .2 .7\]
\[-p "0,ln(W3,Ldashed)"\]

Transient fontgroup modifications apply only to the option in which they are defined.

In addition to absolute parameter values, as above, relative parameter values may be supplied in a font group specification. Relative parameter values are given in the form \(<op> N\), where \(op\) is one of the arithmetic operators (+, -, *, or /) and \(N\) is the amount by which the previous value of the parameter is to be increased, decreased, multiplied, or divided respectively. For example, \(W*2\) doubles the previous line width.
Figure 11.3: This example illustrates the effects of fontgroup redefinitions and substitutions, transient fontgroup modifications, and the use of relative parameter values in fontgroup specifications. See the main text for details.

Figure 11.3 was created using:

```
plt example14.data -f fontgroup.format
```

The data file, example14.data, contains 21 samples of a noisy sinusoid. The format file, fontgroup.format, contains:

* Data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (seconds)</th>
<th>Amplitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>-0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>-1.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>-0.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>-0.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>-0.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>-0.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>0.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>-0.470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>-0.964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>-0.830</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# The entire format file is scanned for "sf" options before anything is rendered, so the x axis title is rendered in the font specified by the "sf t" option below.

x Time (seconds)

# Specify black 24-point Helvetica Bold for the "t" fontgroup. Although black is the default color, it needs to be specified explicitly (see below).

sf t Fh-b,P24,Cblack

# Specify red for the "p" fontgroup.

sf p Cred

# Here, a transient fontgroup modification (P/2) overrides the previously defined point size setting for the "t" font, so that the y axis title is rendered half as large as the (unscaled) x axis title.

y (P/2) Amplitude

# As shown in the previous line, if the argument following an option begins with "(" , it is interpreted as a local fontgroup spec. In order to use a string beginning with "(" as a string argument, it is necessary to quote it:

# "(Noisy) Sinusoid"

Note that this title is rendered in 24-point type; the effect of the local spec used earlier is limited to the line on which it appeared.

# Here, we make two plots, first a normal plot using the "p" fontgroup (in red), then a scatter plot using triangles. The effect of the "(t)" is to specify that the "t" fontgroup must be used for the second plot; thus the triangles are black, not red, and are sized to match the 24-point type of fontgroup "t".

p 0,ln(p) 0,1Triangle(t)

# If, however, the color had not been specified explicitly for fontgroup "t" , plt would not change the color between plots, and the triangles would be rendered in red.
Figure 11.4: Font groups have been redefined to create many of the special effects in this example. See the main text for details.
Figure 11.4 shows several more complex uses of different font groups. This figure was produced using the command:

```bash
plt example14.data % -f example14.format
```

using the same data file as in the previous example. The format file, `example14.format`, contains:

```plaintext
# Set font and point size for font group "l" (labels).
sf l Fs,P20

# Define two custom font groups, "fontgroup1" and "fontgroup2".
sf fontgroup1 W40,G.2
sf fontgroup2 Ph-b,P30,G.8

# Plot the data three times, first with a broad dark line,
# then with a medium light line, finally with open diamonds
# (symbol 2).
p 0,1n(fontgroup1) 0,1n(W10,G.8) 0,1S2

# Print the plot title.
t (fontgroup2) This is an example

# Local specifications are given below for the x and y axis
# titles. These would override defaults for the predefined
# title (-sf t ...) font group had any been set.
x (Fc-o,P15) This is the x axis
y (Fc,P6) This is the y axis

# The label uses font group l defaults set above unless local
# instructions are given. The choice of font "s" (Symbol)
# above means that the Roman letters in the label string are
# rendered as Greek letters on the plot.
L .1 .87 - l + g

# Set y axis parameters. By specifying the crossing point at
# x = -10, we place the y axis away from the data at x=0, and
# the axes do not actually touch each other.
ya -2 2 - - 2 -10
```

[example14.format continues on the next page]
# Construct the legend (key). The final argument (.1) of the
# lp option lengthens the sample plot segment to 10% of the x
# axis length. Three entries are overlaid on line 0 of the
# legend in order to construct a sample plot segment with the
# same appearance as in the data plot.
lp .65 .15 1.05 .1
le 0 0 dummy data
le 0 1
le 0 2

# Draw an arrow, using local specifications for the point size
# (determines the size of the arrowhead), grey level, and line
# width.
a (P30,G.6,W30) 30 -1.3 50 -1.7

# Label the arrow, overriding the default font so that the
# label is printed using Roman rather than Greek characters.
l (Ft) 50 -1.8 - arrow

# Demonstrate line segment drawing using local specifications.
# First draw a broad black line segment, then a narrow white
# line segment over the first.
c (W100,G0) 0 1.8 100 1.8
c (W2,G.99) 0 1.8 100 1.8
Figure 11.5 illustrates how plt can be used to produce plots in color. This plot was created using the command:

```
plt -f colors.format
```

The file `colors.format` contains:

```
X 0 1
Y 0 1
sf a CSkyBlue
sf red Cred
sf green Cgreen
sf blue Cblue
sf PapayaWhip CPapayaWhip
sf coral Ccoral
sf yellow Cyellow
sf custom1 C#007f00
sf custom2 C#cc007f
sf custom3 C#101010
sf white Fh-b Cwhite
sf black Fh Cblack
D (red) .1 .8 .3 1.0
L (white) .2 .9 CC red
D (green) .4 .8 .6 1.0
L (white) .5 .9 CC green
D (blue) .7 .8 .9 1.0
L (white) .8 .9 CC blue
D (PapayaWhip) .1 .5 .3 .7
L (black) .2 .6 CC PapayaWhip
D (coral) .4 .5 .6 .7
L (white) .5 .6 CC coral
D (yellow) .7 .5 .9 .7
L (black) .8 .6 CC yellow
D (custom1) .1 .2 .3 .4
L (white) .2 .3 CC #007f00
D (custom2) .4 .2 .6 .4
L (white) .5 .3 CC #cc007f
D (custom3) .7 .2 .9 .4
L (white) .8 .3 CC #101010
x (green) x axis
y (red) y axis
t (blue) Plotting in color
```

See appendix A, *Color Names*, beginning on page 91), for details on specifying arbitrary colors, and for a complete list of predefined colors.
Figure 11.5: The color blocks are drawn using the −D (dark box) option. See the main text for details.
Chapter 12

Advanced Axis Options

This chapter introduces more options for manipulating and labelling your axes, to provide fine control over the appearance of your plots.

- **l\textsubscript{x} base subticks**

- **l\textsubscript{y} base subticks** Use these options to create logarithmic x and y axes; \textit{base} is the base of the logarithms (default: 10), and \textit{subticks} is either \texttt{yes} or \texttt{no}. If the axis has a small number of major ticks, \texttt{plt} draws subticks by default; use the \texttt{subticks} argument to change \texttt{plt}'s default behavior.

  The -\texttt{l}\textsubscript{x} and -\texttt{l}\textsubscript{y} options affect only how the axes are drawn; \texttt{plt} does not log-transform the input data, so you must provide the logarithms of the data to be plotted. Note that \texttt{base} does not have to be numeric; for example, "-\texttt{l}\textsubscript{x} e" will cause \texttt{plt} to draw a logarithmic x-axis with ticks labelled \(e^0\), \(e^1\), \(e^2\), ... (or other integer powers of \(e\) as appropriate for the range of abscissas).

- **xe xmin-error xmax-error**

- **ye ymin-error ymax-error** These options can be used to set the amounts by which the axis ranges are allowed to exceed the ranges of the data when \texttt{plt} determines the axis ranges automatically.

- **xm tick-base**

- **ym tick-base** Make axis ticks a multiple of the specified \textit{tick-base}.

- **x\textsubscript{o} x-axis-offset**

- **y\textsubscript{o} y-axis-offset** These options allow the axes to be moved from their default positions; they are particularly useful if data would otherwise be obscured by axis markings. The -\texttt{x}\textsubscript{o} option moves the x axis down by \textit{x-axis-offset}, which is expressed as a fraction of the y axis length; the -\texttt{y}\textsubscript{o} option moves the y axis left by \textit{y-axis-offset}, which is a fraction of the x axis length (see figure 11.4).
CHAPTER 12. ADVANCED AXIS OPTIONS

-yr Use these options to plot the x axis at the top of the plot, or the y axis on the right side of the plot.

-xt x label tick-size

-yt y label tick-size These options add an extra labelled tick at the specified x or y position on the corresponding axis. label can be any string; if omitted, the label is x or y, formatted in the same way as the other labelled axis ticks. tick-size specifies the length of the tick, as a multiple of the default length for labelled ticks; if omitted, tick-size is 1. Use a negative tick-size to change the direction of the tick and the placement of the label (the result depends also on the grid-mode; see -g below).

-xts x tick-size

-yts y tick-size Use these options to force a labelled tick to be placed at the specified x or y positions on the axes, and to multiply the lengths of all ticks on the corresponding axis by the factor tick-size (other than any extra ticks generated using -xt or -yt). Use a negative tick-size to change the direction of the tick and the placement of the labels (the result depends also on the grid-mode; see -g below).

-g grid-mode ... The -g option accepts one or more grid-mode specifiers, which define how to create a grid. Note that if more than one grid-mode is supplied, they must be surrounded by quotes or separated by commas, because -g takes only one string as its argument. The defined grid-modes are:

   in   puts ticks inside the grid
   out  puts ticks outside the grid (default)
   both puts ticks inside and outside the grid
   none suppresses ticks
   sym  make symmetric axes (at top and right)
   grid make a full grid (extend major ticks across the entire plot)
   xgrid extend major x axis ticks across the entire plot
   ygrid extend major y axis ticks across the entire plot
   sub  make a fine grid (extend all ticks across the entire plot)

Figure 12.1 demonstrates several of these options, featuring logarithmic axes and a variety of grid modes. The data file, ldemo.data, is included in the doc directory of the plt distribution (see appendix F).

As a final example, figure 12.2 demonstrates use of the O plotstyle, the -yo option for shifting the y axis to the left, the -xts option to create an extra labelled tick mark, the -size option (see appendix B), relative parameter values in transient fontgroup specifications, overlays, and multiple plot windows. The figure was created using the following commands:
Figure 12.1: This example demonstrates several of the advanced axis options. It was produced using these commands:

```
plt -wq 0 -t"THE TITLE FOR THE ENTIRE GRAPH GOES HERE"
plt ldemo.data 2 3 -wqs 1 -lx -g in -t"LPF: Log Freq & Ticks in"
plt ldemo.data 4 5 -wqs 4 -lx -ly -g both -t"LPF: Log Freq & Ampl"
plt ldemo.data 0 1 -wqs 3 -lx e -g out -t"Alternate base & Ticks out"
plt ldemo.data 6 7 -wqs 2 -lx -ly - yes \ 
- g grid, sym, out - t"Log axes with grid"
```
The data file, `power.data`, is included in the `doc` directory of the `plt` distribution (see appendix F).
Figure 12.2: A complex plot (see text).
Appendix A

Color Names

Colors can be specified as hexadecimal triplets, in the form \#rrggbb, where \textit{rr}, \textit{gg}, and \textit{bb} are the red, green, and blue components respectively. Thus, for example, \#0000ff is fully saturated blue, \#000080 is dark blue, and \#ffff00 is bright yellow (100% red + 100% green).

Alternatively, named colors from the X11R6 color database can be used to specify a color. Note that case is not significant in color names (\textit{blue}, \textit{Blue}, \textit{BLUE}, and \textit{bLuE} are all acceptable names for the same color). These named colors are available for either X11 or PostScript plots:

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<td>FloralWhite</td>
<td>OldLace</td>
<td>VioletRed3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ForestGreen</td>
<td>OliveDrab</td>
<td>VioletRed4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gainsboro</td>
<td>OliveDrab1</td>
<td>wheat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GhostWhite</td>
<td>OliveDrab2</td>
<td>wheat1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold</td>
<td>OliveDrab3</td>
<td>wheat2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold1</td>
<td>OliveDrab4</td>
<td>wheat3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold2</td>
<td>orange</td>
<td>wheat4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold3</td>
<td>orange1</td>
<td>white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold4</td>
<td>orange2</td>
<td>WhiteSmoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goldenrod</td>
<td>orange3</td>
<td>yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goldenrod1</td>
<td>orange4</td>
<td>yellow1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goldenrod2</td>
<td>OrangeRed</td>
<td>yellow2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goldenrod3</td>
<td>OrangeRed1</td>
<td>yellow3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goldenrod4</td>
<td>OrangeRed2</td>
<td>yellow4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gray</td>
<td>OrangeRed3</td>
<td>YellowGreen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>OrangeRed4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, 101 shades of grey can be specified using grey0 or gray0 (black) through grey100 or gray100 (white).

When producing Postscript plots, plt supplies the translation from color names to RGB values, so the names above are always available. When producing X11 plots, however, the X server performs the translation; thus, if you are using an old or nonstandard X server, it is possible that a different set of color names may be recognized by the server. If you encounter problems, look for the file rgb.h in the
directory that contains `.h` files associated with the X11 libraries; this file will contain the color name database for your X server.
Appendix B

Preparing Printed Output

As illustrated throughout this book, plt can generate high-quality printed output, as well as EPS (encapsulated PostScript) files that can be included in \LaTeX and other documents.

plt does not include drivers for non-PostScript printers. If your printer does not accept PostScript, however, you may be able to convert plt’s PostScript output to your printer’s printer language using ghostscript (a high-quality PostScript interpreter freely available from http://www.ghostscript.com/). ghostscript supports a wide variety of popular laser, ink-jet, and dot matrix printers, and can also convert PostScript into many popular image formats, including PNG, JPEG, TIFF (including fax formats), and PDF.

To understand how to make printed plots, a brief overview of how plt generates PostScript output may be helpful. plt itself is a shell script that invokes a device-specific driver. Currently, these drivers are xplt, which draws into an X window created using xpltwin, and lwplt, which creates PostScript output. (The name lwplt comes from the Apple LaserWriter, which was the first commercially available PostScript printer.) Typically, you must use a command such as:

```
plt -T lw ... | lwcat -ps >plt-output.ps
```

to generate a complete PostScript file (in this example, plt-output.ps) suitable for printing. The use of the “-T lw” option selects the lwplt driver. (Some users prefer to select the driver by setting the PTERM environment variable rather than by a command-line option. Use whatever method you prefer.) The postprocessor, lwcat, is a shell script included with the plt package that appends its standard input (in this case, the output of (lw)plt) to a prolog file that contains definitions for the PostScript procedures used by lwplt. The name of the prolog file, usually /usr/lib/ps/-plt.pro, is specified by the PROLOG variable set near the beginning of lwcat.

If you wish to print the output immediately, you may omit the -ps option and the output redirection from the lwcat command:

```
plt -T lw ... | lwcat
```
In this simplified version, the plot is immediately sent to the print spooler for printing (under Unix, GNU/Linux, or Mac OS X).

`lwcat` offers several other options:

- `-no` spool the output, but don’t eject the page (use this option if you wish to overlay the output with additional material produced by another program, such as `troff`)
- `-psv` collect Postscript in a temporary file and view with `gv` (`ghostscript`)
- `-gv` same as `-psv` (default if run from a Cygwin/bash window under MS-Windows)
- `-eps` write EPSF (encapsulated PostScript format) to the standard output (do not spool)
- `-pdf` write PDF to the standard output (see appendix C)
- `-png` write PNG to the standard output (see appendix C)

Note that the output produced using `-eps` is only a close approximation to EPSF; it is acceptable to \LaTeX{}’s `epsfig` package, at least.

By default, the output appears within a 6.75x6 inch window, the lower left corner of which is positioned 1 inch from the left edge and 3.5 inches from the bottom edge of the page. Additional `lwcat` options may be used to modify the size and location of the output:

- `-landscape` use landscape mode (rotate plot 90 degrees counterclockwise)
- `-sq` plot in a 6x6 inch window, 1.25 inches from the left edge and 3.5 inches from the bottom edge
- `-t` plot in a 6.25x6.25 inch window, positioned as for `-sq`
- `-t2` plot in a 6.25x4 inch window, positioned as for `-sq`
- `-cinC` plot in a 4.75x3.15 inch window, positioned as for `-sq`
- `-sq2` plot in a 4.5x5.5 inch window, 2.5 inches from the left and bottom edges
- `-v` plot in a 7x9.5 inch window, 0.75 inches from the left and bottom edges
- `-v2` plot in a 7x8.5 inch window, positioned as for `-v`
- `-va4` plot in a 190x275 mm window, centered on an A4 sheet

Note the `-landscape` option changes the orientation of the plot, and not that of the plot window. Thus, for example, to print a landscape-format plot that covers the largest possible area on an 8.5x11 inch page, use both `-landscape` and `-v`; to cover the largest possible area on an A4 page with a landscape-format plot, use `-landscape` and `-va4`.

If none of these plot window sizes is what you want, there are several ways to define a custom plotting window for PostScript output:

1. Use `plt`’s `-w` or `-w` options, described earlier. (This is the only solution that works for screen plots as well as PostScript plots.)
2. Use plt’s -size option. This option is effective only when making a PostScript plot.

    -size fscl width height left-margin bottom-margin

The fscl argument is a factor applied to the point sizes for all font groups, and is independent of the scaling applied to the plot. Thus, if fscl is 1, all text appears at the point sizes specified in the font group definitions, or the defaults. As another example, if fscl is 0.5, and the point size for the title font group is 20, the title text will be printed in 10 point type.

The width, height, left-margin, and bottom-margin arguments are all given in units of inches (1 inch = 25.4 mm), and with reference to a portrait-format page (i.e., with the long edge vertical).

Note that plt’s -size option is intended to be used instead of lwcat’s window definition options; if both are used, the -size option has no effect.

3. Define and export the environment variables WDEF or LDEF before invoking lwcat. WDEF is a string containing 5 numbers separated by spaces. The first number is a font scaling factor, defined as for plt’s -size option. The next two numbers are the x and y coordinates (in inches) of the lower left corner of the window, and the last two numbers are the x and y coordinates of the upper right corner. LDEF is defined similarly, but is used only in combination with -landscape; see the lwcat source for details.

4. Customize lwcat, following the models of the existing window definitions. Other window options can be easily added by adding additional WDEF and LDEF settings as described in comments within lwcat.

By default, lwcat prints a single copy of the plt output. Multiple copies can be produced using the options -c2, -c3, -c4, -c5, or -c6; this will almost always be much faster than rerunning lwcat, since the PostScript is downloaded and rasterized only once when using these options. To print more than 6 copies, repeat or combine these options as needed, e.g., to print ten copies, use lwcat -c4 -c6 ... (or lwcat -c5 -c5, etc.)

B.1 Generating EPSF using plt

To make plt produce an EPSF file suitable for inclusion in a LATEX document, simply pipe the output of plt to lwcat -eps, adding any other plt or lwplt options you wish, and capture the output of lwcat in a file with the suffix .ps (this suffix is required by LATEX’s epsfig package). Note that lwcat’s -cN options are ignored when generating EPSF.

You may wish to print a “proof” copy of your plt figure. To do so, simply print the .ps file, for example, using the command

```
 lpr file.ps
```
B.2 Including \texttt{plt} figures in a \LaTeX document

To create a \LaTeX document that includes \texttt{plt} figures, insert the line

\begin{verbatim}
\usepackage{epsfig}
\end{verbatim}

at the top of the \LaTeX source file, after the \texttt{\documentclass} statement.

Figure B.1 was generated using \texttt{plt -T lw ... | lwcat -eps > fig.ps}, and was included in this document using the commands

\begin{verbatim}
\begin{figure}
\begin{center}
\epsfig{file=fig}
\caption{File \texttt{\(fig.ps\)}, ....}
\end{center}
\end{figure}
\end{verbatim}

There is a problem here, because the figure doesn’t fit between the \LaTeX margins. Both the figure and the first line of this caption are inside a \texttt{center} environment, but the figure begins at the left margin. (There are empty areas at both the left and right edges of the figure.) The caption is properly centered between the margins, but is not centered with respect to the figure.

Figure B.1 was drawn in its “natural size”, and appears at the same scale (though not at the same location on the page) as it would appear if \texttt{fig.ps} were printed by itself. Figure B.2 is also drawn from \texttt{fig.ps}, but it has been centered and scaled using the commands

\begin{verbatim}
\begin{figure}[h]
\begin{center}
\epsfig{file=fig,height=10cm}
\caption{This figure ....}
\end{center}
\end{figure}
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{epsfig} package allows a great deal of control over characteristics such as the aspect ratio (height and width may be scaled independently), the orientation, and the bounding box of the figure (which indirectly determines the amount of white space surrounding it). Figure B.3 illustrates how this can be done, using the commands

\begin{verbatim}
\begin{figure}
\begin{center}
\epsfig{file=fig,height=8cm,width=12cm,angle=90}
\caption{A rescaled, stretched, and rotated figure.}
\end{center}
\end{figure}
\end{verbatim}
Figure B.1: File fig.ps, created using plt and included here using epsfig.
Figure B.2: This figure was also produced from fig.ps, but has been rescaled to a height of 10 cm. Note that this caption is right-justified, since it appears outside of the center environment, unlike the caption in figure B.1.

B.3 Margins, cropping, and bounding boxes

Every PostScript file included in a \LaTeX{} document must have a defined bounding box. Normally, the bounding box is defined using a structured comment at the beginning of the PostScript file. For example, the PostScript source for the figures shown above begins like this:

```
%!PS-Adobe-3.0
%%BoundingBox: 90 252 540 684
```

In some cases, you may need to redefine the bounding box, either to adjust the amount of white space surrounding the figure or to crop your figure by selecting a clipping region. You may do so either by editing the PostScript file or in the \LaTeX{} source file. Any bounding box definitions in the \LaTeX{} source override those in the PostScript file. For details, see section 11.3, “Merging Text and PostScript Graphics”, in The \LaTeX{} Companion, pp. 317–320.
Figure B.3: A rescaled, stretched, and rotated figure.
An easy way to determine the correct bounding box is to view your figure using ghostview. Move the mouse pointer to the lower left corner of the figure and note the coordinates (displayed by ghostview immediately above the File button); these are the first two numbers in the BoundingBox line. Now move the mouse pointer to the upper right corner of the figure; the coordinates displayed are the last two numbers in the BoundingBox line.

Using this technique, we can find a bounding box for the upper left panel in fig.ps. To plot that panel only, as shown here:

\begin{center}
\epsfig{file=fig,height=6cm,bbllx=100,bblly=425,bburx=300,bbury=625,clip=}
\end{center}

(This plot does not “float” within the text, since it was not put into a figure environment; rather, it appears in the same place in the output as in the \LaTeX source file.) Note that the “=” is required in the clip= option, although no value follows the “=”.

In some cases, plt does not respect its own window definitions and may plot elements that fall outside of the bounding box. These elements will appear in the \LaTeX output unless you choose to suppress them using the clip= option. Such elements are usually close to the bounding box, and no special treatment is required.

\section*{B.4 Processing, previewing and printing}

\LaTeX documents with included plt figures can be processed, previewed, and printed without special treatment. Typically, your \LaTeX source file has a name of the form myfile.tex, and you use latex to produce a .dvi file:
Once you have a `.dvi` file, you can view it with `xdvi`, as in:

```
xdvi myfile
```

Recent versions of `xdvi` include a `View PS` button that toggles display of included PostScript figures. Note that some older versions of `xdvi` are not able to display rotated or anisotropically scaled plots.

Use `dvips` to create a printable PostScript file from the `.dvi` file:

```
dvips myfile
```

The PostScript file generated by `dvips` can be previewed using `gv` (under MS-Windows, GSView) or printed directly using `lpr`:

```
gv myfile.ps
lpr myfile.ps
```

## B.5 Using plt with pdf\LaTeX

Most of the techniques described in this chapter for preparing PostScript output from \LaTeX documents and `.eps` format `plt` figures will work without changes if you use `pdf\LaTeX` to prepare PDF output from \LaTeX documents and `.pdf` format `plt` figures. If you are creating figures specifically for inclusion in a PDF document, use a command of the form

```
plt -T lw ... | lwcat -pdf > fig.pdf
```

to make a PDF figure. If you have already generated a PostScript figure, use a command such as

```
epstopdf fig.ps
```

to make `fig.pdf` from an existing `fig.ps`. (`epstopdf` is freely available from CTAN,\footnote{http://www.ctan.org/} It is usually not necessary to make any changes to an existing \LaTeX source document in order to format it using `pdf\LaTeX`; thus, for example, your document should still use the `epsfig` package, even though your included figures will be in PDF rather than EPS format. When you specify the names of the figure files, always use the form

```
\epsfig{file=fig}
```

If you avoid writing `file=fig.ps` or `file=fig.pdf`, then the correct version of your figure will be chosen automatically when formatting your document with `latex` and `dvips` or with `pdflatex`.

The only feature of `epsfig` described in this appendix that is not currently supported by `pdf\LaTeX` is the `clip=` option, which is ignored. If you are reading the PDF version of this book, the figure in section B.3 illustrates the results; you should avoid using the `clip=` option if you anticipate using `pdf\LaTeX`.

Using `pdf\LaTeX` to format `myfile.tex` is a one-step process:
\texttt{pdflatex myfile}

Unless there are errors, this command should produce \texttt{myfile.pdf}, which can be viewed using \texttt{gv}, \texttt{xpdf}, Acrobat, or any other PDF reader.
Appendix C

Preparing Plots for the Web

Using the lwcat postprocessor described in appendix B, you can easily prepare plots in PDF or PNG format for publication on the Web. PNG format is one of only three graphics formats that are viewable by all current graphics-capable web browsers (the others are GIF, which produces inferior results and is proprietary, and JPEG, which is designed for continuous-tone photographs and is unsuitable for line drawings).

Unlike PNG, PDF is a vector format, so that PDF plots can be magnified to view fine detail. Both open-source and proprietary (but freely available) PDF viewer plugins are available for many web browsers, but not everyone has installed a PDF plugin, and viewing PDF images is usually noticeably slower (because of the overhead involved in loading the plugin and rasterizing the image) than viewing PNG images.

Use lwcat as described in the previous appendix, with the option -png or -pdf to write PNG or PDF format to the standard output. Usually you will wish to capture the file by redirecting the standard output, as in these examples:

```
plt -T lw ... | lwcat -png >output.png
plt -T lw ... | lwcat -pdf >output.pdf
```

To prepare PDF output, lwcat uses epstopdf (freely available from CTAN, http://www.ctan.org/), a perl script that translates the PostScript generated by plt using GhostScript, a free PostScript renderer that runs on a vast variety of operating systems. If you have followed the instructions for installing plt on your system, you should have GhostScript already; if not, get it from http://ghostscript-.com/. If you need perl, you can get it from CPAN, http://www.cpan.org/.

To prepare PNG output, lwcat uses pltpng, a tiny shell script included with plt. pltpng in turn uses convert, a utility included in ImageMagick, a free set of image-processing tools and libraries that also runs on all popular operating systems. Most GNU/Linux distributions include ImageMagick, which is also available for other versions of Unix as well as Mac OS X and MS-Windows; if you don’t have it already, get it from http://www.imagemagick.org/.

It’s easy to add support for generating any of the other image formats (over 90 of them, as of April 2005) supported by convert. Use pltpng as a model, and add an option for the desired format to lwcat.
Appendix D

On-Screen Plots

This appendix describes how to get additional control over on-screen plots made under the X Window System. The X Window System is a standard component of GNU/Linux and virtually all current versions of Unix, including Mac OS X. A high-quality implementation of X is freely available for MS-Windows (Cygwin/X, from http://www.cygwin.com/). If you are not using the X Window System, the features described here are not available; see appendix B for information about making PostScript plots that can be viewed or printed using GhostScript and gv or GSView.

Classic versions of plt also included screen drivers for a variety of (mostly obsolete) graphics terminals. These non-X screen drivers are available in the classic directory of the plt source distribution, but they lack support for some of the advanced features of plt; they are not described further in this book.

All of the features described in this book are available when using plt under the X Window System to make on-screen plots. (Classic versions of plt did not support text scaling and rotation, grey scale and color plotting, polygon fills, line width and style (dotted, dashed, etc.), opaque-center outline symbols, or progressive display in quickplot mode, all of which are now supported under X.)

In normal use, there is little you will need to know specifically about making screen plots; simply use plt as described throughout this book, and you will get screen plots unless you have selected PostScript output using the methods described in the previous appendix. Your plots will appear in a window named Plt Window, which you can dismiss by typing an escape character (or q, or x) into the window. If you don’t dismiss the plt window, your next plot will appear in the same window; if you use the -o or -s e option, the previous contents of the window will not be erased, and you will be able to overlay plots.

The plt window can be resized (using whatever controls your window manager provides, typically by clicking and dragging the window frame using the mouse), but its contents will not be rescaled; run plt again to obtain a plot sized to fit the window.

If you would like to create a new plt window while keeping an existing one intact, use the command:

```
xpltwin
```
You don’t need to run xpltwin to create the first plt window; plt looks to see if one exists and invokes xpltwin to create one if necessary. If two or more plt windows exist, plt draws into the most recently created one.

xpltwin accepts an optional geometry specification, using this syntax:

```
xpltwin -g widthxheight+-xoff+-yoff
```

The \(-g\) option accepts a geometry string (in the same format used by many other X applications) to specify the initial size of the window, and (if the window manager cooperates, which many do not) the window placement on the screen. The geometry string may also be specified as the value of the XPARMGEOMETRY environment variable; the command-line option overrides the environment variable if both are provided. If the geometry is unspecified, the window will fill one quarter of the screen, and will be centered on the screen if possible. The geometry string can also be saved as an X resource named xplt.geometry: you can save your preferred size in your .Xdefaults resource file by adding an entry such as:

```
xplt.geometry: 800x600
```

The resource is overridden by either the XPARMGEOMETRY environment variable or a command-line geometry string if either is set.

It is also possible to set the names of your preferred fonts in your .Xdefaults file. The defaults are:

```
xplt.font_h: "*-helvetica-medium-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_hb: "*-helvetica-bold-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_ho: "*-helvetica-medium-o-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_hbo: "*-helvetica-bold-o-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_c: "*-courier-medium-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_cob: "*-courier-medium-o-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_cbo: "*-courier-bold-o-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_cm: "*-courier-bold-o-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_t: "*-times-medium-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_tr: "*-times-medium-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_tb: "*-times-bold-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_tbi: "*-times-bold-i-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_tib: "*-times-bold-i-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
xplt.font_s: "*-symbol-medium-r-*-%-d-***-***-***-*-*-*"
```

The final part of the resource name (e.g., tbi in xplt.font_tbi) indicates the font name as supplied in the \(F\) parameter of the \(-sf\) option, such as t-b-i in this example. The values attached to these names should normally be scalable font names, but with \%d at the position that corresponds to the font size. You can use non-scalable fonts, or you can force a scalable font to be used only at one size by providing font
names without \%d. Use the xfontsel or xlsfonts utilities provided with most versions of the X Window System to see what fonts are available on your system.

The plt window can be given a name other than Plt Window by setting the value of the environment variable XPLTWIN to the name you have chosen. For example, using the Bourne or a similar shell, you can create a window named “Power Spectrum” and plot into it using these commands:

```
XPLTWIN="Power Spectrum"
export XPLTWIN
plt spectrum.data 0 1 -f spectrum.format
```

If you use csh or a similar shell, use

```
setenv XPLTWIN "Power Spectrum"
```

instead of the “XPLTWIN=...” and “export XPLTWIN” commands above.

By giving multiple plt windows different names and then changing the value of XPLTWIN, you can redirect successive plots to any of these windows in any order.
Appendix E

Scripting with plt

Using shell scripts (batch files), it is possible to automate the process of making many similar plots using plt. This appendix briefly illustrates how plt can be used in scripts. General techniques for writing shell scripts are well beyond the scope of this book. (There are other books devoted to this subject; choose one that describes your shell, such as the O’Reilly book *Learning the bash shell*, by Newham and Rosenblatt. If you use MS-Windows, install the bash shell, included in the free Cygwin toolkit available from [http://www.cygwin.com/](http://www.cygwin.com/). If you don’t know what a shell is, begin by reading an introductory book on Unix or Linux.)

Often it is useful to preview a plot on-screen before (or instead of) producing a printed copy. Writing a script makes it easy to do this. For example, we might create a script named foo, to produce figure 7.5:

```
#! /bin/sh
plt $* -wm 0 -t "This is the main title for the plot"
plt $* example11.data 0 1 -wm 1 -t "Window 1"
```

The file foo containing this script should be put in a directory in your PATH, and should be marked as executable using the command:

```
chmod +x foo
```

When you run this script, any command-line arguments you give to foo are passed to plt (the shell replaces “$*” with these arguments). Thus the command “foo” runs plt with no arguments other than those listed above, but the command “foo -T lw” runs the same plt commands with the additional arguments “-T lw”. The output in the second case will be a stream of PostScript code; to print the plot, pipe the output to lwcat, as in:

```
foo -T lw | lwcat
```
plt provides the `-dev` option to allow you to specify options to be processed only if a specific device type is being used for output. The `-dev` option can be useful in scripts, since it permits you to choose different options for screen plots and printed plots (for example, you might want to use color in screen plots and shades of grey in printed plots). The syntax is:

```
-dev device "options ..."  The value of device can be either ""lw"" (for PostScript output) or ""xw"" (for X11 output). Following device should be a quoted string containing one or more options (with initial hyphens omitted, as in `-F` format strings). These options will have effect only if the same device is selected for output (by using `-T device` or by setting the value of the environment variable PTERM equal to device).
```

For example, consider this variant of the script above:

```
#! /bin/sh
plt $* -wm 0 -dev lw -t "This is the main title for the plot"
plt $* example11.data 0 1 -wm 1 -dev lw "sf p G.5" \
-dev xw "sf p Cred"
```

If this script is run without any arguments (or with the arguments "-T xw"), the plot appears in an X11 window with the data in red; if it is run with the arguments "-T lw", and the output is piped to lwcat, the plot is printed with the data in 50% grey.
Appendix F

How to get and install plt

The latest version of plt is available as a gzip-compressed tar archive from PhysioNet. Download

http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt.tar.gz

using your web browser.

F.1 Compiling plt under Linux or Unix

plt should be easy to compile and to run on any version of Unix (or Linux). You will need to have a working X Window System installation in order to compile xplt and to use it to make screen plots, but lwplt can be used without X (and it should be possible to compile it under any POSIX-compliant environment).

If you plan to use plt without X, you may wish to use GhostScript as a screen viewer for lwplt. GhostScript is a free PostScript renderer that runs on a vast variety of operating systems; get it from http://ghostscript.com/.

To install plt:

• If you have GNU tar, unpack the source archive using:

  tar xfvz plt.tar.gz

  Otherwise, if you have another version of tar, unpack it using:

  gzip -d plt.tar.gz
  tar xfv plt.tar

• You should now have a directory named plt, containing installation instructions in INSTALL and a set of sources in subdirectory src. Read and follow the instructions in INSTALL if they differ from those outlined here.

• Enter the plt directory: make any needed changes to the site-dependent variables in Makefile; compile the plt sources; and install the executables:
APPENDIX F. HOW TO GET AND INSTALL PLT

\begin{verbatim}
  cd plt/src
  make install
\end{verbatim}

You may need root permissions to do this successfully. If the \texttt{make} command fails, read the text file named \texttt{Makefile} in the \texttt{plt/src} directory to see how to proceed.

Add the directory in which \texttt{plt} has been installed (usually \texttt{/usr/local/bin}) to your \texttt{PATH} if necessary.

- To test the installation, try this:

\begin{verbatim}
  make xdemo
\end{verbatim}

If you have \texttt{gv} (included in most Linux distributions, and freely available from \url{http://wwwthep.physik.uni-mainz.de/plass/gv/}), you can see the same demonstration in PostScript format by typing:

\begin{verbatim}
  make psdemo
\end{verbatim}

- (Optional) If you wish to generate PNG images using \texttt{lwcat -png} (see appendix C), install ImageMagick (free download from \url{http://www.imagemagick.org/}) if you have not already done so. Most Linux distributions include ImageMagick already.

F.2 Compiling and Using \texttt{plt} under Mac OS X (Darwin)

\texttt{plt} has been successfully compiled under Mac OS X 10.3.9 (Darwin 7.9.0) and several earlier versions of Mac OS X.

You will need to obtain and install several packages of free software needed by \texttt{plt}. For those not available from Apple, we suggest using Fink (\url{http://fink.sourceforge.net/}), an easy-to-install collection of free Unix tools that have been ported to Mac OS X.

Before compiling \texttt{plt}, download and install:

- X11 for Mac OS X (included in current Mac OS X CD sets, or from \url{http://www.apple.com/downloads/macosx/apple/x11formacosx.html})

- Apple’s XCode developer tools, including the X11 SDK from XCode’s Packages folder (included in current Mac OS X CD sets, or from \url{http://developer.apple.com/tools/xcode/})

- \texttt{gv} (from Fink; sources from \url{http://wwwthep.physik.uni-mainz.de/plass/gv/} and \url{http://www.ghostscript.com/})

- ImageMagick (from Fink; sources from \url{http://www.imagemagick.org/})

Now follow the instructions above for Unix or Linux.
F.3 Compiling and Using \texttt{plt} under MS-Windows

It is possible without much trouble to compile and use \texttt{plt} under MS-Windows. Do not attempt to use a commercial C compiler for this purpose, however. The only C compiler that is known to work is Cygwin \texttt{gcc} (which is freely available from \url{http://www.cygwin.com/} and comes accompanied by a complete set of development tools and other utilities including GNU \texttt{tar}, \texttt{make}, \texttt{bash}, \texttt{cat}, \texttt{dd}, \texttt{rm}, and \texttt{tr}).

- Download and install Cygwin. In the Select Packages dialog, you will see a collapsed tree view of the numerous packages available. Click the View button once so that the indicator to its right changes from “Category” to “Full”. You may resize the dialog box as needed until the package names are visible. To select a package for installation, click on its rotating selector (in the New column) to cycle through the available choices until a version number appears. In most cases, you should choose the highest version number from among those that are available (this is usually the first alternative offered). Be sure to choose at least the following packages for installation:
  
  \begin{itemize}
    \item \texttt{bc} Needed by \texttt{pltf} for function plotting.
    \item \texttt{gcc} Needed to compile \texttt{plt}.
    \item \texttt{gv} Needed to preview PostScript plots
    \item \textit{ImageMagick} Needed to make PNG plots (for use on web pages, etc.)
    \item \texttt{make} Needed to install \texttt{plt}.
    \item \texttt{xorg-x11-devel} Needed to make screen plots
  \end{itemize}

- Download \texttt{plt.tar.gz} using your web browser.

- Open a Cygwin terminal emulator window (the Cygwin installation will have created a desktop icon for this) and perform the remaining steps by typing into it.

- Follow the instructions in the Linux or Unix section above for unpacking the compressed archive of \texttt{plt} sources (\texttt{plt.tar.gz}).

- Compile and install \texttt{plt} by typing:

  \begin{verbatim}
  make install
  \end{verbatim}

- To test the installation, start the X server (e.g., using \texttt{startx}) if it is not running already, and then (from an X terminal window) type:

  \begin{verbatim}
  make xdemo
  \end{verbatim}

  To test the PostScript driver, try this:

  \begin{verbatim}
  make psdemo
  \end{verbatim}
Appendix G

What’s New?

This appendix summarizes some of the changes that have been made in plt since 1999. It may be helpful to users who are familiar with earlier versions.

First, what has not changed: plt is almost completely compatible with previous versions. Scripts written for classic plt should continue to work without changes. The only exception is that, in classic plt, the default values of the window coordinates $xw$ and $yw$, used by the $-h1$, $-v1$, and $-L$ options, were .5 (corresponding to the center of the rectangle defined by the axes). These default values are now those of the RC point of the previous label.

This change was made so that labels can be concatenated (see chapter 8). This feature allows you to change fonts or use superscripts or subscripts within labels. The new text box coordinates $LN$, $CN$, and $RN$ are particularly useful for creating subscripts.

plt now runs on all popular platforms, with both X11 and PostScript output available under GNU/Linux, Mac OS X, MS-Windows, and Unix.

Perhaps the most obvious change is full support for all plt features in X11 (screen) plots. This includes control of line width and style (dotted, dashed, etc.); grey levels and colors, including polygon fills; and font selection, sizing, and rotation. Rendering rotated text is not supported directly by X11, and the method implemented in xplt is unavoidably slow; but it works! The X11 driver also now supports progressive display in quickplot mode (see page 31).

plt now has full color support in X11 and PostScript, and uses the X11R6 color name database (even under MS-Windows) to make it easy to create color plots that can be rendered on-screen or on paper without changes.

The low-level input functions used by plt have been reimplemented, with the result that empty lines and comments are now acceptable in text data files, and that most CSV (comma-separated value) format data files are now readable by plt. This work also fixed an old bug that caused the first row of a data file to be lost if plt received its input from a pipe.

Also new are lwcat’s $-png$ and $-pdf$ options for producing output that can be published on the Web in PDF and PNG formats (see appendix C).
G.1 Known bugs

Several minor bugs that were present in earlier versions of plt have been fixed. Those that have not yet been fixed are listed here; if you know of any others, or if you find any incompatibilities between the current version of plt and a classic version, please let me (george@mit.edu) know!

- Text scaling in xplt does not match that in lwplt, with the result that there can be minor differences in the size and spacing of plot labels when rendered on-screen and on paper.
- This bug list is probably incomplete!
Appendix H

man Pages for the plt Package

This appendix is based on the Unix-style man pages included in the plt package. If the man utility is available on your system (it is a standard component of GNU/Linux, Mac OS X, and Unix, and is also part of the Cygwin package for MS-Windows), you should be able to view this material at any time using the command “man plt” (or “man lwcat”, “man imageplt”, or “man pltf”).

plt

Name
plt - make 2-D plots

Synopsis
plt [ data-spec ][ data-file ][ [ xcol ] ycol ][ options ... ][ -T lw | lwcat[ lwcat-options ]]

Description
This man page is intended as a supplement to the command-line help provided by plt itself (using the -h option, see below). If you have not previously used plt, please look at the plt Tutorial and Cookbook, which is included in the plt package (see SOURCES below).

plt is a non-interactive (command line-driven) plotting utility. plt can produce publication-quality 2D plots in PostScript from easily-produced text or binary data files, and can also create screen plots under the X Window System.

All data presented to plt must be organized in rows and columns. Columns are numbered beginning with zero, and each column contains values for a variable that can be used as an abscissa (x coordinate), ordinate (y coordinate), or (with appropriate options described below) a grey level, color, or other plot attributes. Rows are numbered beginning with one, and each row contains a value for each column. Within a data-file,
values are always arranged in row-major order (all elements of row 1, followed by all elements of row 2, etc.).

Usually, data must be in text form in order for \texttt{plt} to read them. Each non-empty, non-comment line (row) in the input should contain a value for each column that will be plotted; any additional values or other extra text at the end of a row will be ignored. Columns can be separated by any number of spaces or tabs. Commas and single or double quotation marks can also be used as column separators with current versions of \texttt{plt}, though not with older versions. It is not necessary to line up the values in each row. There may also be spaces or tabs at the beginning of a line, and these will also be ignored.

If no \texttt{data-file} is specified, \texttt{plt} reads data from its standard input. The command-line arguments \texttt{xcol} and \texttt{ycol} specify the column numbers for the abscissas and ordinates respectively. If only one column number is specified, it is taken as \texttt{ycol}, and \texttt{plt} generates a series of abscissas automatically. If the \texttt{data-file} contains no more than two columns, both \texttt{xcol} and \texttt{ycol} may be omitted.

By default, \texttt{plt} reads all rows of the \texttt{data-file} and scales the x and y axes so that all data can be plotted. An optional \texttt{data-spec}, a string beginning with a colon (:), can be used to select a subset of the rows in the \texttt{data-file}. For details on using a \texttt{data-spec}, and for information about reading binary data files using \texttt{plt}, see the \texttt{plt Tutorial and Cookbook}.

\texttt{plt} recognizes a large number of \texttt{options} for controlling and customizing plots. To see a summary of all options, run "\texttt{plt -h}"; if this command is followed by one or more strings (which should not begin with hyphens), \texttt{plt} prints one-line summaries of all options beginning with those strings only.

\texttt{plt} can read its options from command-line arguments, from a \texttt{format file} (specified using the \texttt{-f} option), or from a \texttt{format string} (supplied on the command line, following the \texttt{-F} option). When using format files or format strings, omit the hyphen (-) before each option.

\textbf{Options}

Following is a brief summary of \texttt{plt}'s options. Note that many options require arguments. \texttt{plt} chooses a suitable default for most such arguments if the argument is supplied as '-'. See the \texttt{plt Tutorial and Cookbook} for further details.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \texttt{-p plot-styles} Specify style(s) for data plots. Available \texttt{plot-styles} include 'c', 'C', 'e+c', 'e-c', 'e:c', 'E+n', 'E-n', 'E:n', 'f+', 'f-', 'f', 'i', 'l+', 'l', 'm', 'n', 'N', 'o', 'O', 'sc', 'Sn', and 't'.
  \item \texttt{-s elements} Suppress elements of output. Elements that can be suppressed include 'e' (erasing the screen or beginning a new page before plotting), 'a' (anything associated with axes), 'x' (anything associated with the x axis), 'y' (anything associated with the y axis), 'g' (the grid), 'm' (x and y axis tick marks), 'n' (x and y tick mark numbers), 't.' (x and y axis labels and plot title), 'l' (user-supplied labels), 'p' (data plots), and 'f' ("figures" – boxes, line segments, arrows, and legends). In addition, these \texttt{elements} modify the effects of any other elements
\end{itemize}
that follow: ‘X’ (restrict effects to x axis), ‘Y’ (restrict effects to y axis), and ‘A’ (apply effects to both axes); and the element ‘C’ reenables all elements.

-\texttt{X xmin xmax} Set the x-axis range (see also –x a).

-\texttt{Y ymin ymax} Set the y-axis range (see also –y a).

-\texttt{t title} Set the title for the plot (enclose title in quotes if it contains whitespace or begins with ‘(’ or ‘[’).

-\texttt{T type} Specify the output type, which may be \texttt{xw} (X11 window, the default under Unix or Linux and not available under MS-Windows), or \texttt{lw} (PostScript, the default under MS-Windows).

-\texttt{g grid-mode} Specify the grid style, which may be \texttt{in}, \texttt{out} (default), \texttt{both}, \texttt{none}, \texttt{sym} (make symmetric axes at top and right), \texttt{grid} (extend major ticks across the entire plot), \texttt{xgrid}, \texttt{ygrid}, or \texttt{sub} (extend all ticks across the entire plot).

-\texttt{h [ option-prefix ... ]} Show help on options beginning with option-prefix (which should not begin with ‘-’). If option-prefix is omitted, show help on all options.

Within the next group of options, those with upper-case names (‘-A’, ‘-B’, ...) use window coordinates between (0,0) and (1,1); those with lower-case names (‘-a’, ‘-b’, ...) use data coordinates.

-\texttt{a x0 y0 x1 y1} Draw an arrow to (x0,y0) from (x1,y1).

-\texttt{A xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1} Draw an arrow to (xw0,yw0) from (xw1,yw1).

-\texttt{b x0 y0 x1 y1} Draw a box with opposite corners at (x0,y0) and (x1,y1).

-\texttt{B xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1} Draw a box with opposite corners at (xw0,yw0) and (xw1,yw1).

-\texttt{c x0 y0 x1 y1} Connect points (x0,y0) and (x1,y1).

-\texttt{C xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1} Connect points (xw0,yw0) and (xw1,yw1).

-\texttt{d x0 y0 x1 y1} Draw a dark (filled) box with opposite corners at (x0,y0) and (x1,y1).

-\texttt{D xw0 yw0 xw1 yw1} Draw a dark (filled) box with opposite corners at (xw0,yw0) and (xw1,yw1).

-\texttt{l x y the label-string} Print label-string at (x,y). The tbc argument is a two-character text box coordinate that specifies how the label is to be positioned relative to (x,y); the default (CC) centers the string at (x,y).

-\texttt{L xw yw the label-string} As for –1, but using window coordinates (xw,yw).

-\texttt{w configuration subwindow} Confine the plot to a predefined window, specified by the arguments. configuration specifies the number of subwindows (panels), using one of ‘m’ (1), ‘b’ (2), or ‘q’ (4), and subwindow specifies which panel is to be plotted (0 or 1 for ‘m’; 0, 1, or 2 for ‘b’; or 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 for ‘q’). In each case,
subwindow 0 creates the frame of the entire plot, and the other subwindows refer to regions where data can be plotted. Use this option with `-o` or `-s e` to create multi-panel plots in stages without starting a new page or erasing the window before starting each new stage.

`-W xp0 yp0 xp1 yp1` Define the region of the page in which to plot. The arguments are page coordinates; the page coordinates (0,0) and (1,1) correspond to the lower left and upper right corners of the page.

`-F format-string` Read options from the specified format-string.

`-o` Suppress all output except data plots.

`-cz xfrom xincr` Generate abscissas, beginning with xfrom (default: 0) and incrementing by xincr (default: 1) at each step.

`-ex` Don’t exclude points outside axis limits.

`-h1 x y tbc n file` Print the next n (default: 1000) lines of the specified file as a label, placing the reference point for the first line of the label at data coordinates (x,y). The tbc argument is defined as for `-l` and is applied to each line of the label. The file is opened when first used by `-h1` or `-vl`, and remains open, so that successive `-h1` or `-vl` options referring to the same file read and print successive lines. At most MAXLABELFILES (defined in plt.h, currently 6) files of label strings can be open at once.

`-vl x y tbc n file` As for `-h1`, but print the label in a vertical orientation (rotated 90 degrees counterclockwise).

`-le linenumber plotnumber [ text ]` Define the specified linenumber in the legend (see also `-lp`). Line numbers in the legend begin with 0 (the top line); plot numbers also begin with 0 (these refer to the data plots, and are used here to determine the line style for the entry’s sample plot segment). The text is printed to the right of the sample plot segment. To create an entry with more than one line of text, use additional `-le` options with different linenumbers as necessary, omitting the plotnumber (use `'--'`) for all but the first. If the same data are plotted more than once in a single figure to create an overlay (for example, using symbols over line segments), an overlaid legend entry can be created using additional `-le` options with the same linenumber and different plotnumbers, omitting the text for all but the first.

`-lp xw0 yw0 [ boxscale [ seglength [ opaque ] ] ]` Define the window coordinates (xw0, yw0) of the upper left corner of the plot legend text, and other attributes for the plot legend (key). plt determines the size of the box it draws around
the legend, but the calculated width of the box is multiplied by \textit{boxscale}. The \texttt{seglength} option specifies the length of the sample plot segments, as a fraction of the x-axis length (default: 0.05). If \texttt{opaque} is \texttt{yes} (default), the background of the legend is opaque white; otherwise, the background is transparent (any previously drawn material remains visible through the legend box). Unless a \texttt{-lp} option is provided, no legend is printed.

\texttt{-lx [base [subticks ]]} Draw a logarithmic x-axis; \texttt{base} is the base of the logarithms (default: 10), and \texttt{subticks} is either \texttt{yes} or \texttt{no}. If the axis has a small number of major ticks, \texttt{plt} draws subticks by default; use the \texttt{subticks} argument to change \texttt{plt}'s default behavior.

\texttt{-ly [base [subticks ]]} Draw a logarithmic y-axis.

\texttt{-tf file [tbc ]} Load the text string array from the specified \texttt{file}. Each line of the \texttt{file} defines an element of the string array; using plot styles \texttt{c} or \texttt{t}, these strings can be plotted in the same manner as data points. The optional \texttt{tbc} specifies how the positions of the strings are to be modified when they are printed, in the same way as for \texttt{-l}; by default, the strings are centered on the coordinates specified for them.

\texttt{-ts "string0 string1 ... " [tbc ]} Load the text string array from the quoted argument (whitespace separates strings in the array) rather than from a file; otherwise, this option is the same as \texttt{-tf}.

\texttt{-fs "string0 string1 ... "} Load the font string array from the quoted argument. Using appropriate plot style (\texttt{-p}) options, the strings can be used to change the font, line style (solid, dotted, dashed, etc.), or drawing color.

\texttt{-x string} Set the x-axis title to \texttt{string} (which must be quoted if this option is used on the command line or if \texttt{string} begins with \texttt{'} or \texttt{[}).

\texttt{-xa xmin xmax tick fmt tskip ycross} Specify the x-axis range (as \texttt{xmin} to \texttt{xmax}); the interval between x-axis tick marks; the format, \texttt{fmt}, in which to print the numbers (e.g., \texttt{"%.3f"}, \texttt{"%.2e"}; any format that \texttt{printf(3)} can use for printing floating-point numbers is acceptable); the number of ticks per labelled tick, \texttt{tskip}; and \texttt{ycross}, the point on the y-axis that the x-axis should cross, in y-units. Any of these parameters may be supplied as \texttt{-}, which causes \texttt{plt} to choose a reasonable value based on the input data.

\texttt{-xe xmin-error xmax-error} Use this option to specify the amount by which the x-axis range is allowed to exceed the range of x-values in the input data, when \texttt{plt} determines the x-axis range automatically.

\texttt{-xm tick-base} Make x-axis ticks be multiples of the specified \texttt{tick-base}.

\texttt{-xo x-axis-offset} Move the x-axis down by \texttt{x-axis-offset} (expressed as a fraction of the y-axis length).

\texttt{-xr} Draw the x-axis at the top of the plot
APPENDIX H. MAN PAGES FOR THE PLT PACKAGE

-xt x label [ tick-size ] Add an extra labelled tick at the specified x position, and label it with the specified label (which may be any string). The optional tick-size argument specifies the length of the added tick, as a fraction of the default length for labelled ticks (e.g., a value of 1.5 makes the added tick 50 longer than the standard size).

-xts x [ tick-size ] Force a labelled tick to appear on the x-axis at the specified x (the positions of the other labelled x-ticks are adjusted accordingly). tick-size is defined as for -xt.

-y string Set the y-axis title to string (see -x).

-ya ymin ymax tick fmt tskip xcross Set up the y-axis (see -xa).

-ye ymin-error ymax-error Set the allowable error in the y-axis range (see -xe).

-yo y-axis-offset Move the y-axis to the left by y-axis-offset (expressed as a fraction of the x-axis length).

-yr Draw the y-axis at the right edge of the plot.

-yt y label [ tick-size ] Add an extra labelled tick at the specified y position (see -xt).

-yts y [ tick-size ] Force a labelled tick to appear on the y-axis at the specified y (see -xts).

-dev pterm option Process option only if the value of PTERM is pterm. The -dev option may be useful in scripts that produce screen or printed plots in different formats.

-sf name specification Create a new font group with the specified name and set its specifications (font, point size, color/grey level, line width, and line style). See the chapter titled Colors, Line Styles, and Fonts in the plt Tutorial and Cookbook for details.

-ch height-factor width-factor Modify the height and width of all characters printed in the plot by the specified factors.

-size fscl width height left-margin bottom-margin Specify the size and position of the plot on the page. The width, height, left-margin, and bottom-margin are specified in inches (1 inch = 25.4 mm). fscl is a factor applied to the point size of all printed characters, independently of the scaling applied to the rest of the plot. This option is effective for printed plots only.
Screen and printed plots

By default, `plt` makes an X11 screen plot. To make a printed plot, use the option `-T lw`, and pipe the output of `plt` to `lwcat(1)`. Under Unix, GNU/Linux, or MacOS/X, `lwcat` uses the standard `lpr` print spooler to send `plt`'s output in PostScript format to the default printer. When running with a Cygwin/bash window under MS-Windows, or when using `lwcat`'s `-gv` option under Unix or Linux, the PostScript output is displayed on-screen using GhostScript (GSView under MS-Windows, or `gv` otherwise; these programs can save the output in a file or send it to a printer).

Examples

Create a text file with the following contents:

```
0 0 0
1 1 1
2 4 8
3 9 27
4 16 64
```

and call the file `powers`. Plot the first column vs. the second by:

```
plt powers 0 1 -t "Squares of small integers" -x "Integer" -y "Square"
```

The same file can be used to generate a number of different plots, by choosing different columns. To plot the third column vs. the first, try:

```
plt powers 2 0 -t "Marshmallows" -x "Mass (kg)" -y "Height (m)"
```

See Also

`imageplt(1)`, `lwcat(1)`, `pltf(1)`

The `plt` Tutorial and Cookbook (a book-length introduction to `plt`, included in the `plt` source package) contains many more examples.

Availability

`plt` is available as part of PhysioToolkit (see SOURCES below) under the GPL.

Authors

`plt` was originally written by Paul Albrecht, and is currently maintained by George B. Moody (`george@mit.edu`).

Sources

`http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt/`
lwcat

Name
lwcat - postprocess output of plt to make PostScript, EPS, PDF or PNG

Synopsis
plt -T lw ... | lwcat [options ...]

Description
lwcat collects the PostScript output of plt(1) and adds a prolog and epilog to create a complete PostScript document (or another format, if appropriate options have been selected). It is possible to concatenate the outputs of two or more plt runs to be processed as a single job by lwcat: see the plt Tutorial and Cookbook for details.

Output format
By default, lwcat sends its output directly to the default printer via lpr. These options may be used to modify this behavior:

-no Send the output to the printer, but don’t eject the page (use this option if you wish to overlay the output with additional material to be produced by another program).

-ps Write PostScript to the standard output (not to the printer).

-psv Write PostScript to a temporary file and view it with gv (ghostscript).

-gv Same as -psv.

-eps Write EPSF (encapsulated PostScript format) to the standard output. Note that this is only a close approximation to EPSF; it is acceptable to LaTeX’s epsfig package, at least.

-pdf Write PDF (portable document format) to the standard output.

-png Write PNG (portable network graphics) format to the standard output.

Window options
By default, the output appears within a 6.75x6 inch (171x152 mm) window, the lower left corner of which is positioned 1 inch (25.4 mm) from the left edge and 3.5 inches (89 mm) from the bottom edge of the page. The following options may be used to modify the size, location, and orientation of the output:

-landscape Use landscape mode (rotate plot 90 degrees counterclockwise).
-sq  Plot in a 6x6 inch (152x152 mm) square window, 1.25 inches (32 mm) from the left edge and 3.5 inches (89 mm) from the bottom edge of the page.
-t  Plot in a 6.25x6.25 inch (159x159 mm) square window, positioned as for -sq.
-t2  Plot in a 6.25x4 inch (159x102 mm) window, positioned as for -sq.
-CinC  Plot in a 4.75x3.15 inch (121x80 mm) window, positioned as for -sq.
-sq2  Plot in a 4.5x5.5 inch (114x140 mm) window, 2.5 inches (63 mm) from the left and bottom edges of the page.
-v  Plot in a 7x9.5 inch (178x241 mm) window, 0.75 inches (19 mm) from the left and bottom edges of the page (centered on a US letter sheet).
-v2  Plot in a 7x8.5 inch (178x216 mm) window, positioned as for -v.
-va4  Plot in a 190x275 mm window, centered on an A4 sheet.
-full  Plot in a 7.5x10 inch (191x254 mm) window, centered on a US letter sheet.
-slide  Plot in a 7.5x5 inch (191x127 mm) window, 0.5 inches (12.7 mm) from the left edge and 3 inches (76 mm) from the bottom edge of the page (3:2 aspect ratio, as for 35 mm slides).
-screen  Plot in a 7.5x5.625 inch (191x143 mm) window, 0.5 inches (12.7 mm) from the left edge and 2.375 inches (60 mm) from the bottom edge of the page (4:3 screen aspect ratio).
-golden  Plot in a 7.5x4.635 inch (191x118 mm) window, 0.5 inches (12.7 mm) from the left edge and 3.365 inches (85 mm) from the bottom edge of the page (the aspect ratio is approximately the "golden ratio", (1+sqrt(5))/2 = 1.61803

Other window options can be easily added; see the source for lwcat for details.

Copies
By default, lwcat prints a single copy. Multiple copies can be produced using the options -c2, -c3, -c4, -c5, and -c6; when using a PostScript printer, this will almost always be much faster than rerunning lwcat, since the document is downloaded and rasterized only once when using these options. To print more than 6 copies, repeat or combine these options as needed.

Files
/usr/lib/ps/plt.pro  PostScript prolog

See Also
plt(1)
Availability

`lwcat` is available as part of the `plt` package in PhysioToolkit (see SOURCE below) under the GPL.

Authors

Paul Albrecht and George B. Moody (george@mit.edu)

Source

http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt/src/lwcat
imageplt

Name

imageplt - plot a greyscale image

Synopsis

imageplt -d nrows ncols [ options ... ] [ file ]

Description

imageplt provides a simple way to plot a greyscale image using plt(1). The required arguments, *nrows and ncols*, specify the numbers of rows and columns in the image. The input *file* (or the standard input, if no input file is specified) contains only the grey levels for each pixel (0 = white, 1 = black). Each entry is an ASCII-coded decimal floating point number, separated from adjacent entries by whitespace (one or more spaces, tabs, or newlines). The first *nrows* entries are the grey levels for column 0 of the image, bottom to top, and each successive column from left to right of the image follows. If *nrows* is small, it may be convenient to arrange the image file in columns and rows corresponding to those of the image, but this is not necessary. In no case should the length of a line of input exceed 50000 bytes (defined as MAXLEN in the source).

*Options* include:

- `-n` Generate a negative image (1 = white, 0 = black).

- `-x xmin xmax` Specify the range of the x-coordinates (default: xmin=0, xmax=nrows-1).

- `-y ymin ymax` Specify the range of the y-coordinates (default: ymin=0, ymax=ncols-1).

The output of *imageplt* is text in three columns, to be plotted using the `-pc` option of plt, as in:

\texttt{imageplt -d 10 10 foo | plt 0 1 2 -pc}

See Also

plt(1), pltf(1)

Availability

imageplt is available as part of the plt package in PhysioToolkit (see SOURCES below) under the GPL.
APPENDIX H. MAN PAGES FOR THE PLT PACKAGE

Author
George B. Moody (george@mit.edu)

Source
http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt/plt/misc/imageplt.c
pltf

Name

pltf - make function plots

Synopsis


Description

pltf provides a simple way to use bc(1) and plt(1) to generate plots of many common functions of a single variable. The command-line arguments are interpreted according to their position; pltf asks for values for any missing arguments.

The first argument, expression, can be any expression valid as input to bc(1), with the additional feature that the variable x may appear anywhere in the expression where a number would be allowed by bc. Some examples of valid expressions are:

\[ x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 1 \]

\[ (x + 1)^3 \]

\[ s(\sqrt{x^2}) \]

The first two of these are equivalent; note that whitespace and parentheses are allowed in expressions, although it is necessary to enclose such expressions in double quotes (e.g., "(x + 1) * e(x) ") when entering them as command-line arguments in order to protect them from the shell. The last expression is the sine of the square root of x squared; see bc(1) for a complete list of available special functions, or invoke pltf with no command-line arguments to obtain a list.

The second and third arguments specify the domain of the function (the values over which x should vary), and the fourth argument specifies the x-increment (the difference between consecutive values of x for which the expression is to be evaluated).

pltf is a shell script that uses a helper application, ftable, to prepare input for bc -l. Invoke ftable directly (using the same arguments as for pltf) if you need to change the format of the plot or make a printed version of it. See the source for pltf to see how to do this.

See Also

imageplt(1), plt(1)

Availability

pltf is available as part of the plt package in PhysioToolkit (see SOURCES below) under the GPL.
APPENDIX H. MAN PAGES FOR THE PLT PACKAGE

Author

George B. Moody (george@mit.edu)

Sources

http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt/plt/misc/pltf
http://www.physionet.org/physiotools/plt/plt/misc/ftable.c
Index

-A (arrow in window coordinates) option, 67
-a (arrow in data coordinates) option, 67
Albrecht, Paul, v, 1, 2
Appel, Marvin, v

-B (box in window coordinates) option, 67
-b (box in data coordinates) option, 67
bc, 17
bounding box, 9, 25, 100, 102, 104

-C (connect window coordinates) option, 67
-c (connect data coordinates) option, 67
-ch (character resize) option, 57
character size, 52, 57, 64, 73, 99
color, 3, 24, 33, 34, 37, 62, 67, 73, 82,
91–95, 109, 119
column-number, 5, 6, 8, 9, 19, 22, 29,
33, 37, 49
command syntax, 5
command-line help, 7
Cygwin, 6, 7, 17
Cygwin/X, 109
-cz (generate column zero) option, 22

-D (filled box in window coordinates) option, 67
-d (filled box in data coordinates) option, 67
data coordinates, 25, 61, 62, 67
data-spec, 5, 21
dd, 22
-dev (device specific) option, 114

-ex (don’t exclude points) option, 71
-F (format string) option, 8, 61
-f (format file) option, 8, 22, 29, 52,
61, 76
- fa (save axis setup in file) option, 51,
52
Fink, 17
font, 24, 33, 62, 64, 73, 110, 119
fontgroup string array, 24
- fs (define fontgroup string array) op-
tion, 24
ftable, 17
function plots, 16

-g (define grid) option, 86
GhostScript, 7
GNU/Linux, 1, 3, 6, 17, 31, 98, 107,
109
graph, 2
grey level, 67, 73, 94, 109, 119
greyscale images, 15
GSView, 6
gv, 6

-h (help) option, 7
help, 7
-hl (horizontal label from file) option,
61
image plots, 15
ImageMagick, 107

-L (horizontal label from string) op-
tion, 61
-l (horizontal label from string) op-
tion, 61
-le (define legend entry) option, 52
legend, 52
line style, 24, 33, 52, 53, 73, 74
line width, 33, 74, 109, 119
Linux, 1, 3, 6, 17, 31, 98, 107, 109, 115
-1p (set up legend box) option, 52
lwcat, 6
-1x (log x axis) option, 85
-1y (log y axis) option, 85
Mac OS X, 6, 17, 31, 98, 107, 109
Mietus, Joe, v
MS-Windows, 6, 17, 107, 109
-o (overlay) option, 51
overlays, 10, 49, 86, 98, 109
-p (plotstyle) option, 33, 49, 76
 C (connect) suboption, 34
c (control) suboption, 34
E (error bars with symbols) suboption, 37
e (error bars) suboption, 37
f (fill area) suboption, 37
i (impulse response) suboption, 37
l (line segments) suboption, 37
m (single-column normal plot) suboption, 37
N (normal plot filled) suboption, 37
n (two-column normal plot) suboption, 37
O (outline and fill) suboption, 37
o (outline) suboption, 37
S (scatter plot using symbols) suboption, 38
s (scatter plot) suboption, 37
t (scatter plot using text strings) suboption, 38
page coordinates, 25, 55
PDF output, 107, 119
pipe, 1, 6, 7, 19, 31, 99, 113, 114, 119
plot, 2
PLT USERS’ GUIDE, v
pltf, 17
pltmeister, v
PNG output, 107, 119
point size, 52, 64, 67, 73, 99
PostScript, 1–3, 6, 8, 25, 97–105, 115,
119
quickplot mode, 31, 109, 119
-s (suppress) option, 71
-sf (define font group) option, 74, 110
-size option, 86, 98
Stevenson, Kim, v
string array, 24
subplots, 55
subscripts, 27, 52, 62, 64, 66, 119
superscripts, 52, 62, 64–66, 119
syntax, command, 5
-t (specify output device) option, 97,
100
t (plot title) option, 29
text box coordinates, 24, 25, 38, 61, 64,
119
text string array, 24
-tf (read text string array from file) option, 24
-ts (define text string array) option,
24
type size, 52, 64, 73, 99
Unix, 1–3, 22, 31, 98, 107, 109, 115
-v1 (vertical label) option, 61
-w (define plot window on page) option,
55
-w (use predefined plot window) option,
55
Web output, 107, 119
width of line, 33, 74, 109, 119
window coordinates, 25, 52, 61, 62, 67,
119
-x (set x axis limits) option, 25, 29, 31,
52
-x (x axis title) option, 29
X Window System, 1–3, 25, 97, 109,
110, 115, 119
INDEX

-xa (set up x axis) option, 25, 29, 31, 52
-xe (x axis error) option, 85
-xm (x tick multiples) option, 85
-xo (x axis offset) option, 85
xplotwin, 10, 97, 109
-xr (x axis at top of plot) option, 85
-xt (extra x tick) option, 86
-xts (set up x axis ticks) option, 86

-y (set y axis limits) option, 25, 29, 31, 52
-ya (set up y axis) option, 25, 29, 31, 52
-ye (y axis error) option, 85
-ym (y tick multiples) option, 85
-yo (y axis offset) option, 85
-yr (y axis at right of plot) option, 85
-yt (extra y tick) option, 86
-yts (set up y axis ticks) option, 86