

TikZERO: Zero-Shot Text-Guided Graphics Program Synthesis

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Abstract

Automatically synthesizing figures from text captions is a compelling capability. However, achieving high geometric precision and editability requires representing figures as graphics programs in languages like TikZ, and aligned training data (i.e., graphics programs with captions) remains scarce. Meanwhile, large amounts of unaligned graphics programs and captioned raster images are more readily available. We reconcile these disparate data sources by presenting TikZERO, which decouples graphics program generation from text understanding by using image representations as an intermediary bridge. It enables independent training on graphics programs and captioned images and allows for zero-shot text-guided graphics program synthesis during inference. We show that our method substantially outperforms baselines that can only operate with caption-aligned graphics programs. Furthermore, when leveraging caption-aligned graphics programs as a complementary training signal, TikZERO matches or exceeds the performance of much larger models, including commercial systems like GPT-4o. Our code, datasets, and select models are publicly available.¹

1. Introduction

Graphics programming languages offer distinct advantages over low-level vector formats (PDF, SVG) or raster image formats by representing visual concepts as high-level programs that preserve semantics, remain human-interpretable, and allow manual editing. These properties are particularly valuable in academia, where specialized graphics programming languages like TikZ [1] are popular for creating complex figures with high expressivity. However, this comes with a steep learning curve, as seen on the TeX Stack Exchange² (TeX.SE), where nearly 10% of questions concern TikZ and make it the most frequently discussed topic on the platform [2, 3].

¹<https://github.com/potamides/DeTikZify>

²<https://tex.stackexchange.com>

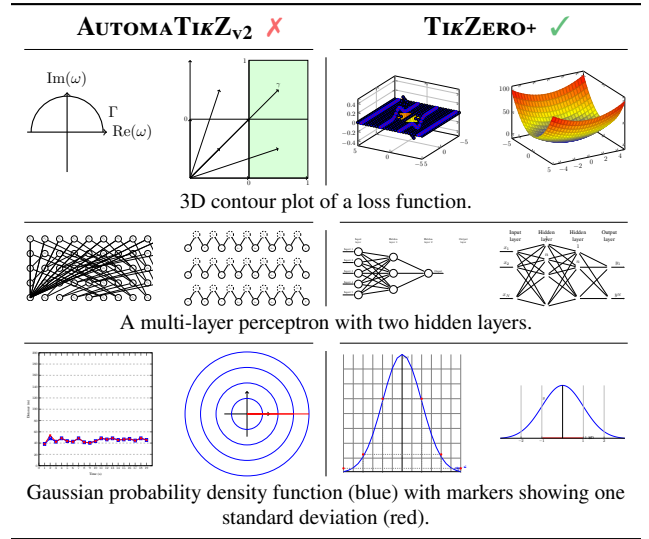


Figure 1. Qualitative comparison of our TikZERO+ model (last two columns) and the end-to-end trained baseline AUTOMATikZ_{v2} (LLM; first two columns) on text-guided graphics program synthesis with TikZ. Our method generates outputs that more closely follow the given captions. Example program listings are in Appendix F.

With recent advances in generative AI, simplifying the creation of graphics programs has become increasingly feasible. Belouadi et al. [2] introduce DeTikZify, an inverse graphics model that generates TikZ programs from images and hand-drawn sketches. However, creating these visual inputs stays cumbersome, motivating alternative input modalities such as natural language. While Belouadi et al. [3] propose AUTOMATikZ, a text-guided synthesis model for TikZ programs trained end-to-end on an aligned caption-program corpus, its performance remains limited (cf. Fig. 1) [4, 5].

We identify insufficient training data as the primary limitation. Unlike inverse graphics models such as DeTikZify, which are inherently self-supervised (trained by being conditioned on compiled representations of their output programs) and can access sufficient training data (cf. Fig. 2), end-to-

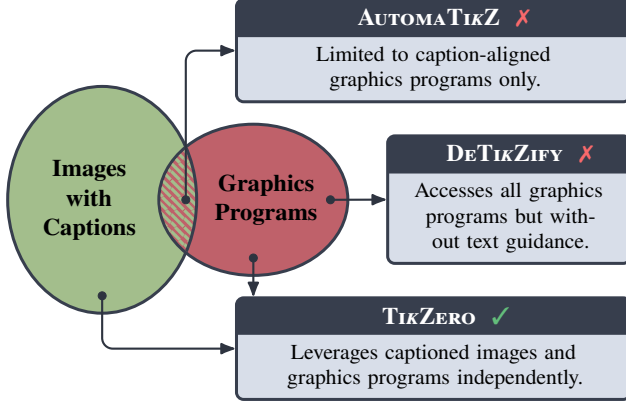


Figure 2. Illustration of training data availability for graphics program synthesis. DETikZIFY can leverage all graphics programs for training but lacks text guidance, while AUTOMATikZ is constrained to the small intersection of captioned graphics programs, resulting in limited performance. Our approach, TikZERO, trains independently on both graphics programs and captioned images, enabling more effective use of available data and yielding superior results.

end text-guided models like AUTOMATikZ require graphics programs *paired* with captions, substantially reducing the available data pool (cf. Fig. 2).

To address this challenge, we decouple the graphics program generation component from text understanding, enabling independent training on graphics programs and captioned images *without* requiring paired data (cf. Fig. 2). Our approach first trains an inverse graphics model conditioned on image patch embeddings from a vision encoder [6]. We then train an adapter network that generates synthetic image patch embeddings from captions. This adapter training relies solely on captioned images, effectively circumventing resource limitations and enabling zero-shot (in the sense that no aligned caption-program examples are involved in the training process) text-guided graphics program synthesis [7]. We demonstrate that this approach, to which we refer as TikZERO, outperforms previous state-of-the-art methods (cf. Fig. 1). Our key contributions are:

- (i) A novel two-stage architecture, TikZERO, which addresses the low-resource challenge in text-guided graphics program synthesis by aligning representation spaces rather than relying on aligned data.
- (ii) The DATikZ_{v3} dataset, comprising over 450k TikZ graphics programs with roughly 170k captioned samples. Using this dataset, we train both TikZERO and AUTOMATikZ_{v2} (an updated version of AUTOMATikZ) on the same source data and show that TikZERO outperforms AUTOMATikZ, AUTOMATikZ_{v2}, and other end-to-end trained baselines.
- (iii) An enhanced model, TikZERO+, combining TikZERO with the end-to-end fine-tuning of AUTOMATikZ_{v2}, which surpasses larger baselines and matches the performance of commercial models like GPT-4o [8] on key metrics.

2. Related Work

Inverse Graphics Program Synthesis Inverse graphics, i.e., synthesizing a graphics program to reproduce a visual target, represents a specialized instance of neural program synthesis [9–11]. Deep learning models have shown remarkable success in this domain [12–14], with Vision-Language Models (VLMs) increasingly gaining prominence [2, 15–17]. While controlled experimental studies often rely on synthetic datasets [13, 15, 17–20], real-world applications typically leverage more complex and diverse human-created data [2, 21–25], highlighting the importance of data availability. In scientific contexts, TikZ has emerged as a popular choice due to its versatility, expressiveness, and widespread adoption in academic circles [2, 21–23, 25]. Although these approaches are not tailored to text-guided generation, we incorporate key elements from them into our approach.

Text-Guided Graphics Program Synthesis Current text-guided approaches to graphics program synthesis remain limited, mainly because of the scarcity of captioned graphics programs outlined in Sec. 1, but also because of the difficulty of generating synthetic data with human-like captions [26, 27]. Researchers interested in this capability currently rely on the emerging capabilities of large commercial models such as GPT-4o [8, 28–30], which raises concerns about accessibility, reproducibility, and computational cost [31]. In contrast, related domains like vector graphics generation [24, 32–35] and NL2Vis [36–40] have shown more progress. Similar to inverse graphics, these fields increasingly incorporate large language models (LLMs) [24, 36, 40]. However, vector graphics approaches typically generate only low-level Bézier curves, limiting output complexity [2, 32, 33], and NL2Vis focuses exclusively on data visualization with a restricted set of visualization types [40]. More complex applications, such as generating arbitrary scientific figures from captions with TikZ, remain underexplored—a gap we address in this work.

Text-to-Image Generation TikZERO shares conceptual and architectural similarities with several text-to-image generation methods [41–45]. Rodriguez et al. [46, 47] explore generative adversarial networks [48, 49] and diffusion models [50, 51] for scientific figure generation, but these approaches are tied to raster images, which are not ideal for representing scientific figures. Ramesh et al. [43] propose a two-stage model with independently trained prior and decoder components to generate raster images from text. Although prior networks resemble our adapters and have been used with inverse graphics models [52], they target *global* image embeddings containing only abstract information, which degrades performance when used with inverse graphics architectures that work best with *patch-level* details [53]. In contrast, our adapters specifically operate on patch-level embeddings, and we demonstrate that this *improves* performance compared to end-to-end trained baselines.

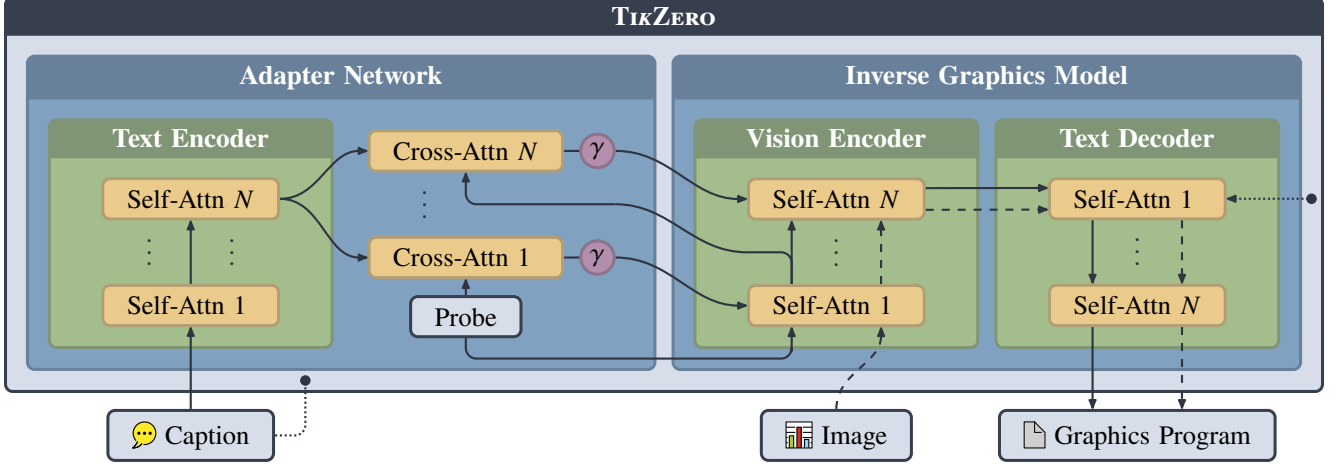


Figure 3. Architecture overview of TIKZERO during inference. Solid lines represent the standard caption-conditioned path, which flows through the text encoder into the adapter network of TIKZERO before connecting to the vision encoder. In certain configurations (cf. Sec. 5.2), the caption also feeds into the text decoder (depicted by dotted lines and “•” markers representing shortcuts). The self- and cross-attention layers (yellow) are simplified representations, omitting internal feed-forward layers and residual connections [54]. An exception is the explicit residual connection between the cross-attention and self-attention layers of the vision encoder, visualizing the gating mechanism γ (purple). Additionally, the dashed path illustrates how the inverse graphics model generates graphics programs when conditioned on images.

3. The TIKZERO Model & Architecture

As the foundation of TIKZERO, we first develop a state-of-the-art inverse graphics model for graphics program synthesis. We then incorporate a cross-attention adapter network [55] for text guidance. Fig. 3 provides an overview of our method.

The Inverse Graphics Model Due to their demonstrated effectiveness (cf. Sec. 2), we adopt a VLM architecture for the inverse graphics model of TIKZERO. Figure 3 illustrates its inner workings (dashed lines): the model processes rasterized images and autoregressively generates their corresponding programs without involving captions at this stage.

The Adapter Network VLMs consist of two primary components: a vision encoder that produces image embeddings and a text decoder that, in our case, generates graphics programs conditioned on these embeddings. The unidirectional and localized flow of information between these components allows us to inject additional information solely into the vision encoder, thereby influencing the output of the text decoder. We exploit this property by introducing a trainable, text-conditioned adapter network that mimics the outputs of the original vision encoder. This effectively enables zero-shot generation of graphics programs conditioned on text when its outputs are fed into the decoder. In addition to circumventing the resource limitations discussed in Sec. 1, this architecture has other welcome implications: During adapter training, the text decoder, usually the largest component of the model, does not need to be loaded, resulting in efficient and fast training even with large datasets. Our adapter incorporates a lightweight text encoder for embedding captions and intro-

duces newly initialized gated cross-attention layers [56, 57] before each vision encoder layer (cf., Fig. 3). The keys and values derive from the final text encoder representations, while the queries originate from a trainable probe used instead of image inputs. The gates γ allow the model to learn at which layers and to what extent information from the text encoder should flow into the vision encoder. Contrary to existing literature, which often employs tanh gates [58] that initialize to zero (indicating no information flow), we find that using sigmoid gates (0.5 at initialization) accelerates training convergence since, in our case, only little information originates from the vision encoder inputs (i.e., the probe). We ablate the gates and the probe in Appendix A.

Training Objective Given a caption-image dataset for training, we first embed the patches $p \in \mathcal{P}$ of image i using the unmodified vision encoder M of our VLM. Subsequently, we incorporate the cross-attention adapter to obtain the modified encoder \hat{M} , which we then distill on these image patch embeddings conditioned solely on the caption t and probe \hat{t} [59]. This leads to the following objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}|} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \text{dist}\left(M_{\theta}(p | i), \hat{M}_{\theta, \hat{\theta}}(p | \hat{t}, t)\right), \quad (1)$$

where $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ represents a distance metric. Following common practices in model distillation [60, 61], we experiment with cosine distance and mean squared error. Here, θ denotes the original model parameters that remain fully frozen, while $\hat{\theta}$ represents the adapter parameters of which the cross-attention layers and the image probe are trainable.

Source	DA _{TikZ}	DA _{TikZ_{v2}}	DA _{TikZ_{v3}}
curated	981	1 566	3 646
TeX.SE	29 238	30 609	42 654
arXiv	85 656	326 450	407 851
artificial	1 957	1 958	2 256
all	117 832	360 583	456 469

Table 1. Breakdown of the number of unique TikZ graphics in DA_{TikZ_{v3}} compared to its predecessors DA_{TikZ} and DA_{TikZ_{v2}}. Qualitative examples can be found in Appendix F.

4. Datasets & Model Training

We introduce DA_{TikZ_{v3}}, a novel dataset of TikZ graphics programs designed to support the training and evaluation of TikZERO. Additionally, we train AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} as a directly comparable baseline operating on the same data source.

The DA_{TikZ_{v3}} Dataset DA_{TikZ_{v3}} expands upon its predecessors DA_{TikZ} and DA_{TikZ_{v2}} [2, 3], incorporating programs from curated repositories, TeX.SE, arXiv papers, and artificial samples (cf. Tab. 1). While previous versions focused exclusively on TikZ graphics with (v1) or without (v2) captions, DA_{TikZ_{v3}} systematically extracts captions alongside TikZ graphics whenever possible to support our claims. From over 450k instances, fewer than 170k include captions, underscoring the challenges discussed in Sec. 1.

Training TikZERO TikZERO’s VLM builds upon DE_{TikZIFY} [2] by conditioning a LLAMA-based text decoder [62] on patch embeddings from a SigLIP vision encoder [63]. Specifically, we combine LLAMA_{3.1} (8B) [57] with SigLIP SoViT (0.4B). Unlike DE_{TikZIFY} and inspired by the continued ViT pretraining approach of INTERNVL 1.5 [64], we initialize the vision encoder with weights from the fine-tuned encoder of PALIGEMMA [65] and increase the input resolution to 420 × 420 pixels. Furthermore, we fully fine-tune the vision encoder alongside the rest of the model instead of freezing it. We train on DA_{TikZ_{v3}} for 5 epochs with a learning rate of 5e−5 and a batch size of 128. TikZERO’s VLM consistently outperforms DE_{TikZIFY}, with detailed evaluation results provided in Appendix B. For the adapter network, we initialize with LLAMA_{3.2} (1B) as the text encoder [57] and leverage ARXIVCAP [26], a dataset comprising 6.4 million scientific caption-image pairs for training. The adapter accounts for 2 billion of TikZERO’s 10 billion total parameters, with only 400 million being trainable. We train for 3 epochs with a learning rate of 1e−4 and a batch size of 512. We emphasize that this two-stage training process *does not* access caption-program pairs. However, we demonstrate that incorporating such aligned data in a subsequent fine-tuning step (Sec. 5.2) further enhances performance.

Training AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} Similar to its predecessor, AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} is a *token-conditioned* LLM that uses *tokenized* captions as conditioning information for graphics prediction (rather than patch embeddings). We initialize AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} in two different ways: (i) AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} (LLM), which starts from vanilla LLAMA_{3.1} (8B) weights, and (ii) AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} (VLM), which leverages TikZERO’s trained VLM (minus the vision encoder) to benefit from transfer learning [66] on its larger training corpus. Both variants employ the same hyperparameters as TikZERO’s VLM but can only utilize the caption-annotated subset of DA_{TikZ_{v3}} for training. Despite having access to less caption-aligned data than TikZERO’s adapter network, AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} requires a longer training period primarily due to fine-tuning the large decoder (8 billion trainable parameters versus the adapter network’s 400 million). Training requires more than two days for AUTOMA_{TikZ_{v2}} and 1.5 days for TikZERO’s adapter network when using eight Nvidia A100 40GB GPUs.

5. Experiments

Before training models on DA_{TikZ_{v3}}, we extract 1k samples from its captioned subset to form our test set. To mitigate data leakage from pretraining to testing, we only include instances created after the cut-off date specified by LLAMA_{3.2} and ARXIVCAP. We also employ an *n*-gram matching algorithm to avoid cross-contamination with our training split [8]. For all models, the temperature is set to 0.8 and top-p to 0.95. Example outputs are provided in Fig. 1 and Appendix F.

Evaluation Metrics The multimodal nature of our task allows for various evaluation metrics in our automatic evaluations. We assess perceptual *image similarity* between generated outputs and references by computing DREAMSIM (DSIM) [67, 68], which correlates highly with human judgments for scientific images [2]. We also calculate the Kernel Inception Distance (KID) [69] using SigLIP image features, which evaluates the overall quality of generated figures by comparing to the distribution of reference figures. We evaluate *caption similarity* between generated outputs and reference captions using CLIPSCORE (CLIP) [70] with SigLIP features. To measure *code similarity* between generated and reference TikZ programs, we use CRYSTALBLEU (cBLEU), a BLEU variant optimized for code evaluation [71, 72], and TeX Edit Distance (TED) [2], a variant of the Extended Edit Distance [73] utilizing a TeX tokenizer. Since some metrics require that generated programs compile to images, resampling is necessary if the output contains irrecoverable errors. To quantify this, we compute the *Mean Token Efficiency* (MTE), defined as the 10% winsorized mean of the ratio between the number of tokens in the final TikZ program and the total number of tokens generated to produce that program. For a comprehensive view of model performance, we calculate the arithmetic mean (AVG) of *all* previous

Models	Original Text							Redacted Text	
	DSIM \uparrow	KID \downarrow	CLIP \uparrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow	AVG \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Ratio \uparrow
IDEFICS 3 (8B)	45.475	11.426	14.327	0.656	63.175	69.558	66.628	4.851	33.858
AUTOMATIKZ (13B)	46.033	1.294	3.955	0.386	62.24	85.866	63.093	2.965	<u>74.975</u>
AUTOMATIKZ _{v2} (VLM)	38.313	33.203	0.775	0.328	76.985	21.595	0.0	0.284	36.597
AUTOMATIKZ _{v2} (LLM)	50.548	<u>3.491</u>	15.766	0.658	<u>62.307</u>	81.775	82.375	<u>8.002</u>	50.753
TIKZERO (MSE)	<u>52.024</u>	5.664	10.583	1.723	66.07	79.318	<u>85.004</u>	8.237	77.831
TIKZERO (Cos)	52.829	5.103	10.051	<u>1.603</u>	65.51	<u>82.291</u>	85.599	7.226	71.893

Table 2. System-level scores $\times 100$ for TIKZERO and baselines of comparable size and training setup. Bold and underlined values denote the best and second-best scores for each metric column, respectively. Cell shading illustrates relative score magnitudes. Arrows indicate metric directionality. Overall, TIKZERO achieves the strongest average performance across metrics.

metrics. As these metrics operate on different scales, we apply min-max normalization before computing the average. Additionally, some metrics are recomputed with redacted text in the outputs as part of our analysis, cf. Sec. 6.1.

5.1. Comparison against End-to-End Fine-Tuning

In our initial experiment, we evaluate the zero-shot performance of TIKZERO, trained as described in Secs. 3 & 4 using either cosine distance (Cos) or mean squared error (MSE), and compare it against end-to-end trained baselines.

Baselines Besides AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM & VLM), which we designed as directly comparable baselines, we assess other token-conditioned models of similar and slightly larger sizes trained on TikZ. Specifically, we evaluate AUTOMATIKZ (13B)³, the strongest original AUTOMATIKZ baseline [3], and the general-purpose chatbot IDEFICS 3 (8B) [22]. Additional models and details are available in Appendices A & C.

Results We present the system-level metric scores in Tab. 2 (Original Text). On average, TIKZERO, trained with cosine distance, achieves the best performance with an AVG score of 85.599, closely followed by the MSE variant at 85.004. The next best model, AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), scores 82.375, which is 3 percentage points (pp) lower. The remaining models exhibit a substantial performance gap, with IDEFICS 3 (8B) and AUTOMATIKZ (13B) falling behind by approximately 20pp and AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (VLM) showing the weakest performance across all metrics, resulting in an AVG score of 0. The surprisingly poor results of AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (VLM) are likely due to catastrophic forgetting [74], as the removal of the vision encoder from TIKZERO’s VLM necessitates reacquisition of conditioning based solely on text.

As for individual metrics, our adapter-based models perform particularly well in perceptual image similarity, with TIKZERO (Cos) outperforming the best baseline, AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), by 3pp on DREAMSIM. Although AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) outperforms TIKZERO by 1.5pp on KID, this

indicates in this context that such token-conditioned models (compared to those using patch embeddings) capture the general appearance of scientific figures well but fall short in inferring visual specifics from captions. They do, however, have an edge in reproducing text from captions, which we identify as the primary reason for up to 5pp higher CLIP-SCORE, as noted in Sec. 6.1. Regarding code similarity, both TIKZERO models considerably outperform others on cBLEU. Interestingly, we observe a mild inverse correlation between cBLEU and TED. Models conditioned solely on tokenized captions tend to generate shorter, often simplified programs [3], potentially resulting in a reduced edit distance to the reference. In terms of efficiency, all models achieve an MTE of 80–85, indicating that only 2 out of 10 inferences require resampling. TIKZERO (Cos) is 3pp more efficient than MSE, while AUTOMATIKZ (13B), likely benefiting from its larger model size, exceeds it by another 3pp.

In summary, training AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} on top of a VLM yields worse performance than training based on vanilla LLAMA_{3.1}, indicating that effective end-to-end training can only leverage the small intersection of graphics programs and images with captions, as illustrated in Fig. 2. However, even without access to this intersection, TIKZERO surpasses both AUTOMATIKZ (13B) and AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) on average by being able to train on images with captions independently of graphics programs. Moreover, using a loss function based on cosine distance proves more effective than using MSE.

5.2. Combining Adapters with Fine-Tuning

In this section, we investigate whether explicitly incorporating the subset of DATIKZ_{v3} that includes captions into the training process of TIKZERO enhances performance. Our approach involves three incremental stages: (i) We perform a light fine-tuning of TIKZERO (Cos) end-to-end on caption-program pairs for one epoch with a low learning rate of $1e-5$. Extending the training duration or increasing the learning rate does not yield further performance gains, likely due to the decoder having already reached its saturation point;

³Belouadi et al. [3] refer to this model as CLiMA (13B).

Models	Original Text							Redacted Text	
	DSim \uparrow	KID \downarrow	CLIP \uparrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow	AVG \uparrow	CLIP \uparrow	Ratio \uparrow
QWEN _{2.5} CODER (32B)	54.473	5.493	24.87	0.285	59.856	97.269	48.593	12.164	48.911
GPT-4o	56.464	2.844	31.787	0.327	58.511	97.675	<u>79.019</u>	13.32	41.905
TikZERO (Cos)	52.829	5.103	10.051	1.603	65.51	82.291	14.658	7.226	71.893
+ Fine-tuning (i)	53.203	1.794	10.687	0.759	61.572	94.851	46.497	6.512	<u>60.931</u>
+ Separate Captions (ii)	52.983	2.905	15.72	0.804	61.32	95.722	46.326	8.741	55.608
+ Weight Resetting (iii)	<u>56.295</u>	<u>1.831</u>	24.177	1.988	<u>59.008</u>	93.058	87.043	11.479	47.478

Table 3. System-level scores $\times 100$ for additional baselines and TikZERO combined with fine-tuning and token-conditioning. The scores for TikZERO (Cos) are replicated from Tab. 2 for convenience. Bold and underlined values denote the best and second-best scores for each metric column, respectively. Cell shading illustrates relative score magnitudes. Arrows indicate metric directionality. Overall, TikZERO (Cos) with Weight Resetting (iii) demonstrates the strongest average performance across metrics.

(ii) Alongside feeding captions into the adapter, we provide them separately to the text decoder in tokenized form (cf., Fig. 3); (iii) Prior to fine-tuning, we reset the decoder to its initial weights to overcome saturation, enabling us to fine-tune using the setup described in Sec. 4, which involves 5 epochs and a learning rate of $5e-5$.

Baselines In addition to the baselines in Tab. 2, which remain comparable, we also evaluate larger and commercial models that serve as stronger baselines (cf. Appendix C). Specifically, we assess GPT-4o [8], which has demonstrated strong performance in generating TikZ [3, 28, 30] and QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B) [75] as an open-weights model.

Results In Tab. 3 (Original Text), all fine-tuning setups of TikZERO show considerable improvement over the base version. Approaches (i) and (ii) each enhance performance by over 30pp on AVG, while approach (iii) surpasses them with an improvement of over 70pp, positioning it as the best-performing model on average, even when compared to our new baselines, with GPT-4o being 8pp lower and QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B) approximately 40pp lower. Approach (i) demonstrates that direct fine-tuning yields positive effects across nearly all metrics, notably improving MTE by 12pp, TED by 4pp, and KID by 3.5pp. Approach (ii) shows similar trends but, by also incorporating tokenized captions, further improves CLIPSCORE by 5pp, closing the gap to AUTOMATikZ_{v2} (LLM). Interestingly, both (i) and (ii) slightly decrease performance on cBLEU, potentially due to similar reasons discussed in Sec. 5.1. However, the same cannot be said for (iii), which not only achieves the highest score on cBLEU but also ranks as the second-best on TED, trailing only 0.5pp behind GPT-4o and showcasing that it is possible to perform well on both metrics. Additionally, it increases DREAMSIM by another 3pp and CLIPSCORE by 8.5pp, competing with the much stronger baselines QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B) and GPT-4o. In KID, it even surpasses them by 3.5pp and 1pp, respectively.

In summary, fine-tuning TikZERO, especially when com-

bined with a separate caption input and weight resetting, greatly improves performance. This illustrates that the intersection of graphics programs and images with captions, though small, provides a valuable training signal, and best performance can be achieved by making full use of both sets. The best-performing TikZERO model even competes with and often surpasses QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B) and GPT-4o on several key metrics. Notably, the former model is more than three times larger, and the latter is often estimated at around 1.8 trillion parameters [76], making it 180 times larger.

5.3. Human Evaluation

To corroborate our findings from automatic evaluation, we conduct a human annotation campaign focusing on two key properties: caption and image similarity. We employ *Best-Worst Scaling* (BWS) [77], a comparative annotation method that yields high-quality results even with few annotators [78, 79]. We sample 100 instances from our test set and present annotators with n -tuples of generated figures, asking them to identify the most and least similar figure to either the reference caption or reference image. This data is then transformed into scores from -1 (poor) to 1 (excellent) by subtracting the proportion of times a figure is selected as the best from the proportion of times it is chosen as the worst [80]. For a manageable workload, we focus on $n = 4$ key models: TikZERO (Cos), our best-performing model from Sec. 5.1; AUTOMATikZ_{v2} (LLM), its direct end-to-end trained competitor; GPT-4o, our strongest baseline; and TikZERO (Cos) fine-tuned using approach (iii) from Sec. 5.2, our best model overall, henceforth referred to as TikZERO+ for convenience. We engage thirteen annotators and obtain six fully annotated sets per task (cf. Appendix E for more details). To assess annotator consistency, we calculate the *split-half reliability* (SHR) [79]. This method randomly divides all annotations into two sets, calculates scores independently, and then determines their correlation using Spearman’s ρ .

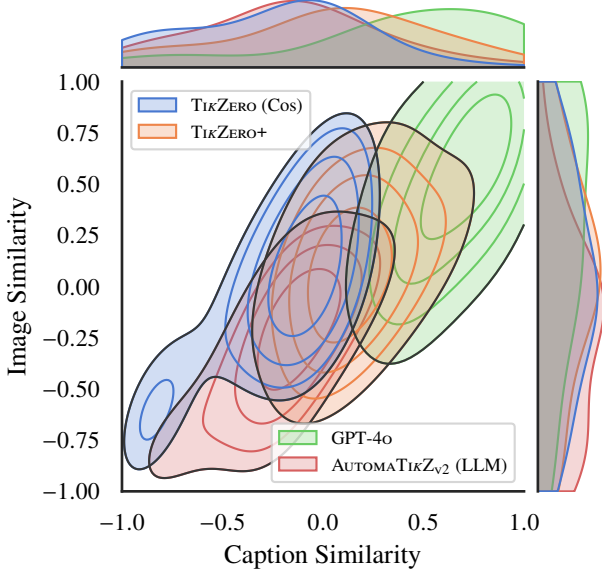


Figure 4. Bivariate distributions of BWS scores (higher is better) using kernel density estimation for caption and image similarity. Along the diagonal, TIKZERO (Cos) achieves higher scores than AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), while TIKZERO+ and GPT-4o demonstrate superior performance compared to both.

Results Fig. 4 presents kernel density estimates for the BWS scores, showing generally consistent rankings with automatic evaluations but revealing notable differences in the magnitude of gaps. For caption similarity, the ranking aligns with CLIPSCORE evaluations ($\rho = 1.0$), with TIKZERO (Cos), AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), TIKZERO+, and GPT-4o achieving mean scores μ of -0.25, -0.18, 0.03, and 0.4, respectively. Interestingly, humans perceive a 40% smaller gap between AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) and TIKZERO (Cos) than suggested by CLIPSCORE values, where AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) outperforms TIKZERO (Cos) by 50%. This indicates humans may evaluate caption similarity differently than CLIPSCORE (cf. Sec. 6.1). For image similarity, the system order remains consistent with our DREAMSIM metric ($\rho = 1.0$), with AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), TIKZERO (Cos), TIKZERO+, and GPT-4o achieving μ of -0.26, -0.02, 0.01, and 0.27, respectively. However, the relative gaps between models differ: the separation between AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) and TIKZERO (Cos), as well as between TIKZERO+ and GPT-4o, appear more pronounced than observed with DREAMSIM. This discrepancy likely stems from BWS capturing relative preferences rather than absolute performance differences. GPT-4o is selected 20% more often as the best model than TIKZERO+, and AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) 15% more often as the worst model than TIKZERO (Cos), creating larger perceived gaps even when qualitative differences may be subtle.

The SHR values of 0.68 for caption similarity and 0.76 for image similarity indicate moderate to strong inter-annotator

agreement. We also observe a correlation between these two tasks, with segment-level $\rho = 0.62$ and system-level $\rho = 0.8$, suggesting that both evaluation dimensions capture related aspects of model performance. GPT-4o emerges as the best-performing model, aligning with its superior performance on the corresponding automatic metrics, CLIPSCORE and DSIM. Among open-source models, TIKZERO+ performs best, while AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) ranks lowest overall.

6. Analysis

We present a comprehensive analysis, investigating the influence of typographic attacks on CLIPSCORE and examining the effectiveness of our architecture in low-resource settings, both in terms of training data and trainable parameters.

6.1. CLIPSCORE Limitations & Typographic Attacks

A known limitation of CLIPSCORE with text-rich images is its susceptibility to typographic attacks, where scores are disproportionately influenced by string similarity between images and captions [3, 43]. We suspect that token-conditioned models like AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) achieve higher CLIPSCORE values than models such as TIKZERO (Cos & MSE) primarily because they tend to visibly copy more substrings from the caption in the output image. To test this hypothesis, we apply the ROT13 substitution cipher [81] to all visible strings in the generated figures and recompute CLIPSCORE. This basic cipher replaces each letter with the 13th letter after it in the Latin alphabet. While not cryptographically secure, the ratio between the original and recomputed CLIPSCORE values should indicate the influence of string matching, i.e., higher ratios suggest less copied text and vice versa.

Tabs. 2 & 3 (Redacted Text) present the recomputed CLIPSCORE values and ratios for all evaluated models. The results reveal that most TIKZERO models, except for fine-tuning approaches (ii) and (iii), which also condition on tokenized captions, have considerably higher ratios (61%–78%) compared to strictly token-conditioned models (34%–51%), supporting our hypothesis. AUTOMATIKZ (13B) is an exception, possibly due to its initially low score. Further analysis shows that with redacted text, AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM)’s CLIPSCORE performance drops to the same level as TIKZERO (Cos & MSE), suggesting that string matching is the primary factor in its superior performance rather than producing better visuals—arguably a more difficult task. Nevertheless, reproducing strings is still somewhat desirable. The human oracle of our test set achieves a ratio of 50.8%, close to the 47.5% of TIKZERO+, our best-performing model. In contrast, models like GPT-4o, with a lower ratio of 41.9%, may overfit to caption copying, artificially inflating the CLIPSCORE values.

6.2. Low-Resource Training

While our adapters train efficiently on large-scale datasets, we investigate whether such extensive data is necessary for opti-

Intv.	Training Data			
	100%	50%	25%	12.5%
1	92.411	77.478	49.967	56.055
2	<u>87.557</u>	85.249	54.942	33.817
4	82.254	47.381	32.12	37.914
8	76.545	40.816	29.774	16.25

Table 4. AVG scores for TIKZERO (Cos) trained on varying fractions of data and intervals of cross-attention layers. Higher scores indicate better performance. Bold and underlined values denote the best and second-best scores for the whole table, respectively. Cell shading illustrates score magnitudes.

mal performance. Along the same vein, we examine the impact of reducing the amount of cross-attention layers inserted into the vision encoder. We retrain TIKZERO (Cos) using varying fractions of the training data ($d \in \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}\}$) and insert cross-attention layers at different intervals ($i \in \{1, 2, 4, 8\}$). Table 4 presents the AVG scores from this parameter grid, with detailed scores in Appendix D. Our findings reveal that utilizing the full dataset and inserting cross-attention at every layer yields the highest average performance, highlighting the benefits of maximizing both variables. Interestingly, the model’s performance appears more robust to a reduction in the number of layers compared to a decrease in training data. For instance, training on only $\frac{1}{8}$ th of the data leads to a substantial performance drop of 36pp, whereas inserting cross-attention layers every 8 layers (resulting in only 3 cross-attention layers in total) causes a more modest decline of 16pp. Minimizing both variables leads to the most severe drop of over 75pp. These results validate our training setup while suggesting that incorporating additional data might further enhance performance. Given that ARXIVCAP extracts figures from only 572k papers, whereas some corpora index over 200 million papers [82], there remains a lot of potential for leveraging larger datasets in future work.

7. Conclusion

In this work, we demonstrate the potential of TIKZERO and its variants for generating TikZ graphics programs from captions. Notably, TIKZERO does not require aligned caption-program pairs in its original formulation but instead aligns representation spaces of unaligned graphics programs and captioned images. This enables our model to leverage substantially more training data compared to end-to-end trained models that operate solely on caption-image pairs (cf. Fig. 2) while maintaining training efficiency. TIKZERO outperforms strong end-to-end trained baselines, including our independently trained AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} models, which use the same data pool, excluding instances they cannot process, illustrating the strengths of our approach. When extending the TIKZERO ap-

proach with additional end-to-end training, it also compares favorably to much larger baselines and commercial systems like GPT-4o. While this enhanced approach, TIKZERO+, is no longer zero-shot by our definition, it remains a TIKZERO model in the sense that it operates on both sets of graphics programs and captioned images, with the added advantage of explicitly utilizing their intersection (cf. Fig. 2).

These results demonstrate the benefits of designing architectures around available data and validate the approach of decoupling graphics program generation from text understanding (with optional later reconciliation through TIKZERO+). Although we demonstrate our method specifically on TikZ, we believe its general principles will inspire future work on related graphics program synthesis tasks.

Future Work Beyond scaling up our training data to explore convergence limits (cf. Sec. 6.2), we plan to investigate automatic methods for improving the quality and alignment of caption-image or caption-program pairs. This includes rewriting potentially noisy captions with LLMs and enhancing them with the visual understanding capabilities of VLMs [83–85]. We believe our approach to aligning textual and image modalities enables other promising applications for graphics program synthesis, such as editing images in latent space via textual instructions to generate modified graphics programs. Additionally, we intend to explore alternative alignment strategies beyond model distillation, including contrastive learning [86], which has successfully aligned modalities in discriminative models [6, 87, 88].

Limitations

Our evaluations include proprietary systems that operate as black boxes; their training data is unknown, and they offer no guarantees of consistent performance over time. This (i) makes addressing data leakage and cross-contamination impossible and (ii) limits the fairness and reproducibility of our experiments. Nevertheless, even under these unfavorable conditions, our open models remain competitive. Users should be aware, however, that our models may behave unpredictably, and outputs might differ from expectations. Additionally, our models do not include safeguards against potential misuse, e.g., for generating fake scientific content.

Regarding licensing of our training data, a large portion of the TikZ programs in DATIKZ_{v3} are licensed under permissive terms⁴ that allow redistribution. The remaining programs are distributed under the arXiv.org perpetual, non-exclusive license, which prohibits redistribution, which is why we exclude them from the public release of DATIKZ_{v3}. However, since we release our dataset creation scripts, we encourage others to reproduce the full version independently.

⁴<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>; <https://opensource.org/licenses/mit>; <https://www.gnu.org/licenses/fdl-1.3.en.html>; <https://openai.com/policies/terms-of-use>

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A. Additional Baselines and Ablation Studies

Beyond the evaluation in Sec. 5, we test additional baselines, including reasoning models that have proven successful in program synthesis tasks [89]. We evaluate QWEN_{2.5} CODER (14B) [75], which complements QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B) from Sec. 5.2, and reasoning models from the DEEPSEEK-R1 QWEN family (14B and 32B) [90]. We also evaluate TIKZERO (Base), a variant of TIKZERO (Cos) without the trainable probe and gating mechanism, to assess their contributions.

As shown in Tab. 5, TIKZERO (Cos) achieves the highest performance, surpassing TIKZERO (Base) on both DREAMSIM and CLIPSCORE metrics and in average performance. These results validate the probe and gate design. Additionally, QWEN_{2.5} CODER (14B) performs worse than both TIKZERO (Cos) and, as expected, its 32B variant in Tab. 3. The results are consistent with our findings in Sec. 5.1 that TIKZERO (Cos) outperforms end-to-end trained baselines of comparable size. Notably, the reasoning models show the lowest overall performance, even compared to QWEN_{2.5} CODER (14B), indicating that reasoning capabilities alone are insufficient for graphics program synthesis and more domain-specific post-training may be needed.

B. Supplementary Comparison with DETIKZIFY

Tab. 6 shows in detail how TIKZERO’s inverse graphics model (hereafter referred to as DETIKZIFY_{v2}) compares against DETIKZIFY_{DS} (7b), previously the best performing DETIKZIFY model, as evaluated on the test split of DATIKZ_{v3}. DETIKZIFY_{v2} clearly outperforms its predecessor across all evaluated metrics. Below, we briefly outline key differences in training and inference beyond what we described in Sec. 4. For a comprehensive description of the foundation on which DETIKZIFY_{v2} builds, we refer to Belouadi et al. [2].

Training Similar to DETIKZIFY, DETIKZIFY_{v2} employs a dense layer as the modality connector between the vision encoder and text decoder. However, for pretraining this layer, we replace the METAFIG dataset [2] with the substantially larger ARXIVCAP dataset, extracting 1 million (figure, caption, OCR) triplets. During fine-tuning, we randomly substitute inputs with synthetically generated sketches to support hand-drawn inputs. To generate these sketches, we fine-tune the image-editing model ULTRAEDIT [91] on a dataset of real, human-created scientific sketches [2]. The resulting model, ULTRASKECH, achieves a congruence coefficient (CC) [92] of 0.74 with said sketches, compared to 0.72 for the previous model used with DETIKZIFY. Additionally, we generate synthetic sketches using traditional image transformations such as random displacement fields. While these sketches exhibit less diversity, they better preserve text rendering and achieve a comparable CC of 0.75. Averaging the sketch representations from both methods increases the CC to 0.82, demonstrating their complementary nature.

Inference DETIKZIFY implements a Monte Carlo Tree Search-based inference algorithm to iteratively refine outputs. As a reward signal r , it computes the cosine similarity $r_{\cos} = \cos(\text{pool}(\mathbf{x}), \text{pool}(\mathbf{y}))$ between image patch embeddings \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} of input images and compiled outputs via a learned pooling function. Since DETIKZIFY_{v2} fully fine-tunes the vision encoder and uses its patch embeddings directly, it cannot compute pooled embeddings in the same way. As an alternative, inspired by popular machine translation metrics [93–96], we experiment with computing the Earth Mover’s Distance (EMD) [97, 98] with image patch embeddings. Given the distance matrix \mathbf{D} , where $D_{i,j} = \cos(x_i, y_j)$, EMD is defined as follows:

$$\text{EMD}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathbf{x}|} \sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{y}|} F_{i,j} D_{i,j}}{\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathbf{x}|} \sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{y}|} F_{i,j}},$$

$$\text{with } \min_{\mathbf{F} \geq 0} \sum_{i=1}^{|\mathbf{x}|} \sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{y}|} F_{i,j} D_{i,j} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \forall_{i,j} \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{|\mathbf{x}|} F_{i,j} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{y}|}, \\ \sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{y}|} F_{i,j} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x}|}. \end{cases}$$

When correlating reward scores computed as r_{\cos} from DETIKZIFY and $r_{\text{EMD}} = \text{EMD}(x_i, y_j)$ from DETIKZIFY_{v2} with human judgments from Belouadi et al. [2], we find that r_{EMD} enhances correlation with humans (0.456 segment-level and 0.911 system-level Spearman’s ρ), compared to r_{\cos} (0.436 and 0.642, respectively). This demonstrates that DETIKZIFY_{v2} not only supports the inference algorithm but improves upon DETIKZIFY’s capabilities.

C. Supplementary Inference Details

To instruct general-purpose models to generate TikZ code, we employ a consistent prompt across all models (GPT-4o, QWEN_{2.5} CODER (32B), and IDEFICS 3 (8B)) originally engineered by Zhang et al. [4]. For each figure, we replace the <caption> placeholder with the specific caption:

```

1 Please generate a scientific
2 figure according to the following
3 requirements: <caption>. Your output
4 should be in TikZ code. Do not include
5 any text other than the TikZ code.
```

D. Supplementary Experimental Results

Tab. 7 presents detailed evaluation metrics scores for the low-resource training experiments discussed in Sec. 6.2. The results show a consistent degradation in performance across all metrics as both the amount of training data and the number of layers decrease, a trend effectively captured by the AVG scores also shown in Tab. 4.

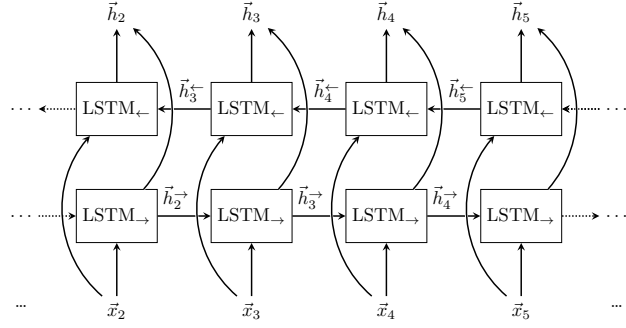
E. Annotator Demographics

Our annotation team consists of thirteen experts with extensive research experience in Machine Learning, Natural Language Processing, or Computer Vision. The team includes one male faculty member, four female PhD students, four male PhD students, and four male researcher scientists from a research institute. We deliberately selected expert annotators based on findings by Belouadi et al. [3], which demonstrated that crowd workers often lack the necessary research background to provide reliable annotations for scientific figures. To mitigate potential biases, each annotator received the tuples and items within the tuples in randomized order.

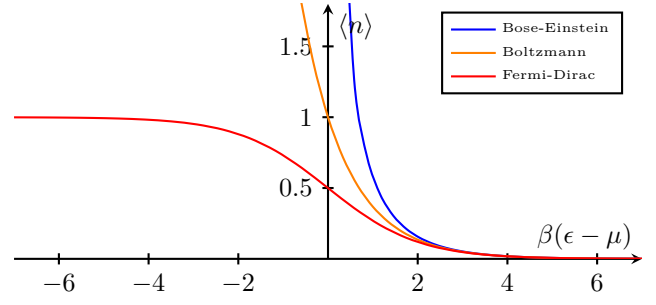
F. Additional Examples

Figure 5 showcases examples⁵ from DATIKZ_{v3} with permissive licenses. Additionally, Tab. 8 presents randomly sampled tuples from our human evaluation with the highest and lowest rated instances highlighted. The results show that AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) and TIKZERO (Cos) are more frequently selected as the worst models (four and three times, respectively), while TIKZERO+ and GPT-4o are more often chosen as the best models (both three times), which aligns with our findings in Sec. 5.3. Finally, Fig. 6 illustrates example programs generated by TIKZERO+ and AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM), demonstrating how TIKZERO+ utilizes advanced TikZ features, whereas AUTOMATIKZ_{v2} (LLM) employs only basic, simple commands.

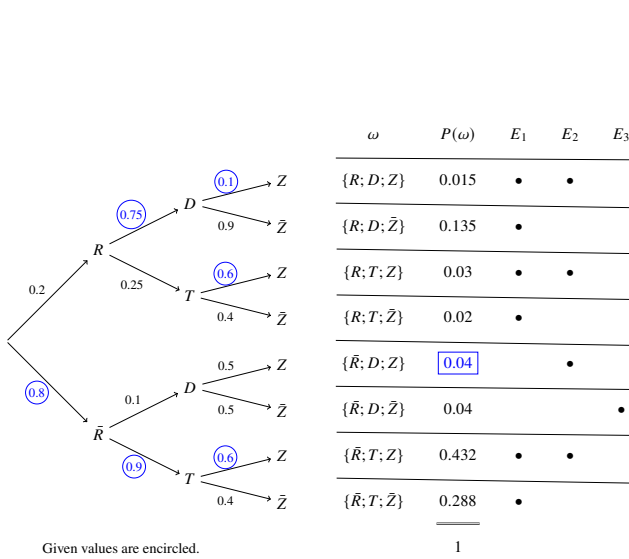
⁵sourced from <https://github.com/PetarV-/TikZ>, <https://github.com/janosh/tikz>, <https://tikz.net>, and <https://arxiv.org>



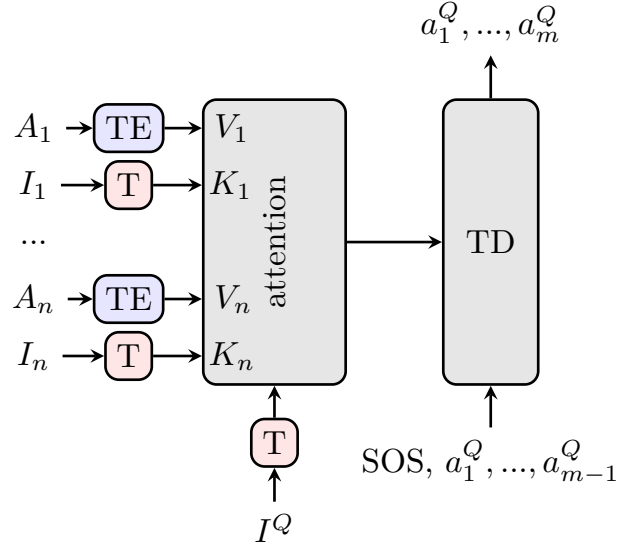
(a) A diagram representing a recurrent neural network consisting of several LSTM blocks, processing the input sequence simultaneously forwards and backwards (to exploit both directions of temporal dependence). Contains some rather tight manoeuvring.



(b) A plot comparing the distribution functions of Bose-Einstein, Boltzmann, and Fermi-Dirac statistics as a function of the reduced chemical potential $\beta(\epsilon - \mu)$. This visualisation highlights the differences between the three types of distribution functions, which are used to describe the behavior of particles in different statistical systems.



(c) Tree with aligned matrix. A probability tree with an aligned matrix listing the possible outcomes, their probabilities and three columns for events described in later tasks. It uses the grahdrawing library and requires LuaLaTeX.



(d) Our approach is a modified version of **meta-seq2seq**. A transformer decoder (TD) is trained to produce a sequence of actions a_1^Q, \dots, a_m^Q given a query instruction I^Q . The context are demonstrations (I_k, A_k) produced by our generative model. We use a transformer encoder-decoder (T) to encode instructions and state S and a transformer encoder (TE) to encode actions. The transformers that process instructions (pink blocks) receive state S as the input of the encoder.

Figure 5. Representative examples from DATIKZ_{v3} (also present in DATIKZ and DATIKZ_{v2}), with permissive licenses.

Models	DSIM \uparrow	KID \downarrow	CLIP \uparrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow	AVG \uparrow
TikZERO (Cos)	52.829	5.103	10.051	1.603	65.51	82.291	64.309
TikZERO (Base)	<u>52.373</u>	<u>5.225</u>	9.428	<u>1.589</u>	65.286	<u>83.128</u>	<u>63.129</u>
QWEN2.5 CODER (14B)	48.352	12.988	19.761	0.229	60.304	93.285	58.894
DEEPSEEK-R1 QWEN (32B)	47.573	8.887	<u>21.201</u>	1.388	64.928	66.225	57.252
DEEPSEEK-R1 QWEN (14B)	44.616	15.43	21.695	0.842	<u>63.323</u>	36.11	31.102

Table 5. System-level scores $\times 100$ for TikZERO (Cos) and additional baselines. Overall, TikZERO achieves the strongest average performance across metrics.

Models	Reference Figures					Synthetic Sketches				
	DSIM \uparrow	KID \downarrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow	DSIM \uparrow	KID \downarrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow
DETIKZIFY _{DS} (7b)	75.46	0.842	2.953	56.851	84.019	67.379	0.766	1.541	59.589	84.401
DETIKZIFY _{v2}	80.503	0.626	6.105	54.946	93.326	74.584	0.751	3.356	58.32	93.858

Table 6. System-level scores $\times 100$ for DETIKZIFY_{v2} and DETIKZIFY_{DS} (7b) on both reference figures and synthetic sketches generated with ULTRASKEETCH from the test split of DATIKZ_{v3}. Best scores are in bold, and arrows indicate metric directionality. Note that we compute DREAMSIM using updated models [68], whereas Belouadi et al. [3] used the original models in their work [67].

Data	Intv.	DSIM \uparrow	KID \downarrow	CLIP \uparrow	cBLEU \uparrow	TED \downarrow	MTE \uparrow	AVG \uparrow
100%	1	52.771	<u>5.127</u>	<u>9.949</u>	1.607	65.516	82.292	92.411
100%	2	<u>52.311</u>	5.2	9.955	1.484	65.473	82.588	<u>87.557</u>
100%	4	51.794	5.688	8.886	1.429	<u>65.399</u>	83.988	82.254
100%	8	51.59	5.933	<u>9.818</u>	1.371	65.608	<u>83.679</u>	76.545
50%	1	52.106	5.835	<u>8.527</u>	1.454	65.605	83.599	77.478
50%	2	<u>52.143</u>	5.103	<u>9.315</u>	1.393	65.355	82.924	85.249
50%	4	<u>50.492</u>	6.689	<u>8.852</u>	1.459	65.951	78.456	47.381
50%	8	<u>50.093</u>	6.738	7.999	1.379	65.963	78.923	40.816
25%	1	51.55	6.055	<u>9.12</u>	1.472	66.237	77.961	49.967
25%	2	<u>51.231</u>	6.152	<u>8.943</u>	1.43	65.714	77.566	54.942
25%	4	<u>49.859</u>	7.715	7.316	1.41	66.128	79.704	32.12
25%	8	<u>49.179</u>	7.764	6.495	1.434	66.009	79.9	29.774
12.5%	1	<u>50.485</u>	6.25	<u>7.568</u>	<u>1.509</u>	65.8	80.816	56.055
12.5%	2	<u>50.152</u>	7.129	6.353	1.275	66.045	81.05	33.817
12.5%	4	<u>49.667</u>	7.031	6.474	1.221	65.892	82.634	37.914
12.5%	8	<u>48.827</u>	8.154	5.054	1.11	65.813	80.738	16.25

Table 7. System-level scores $\times 100$ TIKZERO (Cos) trained on varying fractions of data and intervals of cross-attention layers. Bold and underlined values denote the best and second-best scores for the whole table, respectively. Cell shading illustrates score magnitudes. Arrows indicate metric directionality.

Reference	AUTOMATIKZ _{v2}	TIKZERO	TIKZERO+	GPT-4o
<p>An illustration of the reduction from densest k-subgraph to U-RCP. On the left there is a simple undirected graph G with a single edge. The 2-reduced directed graph of G is on the right. Each vertex of G is replaced by $2 \cdot 2 = 4$ copies with a bidirectional edge connecting any two copies of the same vertex, and an outgoing edge from each copy to the single edge-vertex e.</p>				
<p>Domain of dependence: The closed trapezoidal region Ω_T used in the proof of Proposition 1, shaded with darker yellow; the domain of dependence of point $(0, \ell)$ is Ω_ℓ along with the top region shaded with lighter yellow.</p>				
<p>A sketch of iterating $f(x) = x - 1/x$. Points bigger than 1 get sent to point in $[0, 1]$ which then moves to a point ≤ -1 which moves to $[-1, 0]$ which is sent to a point ≥ 1 and so on.</p>				
<p>A multiline diagram D with $n = 6$ columns and $s = 5$ rows, with content $\lambda = (5, 4, 3, 1, 0, 0)$ and bottom row $\rho^{(1)}(D) = (4, 0, 1, 5, 3, 0) \in S_\lambda$. It has weight $w(D) = w_X(D) w_T(D) = x_1^3 x_3^2 x_4^4 x_5^2 x_6^2$.</p>	$\lambda \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 5 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$			

Table 8. Alternating rows display randomly selected tuples from the caption and image similarity human evaluation task (cf. Sec. 5.3). The frames of highest and lowest rated instances are highlighted in green and red, respectively.

```

1 \documentclass[border=10pt]{standalone}
2 \usepackage{pgfplots}
3 \pgfplotsset{width=7cm,compat=1.8}
4 \begin{document}
5 \begin{tikzpicture}
6     \begin{axis}[grid=major,view={210}{30}]
7         \addplot3+[domain=-5:5,surf]
8             {exp(-x^2-y^2)*x};
9         % connect classical points
10        \addplot3+[mark=*,only marks,blue,samples
11            at={-4.473,-1.463,1.463,4.473}]
12            {exp(-x^2-y^2)*x};
13        \end{axis}
14    \end{tikzpicture}
15 \end{document}

```

TikZERO+

```

1 \documentclass[12pt]{article}
2 \usepackage{amsmath,amsthm,amssymb,amsfonts}
3 \usepackage{tikz}
4 \usepackage{pgfplots}
5 \usetikzlibrary{arrows.meta}
6
7 \begin{document}
8
9 \begin{tikzpicture}
10     \begin{axis}[view={60}{30}]
11         \addplot3 [surf] {3*x^2 + y^2};
12     \end{axis}
13 \end{tikzpicture}
14
15 \end{document}

```

TikZERO+

```

1 \documentclass[11pt,a4paper]{article}
2 \usepackage{amsmath}
3 \usepackage{amssymb}
4 \usepackage{color}
5 \usepackage{tikz}
6
7 \begin{document}
8
9 \begin{tikzpicture}[scale=0.5]
10 \draw [thick,->] (-2,0) -- (2,0);
11 \draw [thick,->] (0,-2) -- (0,2);
12 \draw [thick] (1.8,0) arc (0:180:1.8);
13 \node [right] at (2,0) {\mathrm{Re}(\omega)};
14 \node [above] at (0,2) {\mathrm{Im}(\omega)};
15 \node [right] at (1.8,1) {\Gamma};
16 \end{tikzpicture}
17
18 \end{document}

```

AUTOMATikZ_{v2}

```

1 \documentclass{article}
2 \usepackage{amssymb}
3 \usepackage{amsmath}
4 \usepackage{pgfplots}
5 \pgfplotsset{compat=1.14}
6 \usepackage{tikz}
7 \usetikzlibrary{arrows}
8
9 \begin{document}
10
11 \begin{tikzpicture}[scale=3]
12 \draw[fill=green!15] (1,0) -- (2,0) -- (2,2) --
13     (1,2) -- (1,0);
14 \draw[thick] (1,0) -- (1,2);
15 \draw[thick] (0,1) -- (2,1);
16 \node[below] at (1,0) {\$0\$};
17 \node[below] at (2,0) {\$1\$};
18 \node[left] at (1,2) {\$1\$};
19 \node[left] at (0,1) {\$0\$};
20 \node[above] at (1.5,1.5) {\$\gamma\$};
21 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (1,0);
22 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (0,1);
23 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
24 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (1.5,0.5);
25 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,1.5);
26 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (1.5,1.5);
27 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (2,0);
28 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (0,2);
29 \draw[->,thick] (0,0) -- (1,1);
30 \end{tikzpicture}
31
32 \end{document}

```

AUTOMATikZ_{v2}

Figure 6. TikZ programs generated by TikZERO+ (top) and AUTOMATikZ_{v2} (LLM; bottom) corresponding to the figures shown in the first row of Fig. 1 in the same order.