

# The Not So Short Introduction to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub>

---

*Or E<sub>T</sub><sub>X</sub> 2<sub>ε</sub> in 112 minutes*

by Tobias Oetiker

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# Thank you!

Much of the material used in this introduction comes from an Austrian introduction to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2.09 written in German by:

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If you are interested in the German document, you can find a version updated for L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> by Jörg Knappen at  
CTAN:/tex-archive/info/lshort/german

While preparing this document, I asked for reviewers on `comp.text.tex`. I got a lot of response. The following individuals helped with corrections, suggestions and material to improve this paper. They put in a big effort to help me get this document into its present shape. I would like to sincerely thank all of them. Naturally, all the mistakes you'll find in this book are mine. If you ever find a word that is spelled correctly, it must have been one of the people below dropping me a line.

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# Preface

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X [1] is a typesetting system that is very suitable for producing scientific and mathematical documents of high typographical quality. It is also suitable for producing all sorts of other documents, from simple letters to complete books. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X uses T<sub>E</sub>X [2] as its formatting engine.

This short introduction describes L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> and should be sufficient for most applications of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Refer to [1, 3] for a complete description of the L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system.

This introduction is split into 5 chapters:

**Chapter 1** tells you about the basic structure of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> documents. You will also learn a bit about the history of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. After reading this chapter, you should have a rough understanding of how L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X works. This framework will enable you to integrate the information in the other chapters into the big picture.

**Chapter 2** goes into the details of typesetting your documents. It explains most of the essential L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands and environments. After reading this chapter, you will be able to write your first documents.

**Chapter 3** explains how to typeset formulae with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Many examples demonstrate how to use one of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X's main strengths. At the end of the chapter are tables listing all mathematical symbols available in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

**Chapter 4** explains indexes, bibliography generation and inclusion of EPS graphics. It introduces creation of PDF documents with pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X and presents some handy extension packages, such as XY-pic.

**Chapter 5** contains some potentially dangerous information about how to alter the standard document layout produced by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. It will tell you how to change things such that the beautiful output of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X turns ugly or stunning, depending on your abilities.

It is important to read the chapters in order—the book is not that big, after all. Be sure to carefully read the examples, because a lot of the information is in the examples placed throughout the book.

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is available for most computers, from the PC and Mac to large UNIX and VMS systems. On many university computer clusters you will find that a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X installation is available, ready to use. Information on how to access the local L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X installation should be provided in the *Local Guide* [4]. If you have problems getting started, ask the person who gave you this booklet. The scope of this document is *not* to tell you how to install and set up a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system, but to teach you how to write your documents so that they can be processed by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

If you need to get hold of any L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X related material, have a look at one of the Comprehensive T<sub>E</sub>X Archive Network (CTAN) sites. The homepage is at <http://www.ctan.org>. All packages can also be retrieved from the ftp archive <ftp://www.ctan.org> and its various mirror sites all over the world. They can be found e.g. at <ftp://ctan.tug.org> (US), <ftp://ftp.dante.de> (Germany), <ftp://ftp.tex.ac.uk> (UK). If you are not in one of these countries, choose the archive closest to you.

You will find other references to CTAN throughout the book, especially pointers to software and documents you might want to download. Instead of writing down complete urls, I just wrote CTAN: followed by whatever location within the CTAN tree you should go to.

If you want to run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on your own computer, take a look at what is available from `CTAN:/tex-archive/systems`.

If you have ideas for something to be added, removed or altered in this document, please let me know. I am especially interested in feedback from L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X novices about which bits of this intro are easy to understand and which could be explained better.

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The current version of this document is available on  
`CTAN:/tex-archive/info/lshort`

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# Chapter 1

## Things You Need to Know

The first part of this chapter presents a short overview of the philosophy and history of  $\LaTeX 2_{\epsilon}$ . The second part focuses on the basic structures of a  $\LaTeX$  document. After reading this chapter, you should have a rough knowledge of how  $\LaTeX$  works, which you will need to understand the rest of this book.

### 1.1 The Name of the Game

#### 1.1.1 $\TeX$

$\TeX$  is a computer program created by Donald E. Knuth [2]. It is aimed at typesetting text and mathematical formulae. Knuth started writing the  $\TeX$  typesetting engine in 1977 to explore the potential of the digital printing equipment that was beginning to infiltrate the publishing industry at that time, especially in the hope that he could reverse the trend of deteriorating typographical quality that he saw affecting his own books and articles.  $\TeX$  as we use it today was released in 1982, with some slight enhancements added in 1989 to better support 8-bit characters and multiple languages.  $\TeX$  is renowned for being extremely stable, for running on many different kinds of computers, and for being virtually bug free. The version number of  $\TeX$  is converging to  $\pi$  and is now at 3.14159.

$\TeX$  is pronounced “Tech,” with a “ch” as in the German word “Ach” or in the Scottish “Loch.” In an ASCII environment,  $\TeX$  becomes `TeX`.

#### 1.1.2 $\LaTeX$

$\LaTeX$  is a macro package that enables authors to typeset and print their work at the highest typographical quality, using a predefined, professional layout.  $\LaTeX$  was originally written by Leslie Lamport [1]. It uses the  $\TeX$  formatter as its typesetting engine. These days  $\LaTeX$  is maintained by Frank Mittelbach.

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is pronounced “Lay-tech” or “Lah-tech.” If you refer to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X in an ASCII environment, you type LaTeX. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> is pronounced “Lay-tech two e” and typed LaTeX2e.

## 1.2 Basics

### 1.2.1 Author, Book Designer, and Typesetter

To publish something, authors give their typed manuscript to a publishing company. One of their book designers then decides the layout of the document (column width, fonts, space before and after headings, . . .). The book designer writes his instructions into the manuscript and then gives it to a typesetter, who typesets the book according to these instructions.

A human book designer tries to find out what the author had in mind while writing the manuscript. He decides on chapter headings, citations, examples, formulae, etc. based on his professional knowledge and from the contents of the manuscript.

In a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X environment, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X takes the role of the book designer and uses T<sub>E</sub>X as its typesetter. But L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is “only” a program and therefore needs more guidance. The author has to provide additional information to describe the logical structure of his work. This information is written into the text as “L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands.”

This is quite different from the WYSIWYG<sup>1</sup> approach that most modern word processors, such as *MS Word* or *Corel WordPerfect*, take. With these applications, authors specify the document layout interactively while typing text into the computer. They can see on the screen how the final work will look when it is printed.

When using L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X it is not normally possible to see the final output while typing the text, but the final output can be previewed on the screen after processing the file with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Then corrections can be made before actually sending the document to the printer.

### 1.2.2 Layout Design

Typographical design is a craft. Unskilled authors often commit serious formatting errors by assuming that book design is mostly a question of aesthetics—“If a document looks good artistically, it is well designed.” But as a document has to be read and not hung up in a picture gallery, the readability and understandability is much more important than the beautiful look of it. Examples:

- The font size and the numbering of headings have to be chosen to make the structure of chapters and sections clear to the reader.

---

<sup>1</sup>What you see is what you get.



- The line length has to be short enough not to strain the eyes of the reader, while long enough to fill the page beautifully.

With WYSIWYG systems, authors often generate aesthetically pleasing documents with very little or inconsistent structure.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  prevents such formatting errors by forcing the author to declare the *logical* structure of his document.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  then chooses the most suitable layout.

### 1.2.3 Advantages and Disadvantages

When people from the WYSIWYG world meet people who use  $\text{\LaTeX}$ , they often discuss “the advantages of  $\text{\LaTeX}$  over a normal word processor” or the opposite. The best thing you can do when such a discussion starts is to keep a low profile, since such discussions often get out of hand. But sometimes you cannot escape . . .

So here is some ammunition. The main advantages of  $\text{\LaTeX}$  over normal word processors are the following:

- Professionally crafted layouts are available, which make a document really look as if “printed.”
- The typesetting of mathematical formulae is supported in a convenient way.
- Users only need to learn a few easy-to-understand commands that specify the logical structure of a document. They almost never need to tinker with the actual layout of the document.
- Even complex structures such as footnotes, references, table of contents, and bibliographies can be generated easily.
- Free add-on packages exist for many typographical tasks not directly supported by basic  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . For example, packages are available to include `POSTSCRIPT` graphics or to typeset bibliographies conforming to exact standards. Many of these add-on packages are described in *The  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Companion* [3].
- $\text{\LaTeX}$  encourages authors to write well-structured texts, because this is how  $\text{\LaTeX}$  works—by specifying structure.
- $\text{\TeX}$ , the formatting engine of  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$ , is highly portable and free. Therefore the system runs on almost any hardware platform available.

$\text{\LaTeX}$  also has some disadvantages, and I guess it’s a bit difficult for me to find any sensible ones, though I am sure other people can tell you hundreds ; -)

- $\text{\LaTeX}$  does not work well for people who have sold their souls . . .
- Although some parameters can be adjusted within a predefined document layout, the design of a whole new layout is difficult and takes a lot of time.<sup>2</sup>
- It is very hard to write unstructured and disorganized documents.
- Your hamster might, despite some encouraging first steps, never be able to fully grasp the concept of Logical Markup.

### 1.3 $\text{\LaTeX}$ Input Files

The input for  $\text{\LaTeX}$  is a plain ASCII text file. You can create it with any text editor. It contains the text of the document, as well as the commands that tell  $\text{\LaTeX}$  how to typeset the text.

#### 1.3.1 Spaces

“Whitespace” characters, such as blank or tab, are treated uniformly as “space” by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . *Several consecutive* whitespace characters are treated as *one* “space.” Whitespace at the start of a line is generally ignored, and a single line break is treated as “whitespace.”

An empty line between two lines of text defines the end of a paragraph. *Several* empty lines are treated the same as *one* empty line. The text below is an example. On the left hand side is the text from the input file, and on the right hand side is the formatted output.

It does not matter whether you  
enter one or several      spaces  
after a word.

An empty line starts a new  
paragraph.

It does not matter whether you enter one or  
several spaces after a word.

An empty line starts a new paragraph.

#### 1.3.2 Special Characters

The following symbols are reserved characters that either have a special meaning under  $\text{\LaTeX}$  or are not available in all the fonts. If you enter them directly in your text, they will normally not print, but rather coerce  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to do things you did not intend.

# \$ % ^ & \_ { } ~ \

---

<sup>2</sup>Rumour says that this is one of the key elements that will be addressed in the upcoming  $\text{\LaTeX}3$  system.

As you will see, these characters can be used in your documents all the same by adding a prefix backslash:

```
\# \$ \% \^{} \& \_ \{ \} \~{}
```

```
# $ % ^ & _ { } ~
```

The other symbols and many more can be printed with special commands in mathematical formulae or as accents. The backslash character `\` can *not* be entered by adding another backslash in front of it (`\\`); this sequence is used for line breaking.<sup>3</sup>

### 1.3.3 L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Commands

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands are case sensitive, and take one of the following two formats:

- They start with a backslash `\` and then have a name consisting of letters only. Command names are terminated by a space, a number or any other ‘non-letter.’
- They consist of a backslash and exactly one non-letter.

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X ignores whitespace after commands. If you want to get a space after a command, you have to put either `{ }` and a blank or a special spacing command after the command name. The `{ }` stops L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X from eating up all the space after the command name.

```
I read that Knuth divides the
people working with \TeX{} into
\TeX{}nicians and \TeX perts.\\
Today is \today.
```

```
I read that Knuth divides the people working
with TEX into TEXnicians and TEXperts.
Today is 16th December 2002.
```

Some commands need a parameter, which has to be given between curly braces `{ }` after the command name. Some commands support optional parameters, which are added after the command name in square brackets `[ ]`. The next examples use some L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands. Don’t worry about them; they will be explained later.

```
You can \textsl{lean} on me!
```

```
You can lean on me!
```

```
Please, start a new line
right here!\newline
Thank you!
```

```
Please, start a new line right here!
Thank you!
```

<sup>3</sup>Try the `\backslash` command instead. It produces a ‘\’.

### 1.3.4 Comments

When L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X encounters a % character while processing an input file, it ignores the rest of the present line, the line break, and all whitespace at the beginning of the next line.

This can be used to write notes into the input file, which will not show up in the printed version.

```
This is an % stupid
% Better: instructive <----
example: Supercal%
         ifragilist%
         icexpialidocious
```

This is an example: Supercalifragilisticexpialidocious

The % character can also be used to split long input lines where no whitespace or line breaks are allowed.

For longer comments you could use the `comment` environment provided by the `verbatim` package. This means, to use the `comment` environment you have to add the command `\usepackage{verbatim}` to the preamble of your document.

```
This is another
\begin{comment}
rather stupid,
but helpful
\end{comment}
example for embedding
comments in your document.
```

This is another example for embedding comments in your document.

Note that this won't work inside complex environments, like math for example.

## 1.4 Input File Structure

When L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> processes an input file, it expects it to follow a certain structure. Thus every input file must start with the command

```
\documentclass{...}
```

This specifies what sort of document you intend to write. After that, you can include commands that influence the style of the whole document, or you can load packages that add new features to the L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system. To load such a package you use the command

```
\usepackage{...}
```

When all the setup work is done,<sup>4</sup> you start the body of the text with the command

---

<sup>4</sup>The area between `\documentclass` and `\begin{document}` is called the *preamble*.

```
\begin{document}
```

Now you enter the text mixed with some useful  $\text{\LaTeX}$  commands. At the end of the document you add the

```
\end{document}
```

command, which tells  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to call it a day. Anything that follows this command will be ignored by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ .

Figure 1.1 shows the contents of a minimal  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$  file. A slightly more complicated input file is given in Figure 1.2.

## 1.5 A Typical Command Line Session

I bet you must be dying to try out the neat small  $\text{\LaTeX}$  input file shown on page 7. Here is some help:  $\text{\LaTeX}$  itself comes without a GUI or fancy buttons to press. It is just a program that crunches away at your input file. Some  $\text{\LaTeX}$  installations feature a graphical front-end where you can click  $\text{\LaTeX}$

---

```
\documentclass{article}
\begin{document}
Small is beautiful.
\end{document}
```

---

Figure 1.1: A Minimal  $\text{\LaTeX}$  File.

---

```
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]{article}
% define the title
\author{H.~Partl}
\title{Minimalism}
\begin{document}
% generates the title
\maketitle
% insert the table of contents
\tableofcontents
\section{Some Interesting Words}
Well, and here begins my lovely article.
\section{Good Bye World}
\ldots{} and here it ends.
\end{document}
```

---

Figure 1.2: Example of a Realistic Journal Article.

into compiling your input file. But Real Men don't Click, so here is how to coax L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X into compiling your input file on a text based system. Please note: this description assumes that a working L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X installation already sits on your computer (Real Men use Unix).

1. Edit/Create your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X input file. This file must be plain ASCII text. On Unix all the editors will create just that. On Windows you might want to make sure that you save the file in ASCII or *Plain Text* format. When picking a name for your file, make sure it bears the extension `.tex`.
2. Run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on your input file. If successful you will end up with a `.dvi` file. It may be necessary to run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X several times to get the table of contents and all internal references right. When your input file has a bug L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will tell you about it and stop processing your input file. Type `ctrl-D` to get back to the command line.

```
latex foo.tex
```

3. Now you may view the DVI file. There are several ways to do that. You can show the file on screen with

```
xdvi foo.dvi &
```

This only works on Unix with X11. If you are on Windows you might want to try yap (yet another previewer).

You can also convert the dvi file to PostScript for printing or viewing with Ghostscript.

```
dvips -Pcmz foo.dvi -o foo.ps
```

If you are lucky your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system even comes with the `dvipdf` tool, which allows you to convert your `.dvi` files straight into pdf.

```
dvipdf foo.dvi
```

## 1.6 The Layout of the Document

### 1.6.1 Document Classes

The first information L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X needs to know when processing an input file is the type of document the author wants to create. This is specified with the

`\documentclass` command.

```
\documentclass[options]{class}
```

Here *class* specifies the type of document to be created. Table 1.1 lists the document classes explained in this introduction. The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> distribution provides additional classes for other documents, including letters and slides. The *options* parameter customises the behaviour of the document class. The options have to be separated by commas. The most common options for the standard document classes are listed in Table 1.2.

Example: An input file for a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X document could start with the line

```
\documentclass[11pt,twoside,a4paper]{article}
```

which instructs L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to typeset the document as an *article* with a base font size of *eleven points*, and to produce a layout suitable for *double sided* printing on *A4 paper*.

### 1.6.2 Packages

While writing your document, you will probably find that there are some areas where basic L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X cannot solve your problem. If you want to include graphics, coloured text or source code from a file into your document, you need to enhance the capabilities of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Such enhancements are called packages. Packages are activated with the

```
\usepackage[options]{package}
```

command, where *package* is the name of the package and *options* is a list of

Table 1.1: Document Classes.

---

**article** for articles in scientific journals, presentations, short reports, program documentation, invitations, ...

**report** for longer reports containing several chapters, small books, PhD theses, ...

**book** for real books

**slides** for slides. The class uses big sans serif letters. You might want to consider using FoilT<sub>E</sub>X<sup>a</sup> instead.

---

<sup>a</sup>CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/contrib/supported/foiltex

Table 1.2: Document Class Options.

---

<code>10pt</code> , <code>11pt</code> , <code>12pt</code>	Sets the size of the main font in the document. If no option is specified, <code>10pt</code> is assumed.
<code>a4paper</code> , <code>letterpaper</code> , ...	Defines the paper size. The default size is <code>letterpaper</code> . Besides that, <code>a5paper</code> , <code>b5paper</code> , <code>executivepaper</code> , and <code>legalpaper</code> can be specified.
<code>fleqn</code>	Typesets displayed formulae left-aligned instead of centred.
<code>leqno</code>	Places the numbering of formulae on the left hand side instead of the right.
<code>titlepage</code> , <code>notitlepage</code>	Specifies whether a new page should be started after the document title or not. The <code>article</code> class does not start a new page by default, while <code>report</code> and <code>book</code> do.
<code>onecolumn</code> , <code>twocolumn</code>	Instructs L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X to typeset the document in one column or two columns.
<code>twoside</code> , <code>oneside</code>	Specifies whether double or single sided output should be generated. The classes <code>article</code> and <code>report</code> are single sided and the <code>book</code> class is double sided by default. Note that this option concerns the style of the document only. The option <code>twoside</code> does <i>not</i> tell the printer you use that it should actually make a two-sided printout.
<code>landscape</code>	Changes the layout of the document to print in landscape mode.
<code>openright</code> , <code>openany</code>	Makes chapters begin either only on right hand pages or on the next page available. This does not work with the <code>article</code> class, as it does not know about chapters. The <code>report</code> class by default starts chapters on the next page available and the <code>book</code> class starts them on right hand pages.

---



keywords that trigger special features in the package. Some packages come with the  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$  base distribution (See Table 1.3). Others are provided separately. You may find more information on the packages installed at your site in your *Local Guide* [4]. The prime source for information about  $\text{\LaTeX}$  packages is *The  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Companion* [3]. It contains descriptions on hundreds of packages, along with information of how to write your own extensions to  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$ .

### 1.6.3 Page Styles

$\text{\LaTeX}$  supports three predefined header/footer combinations—so-called page styles. The *style* parameter of the

```
\pagestyle{style}
```

command defines which one to use. Table 1.4 lists the predefined page styles.

It is possible to change the page style of the current page with the command

```
\thispagestyle{style}
```

A description how to create your own headers and footers can be found in *The  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Companion* [3] and in section 4.4 on page 67.

## 1.7 Files You Might Encounter

When you work with  $\text{\LaTeX}$  you will soon find yourself in a maze of files with various extensions and probably no clue. The following list explains the various file types you might encounter when working with  $\text{\TeX}$ . Please note that this table does not claim to be a complete list of extensions, but if you find one missing that you think is important, please drop me a line.

- .tex**  $\text{\LaTeX}$  or  $\text{\TeX}$  input file. Can be compiled with `latex`.
- .sty**  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Macro package. This is a file you can load into your  $\text{\LaTeX}$  document using the `\usepackage` command.
- .dtx** Documented  $\text{\TeX}$ . This is the main distribution format for  $\text{\LaTeX}$  style files. If you process a `.dtx` file you get documented macro code of the  $\text{\LaTeX}$  package contained in the `.dtx` file.
- .ins** The installer for the files contained in the matching `.dtx` file. If you download a  $\text{\LaTeX}$  package from the net, you will normally get a `.dtx` and a `.ins` file. Run  $\text{\LaTeX}$  on the `.ins` file to unpack the `.dtx` file.

Table 1.3: Some of the Packages Distributed with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

---

<code>doc</code>	Allows the documentation of L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X programs. Described in <code>doc.dtx</code> <sup>a</sup> and in <i>The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Companion</i> [3].
<code>exscale</code>	Provides scaled versions of the math extension font. Described in <code>ltxscale.dtx</code> .
<code>fontenc</code>	Specifies which font encoding L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X should use. Described in <code>loutenc.dtx</code> .
<code>ifthen</code>	Provides commands of the form 'if...then do...otherwise do...' Described in <code>ifthen.dtx</code> and <i>The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Companion</i> [3].
<code>latexsym</code>	To access the L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X symbol font, you should use the <code>latexsym</code> package. Described in <code>latexsym.dtx</code> and in <i>The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Companion</i> [3].
<code>makeidx</code>	Provides commands for producing indexes. Described in section 4.3 and in <i>The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Companion</i> [3].
<code>syntonly</code>	Processes a document without typesetting it.
<code>inputenc</code>	Allows the specification of an input encoding such as ASCII, ISO Latin-1, ISO Latin-2, 437/850 IBM code pages, Apple Macintosh, Next, ANSI-Windows or user-defined one. Described in <code>inputenc.dtx</code> .

---

<sup>a</sup>This file should be installed on your system, and you should be able to get a dvi file by typing `latex doc.dtx` in any directory where you have write permission. The same is true for all the other files mentioned in this table.

Table 1.4: The Predefined Page Styles of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

---

<code>plain</code>	prints the page numbers on the bottom of the page, in the middle of the footer. This is the default page style.
<code>headings</code>	prints the current chapter heading and the page number in the header on each page, while the footer remains empty. (This is the style used in this document)
<code>empty</code>	sets both the header and the footer to be empty.

---

`.cls` Class files define what your document looks like. They are selected with the `\documentclass` command.

`.fd` Font description file telling L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X about new fonts.

The following files are generated when you run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on your input file:

`.dvi` Device Independent File. This is the main result of a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X compile run. You can look at its content with a DVI previewer program or you can send it to a printer with `dvips` or a similar application.

`.log` Gives a detailed account of what happened during the last compiler run.

`.toc` Stores all your section headers. It gets read in for the next compiler run and is used to produce the table of content.

`.lof` This is like `.toc` but for the list of figures.

`.lot` And again the same for the list of tables.

`.aux` Another file that transports information from one compiler run to the next. Among other things, the `.aux` file is used to store information associated with cross-references.

`.idx` If your document contains an index. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X stores all the words that go into the index in this file. Process this file with `makeindex`. Refer to section 4.3 on page 66 for more information on indexing.

`.ind` The processed `.idx` file, ready for inclusion into your document on the next compile cycle.

`.ilg` Logfile telling what `makeindex` did.

## 1.8 Big Projects

When working on big documents, you might want to split the input file into several parts. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X has two commands that help you to do that.

```
\include{filename}
```

You can use this command in the document body to insert the contents of another file named *filename.tex*. Note that L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will start a new page before processing the material input from *filename.tex*.

The second command can be used in the preamble. It allows you to instruct  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to only input some of the  $\text{\included}$  files.

```
 $\text{\includeonly}\{filename, filename, \dots\}$ 
```

After this command is executed in the preamble of the document, only  $\text{\include}$  commands for the filenames that are listed in the argument of the  $\text{\includeonly}$  command will be executed. Note that there must be no spaces between the filenames and the commas.

The  $\text{\include}$  command starts typesetting the included text on a new page. This is helpful when you use  $\text{\includeonly}$ , because the page breaks will not move, even when some included files are omitted. Sometimes this might not be desirable. In this case, you can use the

```
 $\text{\input}\{filename\}$ 
```

command. It simply includes the file specified. No flashy suits, no strings attached.

To make  $\text{\LaTeX}$  quickly check your document you can use the  $\text{\syntonly}$  package. This makes  $\text{\LaTeX}$  skim through your document only checking for proper syntax and usage of the commands, but doesn't produce any (DVI) output. As  $\text{\LaTeX}$  runs faster in this mode you may save yourself valuable time. Usage is very simple:

```
 $\text{\usepackage}\{\text{\syntonly}\}$   
 $\text{\syntonly}$ 
```

When you want to produce pages, just comment out the second line (by adding a percent sign).

# Chapter 2

## Typesetting Text

After reading the previous chapter, you should know about the basic stuff of which a  $\text{\LaTeX}2_{\epsilon}$  document is made. In this chapter I will fill in the remaining structure you will need to know in order to produce real world material.

### 2.1 The Structure of Text and Language

By Hanspeter Schmid <hanspi@schmid-werren.ch>

The main point of writing a text (some modern DAAC<sup>1</sup> literature excluded), is to convey ideas, information, or knowledge to the reader. The reader will understand the text better if these ideas are well-structured, and will see and feel this structure much better if the typographical form reflects the logical and semantical structure of the content.

$\text{\LaTeX}$  is different from other typesetting systems in that you just have to tell it the logical and semantical structure of a text. It then derives the typographical form of the text according to the “rules” given in the document class file and in various style files.

The most important text unit in  $\text{\LaTeX}$  (and in typography) is the paragraph. We call it “text unit” because a paragraph is the typographical form that should reflect one coherent thought, or one idea. You will learn in the following sections how you can force line breaks with e.g. `\\`, and paragraph breaks with e.g. leaving an empty line in the source code. Therefore, if a new thought begins, a new paragraph should begin, and if not, only line breaks should be used. If in doubt about paragraph breaks, think about your text as a conveyor of ideas and thoughts. If you have a paragraph break, but the old thought continues, it should be removed. If some totally new line of thought occurs in the same paragraph, then it should be broken.

Most people completely underestimate the importance of well-placed paragraph breaks. Many people do not even know what the meaning of

---

<sup>1</sup>Different At All Cost, a translation of the Swiss German UVA (Um’s Verrecken Anders).

a paragraph break is, or, especially in  $\text{\LaTeX}$ , introduce paragraph breaks without knowing it. The latter mistake is especially easy to make if equations are used in the text. Look at the following examples, and figure out why sometimes empty lines (paragraph breaks) are used before and after the equation, and sometimes not. (If you don't yet understand all commands well enough to understand these examples, please read this and the following chapter, and then read this section again.)

```
% Example 1
\ldots when Einstein introduced his formula
\begin{equation}
  e = m \cdot c^2 \ ; \ ,
\end{equation}
which is at the same time the most widely known
and the least well understood physical formula.
```

```
% Example 2
\ldots from which follows Kirchhoff's current law:
\begin{equation}
  \sum_{k=1}^n I_k = 0 \ ; \ .
\end{equation}
```

Kirchhoff's voltage law can be derived \ldots

```
% Example 3
\ldots which has several advantages.
```

```
\begin{equation}
  I_D = I_F - I_R
\end{equation}
is the core of a very different transistor model. \ldots
```

The next smaller text unit is a sentence. In English texts, there is a larger space after a period that ends a sentence than after one that ends an abbreviation.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  tries to figure out which one you wanted to have. If  $\text{\LaTeX}$  gets it wrong, you must tell it what you want. This is explained later in this chapter.

The structuring of text even extends to parts of sentences. Most languages have very complicated punctuation rules, but in many languages (including German and English), you will get almost every comma right if you remember what it represents: a short stop in the flow of language. If you are not sure about where to put a comma, read the sentence aloud and

take a short breath at every comma. If this feels awkward at some place, delete that comma; if you feel the urge to breathe (or make a short stop) at some other place, insert a comma.

Finally, the paragraphs of a text should also be structured logically at a higher level, by putting them into chapters, sections, subsections, and so on. However, the typographical effect of writing e.g. `\section{The Structure of Text and Language}` is so obvious that it is almost self-evident how these high-level structures should be used.

## 2.2 Line Breaking and Page Breaking

### 2.2.1 Justified Paragraphs

Books are often typeset with each line having the same length.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  inserts the necessary line breaks and spaces between words by optimizing the contents of a whole paragraph. If necessary, it also hyphenates words that would not fit comfortably on a line. How the paragraphs are typeset depends on the document class. Normally the first line of a paragraph is indented, and there is no additional space between two paragraphs. Refer to section 5.3.2 for more information.

In special cases it might be necessary to order  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to break a line:

`\` or `\newline`

starts a new line without starting a new paragraph.

`\`\*

additionally prohibits a page break after the forced line break.

`\newpage`

starts a new page.

`\linebreak[n]`, `\nolinebreak[n]`, `\pagebreak[n]` and `\nopagebreak[n]`

do what their names say. They enable the author to influence their actions with the optional argument  $n$ , which can be set to a number between zero and four. By setting  $n$  to a value below 4, you leave  $\text{\LaTeX}$  the option of ignoring your command if the result would look very bad. Do not confuse these “break” commands with the “new” commands. Even when you give a “break” command,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  still tries to even out the right border of the page and the total length of the page, as described in the next section. If

you really want to start a “new line”, then use the corresponding command. Guess its name!

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X always tries to produce the best line breaks possible. If it cannot find a way to break the lines in a manner that meets its high standards, it lets one line stick out on the right of the paragraph. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X then complains (“overfull hbox”) while processing the input file. This happens most often when L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X cannot find a suitable place to hyphenate a word.<sup>2</sup> You can instruct L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to lower its standards a little by giving the `\sloppy` command. It prevents such over-long lines by increasing the inter-word spacing—even if the final output is not optimal. In this case a warning (“underfull hbox”) is given to the user. In most such cases the result doesn’t look very good. The command `\fussy` brings L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X back to its default behaviour.

### 2.2.2 Hyphenation

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X hyphenates words whenever necessary. If the hyphenation algorithm does not find the correct hyphenation points, you can remedy the situation by using the following commands to tell T<sub>E</sub>X about the exception.

The command

```
\hyphenation{word list}
```

causes the words listed in the argument to be hyphenated only at the points marked by “-”. The argument of the command should only contain words built from normal letters, or rather signs that are considered to be normal letters by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. The hyphenation hints are stored for the language that is active when the hyphenation command occurs. This means that if you place a hyphenation command into the preamble of your document it will influence the English language hyphenation. If you place the command after the `\begin{document}` and you are using some package for national language support like `babel`, then the hyphenation hints will be active in the language activated through `babel`.

The example below will allow “hyphenation” to be hyphenated as well as “Hyphenation”, and it prevents “FORTRAN”, “Fortran” and “fortran” from being hyphenated at all. No special characters or symbols are allowed in the argument.

Example:

```
\hyphenation{FORTRAN Hy-phen-a-tion}
```

---

<sup>2</sup>Although L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X gives you a warning when that happens (Overfull hbox) and displays the offending line, such lines are not always easy to find. If you use the option `draft` in the `\documentclass` command, these lines will be marked with a thick black line on the right margin.



The command `\-` inserts a discretionary hyphen into a word. This also becomes the only point hyphenation is allowed in this word. This command is especially useful for words containing special characters (e.g. accented characters), because  $\text{\LaTeX}$  does not automatically hyphenate words containing special characters.

I think this is: su\per\cal\-%  
i\frag\i\lis\tic\ex\pi\-%  
al\i\do\cious

I think this is: supercalifragilisticexpialidocious

Several words can be kept together on one line with the command

`\mbox{text}`

It causes its argument to be kept together under all circumstances.

My phone number will change soon.  
It will be `\mbox{0116 291 2319}`.

My phone number will change soon. It will be 0116 291 2319.

The parameter `\mbox{\emph{filename}}` should contain the name of the file.

The parameter *filename* should contain the name of the file.

`\fbox` is similar to `\mbox`, but in addition there will be a visible box drawn around the content.

## 2.3 Ready-Made Strings

In some of the examples on the previous pages, you have seen some very simple  $\text{\LaTeX}$  commands for typesetting special text strings:

Command	Example	Description
<code>\today</code>	16th December 2002	Current date in the current language
<code>\TeX</code>	$\text{\TeX}$	The name of your favorite typesetter
<code>\LaTeX</code>	$\text{\LaTeX}$	The Name of the Game
<code>\LaTeXe</code>	$\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$	The current incarnation of $\text{\LaTeX}$

## 2.4 Special Characters and Symbols

### 2.4.1 Quotation Marks

You should *not* use the " for quotation marks as you would on a typewriter. In publishing there are special opening and closing quotation marks. In  $\text{\LaTeX}$ , use two ‘s (grave accent) for opening quotation marks and two ’s (apostrophe) for closing quotation marks. For single quotes you use just one of each.

‘‘Please press the ‘x’ key.’’

“Please press the ‘x’ key.”

### 2.4.2 Dashes and Hyphens

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X knows four kinds of dashes. You can access three of them with different numbers of consecutive dashes. The fourth sign is actually not a dash at all—it is the mathematical minus sign:

daughter-in-law, X-rated\\  
pages 13--67\\  
yes---or no? \\  
\$0\$, \$1\$ and \$-1\$

daughter-in-law, X-rated  
pages 13–67  
yes—or no?  
0, 1 and −1

The names for these dashes are: ‘-’ hyphen, ‘–’ en-dash, ‘—’ em-dash and ‘−’ minus sign.

### 2.4.3 Tilde (~)

A character often seen in web addresses is the tilde. To generate this in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X you can use `\~` but the result: `~` is not really what you want. Try this instead:

`http://www.rich.edu/\~{bush}` \\  
`http://www.clever.edu/$\sim$demo`

`http://www.rich.edu/~bush`  
`http://www.clever.edu/~demo`

### 2.4.4 Degree Symbol (°)

The following example shows how to print a degree symbol in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X:

It’s `$-30\,\text{\circ}\mathrm{C}`\$.  
I will soon start to  
super-conduct.

It’s −30°C. I will soon start to super-conduct.

### 2.4.5 The Euro Currency Symbol (€)

When writing about money these days, you need the euro symbol. Many current fonts contain a Euro symbol. After loading the `textcomp` package in

the preamble of your document

```
\usepackage{textcomp}
```

you can use the command

```
\texteuro
```

to access it.

If your font does not provide its own Euro symbol or if you do not like the font's Euro symbol, you have two more choices:

First the `eurosym` package. It provides the official Euro symbol:

```
\usepackage[official]{eurosym}
```

If you prefer a euro symbol that matches your font, use the option `gen` in place of the `official` option.

The `marvosym` package also provides many different symbols, including a Euro, under the name:

```
\EUR
```

The `\texteuro{}`, the `\euro{}` and the `\EUR{}` all look different.

The €, the € and the € all look different.

### 2.4.6 Ellipsis (...)

On a typewriter, a comma or a period takes the same amount of space as any other letter. In book printing, these characters occupy only a little space and are set very close to the preceding letter. Therefore, you cannot enter ‘ellipsis’ by just typing three dots, as the spacing would be wrong. Instead, there is a special command for these dots. It is called

```
\ldots
```

Not like this ... but like this:\\  
New York, Tokyo, Budapest, \ldots

Not like this ... but like this:  
New York, Tokyo, Budapest, ...

### 2.4.7 Ligatures

Some letter combinations are typeset not just by setting the different letters one after the other, but by actually using special symbols.

ff fi fl ffi... instead of ff fi fl ffi ...

These so-called ligatures can be prohibited by inserting an `\mbox{}` between the two letters in question. This might be necessary with words built from two words.

```
\Large Not shelfful\\
but shelf\mbox{ }ful
```

Not shelfful  
but shelfful

### 2.4.8 Accents and Special Characters

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X supports the use of accents and special characters from many languages. Table 2.1 shows all sorts of accents being applied to the letter o. Naturally other letters work too.

To place an accent on top of an i or a j, its dots have to be removed. This is accomplished by typing `\i` and `\j`.

```
H\^otel, na\"i ve, \'el\'eve,\\
sm\o rrebr\o d, !'Se\~norita!,\\
Sch\"onbrunner Schlo\ss{ }
Stra\ss e
```

Hôtel, naïve, élève,  
smørrebrød, ¡Señorita!,  
Schönbrunner Schloß Straße

Table 2.1: Accents and Special Characters.

ò	<code>\'o</code>	ó	<code>\'o</code>	ô	<code>\~o</code>	õ	<code>\~o</code>
ō	<code>\=o</code>	ô	<code>\.o</code>	ö	<code>\"o</code>	ç	<code>\c c</code>
ǒ	<code>\u o</code>	ǒ	<code>\v o</code>	ǒ	<code>\H o</code>	q	<code>\c o</code>
q	<code>\d o</code>	q	<code>\b o</code>	ôo	<code>\t oo</code>		
œ	<code>\oe</code>	Œ	<code>\OE</code>	æ	<code>\ae</code>	Æ	<code>\AE</code>
å	<code>\aa</code>	Å	<code>\AA</code>				
ø	<code>\o</code>	Ø	<code>\O</code>	ı	<code>\l</code>	Ł	<code>\L</code>
ı	<code>\i</code>	ı	<code>\j</code>	ı	<code>!'</code>	ı	<code>?'</code>

## 2.5 International Language Support

When you write documents in languages other than English, there are three areas where L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X has to be configured appropriately:

1. All automatically generated text strings<sup>3</sup> have to be adapted to the new language. For many languages, these changes can be accomplished by using the `babel` package by Johannes Braams.
2. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X needs to know the hyphenation rules for the new language. Getting hyphenation rules into L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is a bit more tricky. It means rebuilding the format file with different hyphenation patterns enabled. Your *Local Guide* [4] should give more information on this.
3. Language specific typographic rules. In French for example, there is a mandatory space before each colon character (:).

If your system is already configured appropriately, you can activate the `babel` package by adding the command

```
\usepackage[language]{babel}
```

after the `\documentclass` command. A list of the *languages* built into your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system will be displayed every time the compiler is started. Babel will automatically activate the appropriate hyphenation rules for the language you choose. If your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X format does not support hyphenation in the language of your choice, babel will still work but will disable hyphenation, which has quite a negative effect on the appearance of the typeset document.

Babel also specifies new commands for some languages, which simplify the input of special characters. The German language, for example, contains a lot of umlauts (äöü). With `babel`, you can enter an ö by typing "o instead of `\"o`.

If you call `babel` with multiple languages

```
\usepackage[languageA,languageB]{babel}
```

you have to use the command

```
\selectlanguage{languageA}
```

to set the current language.

---

<sup>3</sup>Table of Contents, List of Figures, ...

Most modern computer systems allow you to input some special characters directly from the keyboard. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X can handle such characters through the `inputenc` package:

```
\usepackage[encoding]{inputenc}
```

When using this package, you should consider that other people might not be able to display your input files on their computer, because they use a different encoding. For example, the German umlaut ä on OS/2 is encoded as 132, but on Unix systems using ISO-LATIN 1 it is encoded as 228; therefore you should use this feature with care. The following encodings may come in handy, depending on the type of system you are working on:

Operating system	encoding
Mac	<code>applemac</code>
Unix	<code>latin1</code>
Windows	<code>ansinew</code>
DOS, OS/2	<code>cp850</code>

Font encoding is a different matter. It defines at which position inside a T<sub>E</sub>X-font each letter is stored. The original Computer Modern T<sub>E</sub>X font only contains the 128 characters of the old 7-bit ASCII character set. When accented characters are required, T<sub>E</sub>X creates them by combining a normal character with an accent. While the resulting output looks perfect, this approach stops the automatic hyphenation from working inside words containing accented characters.

Fortunately, most modern T<sub>E</sub>X distributions contain a copy of the EC fonts. These fonts look like the Computer Modern fonts, but contain special characters for most of the accented characters used in European languages. By using these fonts you can improve hyphenation in non-English documents. The EC fonts are activated by including the `fontenc` package in the preamble of your document.

```
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
```

As of this writing, no free, high quality POSTSCRIPT versions of the EC fonts are available.<sup>4</sup> This causes problems when generating PDF versions of your documents—the resulting PDF file will look abysmal on screen. You might want to have a look at the `aeguill` package, aka *Almost European Computer Modern with Guillemets*, which uses the characters from the original

<sup>4</sup>Vladimir Volovich has created the `cm-super` font bundle which covers the entire EC/TC, EC Concrete, EC Bright and LH fonts. It is available from CTAN:`/fonts/ps-type1/cm-super` and is included with T<sub>E</sub>XLive7 and MikT<sub>E</sub>X. Unfortunately these fonts are not of the same typographic quality as the normal Type1 renderings of the CM fonts

Table 2.2: Preamble for Portuguese documents.

---

```
\usepackage[portuges]{babel}
\usepackage[latin1]{inputenc}
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
```

---

Computer Modern font, but rearranges them in the EC order and can thus use the excellent type 1 format CM fonts available on most systems. There is also an `ae` package, but it does not provide proper rendering of French quotes, aka guillemets (see the section on pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on page 70).

### 2.5.1 Support for Portuguese

By Demerson Andre Polli <polli@linux.ime.usp.br>

To enable hyphenation and change all automatic text to Portuguese, use the command:

```
\usepackage[portuguese]{babel}
```

Or if you are in Brazil, substitute the language for `brazilian`.

As there are a lot of accents in Portuguese you might want to use

```
\usepackage[latin1]{inputenc}
```

to be able to input them correctly as well as

```
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
```

to get the hyphenation right.

See table 2.2 for the preamble you need to write in the Portuguese language. Note that we are using the `latin1` input encoding here, so this will not work on a Mac or on DOS. Just use the appropriate encoding for your system.

## 2.5.2 Support for French

By Daniel Flipo <daniel.flipo@univ-lille1.fr>

Some hints for those creating French documents with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X: you can load French language support with the command

```
\usepackage[frenchb]{babel}
```

Note that, for historical reasons, the name of `babel`'s option for French is either `frenchb` or `francais` but not `french`.

This enables French hyphenation, if you have configured your LaTeX system accordingly. It also changes all automatic text into French: `\chapter` prints `Chapitre`, `\today` prints the current date in French and so on. A set of new commands also becomes available, which allows you to write French input files more easily. Check out table 2.3 for inspiration.

Table 2.3: Special commands for French.

<code>\og guillemets \fg{}</code>	« guillemets »
<code>M\up{me}, D\up{r}</code>	M <sup>me</sup> , D <sup>r</sup>
<code>1\ier{} , 1\iere{} , 1\ieres{} </code>	1 <sup>er</sup> , 1 <sup>re</sup> , 1 <sup>res</sup>
<code>2\ieme{} 4\iemes{} </code>	2 <sup>e</sup> 4 <sup>es</sup>
<code>\No 1, \no 2</code>	N <sup>o</sup> 1, n <sup>o</sup> 2
<code>20~\degres C, 45\degres</code>	20 °C, 45°
<code>\bsc{M. Durand}</code>	M. DURAND
<code>\nombre{1234,56789}</code>	1 234,567 89

You will also notice that the layout of lists changes when switching to the French language. For more information on what the `frenchb` option of `babel` does and how you can customize its behaviour, run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on file `frenchb.dtx` and read the produced file `frenchb.dvi`.

## 2.5.3 Support for German

Some hints for those creating German documents with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X: you can load German language support with the command

```
\usepackage[german]{babel}
```

This enables German hyphenation, if you have configured your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X system accordingly. It also changes all automatic text into German. Eg. “Chapter”



becomes “Kapitel.” A set of new commands also becomes available, which allows you to write German input files more quickly even when you don’t use the `inputenc` package. Check out table 2.4 for inspiration. With `inputenc`, all this become mute, but your text also is locked in a particular encoding world.

Table 2.4: German Special Characters.

<code>"a</code>	ä	<code>"s</code>	ß
<code>"‘</code>	”	<code>"’</code>	“
<code>"&lt; or \flqq</code>	«	<code>"&gt; or \frqq</code>	»
<code>\flq</code>	■	<code>\frq</code>	■
<code>\dq</code>	”		

In German books you often find French quotation marks («guillemets»). German typesetters, however, use them differently. A quote in a German book would look like »this«. In the German speaking part of Switzerland, typesetters use «guillemets» the same way the French do.

A major problem arises from the use of commands like `\flq`: If you use the OT1 font (which is the default font) the guillemets will look like the math symbol “ $\ll$ ”, which turns a typesetter’s stomach. T1 encoded fonts, on the other hand, do contain the required symbols. So if you are using this type of quote, make sure you use the T1 encoding. (`\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}`)

### 2.5.4 Support for Korean<sup>5</sup>

To use  $\LaTeX$  for typesetting Korean, we need to solve three problems:

1. We must be able to edit Korean input files. Korean input files must be in plain text format, but because Korean uses its own character set outside the repertoire of US-ASCII, they will look rather strange with a normal ASCII editor. The two most widely used encodings for Korean text files are EUC-KR and its upward compatible extension used in Korean MS-Windows, CP949/Windows-949/UHC. In these encodings each US-ASCII character represents its normal ASCII character similar to other ASCII compatible encodings such as ISO-8859-*x*, EUC-JP, Shift\_JIS, and Big5. On the other hand, Hangul syllables, Hanjas (Chinese characters as used in Korea), Hangul Jamos, Hirakanas,

<sup>5</sup>Considering a number of issues Korean  $\LaTeX$  users have to cope with. This section was written by Karnes KIM on behalf of the Korean `lshort` translation team. It was translated into English by SHIN Jungshik and shortened by Tobi Oetiker

Katakana, Greek and Cyrillic characters and other symbols and letters drawn from KS X 1001 are represented by two consecutive octets. The first has its MSB set. Until mid the 1990's, it took a considerable amount of time and effort to set up a Korean-capable environment under a non-localized (non-Korean) operating system. You can skim through the now much-outdated <http://jshin.net/faq> to get a glimpse of what it was like to use Korean under non-Korean OS in mid-1990's. These days all three major operating systems (Mac OS, Unix, Windows) come equipped with pretty decent multilingual support and internationalization features so that editing Korean text file is not so much of a problem anymore, even on non-Korean operating systems.

2.  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  and  $\text{L}^{\text{A}}\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  were originally written for scripts with no more than 256 characters in their alphabet. To make them work for languages with considerably more characters such as Korean<sup>6</sup> or Chinese, a subfont mechanism was developed. It divides a single CJK fonts with thousands or tens of thousands of glyphs into a set of subfonts with 256 glyphs each. For Korean, there are three widely used packages;  $\text{H}^{\text{L}}\text{A}^{\text{E}}\text{X}$  by UN Koaunghi,  $\text{h}^{\text{L}}\text{A}^{\text{E}}\text{Xp}$  by CHA Jaechoon and the CJK package by Werner Lemberg.<sup>7</sup>  $\text{H}^{\text{L}}\text{A}^{\text{E}}\text{X}$  and  $\text{h}^{\text{L}}\text{A}^{\text{E}}\text{Xp}$  are specific to Korean and provide Korean localization on top of the font support. They both can process Korean input text files encoded in EUC-KR.  $\text{H}^{\text{L}}\text{A}^{\text{E}}\text{X}$  can even process input files encoded in CP949/Windows-949/UHC and UTF-8 when used along with  $\Lambda$ ,  $\Omega$ .

The CJK package is not specific to Korean. It can process input files

---

<sup>6</sup>Korean Hangul is an alphabetic script with 14 basic consonants and 10 basic vowels (Jamos). Unlike Latin or Cyrillic scripts, the individual characters have to be arranged in rectangular clusters about the same size as Chinese characters. Each cluster represents a syllable. An unlimited number of syllables can be formed out of this finite set of vowels and consonants. Modern Korean orthographic standards (both in South Korea and North Korea), however, put some restriction on the formation of these clusters. Therefore only a finite the number of orthographically correct syllables exist. The Korean Character encoding defines individual code points for each of these syllables (KS X 1001:1998 and KS X 1002:1992). So Hangul, albeit alphabetic, is treated like the Chinese and Japanese writing systems with tens of thousands of ideographic/logographic characters. ISO 10646/Unicode offers both ways of representing Hangul used for *modern* Korean by encoding Conjoining Hangul Jamos (alphabets: <http://www.unicode.org/charts/PDF/U1100.pdf>) in addition to encoding all the orthographically allowed Hangul syllables in *modern* Korean (<http://www.unicode.org/charts/PDF/UAC00.pdf>). One of the most daunting challenges in Korean typesetting with  $\text{L}^{\text{A}}\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  and related typesetting system is supporting Middle Korean—and possibly future Korean—syllables that can be only represented by conjoining Jamos in Unicode. It is hoped that future  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  engines like  $\Omega$  and  $\Lambda$  will eventually provide solutions to this so that some Korean linguists and historians will defect from MS Word that already has a pretty good support for Middle Korean.

<sup>7</sup>They can be obtained at [CTAN:/tex-archive/language/korean/HLaTeX/](http://CTAN:/tex-archive/language/korean/HLaTeX/) [CTAN:/tex-archive/language/korean/CJK/](http://CTAN:/tex-archive/language/korean/CJK/) and <http://knot.kaist.ac.kr/htex/>

in UTF-8 as well as in various CJK encodings including EUC-KR and CP949/Windows-949/UHC, it can be used to typeset documents with multilingual content (especially Chinese, Japanese and Korean). The CJK package has no Korean localization such as the one offered by  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  and it does not come with as many special Korean fonts as  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$ .

3. The ultimate purpose of using typesetting programs like  $\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  and  $\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  is to get documents typeset in an ‘aesthetically’ satisfying way. Arguably the most important element in typesetting is a set of well-designed fonts. The  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  distribution includes UHC `POSTSCRIPT` fonts of 10 different families and Munhwabu<sup>8</sup> fonts (TrueType) of 5 different families. The CJK package works with a set of fonts used by earlier versions of  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  and it can use Bitstream’s cyberbit TrueType font.

To use the  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  package for typesetting your Korean text, put the following declaration into the preamble of your document:

```
\usepackage{hanguk}
```

This command turns the Korean localization on. The headings of chapters, sections, subsections, table of content and table of figures are all translated into Korean and the formatting of the document is changed to follow Korean conventions. The packages also provides automatic “particle selection.” In Korean, there are pairs of post-fix particles grammatically equivalent but different in form. Which of any given pair is correct depends on whether the preceding syllable ends with a vowel or a consonant. (It is a bit more complex than this, but this should give you a good picture.) Native Korean speakers have no problem picking the right particle, but it cannot be determined which particle to use for references and other automatic text that will change while you edit the document. It takes a painstaking effort to place appropriate particles manually every time you add/remove references or simply shuffle parts of your document around.  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  relieves its users from this boring and error-prone process.

In case you don’t need Korean localization features but just want to typeset Korean text, you can put the following line in the preamble, instead.

```
\usepackage{hfont}
```

For more details on typesetting Korean with  $\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$ , refer to the  *$\text{H}\text{L}\text{A}\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  Guide*. Check out the web site of the Korean  $\text{T}\text{E}\text{X}$  User Group (KTUG)

---

<sup>8</sup>Korean Ministry of Culture

at <http://www.ktug.or.kr/>. There is also a Korean translation of this manual available.

## 2.6 The Space Between Words

To get a straight right margin in the output, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X inserts varying amounts of space between the words. It inserts slightly more space at the end of a sentence, as this makes the text more readable. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X assumes that sentences end with periods, question marks or exclamation marks. If a period follows an uppercase letter, this is not taken as a sentence ending, since periods after uppercase letters normally occur in abbreviations.

Any exception from these assumptions has to be specified by the author. A backslash in front of a space generates a space that will not be enlarged. A tilde ‘~’ character generates a space that cannot be enlarged and additionally prohibits a line break. The command \@ in front of a period specifies that this period terminates a sentence even when it follows an uppercase letter.

Mr.~Smith was happy to see her\\  
cf.~Fig.~5\\  
I like BASIC\@. What about you?

<p>Mr. Smith was happy to see her cf. Fig. 5 I like BASIC. What about you?</p>
--

The additional space after periods can be disabled with the command

<code>\frenchspacing</code>
-----------------------------

which tells L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X *not* to insert more space after a period than after ordinary character. This is very common in non-English languages, except bibliographies. If you use `\frenchspacing`, the command \@ is not necessary.

## 2.7 Titles, Chapters, and Sections

To help the reader find his or her way through your work, you should divide it into chapters, sections, and subsections. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X supports this with special commands that take the section title as their argument. It is up to you to use them in the correct order.

The following sectioning commands are available for the `article` class:

```
\section{...}
\subsection{...}
\subsubsection{...}
\paragraph{...}
\subparagraph{...}
```

If you want to split your document in parts without influencing the section or chapter numbering you can use

```
\part{...}
```

When you work with the `report` or `book` class, an additional top-level sectioning command becomes available

```
\chapter{...}
```

As the `article` class does not know about chapters, it is quite easy to add articles as chapters to a book. The spacing between sections, the numbering and the font size of the titles will be set automatically by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

Two of the sectioning commands are a bit special:

- The `\part` command does not influence the numbering sequence of chapters.
- The `\appendix` command does not take an argument. It just changes the chapter numbering to letters.<sup>9</sup>

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X creates a table of contents by taking the section headings and page numbers from the last compile cycle of the document. The command

```
\tableofcontents
```

expands to a table of contents at the place it is issued. A new document has to be compiled (“L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>Xed”) twice to get a correct table of contents. Sometimes it might be necessary to compile the document a third time. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will tell you when this is necessary.

---

<sup>9</sup>For the `article` style it changes the section numbering.

All sectioning commands listed above also exist as “starred” versions. A “starred” version of a command is built by adding a star `*` after the command name. This generates section headings that do not show up in the table of contents and are not numbered. The command `\section{Help}`, for example, would become `\section*{Help}`.

Normally the section headings show up in the table of contents exactly as they are entered in the text. Sometimes this is not possible, because the heading is too long to fit into the table of contents. The entry for the table of contents can then be specified as an optional argument in front of the actual heading.

```
\chapter[Title for the table of contents]{A long
and especially boring title, shown in the text}
```

The title of the whole document is generated by issuing a

```
\maketitle
```

command. The contents of the title have to be defined by the commands

```
\title{...}, \author{...} and optionally \date{...}
```

before calling `\maketitle`. In the argument to `\author`, you can supply several names separated by `\and` commands.

An example of some of the commands mentioned above can be found in Figure 1.2 on page 7.

Apart from the sectioning commands explained above,  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$  introduced three additional commands for use with the `book` class. They are useful for dividing your publication. The commands alter chapter headings and page numbering to work as you would expect it in a book:

`\frontmatter` should be the very first command after `\begin{document}`.

It will switch page numbering to Roman numerals. It is common to use the starred sectioning commands (eg `\chapter*{Preface}`) for front matter as this stops  $\text{\LaTeX}$  from enumerating them.

`\mainmatter` comes right before the first chapter of the book. It turns on Arabic page numbering and restarts the page counter.

`\appendix` marks the start of additional material in your book. After this command chapters will be numbered with letters.

`\backmatter` should be inserted before the very last items in your book, such as the bibliography and the index. In the standard document classes, this has no visual effect.

## 2.8 Cross References

In books, reports and articles, there are often cross-references to figures, tables and special segments of text. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X provides the following commands for cross referencing

```
\label{marker}, \ref{marker} and \pageref{marker}
```

where *marker* is an identifier chosen by the user. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X replaces `\ref` by the number of the section, subsection, figure, table, or theorem after which the corresponding `\label` command was issued. `\pageref` prints the page number of the page where the `\label` command occurred.<sup>10</sup> As with the section titles, the numbers from the previous run are used.

```
A reference to this subsection
\label{sec:this} looks like:
‘‘see section~\ref{sec:this} on
page~\pageref{sec:this}.’’
```

```
A reference to this subsection looks like: “see
section 16 on page 33.”
```

## 2.9 Footnotes

With the command

```
\footnote{footnote text}
```

a footnote is printed at the foot of the current page. Footnotes should always be put<sup>11</sup> after the word or sentence they refer to. Footnotes referring to a sentence or part of it should therefore be put after the comma or period.<sup>12</sup>

```
Footnotes\footnote{This is
  a footnote.} are often used
by people using \LaTeX.
```

```
Footnotesa are often used by people using
LATEX.
```

---

```
aThis is a footnote.
```

---

<sup>10</sup>Note that these commands are not aware of what they refer to. `\label` just saves the last automatically generated number.

<sup>11</sup>“put” is one of the most common English words.

<sup>12</sup>Note that footnotes distract the reader from the main body of your document. After all, everybody reads the footnotes—we are a curious species, so why not just integrate everything you want to say into the body of the document?<sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup>A guidepost doesn’t necessarily go where it’s pointing to :-).

## 2.10 Emphasized Words

If a text is typed using a typewriter, important words are emphasized by underlining them.

```
\underline{text}
```

In printed books, however, words are emphasized by typesetting them in an *italic* font. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X provides the command

```
\emph{text}
```

to emphasize text. What the command actually does with its argument depends on the context:

```
\emph{If you use
emphasizing inside a piece
of emphasized text, then
\LaTeX{} uses the
\emph{normal} font for
emphasizing.}
```

*If you use emphasizing inside a piece of emphasized text, then L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X uses the normal font for emphasizing.*

Please note the difference between telling L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to *emphasize* something and telling it to use a different *font*:

```
\textit{You can also
\emph{emphasize} text if
it is set in italics,}
\textsf{in a
\emph{sans-serif} font,}
\texttt{or in
\emph{typewriter} style.}
```

*You can also emphasize text if it is set in italics, in a sans-serif font, or in typewriter style.*

## 2.11 Environments

```
\begin{environment} text \end{environment}
```

Where *environment* is the name of the environment. Environments can be nested within each other as long as the correct nesting order is maintained.

```
\begin{aaa}...\begin{bbb}...\end{bbb}...\end{aaa}
```

In the following sections all important environments are explained.



### 2.11.1 Itemize, Enumerate, and Description

The `itemize` environment is suitable for simple lists, the `enumerate` environment for enumerated lists, and the `description` environment for descriptions.

```
\flushleft
\begin{enumerate}
\item You can mix the list
environments to your taste:
\begin{itemize}
\item But it might start to
look silly.
\item[-] With a dash.
\end{itemize}
\item Therefore remember:
\begin{description}
\item[Stupid] things will not
become smart because they are
in a list.
\item[Smart] things, though, can be
presented beautifully in a list.
\end{description}
\end{enumerate}
```

1. You can mix the list environments to your taste:

- But it might start to look silly.
- With a dash.

2. Therefore remember:

**Stupid** things will not become smart because they are in a list.

**Smart** things, though, can be presented beautifully in a list.

### 2.11.2 Flushleft, Flushright, and Center

The environments `flushleft` and `flushright` generate paragraphs that are either left- or right-aligned. The `center` environment generates centred text. If you do not issue `\` to specify line breaks, `LATEX` will automatically determine line breaks.

```
\begin{flushleft}
This text is\left-aligned.
\LaTeX{} is not trying to make
each line the same length.
\end{flushleft}
```

This text is left-aligned. `LATEX` is not trying to make each line the same length.

```
\begin{flushright}
This text is right-\aligned.
\LaTeX{} is not trying to make
each line the same length.
\end{flushright}
```

This text is right-aligned. `LATEX` is not trying to make each line the same length.

```
\begin{center}
At the centre\of the earth
\end{center}
```

At the centre of the earth

### 2.11.3 Quote, Quotation, and Verse

The `quote` environment is useful for quotes, important phrases and examples.

```
A typographical rule of thumb
for the line length is:
\begin{quote}
On average, no line should
be longer than 66 characters.
\end{quote}
This is why \LaTeX{} pages have
such large borders by default and
also why multicolumn print is
used in newspapers.
```

A typographical rule of thumb for the line length is:

On average, no line should be longer than 66 characters.

This is why L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X pages have such large borders by default and also why multicolumn print is used in newspapers.

There are two similar environments: the `quotation` and the `verse` environments. The `quotation` environment is useful for longer quotes going over several paragraphs, because it indents the first line of each paragraph. The `verse` environment is useful for poems where the line breaks are important. The lines are separated by issuing a `\\` at the end of a line and an empty line after each verse.

```
I know only one English poem by
heart. It is about Humpty Dumpty.
\begin{flushleft}
\begin{verse}
Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall:\\
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.\\
All the King's horses and all
the King's men\\
Couldn't put Humpty together
again.
\end{verse}
\end{flushleft}
```

I know only one English poem by heart. It is about Humpty Dumpty.

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall:  
Humpty Dumpty had a great  
fall.  
All the King's horses and all the  
King's men  
Couldn't put Humpty together  
again.

### 2.11.4 Printing Verbatim

Text that is enclosed between `\begin{verbatim}` and `\end{verbatim}` will be directly printed, as if typed on a typewriter, with all line breaks and spaces, without any L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X command being executed.

Within a paragraph, similar behavior can be accessed with

```
\verb+text+
```

The `+` is just an example of a delimiter character. You can use any character except letters, `*` or space. Many L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X examples in this booklet are typeset with this command.

The `\verb|\ldots|` command `\ldots`

```
\begin{verbatim}
10 PRINT "HELLO WORLD ";
20 GOTO 10
\end{verbatim}
```

The `\ldots` command ...

```
10 PRINT "HELLO WORLD ";
20 GOTO 10
```

```
\begin{verbatim*}
the starred version of
the      verbatim
environment emphasizes
the spaces in the text
\end{verbatim*}
```

```
the_starred_version_of
the_verbatim
environment_emphasizes
the_spaces_in_the_text
```

The `\verb` command can be used in a similar fashion with a star:

```
\verb*|like this :-)|
```

```
like_this_:-)
```

The `verbatim` environment and the `\verb` command may not be used within parameters of other commands.

### 2.11.5 Tabular

The `tabular` environment can be used to typeset beautiful tables with optional horizontal and vertical lines.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  determines the width of the columns automatically.

The *table spec* argument of the

```
\begin{tabular}[pos]{table spec}
```

command defines the format of the table. Use an `l` for a column of left-aligned text, `r` for right-aligned text, and `c` for centred text; `p{width}` for a column containing justified text with line breaks, and `|` for a vertical line.

The *pos* argument specifies the vertical position of the table relative to the baseline of the surrounding text. Use either of the letters `t`, `b` and `c` to specify table alignment at the top, bottom or center.

Within a `tabular` environment, `&` jumps to the next column, `\\` starts a new line and `\hline` inserts a horizontal line. You can add partial lines by using the `\cline{j-i}`, where *j* and *i* are the column numbers the line should extend over.

```
\begin{tabular}{|r|l|}
\hline
7C0 & hexadecimal \\
3700 & octal \\ \cline{2-2}
11111000000 & binary \\
\hline \hline
1984 & decimal \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

7C0	hexadecimal
3700	octal
11111000000	binary
1984	decimal

```
\begin{tabular}{|p{4.7cm}|}
\hline
Welcome to Boxy's paragraph.
We sincerely hope you'll
all enjoy the show. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

Welcome to Boxy's paragraph. We sincerely hope you'll all enjoy the show.
--

The column separator can be specified with the `@{...}` construct. This command kills the inter-column space and replaces it with whatever is between the curly braces. One common use for this command is explained below in the decimal alignment problem. Another possible application is to suppress leading space in a table with `@{}`.

```
\begin{tabular}{@{} l @{}}
\hline
no leading space \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

<u>no leading space</u>
-------------------------

```
\begin{tabular}{l}
\hline
leading space left and right \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

<u>leading space left and right</u>
-------------------------------------

Since there is no built-in way to align numeric columns to a decimal point,<sup>14</sup> we can “cheat” and do it by using two columns: a right-aligned integer and a left-aligned fraction. The `@{.}` command in the `\begin{tabular}` line replaces the normal inter-column spacing with just a “.”, giving the appearance of a single, decimal-point-justified column. Don’t forget to replace the decimal point in your numbers with a column separator (&)! A column label can be placed above our numeric “column” by using the `\multicolumn` command.

<sup>14</sup>If the ‘tools’ bundle is installed on your system, have a look at the `dcolumn` package.

```

\begin{tabular}{c r @{} l}
Pi expression      & & \\
\multicolumn{2}{c}{Value} \\
\hline
 $\pi$  & 3.1416 & \\
 $\pi^\pi$  & 36.46 & \\
 $(\pi^\pi)^\pi$  & 80662.7 & \\
\end{tabular}

```

Pi expression	Value
$\pi$	3.1416
$\pi^\pi$	36.46
$(\pi^\pi)^\pi$	80662.7

```

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
\multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Ene} \\
\hline
Mene & Muh! \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

```

Ene	
Mene	Muh!

Material typeset with the tabular environment always stays together on one page. If you want to typeset long tables, you might want to have a look at the `supertabular` and the `longtabular` environments.

## 2.12 Floating Bodies

Today most publications contain a lot of figures and tables. These elements need special treatment, because they cannot be broken across pages. One method would be to start a new page every time a figure or a table is too large to fit on the present page. This approach would leave pages partially empty, which looks very bad.

The solution to this problem is to ‘float’ any figure or table that does not fit on the current page to a later page, while filling the current page with body text.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  offers two environments for floating bodies; one for tables and one for figures. To take full advantage of these two environments it is important to understand approximately how  $\text{\LaTeX}$  handles floats internally. Otherwise floats may become a major source of frustration, because  $\text{\LaTeX}$  never puts them where you want them to be.

Let’s first have a look at the commands  $\text{\LaTeX}$  supplies for floats:

Any material enclosed in a `figure` or `table` environment will be treated as floating matter. Both float environments support an optional parameter

```

\begin{figure}[placement specifier] or \begin{table}[placement specifier]

```

called the *placement specifier*. This parameter is used to tell  $\text{\LaTeX}$  about the locations to which the float is allowed to be moved. A *placement specifier* is constructed by building a string of *float-placing permissions*. See Table 2.5.

A table could be started with the following line e.g.

```
\begin{table}[!hbp]
```

The placement specifier `[!hbp]` allows L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to place the table right here (**h**) or at the bottom (**b**) of some page or on a special floats page (**p**), and all this even if it does not look that good (!). If no placement specifier is given, the standard classes assume `[tbp]`.

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will place every float it encounters according to the placement specifier supplied by the author. If a float cannot be placed on the current page it is deferred either to the *figures* or the *tables* queue.<sup>15</sup> When a new page is started, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X first checks if it is possible to fill a special ‘float’ page with floats from the queues. If this is not possible, the first float on each queue is treated as if it had just occurred in the text: L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X tries again to place it according to its respective placement specifiers (except ‘h,’ which is no longer possible). Any new floats occurring in the text get placed into the appropriate queues. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X strictly maintains the original order of appearance for each type of float. That’s why a figure that cannot be placed pushes all further figures to the end of the document. Therefore:

If L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is not placing the floats as you expected, it is often only one float jamming one of the two float queues.

While it is possible to give L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X single-location placement specifiers, this causes problems. If the float does not fit in the location specified it becomes stuck, blocking subsequent floats. In particular, you should never, ever use the `[h]` option—it is so bad that in more recent versions of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, it is automatically replaced by `[ht]`.

---

<sup>15</sup>These are FIFO—‘first in first out’—queues!

Table 2.5: Float Placing Permissions.

Spec	Permission to place the float . . .
h	<i>here</i> at the very place in the text where it occurred. This is useful mainly for small floats.
t	at the <i>top</i> of a page
b	at the <i>bottom</i> of a page
p	on a special <i>page</i> containing only floats.
!	without considering most of the internal parameters <sup>a</sup> , which could stop this float from being placed.

Note that `pt` and `em` are T<sub>E</sub>X units. Read more on this in table 5.5 on page 92.

---

<sup>a</sup>Such as the maximum number of floats allowed on one page.

Having explained the difficult bit, there are some more things to mention about the `table` and `figure` environments. With the

```
\caption{caption text}
```

command, you can define a caption for the float. A running number and the string “Figure” or “Table” will be added by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X.

The two commands

```
\listoffigures and \listoftables
```

operate analogously to the `\tableofcontents` command, printing a list of figures or tables, respectively. These lists will display the whole caption, so if you tend to use long captions you must have a shorter version of the caption for the lists. This is accomplished by entering the short version in brackets after the `\caption` command.

```
\caption[Short]{LLLLLoooooonnnnnngggg}
```

With `\label` and `\ref`, you can create a reference to a float within your text.

The following example draws a square and inserts it into the document. You could use this if you wanted to reserve space for images you are going to paste into the finished document.

```
Figure~\ref{white} is an example of Pop-Art.
\begin{figure}[!hbp]
\makebox[\textwidth]{\framebox[5cm]{\rule{0pt}{5cm}}}
\caption{Five by Five in Centimetres.} \label{white}
\end{figure}
```

In the example above, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will try *really hard* (!) to place the figure right *here* (h).<sup>16</sup> If this is not possible, it tries to place the figure at the *bottom* (b) of the page. Failing to place the figure on the current page, it determines whether it is possible to create a float page containing this figure and maybe some tables from the tables queue. If there is not enough material for a special float page, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X starts a new page, and once more treats the figure as if it had just occurred in the text.

Under certain circumstances it might be necessary to use the

```
\clearpage or even the \cleardoublepage
```

command. It orders L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to immediately place all floats remaining in the queues and then start a new page. `\cleardoublepage` even goes to a new right-hand page.

<sup>16</sup>assuming the figure queue is empty.

You will learn how to include POSTSCRIPT drawings into your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> documents later in this introduction.

## 2.13 Protecting Fragile Commands

Text given as arguments of commands like `\caption` or `\section` may show up more than once in the document (e.g. in the table of contents as well as in the body of the document). Some commands fail when used in the argument of `\section`-like commands. These commands are called fragile commands—for example, `\footnote` or `\phantom`. These fragile commands need protection (don't we all?). You can protect them by putting the `\protect` command in front of them.

`\protect` only refers to the command that follows right behind, not even to its arguments. In most cases a superfluous `\protect` won't hurt.

```
\section{I am considerate  
  \protect\footnote{and protect my footnotes}}
```



## Chapter 3

# Typesetting Mathematical Formulae

Now you are ready! In this chapter, we will attack the main strength of T<sub>E</sub>X: mathematical typesetting. But be warned, this chapter only scratches the surface. While the things explained here are sufficient for many people, don't despair if you can't find a solution to your mathematical typesetting needs here. It is highly likely that your problem is addressed in *A<sub>M</sub>S-L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X*<sup>1</sup>

### 3.1 General

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X has a special mode for typesetting mathematics. Mathematics can be typeset inline within a paragraph, or the paragraph can be broken to typeset it separately. Mathematical text *within* a paragraph is entered between `\(` and `\)`, between `$` and `$`, or between `\begin{math}` and `\end{math}`.

Add `$a$` squared and `$b$` squared to get `$c$` squared. Or, using a more mathematical approach:  
`$c^2=a^2+b^2$`

Add  $a$  squared and  $b$  squared to get  $c$  squared. Or, using a more mathematical approach:  
 $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$

`\TeX{}` is pronounced as  
`\(\tau\epsilon\chi\)`.  
100~m<sup>3</sup> of water  
This comes from my  
`\begin{math}\heartsuit\end{math}`

T<sub>E</sub>X is pronounced as  $\tau\epsilon\chi$ .  
100 m<sup>3</sup> of water  
This comes from my ♥

---

<sup>1</sup>The *American Mathematical Society* has produced a powerful extension to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Many of the examples in this chapter make use of this extension. It is provided with all recent T<sub>E</sub>X distributions. If yours is missing it, go to `CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/required/amslatex`.

When you want your larger mathematical equations or formulae to be set apart from the rest of the paragraph, it is preferable to *display* them, rather than to break the paragraph apart. To do this, you can either enclose them in `\[` and `\]`, or between `\begin{displaymath}` and `\end{displaymath}`.

Add `$a$` squared and `$b$` squared to get `$c$` squared. Or, using a more mathematical approach:

```
\begin{displaymath}
c^2=a^2+b^2
\end{displaymath}
```

or you can type less with:

```
\[a+b=c\]
```

Add  $a$  squared and  $b$  squared to get  $c$  squared. Or, using a more mathematical approach:

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

or you can type less with:

$$a + b = c$$

If you want L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to enumerate your equations, you can use the `equation` environment. You can then `\label` an equation number and refer to it somewhere else in the text by using `\ref` or `\eqref`:

```
\begin{equation} \label{eq:eps}
\epsilon > 0
\end{equation}
From (\ref{eq:eps}), we gather
\ldots{}From \eqref{eq:eps} we
do the same.
```

$$\epsilon > 0 \quad (3.1)$$

From (3.1), we gather ... From (3.1) we do the same.

Note the difference in typesetting style between equations that are typeset and those that are displayed:

```
$$\lim_{n \to \infty}
\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}
= \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$
```

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

```
\begin{displaymath}
\lim_{n \to \infty}
\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}
= \frac{\pi^2}{6}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

There are differences between *math mode* and *text mode*. For example, in *math mode*:

1. Most spaces and line breaks do not have any significance, as all spaces are either derived logically from the mathematical expressions, or have to be specified with special commands such as `\,`, `\quad` or `\qquad`.
2. Empty lines are not allowed. Only one paragraph per formula.

3. Each letter is considered to be the name of a variable and will be typeset as such. If you want to typeset normal text within a formula (normal upright font and normal spacing) then you have to enter the text using the `\textrm{...}` commands (see also section 3.7 on page 52).

```
\begin{equation}
\forall x \in \mathbf{R}:
\quad x^2 \geq 0
\end{equation}
```

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{R} : \quad x^2 \geq 0 \quad (3.2)$$

```
\begin{equation}
x^2 \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{R}
\end{equation}
```

$$x^2 \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbf{R} \quad (3.3)$$

Mathematicians can be very fussy about which symbols are used: it would be conventional here to use ‘blackboard bold’, which is obtained using `\mathbb` from the package `amsfonts` or `amssymb`. The last example becomes

```
\begin{displaymath}
x^2 \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$x^2 \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

## 3.2 Grouping in Math Mode

Most math mode commands act only on the next character, so if you want a command to affect several characters, you have to group them together using curly braces: `{...}`.

```
\begin{equation}
a^{x+y} \neq a^x + a^y
\end{equation}
```

$$a^{x+y} \neq a^x + a^y \quad (3.4)$$

## 3.3 Building Blocks of a Mathematical Formula

This section describes the most important commands used in mathematical typesetting. Take a look at section 3.10 on page 56 for a detailed list of commands for typesetting mathematical symbols.

**Lowercase Greek letters** are entered as `\alpha`, `\beta`, `\gamma`, ..., uppercase letters are entered as `\Gamma`, `\Delta`, ...<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>There is no uppercase Alpha defined in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> because it looks the same as a normal roman A. Once the new math coding is done, things will change.

`\lambda, \xi, \pi, \mu, \Phi, \Omega`

$$\lambda, \xi, \pi, \mu, \Phi, \Omega$$

**Exponents and Subscripts** can be specified using the `^` and the `_` character.

`$a_{1}$ \quad $x^{2}$ \quad $e^{-\alpha t}$ \quad $a^{3}_{ij}$ \quad $e^{x^2} \neq e^{x^2}$`

$$a_1 \quad x^2 \quad e^{-\alpha t} \quad a_{ij}^3 \\ e^{x^2} \neq e^{x^2}$$

The **square root** is entered as `\sqrt`; the  $n^{\text{th}}$  root is generated with `\sqrt[n]`. The size of the root sign is determined automatically by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. If just the sign is needed, use `\surd`.

`$$\sqrt{x}$ \quad $\sqrt{x^2+\sqrt{y}}$ \quad $\sqrt[3]{2}$ \quad $\sqrt[x^2+y^2]$`

$$\sqrt{x} \quad \sqrt{x^2 + \sqrt{y}} \quad \sqrt[3]{2} \\ \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

The commands `\overline` and `\underline` create **horizontal lines** directly over or under an expression.

`$$\overline{m+n}$`

$$\overline{m+n}$$

The commands `\overbrace` and `\underbrace` create long **horizontal braces** over or under an expression.

`$$\underbrace{a+b+\cdots+z}_{26}$`

$$\underbrace{a + b + \cdots + z}_{26}$$

To add mathematical accents such as small arrows or tilde signs to variables, you can use the commands given in Table 3.1 on page 56. Wide hats and tildes covering several characters are generated with `\widetilde` and `\widehat`. The `'` symbol gives a prime.

`\begin{displaymath} y=x^2 \quad y'=2x \quad y''=2 \\ \end{displaymath}`

$$y = x^2 \quad y' = 2x \quad y'' = 2$$

**Vectors** often are specified by adding small arrow symbols on top of a variable. This is done with the `\vec` command. The two commands `\overrightarrow` and `\overleftarrow` are useful to denote the vector from  $A$  to  $B$ .

```
\begin{displaymath}
\vec{a} \quad \overrightarrow{AB}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\vec{a} \quad \overrightarrow{AB}$$

Usually you don't typeset an explicit dot sign to indicate the multiplication operation; however sometimes it is written to help the reader's eyes in grouping a formula. You should use `\cdot` in these cases:

```
\begin{displaymath}
v = {\sigma}_1 \cdot {\sigma}_2 \tau_1 \cdot \tau_2
\end{displaymath}
```

$$v = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 \tau_1 \cdot \tau_2$$

Names of log-like functions are often typeset in an upright font, and not in italics as variables are, so L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X supplies the following commands to typeset the most important function names:

```
\arccos \cos \csc \exp \ker \limsup \min
\arcsin \cosh \deg \gcd \lg \ln \Pr
\arctan \cot \det \hom \lim \log \sec
\arg \coth \dim \inf \liminf \max \sin
\sinh \sup \tan \tanh
```

```
\[\lim_{x \rightarrow 0}
\frac{\sin x}{x}=1\]
```

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

For the modulo function, there are two commands: `\bmod` for the binary operator “ $a \bmod b$ ” and `\pmod` for expressions such as “ $x \equiv a \pmod{b}$ .”

```
$a\bmod b\$
$x\equiv a \pmod{b}$
```

$$a \bmod b$$

$$x \equiv a \pmod{b}$$

A built-up **fraction** is typeset with the `\frac{...}{...}` command. Often the slashed form  $1/2$  is preferable, because it looks better for small amounts of ‘fraction material.’

```
$1\frac{1}{2}$~hours
\begin{displaymath}
\frac{x^2}{k+1} \quad x^{1/2}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$1\frac{1}{2} \text{ hours}$$

$$\frac{x^2}{k+1} \quad x^{\frac{2}{k+1}} \quad x^{1/2}$$

To typeset binomial coefficients or similar structures, you can use the command `\binom` from the `amsmath` package.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\binom{n}{k} \qquad \mathrm{C}_n^k
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\binom{n}{k} \quad C_n^k$$

For binary relations it may be useful to stack symbols over each other. `\stackrel{!}{=}` puts the symbol given in the first argument in superscript-like size over the second, which is set in its usual position.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\int f_N(x) \stackrel{!}{=} 1
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\int f_N(x) \stackrel{!}{=} 1$$

The **integral operator** is generated with `\int`, the **sum operator** with `\sum`, and the **product operator** with `\prod`. The upper and lower limits are specified with `^` and `_` like subscripts and superscripts.<sup>3</sup>

```
\begin{displaymath}
\sum_{i=1}^n \quad \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \quad \prod_{\epsilon}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \quad \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \quad \prod_{\epsilon}$$

To get more control over the placement of indices in complex expressions, `amsmath` provides two additional tools: the `\substack` command and the `subarray` environment:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\sum_{\substack{0 < i < n \\ 1 < j < m}}
P(i, j) =
\sum_{\subarray{1} i \in I \\ 1 < j < m}
Q(i, j)
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\sum_{\substack{0 < i < n \\ 1 < j < m}} P(i, j) = \sum_{\substack{i \in I \\ 1 < j < m}} Q(i, j)$$

`TeX` provides all sorts of symbols for **braces** and other delimiters (e.g. `[` `<` `||` `↕`). Round and square braces can be entered with the corresponding keys and curly braces with `\{`, but all other delimiters are generated with special commands (e.g. `\updownarrow`). For a list of all delimiters available, check Table 3.8 on page 58.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\{a, b, c\} \neq \{a, b, c\}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$a, b, c \neq \{a, b, c\}$$

<sup>3</sup>`AMS- $\TeX$`  in addition has multi-line super-/subscripts

If you put the command `\left` in front of an opening delimiter or `\right` in front of a closing delimiter, T<sub>E</sub>X will automatically determine the correct size of the delimiter. Note that you must close every `\left` with a corresponding `\right`, and that the size is determined correctly only if both are typeset on the same line. If you don't want anything on the right, use the invisible `'\right.'`!

```
\begin{displaymath}
1 + \left( \frac{1}{1-x^2} \right)^3
\end{displaymath}
```

$$1 + \left( \frac{1}{1-x^2} \right)^3$$

In some cases it is necessary to specify the correct size of a mathematical delimiter by hand, which can be done using the commands `\big`, `\Big`, `\bigg` and `\Bigg` as prefixes to most delimiter commands.<sup>4</sup>

```
$$\Big( (x+1)(x-1) \Big)^2$$\
$\big(\big(\big(\big(\quad
$\big)\big)\big)\big)\quad
$\big\|\big\|\big\|\big\|$\
```

$$\left( (x+1)(x-1) \right)^2$$

$$\left( \left( \left( \left( \right) \right) \right) \right) \quad \left\| \left\| \left\| \left\| \right\| \right\| \right\|$$

There are several commands to enter **three dots** into a formula. `\ldots` typesets the dots on the baseline and `\cdots` sets them centred. Besides that, there are the commands `\vdots` for vertical and `\ddots` for diagonal dots. You can find another example in section 3.5.

```
\begin{displaymath}
x_1, \ldots, x_n \quad \text{\quad} \quad x_1 + \cdots + x_n
\end{displaymath}
```

$$x_1, \dots, x_n \quad x_1 + \cdots + x_n$$

### 3.4 Math Spacing

If the spaces within formulae chosen by T<sub>E</sub>X are not satisfactory, they can be adjusted by inserting special spacing commands. There are some commands for small spaces: `\`, for  $\frac{3}{18}$  quad ( $\mathbb{U}$ ), `\:` for  $\frac{4}{18}$  quad ( $\mathbb{U}$ ) and `\;` for  $\frac{5}{18}$  quad ( $\mathbb{U}$ ). The escaped space character `\_` generates a medium sized space and `\quad` ( $\mathbb{L}$ ) and `\qqquad` ( $\mathbb{L}$ ) produce large spaces. The size of a `\quad` corresponds to the width of the character 'M' of the current font. The `\!` command produces a negative space of  $-\frac{3}{18}$  quad ( $\mathbb{U}$ ).

<sup>4</sup>These commands do not work as expected if a size changing command has been used, or the `11pt` or `12pt` option has been specified. Use the `exscale` or `amsmath` packages to correct this behaviour.

```

\newcommand{\ud}{\mathrm{d}}
\begin{displaymath}
\int\!\!\!\int\int_{D} g(x,y)
  \, \, \ud x \, \, \ud y
\end{displaymath}
instead of
\begin{displaymath}
\int\int_{D} g(x,y)\ud x \ud y
\end{displaymath}

```

$$\iint\!\!\!\int_D g(x,y) \, dx \, dy$$

instead of

$$\int\int_D g(x,y) \, dx \, dy$$

Note that ‘d’ in the differential is conventionally set in roman.

$\mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}\mathcal{S}\text{-}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{X}$  provides another way for fine-tuning the spacing between multiple integral signs, namely the `\iint`, `\iiint`, `\iiiiiint`, and `\idotsint` commands. With the `amsmath` package loaded, the above example can be typeset this way:

```

\newcommand{\ud}{\mathrm{d}}
\begin{displaymath}
\iint_{D} \, \, \ud x \, \, \ud y
\end{displaymath}

```

$$\iint_D \, dx \, dy$$

See the electronic document `testmath.tex` (distributed with  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}\mathcal{S}\text{-}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{X}$ ) or Chapter 8 of *The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Companion* [3] for further details.

### 3.5 Vertically Aligned Material

To typeset **arrays**, use the `array` environment. It works somewhat similar to the `tabular` environment. The `\\` command is used to break the lines.

```

\begin{displaymath}
\mathbf{X} =
\left( \begin{array}{ccc}
x_{11} & x_{12} & \ldots \\
x_{21} & x_{22} & \ldots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots
\end{array} \right)
\end{displaymath}

```

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

The `array` environment can also be used to typeset expressions that have one big delimiter by using a “.” as an invisible `\right` delimiter:

```

\begin{displaymath}
y = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
a & \text{if } d > c \\
b+x & \text{in the morning} \\
l & \text{all day long}
\end{array} \right.
\end{displaymath}

```

$$y = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} a & \text{if } d > c \\ b+x & \text{in the morning} \\ l & \text{all day long} \end{array} \right.$$



Just as with the `tabular` environment, you can also draw lines in the `array` environment, e.g. separating the entries of a matrix:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
1 & 2 \\ \hline
3 & 4
\end{array}\right)
\end{array}\right)
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 2 \\ \hline 3 & 4 \end{array}\right)$$

For formulae running over several lines or for equation systems, you can use the environments `eqnarray`, and `eqnarray*` instead of `equation`. In `eqnarray` each line gets an equation number. The `eqnarray*` does not number anything.

The `eqnarray` and the `eqnarray*` environments work like a 3-column table of the form `{rc1}`, where the middle column can be used for the equal sign, the not-equal sign, or any other sign you see fit. The `\\` command breaks the lines.

```
\begin{eqnarray}
f(x) & = & \cos x & \\
f'(x) & = & -\sin x & \\
\int_0^x f(y)dy & = & \sin x & \\
\end{eqnarray}
```

$$f(x) = \cos x \quad (3.5)$$

$$f'(x) = -\sin x \quad (3.6)$$

$$\int_0^x f(y)dy = \sin x \quad (3.7)$$

Notice that the space on either side of the the equal signs is rather large. It can be reduced by setting `\setlength\arraycolsep{2pt}`, as in the next example.

**Long equations** will not be automatically divided into neat bits. The author has to specify where to break them and how much to indent. The following two methods are the most common ways to achieve this.

```
{\setlength\arraycolsep{2pt}
\begin{eqnarray}
\sin x & = & x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \\
& & \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots
\end{eqnarray}}
```

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \quad (3.8)$$

```

\begin{eqnarray}
\lefteqn{ \cos x = 1
-\frac{x^2}{2!} +{} }
\phantom{\frac{x^4}{4!}}
& & \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots
-\frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots
\end{eqnarray}

```

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \quad (3.9)$$

The `\nonumber` command tells L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X not to generate a number for this equation.

It can be difficult to get vertically aligned equations to look right with these methods; the package `amsmath` provides a more powerful set of alternatives. (see `align`, `flalign`, `gather`, `multline` and `split` environments).

### 3.6 Phantoms

We can't see phantoms, but they still occupy some space in many people's minds. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is no different. We can use this for some interesting spacing tricks.

When vertically aligning text using `^` and `_` L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is sometimes just a little bit too helpful. Using the `\phantom` command you can reserve space for characters that do not show up in the final output. The easiest way to understand this is to look at the following examples.

```

\begin{displaymath}
{}^{12}{}_6\text{\phantom{1}6}\text{\texttrm{C}}
\quad \text{\texttrm{versus}} \quad
{}^{12}{}_6\text{\texttrm{C}}
\end{displaymath}

```

$${}^{12}_6\text{C} \quad \text{versus} \quad {}^{12}_6\text{C}$$

```

\begin{displaymath}
\Gamma_{ij}^{\phantom{ij}k}
\quad \text{\texttrm{versus}} \quad
\Gamma_{ij}^k
\end{displaymath}

```

$$\Gamma_{ij}^k \quad \text{versus} \quad \Gamma_{ij}^k$$

### 3.7 Math Font Size

In math mode, T<sub>E</sub>X selects the font size according to the context. Superscripts, for example, get typeset in a smaller font. If you want to typeset part of an equation in roman, don't use the `\texttrm` command, because the font size switching mechanism will not work, as `\texttrm` temporarily

escapes to text mode. Use `\mathrm` instead to keep the size switching mechanism active. But pay attention, `\mathrm` will only work well on short items. Spaces are still not active and accented characters do not work.<sup>5</sup>

```
\begin{equation}
2^{\text{nd}} \quad \quad \quad 2^{\mathrm{nd}} \quad \quad \quad (3.10)
\end{equation}
```

Sometimes you still need to tell L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X the correct font size. In math mode, this is set with the following four commands:

```
\displaystyle (123), \textstyle (123), \scriptstyle (123) and
\scriptscriptstyle (123).
```

Changing styles also affects the way limits are displayed.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\mathop{\mathrm{corr}}(X,Y)=
\frac{\displaystyle
\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-\overline{x})
(y_i-\overline{y})}
{\displaystyle\biggl[
\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-\overline{x})^2
\sum_{i=1}^n(y_i-\overline{y})^2
\biggr]^{1/2}}
\end{displaymath}
```

This is one of those examples in which we need larger brackets than the standard `\left[ \right]` provides.

### 3.8 Theorems, Laws, ...

When writing mathematical documents, you probably need a way to typeset “Lemmas”, “Definitions”, “Axioms” and similar structures. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X supports this with the command

`\newtheorem{name}[counter]{text}[section]`

The *name* argument is a short keyword used to identify the “theorem.” With the *text* argument you define the actual name of the “theorem,” which will be printed in the final document.

The arguments in square brackets are optional. They are both used to specify the numbering used on the “theorem.” Use the *counter* argument to

<sup>5</sup>The  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}\mathcal{S}$ -L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X (amsmath) package makes the `\textrm` command work with size changing.

specify the *name* of a previously declared “theorem.” The new “theorem” will then be numbered in the same sequence. The *section* argument allows you to specify the sectional unit within which the “theorem” should get its numbers.

After executing the `\newtheorem` command in the preamble of your document, you can use the following command within the document.

```
\begin{name}[text]
This is my interesting theorem
\end{name}
```

This should be enough theory. The following examples should remove any remaining doubt, and make it clear that the `\newtheorem` environment is way too complex to understand.

```
% definitions for the document
% preamble
\newtheorem{law}{Law}
\newtheorem{jury}[law]{Jury}
%in the document
\begin{law} \label{law:box}
Don't hide in the witness box
\end{law}
\begin{jury}[The Twelve]
It could be you! So beware and
see law~\ref{law:box}\end{jury}
\begin{law}No, No, No\end{law}
```

**Law 1** *Don't hide in the witness box*

**Jury 2 (The Twelve)** *It could be you! So beware and see law 1*

**Law 3** *No, No, No*

The “Jury” theorem uses the same counter as the “Law” theorem, so it gets a number that is in sequence with the other “Laws.” The argument in square brackets is used to specify a title or something similar for the theorem.

```
\flushleft
\newtheorem{mur}{Murphy}[section]
\begin{mur}
If there are two or more
ways to do something, and
one of those ways can result
in a catastrophe, then
someone will do it.\end{mur}
```

**Murphy 3.8.1** *If there are two or more ways to do something, and one of those ways can result in a catastrophe, then someone will do it.*

The “Murphy” theorem gets a number that is linked to the number of the current section. You could also use another unit, for example chapter or subsection.

### 3.9 Bold Symbols

It is quite difficult to get bold symbols in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X; this is probably intentional as amateur typesetters tend to overuse them. The font change command `\mathbf` gives bold letters, but these are roman (upright) whereas mathematical symbols are normally italic. There is a `\boldmath` command, but *this can only be used outside mathematics mode*. It works for symbols too.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\mu, M \quad \mathbf{M} \quad \mu, M
\mbox{\boldmath $\mu, M$}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\mu, M$ $\mathbf{M}$ $\mu, M$
--------------------------------

Notice that the comma is bold too, which may not be what is required.

The package `amsbsy` (included by `amsmath`) as well as the `bm` from the `tools` bundle make this much easier as they include a `\boldsymbol` command.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\mu, M \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{M}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\mu, M$ $\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{M}$
---

### 3.10 List of Mathematical Symbols

The following tables demonstrate all the symbols normally accessible from *math mode*.

To use the symbols listed in Tables 3.12–3.16,<sup>6</sup> the package `amssymb` must be loaded in the preamble of the document and the AMS math fonts must be installed on the system. If the AMS package and fonts are not installed on your system, have a look at `CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/required/amslatex`. An even more comprehensive list of symbols can be found at `CTAN:info/symbols/comprehensive`.

Table 3.1: Math Mode Accents.

$\hat{a}$	<code>\hat{a}</code>	$\check{a}$	<code>\check{a}</code>	$\tilde{a}$	<code>\tilde{a}</code>	$\acute{a}$	<code>\acute{a}</code>
$\grave{a}$	<code>\grave{a}</code>	$\dot{a}$	<code>\dot{a}</code>	$\ddot{a}$	<code>\ddot{a}</code>	$\breve{a}$	<code>\breve{a}</code>
$\bar{a}$	<code>\bar{a}</code>	$\vec{a}$	<code>\vec{a}</code>	$\widehat{A}$	<code>\widehat{A}</code>	$\widetilde{A}$	<code>\widetilde{A}</code>

Table 3.2: Lowercase Greek Letters.

$\alpha$	<code>\alpha</code>	$\theta$	<code>\theta</code>	$o$	<code>o</code>	$v$	<code>\upsilon</code>
$\beta$	<code>\beta</code>	$\vartheta$	<code>\vartheta</code>	$\pi$	<code>\pi</code>	$\phi$	<code>\phi</code>
$\gamma$	<code>\gamma</code>	$\iota$	<code>\iota</code>	$\varpi$	<code>\varpi</code>	$\varphi$	<code>\varphi</code>
$\delta$	<code>\delta</code>	$\kappa$	<code>\kappa</code>	$\rho$	<code>\rho</code>	$\chi$	<code>\chi</code>
$\epsilon$	<code>\epsilon</code>	$\lambda$	<code>\lambda</code>	$\varrho$	<code>\varrho</code>	$\psi$	<code>\psi</code>
$\varepsilon$	<code>\varepsilon</code>	$\mu$	<code>\mu</code>	$\sigma$	<code>\sigma</code>	$\omega$	<code>\omega</code>
$\zeta$	<code>\zeta</code>	$\nu$	<code>\nu</code>	$\varsigma$	<code>\varsigma</code>		
$\eta$	<code>\eta</code>	$\xi$	<code>\xi</code>	$\tau$	<code>\tau</code>		

Table 3.3: Uppercase Greek Letters.

$\Gamma$	<code>\Gamma</code>	$\Lambda$	<code>\Lambda</code>	$\Sigma$	<code>\Sigma</code>	$\Psi$	<code>\Psi</code>
$\Delta$	<code>\Delta</code>	$\Xi$	<code>\Xi</code>	$\Upsilon$	<code>\Upsilon</code>	$\Omega$	<code>\Omega</code>
$\Theta$	<code>\Theta</code>	$\Pi$	<code>\Pi</code>	$\Phi$	<code>\Phi</code>		

<sup>6</sup>These tables were derived from `symbols.tex` by David Carlisle and subsequently changed extensively as suggested by Josef Tkadlec.

Table 3.4: Binary Relations.

You can negate the following symbols by prefixing them with a `\not` command.

$<$	<code>&lt;</code>	$>$	<code>&gt;</code>	$=$	<code>=</code>
$\leq$	<code>\leq</code> or <code>\le</code>	$\geq$	<code>\geq</code> or <code>\ge</code>	$\equiv$	<code>\equiv</code>
$\ll$	<code>\ll</code>	$\gg$	<code>\gg</code>	$\doteq$	<code>\doteq</code>
$\prec$	<code>\prec</code>	$\succ$	<code>\succ</code>	$\sim$	<code>\sim</code>
$\preceq$	<code>\preceq</code>	$\succeq$	<code>\succeq</code>	$\simeq$	<code>\simeq</code>
$\subset$	<code>\subset</code>	$\supset$	<code>\supset</code>	$\approx$	<code>\approx</code>
$\subseteq$	<code>\subseteq</code>	$\supseteq$	<code>\supseteq</code>	$\cong$	<code>\cong</code>
$\sqsubset$	<code>\sqsubset</code> <sup>a</sup>	$\sqsupset$	<code>\sqsupset</code> <sup>a</sup>	$\Join$	<code>\Join</code> <sup>a</sup>
$\sqsubseteq$	<code>\sqsubseteq</code>	$\sqsupseteq$	<code>\sqsupseteq</code>	$\bowtie$	<code>\bowtie</code>
$\in$	<code>\in</code>	$\ni$	<code>\ni</code> , <code>\owns</code>	$\propto$	<code>\propto</code>
$\vdash$	<code>\vdash</code>	$\dashv$	<code>\dashv</code>	$\models$	<code>\models</code>
$ $	<code>\mid</code>	$\parallel$	<code>\parallel</code>	$\perp$	<code>\perp</code>
$\smile$	<code>\smile</code>	$\frown$	<code>\frown</code>	$\asymp$	<code>\asymp</code>
$:$	<code>:</code>	$\notin$	<code>\notin</code>	$\neq$	<code>\neq</code> or <code>\ne</code>

<sup>a</sup>Use the `latexsym` package to access this symbol

Table 3.5: Binary Operators.

$+$	<code>+</code>	$-$	<code>-</code>	$\triangleleft$	<code>\triangleleft</code>
$\pm$	<code>\pm</code>	$\mp$	<code>\mp</code>	$\triangleright$	<code>\triangleright</code>
$\cdot$	<code>\cdot</code>	$\div$	<code>\div</code>	$\star$	<code>\star</code>
$\times$	<code>\times</code>	$\setminus$	<code>\setminus</code>	$\ast$	<code>\ast</code>
$\cup$	<code>\cup</code>	$\cap$	<code>\cap</code>	$\circ$	<code>\circ</code>
$\sqcup$	<code>\sqcup</code>	$\sqcap$	<code>\sqcap</code>	$\bullet$	<code>\bullet</code>
$\vee$	<code>\vee</code> , <code>\lor</code>	$\wedge$	<code>\wedge</code> , <code>\land</code>	$\diamond$	<code>\diamond</code>
$\oplus$	<code>\oplus</code>	$\ominus$	<code>\ominus</code>	$\uplus$	<code>\uplus</code>
$\odot$	<code>\odot</code>	$\oslash$	<code>\oslash</code>	$\amalg$	<code>\amalg</code>
$\otimes$	<code>\otimes</code>	$\bigcirc$	<code>\bigcirc</code>	$\dagger$	<code>\dagger</code>
$\triangle$	<code>\bigtriangleup</code>	$\nabla$	<code>\bigtriangledown</code>	$\ddagger$	<code>\ddagger</code>
$\triangleleft$	<code>\lhd</code> <sup>a</sup>	$\triangleright$	<code>\rhd</code> <sup>a</sup>	$\wr$	<code>\wr</code>
$\triangleleft$	<code>\unlhd</code> <sup>a</sup>	$\triangleright$	<code>\unrhd</code> <sup>a</sup>		

Table 3.6: BIG Operators.

$\sum$	<code>\sum</code>	$\bigcup$	<code>\bigcup</code>	$\bigvee$	<code>\bigvee</code>	$\bigoplus$	<code>\bigoplus</code>
$\prod$	<code>\prod</code>	$\bigcap$	<code>\bigcap</code>	$\bigwedge$	<code>\bigwedge</code>	$\bigotimes$	<code>\bigotimes</code>
$\coprod$	<code>\coprod</code>	$\bigsqcup$	<code>\bigsqcup</code>			$\bigodot$	<code>\bigodot</code>
$\int$	<code>\int</code>	$\oint$	<code>\oint</code>			$\biguplus$	<code>\biguplus</code>

Table 3.7: Arrows.

$\leftarrow$	<code>\leftarrow</code> or <code>\gets</code>	$\longleftarrow$	<code>\longleftarrow</code>	$\uparrow$	<code>\uparrow</code>
$\rightarrow$	<code>\rightarrow</code> or <code>\to</code>	$\longrightarrow$	<code>\longrightarrow</code>	$\downarrow$	<code>\downarrow</code>
$\leftrightarrow$	<code>\leftrightarrow</code>	$\longleftrightarrow$	<code>\longleftrightarrow</code>	$\updownarrow$	<code>\updownarrow</code>
$\Leftarrow$	<code>\Leftarrow</code>	$\Longleftarrow$	<code>\Longleftarrow</code>	$\Uparrow$	<code>\Uparrow</code>
$\Rightarrow$	<code>\Rightarrow</code>	$\Longrightarrow$	<code>\Longrightarrow</code>	$\Downarrow$	<code>\Downarrow</code>
$\Leftrightarrow$	<code>\Leftrightarrow</code>	$\Leftrightarrow$	<code>\Leftrightarrow</code>	$\Updownarrow$	<code>\Updownarrow</code>
$\mapsto$	<code>\mapsto</code>	$\longmapsto$	<code>\longmapsto</code>	$\nearrow$	<code>\nearrow</code>
$\hookrightarrow$	<code>\hookrightarrow</code>	$\hookrightarrow$	<code>\hookrightarrow</code>	$\searrow$	<code>\searrow</code>
$\leftharpoonup$	<code>\leftharpoonup</code>	$\rightharpoonup$	<code>\rightharpoonup</code>	$\swarrow$	<code>\swarrow</code>
$\leftharpoondown$	<code>\leftharpoondown</code>	$\rightharpoondown$	<code>\rightharpoondown</code>	$\nwarrow$	<code>\nwarrow</code>
$\rightleftharpoons$	<code>\rightleftharpoons</code>	$\Leftrightarrow$	<code>\iff</code> (bigger spaces)	$\leadsto$	<code>\leadsto</code> <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Use the `latexsym` package to access this symbol

Table 3.8: Delimiters.

$($	<code>(</code>	$)$	<code>)</code>	$\uparrow$	<code>\uparrow</code>	$\Uparrow$	<code>\Uparrow</code>
$[$	<code>[</code> or <code>\lbrack</code>	$]$	<code>] or \rbrack</code>	$\downarrow$	<code>\downarrow</code>	$\Downarrow$	<code>\Downarrow</code>
$\{$	<code>\{ or \lbrace</code>	$\}$	<code>\} or \rbrace</code>	$\updownarrow$	<code>\updownarrow</code>	$\Updownarrow$	<code>\Updownarrow</code>
$\langle$	<code>\langle</code>	$\rangle$	<code>\rangle</code>	$ $	<code>  or \vert</code>	$\ $	<code>\  or \Vert</code>
$\lfloor$	<code>\lfloor</code>	$\rfloor$	<code>\rfloor</code>	$\lceil$	<code>\lceil</code>	$\rceil$	<code>\rceil</code>
$/$	<code>/</code>	$\backslash$	<code>\backslash</code>	.	(dual. empty)		

Table 3.9: Large Delimiters.

$\left($	<code>\lgrou</code>	$\right)$	<code>\rgrou</code>	$\left\{$	<code>\lmoustache</code>	$\right\}$	<code>\rmoustache</code>
$\Big $	<code>\arrowvert</code>	$\Big $	<code>\Arrowvert</code>	$\Big $	<code>\bracevert</code>		



Table 3.10: Miscellaneous Symbols.

$\dots$	<code>\dots</code>	$\cdots$	<code>\cdots</code>	$\vdots$	<code>\vdots</code>	$\ddots$	<code>\ddots</code>
$\hbar$	<code>\hbar</code>	$\imath$	<code>\imath</code>	$\jmath$	<code>\jmath</code>	$\ell$	<code>\ell</code>
$\Re$	<code>\Re</code>	$\Im$	<code>\Im</code>	$\aleph$	<code>\aleph</code>	$\wp$	<code>\wp</code>
$\forall$	<code>\forall</code>	$\exists$	<code>\exists</code>	$\mho^a$	<code>\mho^a</code>	$\partial$	<code>\partial</code>
$'$	<code>'</code>	$\prime$	<code>\prime</code>	$\emptyset$	<code>\emptyset</code>	$\infty$	<code>\infty</code>
$\nabla$	<code>\nabla</code>	$\triangle$	<code>\triangle</code>	$\square^a$	<code>\Box^a</code>	$\diamond^a$	<code>\Diamond^a</code>
$\perp$	<code>\bot</code>	$\top$	<code>\top</code>	$\sphericalangle$	<code>\angle</code>	$\surd$	<code>\surd</code>
$\blacklozenge$	<code>\diamondsuit</code>	$\heartsuit$	<code>\heartsuit</code>	$\clubsuit$	<code>\clubsuit</code>	$\spadesuit$	<code>\spadesuit</code>
$\neg$	<code>\neg</code> or <code>\lnot</code>	$\flat$	<code>\flat</code>	$\natural$	<code>\natural</code>	$\sharp$	<code>\sharp</code>

<sup>a</sup>Use the `latexsym` package to access this symbol

Table 3.11: Non-Mathematical Symbols.

These symbols can also be used in text mode.

$\dagger$	<code>\dag</code>	$\S$	<code>\S</code>	$\copyright$	<code>\copyright</code>	$\textregistered$	<code>\textregistered</code>
$\ddagger$	<code>\ddag</code>	$\P$	<code>\P</code>	$\pounds$	<code>\pounds</code>	$\%$	<code>\%</code>

Table 3.12: AMS Delimiters.

$\ulcorner$	<code>\ulcorner</code>	$\urcorner$	<code>\urcorner</code>	$\llcorner$	<code>\llcorner</code>	$\lrcorner$	<code>\lrcorner</code>
$\lvert$	<code>\lvert</code>	$\rvert$	<code>\rvert</code>	$\lVert$	<code>\lVert</code>	$\rVert$	<code>\rVert</code>

Table 3.13: AMS Greek and Hebrew.

$\digamma$	<code>\digamma</code>	$\varkappa$	<code>\varkappa</code>	$\beth$	<code>\beth</code>	$\daleth$	<code>\daleth</code>	$\gimel$	<code>\gimel</code>
------------	-----------------------	-------------	------------------------	---------	--------------------	-----------	----------------------	----------	---------------------

Table 3.14: AMS Binary Relations.

$\lessdot$	<code>\lessdot</code>	$\gtrdot$	<code>\gtrdot</code>	$\doteqdot$ or $\Doteq$	<code>\doteqdot</code> or <code>\Doteq</code>
$\leqslant$	<code>\leqslant</code>	$\geqslant$	<code>\geqslant</code>	$\risingdotseq$	<code>\risingdotseq</code>
$\leqslantless$	<code>\leqslantless</code>	$\geqslantgtr$	<code>\geqslantgtr</code>	$\fallingdotseq$	<code>\fallingdotseq</code>
$\leqq$	<code>\leqq</code>	$\geqq$	<code>\geqq</code>	$\eqcirc$	<code>\eqcirc</code>
$\lll$ or $\llless$	<code>\lll</code> or <code>\llless</code>	$\ggg$ or $\gggtr$	<code>\ggg</code> or <code>\gggtr</code>	$\circeq$	<code>\circeq</code>
$\lesssim$	<code>\lesssim</code>	$\gtrsim$	<code>\gtrsim</code>	$\triangleq$	<code>\triangleq</code>
$\lessapprox$	<code>\lessapprox</code>	$\gtrapprox$	<code>\gtrapprox</code>	$\bumpeq$	<code>\bumpeq</code>
$\lessgtr$	<code>\lessgtr</code>	$\gtrless$	<code>\gtrless</code>	$\Bumpeq$	<code>\Bumpeq</code>
$\lesseqgtr$	<code>\lesseqgtr</code>	$\gtreqless$	<code>\gtreqless</code>	$\thicksim$	<code>\thicksim</code>
$\lesseqqgtr$	<code>\lesseqqgtr</code>	$\gtreqqless$	<code>\gtreqqless</code>	$\thickapprox$	<code>\thickapprox</code>
$\preccurlyeq$	<code>\preccurlyeq</code>	$\succcurlyeq$	<code>\succcurlyeq</code>	$\approxeq$	<code>\approxeq</code>
$\curlyeqprec$	<code>\curlyeqprec</code>	$\curlyeqsucc$	<code>\curlyeqsucc</code>	$\backsim$	<code>\backsim</code>
$\precsim$	<code>\precsim</code>	$\succsim$	<code>\succsim</code>	$\backsimeq$	<code>\backsimeq</code>
$\precapprox$	<code>\precapprox</code>	$\succapprox$	<code>\succapprox</code>	$\vDash$	<code>\vDash</code>
$\subseteqq$	<code>\subseteqq</code>	$\supseteqq$	<code>\supseteqq</code>	$\Vdash$	<code>\Vdash</code>
$\Subset$	<code>\Subset</code>	$\Supset$	<code>\Supset</code>	$\Vvdash$	<code>\Vvdash</code>
$\sqsubset$	<code>\sqsubset</code>	$\sqsupset$	<code>\sqsupset</code>	$\backepsilon$	<code>\backepsilon</code>
$\therefore$	<code>\therefore</code>	$\because$	<code>\because</code>	$\varpropto$	<code>\varpropto</code>
$\shortmid$	<code>\shortmid</code>	$\shortparallel$	<code>\shortparallel</code>	$\between$	<code>\between</code>
$\smallsmile$	<code>\smallsmile</code>	$\smallfrown$	<code>\smallfrown</code>	$\pitchfork$	<code>\pitchfork</code>
$\vartriangleleft$	<code>\vartriangleleft</code>	$\vartriangleright$	<code>\vartriangleright</code>	$\blacktriangleleft$	<code>\blacktriangleleft</code>
$\trianglelefteq$	<code>\trianglelefteq</code>	$\trianglerighteq$	<code>\trianglerighteq</code>	$\blacktriangleright$	<code>\blacktriangleright</code>

Table 3.15: AMS Arrows.

$\dashleftarrow$	<code>\dashleftarrow</code>	$\dashrightarrow$	<code>\dashrightarrow</code>	$\multimap$	<code>\multimap</code>
$\leftleftarrows$	<code>\leftleftarrows</code>	$\rightrightarrows$	<code>\rightrightarrows</code>	$\upuparrows$	<code>\upuparrows</code>
$\leftrightarrows$	<code>\leftrightarrows</code>	$\rightleftarrows$	<code>\rightleftarrows</code>	$\downdownarrows$	<code>\downdownarrows</code>
$\Lleftarrow$	<code>\Lleftarrow</code>	$\Rrightarrow$	<code>\Rrightarrow</code>	$\upharpoonleft$	<code>\upharpoonleft</code>
$\twoheadleftarrow$	<code>\twoheadleftarrow</code>	$\twoheadrightarrow$	<code>\twoheadrightarrow</code>	$\upharpoonright$	<code>\upharpoonright</code>
$\leftarrowtail$	<code>\leftarrowtail</code>	$\rightarrowtail$	<code>\rightarrowtail</code>	$\downharpoonleft$	<code>\downharpoonleft</code>
$\leftrightharpoons$	<code>\leftrightharpoons</code>	$\rightleftharpoons$	<code>\rightleftharpoons</code>	$\downharpoonright$	<code>\downharpoonright</code>
$\Lsh$	<code>\Lsh</code>	$\Rsh$	<code>\Rsh</code>	$\rightsquigarrow$	<code>\rightsquigarrow</code>
$\looparrowleft$	<code>\looparrowleft</code>	$\looparrowright$	<code>\looparrowright</code>	$\leftrightsquigarrow$	<code>\leftrightsquigarrow</code>
$\curvearrowleft$	<code>\curvearrowleft</code>	$\curvearrowright$	<code>\curvearrowright</code>		
$\circlearrowleft$	<code>\circlearrowleft</code>	$\circlearrowright$	<code>\circlearrowright</code>		

Table 3.16: AMS Negated Binary Relations and Arrows.

$\nless$	$\ngtr$	$\nvarsubsetneqq$
$\lneq$	$\gneq$	$\varsupsetneqq$
$\nleq$	$\ngeq$	$\nsubseteqeq$
$\nleqslant$	$\ngeqslant$	$\nsupseteqq$
$\lneqq$	$\gneqq$	$\nmid$
$\lvertneqq$	$\gvertneqq$	$\nparallel$
$\nleqq$	$\ngeqq$	$\nshortmid$
$\lnsim$	$\gnsim$	$\nshortparallel$
$\lnapprox$	$\gnapprox$	$\nsim$
$\nprec$	$\nsucc$	$\ncong$
$\npreceq$	$\nsucceq$	$\nvdash$
$\precneqq$	$\succneqq$	$\nvDash$
$\precnsim$	$\succnsim$	$\nVdash$
$\precnapprox$	$\succnapprox$	$\nVDash$
$\subsetneq$	$\supsetneq$	$\ntriangleleft$
$\varsubsetneq$	$\varsupsetneq$	$\ntriangleright$
$\nsubseteq$	$\nsupseteq$	$\ntrianglelefteq$
$\subsetneqq$	$\supsetneqq$	$\ntrianglerighteq$
$\nleftarrow$	$\rightarrow$	$\leftrightharrow$
$\nLeftarrow$	$\rightarrow$	$\Leftrightarrow$

Table 3.17: AMS Binary Operators.

$\dotplus$	$\centerdot$	$\intercal$
$\ltimes$	$\rtimes$	$\divideontimes$
$\Cup$ or $\doublecup$	$\Cap$ or $\doublecap$	$\smallsetminus$
$\veebar$	$\barwedge$	$\doublebarwedge$
$\boxplus$	$\boxminus$	$\circleddash$
$\boxtimes$	$\boxdot$	$\circledcirc$
$\leftthreetimes$	$\rightthreetimes$	$\circledast$
$\curlyvee$	$\curlywedge$	

Table 3.18: AMS Miscellaneous.

$\hbar$	<code>\hbar</code>	$\hbar$	<code>\hslash</code>	$\mathbb{k}$	<code>\Bbbk</code>
$\square$	<code>\square</code>	$\blacksquare$	<code>\blacksquare</code>	$\textcircled{S}$	<code>\circledS</code>
$\triangle$	<code>\vartriangle</code>	$\blacktriangle$	<code>\blacktriangle</code>	$\complement$	<code>\complement</code>
$\nabla$	<code>\triangledown</code>	$\blacktriangledown$	<code>\blacktriangledown</code>	$\Game$	<code>\Game</code>
$\lozenge$	<code>\lozenge</code>	$\blacklozenge$	<code>\blacklozenge</code>	$\bigstar$	<code>\bigstar</code>
$\sphericalangle$	<code>\angle</code>	$\sphericalangle$	<code>\measuredangle</code>	$\sphericalangle$	<code>\sphericalangle</code>
$\diagup$	<code>\diagup</code>	$\diagdown$	<code>\diagdown</code>	$\backprime$	<code>\backprime</code>
$\nexists$	<code>\nexists</code>	$\Finv$	<code>\Finv</code>	$\varnothing$	<code>\varnothing</code>
$\eth$	<code>\eth</code>	$\mho$	<code>\mho</code>		

Table 3.19: Math Alphabets.

Example	Command	Required package
$\mathrm{ABCdef}$	<code>\mathrm{ABCdef}</code>	
$\mathit{ABCdef}$	<code>\mathit{ABCdef}</code>	
$\mathnormal{ABCdef}$	<code>\mathnormal{ABCdef}</code>	
$\mathcal{ABC}$	<code>\mathcal{ABC}</code>	euscript with option <code>mathcal</code>
$\mathscr{ABC}$	<code>\mathscr{ABC}</code>	mathrsfs
$\mathfrak{ABCdef}$	<code>\mathfrak{ABCdef}</code>	eufrak
$\mathbb{ABC}$	<code>\mathbb{ABC}</code>	amssymb or amssymb

# Chapter 4

## Specialities

When putting together a large document,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  will help you with some special features like index generation, bibliography management, and other things. A much more complete description of specialities and enhancements possible with  $\text{\LaTeX}$  can be found in the  *$\text{\LaTeX}$  Manual* [1] and *The  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Companion* [3].

### 4.1 Including EPS Graphics

$\text{\LaTeX}$  provides the basic facilities to work with floating bodies, such as images or graphics, with the `figure` and `table` environments.

There are also several ways to generate the actual graphics with basic  $\text{\LaTeX}$  or a  $\text{\LaTeX}$  extension package, but most users find them quite difficult to understand, so this manual will not explain them. Please refer to *The  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Companion* [3] and the  *$\text{\LaTeX}$  Manual* [1] for more information on that subject.

A much easier way to get graphics into a document is to generate them with a specialised software package<sup>1</sup> and then include the finished graphics into the document. Here again,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  packages offer many ways to do this, but this introduction will only discuss the use of Encapsulated PostScript (EPS) graphics, because it is quite easy to do and widely used. In order to use pictures in the EPS format, you must have a PostScript printer<sup>2</sup> available for output.

A good set of commands for inclusion of graphics is provided in the `graphicx` package by D. P. Carlisle. It is part of a whole family of packages called the “graphics” bundle.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Such as XFig, CorelDraw!, Freehand, Gnuplot, ...

<sup>2</sup>Another possibility to output PostScript is the `GHOSTSCRIPT` program available from `CTAN:/tex-archive/support/ghostscript`. Windows and OS/2 users might want to look for `GSVIEW`.

<sup>3</sup>`CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/required/graphics`

Assuming you are working on a system with a PostScript printer available for output and with the `graphicx` package installed, you can use the following step by step guide to include a picture into your document:

1. Export the picture from your graphics program in EPS format.<sup>4</sup>
2. Load the `graphicx` package in the preamble of the input file with

```
\usepackage[driver]{graphicx}
```

where *driver* is the name of your “dvi to postscript” converter program. The most widely used program is called `dvips`. The name of the driver is required, because there is no standard on how graphics are included in T<sub>E</sub>X. Knowing the name of the *driver*, the `graphicx` package can choose the correct method to insert information about the graphics into the `.dvi` file, so that the printer understands it and can correctly include the `.eps` file.

3. Use the command

```
\includegraphics[key=value, ...]{file}
```

to include *file* into your document. The optional parameter accepts a comma separated list of *keys* and associated *values*. The *keys* can be used to alter the width, height and rotation of the included graphic. Table 4.1 lists the most important keys.

Table 4.1: Key Names for `graphicx` Package.

---

<code>width</code>	scale graphic to the specified width
<code>height</code>	scale graphic to the specified height
<code>angle</code>	rotate graphic counterclockwise
<code>scale</code>	scale graphic

---

<sup>4</sup>If your software can not export into EPS format, you can try to install a PostScript printer driver (such as an Apple LaserWriter, for example) and then print to a file with this driver. With some luck this file will be in EPS format. Note that an EPS must not contain more than one page. Some printer drivers can be explicitly configured to produce EPS format.

The following example code may help to clarify things:

```
\begin{figure}
\begin{center}
\includegraphics[angle=90, width=0.5\textwidth]{test}
\end{center}
\end{figure}
```

It includes the graphic stored in the file `test.eps`. The graphic is *first* rotated by an angle of 90 degrees and *then* scaled to the final width of 0.5 times the width of a standard paragraph. The aspect ratio is 1.0, because no special height is specified. The width and height parameters can also be specified in absolute dimensions. Refer to Table 5.5 on page 92 for more information. If you want to know more about this topic, make sure to read [8] and [11].

## 4.2 Bibliography

You can produce a bibliography with the `thebibliography` environment. Each entry starts with

```
\bibitem[label]{marker}
```

The *marker* is then used to cite the book, article or paper within the document.

```
\cite{marker}
```

If you do not use the *label* option, the entries will get enumerated automatically. The parameter after the `\begin{thebibliography}` command defines how much space to reserve for the number or labels. In the example below, `{99}` tells L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to expect that none of the bibliography item numbers will be wider than the number 99.

```
Partl~\cite{pa} has
proposed that \ldots
\begin{thebibliography}{99}
\bibitem{pa} H.~Partl:
\emph{German \TeX},
TUGboat Volume~9, Issue~1 (1988)
\end{thebibliography}
```

Partl [1] has proposed that ...

## Bibliography

- [1] H. Partl: *German T<sub>E</sub>X*, TUGboat Volume 9, Issue 1 (1988)

For larger projects, you might want to check out the Bib $\TeX$  program. Bib $\TeX$  is included with most  $\TeX$  distributions. It allows you to maintain a bibliographic database and then extract the references relevant to things you cited in your paper. The visual presentation of Bib $\TeX$  generated bibliographies is based on a style sheets concept that allows you to create bibliographies following a wide range of established designs.

### 4.3 Indexing

A very useful feature of many books is their index. With  $\LaTeX$  and the support program `makeindex`,<sup>5</sup> an index can be generated quite easily. This introduction will only explain the basic index generation commands. For a more in-depth view, please refer to *The  $\LaTeX$  Companion* [3].

To enable the indexing feature of  $\LaTeX$ , the `makeidx` package must be loaded in the preamble with:

```
\usepackage{makeidx}
```

and the special indexing commands must be enabled by putting the

```
\makeindex
```

command into the input file preamble.

The content of the index is specified with

```
\index{key}
```

commands, where *key* is the index entry. You enter the index commands at the points in the text that you want the final index entries to point to. Table 4.2 explains the syntax of the *key* argument with several examples.

When the input file is processed with  $\LaTeX$ , each `\index` command writes an appropriate index entry, together with the current page number, to a special file. The file has the same name as the  $\LaTeX$  input file, but a different extension (`.idx`). This `.idx` file can then be processed with the `makeindex` program.

```
makeindex filename
```

The `makeindex` program generates a sorted index with the same base file name, but this time with the extension `.ind`. If now the  $\LaTeX$  input file

---

<sup>5</sup>On systems not necessarily supporting filenames longer than 8 characters, the program may be called `makeidx`.



Table 4.2: Index Key Syntax Examples.

Example	Index Entry	Comment
<code>\index{hello}</code>	hello, 1	Plain entry
<code>\index{hello!Peter}</code>	Peter, 3	Subentry under ‘hello’
<code>\index{Sam@\textsl{Sam}}</code>	<i>Sam</i> , 2	Formatted entry
<code>\index{Lin@\textbf{Lin}}</code>	<b>Lin</b> , 7	Same as above
<code>\index{Jenny textbf}</code>	Jenny, <b>3</b>	Formatted page number
<code>\index{Joe textit}</code>	Joe, 5	Same as above
<code>\index{eolienne@\’eolienne}</code>	éolienne, 4	Handling of accents

is processed again, this sorted index gets included into the document at the point where  $\text{\LaTeX}$  finds

```
\printindex
```

The `showidx` package that comes with  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$  prints out all index entries in the left margin of the text. This is quite useful for proofreading a document and verifying the index.

## 4.4 Fancy Headers

The `fancyhdr` package,<sup>6</sup> written by Piet van Oostrum, provides a few simple commands that allow you to customize the header and footer lines of your document. If you look at the top of this page, you can see a possible application of this package.

The tricky problem when customising headers and footers is to get things like running section and chapter names in there.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  accomplishes this with a two-stage approach. In the header and footer definition, you use the commands `\rightmark` and `\leftmark` to represent the current section and chapter heading, respectively. The values of these two commands are overwritten whenever a chapter or section command is processed.

For ultimate flexibility, the `\chapter` command and its friends do not redefine `\rightmark` and `\leftmark` themselves. They call yet another command (`\chaptermark`, `\sectionmark`, or `\subsectionmark`) that is responsible for redefining `\rightmark` and `\leftmark`.

If you want to change the look of the chapter name in the header line, you need only “renew” the `\chaptermark` command.

<sup>6</sup>Available from `CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/contrib/supported/fancyhdr`.

---

```

\documentclass{book}
\usepackage{fancyhdr}
\pagestyle{fancy}
% with this we ensure that the chapter and section
% headings are in lowercase.
\renewcommand{\chaptermark}[1]{\markboth{#1}{}}
\renewcommand{\sectionmark}[1]{\markright{\thesection\ #1}}
\fancyhf{} % delete current setting for header and footer
\fancyhead[LE,RO]{\bfseries\thepage}
\fancyhead[LO]{\bfseries\rightmark}
\fancyhead[RE]{\bfseries\leftmark}
\renewcommand{\headrulewidth}{0.5pt}
\renewcommand{\footrulewidth}{0pt}
\addtolength{\headheight}{0.5pt} % make space for the rule
\fancypagestyle{plain}{%
  \fancyhead{} % get rid of headers on plain pages
  \renewcommand{\headrulewidth}{0pt} % and the line
}

```

---

Figure 4.1: Example fancyhdr Setup.

Figure 4.1 shows a possible setup for the `fancyhdr` package that makes the headers look about the same as they look in this booklet. In any case, I suggest you fetch the documentation for the package at the address mentioned in the footnote.

## 4.5 The Verbatim Package

Earlier in this book, you got to know the `verbatim environment`. In this section, you are going to learn about the `verbatim package`. The `verbatim package` is basically a re-implementation of the `verbatim environment` that works around some of the limitations of the original `verbatim environment`. This by itself is not spectacular, but the implementation of the `verbatim package` added new functionality, which is why I am mentioning the package here. The `verbatim package` provides the

`\verbatiminput{filename}`

command, which allows you to include raw ASCII text into your document as if it were inside a `verbatim environment`.

As the `verbatim package` is part of the ‘tools’ bundle, you should find it pre-installed on most systems. If you want to know more about this package,

make sure to read [9].

## 4.6 Downloading and Installing L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Packages

Most L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X installations come with a large set of pre-installed style packages, but many more are available on the net. The main place to look for style packages on the Internet is CTAN (<http://www.ctan.org/>).

Packages such as `geometry`, `hyphenat`, and many others are typically made up of two files: a file with the extension `.ins` and another with the extension `.dtx`. There will often be a `readme.txt` with a brief description of the package. You should of course read this file first.

In any event, once you have copied the package files onto your machine, you still have to process them in a way that (a) tells your T<sub>E</sub>X distribution about the new style package and (b) gives you the documentation. Here's how you do the first part:

1. Run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on the `.ins` file. This will extract a `.sty` file.
2. Move the `.sty` file to a place where your distribution can find it. Usually this is in your `.../localtexmf/tex/latex` subdirectory (Windows or OS/2 users should feel free to change the direction of the slashes).
3. Refresh your distribution's file-name database. The command depends on the L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X distribution you use: `teTeX`, `fpTeX - texhash`; `web2c - maktexlsr`; `MikTeX - initexmf -update-fndb` or use the GUI.

Now you can extract the documentation from the `.dtx` file:

1. Run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on the `.dtx` file. This will generate a `.dvi` file. Note that you may have to run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X several times before it gets the cross-references right.
2. Check to see if L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X has produced a `.idx` file among the various files you now have. If you do not see this file, then you may proceed to step 5.
3. In order to generate the index, type the following:  

```
makeindex -s gind.ist name
```

(where *name* stands for the main-file name without any extension).
4. Run L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X on the `.dtx` file once again.
5. Last but not least, make a `.ps` or `.pdf` file to increase your reading pleasure.

Sometimes you will see that a `.glo` (glossary) file has been produced. Run the following command between step 4 and 5:

```
makeindex -s gglo.ist -o name.gls name.glo
```

Be sure to run  $\LaTeX$  on the `.dtx` one last time before moving on to step 5.

## 4.7 Working with pdf $\LaTeX$

By Daniel Flipo <Daniel.Flipo@univ-lille1.fr>

PDF is a hypertext document format. Much like in a web page, some words in the document are marked as hyperlinks. They link to other places in the document or even to other documents. If you click on such a hyperlink you get transported to the destination of the link. In the context of  $\LaTeX$ , this means that all occurrences of `\ref` and `\pageref` become hyperlinks. Additionally, the table of contents, the index and all the other similar structures become collections of hyperlinks.

Most web pages you find today are written in HTML (*HyperText Markup Language*). This format has two significant disadvantages when writing scientific documents:

1. Including mathematical formulae into HTML documents is not generally supported. While there is a standard for it, most browsers used today do not support it, or lack the required fonts.
2. Printing HTML documents is possible, but the results vary widely between platforms and browsers. The results are miles removed from the quality we have come to expect in the  $\LaTeX$  world.

There have been many attempts to create translators from  $\LaTeX$  to HTML. Some were even quite successful in the sense that they are able to produce legible web pages from a standard  $\LaTeX$  input file. But all of them cut corners left and right to get the job done. As soon as you start using more complex  $\LaTeX$  features and external packages things tend to fall apart. Authors wishing to preserve the unique typographic quality of their documents even when publishing on the web turn to PDF (*Portable Document Format*), which preserves the layout of the document and permits hypertext navigation. Most modern browsers come with plugins that allow the direct display of PDF documents.

In contrast to the DVI and PS format, PDF documents can be displayed and printed on most computer platforms (Unix, Mac, Windows), thanks to the Adobe Acrobat Reader software, which can be downloaded freely from Adobe's website. On many computers it even comes pre-installed with the base OS distribution.

### 4.7.1 PDF Documents for the Web

The creation of a PDF file from L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X source is very simple, thanks to the pdfT<sub>E</sub>X program developed by Hàn Thế Thành. pdfT<sub>E</sub>X produces PDF output where normal T<sub>E</sub>X produces DVI. There is also a pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, which produces PDF output from L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X sources.

Both pdfT<sub>E</sub>X and pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X are installed automatically by most modern T<sub>E</sub>X distributions, such as teT<sub>E</sub>X, fpT<sub>E</sub>X, MikT<sub>E</sub>X, T<sub>E</sub>XLive and CMacT<sub>E</sub>X.

To produce a PDF instead of DVI, it is sufficient to replace the command `latex file.tex` by `pdflatex file.tex`. On systems where L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is not called from the command line, you may find a special button in the T<sub>E</sub>XControlCenter.

In L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X you can define the paper size with an optional document-class argument such as `a4paper` or `letterpaper`. This works in pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X too, but on top of this pdfT<sub>E</sub>X also needs to know the physical size of the paper and not just the area to use for the layout. If you use the `hyperref` package (see page 73), the `papersize` will be adjusted automatically. Otherwise you have to do this manually by putting the following lines into the preamble of the document:

```
\pdfpagewidth=\paperwidth
\pdfpageheight=\paperheight
```

The following section will go into more detail regarding the differences between normal L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X and pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. The main differences concern three areas: the fonts to use, the format of images to include, and the manual configuration of hyperlinks.

### 4.7.2 The Fonts

pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X can deal with all sorts of fonts (PK bitmaps, TrueType, PostScript type 1...) but prime L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X font format, the bitmap PK fonts produce very ugly results when the document is displayed with Acrobat Reader. It is best to use PostScript Type 1 fonts exclusively to produce documents that display well.

We have not yet talked about fonts in this book because L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X handles this on its own just fine, as it uses its own set of fonts well adapted to the requirements of scientific publishing. Actually, there are two sets of T<sub>E</sub>X fonts: *Computer Modern* (CM), consisting of 128 characters, which is the default font set, and *Extended Cork* (EC), made up from 256 characters. The speciality of the EC font set is that it contains special characters for all the language-specific accented characters used in European languages, such as ä or è. This allows hyphenation to work properly with words that contain such special characters. You can enable the EC character set by putting the command `\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}` into the preamble of the document

(see page 24). Unfortunately, there is no free set of PostScript type 1 fonts for the EC character set. Fortunately, there are two ways to cheat.

- You can put the line `\usepackage{aeuill}` into the preamble of your document, to use AE virtual fonts.
- You can use `\usepackage{mltex}`, but this only works when your pdf $\TeX$  has been compiled with the `mltex` option.

The AE virtual fontset, like the M $\TeX$  system, makes  $\TeX$  believe it has a full 256 character fontset at its disposal by creating the missing letters from characters available in the normal CM font, which exists in a PostScript type 1 variant. This has the big advantage that hyphenation works well in European languages. The only disadvantage of this approach is that the artificial AE characters do not work with Acrobat Reader's Find function, so you cannot search for words with accented characters in your final PDF file.

Another solution is not to use the CM fontset, but to switch to other Postscript type 1 fonts. Actually, some of them are even included with every copy of Acrobat Reader. Because these fonts have different character sizes, the text layout on your pages will change. Generally it will use more space than the CM fonts, which are very space-efficient. Also, the overall visual coherence of your document will suffer because Times, Helvetica and Courier (the primary candidates for such a replacement job) have not been designed to work in harmony in a single document as has been done for the Computer Modern fonts.

Two ready-made font sets are available for this purpose: `pxfonts`, which is based on *Palatino* as its main text body font, and the `txfonts` package, which is based on *Times*. To use them it is sufficient to put the following lines into the preamble of your document:

```
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
\usepackage{pxfonts}
```

Note: you may find lines like

```
Warning: pdftex (file eurmo10): Font eurmo10 at ... not found
```

in the `.log` file after compiling your input file. They mean that some font used in the document has not been found. You really have to fix these problems, as the resulting PDF document may *not display the pages with the missing characters at all*.

This whole font business, especially the lack of a good EC fontset equivalent in quality to the CM font in type 1 format, is occupying the minds of many people, so new solutions are cropping up all the time.

### 4.7.3 Using Graphics

Including graphics into a document works best with the `graphicx` package (see page 63). By using the special *driver* option `pdftex` the package will work with pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X as well:

```
\usepackage[pdftex]{color,graphicx}
```

In the sample above I have included the `color` option, as using color in documents displayed on the web comes quite naturally.

So much for the good news. The bad news is that EPS (Encapsulated Postscript), your favorite format for graphics in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, does *not* work for PDF files. If you do not define a file extension in the `\includegraphics` command, `graphicx` will go looking for a suitable file on its own, depending on the setting of the *driver* option. For `pdftex` this is formats `.png`, `.pdf`, `.jpg`, `.mps` (MetaPost), and `.tif`—but *not* `.eps`.

The simple way out of this problem is to just convert your EPS files into PDF format using the `epstopdf` utility found on many systems. For vector graphics (drawings) this is a great solution. For bitmaps (photos, scans) this is not ideal, because the PDF format natively supports the inclusion of PNG and JPEG images. PNG is good for screenshots and other images with few colors. JPEG is great for photos, as it is very space-efficient.

It may even be desirable to not draw certain geometric figures, but rather describe the figure with a specialized command language, such as MetaPost, which can be found in most T<sub>E</sub>X distributions, and comes with its own extensive manual.

### 4.7.4 Hypertext Links

The `hyperref` package will take care of turning all internal references of your document into hyperlinks. For this to work properly some magic is necessary, so you have to put `\usepackage[pdftex]{hyperref}` as the *last* command into the preamble of your document.

Many options are available to customize the behaviour of the `hyperref` package:

- either as a comma separated list after the `pdftex` option  
`\usepackage[pdftex]{hyperref}`
- or on individual lines with the command `\hypersetup{options}`.

The only required option is `pdftex`; the others are optional and allow you to change the default behaviour of `hyperref`.<sup>7</sup> In the following list the default values are written in an upright font.

---

<sup>7</sup>It is worth noting that the `hyperref` package is not limited to work with pdfL<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. It can also be configured to embed PDF-specific information into the DVI output of normal L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, which then gets put into the PS file by `dvips` and is finally picked up by Adobe Distiller when it is used to turn the PS file PDF.

`bookmarks (=true,false)` show or hide the bookmarks bar when displaying the document

`pdftoolbar (=true,false)` show or hide Acrobat's toolbar

`pdfmenubar (=true,false)` show or hide Acrobat's menu

`pdffitwindow (=true,false)` adjust the initial magnification of the pdf when displayed

`pdftitle (= {texte})` define the title that gets displayed in the Document Info window of Acrobat

`pdfauthor (= {texte})` the name of the PDF's author

`pdfnewwindow (=true,false)` define if a new window should get opened when a link leads out of the current document

`colorlinks (=true,false)` show link "zones" in color. The color of these links can be configured using the following options:

`linkcolor (=color,red)` color of internal links (sections, pages, etc.),

`citecolor (=color,green)` color of citation links (bibliography)

`filecolor (=color,magenta)` color of file links

`urlcolor (=color,cyan)` color of url links (mail, web)

If you are happy with the defaults, use

```
\usepackage[pdftex]{hyperref}
```

To have the bookmark list open and links in color (the `=true` values are optional):

```
\usepackage[pdftex,bookmarks,colorlinks]{hyperref}
```

When creating PDFs destined for printing, colored links are not a good thing as they end up in gray in the final output, making it difficult to read:

```
\usepackage{hyperref}
\hypersetup{colorlinks,%
             citecolor=black,%
             filecolor=black,%
             linkcolor=black,%
             urlcolor=black,%
             pdftex}
```

When you just want to provide information for the Document Info section of the PDF file:



```
\usepackage[pdfauthor={Pierre Desproges}%
  pdftitle={Des femmes qui tombent},%
  pdftex]{hyperref}
```

In addition to the automatic hyperlinks for cross references, it is possible to embed explicit links using

```
\href{url}{text}
```

The code

```
The \href{http://www.ctan.org}{CTAN} website.
```

produces the output “CTAN”; a click on the word “CTAN” will take you to the CTAN website.

If the destination of the link is not a URL but a local file, you can use the `\href` command:

```
The complete document is \href{manual.pdf}{here}
```

Which produces the text “The complete document is [here](#)”. A click on the word “[here](#)” will open the file `manual.pdf`. (The filename is relative to the location of the current document).

The author of an article might want her readers to easily send email messages by using the `\href` command inside the `\author` command on the title page of the document:

```
\author{Mary Oetiker <\href{mailto:mary@oetiker.ch}%
  {mary@oetiker.ch}>}
```

Note that I have put the link so that my email address appears not only in the link but also on the page itself. I did this because the link `\href{mailto:mary@oetiker.ch}{Mary Oetiker}` would work well within Acrobat, but once the page is printed the email address would not be visible anymore.

#### 4.7.5 Problems with Links

Messages like the following:

```
! pdfTeX warning (ext4): destination with the same identifier
  (name{page.1}) has been already used, duplicate ignored
```

appear when a counter gets reinitialized, for example by using the command `\mainmatter` provided by the `book` document class. It resets the page number counter to 1 prior to the first chapter of the book. But as the preface of

the book also has a page number 1 all links to “page 1” would not be unique anymore, hence the notice that “duplicate has been ignored.”

The counter measure consists of putting `plainpages=false` into the `hyperref` options. This unfortunately only helps with the page counter. An even more radical solution is to use the option `hypertexnames=false`, but this will cause the page links in the index to stop working.

#### 4.7.6 Problems with Bookmarks

The text displayed by bookmarks does not always look like you expect it to look. Because bookmarks are “just text,” much fewer characters are available for bookmarks than for normal  $\text{\LaTeX}$  text. `Hyperref` will normally notice such problems and put up a warning:

```
Package hyperref Warning:
Token not allowed in a PDFDocEncoded string:
```

You can now work around this problem by providing a text string for the bookmarks, which replaces the offending text:

```
\texorpdfstring{ $TeX$  text}{Bookmark Text}
```

Math expressions are a prime candidate for this kind of problem:

```
\section{\texorpdfstring{\$E=mc^2\$}%
{E\ =\ mc\textttwosuperior}}
```

which turns `\section{\$E=mc^2\$}` to “E=mc2” in the bookmark area.

Color changes also do not travel well into bookmarks:

```
\section{\textcolor{red}{Red !}}
```

produces the string “redRed!”. The command `\textcolor` gets ignored but its argument (red) gets printed.

If you use

```
\section{\texorpdfstring{\textcolor{red}{Red !}}{Red\ !}}
```

the result will be much more legible.

#### Source Compatibility Between $\text{\LaTeX}$ and `pdf $\text{\LaTeX}$`

Ideally your document would compile equally well with  $\text{\LaTeX}$  and `pdf $\text{\LaTeX}$` . The main problem in this respect is the inclusion of graphics. The simple solution is to *systematically drop* the file extension from `\includegraphics` commands. They will then automatically look for a file of a suitable format in the current directory. All you have to do is create appropriate versions of

the graphics files.  $\LaTeX$  will look for `.eps`, and `pdf $\LaTeX$`  will try to include a file with the extension `.png`, `.pdf`, `.jpg`, `.mps` or `.tif` (in that order).

For the cases where you want to use different code for the PDF version of your document, you can add:

```
\newif\ifPDF
\ifx\pdfoutput\undefined\PDFfalse
\else\ifnum\pdfoutput > 0\PDFtrue
  \else\PDFfalse
  \fi
\fi
```

as the very first few lines of your document. This defines a special command that will allow you to easily write conditional code:

```
\ifPDF
  \usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
  \usepackage{aeuill}
  \usepackage[pdftex]{graphicx,color}
  \usepackage[pdftex]{hyperref}
\else
  \usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
  \usepackage[dvips]{graphicx}
  \usepackage[dvips]{hyperref}
\fi
```

In the example above I have included the `hyperref` package even in the non-PDF version. The effect of this is to make the `\href` command work in all cases, which saves me from wrapping every occurrence into a conditional statement.

Note that in recent  $\TeX$  distributions ( $\TeX$ Live for example), the choice between `pdftex` and `dvips` when calling `graphicx` and `color` will happen automatically according to the settings made automatically in the configuration files `graphics.cfg` and `color.cfg`.

## 4.8 Creating Presentations with pdfscreen

By Daniel Flipo <Daniel.Flipo@univ-lille1.fr>

You can present the results of your scientific work on a blackboard, with transparencies, or directly from your laptop using some presentation software.

`pdf $\LaTeX$`  combined with the `pdfscreen` package allows you to create presentations in PDF, equally as colorful and lively as is possible with *PowerPoint*, but much more portable because Acrobat Reader is available on many more systems.

The pdfscreen class uses graphicx, color and hyperref with options adapted to screen presentations.

```

\documentclass[pdftex,12pt]{article}
%%% misc extensions %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
\usepackage[latin1]{inputenc}
\usepackage[english]{babel}
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
\usepackage{aeguill}
%%% pdfscreen %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
\usepackage[screen,panelleft,chocolate]{pdfscreen}
% Screen Format
\panelwidth=25mm
%%          height width
\screensize{150mm}{200mm}
%%          left right top bottom
\marginsize{42mm}{8mm}{10mm}{10mm}
% Color or image for background
\overlayempty
\definecolor{mybg}{rgb}{1,0.9,0.7}
\backgroundcolor{mybg}
% Logo
\emblema{MyLogo}
%%% For PPower4 (post-processor) %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
\usepackage{pause}
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
\begin{document}
\begin{slide}
\begin{itemize}
\item Good News\dots \pause
\item Bad News
\end{itemize}
\end{slide}
\end{document}

```

Figure 4.2: Example pdfscreen input file

To create this type of document you normally work within the `article` class. Figure 4.2 shows an example input file. First you have to load the `pdfscreen` package together with appropriate options:

`screen` : screen presentation. Use `print` to create a printable version.

`panelright` put a navigation panel on the right side of the screen. If the panel should be on the left side use `panelleft`.

`french` or some other supported language will render the text on the navigation buttons appropriately. This option is independent of the options set with the `babel` package.

`chocolate` color scheme for the navigation panel. Other choices are `gray`, `orange`, `palegreen`, `bluelace` and `blue`, which is the default.

Then you configure the display format. Because the presentation will always scale to the real size of the screen when displayed, this can be used to configure the overall font size:

`\panelwidth` defines the width of the navigation panel

`\screensize{width}{height}` define the width and height of the screen including the navigation panel.

`\marginsize{left}{right}{top}{bottom}` defines the margins of the document. In the example the document is not centered because the section numbers are kept in the left margin.

It is possible to use a background image in any of the image formats supported by pdf<sub>T</sub>E<sub>X</sub> using the command

```
\overlay{image}
```

or if you prefer a plain background you can define its color using

```
\background{color}
```

Finally if you want to place the logo of your organization into the navigation panel use the command

```
\emblema{logo}
```

If you believe in the presentational power of successive exposure of your bullet points you may want to make use of the `pause` package. It provides the command `\pause`. You can place this command right into the flow of your text wherever you want Acrobat to pause the display of your document. The `pause` package is part of the `ppower4` (*P<sup>4</sup>: Pdf Presentation Post-Processor*) system, which can post-process pdf output from pdf<sub>T</sub>E<sub>X</sub> and make it dance, sing and beg for food. You can treat the output of pdf<sub>T</sub>E<sub>X</sub> by passing it through the post-processor. On the command line it looks like this:

```
ppower4 xy.pdf xyz.pdf
```

To control what goes onto a single slide, you can use the environment `\begin{slide} ... \end{slide}`. The content of each slide will get displayed centered vertically on its page.

If you compile the example above you will get an error message:

```
! pdfTeX warning (dest): name{contents} has been
referenced but does not exist, replaced by a fixed one
```

This is because there is a button in the navigation panel that wants to point to the table of contents, because this example does not contain a `\tableofcontents` command the resolution of the link fails.

If you want the table of contents to be displayed right inside the navigation panel, you can use the option `paneltoc` when calling `pdfscreen`. This will only produce satisfactory results if your presentation has very few and short entries in the table of contents. You may want to provide short titles for your section headings in square brackets.

This short introduction only scratches the surface of what is possible with `pdfscreen` and `PPower4`. Both come with their own extensive documentation.

## 4.9 Xy-pic

By Alberto Manuel Brandão Simões <albie@alfarrabio.di.uminho.pt>

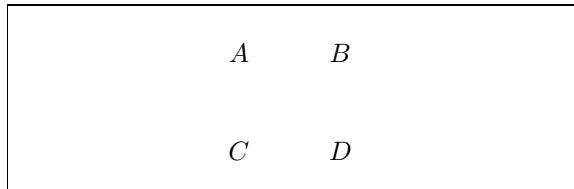
`xy` is a special package for drawing diagrams. To use it, simply add the following line to the preamble of your document:

```
\usepackage[options]{xy}
```

*options* is a list of functions from Xy-pic you want to load. These options are primarily useful when debugging the package. I recommend you pass the `all` option, making L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X load all the Xy commands.

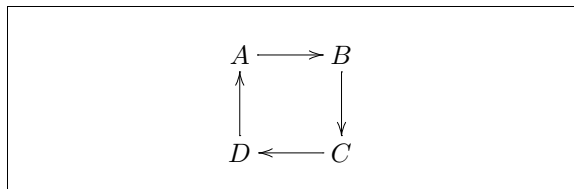
Xy-pic diagrams are drawn over a matrix-oriented canvas, where each diagram element is placed in a matrix slot:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{A & B \\
          C & D }
\end{displaymath}
```



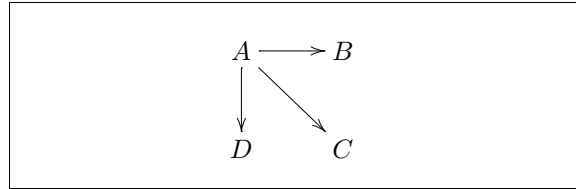
The `\xymatrix` command must be used in math mode. Here, we specified two lines and two columns. To make this matrix a diagram we just add directed arrows using the `\ar` command.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{ A \ar[r] & B \ar[d] \\
          D \ar[u] & C \ar[l] }
\end{displaymath}
```



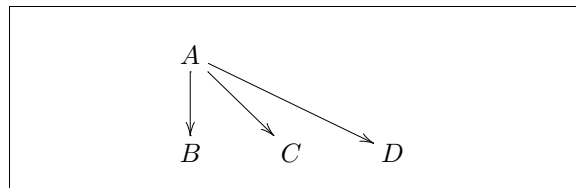
The arrow command is placed on the origin cell for the arrow. The arguments are the direction the arrow should point to (up, down, right and left).

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{
A \ar[d] \ar[dr] \ar[r] & B \\
D & C }
\end{displaymath}
```



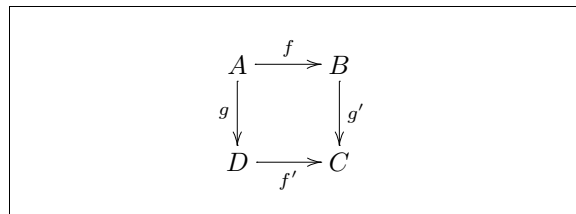
To make diagonals, just use more than one direction. In fact, you can repeat directions to make bigger arrows.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{
A \ar[d] \ar[dr] \ar[dr] & & \\
B & C & D }
\end{displaymath}
```



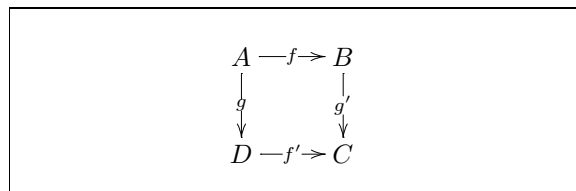
We can draw even more interesting diagrams by adding labels to the arrows. To do this, we use the common superscript and subscript operators.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{
A \ar[r]^f \ar[d]_g & B \\
D \ar[r]_{f'} & C }
\end{displaymath}
```



As shown, you use these operators as in math mode. The only difference is that that superscript means “on top of the arrow,” and subscript means “under the arrow.” There is a third operator, the vertical bar: | It causes text to be placed *in* the arrow.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\xymatrix{
A \ar[r]|f \ar[d]|g & B \\
D \ar[r]|{f'} & C }
\end{displaymath}
```



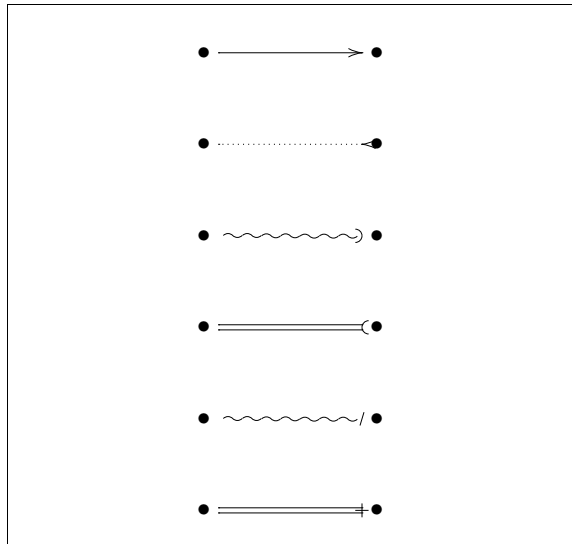
To draw an arrow with an hole in it, use `\ar[...]|hole`.

In some situations, it is important to distinguish between different types of arrows. This can be done by putting labels on them, or changing their appearance:

```

\begin{displaymath}
\matrix{
\bullet\ar@{->}[rr] && \bullet\\
\bullet\ar@{.<}[rr] && \bullet\\
\bullet\ar@{~}[rr] && \bullet\\
\bullet\ar@{=}[rr] && \bullet\\
\bullet\ar@{~/}[rr] && \bullet\\
\bullet\ar@{=+}[rr] && \bullet
}
\end{displaymath}

```

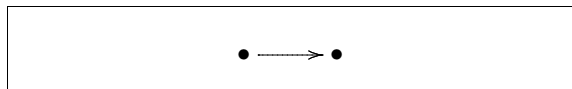


Notice the difference between the following two diagrams:

```

\begin{displaymath}
\matrix{
\bullet\ar[r]
\ar@{.>}[r] &
}
\end{displaymath}

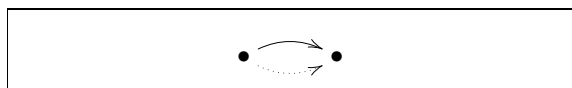
```



```

\begin{displaymath}
\matrix{
\bullet\ar~/[r]
\ar@/_/@{.>}[r] &
}
\end{displaymath}

```



The modifiers between the slashes define how the curves are drawn.  $\text{Xy-pic}$  offers many ways to influence the drawing of curves; for more information, check  $\text{Xy-pic}$  documentation.



## Chapter 5

# Customising L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X

Documents produced with the commands you have learned up to this point will look acceptable to a large audience. While they are not fancy-looking, they obey all the established rules of good typesetting, which will make them easy to read and pleasant to look at.

However, there are situations where L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X does not provide a command or environment that matches your needs, or the output produced by some existing command may not meet your requirements.

In this chapter, I will try to give some hints on how to teach L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X new tricks and how to make it produce output that looks different from what is provided by default.

### 5.1 New Commands, Environments and Packages

You may have noticed that all the commands I introduce in this book are typeset in a box, and that they show up in the index at the end of the book. Instead of directly using the necessary L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands to achieve this, I have created a package in which I defined new commands and environments for this purpose. Now I can simply write:

```
\begin{lscommand}  
\ci{dum}  
\end{lscommand}
```



\dum

In this example, I am using both a new environment called `lscommand`, which is responsible for drawing the box around the command, and a new command named `\ci`, which typesets the command name and makes a corresponding entry in the index. You can check this out by looking up the `\dum` command in the index at the back of this book, where you'll find an entry for `\dum`, pointing to every page where I mentioned the `\dum` command.

If I ever decide that I do not like the commands to be typeset in a box any more, I can simply change the definition of the `lscmd` environment to create a new look. This is much easier than going through the whole document to hunt down all the places where I have used some generic L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands to draw a box around some word.

### 5.1.1 New Commands

To add your own commands, use the

```
\newcommand{name}[num]{definition}
```

command. Basically, the command requires two arguments: the *name* of the command you want to create, and the *definition* of the command. The *num* argument in square brackets is optional and specifies the number of arguments the new command takes (up to 9 are possible). If missing it defaults to 0, i.e. no argument allowed.

The following two examples should help you to get the idea. The first example defines a new command called `\tnss`. This is short for “The Not So Short Introduction to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub>.” Such a command could come in handy if you had to write the title of this book over and over again.

```
\newcommand{\tnss}{The not
  so Short Introduction to
  \LaTeXe}
This is “\tnss” \ldots{ }
“\tnss”
```

```
This is “The not so Short Introduction to
LATEX 2ε” ... “The not so Short Introduction
to LATEX 2ε”
```

The next example illustrates how to define a new command that takes one argument. The `#1` tag gets replaced by the argument you specify. If you wanted to use more than one argument, use `#2` and so on.

```
\newcommand{\txsit}[1]
{This is the \emph{#1} Short
  Introduction to \LaTeXe}
% in the document body:
\begin{itemize}
\item \txsit{not so}
\item \txsit{very}
\end{itemize}
```

- ```
• This is the not so Short Introduction
to LATEX 2ε
• This is the very Short Introduction to
LATEX 2ε
```

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will not allow you to create a new command that would overwrite an existing one. But there is a special command in case you explicitly want this: `\renewcommand`. It uses the same syntax as the `\newcommand` command.

In certain cases you might also want to use the `\providecommand` command. It works like `\newcommand`, but if the command is already defined,  $\text{\LaTeX} 2_{\epsilon}$  will silently ignore it.

There are some points to note about whitespace following  $\text{\LaTeX}$  commands. See page 5 for more information.

### 5.1.2 New Environments

Just as with the `\newcommand` command, there is a command to create your own environments. The `\newenvironment` command uses the following syntax:

```
\newenvironment{name}[num]{before}{after}
```

Again `\newenvironment` can have an optional argument. The material specified in the *before* argument is processed before the text in the environment gets processed. The material in the *after* argument gets processed when the `\end{name}` command is encountered.

The example below illustrates the usage of the `\newenvironment` command.

```
\newenvironment{king}
{\rule{1ex}{1ex}%
 \hspace{\stretch{1}}}
{\hspace{\stretch{1}}%
 \rule{1ex}{1ex}}
```

■
■
My humble subjects ...

```
\begin{king}
My humble subjects \ldots
\end{king}
```

The *num* argument is used the same way as in the `\newcommand` command.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  makes sure that you do not define an environment that already exists. If you ever want to change an existing command, you can use the `\renewenvironment` command. It uses the same syntax as the `\newenvironment` command.

The commands used in this example will be explained later. For the `\rule` command see page 97, for `\stretch` go to page 91, and more information on `\hspace` can be found on page 91.

### 5.1.3 Your Own Package

If you define a lot of new environments and commands, the preamble of your document will get quite long. In this situation, it is a good idea to create a  $\text{\LaTeX}$  package containing all your command and environment definitions.

You can then use the `\usepackage` command to make the package available in your document.

---

```
% Demo Package by Tobias Oetiker
\ProvidesPackage{demopack}
\newcommand{\tnss}{The not so Short Introduction to \LaTeXe}
\newcommand{\txsit}[1]{The \emph{#1} Short
    Introduction to \LaTeXe}
\newenvironment{king}{\begin{quote}}{\end{quote}}
```

---

Figure 5.1: Example Package.

Writing a package basically consists of copying the contents of your document preamble into a separate file with a name ending in `.sty`. There is one special command,

`\ProvidesPackage{package name}`

for use at the very beginning of your package file. `\ProvidesPackage` tells L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X the name of the package and will allow it to issue a sensible error message when you try to include a package twice. Figure 5.1 shows a small example package that contains the commands defined in the examples above.

## 5.2 Fonts and Sizes

### 5.2.1 Font Changing Commands

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X chooses the appropriate font and font size based on the logical structure of the document (sections, footnotes, ...). In some cases, one might like to change fonts and sizes by hand. To do this, you can use the commands listed in Tables 5.1 and 5.2. The actual size of each font is a design issue and depends on the document class and its options. Table 5.3 shows the absolute point size for these commands as implemented in the standard document classes.

```
{\small The small and
\textbf{bold} Romans ruled}
{\Large all of great big
\textit{Italy}.}
```

The small and **bold** Romans ruled all of great big *Italy*.

One important feature of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> is that the font attributes are independent. This means that you can issue size or even font changing commands, and still keep the bold or slant attribute set earlier.

In *math mode* you can use the font changing *commands* to temporarily exit *math mode* and enter some normal text. If you want to switch to another font for math typesetting you need another special set of commands; refer to Table 5.4.

In connection with the font size commands, curly braces play a significant role. They are used to build *groups*. Groups limit the scope of most L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands.

He likes `{\LARGE large and  
\small small} letters`.

He likes large and small letters.

The font size commands also change the line spacing, but only if the paragraph ends within the scope of the font size command. The closing curly brace `}` should therefore not come too early. Note the position of the `\par` command in the next two examples.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>`\par` is equivalent to a blank line

Table 5.1: Fonts.

|                           |                   |                               |                  |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| <code>\textrm{...}</code> | roman             | <code>\textsf{...}</code>     | sans serif       |
| <code>\texttt{...}</code> | typewriter        |                               |                  |
| <code>\textmd{...}</code> | medium            | <code>\textbf{...}</code>     | <b>bold face</b> |
| <code>\textup{...}</code> | upright           | <code>\textit{...}</code>     | <i>italic</i>    |
| <code>\textsl{...}</code> | <i>slanted</i>    | <code>\textsc{...}</code>     | SMALL CAPS       |
| <code>\emph{...}</code>   | <i>emphasized</i> | <code>\textnormal{...}</code> | document font    |

Table 5.2: Font Sizes.

|                            |                  |                     |                 |
|----------------------------|------------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| <code>\tiny</code>         | tiny font        | <code>\Large</code> | larger font     |
| <code>\scriptsize</code>   | very small font  | <code>\LARGE</code> | very large font |
| <code>\footnotesize</code> | quite small font |                     |                 |
| <code>\small</code>        | small font       | <code>\huge</code>  | huge            |
| <code>\normalsize</code>   | normal font      | <code>\Huge</code>  | largest         |
| <code>\large</code>        | large font       |                     |                 |

Table 5.3: Absolute Point Sizes in Standard Classes.

| size                       | 10pt (default) | 11pt option | 12pt option |
|----------------------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| <code>\tiny</code>         | 5pt            | 6pt         | 6pt         |
| <code>\scriptsize</code>   | 7pt            | 8pt         | 8pt         |
| <code>\footnotesize</code> | 8pt            | 9pt         | 10pt        |
| <code>\small</code>        | 9pt            | 10pt        | 11pt        |
| <code>\normalsize</code>   | 10pt           | 11pt        | 12pt        |
| <code>\large</code>        | 12pt           | 12pt        | 14pt        |
| <code>\Large</code>        | 14pt           | 14pt        | 17pt        |
| <code>\LARGE</code>        | 17pt           | 17pt        | 20pt        |
| <code>\huge</code>         | 20pt           | 20pt        | 25pt        |
| <code>\Huge</code>         | 25pt           | 25pt        | 25pt        |

Table 5.4: Math Fonts.

| <i>Command</i>                | <i>Example</i>                                    | <i>Output</i>         |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <code>\mathcal{...}</code>    | <code>\$\$\mathcal{B}=c\$</code>                  | $B = c$               |
| <code>\mathrm{...}</code>     | <code>\$\$\mathrm{K}_2\$</code>                   | $K_2$                 |
| <code>\mathbf{...}</code>     | <code>\$\$\sum x=\mathbf{v}\$</code>              | $\sum x = \mathbf{v}$ |
| <code>\mathsf{...}</code>     | <code>\$\$\mathsf{G\times R}\$</code>             | $G \times R$          |
| <code>\mathtt{...}</code>     | <code>\$\$\mathtt{L}(b,c)\$</code>                | $L(b, c)$             |
| <code>\mathnormal{...}</code> | <code>\$\$\mathnormal{R_{19}}\neq R_{19}\$</code> | $R_{19} \neq R_{19}$  |
| <code>\mathit{...}</code>     | <code>\$\$\mathit{ffi}\neq ffi\$</code>           | $ffi \neq ffi$        |

```
{\Large Don't read this! It is not
true. You can believe me!}\par}
```

Don't read this! It is not true.  
You can believe me!

```
{\Large This is not true either.
But remember I am a liar.}\par}
```

This is not true either. But remember I am a liar.

If you want to activate a size changing command for a whole paragraph of text or even more, you might want to use the environment syntax for font changing commands.

```
\begin{Large}
This is not true.
But then again, what is these
days \ldots
\end{Large}
```

This is not true. But then again,  
what is these days . . .

This will save you from counting lots of curly braces.

### 5.2.2 Danger, Will Robinson, Danger

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, it is dangerous to clutter your document with explicit commands like this, because they work in opposition to the basic idea of L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, which is to separate the logical and visual markup of your document. This means that if you use the same font changing command in several places in order to typeset a special kind of information, you should use `\newcommand` to define a “logical wrapper command” for the font changing command.

```
\newcommand{\oops}[1]{\textbf{#1}}
Do not \oops{enter} this room,
it's occupied by a \oops{machine}
of unknown origin and purpose.
```

Do not **enter** this room, it's occupied by a  
**machine** of unknown origin and purpose.

This approach has the advantage that you can decide at some later stage that you want to use some visual representation of danger other than `\textbf`, without having to wade through your document, identifying all the occurrences of `\textbf` and then figuring out for each one whether it was used for pointing out danger or for some other reason.

### 5.2.3 Advice

To conclude this journey into the land of fonts and font sizes, here is a little word of advice:

**Remember!** *The MORE fonts YOU use in a document, the more READABLE and beautiful it becomes.*

## 5.3 Spacing

### 5.3.1 Line Spacing

If you want to use larger inter-line spacing in a document, you can change its value by putting the

```
\linespread{factor}
```

command into the preamble of your document. Use `\linespread{1.3}` for “one and a half” line spacing, and `\linespread{1.6}` for “double” line spacing. Normally the lines are not spread, so the default line spread factor is 1.

### 5.3.2 Paragraph Formatting

In L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, there are two parameters influencing paragraph layout. By placing a definition like

```
\setlength{\parindent}{0pt}
\setlength{\parskip}{1ex plus 0.5ex minus 0.2ex}
```

in the preamble of the input file, you can change the layout of paragraphs. These two commands increase the space between two paragraphs while setting the paragraph indent to zero.

The `plus` and `minus` parts of the length above tell T<sub>E</sub>X that it can compress and expand the inter paragraph skip by the amount specified, if this is necessary to properly fit the paragraphs onto the page.

In continental Europe, paragraphs are often separated by some space and not indented. But beware, this also has its effect on the table of contents. Its lines get spaced more loosely now as well. To avoid this, you might want to move the two commands from the preamble into your document to some place after the `\tableofcontents` or to not use them at all, because you’ll find that most professional books use indenting and not spacing to separate paragraphs.



If you want to indent a paragraph that is not indented, you can use

```
\indent
```

at the beginning of the paragraph.<sup>2</sup> Obviously, this will only have an effect when `\parindent` is not set to zero.

To create a non-indented paragraph, you can use

```
\noindent
```

as the first command of the paragraph. This might come in handy when you start a document with body text and not with a sectioning command.

### 5.3.3 Horizontal Space

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X determines the spaces between words and sentences automatically. To add horizontal space, use:

```
\hspace{length}
```

If such a space should be kept even if it falls at the end or the start of a line, use `\hspace*` instead of `\hspace`. The *length* in the simplest case is just a number plus a unit. The most important units are listed in Table 5.5.

This `\hspace{1.5cm}` is a space  
of 1.5 cm.

```
This          is a space of 1.5 cm.
```

The command

```
\stretch{n}
```

generates a special rubber space. It stretches until all the remaining space on a line is filled up. If two `\hspace{\stretch{n}}` commands are issued on the same line, they grow according to the stretch factor.

```
x\hspace{\stretch{1}}  
x\hspace{\stretch{3}}x
```

```
x          x          x
```

When using horizontal space together with text, it may make sense to make the space adjust its size relative to the size of the current font. This can be done by using the text-relative units `em` and `en`:

<sup>2</sup>To indent the first paragraph after each section head, use the `indentfirst` package in the ‘tools’ bundle.

Table 5.5: T<sub>E</sub>X Units.

---

|    |                                                    |              |
|----|----------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| mm | millimetre $\approx 1/25$ inch                     | ⊐            |
| cm | centimetre = 10 mm                                 | ┌───┐        |
| in | inch = 25.4 mm                                     | ┌──────────┐ |
| pt | point $\approx 1/72$ inch $\approx \frac{1}{3}$ mm | ⊐            |
| em | approx width of an ‘M’ in the current font         | ┌┐           |
| ex | approx height of an ‘x’ in the current font        | └┘           |

---

`{\Large}big\hspace{1em}y\{\}`  
`{\tiny}tin\hspace{1em}y}`

|                                        |
|----------------------------------------|
| <p>big y<br/> <small>tin y</small></p> |
|----------------------------------------|

### 5.3.4 Vertical Space

The space between paragraphs, sections, subsections, ... is determined automatically by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. If necessary, additional vertical space *between two paragraphs* can be added with the command:

`\vspace{length}`

This command should normally be used between two empty lines. If the space should be preserved at the top or at the bottom of a page, use the starred version of the command, `\vspace*`, instead of `\vspace`.

The `\stretch` command, in connection with `\pagebreak`, can be used to typeset text on the last line of a page, or to centre text vertically on a page.

Some text \ldots

`\vspace{\stretch{1}}`

This goes onto the last line of the page.\pagebreak

Additional space between two lines of *the same* paragraph or within a table is specified with the

`\[length]`

command.

With `\bigskip` and `\smallskip` you can skip a predefined amount of vertical space without having to worry about exact numbers.

## 5.4 Page Layout

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X 2<sub>ε</sub> allows you to specify the paper size in the `\documentclass` command. It then automatically picks the right text margins, but sometimes you may not be happy with the predefined values. Naturally, you can change them. Figure 5.2 shows all the parameters that can be changed. The figure was produced with the `layout` package from the tools bundle.<sup>3</sup>

**WAIT!** . . . before you launch into a “Let’s make that narrow page a bit wider” frenzy, take a few seconds to think. As with most things in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, there is a good reason for the page layout to be as it is.

Sure, compared to your off-the-shelf MS Word page, it looks awfully narrow. But take a look at your favourite book<sup>4</sup> and count the number of characters on a standard text line. You will find that there are no more than about 66 characters on each line. Now do the same on your L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X page. You will find that there are also about 66 characters per line. Experience shows that the reading gets difficult as soon as there are more characters on a single line. This is because it is difficult for the eyes to move from the end of one line to the start of the next one. This is also why newspapers are typeset in multiple columns.

So if you increase the width of your body text, keep in mind that you are making life difficult for the readers of your paper. But enough of the cautioning, I promised to tell you how you do it . . .

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X provides two commands to change these parameters. They are usually used in the document preamble.

The first command assigns a fixed value to any of the parameters:

```
\setlength{parameter}{length}
```

The second command adds a length to any of the parameters:

```
\addtolength{parameter}{length}
```

This second command is actually more useful than the `\setlength` command, because you can now work relative to the existing settings. To add one centimetre to the overall text width, I put the following commands into the document preamble:

```
\addtolength{\hoffset}{-0.5cm}
\addtolength{\textwidth}{1cm}
```

In this context, you might want to look at the `calc` package. It allows you to use arithmetic operations in the argument of `\setlength` and other places where you can enter numeric values into function arguments.

<sup>3</sup>CTAN:/tex-archive/macros/latex/required/tools

<sup>4</sup>I mean a real printed book produced by a reputable publisher.

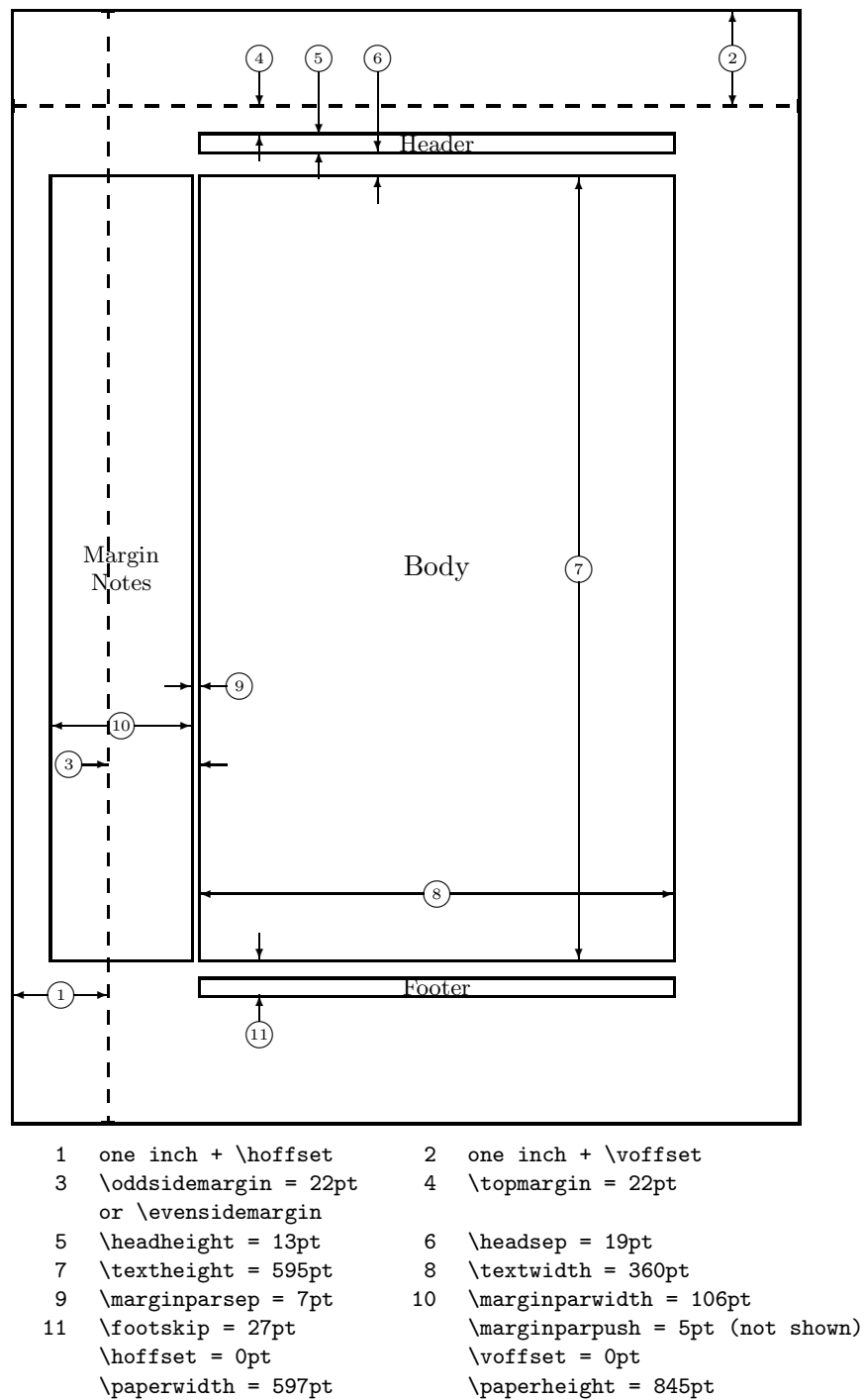


Figure 5.2: Page Layout Parameters.

## 5.5 More Fun With Lengths

Whenever possible, I avoid using absolute lengths in L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X documents. I rather try to base things on the width or height of other page elements. For the width of a figure this could be `\textwidth` in order to make it fill the page.

The following 3 commands allow you to determine the width, height and depth of a text string.

```
\settoheight{variable}{text}
\settodepth{variable}{text}
\settowidth{variable}{text}
```

The example below shows a possible application of these commands.

```
\flushleft
\newenvironment{vardesc}[1]{%
  \settowidth{\parindent}{#1:\ }
  \makebox[Opt][r]{#1:\ }{}}

\begin{displaymath}
a^2+b^2=c^2
\end{displaymath}

\begin{vardesc}{Where}$a$,
$b$ -- are adjunct to the right
angle of a right-angled triangle.

$c$ -- is the hypotenuse of
the triangle and feels lonely.

$d$ -- finally does not show up
here at all. Isn't that puzzling?
\end{vardesc}
```

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

Where:  $a$ ,  $b$  – are adjunct to the right angle of a right-angled triangle.

$c$  – is the hypotenuse of the triangle and feels lonely.

$d$  – finally does not show up here at all. Isn't that puzzling?

## 5.6 Boxes

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X builds up its pages by pushing around boxes. At first, each letter is a little box, which is then glued to other letters to form words. These are again glued to other words, but with special glue, which is elastic so that a series of words can be squeezed or stretched as to exactly fill a line on the page.

I admit, this is a very simplistic version of what really happens, but the point is that T<sub>E</sub>X operates on glue and boxes. Letters are not the only things that can be boxes. You can put virtually everything into a box, including

other boxes. Each box will then be handled by L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X as if it were a single letter.

In the past chapters you have already encountered some boxes, although I did not tell you. The `tabular` environment and the `\includegraphics`, for example, both produce a box. This means that you can easily arrange two tables or images side by side. You just have to make sure that their combined width is not larger than the `textwidth`.

You can also pack a paragraph of your choice into a box with either the

```
\parbox[pos]{width}{text}
```

command or the

```
\begin{minipage}[pos]{width} text \end{minipage}
```

environment. The `pos` parameter can take one of the letters `c`, `t` or `b` to control the vertical alignment of the box, relative to the baseline of the surrounding text. `width` takes a length argument specifying the width of the box. The main difference between a `minipage` and a `parbox` is that you cannot use all commands and environments inside a `parbox`, while almost anything is possible in a `minipage`.

While `\parbox` packs up a whole paragraph doing line breaking and everything, there is also a class of boxing commands that operates only on horizontally aligned material. We already know one of them; it's called `\mbox`. It simply packs up a series of boxes into another one, and can be used to prevent L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X from breaking two words. As you can put boxes inside boxes, these horizontal box packers give you ultimate flexibility.

```
\makebox[width][pos]{text}
```

`width` defines the width of the resulting box as seen from the outside.<sup>5</sup> Besides the length expressions, you can also use `\width`, `\height`, `\depth`, and `\totalheight` in the width parameter. They are set from values obtained by measuring the typeset `text`. The `pos` parameter takes a one letter value: `center`, `left flush`, `right flush`, or `s`, which spreads the text inside the box to fill it.

The command `\framebox` works exactly the same as `\makebox`, but it draws a box around the text.

The following example shows you some things you could do with the `\makebox` and `\framebox` commands.

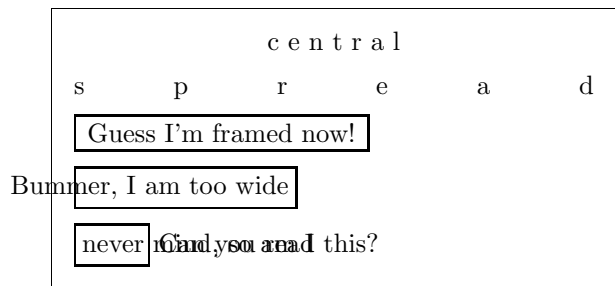
---

<sup>5</sup>This means it can be smaller than the material inside the box. You can even set the width to `0pt` so that the text inside the box will be typeset without influencing the surrounding boxes.

```

\makebox[\textwidth]{%
  c e n t r a l}\par
\makebox[\textwidth][s]{%
  s p r e a d}\par
\framebox[1.1\width]{Guess I'm
  framed now!} \par
\framebox[0.8\width][r]{Bummer,
  I am too wide} \par
\framebox[1cm][l]{never
  mind, so am I}
Can you read this?

```



Now that we control the horizontal, the obvious next step is to go for the vertical.<sup>6</sup> No problem for L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. The

```
\raisebox{lift}[depth][height]{text}
```

command lets you define the vertical properties of a box. You can use `\width`, `\height`, `\depth`, and `\totalheight` in the first three parameters, in order to act upon the size of the box inside the *text* argument.

```

\raisebox{0pt}[0pt][0pt]{\Large%
\textbf{Aaaa}\raisebox{-0.3ex}{a}%
\raisebox{-0.7ex}{aa}%
\raisebox{-1.2ex}{r}%
\raisebox{-2.2ex}{g}%
\raisebox{-4.5ex}{h}}
he shouted but not even the next
one in line noticed that something
terrible had happened to him.

```

## 5.7 Rules and Struts

A few pages back you may have noticed the command

```
\rule[lift]{width}{height}
```

In normal use it produces a simple black box.

---

<sup>6</sup>Total control is only to be obtained by controlling both the horizontal and the vertical  
...

```

\rule{3mm}{.1pt}%
\rule[-1mm]{5mm}{1cm}%
\rule{3mm}{.1pt}%
\rule[1mm]{1cm}{5mm}%
\rule{3mm}{.1pt}

```



This is useful for drawing vertical and horizontal lines. The line on the title page, for example, has been created with a `\rule` command.

A special case is a rule with no width but a certain height. In professional typesetting, this is called a strut. It is used to guarantee that an element on a page has a certain minimal height. You could use it in a `tabular` environment to make sure a row has a certain minimum height.

```

\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline
\rule{1pt}{4ex}Pitprop \ldots\
\hline
\rule{0pt}{4ex}Strut\
\hline
\end{tabular}

```



The End.



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