# LATEX for Complete Novices 

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

The aim of this document is to introduce $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ to a non-technical person. To begin with it may be best to give a quick overview of $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and $\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{T} \mathrm{X}$, and how they are related, as newcomers to $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ are often confused by the two terms. (Don't worry if this paragraph sounds too technical, just skip to the next paragraph, and come back later when you're feeling a bit more confident.) $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ is a typesetting application written by Donald Knuth, which typesets text via a set of instructions called primitives. In general, these primitives are too complicated to use, so there are several formats that allow you to access $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ in a slightly more user friendly way. These formats basically define a set of commands based on $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}}$ 's primitives that you can use to create your document. The original format is called "Plain $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ ", however many people find this format difficult to use, so some opt to use the format called " $\mathrm{EA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ " which was written by Leslie Lamport. There are also other formats available, such as ConTeXt, but this document only covers $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. You can think of $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ as an intermediary between you and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, translating your instructions into $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ 's primitive commands.
[Should I use Plain TeX or LaTeX?]

LATEX is excellent for producing professional looking documents, however it is a language not a word processor, so it can take a bit of getting used to, particularly if you have never had any experience using programming languages.
[Why is TeX not a
WYSIWYG
system?] are prepared to invest some time studying the basics, then you will find that the harder tasks which you find so frustrating using a word processor are much easier using $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. Here are a few reasons why I prefer to use LATEX, although it is not an exhaustive list:
$\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ is far better at typesetting mathematical equations than word processors. I wrote my Ph.D. thesis back in the days of LATEX2.09 (the old version of $\mathrm{EA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ ) and given the high quantity of mathematics that I had to typeset, it would have taken me considerably longer to write it in a word processor, and the resulting document wouldn't have looked nearly as good.

For example, compare the following equations:

1. Using equation editor in Microsoft Word: ${ }^{1}$
[^0]1. INTRODUCTION

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} L}{\partial z_{i}^{o^{2}}}=-\frac{\partial \rho_{i}}{\partial z_{i}^{\sigma}}\left(\frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{1}}}{1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{1}}}+v_{i} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{1}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{1}}\right)+\mathrm{e}^{2 v_{1}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}}{\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{1}}\right)^{2}}\right)
$$

2. Using $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ :

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial z_{i}^{\rho^{2}}}=-\frac{\partial \rho_{i}}{\partial z_{i}^{\rho}}\left(\frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}}{1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}}+v_{i} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}\right)+\mathrm{e}^{2 v_{i}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}}{\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}\right)^{2}}\right)
$$

(Incidentally, this equation was taken from some kernel survival analysis, so it is a genuine piece of mathematics. You will find out how to create this equation on page 288 in section 9.3.8.)

That's all very well and good if you want to typeset some equations, but if your work doesn't involve maths, does that mean that IATEX is not for you? Although I am a mathematician, I have written plenty of nonmathematical documents, including fictional work and newsletters, but I still opt for $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ because using $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ ensures consistent formatting, and

## 1. INTRODUCTION

the style of the document can be completely changed by simply using a different class file, or loading additional packages. This means that I can concentrate on writing the document, rather than worrying about how it will look. It also means that if, after having written a 200 page document, I then find that I need to change all the figure captions so that they are labelled "Fig" instead of "Figure", all I need to do is edit a single line, rather than going through 200 pages to individually edit every single figure caption! In fact, if you browse The $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Catalogue Topic Index [1], you will see that $T_{E} X$ users span both the sciences and the arts.

LATEX makes it easy to cross-reference units such chapters, sections, equations, figures and tables. It is also easy to generate a table of contents, list of figures, list of tables, index, glossary and bibliography. You don't need to worry about numbering anything, as this is done automatically, which means that you can insert new sections or swap sections around without having to worry about updating the rest of your document. Furthermore, if you use $\operatorname{BiBT}_{E} \mathrm{X}$ in combination with $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, and you have, say, 100 or more citations, it doesn't matter if you are then told that the citations have to be re-ordered (say, in order of citation rather than alphabetically.) All that is required is a minor edit to change the appropriate style file rather than ploughing through the entire document changing all the citations by hand.

When you are editing a document using a word processor, the word

## 1. INTRODUCTION

processor has to work out how to reformat the document every time you type something. If you have a large document with a great many inserted objects (such as figures and equations) the response to keyboard input can become very slow. You may find that after typing a few words you will have to wait until the computer catches up before you can see what you have typed. With $\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{EX}$ you type in your code using an ordinary text editor. The document doesn't get formatted until you pass it to $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, which means that you are not slowed down by constant reformatting.

Lastly, there's the fact that $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ follows certain typographical rules, so you can leave most of the typesetting to $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. For example, if any of the following combination of letters are found: $f 1, f f 1, f f, f i, f f i$, they will automatically be converted into the corresponding ligatures: fl, ff, ff, fi, ffi. Note the difference between fluffier (2 ligatures) and fluffier (no ligatures). TEX also has good justification and hyphenation rules, and can help prevent widows and orphans. ${ }^{2}$

Some of these points may seem minor but they all contribute towards
[Typography tutorials] the impact of the entire document. When writing technical documents, the presentation as well as the content is important. All too often ex-

[^1]
## 1. INTRODUCTION

aminers or referees are put off reading a document because it is badly formatted. This provokes an immediate negative reaction and provides little desire to look favourably upon your work. The same is true in the publishing world: if your submission looks sloppy, you will be marked as an amateur and not worth their time. Would you spend time on preparing a presentation for an important job interview, only to turn up wearing jeans and a T-shirt? It's not enough to have a good idea, you need to be able to engage a reader's interest, and maintain that interest in order to disseminate your idea.

To give you an idea of what you can do with $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, this document was written in LATEX. ${ }^{3}$ The PDF versions were generated using PDFLATEX and makeindex and the HTML version was generated using the EATEX2HTML ${ }^{4}$ converter.

For more good reasons as to why you might want to use $\mathrm{LA}^{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ instead of a word processor, have a look at http://www.ctan.org/what_is_tex.
[Conversion from (La)TeX to HTML] html\#whytex.

[^2]
### 1.1 Overview

This document is structured as follows:
Chapter 2 defines terms that will be used throughout this document. I strongly suggest that you look through this chapter before you start so that you understand the terminology used in this document. At the very least, you should read the first part that details how input code and corresponding typeset output are displayed in this document-you need to understand the difference between input (source code) and output (how the source code will appear in the typeset document).

Chapter 3 details the software that you will need to use $\mathrm{LATEX}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and describes how to use the software.

Chapter 4 shows you how to create a very basic document.
Chapter 5 shows you how to create chapters and other sectional units so that you end up with a fully structured document.

Chapter 6 shows you how to load packages, and also how to download and install additional packages that weren't installed with your $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution.

Chapter 7 describes how to create figures and tables.
Chapter 8 describes how to define your own commands, and redefine existing commands.

Chapter 9 describes how to typeset mathematics.
Chapter 10 describes how to define new environments.
Chapter 11 discusses how numbers are stored in counters, how to change their values, and how to define your own counter.

Chapter 12 discusses how dimensions are stored, allowed units and how to change a dimension.

Chapter 13 documents possible errors you may encounter, and gives advice on how to fix them.

Throughout this document there are pointers to related topics in the UK TUG List of Frequently Asked Questions [2]. These are displayed in the margin in square brackets, as illustrated on the right. You may find these links useful in answering related questions that are not covered in this document.

This document and associated files are available on-line at: http: //theoval.cmp.uea.ac.uk/~nlct/latex/novices/. The links in this document are colour-coded: internal links are blue, external links are magenta.

### 1.2 Recommended Reading

This document is designed as an introductory text, not a comprehensive guide. For further reading try some of the following:
$L^{A} T_{E} X$ : A Document Preparation System [3] is the user's guide and reference manual for $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, and is a good basic text for anyone starting out, however it doesn't cover $\mathrm{AMST}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, so anyone who needs to typeset more than basic mathematics may prefer either A Guide to $L^{A} T_{E} X$ [4] or The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Companion [5]. Both these books cover AMSTEX, BibTEX and makeindex. A Guide to $L_{A} T_{E} X$ also has an appendix that contains a brief summary of all commands described in the book for a quick and easy reference which is quite useful.

In the same series as The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Companion, there is also The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Graphics Companion [6] which details how to illustrate documents with ${ }^{\mathrm{LA}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and PostScript, including a chapter on colour (coloured text, background, tables and slides). This is recommended to anyone who is contemplating heavy use of graphics, but you do need a basic knowledge of
[Books on TeX and its
relations]
[What are the AMS packages?]

LATEX before delving into it.
The final book in the Companion series which you may find useful is The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Web Companion [7]. This is recommended for those interested in creating documents for the web, either as HTML or PDF. This book details how to convert $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ documents into HTML using various applications such as LaTeX2HTML and TeX4ht, and how to create PDF documents using PDFLATEX, including how to create active links within your document using the hyperref package.

There is also a wealth of $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$-related information on the world wide web. The Comprehensive $\mathrm{TEX}_{\mathrm{E}}$ Archive Network (CTAN) [8] is a good place to start. In the UK, the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Archive [9] is closer. You can check the on-line catalogue for information about available software, and there is also the list of frequently asked questions which I recommend you try if you have any queries.

You can also try using a search engine, such as Google. For example, if you get an error message you don't understand, try copying and pasting the message into a search engine.

If that still doesn't answer your question, try the comp.text.tex [10] newsgroup or the texhax [11] archives, however if you want to post a query to these newsgroups, make sure you structure your question clearly and concisely with an informative subject line.
[Drawing with
[What is
PDFTeX?]
[How to get help]
[Specialist mailing lists]
[How to ask a question]

## Chapter 2

## Some Definitions

As mentioned in chapter $1, \mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ is a language, so you can't simply start typing and expect to see your document appear before your very eyes. You need to know a few things before you can get started, so it's best to define a few terms first. Don't worry if there seems a lot to take in, there will be some practical examples later, which should hopefully make things a little clearer.

Throughout this document, source code is illustrated by a typewriter font with the word Input placed in the margin, and the corresponding output is typeset with the word output in the margin. For example:

Sample Code:
This is an \textbf\{example\}.
Resulting output:
This is an example.
2. SOME DEFINITIONS

Segments of code that are longer than one line are bounded above and below by a horizontal line, illustrated as follows:


Line one\par
Line two\par
Line three.
with corresponding output:

| Line one |
| :--- |
| Line two |
| Line three. |

Line two
Line three.

Command definitions are shown in a typewriter font in the form:
\documentclass $[<$ options $>]\{<$ class file $>\}$
In this case the command being defined is called \documentclass and text typed <like this> (e.g. <options> and <class file>) indicates the type

## 2. SOME DEFINITIONS

of thing you need to substitute. For example, if you want the article class file you would substitute <class file> with article and if you want the a4paper option you would substitute <options> with a4paper, like this: \documentclass[a4paper] \{article\}

But more on that later.
One other thing to mention is the comment character \% (the percent symbol). Anything from the percent symbol up to, and including, the end of line character is ignored by $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. Thus

```
A simple % next comes a command to make some bold text
\textbf{example}
```

will produce the output
A simple example
The percent symbol is often used to suppress unwanted space resulting from line breaks ${ }^{1}$ in the source code. For example, the following code

[^3]2. SOME DEFINITIONS

## Foo\%

Bar
$\qquad$
will produce the output:
FooBar
as opposed to
$\square$

## Foo

Bar
which will produce the output:

Foo Bar

### 2.1 Source Code

The source code is all the text and $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ commands that make up an entire document. The source code is typed in using a text editor, and saved with the file extension .tex. The source code may be contained in just one file, or it might be split across several files.

### 2.2 DVI File (or Output File)

The LATEX application will convert your source code into typeset output which will be written to a device independent (DVI) file. This file can then be viewed using a DVI viewer. MiKTeX comes with the DVI viewer called YAP. If you are using the X Window System, the DVI viewer is called xdvi (there are also other variants such as kdvi).

Many people these days use PDFLATEX rather than ${ }^{1} T_{E} \mathrm{X}$, which produces a PDF file, instead of a DVI file. Where this document refers to
[TeX-friendly editors and shells]
[What is a DVI file?]
[DVI
previewers]
[What is PDFTeX?] "the output file", it means the DVI file if you are using $\mathrm{LA}^{A} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and the PDF file if you are using PDFLATEX.

### 2.3 Commands (also called macros or control sequences)

A command is used to tell $\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ to do a particular thing at that point in the document. There are four basic forms a command can take:

1. A backslash followed by letters. There can be no non-alphabetical characters in the command, apart from the initial backslash. For example \today will print the current date, \twocolumn will start a new page, and change to a two column format, \LaTeX will print the LaTeX logo: $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. Most $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ commands have fairly selfexplanatory names (for example, \rightarrow prints an arrow pointing to the right, \chapter starts a new chapter). All commands are case-sensitive, so \gamma and \Gamma have different meanings.
This is the most common form of command. Any spaces immediately following a command of this type are ignored, so for example
\TeX nician
will produce
TEXnician
[Commands
gobble
following space]
Input
2. SOME DEFINITIONS
whereas
\TeX\{\} nician
will produce
TEX nician
3. A backslash followed by a single non-alphabetical character. For example <br>% will print a percent symbol. Spaces are not ignored after this type of command, for example
17.5<br>% VAT

Input
will produce
7.5\%\)VAT3.Aspecialsequenceofcharacters.Forexampleffiisthecommandtoproducetheffiligature,andthesequenceofsymbols!'isthecommandtoproducetheupsidedownexclamationmark;4.Aninternalcommand.Thisislikethefirsttype,butthe@characterappearsinthecommandname(forexample\c@section)howeverinternalcommandsshouldonlybeusedinclassfilesorpackages.The@symboltakesonaspecialmeaningwhenafileisincludedusing\documentclass(aclassfile)or\usepackage(apackage).Forexample,inaclassfileorpackage\c@sectionisaninternalrepresentationofthesectioncounter,whereasina.texfile\c@sectionisinterpretedasthecommand$\backslashc$(thecedillaaccentcommand)thattakesthecharacter@asitsargument,followedbysection,whichproducestheratheroddlooking@section.Don'tbetemptedtouseinternalcommandsuntilyouhavefirstgraspedthebasics.Youhavebeenwarned!undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

There is one command that you must use in every document you create, and that is the \documentclass command. This command must be placed at the very start of your document, and indicates what type of document you are creating. This command takes an argument, and is described in more detail in chapter 4.
[ $\backslash$ and @ in macro names]
[\spacefactor complaints]

### 2.4 Grouping

A segment of code may be grouped by placing it within \{ and \} (curly braces). Most commands that occur within a group will be local to that group. For example, \bfseries changes the font weight to bold, so the following segment of code:

| Here is some text. \{This text $\backslash$ bfseries is in a |
| :--- |
| group.\} Here is some more text. |


| will appear in the typeset document looking like: |
| :--- |
| Here is some text. This text is in a group. Here is some more |
| text. |

As can be seen, the font change only stays in effect until it reaches the end of the group (signified by the closing curly brace \}).

### 2.5 Arguments (also called parameters)

Some commands take one or more arguments. This allows you to give $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ additional information, so that it is able to carry out the command. There are two types of arguments: mandatory and optional.

### 2.5.1 Mandatory Arguments

Mandatory (or compulsory) arguments are arguments that have to be specified. Examples:

1. If you want to start a new chapter, you need to use the \chapter command, but you also need to tell $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ the title of this new chapter. So the \chapter command takes one mandatory argument that specifies the title. For example, the following code:
\chapter\{Some Definitions\}
was used to generate the heading for chapter 2 of this document.
2. The command \textbf typesets its argument in a bold font (as opposed to the declaration $\backslash$ bfseries which switches to a bold font). For example, the following code:
3. SOME DEFINITIONS
```
\textbf{Some bold text.}
produces the output
```

Some bold text.

## Note 1:

1. $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ takes the first non-space object following the command name as the argument, which is why in the above examples the arguments have to be grouped. Suppose the last example above didn't have a group, so instead the code was:
\textbf Some bold text.
then only the ' $S$ ' would be the argument because it's the first object following the command, in which case the output would look like:
2. If you want the argument to be blank, use an empty group: \{\}. For example, suppose you want to have a chapter without a title ${ }^{2}$ you would need to do:
\chapter\{\}

### 2.5.2 Optional Arguments

Some commands may have one or more optional arguments. Unlike mandatory arguments, optional arguments must always be enclosed in square brackets [ ]. For example, the command $\backslash \backslash$ ends a line. So the following segment of code:

Line one <br>Line two.
will produce the following output:

[^4]2. SOME DEFINITIONS
$\quad$ Line one
Line two.

However the $\backslash \backslash$ command also has an optional argument that allows you to specify how big the gap between the two lines should be. So the following segment of code:

Line one $\backslash \backslash[1 \mathrm{~cm}]$ Line two.
will produce the following output:

Line one

Line two.
$\qquad$ $\downarrow$ ㅇutput
2. SOME DEFINITIONS

Incidentally, note the difference between the previous example, and the following example:

Code:

Line one $\backslash \backslash\{[1 \mathrm{~cm}]\}$ Line two.
Output:

Line one
[ 1 cm ] Line two.

In this example the [1cm] has been placed inside a group, so it is no longer considered to be an optional argument, and since the command $\backslash \backslash$ does not take a mandatory argument, the $[1 \mathrm{~cm}]$ is simply interpreted as ordinary text.

Here's another example: The command \framebox takes a mandatory argument and an optional argument. \framebox puts a frame around the contents of its mandatory argument:
Code:
\framebox\{Some Text\}
2. SOME DEFINITIONS

Output:
Some Text
The optional argument can be used to make the box a specified width: Code:
\framebox[4cm] \{Some Text\}
Output:

## Some Text

And there's a second optional argument that specifies the justification of the text (left, right or centred) within the box:
Code:
\framebox[4cm][r]\{Some Text\}
Output:

In general, if a command has both optional and mandatory arguments, the optional arguments are usually specified first (although there are a few exceptions).

### 2.6 Moving Arguments and Fragile Commands

Certain types of commands, called fragile commands, can really mess things up when they are used in what is termed a moving argument. These types of argument are generally those whose contents are copied to another part of the document. For example, section headings appear at the start of a section, but they can also appear in the table of contents. The \footnote command is a fragile command, so

\section\{A heading $\backslash$ footnote\{with a footnote\}\}

will cause an error.
If there is no other command to use in its place, you should use \protect immediately before the fragile command:

\section\{A heading $\backslash$ protect $\backslash$ footnote\{with a footnote\}\}

Input
[An extra 'f'? ??]

This, however, is a contrived example, as it isn't a good idea to have a footnote in a section heading, as it will also end up in the table of contents, and possibly in page headings.

### 2.7 Robust Commands

A robust command is a command that is not a fragile command.

### 2.8 Short and Long Commands

A short command is a command whose argument may not contain a paragraph break (either as a blank line or using $\backslash$ par). This is the standard behaviour for commands defined using $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ 's \def command.

Conversely, a long command is a command whose argument may contain a paragraph break. Using short commands helps to test for forgotten braces, so it is recommended that when you define a new command, you should always make the command a short command, unless there is a chance that the argument may need to contain a paragraph break.

### 2.9 Declarations

The term declaration is used to refer to a command that affects the document from that point onwards. The declaration itself does not produce any text, and its effect can be localised by placing the declaration within a group. For example, \bfseries is a declaration that switches the current font weight to bold:


### 2.10 Environments

An environment is a block of code contained within the commands
and

```
\end{<env-name>}
```

where <env-name> is the name of the environment. The block of code is then formatted in a method specific to that environment. For example, the bfseries ${ }^{3}$ environment will typeset the contents of the environment in a bold font. The following code:

```
\begin{bfseries}
Here is some bold text.
\end{bfseries}
```

will appear in the typeset document looking like:
Here is some bold text.
${ }^{3}$ note there is no backslash in the environment name

Some environments also supply commands that may only be used within that environment. For example, the itemize environment provides a command called - so that you can specify individual items within an unordered list. Example:


```
Shopping List:
\begin{itemize}
\item Cabbages
\item Bananas
\item Apples
\end{itemize}
```

will produce the following output:

## Shopping List:

- Cabbages
- Bananas
- Apples


### 2.11 Preamble

The preamble is the part of the source code that comes between the \documentclass command and \begin\{document\} (the start of the docu- } ment environment). Only a few special commands may be placed in the preamble, and there are a few special commands that may only go in the preamble.
\documentclass\{...\}
$\longleftarrow$ This bit in here is the preamble.
\begin\{document\} }

### 2.12 Class File

The class file (.cls) defines the page layout, heading styles and various commands and environments needed for a particular style of document.

## 2. SOME DEFINITIONS

The class file is specified using the command
\documentclass[<options $\rangle$ ]\{<class-name $\rangle\}$
Definition
where <class-name> is the name of the file without the .cls extension. All $\mathrm{LA} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ documents must start with this command. The basic class files are: article, report, book and letter, but there are many others available.
[Replacing the standard classes]

## Chapter 3

## From Source Code to Typeset Output

Every time you want to create or edit a $L A T_{E} X$ document, there are three basic steps you will always need to follow:

1. Write or edit the source code
2. Pass the source code to the $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ application (" $\mathrm{A} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ the document")

- If there are any error messages, return to step 1
- If there are no error messages, a DVI file is created.

3. View the DVI file to check the result. If you need to modify your document, go back to step 1 .

You will therefore need:

1. A text editor or front-end (to perform step 1), see below.
2. The $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} / \mathrm{LA} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ installation (to perform step 2). If you don't already have $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ installed on your machine, you will need to download and install the relevant software. This will depend on which operating system you are using. See http://www.ctan.org/starter.html for more information, and for up-to-date links. At the time of writing, the main distributions are:
[(La)TeX for different machines]
[The TeX collection]

Windows: proTeXt is easy to install and is based on the MiKTeX distribution. It also includes TeXnicCenter, ghostscript and GSview (see below).
UNIX-type systems: a popular choice is teTeX, however it is likely that the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution may already be installed. Some UNIX systems that have $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ installed may require an additional file to be placed in your home directory or designated hidden directory for you to be able to use the software. You can check to see if $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ is installed using the command:
which tex
If you get the response tex: Command not found, then contact your system administrator.

Machintosh: MacTeX is a complete TeX system for Mac OS X, see http: //tug.org/mactex for further details.

For other operating systems, look in the tex-archive/systems directory of the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Archive [9].
3. A DVI viewer (to perform step 3). The $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} / \mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ installation should come with a DVI viewer. It is also possible to convert your DVI file into Adobe's Portable Document Format (PDF) or PostScript, in which case you will need an application that can read those formats.

PostScript: PostScript files can be viewed using ghostscript (and related applications ghostview, GSview and MacGSview). These are available on a number of operating systems, and can be obtained from http://www.cs.wisc.edu/~ghost/.

PDF: PDF files can be viewed using Adobe Reader. There are also other PDF viewers such as xpdf and kpdf. The ghostscript family can also view PDF files, but any links in the document will be inactive.

By converting your output to PostScript or PDF, you can enhance the functionality of $\mathrm{EA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ allowing you to perform operations such as rotating text (see section 6.1.1 for further details). If you use PDFLATEX to generate a PDF document, you can also create active
[DVI
previewers]
[DVI to
PostScript
conversion
programs]
links (see The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Web Companion [7] for more information, or if you'd rather a brief on-line introduction you can try Creating a PDF Document using PDFLaTeX).

Documented below are instructions of how to use $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ using a terminal+text editor approach and two different front-end approaches. If you are using Windows, I strongly recommend that you use a front-end. If you have used proTeXt to install the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution, you should already have a copy of TeXnicCenter installed.

### 3.1 Text Editor and Terminal Approach

Creating a $\mathrm{LA}^{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ document using a text editor and a terminal is an approach often favoured by UNIX-type users. If you have never used a terminal (i.e. you have only ever used point-and-click menu driven applications) then you will be better off using a front-end, in which case I suggest you turn to Sections 3.2 and 3.3 which describe TeXnicCenter and WinEdt, respectively.

To begin, you will first need a text editor. There are a number available that are suited to using with $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, some people advocate Emacs, others advocate vim, and there are various others such as NEdit. I prefer to use
[TeX-friendly editors and shells] vim-I'm not overly keen on using the mouse, and I prefer being able to
issue all commands via the keyboard (although there is a GUI version of vim). As with some other editors, it comes with syntax highlighting, regular expression search and replace, auto-insertion, and a brace matching mechanism which I find useful. If you are using version 7 of vim, there is an integrated spell checker, otherwise there is a spell checker plug-in called vimspell, so you can check your spelling as you type. If there is already a text editor that you are comfortable with, then stick with that, otherwise try out available editors, and decide which one you prefer.

When using the terminal and text editor approach, some people like to have at least two terminals open: one to run the editor, the other to run $\mathrm{EAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. This means that you don't have to keep quitting the editor every time you want to $\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ your document. Some editors allow you to run commands, but personally I don't like to use this approach. If your editor has a GUI interface, then you'll probably only need one terminal open.

Let's get started: start up your text editor. This is usually done by entering the name of the editor at the command prompt in your terminal. With most editors you can also specify the filename as well. If the file doesn't exist, a new one will be created when you save your document. Figure 3.1 shows my terminal. The command prompt looks like [nlct@nlctltpc examples]\$. It will be different for your system. I have typed vim sample1.tex at the command prompt. This will start vim with

## 3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT

a new file called sample1.tex. (In this section, I will be using vim as the text editor, if you are not using vim, then substitute the editor of your choice.)

Once I have pressed the return key, my terminal looks like figure 3.2. Normally vim starts in visual command mode, which means that when you start typing text, it will be interpreted as part of a command. In order to type text into your file, you will need to enter input mode. There are a number of ways of doing this, but pressing i will do for now. ${ }^{1}$ Figure 3.3 shows how my terminal looks when I am in input mode. I can now go ahead and type in my text (figure 3.4). To go back to the visual command mode, press the escape key (Esc). Now that you are back in the visual command mode, you can save your document, either using the command :w if you have already given your file a name, or :w <filename> (e.g. :w sample1.tex) if you started vim without specifying a file, see figure 3.5. When you want to quit vim you can do :wq to save and quit or : q ! to quit without saving, but I suggest you don't do this just yet if you have another terminal available.

Step 1 is now complete, and you are now ready to move on to step 2 : using ${ }^{A} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. Go to your other terminal (or quit your editor if you only have access to one terminal) and make sure that you are in the same

[^5]3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.1: Starting vim from a terminal
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.2: Starting a new file in vim
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.3: Input mode in vim
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.4: Creating a sample document in vim
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.5: Saving your document in vim (the file name should be omitted if the file already has a name)

## 3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT

directory as the file you just created. Typing ls at the command prompt will list the contents of your current directory. If you do this, you should see the file that you have just created (see figure 3.6). At the command prompt type:
latex sample1.tex
[Makefiles for LaTeX
documents]
as shown in figure 3.7. You can omit the .tex extension if you like, $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ will automatically add this if it has been omitted. If you prefer to use PDFLATEX, type
pdflatex sample1.tex
instead (again the .tex extension may be omitted). You should now see something like figure 3.8.

Numbers appearing in square brackets, e.g. [1], indicate which page $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ is currently processing. In this case, there is only one page. The last line to appear on screen indicates that information about this $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ run has been written to the log file sample1.log, which you can look at using your text editor.

The most important thing to note is the penultimate line: ${ }^{2}$
Output written on sample1.dvi (1 page, 248 bytes).

[^6]3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.6: Listing the contents of the current directory
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.7: Running $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$

## Terminal

Eile Edit View Ierminal Tabs Help
Babel <v3.8d> and hyphenation patterns for american, french, germa n, ngerman, b
ahasa, basque, bulgarian, catalan, croatian, czech, danish, dutch, esperanto, e
stonian, finnish, greek, icelandic, irish, italian, latin, magyar, norsk, polis
h, portuges, romanian, russian, serbian, slovak, slovene, spanish, swedish, tur
kish, ukrainian, nohyphenation, loaded.
(/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/article.cls
Document Class: article 2004/02/16 v1.4f Standard LaTeX document c
lass
(/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/size10.clo))
No file sample1.aux.
[1] (./sample1.aux) )
Output written on sample1.dvi (1 page, 248 bytes).
Transcript written on sample1.log.
[nlct@nlctltpc examples]\$

Figure 3.8: Running $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$

This means that the document has been successfully created, and is one page long.

If you have made a mistake in your source code, for example suppose you have missed the starting backslash in \documentclass, then the output will look something like:

```
! LaTeX Error: Missing \begin{document}.
```

See the LaTeX manual or LaTeX Companion for explanation.
Type $H$ <return> for immediate help.
1.1 d ocumentclass [a4paper] \{article\}
?
There are several things you can do at this point, but the easiest thing to do is to exit $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ by typing X followed by the return key. Go back to your editor, fix the mistake, save the document, and then try again. (If you do get an error message, check the list of common errors in chapter 13.) Note that it is important to always save your document before running LATEX.

You can view the typeset output by loading the file sample1.dvi into
a DVI viewer, such as xdvi or kdvi. To do this type
xdvi sample1.dvi
or
kdvi sample1.dvi
at the command prompt (see figure 3.9). You will then see the final output, as shown in figure 3.10.

If you have used PDFLATEX instead of $\mathrm{EA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}}$, you should have a file called sample1.pdf instead of sample1.dvi. You can view this using a PDF viewer, such as acroread or kpdf.

Some viewers, such as kdvi and kpdf will automatically reload the file whenever it is modified, in which case you may like to keep the viewer open, and as you keep editing and $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{Xing}$ your document, the viewer will automatically reload the new versions. Some viewers, such as xpdf don't automatically reload, but have a reload facility, which you can use whenever you $\mathrm{LA}^{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{E}$ X your document.

If you like, you can convert your DVI file to PostScript using dvips. To do this, type the following at the command prompt in your terminal:
dvips -o sample1.ps sample1.dvi

## Terminal

File Edit View Terminal Tabs Help
Babel <v3.8d> and hyphenation patterns for american, french, germa n, ngerman, b
ahasa, basque, bulgarian, catalan, croatian, czech, danish, dutch, esperanto, e
stonian, finnish, greek, icelandic, irish, italian, latin, magyar, norsk, polis
h, portuges, romanian, russian, serbian, slovak, slovene, spanish, swedish, tur
kish, ukrainian, nohyphenation, loaded.
(/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/article.cls
Document Class: article 2004/02/16 v1.4f Standard LaTeX document c
lass
(/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/size10.clo))
No file sample1.aux.
[1] (./sample1.aux) )
Output written on sample1.dvi (1 page, 248 bytes).
Transcript written on sample1.log.
[nlct@nlctltpc examples]\$ kdvi sample1.dvi

Figure 3.9: Load a DVI file into a DVI viewer
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.10: Viewing a DVI file in kdvi
(The .dvi extension may be omitted.) You can then view the PostScript file using ghostscript or one of its associated applications, such as ghostview. I have kghostview installed on my laptop, so to view the PostScript file, sample1.ps, I would need to type:
kghostview sample1.ps
(See figure 3.11.)

### 3.2 TeXnicCenter

TeXnicCenter is an application that enables you to edit $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ source code, and simply click on a button to pass the source code to $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, and then click on another button to view the resulting typeset document. Many people prefer this approach to the text editor and terminal approach described in the previous section. This section gives a brief overview of TeXnicCenter, however it has been several years since I last used it, ${ }^{3}$ so this information may be dated.

TeXnicCenter is free and can be downloaded from the UK TEX Archive [9] in the systems/win32/TeXnicCenter/ directory or from http://www.toolscenter.

[^7]| Terminal |
| :--- |
| Eile Edit View Ierminal Tabs Help |
| swedish, tur |
| kish, ukrainian, nohyphenation, loaded. |
| (/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/article.cls |
| Document Class: article 2004/02/16 v1.4f Standard LaTeX document c |
| lass |
| (/usr/share/texmf/tex/latex/base/size10.clo)) |
| No file sample1.aux. |
| [1] (./sample1.aux) |
| Output written on sample1.dvi (1 page, 268 bytes). |
| Transcript written on sample1.log. |
| [nlct@nlctltpc examples]\$ kdvi sample1.dvi |
| QApplication: notify: Unexpected null receiver |
| [nlct@nlctltpc examples] dvips -o sample1.ps sample1.dvi |
| This is dvips(k) 5.95a Copyright 2005 Radical Eye Software (www.ra |
| dicaleye.com) |
| 'TeX output 2007.04.04:1523' -> sample1.ps |
| <tex.pro><texps.pro>. <cmr10.pfb>[1] |
| [nlct@nlctltpc examples]\$ kghostview sample1.ps |

Figure 3.11: Loading a PostScript file
org/. Note that you must have a $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} / \mathrm{LAT} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution installed before you install TeXnicCenter. If you installed proTeXt, you should already have TeXnicCenter installed. If you have any problems with installing or running TeXnicCenter, go to their help page at http://www. texniccenter.org/help.html.

Once the installation is complete, you can then run TeXnicCenter from the Start Menu:

$$
\text { Start } \rightarrow \text { Programs } \rightarrow \text { TeXnicCenter } \rightarrow \text { TeXnicCenter }
$$

Firstly you should see the tip of the day window (figure 3.12).
You can close this window, and then, if this is the first time you are using TeXnicCenter you will have to use the configuration wizard to set up TeXnicCenter correctly. I recommend that you choose the default settings. (Select Next, Next and then Finish.)

Now you are ready to use TeXnicCenter. It should look like figure 3.16.
To start a new project select File $\rightarrow$ New Project. This will open the window shown in figure 3.17.

Enter a name for your project, and specify the directory where you want to save your work. For example, I shall call my project "example" and I want to save it in c: \My Documents $\backslash$ Nicky $\backslash$ example (see figure 3.18).

Select the empty project icon, and click on the button labelled "OK". You should now see something like figure 3.19.


Figure 3.12: TeXnicCenter Tip of the Day Window


Figure 3.13: TeXnicCenter Configuration Wizard
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT

Configuration wizard - MiKTeX


Figure 3.14: TeXnicCenter Configuration Wizard
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.15: TeXnicCenter Configuration Wizard
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.16: TeXnicCenter

## 3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT



Figure 3.17: New Project Dialog Box

## 3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT



Figure 3.18: New Project Dialog Box
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.19: TeXnicCenter - New Project Started

You can now start typing the source code (we'll cover this later). See figure 3.20.

Save it by either clicking on the save icon or select File $\rightarrow$ Save
Now select what type of output you want (DVI, PDF or PostScript) see figure 3.21. If this box is blank, then it's possible that you didn't complete all the steps in the configuration wizard described above.

Now click on the build output icon Output. The transcript will be written in the window at the bottom (see figure 3.22). This transcript should be the same as described on page 44 onwards. If you have selected LaTeX => PDF, then TeXnicCenter will use PDFLATEX instead of LAT $_{E} X$. If you have selected LaTeX => PS, then TeXnicCenter will use $L_{A} T_{E} X$ followed by dvips (as in figure 3.22). The dvips messages will follow on from the $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ messages. (If you selected the BibTeX or MakeIndex features when you initialised the project, figure 3.18, then TeXnicCenter will also use the $\mathrm{BIBT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and MakeIndex applications.)

To view the document, click the view output button
(Note that if you have selected LaTeX => PDF or LaTeX $\Rightarrow$ PS you will need Adobe
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.20: TeXnicCenter - Typing in Source Code
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.21: TeXnicCenter - Selecting Output Type
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.22: TeXnicCenter (using $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and dvips)

Reader or GSview, respectively, to view the output file.)
If there are any errors, you can select Build $\rightarrow$ Next Error and it will show you where the error has occured (see figure 3.23). If you do have any errors, check chapter 13 .

### 3.3 WinEdt

WinEdt (not to be confused with WinEdit which is a completely different application) is an application that enables you to edit $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ source code, and simply click on a button to pass the source code to $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, and then click on another button to view the resulting typeset document. This section gives a brief overview of WinEdt, however it has been several years since I tried it, so this information may be dated.

WinEdt is shareware: it can be downloaded from the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Archive [9] in the systems/win32/winedt directory or from http://www.winedt.com/ and evaluated for a trial period of 31 days, after which, if you want to continue to use it, you must pay the registration fee. Details of prices and types of licence available can be found at http://www.winedt.com/.

Again, you must have a $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} / \mathrm{EAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution installed before you start. WinEdt is fairly easy to install. First unpack all the files, and then run the setup.exe application. I recommend that you use the default settings. If you have any problems installing or using WinEdt, go to http:
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.23: TeXnicCenter - Showing Error
//www.winedt. com/support.html.
To run WinEdt, select WinEdt from the start menu:

$$
\text { Start } \rightarrow \text { Programs } \rightarrow \text { WinEdt } \rightarrow \text { WinEdt }
$$

It should look something like figure 3.24.
Click on the new document button or select File $\rightarrow$ New. You can now start typing your source code into the WinEdt window, as shown in figure 3.25.

You can now save your document using the File $\rightarrow$ Save as menu. Select the file type to be TeX, and type in the name of your file, e.g. sample1.tex (see figure 3.26).

To $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ your document, simply click on the $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ button The output will appear in an MSDOS Prompt window (see figure 3.27).

To view your typeset document, click on the view DVI button


You can convert your DVI file to PostScript by clicking the dvips but-
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.24: WinEdt
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.25: WinEdt
3. FROM SOURCE CODE TO TYPESET OUTPUT


Figure 3.26: WinEdt - Saving the File

## SLaTeX ...



```
This is TeX, Uersion 3.14159 (MikTeX 2.1)
<sample1 -tex
LaTeX2e <2000/06/01>
Babel <u3.7h> and hyphenation patterns for english, french, german, ngerman, du
mylang, nohyphenation, loaded.
<C:\texmf\tex\latex\base\article.cls
Document Class: article 2000/05/19 u1.4b Standard LaTeX document class
<G:\texmf\tex\latex\base\size10.clo)>
No file sample1.aux.
[1] (sample1.aux) )
Output written on sample1.dui (1 page, 248 bytes).
Transcript written on sample1.log.
Press any key to continue . . .
```

Figure 3.27: WinEdt - LATEX Output
file by clicking on the GSview

## 80

Depending on which version of WinEdt you have installed, there may also be a PDFLATEX button which you can click on to create a Portable Document Format (.pdf) document. If not, you can click on the MSDOS
button
to open up an MS-DOS Prompt window, and type pdflatex followed by the filename. For example:
pdflatex sample1.tex
Note that if the filename contains a space, you will need to use double quotes:
pdflatex "my file.tex"

## Chapter 4

## Creating a Simple Document

Having installed and tested the software, let's now look at how to actually write the source code. The very first line of any document that you create must have the command:
\documentclass [<option-list>] \{<class-name $>\}$
This tells $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ what type of document you want to create (e.g. an article, a technical report, correspondence). The \documentclass command takes one mandatory argument <class-name> that specifies the class file. There are a great many available, but the basic ones are: article (short documents without chapters), report (longer technical documents containing chapters), book (for writing books), letter (for correspondence) and slides

Definition
[Replacing the standard classes] (for creating slides for use with OHP or data projectors).

We'll be starting with a very simple document, so let's use the article class file. In this case the very first line of the source code should be:
\documentclass\{article\}

## 4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

The \documentclass command also takes an optional argument <optionlist $>$ which should be a comma separated list of options to be passed to the class file. This allows you to override the class file defaults. For example, the article class file by default uses US letter paper, but in the UK we would want to use A4. This can be achieved using the option a4paper. So you would need to edit the above line to:
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
Let's change another option. The normal font size is 10 pt by default, but we have the option to change it to 11 pt or 12 pt , so let's change it to 11 pt :
\documentclass[a4paper, 11pt]\{article\}
You can also change your document so that it is in a two column format using the twocolumn option:
\documentclass[a4paper, 11pt, twocolumn]\{article\}
Note that there must not be any spaces between the options.
After deciding what type of document we want, we now need to specify the contents of the document. We do this inside the document environment. The document is started with the command:
\begin\{document\} }
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
and ended with
\end\{document\} }
So our source code now looks like:
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]\{article\}
\begin\{document\} }
\end\{document\} }
$\qquad$
Every document you create must have this form. You can't simply start typing the contents of the document. You must firstly specify your class file, and then place the contents of the document inside the document environment. It is a common mistake when first starting out to miss out one or more of these three lines.

So far so good, but at the moment we have an empty document, so we won't get any output. Let's now put some text into our document:
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]\{article\}
\begin\{document\} }
This is a simple document.
Here is the first paragraph.
Here is the second paragraph. As you
can see it's
a very
short document.
\end\{document\} }

## Exercise 1 (Simple Document)

Try typing the above code into your editor (see chapter 3 if you can't

## 4. CREATING A SImple DOCUMENT

remember what to do). You can also download a copy of this file, but I recommend that you try typing it in to give yourself some practice. If you are using TeXnicCenter, start a new project as detailed on page 54. Call your project, say, sample1.

Things to note while you are typing: Firstly, when you press the return character at the end of the line this end of line character is converted into a space in the output file. So the fact that I have some very ragged lines in my source code has no effect on the final result. (Note that some front-ends will reformat your lines as you type.)

Secondly, multiple spaces are converted into a single space, so the large gap between the words can and see is no different from having a single space.

Thirdly, a completely blank line will be converted into a paragraph break, but that doesn't mean that you'll have a blank line between your paragraphs in the output. In fact, by default you won't with most class files, although you can override this.

Fourthly, you don't need to worry about the indentation at the start of new paragraphs as this is done automatically (again it is possible to override paragraph indentation, or change the indentation length).

Once you have typed up your source code, save your file as, say, sample1.tex, and then pass it to $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ using the methods described in chapter 3. If all goes well, something like the following should be displayed

## 4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

on the screen:
This is TeX, Version 3.14159 (MikTeX 2.1)
(sample1.tex
LaTeX2e <2000/06/01>
Babel <v3.7h> and hyphenation patterns for american, french, german, ngerman, italian, nohyphenation, loaded.
(C:\texmf \tex\latex\base\article.cls
Document Class: article 2000/05/19 v1.4b Standard LaTeX document class (C:\texmf \tex\latex\base\size11.clo))
No file sample1.aux.
[1] (sample1.aux) )
Output written on sample1.dvi (1 page, 376 bytes).
Transcript written on sample1.log.
This indicates that your source code has successfully been converted into the typeset output contained in the new file sample1.dvi. You can now view this document either by typing xdvi sample1.dvi in the terminal, or by clicking on the view output button in TeXnicCenter or the view DVI button in WinEdt.

If you have made a mistake in the source code, an error message will be displayed on screen, and the question mark prompt will appear. At this point you can either type $h$ for a help message, or type x to exit $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$
and go back to your source code and fix the problem. ${ }^{1}$ If you do have an error, consult chapter 13 for guidance.

### 4.1 Using Simple Commands

Now let's try adding a few simple commands to our document. The command \LaTeX produces the logo $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ and the command \today prints the current date. $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ always ignores any spaces that follow a command name that consists of letters, as it uses the space to indicate the end of
[Typesetting all those
TeX-related logos] the command name. This means that if we want a space to occur immediately after the command, we would need to explicitly say so using the command $\_{\_}$where $\quad$ indicates a space character. So, for example:
\LaTeX $\backslash$ logo
produces the output:
LATEX logo

[^8]
## 4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

Some people when starting out can get a bit confused by this and read it as the entity " $\backslash$ LaTeX\" whereas it is in fact two commands: "\LaTeX" (print the $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ logo) followed " " (print a space).

Let's also try using a command that takes an argument. The command
$\backslash$ footnote\{<text>\}
takes one argument that specifies the text that should appear in the footnote. This command should be placed where you want the footnote marker to appear.

## Exercise 2 (Using Simple Commands)

Try editing the document you created in exercise 1, so that it looks like the following: (You can download it if you like, but again it is better if you try typing it in yourself)
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]\{article\}
\begin\{document\} }

This is a simple $\backslash$ LaTeX $\backslash$ document. Here is the first paragraph.

Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's
a very
short document. \footnote\{with a footnote.\}
This document was created on: \today.
\end\{document\} }
$\square$

Now $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ your document and view the result. (Remember to check chapter 13 if you have a problem.) You should see the $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ logo, the footnote marker and the current date. If you scroll down to the bottom of the page, you should see the footnote.

### 4.2 Special Characters and Symbols

You can use any of the standard characters that you find on your keyboard, except the following 10 symbols:

$$
\} \% \& \$ \# \ldots \sim \sim
$$

These symbols may only occur in LATEX commands. We have already used the curly braces \{ and \}. The percent symbol \% is a comment character. Everything from the percent symbol up to the end of line is ignored by LATEX. This means you can have comments in your source code to remind you what a particular part of your code is doing. You have also used the backslash symbol $\backslash$ which indicates that you are using a ${ }^{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ command, as in \LaTeX or \today. The meaning of the other special characters will be covered later.

So what do you do if you want one of these symbols to actually appear in your document? Table 4.1 lists commands that produce these and other symbols. Note that some of the commands have shortcuts, such as --instead of — and ?' instead of ¿.

The symbol' is the backtick symbol, as opposed to the apostrophe symbol '. The backtick symbol usually looks like ` on a keyboard, and on most UK keyboards it is situated to the left of the 1 key. The opening double quote is created using two adjacent backtick symbols, and the
[Where can I find the symbol for . . . ?]
[How to get
copyright,
trademark, etc]

## 4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

closing double quote is created using two adjacent apostrophe symbols, this gives 66 and 99 style quotes, which you wouldn't get using the double quote character.

Note that the symbols $\mid<$ and $>$ have to be created using |, < and > when in normal text mode. If you try to enter them using the corresponding keyboard characters you will get $i$ and $i$. (They do however work if you are in maths mode.) The slash character / may be used directly, as in and/or, but no line break will be permitted at the slash, whereas \slash (as in and $\backslash$ slash\{\}or) will allow a line break at that point.

Ligatures and special symbols are shown in table 4.2. A ligature is where two or more letters are combined as a single glyph. In English, the most common ligatures are the ff, fl, ffl, fi and ffi ligatures, mentioned in the introduction. Without the ligature, the two letters collide and appear ugly. This usually only occurs with serif fonts, not for san-serif fonts. Some fonts may provide additional glyphs.

As already mentioned, the f-ligatures are converted automatically ${ }^{2}$ without the need for commands, but this may not always be desirable, for example, where the sequence of letters cross a boundary in a composite word. This doesn't happen very often in English, but when it does, there are various methods you can use to break the ligature. The

[^9][What are
encodings?]

Table 4.1: Symbols

| \ | $\backslash$ | \} | - | > | $>$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ˆ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $ | \$ | \| | \| |  |  |
| $\backslash$ textasciitilde |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | \{ | < | < |  |  |
| $\backslash$ pounds | £ |  |  |  |  |
| $}$ | \} | $\backslash$ dag | $\dagger$ |  |  |
| ® | ® |  |  |  |  |
| # | \# | $\backslash$ ddag | $\ddagger$ |  |  |
| TM | TM |  |  |  |  |
| % | \% | , or ’ |  |  |  |
| \copyright | (c) |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | \& | ' or ‘ |  |  |
| $\backslash \mathrm{yen}$ | $¥$ | \i | 1 | ', or ” |  |
| ?' or ¿ | i | $\backslash j$ | J | '" or “ | " |
| !' or ¡ | i | - | - | -- or – | - |
| --- or — | - | $\backslash$ S | § | · |  |
| $\backslash \mathrm{ldots}$ | $\ldots$ | $\backslash \mathrm{P}$ | 4 | \slash | 1 |

$T_{E} X b o o k$ [12] uses the example "shelfful", and suggests various solutions, including shelf\{\}ful and shelf $\backslash / f u l$. The latter uses an italic correction $\backslash /$ which will be discussed in section 4.4.1.

When using a command in the middle of a word, take care that the command doesn't run into the rest of the word. For example, the British spelling of the word manœuvre has an œ-ligature in the middle of it. There are several ways to code this in $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ :

1. Group the command:
$\operatorname{man}\{\backslash o e\} u v r e$
2. Place a space after the command:
man\oe uvre
3. Place an empty brace after the command:
man\oe\{\}uvre

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Each of these three methods produce the same result, but I personally prefer the first method. It is important to make your source code as easy to read as possible, as you may need to edit your document at some later date; the first of the above three examples retains the look of a complete word, whereas the second example fragments the word, so although the word is whole in the output, it doesn't read well when you're editing your code. The third example, like the first example, maintains the word's cohesion, but it gives the misleading impression that the command loe has an argument. However, as I mentioned, this is my personal preference, you should use whichever method you feel most comfortable with, just as long as you don't do the following:

## man \oeuvre

This is incorrect, as $\mathrm{EAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ will interpret it as the command \oeuvre which doesn't exist.

English speakers are by and large very lackadaisical when it comes to accents, but accents affect pronunciation, and so are just as important as the correct spelling. There is a very big difference between putting your knife into someone's pâté (meat paste), and putting your knife into someone's pate (head)!

Accented letters are created by specifying which accent you want, and the letter on which to put the accent. The accent commands are listed in

Table 4.2: Ligatures and Special Symbols

| $\begin{aligned} & \backslash \mathrm{AE} \\ & \mathrm{fi} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Æ } \\ & \text { fi } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { \ae } \\ & \text { ffi } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { æ } \\ & \text { ffi } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { \OE } \\ & \text { fl } \end{aligned}$ | fl | $\begin{aligned} & \text { \oe } \\ & \text { ffl } \end{aligned}$ | ¢f |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\backslash \mathrm{AA}$ | Å | \aa | å | \L | も | \1 | ł |
| $\backslash 0$ | $\emptyset$ | \o | $\emptyset$ | $\backslash$ SS | SS | \ss | $\beta$ |

table 4.3, and each command takes one mandatory argument. The command indicates what accent to use, the argument indicates the letter on which to put the accent. You may have noticed in table 4.1 the commands $\backslash i$ and $\backslash j$ which produce a dotless $i$ and $j(1$ and $j$ ). You should use these instead of $i$ and $j$ as the argument to an accent command, since $i$ and $j$ should loose their dot when they have an accent over them. ${ }^{3}$ Example:

It's na\"\{\i\}ve to think that eating mouldy $p \backslash$ ^at $\backslash$ 'e won't result in food poisoning.

[^10]Result:

It's naïve to think that eating mouldy pâté won't result in food poisoning.

Note 2: Recall that if the mandatory argument only consists of a single letter, no grouping is required, thus $p \backslash$ 'at $\backslash$ ' $e$ is equivalent to $p \backslash へ\{a\} t \backslash ’\{e\}$. However, in the case of na\"\{\i\}ve, grouping is required (or a space is required after the \i) otherwise the $\backslash i$ will run into the rest of the word: na\"\ive. In this case you will get an error, as the command \ive doesn't exist.

## Exercise 3 (Using Special Characters)

Start a new file (or project if using TeXnicCenter), and see if you can write the source code to create the following output:

Table 4.3: Accent Commands

| Definition | Example |  | Definition | Example |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Input | Output |  | Input | Output |
| \'\{<object $>$ \} | \'\{c\} | ć | \=\{<object $>$ \} | $\backslash=\{c\}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{c}}$ |
| \'\{<object $>$ \} | \'\{c\} | c̀ | \. $\{<$ object $>$ \} | \. $\{\mathrm{c}\}$ | c |
| \^\{<object $>\}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| ~\{c\} | c |  |  |  |  |
| ~\{<object $>$ \} |  |  |  |  |  |
| ~ 2 c \} | c |  |  |  |  |
| $\backslash "\{<$ object $>\}$ | \"\{c\} | $\ddot{c}$ | $\backslash \mathrm{v}\{<$ object $>$ \} | $\backslash \mathrm{v}$ ¢ c$\}$ | č |
| $\backslash \mathrm{u}\{<$ object $>$ \} | \u\{c\} | $\breve{c}$ | $\backslash \mathrm{H}\{<$ object $>$ \} | $\backslash \mathrm{H}$ c $\}$ | č |
| $\backslash t\{<o b j e c t>\}$ | $\backslash t\{x y\}$ | xy | \c $\{<$ object $>$ \} | \c\{c\} | ¢ |
| $\backslash \mathrm{d}\{<$ object $>\}$ | $\backslash \mathrm{d}\{\mathrm{c}\}$ | c | $\backslash \mathrm{b}\{<$ object $>$ \} | $\backslash \mathrm{b}$ c \} | c |
| $\backslash \mathrm{r}\{<$ object $>$ \} | $\backslash \mathrm{r}\{\mathrm{c}\}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ |  |  |  |

Item \#1: Our travel expenditure came to $\$ 2000.00$ \& our equipment expenditure came to $£ 100.00$ plus VAT @ $17.5 \%$.

Chloë collected Zoë from the crèche. They stopped to admire the façade of a new café, and then went to a matinée.

You can download or view the source code if you can't work out how to do it, and remember to check chapter 13 if you have a problem.

### 4.3 Lists

Now you've had a go at using some commands, let's use some environments. A good example of environments are the list making environments.
There are three basic list making environments: itemize (for unordered
lists), enumerate (for ordered lists) and description (for lists where you lists), enumerate (for ordered lists) and description (for lists where you want to specify your own label).

In each of these environments, there is a command
- which you need to use to specify each item of the list. The optional argument <marker> can be used to override the default marker for that particular item (for example, to replace the bullet point for an individual item in an unordered list to make that item stand out from all the other items). We will be looking at how to change the default marker in section 8.2.


Related UK TUG FAQ [2] topics:

- Perhaps a missing - ?

- Fancy enumeration lists
- How to adjust list spacing
- Interrupting enumerated lists
- "Too deeply nested"


### 4.3.1 Unordered Lists

Unordered lists are created using the itemize environment. For example, the following code:

```
\begin{itemize}
\item Animal
\item Vegetable
\item Mineral
\end{itemize}
```

will produce the following output:

- Animal
- Vegetable
- Mineral

It is also possible to nest itemize environments. For example, the following code:

```
\begin{itemize}
\item Animal
\begin{itemize}
\item Mammals
\item Birds
\item Reptiles. For example:
\begin{itemize}
\item dinosaurs
\item crocodiles
\end{itemize}
\end{itemize}
\item Vegetable
\begin{itemize}
\item Cultivated
\item Wild
\end{itemize}
\item Mineral
\end{itemize}
```

will produce the following output:

- Animal
- Mammals
- Birds
- Reptiles. For example:
* dinosaurs
* crocodiles
- Vegetable
- Cultivated
- Wild
- Mineral
$\square$

That looks good, but our code is a bit cramped and a little difficult to read. Blank lines between list items are ignored by $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$, and multiple spaces are treated as a single space, so we could make the code a bit more readable, without affecting the final result:
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

```
\begin{itemize}
\item Animal
\begin{itemize}
    \item Mammals
    \item Birds
    \item Reptiles. For example:
\begin{itemize}
            \item dinosaurs
            \item crocodiles
    \end{itemize}
\end{itemize}
\item Vegetable
```

```
    \begin{itemize}
    \item Cultivated
    \item Wild
\end{itemize}
\item Mineral
\end{itemize}
```

It's now a little easier to see which \begin\{itemize\} matches up with } the corresponding \end\{itemize\}. }

### 4.3.2 Ordered Lists

Ordered lists are created using the enumerate environment. It has exactly the same format as the itemize environment described in the previous section.

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We can use the same example as before, only this time use enumerate instead of itemize.

1. Animal
2. Vegetable
3. Mineral
```

The above input will produce the following output:

1. Animal
2. Vegetable
3. Mineral
\(\square\)
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Again, the environments can be nested:
\(\backslash\) begin \(\{\) enumerate \(\}\)
    \item Animal
    \begin\{enumerate\} }
    \item Mammals
    \item Birds
    \item Reptiles. For example:
    \(\backslash\) begin\{enumerate\}
    \item dinosaurs
    \item crocodiles
    \end\{enumerate\} }
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
\end\{enumerate\} }
\item Vegetable
\begin\{enumerate\} }
\item Cultivated
\item Wild
\end\{enumerate\} }
\item Mineral
\end\{enumerate\} }

The above input will produce the following output:
1. Animal
(a) Mammals
(b) Birds
(c) Reptiles. For example:
i. dinosaurs
ii. crocodiles
2. Vegetable
(a) Cultivated
(b) Wild
3. Mineral

\subsection*{4.3.3 Description Environment}

The description environment has exactly the same format as the itemize environment described in section 4.3.1, only this time you need to specify a marker as an optional argument to the \item command, since there is no default marker for this environment. For example, the following code:
```

$$
\begin{description}
\item[Animal] Living being
\item[Vegetable] Plant
\item[Mineral] Natural inorganic substance
\end{description}
$$

```
will produce the following output:


Animal Living being
Vegetable Plant
Mineral Natural inorganic substance

It is possible to nest all the listing environments:
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
```

\begin{description}
- Living being


- Mammals
- Birds
- Reptiles. For example:
    undefined. dinosaurs
    NaN. crocodiles

- Plant


```
```

- Cultivated
- Wild

- Natural inorganic substance
\end{description}


```

The above input will produce the output:

Animal Living being
- Mammals
- Birds
- Reptiles. For example:
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
1. dinosaurs
2. crocodiles

Vegetable Plant
- Cultivated
- Wild

Mineral Natural inorganic substance

\section*{Exercise 4 (Lists)}

Try writing the source code that will create the following output:

Village A small collection of dwelling places. Examples:
1. Marlingford
2. Saxlingham Nethergate

Town A large collection of dwelling places. Examples:
1. Great Yarmouth
2. Beccles

City A large town, usually containing a cathedral. Examples:
1. Norwich
2. Birmingham
3. London

You can download or view the answer if you can't work out how to do it.

\subsection*{4.4 Simple font changing commands}

LATEX uses Donald Knuth's Computer Modern fonts by default. This supplies three font families: serif, sans-serif and a typewriter (or monospaced)

\section*{4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT}
font (as well as the maths fonts which are discussed in section 9.3.1). With each font family, you can change the shape and weight, as well as the size. It is possible to use different font families, but that isn't covered here.

\subsection*{4.4.1 Changing the Font Style}

There are two basic ways of changing fonts: you can either change the font for a small selection of text, for example, if you want to emphasize a word, or you may wish to change the font "from this point onwards". The commands shown in table 4.4 are of the first type (text-block commands), whereas those shown in table 4.5 are of the second type - a declaration (or modal command).

If you use an italic or slanted font declaration, you will need to add an italic correction \(\backslash /\) at the end of the block of text, when the last letter of
[What's wrong with \bf, \it etc.?] the sloping text leans too far over. For example, compare
\(\{\backslash i t s h a p e ~ S o m e ~ i t a l i c ~ t e x t\} ~ b a c k ~ t o ~ u p r i g h t . ~ . ~\)
which yields
Some italic text back to upright.
[Installing a new font]
which yields

Some italic text back to upright.
Output

In the first example, the final letter " t " in the word "text" leans too far over the space. In the second example, extra space (known as italic correction) is inserted.

If you use one of the text-block commands, such as \textit, the italic correction is dealt with by the command, so the above example would equivalent to:
\textit\{Some italic text\} back to upright.
which again yields
Some italic text back to upright.

The effect is more noticeable when part of a word is stressed. For example:
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\{\itshape repeated\}ly \textit\{repeated\}ly
produces
repeatedly repeatedly

Environments can be used instead. Each environment has the same name as its corresponding declaration, but without the preceding backslash. For example:
\begin\{sffamily\}Some sans-serif text. \end\{sffamily\} }
yields:
Some sans-serif text.

You can combine a font family with a given shape and weight using a variety of methods, such as:
1. Declarations:

Table 4.4: Font changing commands
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Command & Example Input & Corresponding output \\
\hline \(\backslash t \operatorname{extrm}\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textrm\{roman\} text & roman text \\
\hline \(\backslash t e x t s f\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textsf\{sans serif\} text & sans serif text \\
\hline \(\backslash t \operatorname{exttt}\{<t e x t>\}\) & \texttt\{typewriter\} text & typewriter text \\
\hline \(\backslash t e x t m d\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textmd\{medium text & medium text \\
\hline \(\backslash t e x t b f\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textbf\{bold\} text & bold text \\
\hline \(\backslash\) textup \(\{<\) text \(>\) \} & \textup\{upright\} text & upright text \\
\hline \textit \(\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textit\{italic\} text & italic text \\
\hline \(\backslash t e x t s l\{<t e x t>\}\) & \textsl\{slanted\} text & slanted text \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \backslash \text { textsc }\{<\text { text }>\} \\
& \backslash \operatorname{emph}\{<\text { text }>\}
\end{aligned}
\] & \textsc\{Small Caps\} text \emph\{emphasized\} text & Small Caps text emphasized text \\
\hline \textnormal\{<tex & \textnormal\{default\} text & default text \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Table 4.5: Font changing declarations
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Declaration & Example Input & Corresponding output \\
\rmfamily & \rmfamily roman text & \begin{tabular}{l} 
roman text \\
Sans serif text
\end{tabular} \\
\sffamily & \sffamily sans serif text & \begin{tabular}{l} 
sam \\
\ttfamily
\end{tabular} \\
\ttfamily typewriter text & typewriter text \\
\mdseries & \mdseries medium text & medium text \\
\bfseries & \bfseries bold text & bold text \\
\upshape & \upshape upright text & upright text \\
\itshape & \itshape italic text & italic text \\
\slshape & \slshape slanted text & slanted text \\
\scshape & \scshape Small Caps text & SmALL CAPS TEXT \\
\em & \em emphasized text & emphasized text \\
\normalfont & \normalfont default text & default text
\end{tabular}
2. Mixing commands and declarations:
```

\textsl{\sffamily Some slanted sans-serif text}

```
3. Nested commands
```

\textsf{\textsl{Some slanted sans-serif text}}

```
4. Mixing environments and declarations:

```

$$
\begin{sffamily}\slshape Some slanted sans-serif
text\/\end{sffamily}
$$

```
\(\qquad\) \(\downarrow\) Input

All of the above produce the same output:
Some slanted sans-serif text

Note that some combinations are not available, in which case \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) will give a warning message, and will substitute the font for what it considers to be the closest available match.

Note also that the command \emph, the declaration \em and the environment em behave slightly differently to the corresponding \textit command, \itshape declaration and itshape environment. The latter simply use an italic font, whereas the former will toggle between sloping and upright. So if the surrounding font is upright then \emph, \em and em will use the sloping font, but if the surrounding font is italic or slanted, \emph, \em and em will use an upright font. This is particularly useful in abstracts where the abstract font varies between class files. It is recommended that if your intention is to emphasize something, you should use \emph etc. rather than \textit etc. Examples:
[Warning:
"Font shape ... not available"]
[How to do bold-tt or bold-sc]

\section*{4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT}
1. Emphasized text in upright surrounding:

Some \emph\{emphasized\} text.
yields

Some emphasized text.
2. Emphasized text in italic surrounding:
\{\itshape Some \emph\{emphasized\} text.\}
yields

Some emphasized text.
3. Emphasized text in upright sans-serif surrounding:
\[
\{\backslash s f f a m i l y ~ S o m e ~ \ e m p h\{e m p h a s i z e d\} ~ t e x t .\} ~
\]
yields

Some emphasized text.

\subsection*{4.4.2 Changing the Font Size}

The size of the font is changed using one of the declarations shown in table 4.6. The sizes are all relative to the size of the normal font. So if you decide to change the normal font from, say, 11pt to 12 pt (by changing the class file option as mentioned on page 76), all the font sizes will be changed relative to the new size. There are no equivalent text-block commands.

Again, environments can be used instead, where each environment has the same name as its corresponding declaration, but without the preceeding backslash. Font environments may be nested, for example:

Table 4.6: Font size changing declarations
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Declaration & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Example Input \\
\tiny tiny text
\end{tabular} & Corresponding output \\
\tiny & tiny text \\
\scriptsize & \scriptsize script sized text & script sized text \\
\footnotesize & \footnotesize footnote sized text & footnote sized text \\
\small & \small small text & small text \\
\normalsize & \normalsize normal sized text & normal sized text \\
\large & \large large text & large text \\
\Large & \Large even larger & even larger \\
\LaRGE & \LARGE larger still & larger still \\
\huge & \huge huge & huge \\
\Huge & \Huge really huge & really huge
\end{tabular}
```

$$
\begin{itshape} Some italic text.
\begin{Large}This text is large.\end{Large}
\end{itshape}
$$ Back to normal.

```
\(\downarrow\) Input
Output:

Some italic text. This text is large. Back to normal.

Note also that the original Computer Modern fonts are not scalable, so if you use a class file with a large normal font (such as the a0poster class file or one of the class files in the exsizes distribution), some of the font sizes may not be available, and font substitutions will occur.

For more information on using fonts, including using fonts not covered in this document, see \(A\) Guide to \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) [4] or The \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) Companion [5].
[Choice of
scalable outline fonts]

\section*{Exercise 5 (Fonts)}

Go back to the document you created in exercise 1 and change the first paragraph to a large bold font and the second paragraph to normal size italic. Emphasize the words "simple" and "short". (Again, you can download or view the solution.)

\subsection*{4.5 Aligning Material in Rows and Columns}

Text can be aligned in rows and columns using the tabular environment.

\section*{4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT}
\begin\{tabular\} } [ < \text { pos } \rangle ] \{ < \text { column specifiers } > \}
Definition

This environment has a mandatory argument <column specifiers \(>\) that specifies how to align each column. There are three basic specifiers: \(r\) (right aligned), 1 (left aligned) and c (centred). For example, suppose we want three columns with the first column left justified and the last two columns centred we would do:
\begin\{tabular\}\{1cc\} }
(Make sure you don't confuse 1 (the letter ell) with 1 (one).)
The ampersand character \& is used to separate column entries and \(\backslash \backslash\) is used to separate rows. For example, let's have two columns, the first left justified and the second right justified:
[Alignment tab changed to \cr]

TInput
\begin\{tabular\}\{lr\} }
Video \& 8.99\\
CD \& 9.99\\
DVD \& 15.00\\
Total \& 33.98
\end\{tabular\} }

Output:
\begin{tabular}{lr|r|}
\hline & & \\
Video & 8.99 & \\
CD Output \\
DVD & 9.99 & 15.00 \\
Total & 33.98 & \\
& & \(\unrhd\) Output \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Remember that IATEX ignores multiple spaces, so we could just have easily done:
\begin{tabular}{lr}
Video & 8.99\\
CD & 9.99\\
DVD & 15.00\\
Total & 33.98
\end{tabular}
```


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and we would still have got the same result.
Entries form implicit grouping, so declarations made within a tabular environment only have an effect up to the next \& or $\backslash \backslash$. Example:

| begin\{tabular\}\{lr\} |
| :--- |
| Video \& $8.99 \backslash \backslash$ |
| CD \& 9.99 |
|  |
| DVD \& 15.00 |
|  |
| \bfseries Total \& 33.98 |
| \end\{tabular\} } |

Output:

| Video | 8.99 | ¢Output |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CD | 9.99 |  |
| DVD | 15.00 |  |
| Total | 33.98 |  |

Let's add an extra column and a header row:

```
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
```

|  | ¢Input |
| :---: | :---: |
| \begin\{tabular\}\{lrr\} } |  |
| Item \& ex VAT \& inc VAT |  |
|  |  |
| Video \& 8.99 \& 10.56 |  |
|  |  |
| CD \& 9.99 \& 11.74 |  |
|  |  |
| DVD \& 15.00 \& $17.63 \backslash \backslash$ |  |
| \bfseries Total \& 33.98 \& 39.93 |  |
| \end\{tabular\} } |  |
|  | Input |

Output:

|  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Item | ex VAT | inc VAT | 〒output |
| Video | 8.99 | 10.56 |  |
| CD | 9.99 | 11.74 | 17.63 |
| DVD | 15.00 | 39.93 | $\downarrow$ Output |
| Total | 33.98 |  |  |

The command
$\backslash$ multicolumn $\{<$ cols spanned $>\}\{<$ col specifier $>\}\{<$ text $>\}$

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can be used to span several columns. The first argument <cols spanned> is the number of columns you want to span, the second argument <col specifier $>$ indicates how to align this column spanning entry, the third argument <text> indicates what should go in this entry. We can use \multicolumn to modify the previous example as follows:

```
\begin{tabular}{lrr}
```

    & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Price (\pounds)}\\
    ```
    & \multicolumn{2}{c}{Price (\pounds)}\\
Item & ex VAT & inc VAT\\
Item & ex VAT & inc VAT\\
Video & 8.99 & 10.56\\
Video & 8.99 & 10.56\\
CD & 9.99 & 11.74\\
CD & 9.99 & 11.74\\
DVD & 15.00 & 17.63\\
DVD & 15.00 & 17.63\\
\bfseries Total & 33.98 & 39.93
\bfseries Total & 33.98 & 39.93
\end{tabular}
```

```
\end{tabular}
```

```

Output:
[Merging cells in a column of
a table]
\(\qquad\)
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
\begin{tabular}{lrr} 
& \multicolumn{2}{c}{ Price (£) } \\
Item & ex VAT & inc VAT \\
Video & 8.99 & 10.56 \\
CD & 9.99 & 11.74 \\
DVD & 15.00 & 17.63 \\
Total & 33.98 & 39.93
\end{tabular}

In this example we are spanning two columns, so the first argument to \multicolumn is \(\{2\}\), we want the entry centred, so the second argument is \(\{c\}\) and the text to go in this entry is simply \{Price ( \(\backslash\) pounds) \}.

The \multicolumn command can also be used to override the alignment of individual entries. Consider the following example:

Output:
\begin{tabular}{lrr}
\hline & Year1 & Year2 \\
Travel & 100,000 & 110,000 \\
Equipment & 50,000 & 60,000 \\
& & \begin{tabular}{l} 
个Output \\
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

In this example, the headers "Year1" and "Year2" would look better centred, but the rest of the entries in the second and third columns look best right aligned. We can use \(\backslash m u l t i c o l u m n ~ t o ~ s p a n ~ j u s t ~ o n e ~ c o l u m n, ~\) and use the second argument of \(\backslash\) multicolumn to override the column specification:

\begin\{tabular\}\{1rr\} }
    \& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year1\}
    \& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year2\} \\
Travel \& 100,000 \& 110,000\\
Equipment \& 50,000 \& 60,000
\end\{tabular\} }

Output:
4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Year1 & Year2 & ¢Output \\
\hline Travel & 100,000 & 110,000 & \\
\hline Equipment & 50,000 & 60,000 & |Outrut \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Exercise 6 (Aligning Material)}

Go back to the document you created in exercise 2, and add the following to your document:
\begin{tabular}{lrr}
\hline & \multicolumn{2}{c|}{ Expenditure } \\
& Year1 & Year2 \\
& 100,000 & 110,000 \\
Travel & 50,000 & 60,000 \\
Equipment & & \(\downarrow\) Output \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT}

Note that the tabular environment doesn't create a caption, all it does is arrange its contents in rows and columns. You will find out how to turn your tabular environment into a table in section 7.2.

You can download or view the result.

For more information about using the tabular environment, including how to add vertical and horizontal lines, see \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) : A Document Preparation System [3], A Guide to \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) [4] or The LAT \(T_{E} X\) Companion [5]. The latter reference also describes how to span rows using the multirow package. For information on how to create coloured tables using the colortbl package, see The \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) Graphics Companion [6]. Related UK TUG FAQ [2] topics:
- How to change a whole row of a table
- Merging cells in a column of a table
- Fixed width tables
- Variable-width columns in tables
- Spacing lines in tables
- The thickness of rules in LaTeX tables

\subsection*{4.6 Boxes and Mini-Pages}

TEX views everything on a page as a form of box. Each box has an associated width, height and depth, and the boxes are placed together on the page with glue. This is reminiscent of the days of manual typesetting, where each letter or symbol was on a wooden block, and the wooden blocks were glued in place. The simplest form of box is a single letter. Some letters, such as "a" only have a height and width, whereas other letters, such as "y" have a height, width and depth (see figure 4.1).


Figure 4.1: \(\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) views each letter as a box

\section*{4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT}

For example, the phrase "cabbages and peas" is made up of 15 boxes:

\section*{calbbages and peals}
whereas the word "cauliflower" consists of 10 boxes: \({ }^{4}\)

\section*{claullifflower}

More complicated boxes are made up of smaller boxes. We have already encountered one of these more complicated boxes: the tabular environment, discussed in the previous section. This type of box is called a horizontal box, which means that it can go in a line of text. For example:
Here is some text.
\begin\{tabular\}\{cc\} }
A \& B \(\backslash \backslash\)
C \& D
\end\{tabular\} }
The rest of the line.
produces:
```

[^11]Here is some text.

| A | B |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C | D | The rest of the line.

In fact, you may have noticed in the previous section, that the tabular environment had an optional argument $<p o s\rangle$. This governs the vertical alignment when the tabular environment occurs within a line of text. This can be one of c (centred-the default, as illustrated above), t (top) and b (bottom). For example,

Here is some text.
\begin\{tabular\}[b]\{cc\} }
$A \& B \backslash \backslash$
C \& D
\end\{tabular\} }
The rest of the line.
produces:

Here is some text. | A | B |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C | D | The rest of the line.

Here is some text. C D The rest of the line.

Another type of box which can again be placed in a line of text, is the minipage environment.
\begin\{minipage\} } [ < pos > ] [ < h e i g h t > ] \{ < width > \}
As the name suggests, this environment creates a "mini-page" of the given width. For example:
Some text.
\begin{minipage}{2in}
This is a mini-page. The text inside
it is formatted as usual.
Paragraph breaks can also be used, but there is no indentation by default $\backslash$ footnote\{and this is how a footnote appears\}.
\end\{minipage\} }

The rest of the line.
which produces

This is a mini-page. The text inside it is formatted as usual.
Some text. Paragraph breaks can also be used, but The rest of the line. there is no indentation by default ${ }^{\text {a }}$.

[^12]You can optionally specify a height, and how the mini-page is aligned with the rest of the text. As with the tabular environment, the alignment option <pos> can be one of t (top), c (centred) or b (bottom). The default is $c$, which is why the above example has the mini-page centred vertically. This can be changed, for example:

Some text.

```
\begin{minipage}[t]{2in}
This is a mini-page. The text inside
it is formatted as usual.
Paragraph breaks can also be used, but
there is no indentation by default\footnote{and
this is how a footnote appears}.
\end{minipage}
The rest of the line.
```

which produces

Some text. This is a mini-page. The text inside it The rest of the line.
is formatted as usual.
Paragraph breaks can also be used, but there is no indentation by default ${ }^{\text {a }}$.

[^13]
## 4. CREATING A SIMPLE DOCUMENT

Note that the width can be specified relative to the current line width, using \linewidth. For example,
\begin\{minipage\}\{0.5\linewidth\} }
will start a mini-page that is half the width of the current line.
There is also a corresponding command

```
\parbox[<pos>][<height \(>]\{<\) width \(>\}\{<\) text \(>\}\)
```

which behaves in a similar way. So the above example, can be rewritten using a \parbox:
Some text.
\parbox[t]{2in}{This is a parbox.
The text inside
it is formatted as usual.
Paragraph breaks can also be used, but
there is no indentation by default.}
The rest of the line.

```
which produces

Some text. This is a parbox. The text inside it is The rest of the line.
formatted as usual.
Paragraph breaks can also be used, but there is no indentation by default.

You may have noticed that the \footnote command has not been used in the above example. The \parbox is designed for a small amount of text, and is more restricted than the minipage environment, so you can't use the \footnote command in it. There are also certain environments, such as the list-making environments, that can be used in a minipage, but not in a \(\backslash\) parbox.

Related UK TUG FAQ [2] topics:
- Automatic sizing of minipage
- Float(s) lost
- Perhaps a missing \item?

\section*{Chapter 5}

\section*{Structuring Your Document}

Let's go back to the document we modified in exercise 6. In this chapter we shall edit this document step by step until we have a fully fledged document with title, abstract, table of contents, sections etc.

\subsection*{5.1 Author and title information}

The term "title page" is used to indicate the author, title and date information that can either appear on the front cover by itself or along the top of the first page of text. In order to do this, you must first specify the information. Once this information has been specified it can then be displayed.

The author, title and date are entered using the commands:
\author\{<author names \(>\}\)
\title\{<title text>\}
\(\backslash\) date \(\{<\) document date \(>\}\)

These commands only store information, they don't actually display anything. Once you have used these commands, you can then display the information using the command:
\(\backslash\) maketitle
[The style of document
titles]

Definition

Note that if you don't use the \date command, the current date will be inserted. If you want no date to appear, you need to specify an empty argument:
\date\{\}

Multiple authors should be separated by the command \and, for example:

5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

Within these titling fields, you can also use the command:
\thanks\{text\}
which produces a special type of footnote. For example:
\title\{A Great Project\thanks\{funded by XYZ\}\}
Note that the footnote marker produced using \thanks is considered to have zero width, so if it occurs in the middle of a line, rather than the end, you will need to insert some extra space using \(\_{-}\)(backslash space). The argument of \thanks is a moving argument.

\section*{Exercise 7 (Creating Title Pages)}

Try editing the document you modified in exercise 6 to include title information. Modifications are illustrated like this:
\documentclass[a4paper, 11pt]\{article\}
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\begin\{document\} }
\title\{A Simple Document\}
\author\{Me\}
\(\backslash\) maketitle
This is a simple \LaTeX\ document.
Here is the first paragraph.

Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's a very short document \(\backslash\) footnote\{with a footnote\}. This document was created on: \today.
\begin\{tabular\}\{lrr\} }
\& \multicolumn\{2\}\{c\}\{\bfseries Expenditure\} \(\backslash \backslash\)
\& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year1\} \& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year2\}\\\}
\bfseries Travel \& 100,000 \& 110,000\\
\bfseries Equipment \& 50,000 \& 60,000
\end\{tabular\} }
\end\{document\} }

You can download this document.

\subsection*{5.2 Abstract}

The abstract environment is used to create an abstract for the document. The way in which the abstract is formatted depends on the class file. The report class file will put the abstract on a page by itself, some class files will indent the abstract and some will typeset the abstract in italic. Note also that some class files (such as book and letter) don't have an abstract environment. Abstracts traditionally go at the start of the document after the title, so the abstract environment should go after the \maketitle command.

\section*{Exercise 8 (Creating an Abstract)}

Try editing your document so that it has an abstract: Modifications are illustrated like this:
[1-column abstract in
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]\{article\}
\begin\{document\} }
\title\{A Simple Document\}
\author\{Me\}
\maketitle
\begin\{abstract\} }
A brief document to illustrate how to use \LaTeX. \end\{abstract\} }

This is a simple \LaTeX\ document.
Here is the first paragraph.

Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's a very short document \(\backslash\) footnote\{with a footnote\}. This document was created on: \today.
\begin\{tabular\}\{lrr\} }
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
```

    & \multicolumn{2}{c}{\bfseries Expenditure}\\
    & \multicolumn{1}{c}{Year1} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{Year2}\\
    \bfseries Travel \& 100,000 \& 110,000<br>
\bfseries Equipment \& 50,000 \& 60,000
\end{tabular}

\end{document}

```

You can download this document.

\subsection*{5.3 Chapters, Sections, Subsections ...}

Chapters, sections, subsections etc can be inserted using the commands:

\section*{5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT}
\(\backslash\) part \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(>\}\)
\chapter \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(>\}\)
\section \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(>\}\)
\subsection \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(\rangle\}\)
\subsubsection \([<\) short title \(\rangle]\{<\) title \(\rangle\}\)
\paragraph \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(>\}\)
\subparagraph \([<\) short title \(>]\{<\) title \(\rangle\}\)
(All these commands have a moving argument, so fragile commands will need to be protected using \protect.)

Note 3: The availability of these commands depends on the class file you are using. For example, the article class file that we have been using is designed for short articles, so the \chapter command is not defined in the article class file, whereas it is defined in the report class file.

Each of the commands above have a mandatory argument \(<\) title \(>\) and an optional argument <short title>. The mandatory argument <title> is simply the title of the chapter/section/subsection etc. For example:
[How to create a
\subsubsubsection Input
\section\{Introduction\}
If you are using the article class file, the output will look like:

\section*{1 Introduction}

Note that you don't specify the section number as \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) does this automatically. This means that you can insert a new section or chapter or swap sections around or even change a section to a subsection etc, without having to worry about updating all the section numbers.

If you are using a class file that contains chapters as well as sections, the section number will depend on the chapter. So, for example, the current section is the \(3^{\text {rd }}\) section of chapter 5 , so the section number is 5.3 (note that if you are using a class file where the section number depends on the chapter number, you must have a \chapter command before your first \section command, otherwise your section numbers will come out as \(0.1,0.2\) etc).

Unnumbered chapters/sections etc are produced by placing an asterisk * after the command name. For example:
\chapter*\{Acknowledgements\}

You can switch to appendices using the command
\appendix
Appendixes]
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
then continue using \chapter, \section etc. For example (using the report class file):
\appendix
\chapter\{Derivations\}
Some derivations.
\chapter\{Tables\}
Some tables.
\(\qquad\)

\section*{Exercise 9 (Creating Chapters, Sections etc)}

Let's try editing our document so that it now has chapters, sections and an appendix. Since the article class file doesn't have chapters, let's change to the report class. Changes from our previous document are shown like this.
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\documentclass[a4paper,11pt]\{report\}
\begin\{document\} }
\title\{A Simple Document\}
\author\{Me\}
\maketitle
\begin\{abstract\} }
A brief document to illustrate how to use \LaTeX.
\end\{abstract\} }
\chapter\{Introduction\}
\section\{The First Section\}
This is a simple \LaTeX \(\backslash\) document.
Here is the first paragraph.
\section\{The Next Section\}
Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's a very short document \(\backslash\) footnote\{with a footnote\}.
This document was created on: \today.
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\chapter\{Another Chapter\}
Here's another very interesting chapter.
We're going to put a picture here later.
\(\underline{\text { \chapter*\{Acknowledgements\} }}\)
I would like to acknowledge all those
very helpful people who have assisted me in my work.
\appendix
\chapter\{Tables\}
We will turn this tabular environment into a table later.
\begin\{tabular\}\{lrr\} }
\& \multicolumn\{2\}\{c\}\{\bfseries Expenditure\} \(\backslash \backslash\)
\& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year1\} \& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year2\}\\\}
\bfseries Travel \& \(100,000 \& 110,000 \backslash \backslash\)
\bfseries Equipment \& 50,000 \& 60,000
\end\{tabular\} }
\end\{document\} }
(You can download a copy of this file if you like, but I recommend that you try editing the file yourself to give you practice.)

\subsection*{5.4 Creating a Table of Contents}

Once you have all your \chapter, \section etc commands, you can create a table of contents with the command
\tableof contents
This command should go where you want your table of contents to appear (usually after \maketitle).

You may recall from the previous section that the sectioning commands all had an optional argument \(<\) short title \(>\). If your chapter or section title is particularly long, you can use <short title> to specify a shorter title that should go in the table of contents. \({ }^{1}\) The longer title (given by the

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{1}\) and in the page header, depending on the page style.
}
[The format of the Table of Contents, etc] Definition
[My section title is too wide for the page header]

\section*{5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT}
other argument <title>) will still appear in the section heading in the main part of the document.

LATEX processes all source code sequentially, so when it first encounters the \tableofcontents command, it doesn't yet know anything about the chapters, sections etc. So the first time the document is \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{Xe}}\) the necessary information is written to the table of contents (.toc) file. The subsequent pass reads the information in from the .toc file, and generates the table of contents. You will therefore need to \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) your document twice to make sure that the table of contents is up-to-date.

\section*{Exercise 10 (Creating a Table of Contents)}

Try modifying your document so that it has a table of contents. Modifications from the previous exercise are illustrated like this:

\footnotetext{
\documentclass[a4paper, 11pt] \{report\}
\begin\{document\} }
\title\{A Simple Document\}
}
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\author\{Me\}
\(\backslash\) maketitle
\tableof contents
\begin\{abstract\} }
A brief document to illustrate how to use \LaTeX.
\end\{abstract\} }
\chapter\{Introduction\}
\section\{The First Section\}
This is a simple \LaTeX\document. Here is the first paragraph.
\section\{The Next Section\}
Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's a very short document \(\backslash\) footnote\{with a footnote\}. This document was created on: \today.
\chapter\{Another Chapter\}

\section*{5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT}

Here's another very interesting chapter. We're going to put a picture here later.
\chapter*\{Acknowledgements\}
I would like to acknowledge all those very helpful people who have assisted me in my work.
\appendix
\chapter\{Tables\}
We will turn this tabular environment into a table later.
\begin\{tabular\}\{lrr\} }
\& \multicolumn\{2\}\{c\}\{\bfseries Expenditure\}\\
\& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year1\} \& \multicolumn\{1\}\{c\}\{Year2\}\\
\bfseries Travel \& 100,000 \& 110,000\\
\bfseries Equipment \& 50,000 \& 60,000
\end\{tabular\} }
\end\{document\} }
\(\qquad\)

If your table of contents doesn't come out right, try \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{E}}\) ing it again. (Again, you can download this file.)

\subsection*{5.5 Cross-Referencing}

We have already seen that \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) takes care of all the numbering for the chapters etc, but what happens if you want to refer to a chapter or section? There's no point leaving \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) to automatically generate the section numbers if you have to keep a track of them all, and change all your cross-references every time you add a new section. Fortunately \(\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) provides a way to generate the correct number, all you have to do is label the part of the document you want to reference, and then refer to this label when you want to cross-reference it. \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) will then determine the correct number that needs to be inserted at that point.

The first part, labelling the place you want to reference, is done using
[Referring to labels in other documents] the command:

The argument <string> should be a unique textual label. This label can be anything you like as long as it is unique, but it's a good idea to make it something obvious so that, firstly, you can remember the label when you want to use it, and secondly, when you read through your code at some later date, it's immediately apparent to you to which part of the document you are referring. People tend to have their own conventions for labelling. I usually start the label with two or three letters that signify what type of thing I'm labelling. For example, if I'm labelling a chapter I'll start with ch, if I'm labelling a section I'll start with sec. Example:
\(\qquad\)
Another example:
\section\{Technical Details\}
\label\{sec:details\}

Note that the \label command doesn't produce any text, it simply assigns a label. You can now refer to that object using the command:
\(\backslash r e f\{<\) string \(>\}\)
Definition
[Referring to things by their name]

TInput
\(\downarrow\) Input
It is a typographical convention that you should never start a new line with a number. For example, if you have the text "Chapter 1" the " 1 " must be on the same line as the "Chapter". We can do this by using an unbreakable space, which will put a space but won't allow \(\mathrm{L}^{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) to break the line at that point. This is done using the ~ special character, so the example above should actually be:
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

See Section~\ref\{sec:results\} for an anaylsis of the results.
\(\qquad\)
There is a similar command:
\pageref \(\{<\) string \(>\}\)
which will insert the page number that the label appeared on. Example:
\(\square\)
See Chapter~ \(\backslash\) ref \(\{\) ch: def \(\}\) on page \(\sim\) pageref \(\{c h: d e f\}\) for a list of definitions.

The label ch:def obviously needs to be defined somewhere:


TInput
\chapter\{Definitions\}
\label\{ch:def\}

In fact, I have done this in my source code for chapter 2 of this document, so the above example would look like:

See Chapter 2 on page 11 for a list of definitions.

It's not just chapters and sections that you can reference, most of the numbers that \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) automatically generates can be cross-referenced. The enumerate environment automatically numbers the items within an ordered list, so it's possible to label list items. For example:
\(\backslash\) begin\{enumerate\}
\item\label\{itm:edit\} Write or edit source code.
\item Pass source code to the \LaTeX\application ('‘\(\backslash \mathrm{LaTeX}\) \the document')').
\begin\{itemize\} }
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
\item If there are any error messages, return to Step~\ref\{itm:edit\}.
\item If there are no error messages, a DVI file is created, go to Step~\ref\{itm:view\}.
\end\{itemize\} }
\item\label\{itm:view\} View DVI file to check the result.
\end\{enumerate\} }
\(\qquad\)
Output:
1. Write or edit source code.
2. Pass source code to the \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) application (" \(\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) the document").
- If there are any error messages, return to Step 1.
- If there are no error messages, a DVI file is created, go to Step 3.
3. View DVI file to check the result.

The \ref and \pageref commands may come before or after the corresponding \label command. As with the table of contents, \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) first writes out all the cross-referencing information to another file (the auxiliary (.aux) file) and then reads it in the next time, so you will need to LATEX your document twice to get everything up-to-date.

If the references aren't up-to-date, you will see the following message at the end of the \(\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) run:

LaTeX Warning: Label(s) may have changed.
Rerun to get cross-references right.
The following warning
LaTeX Warning: There were undefined references.
means that \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) found a reference to a label that does not appear in the auxiliary file. This could mean that it's a new label, and the warning will go away the next time you \(\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) your document, or it could mean that either you've forgotten to define your label with the \label command, or you've simply misspelt the label.

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Very occasionally, if you have cross-references and a table of contents, you might have to \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) your document three times to get everything up to date. Just check to see if the Label(s) may have changed warning appears.

If you have an undefined reference, \(\mathrm{LA}^{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) will replace the reference number with two question marks ?? in the output. If this happens, check to see if the above warnings have occurred.

\section*{Exercise 11 (Cross-Referencing)}

Try modifying your code so that it has cross-references. Again, changes made from the previous document are illustrated like this:
\documentclass[a4paper, 11pt] \{report\}
\begin\{document\} }
\title\{A Simple Document\}
\author\{Me\}
```


## 5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

```
\maketitle
\tableofcontents
\begin{abstract}
A brief document to illustrate how to use \LaTeX.
\end{abstract}
\chapter{Introduction}
\label{ch:intro}
\section{The First Section}
This is a simple \LaTeX\ document. Here is the first paragraph.
The next chapter is Chapter~\ref{ch:another}
and is on page~}\pageref{ch:another}
The next section is Section~\ref{sec:next}.
\section{The Next Section}
\label{sec:next}
```

Here is the second paragraph. As you can see it's a very
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT
short document $\backslash$ footnote\{with a footnote\}.
This document was created on: \today.
\chapter\{Another Chapter\}
\label\{ch:another\}
Here's another very interesting chapter.
We're going to put a picture here later.
See Chapter~ $\backslash r e f\{c h: i n t r o\}$ for an
introduction.
\chapter*\{Acknowledgements\}
I would like to acknowledge all those very helpful people who have assisted me in my work.
\appendix
\chapter\{Tables\}
We will turn this tabular environment into a table later.
\begin\{tabular\}\{1rr\} }
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

```
    & \multicolumn{2}{c}{\bfseries Expenditure}\\
    & \multicolumn{1}{c}{Year1} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{Year2}\\
\bfseries Travel & 100,000 & 110,000\\
\bfseries Equipment & 50,000 & 60,000
\end{tabular}
```

$\qquad$
(You can download a copy of this file.)

### 5.6 Creating a Bibliography

Bibliographies can be created using the thebibliography environment. This environment is very similar to the list making environments described in section 4.3, but instead of - use
\bibitem[<label \(>]\{<\) key \(>\}\)
where \(<k e y>\) is a unique keyword that identifies this item. Your keyword can be anything you like, but as with \label I recommend that you use


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a short memorable keyword. I tend to use the first author's surname followed by the year of publication. Example:

```
\begin{thebibliography}{1}
\bibitem{lamport94} ''\LaTeX\ : a document preparation
system'', Leslie Lamport, 2nd edition (updated for
\LaTeXe), Addison-Wesley (1994).
\bibitem{kopka95} ''A Guide to \LaTeX2e: document
preparation for beginners and advanced users'',
Helmut Kopka and Patrick W. Daly, Addison-Wesley (1995).
\bibitem{goossens94} ''The \LaTeX\ Companion'',
Michel Goossens, Frank Mittelbach and
Alexander Samarin, Addison-Wesley, (1994).
\end{thebibliography}
Output:
```

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## References

[1] "LATEX : a document preparation system", Leslie Lamport, 2nd edition (updated for $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} 2 \varepsilon$ ), Addison-Wesley (1994).
[2] "A Guide to $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} 2 \mathrm{e}$ : document preparation for beginners and advanced users", Helmut Kopka and Patrick W. Daly, Addison-Wesley (1995).
[3] "The LATEX Companion", Michel Goossens, Frank Mittelbach and Alexander Samarin, Addison-Wesley, (1994).

You can cite an item in your bibliography with the command
\cite $[<$ text $>]\{<$ key list $>\}$
Example:

For more information about writing bibliographies see Goossens \emph\{et al.\}~\cite\{goossens94\}.

Output:
For more information about writing bibliographies see Goossens et al. [3].

If you want to cite multiple works, use a comma-separated list: Example:


For more information about writing bibliographies see~ $\backslash$ cite\{kopka95, goossens94\}.

Output:
For more information about writing bibliographies see $[2,3]$.
The optional argument <text> to the \cite command can be used to add text to the citation. Example:
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

For more information about writing bibliographies see Goossens \emph\{et al.\}~\cite[Chapter~13] \{goossens94\}.

Output:

For more information about writing bibliographies see Goossens et al. [3, Chapter 13].

The thebibliography environment has a mandatory argument:
\begin\{thebibliography\}\{<widest entry>\} }
The argument <widest entry> is the widest label in the list of entries. This helps LATEX to align the references correctly. In the example above, the labels appeared as: [1], [2] and [3], but they can be changed using the optional argument to the \bibitem command. In the above example, the labels were all approximately the same width so the argument $\{1\}$ was used (although $\{2\}$ and $\{3\}$ could just have easily been used-in fact $\{3\}$ is strictly speaking the widest). Consider the following example:

## 5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

\begin\{thebibliography\}\{Goossens 1994\} }\bibitem[Lamport 1994]\{lamport94\} '" $\backslash$ LaTeX $\backslash$ : a documentpreparation system'', Leslie Lamport, 2nd edition(updated for \LaTeX2e), Addison-Wesley (1994).\bibitem[Kopka 1995] \{kopka95\} 'A Guide to \LaTeX2e: documentpreparation for beginners and advanced users'', Helmut Kopkaand Patrick W. Daly, Addison-Wesley (1995).
\bibitem[Goossens 1994]\{goossens94\} ''The \LaTeX\Companion'',Michel Goossens, Frank Mittelbach andAlexander Samarin, Addison-Wesley, (1994).
\end\{thebibliography\} }
Output:

## References

[Lamport 1994] "LATEX : a document preparation system", Leslie Lamport, 2nd edition (updated for $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} 2 \varepsilon$ ), Addison-Wesley (1994).
[Kopka 1995] "A Guide to $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} 2 \mathrm{e}$ : document preparation for beginners and advanced users", Helmut Kopka and Patrick W. Daly, Addison-Wesley (1995).
[Goossens 1994] "The LATEX Companion", Michel Goossens, Frank Mittelbach and Alexander Samarin, Addison-Wesley, (1994).
$\qquad$ $\downarrow$ Output

In this example, the widest label is [Goossens 1994] so it is chosen to be the argument of the thebibliography environment:
\begin\{thebibliography\}\{Goossens 1994\} }

There is an application called BibTEX that can be used in conjunction with $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{T} X$ to help generate bibliographies. This document does not cover BibTEX, but if you are interested I recommend reading $A$ Guide to $L^{A} T_{E} X$ [4] or The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Companion [5]. For those of you who want a
[Creating a
BibTeX
bibliography file]

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quick look on-line, the document Using $L^{A} T_{E} X$ to Write a PhD Thesis has a section containing a brief introduction to BibTEX.

## Exercise 12 (Creating a Bibliography)

Try added the following chapter to your document:

and also add the bibliography shown above to the end of your document. You can download or view the solution, but have a go by yourself first. Remember that, as before, you will need to $\mathrm{HAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ the document twice to get the references up-to-date.

### 5.7 Page Styles and Page Numbering

You may have noticed that the documents you have created have all had their page numbers automatically inserted at the foot of most of the pages. If you have created the document that has gradually been modified over the previous few sections, you may have noticed that the title page has no header or footer, the table of contents is page 1, the abstract page has no page number, and the page after the abstract starts at page 1 and continues incrementally onwards from that point. All the page numbers are Arabic numbers. This can be changed using the command:
$\backslash$ pagenumbering\{<style $>\}$
where <style> can be one of:
arabic Arabic page numbers ( $1,2,3, \ldots$ )
roman Lowercase Roman numerals (i, ii, iii, ...)
Roman Uppercase Roman numerals (I, II, III, ...)
alph Lower case alphabetical characters (a, b, c, ...)
Alph Upper case alphabetical characters (A, B, C, ...)
5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT

Traditionally, the front matter (table of contents, list of figures etc) should have lowercase Roman numeral page numbering, while the main matter should be in Arabic numerals. Example (using report class file):
\author\{Me\}

\title\{A Simple Document\}

\pagenumbering\{roman\}
\tableofcontents
\begin\{abstract\} }
This is the abstract.
\end\{abstract\} }
\pagenumbering\{arabic\}
\chapter\{Introduction\}

Note that if you don't have an abstract environment, you will need to do 
 before doing \pagenumbering\{arabic\}:
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```
\author{Me}
\title{A Simple Document}
\maketitle
\pagenumbering{roman}
\tableofcontents
\clearpage\pagenumbering{arabic}
\chapter{Introduction}

The headers and footers can be changed using the command
\pagestyle\{<style>\}
Individual pages can be changed using
\thispagestyle\{<style>\}

Standard styles are:
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empty No header or footer.
plain Header empty, page number in footer.
headings Header contains page number and various information, footer empty.
myheadings Header specified by user, footer empty.
If the myheadings style is used, the header information can be specified using:
\(\backslash\) markboth\{<left head>\}\{<right head>\}
if the twoside option has been passed to the class file, or
\(\backslash\) markright \(\{<\) right head \(>\}\)
if the oneside option has been passed to the class file (default for article and report).

The report class file uses the empty style for the title and abstract pages and plain for the first page of each new chapter. By default the remaining pages are also plain, but these can be changed using the \pagestyle

\section*{5. STRUCTURING YOUR DOCUMENT}
command. The A4 version of this document uses the headings page style, whereas this version uses a page style I defined myself that incorporates a navigation bar in the footer. (For information on how to do this, see Creating a PDF Document using PDFLaTeX.)

\section*{Exercise 13 (Page Styles and Page Numbering)}

Try editing your document so that the page numbering is lowercase Roman for the table of contents but Arabic for the main matter. You can try changing the page style as well, but since the chapters are less than a page each, you won't see any effect until we make our chapters a bit bigger. (You can download or view the edited document.)

\section*{Chapter 6}

\section*{Packages}

Packages are files with the extension .sty that either define new commands or redefine existing commands. We shall first look at how to use packages already installed on your system, and then we shall look at how to download and install new packages.

\subsection*{6.1 Using Packages}

LATEX has a great many useful commands, but it doesn't have a command to do absolutely everything, so if additional commands are required, they can be supplied in files called packages. If you want to use any commands or environments that are defined in a package, you first need to specify the name of the package with the command:
\usepackage[<options \(\rangle\) ] \{<package name \(>\}\)
[What are LaTeX classes and packages]
[Documentation of packages]

\section*{6. PACKAGES}
where <package name> is the name of the package without the .sty extension, and <options> is a comma separated list of options to be passed to the package (just as you can do with class files using the \documentclass command). Note that the \usepackage command must always go in the preamble.

Let's look at a few examples.

\subsection*{6.1.1 The graphicx Package}

It is possible to generate images using \({ }^{A} T_{E} X\) commands (see The \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) Graphics Companion [6]) however most people find it easier to create a picture in some other application, and include that file into their \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) document.

Some applications have an option that allows you to save an image as an Encapsulated PostScript (EPS) file. Alternatively, there are utilities available that will convert other file types to EPS such as: pdftops, tiff2ps, pnmtops. The graphicx package provides a command that enables you to include this EPS file into your document. \({ }^{1}\)

Firstly, you need to specify that you want to use the graphicx package.
[Drawing with TeX]
[How to import graphics into
(La) TeX documents]
[What is
"Encapsulated PostScript"
("EPS")] So you will need to place the following command in the preamble:

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{1}\) PDFLAT E X doesn't load EPS files, but instead can load PNG or Encapsulated PDF images.
}

\section*{6. PACKAGES}
\usepackage\{graphicx\}
The EPS file can then be included in your document using the command
\includegraphics[<key vals \(>\) ]\{<filename \(>\}\)
where <filename> is the name of your EPS file, and <key vals> is a comma-separated list of options that can be used to manipulate the image.

Example: suppose you had a file called shapes.ps, then to include it in your document you would do:
\includegraphics\{shapes.ps\}

Output:


If you omit the file extension, \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) will search for a file with the default extension. If you are using ordinary \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\), this will usually be .ps or .eps, however if you are using PDFLATEX, this will usually be .pdf or .png. Modifying the above example, we could do:
[Portable imported graphics]
\includegraphics\{shapes\}
Input
If we use \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\), the file shapes.ps will be used, and if we use PDFLAT \({ }_{E} \mathrm{X}\),

\section*{6. PACKAGES}
the file shapes.pdf will be used. So, if you sometimes use \(L_{A T E X}\) and sometimes use PDFLATEX, you may find it easier to omit the extension, and have two copies of the image in both EPS and PDF format.

You can specify a full or relative pathname, but you must use a forward slash as the directory divider, even if you are using Windows. For example:
\includegraphics\{pictures/shapes.ps\}
means the file pictures/shapes.ps on Unix-type systems, and it means the file pictures \(\backslash\) shapes.ps on Windows. This is mainly because the backslash character is a \(\mathrm{AA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) special character indicating a command, but it also helps portability between platforms.

You can specify which file types to look for with the command
\DeclareGraphicsExtensions\{<ext-list>\}
where <ext-list> is a comma-separated list of extensions. For example, if you are using PDFLATEX, you might want to search first for PDF files, and then for PNG files:
\DeclareGraphicsExtensions\{.pdf,.png\}
or if you are using \(L_{A} T_{E} X\) and dvips, you might want to first search for Encapsulated PostScript (EPS) files and then for PostScript (PS) files:

\section*{6. PACKAGES}
\DeclareGraphicsExtensions\{.eps,.ps\}

The optional argument <key vals> should be a comma separated list of \(\langle\) key \(\rangle=<\) label \(\rangle\) pairs. Common options are:
angle \(=x \quad\) rotate the picture by \(x^{\circ}\)
width=<len \(\rangle \quad\) scale the picture so that the width is \(\langle l e n\rangle\).
(Remember to specify the units)
height=<len>
scale the picture so that the height is \(\langle l e n\rangle\).
(Remember to specify the units)
scale=<value \(>\quad\) Scale the picture by <value>
trim= \(\langle l\rangle\langle b\rangle\langle r\rangle\langle t\rangle\) Specifies the amount to remove from each side.
E.g. trim=1 234 crops the picture by 1bp from the left, 2 bp from the bottom, 3 bp from the right and 4 bp from the top. (The unit bp is a PostScript point \(72 \mathrm{bp}=1 \mathrm{in}\) )
draft
Don't actually print the image, just draw a box of the same size and print the filename inside it.

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Let's try rotating and scaling our picture:
\includegraphics[angle=45, width=1in] \{shapes\}
Output:

\section*{Graphical Transformations}

The graphicx package also provides commands to rotate, resize, reflect and scale text. They are as follows:
- \rotatebox\{<angle \(>\}\{<\) text \(>\}\) Example:
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```

\rotatebox{45}{Some text}

## Output:


    - \scalebox $\{<h$ scale $>\}[<v$ scale $>]\{<$ text $>\}$ Example:
\scalebox\{0.8\}\{Some text\}

Output:

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    - \reflectbox\{<text>\}

Example:
\reflectbox\{Some text\}

Output:

Jx9f 9moß
    - \resizebox $\{<h$ length $>\}\{<v$ length $>\}\{<$ text $>\}$ Example:
\resizebox\{12mm\}\{1cm\}\{Some text\}

Output:


The graphicx package can have the following options passed to it:
draft Don't actually display the images, just print the filename in a box of the correct size. This is useful if you want to print out a draft copy of a document to check the text rather than the images. This option can also be passed to the class file.
final Opposite of draft (default). This option can also be passed to the class file.
hiderotate Don't show rotated text.
hidescale Don't show scaled text.
Example:
undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

## Exercise 14 (Using the graphicx Package)

Download the file shapes.ps from http://theoval.cmp.uea.ac.uk/~nlct/ latex/novices/exercises/, and include it into your document. Alternatively, if you prefer to use PDFLATEX, you can download the file shapes.pdf instead. Try experimenting with some of the options described above. (You can download or view an example solution.)

Some previewers may not be able to display EPS images or perform the scaling, rotating etc, in this case you can use dvips to convert your DVI file into a PostScript file either calling dvips in a terminal, or clicking on the appropriate button or setting in WinEdt or TeXnicCenter, and then view it using GSview.

For more information on the graphicx package see The $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Graphics Companion [6].

Related UK TUG FAQ [2] topics:
    - How to import graphics into (La)TeX documents
    - Imported graphics in PDFLaTeX
    - Imported graphics in dvips


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    - Imported graphics in dvipdfm
    - Importing graphics from "somewhere else"
    - Portable imported graphics
    - Repeated graphics in a document
    - Limit the width of imported graphics
    - Top-aligning imported graphics
    - Labelling graphics
    - Graphics division by zero


### 6.1.2 Multi-Lingual Support: using the babel package

You may have noticed that the \tableofcontents and \chapter commands have produced English words like "Contents" and "Chapter". If you are writing in another language, this is not appropriate. In this case, you should use the babel package, and specify which language you will be using, either as an option to the babel package, or as an option to the class file. If you are writing in more than one language, list all the
[How to change LaTeX's "fixed names"]
[Using a new language with Babel]

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languages that you will be using, where the last named language, is the default language. For example:
sh,french]\{babel\}or\documentclass[english,french,a4paper]\{report\}\usepackage\{babel\}Youcanthenswitchbetweenthenamedlanguageseitherusingthedeclaration:\selectlanguage\{<language$>$\}ortheotherlanguageenvironment:\begin\{otherlanguage\}}\{<language>\}[Parallelsettingoftext]undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

These will affect all translations, including the date format and predefined names like "Chapter". If you only want to set a short section of text in a different language, without affecting the date format or predefined names, then you can either use the command:
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>\}\{<\)text$>\}$orthestarredversionoftheotherlanguageenvironment:\begin\{otherlanguage*\}\{<language}>\}Youcandetermineifagivenlanguageiscurrentlyselectedusing:\iflanguage$\{<$language$>\}\{<$truetext$>\}\{<$falsetext$>\}$Example:\documentclass\{article\}\usepackage[english,french]\{babel\}\%frenchisthelastnamedoption,sothat'sthecurrentlanguage\begin\{document\}}Cetexteestenfran\c\{c\}ais.Ladateaujourd'huiest:\today.\selectlanguage\{english\}ThistextisinEnglish.Today'sdateis:\today.\end\{document\}}undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

### 6.1.3 Changing the format of \today

In the document we have been creating in the exercises, we have used the command \today to produce the current date. By default, this command displays the date in a US format, e.g. January 15, 2008, but if you live in the UK you might prefer a UK format. This can be done by loading a package that redefines the \today command. There are several packages available, amongst which are: ukdate and datetime. (If you are using the babel package, \today will display the date in the format for the currently selected language.)

For example, if you want to use the ukdate package, you would type the following in the preamble:
e\}andthecommand\todaywillthendisplaythedateintheform:Tuesday15thJanuary,2008undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

The datetime package has various options that can be used to change the format of \today. For example, by default the datetime package redefines \today to display the date in the form: Tuesday $15^{\text {th }}$ January, 2008. The option short will produce an abbreviated form, (e.g. Tue $15^{\text {th }}$ Jan, 2008) and the option nodayof week won't display the day of the week (e.g. $15^{\text {th }}$ January, 2008). These can be passed as a comma separated list in

## 6. PACKAGES

the optional argument to the ackagecommand.Itisalsopossibletouseadeclarationinstead.Forexample,toredefine\todaytodisplaythedateintheform$15/01/2008$,youcaneitherdo\usepackage[ddmmyyyy]\{datetime\}or\usepackage\{datetime\}\ddmmyyyydateundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

The datetime package also defines the command \currenttime which displays the current time, where again the format can be changed by the package options. So the option 12 hr will cause \currenttime to display the date in 12 hour format (e.g. 11:15am) and the option 24 hr will cause \currenttime to display the date in 24 hour format (e.g. 11:15).

## Exercise 15 (Using the datetime package)

Edit your document so that it uses the datetime package. Experimentwiththedifferentpackageoptions,e.g.\usepackage[short,nodayofweek,12hr]\{datetime\}andaddthecurrenttimeThisdocumentwascreatedon:\today\at\currenttime.Forafulllistofpackageoptions,seethedatetimedocumentation.(Youcandownloadorviewanexample.)undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

### 6.2 Downloading and Installing Packages

New $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ packages are being created all the time, so you may find that there are some packages that you don't have on your installation. In this case, if you don't have the package you want, you can download it from the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Archive [9]. Before discussing installing new packages, it is necessary for you to understand the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Directory Structure (TDS).

[^14][Installing things on a (La)TeX system]
[Installing MiKTeX
"known packages"]

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All the files that make up the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution are stored in a standard hierarchical structure. The root directory of the main distribution is called texmf. Its location depends on your system. For example, if you are using teTeX, it will probably be located in /usr/share/texmf or if you are using MiKTeX it may be located in c:\texmf or c:\Program Files $\backslash$ texmf. Whichever system you are using, I shall refer to this directory as $<T E X M F>$. So, if you are using teTeX, $<T E X M F>/$ doc refers to the directory /usr/share/texmf/doc, or if you are using MiKTeX, $<T E X M F>\backslash$ doc refers to the folder $\mathrm{c}: \backslash$ texmf $\backslash$ doc or $\mathrm{c}: \backslash$ Program Files $\backslash$ texmf $\backslash$ doc.

You should also have a local texmf tree. This is where you should put any new packages that you download. That way, if you update your $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution, you won't need to reinstall all those extra packages. Again, the location of the local texmf tree depends on your system. If you are using teTeX, it may be/usr/local/texmf/ or /usr/share/local-texmf. If you are using MiKTeX, it may be $\mathrm{c}: \backslash$ localtexmf or $\mathrm{c}: \backslash$ Program Files $\backslash l o c a l t e x m f$. Whichever system you are using, I shall refer to this directory as $<L O C A L$ $T E X M F>$. Both the $<T E X M F>$ and $<L O C A L-T E X M F>$ directories must have the same structure. The principle sub-directories relating to $L_{A} T_{E X}$ are illustrated in figure 6.1. It may be that your $<L O C A L$ $T E X M F>$ directory doesn't contain some of these sub-directories, if so, you will need to create them.

The documentation for $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ class files and packages can be found in

## 6. PACKAGES

the sub-directories $<T E X M F>/$ doc/latex and $<L O C A L-T E X M F>/$ doc/latex (or $<T E X M F>\backslash$ doc $\backslash$ latex and $<L O C A L-T E X M F>\backslash$ doc $\backslash$ latex on Windows).


Figure 6.1: The $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Directory Structure (TDS) showing the main $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ related sub-directories.

Some packages are supplied in this format. For example, the package pack, may be distributed in a compressed file pack.zip, which contains the files

## 6. PACKAGES

```
texmf/doc/pack.pdf
texmf/tex/latex/pack/pack.sty
texmf/tex/latex/pack/pack-foo.sty
texmf/tex/latex/pack/pack-bar.sty
```

In this case all you need to do is decompress the contents of the texmf directory of the archive into the $<L O C A L-T E X M F>$ directory. Then you must refresh the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ database (described in section 6.2.1).

Many packages are supplied with the code and documentation all bundled together in one file. This file usually has the extension .dtx, and it usually comes with an installation script that has the extension .ins. Once you have downloaded the .dtx and .ins files, you will then have to
[Documented LaTeX sources (.dtx files)] extract the code before you can use it. Let's go back to the previous example. The package pack is now distributed in a DTX file, so the pack.zip archive now contains the files

pack.dtx

pack.ins
(with hopefully a README or INSTALL file!) Note that the archive no longer contains any .sty files, nor does it contain any sub-directories. The documentation (pack.pdf or pack.dvi) and the package code (pack.sty, pack-foo.sty and pack-bar.sty) are all contained in the file pack.dtx. This is how to extract them:

## 6. PACKAGES

1. Extract the contents of pack.zip to a temporary directory.
2. Run $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{T} X$ on the file pack.ins. If you are using a terminal, you can type the following at the command prompt:
latex pack.ins
If you are using a front-end, load the file pack.ins, and click on whatever button you use to $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ your documents.
This will create the files containing the package code. In this example it will create the files pack.sty, pack-foo.sty and pack-bar.sty.
3. Make a sub-directory of $<L O C A L-T E X M F>/$ tex/latex ${ }^{3}$ in which to place these files. In this example, the package is called "pack", so make a sub-directory called pack.
4. Move the files created in step 2 into the new sub-directory you created in the previous step.
5. Run LATEX on the file pack.dtx. (The same as in step 2, but use the file pack.dtx instead of pack.ins.) This will create a file called

[^15]pack.dvi if you used LATEX, or pack.pdf if you used PDFLATEX. You may need to repeat this step to ensure that the cross references are up-to-date. Check the README file or INSTALL file to see if there is anything else you need to do. (If you have downloaded the package from CTAN, it's possible that the documentation has already been supplied, as package authors are encouraged to supply a PDF version of the documentation for on-line viewing. If so, you can omit this step.)
6. Make a sub-directory of $<L O C A L-T E X M F>/$ doc/latex ${ }^{4}$ in which to place the documentation. In this example, the package is called "pack", so make a sub-directory called pack.
7. Move the files created in step 5 into the new sub-directory you created in the previous step.
8. Refresh the database (described below).

### 6.2.1 Refreshing the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Database

Whenever you install new class files or packages, you must update the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ database, otherwise the files will not be found. How to do this depends

[^16]
## 6. PACKAGES

on the system you are using:
teTeX Use the command texhash (or mktexlsr).
MiKTeX If you are using an old MiKTeX distribution, you will need to run MiKTeX Options which will probably be in:

$$
\text { Start } \rightarrow \text { Programs } \rightarrow \text { MiKTeX } \rightarrow \text { MiKTeX Options }
$$

and then click on the button labelled Refresh Now (see figure 6.2).
Recent versions of MiKTeX have an application called MiKTeX Update Wizard which can automatically download and install known packages, check the MiKTeX documentation for further details.

If you experience any problems, contact your system administrator for help.

Alternatively, you can leave the .sty file in the same directory as your $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ document, but if you do this, you will only be able to use it with documents in that directory.

Related UK TUG FAQ [2] topics:
    - Installing things on a (La)TeX system

6. PACKAGES

Figure 6.2: MiKTeX: Updating the database

## 6. PACKAGES

    - Where to install packages
    - Installing MiKTeX"known packages"
    - "Temporary" installation of (La)TeX files
    - "Private" installations of files


## Chapter 7

## Floats

Figures and tables are referred to as floats because they float to the nearest location. Floats have a caption and associated number. It is customary for figure captions to appear at the bottom of the figure and for table captions to appear at the top of the table. Figures and tables may not have page breaks within them.

For both figures and tables, the caption is generated using the command:
\caption $[<$ short caption $>]\{<$ text $>\}$
Note that the \caption command has a moving argument, so fragile commands will need to be protected using \protect. The optional argument <short caption> is used to provide an alternative shorter caption for the list of figures or list of tables, akin to the optional argument to the sectioning commands.
[The style of captions]
[Tables longer than a single page]

Definition
[Footnotes in captions]

### 7.1 Figures

Figures are created using the figure environment.
\begin\{figure\}[<placement specifiers } > ]
Definition
This environment may contain one or more captions (generated with the \caption command). The figure environment takes one optional argument which indicates permissible locations for the figure. This may be a combination of h (here), t (top), b (bottom) and p (page of floats). Note that this only gives a general guideline as to where the figure will end up. The final location is governed by other factors, such as space left on the page and the proportion of text to floats on the page. If you omit one or more of the placement specifiers, then you are prohibiting the figure from being placed in that location. A common mistake is to do
$\backslash$ begin\{figure $\}$ [h]
which says "I want the figure here and it can't go anywhere else!" If the figure can't be placed exactly here (for example, there may not be enough room on the page), then you have given it no alternative location which can result in this and all subsequent figures being dumped at the end of the chapter or document, or can result in a fatal error when running

LATEX. You may be able to manage with only one of the other options, for example,
["Too many
unprocessed floats"]

## \begin\{figure\} [t] 

}however, if you have a large number of floats it is advisable to provide as many options as possible:

## \begin\{figure\}[htbp] 

}If you are absolutely adamant that the figure must go "right here", then it's not a float, and you shouldn't be using the figure environment (and you should also be prepared for the possibility of a large amount of white space at the end of the page if the image is too large to fit there).

Recall from section 6.1.1 we can include an Encapsulated PostScript (EPS) file or PDF image in our document with the command \includegraphics defined in the graphicx package. We can put our shapes.ps or shapes.pdf image into a figure as follows:

```
\begin{figure}[htbp]
\includegraphics{shapes}
\caption{Some shapes}
\end{figure}
```

So far so good, but our picture needs to be centred. This can be done using the  declaration:

```
\begin{figure}[htbp]
\centering
\includegraphics{shapes}
\caption{Some shapes}
\end{figure}
```

The \caption command generates a number, just like \section, so we can cross-reference it with \ref and \label. First, let's label the figure:
\begin\{figure\} [htbp] }

\caption\{Some shapes\}
\label\{fig: shapes\}
\end\{figure\} }

Now we can reference it:
Figure ${ }^{\sim} \backslash r e f\{f i g: s h a p e s\}$ shows some shapes.
(As before we use ~ to make an unbreakable space.) This produces the following output in the text:

Figure 7.1 shows some shapes.
and produces figure 7.1.
Just as we were able to generate a table of contents using \tableof contents, we can also generate a list of figures using the command
\listoffigures
As before you will need to $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ your document twice to get the list of figures up-to-date.
7. FLOATS


Figure 7.1: Some shapes

## Exercise 16 (Creating Figures)

If you did exercise 14, you should have a document with the image shapes.ps (or shapes.pdf) in it. You now need to put this image into a figure environment. Remember to centre the image, and give the figure a caption. Next, try labelling the figure and referencing it in the text. You could also put in a list of figures after the table of contents.
(You can download or view an example.)

### 7.1.1 Side-By-Side Figures

The figure environment, should really be called "figures" rather than "figure", as you can have more than one \caption command within the environment, however, since the contents of the figure environment can't have a page break, nor can the figures within a single figure environment float independently of each other, it is more usual to have a separate figure environment for each figure. As a result, people tend to forget that they can have more than one figure in a figure environment, which gives rise to the frequently asked question "how can I have side-by-side figures?"

The answer to this is to put the two figures in the same figure environment. To do this, we can use the minipage environment, which was covered
in section 4.6. Recall that the minipage environment creates a horizontal box, which means that two mini-pages can be placed side-by-side on the same line. All you need to do now, is place one image and caption in one mini-page, and the other image and caption in the neighbouring mini-page:

```
\begin{figure}[htbp]
\begin{minipage}{0.5\linewidth}
\centering
\includegraphics{circle}
\caption{A Circle}
\label{fig:circle}
\end{minipage}%
\begin{minipage}{0.5\linewidth}
\centering
\includegraphics{rectangle}
\caption{A Rectangle}
\label{fig:rectangle}
\end{minipage}
\end{figure}
```

which produces figure 7.2 and figure 7.3. Note that each mini-page uses  to centre its contents, and the label is also placed in the same mini-page, after the \caption command. (Do you remember what effect is obtained by placing a percent symbol at the end of a line?)

A common mistake when trying to create side-by-side figures is to do:

```
\begin{figure}[htbp]
\begin{minipage}{0.5\linewidth}
\centering
\includegraphics{circle}
\caption{A Circle}
\label{fig:circle}
\end{minipage}
\begin{minipage}{0.5\linewidth}
\centering
\includegraphics{rectangle}
\caption{A Rectangle}
\label{fig:rectangle}
\end{minipage}
\end{figure}
```

This produces one figure on top of the other, instead of side-by-side. Can you see why? ${ }^{1}$


Figure 7.2: A Circle


Figure 7.3: A Rectangle

[^17]
### 7.1.2 Sub-figures

Some figures have sub-figures within them. These can be generated using the subfig ${ }^{2}$ package. Each sub-figure is specified using
\subfloat $[<$ list entry $>][<$ caption $>]\{<$ object $>\}$
where <list entry> is the entry for the list of figures, ${ }^{3}<$ caption $>$ is the sub-caption and <object> is the code to create the image.

For example, suppose you have two files circle.ps and rectangle.ps (or circle.pdf and rectangle.pdf):
\begin\{figure\} [htbp] }
$\backslash$ begin\{center\}
\subfloat[A Rectangle]\{\}
\hspace\{0.5in\}
\subfloat[A Circle]\{\}
\end\{center\} }
\caption\{Two Shapes: (a) A Rectangle and (b) A Circle\}

[^18]\end\{figure\} }

The whole figure is centred using the center environment, discussed earlier, and the two sub-figures are separated by a horizontal gap of half an inch using the command:
$\backslash$ hspace $\{<l e n>\}$
This ensures that the image doesn't look too cramped.
Again we can cross-reference the sub-figures. The \label command should go in the mandatory argument of the \subfloat command. The sub-figure can be referred to using \ref to produce, e.g. 1a, or can be referenced using:
\subref $\{<$ label $>\}$
which will produce, e.g. (a).
\begin\{figure\} [htbp] }
$\backslash$ begin\{center\}
\subfloat[A Rectangle] \{\%
\label\{fig:rectangle\}\}
\hspace\{1in\}
\subfloat[A Circle] \{\%
\label\{fig:circle\}\}
\end\{center\} }
\caption\{Two Shapes: \protect\subref\{fig:rectangle\} A Rectangle and \protect\subref\{fig:circle\} A Circle\}
\label\{fig:shapes2\}
\end\{figure\} }


Figure~ $\backslash$ ref $\{f i g:$ circle\} shows a circle.

This produces the following text:

Figure 7.4 shows some shapes. Figure 7.4 a shows a rectangle and Figure 7.4b shows a circle.
and produces figure 7.4.
7. FLOATS

(a) A Rectangle

(b) A Circle

Figure 7.4: Two Shapes: (a) A Rectangle and (b) A Circle

Note that this only describes a small part of the capabilities of the subfig package. It can also be used to make continued figures, and can be applied to other types of floats as well, such as tables. The format for the sub-floats and their captions can also be modified. Check the subfig documentation for more details.

## Exercise 17 (Creating Sub-Figures)

Download rectangle.ps and circle.ps (or rectangle.pdf and circle.pdf) from http://theoval.cmp.uea.ac.uk/~nlct/latex/novices/exercises/ and add figure 7.4 to your document. You can download or view an example.

### 7.2 Tables

Tables are produced in much the same way as figures, except that the table environment is used instead. Tables typically have the caption at the top of the table (as opposed to figures, which have the caption at the bottom). Example:
7. FLOATS

```
\begin{table}
\caption{A Sample Table}
\label{tab:sample}
\centering
\begin{tabular}{lr}
Item & Cost\\
Video & 8.99\\
CD & 9.99\\
DVD & 15.00
\end{tabular}
\end{table}
```

This produces table 7.1.

Table 7.1: A Sample Table
Item Cost
Video 8.99

CD $\quad 9.99$
DVD 15.00

Again, the  declaration is used to centre the tabular envi-
ronment, however I think that the table looks a little cramped, ${ }^{4}$ so let's put in a bit of extra vertical space after the caption. This can be done using the command:
[Extra vertical space in floats]

Definition

Our code now looks like:

\begin{table}
\vspace{10pt}


\begin{tabular}{lr}
Item \& Cost<br>
Video \& 8.99<br>
CD \& 9.99<br>
DVD \& 15.00

```

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{4}\) The center environment would have put in some extra vertical space, thus dispensing with the \vspace, and I often use the center environment instead of the \centering declaration, however that seems to be a contentious issue.
}
7. FLOATS
\end\{tabular\} }
\end\{table\} }

This produces table 7.2.

Table 7.2: A Sample Table
\begin{tabular}{lr} 
Item & Cost \\
Video & 8.99 \\
CD & 9.99 \\
DVD & 15.00
\end{tabular}

As with figures, you can create a list of tables using the command

\section*{Exercise 18 (Creating Tables)}

If you did exercise 6, you should have a tabular environment in your
7. FLOATS
document. Try turning this into a table, and also add table 7.2. You could also try adding a list of tables. You can download or view the document.

\section*{Chapter 8}

\section*{Defining Commands}

It is possible to define your own commands or redefine existing ones. Be very careful about redefining existing commands; don't redefine a command simply because you want to use the name, only redefine it if you are making a modification. For example, if you want to change the format of the current date, you would redefine \today, but if you want to define a command to display a specific date, you should define a new command with a different name.

There are several reasons why you might want to define a new command:
1. Reduce typing:

Suppose you have a series of commands or text that you find yourself frequently using, then you could define a command to do all these other commands for you.
Example: Suppose you want a lot of large bold slanted sans-serif portions of text within your document. Every time you type those portions of text, you will have to do something like:
8. DEFINING COMMANDS
\textsf\{\large\bfseries\slshape Some text\}

It would be much easier if you could use just one command to do all that, called, say, \largeboldsfsl:
\largeboldsfsl\{Some text\}
or we could call it, say, \lbsfsl which is shorter, but slightly less memorable:
\lbsfsl\{Some text\}
2. Ensure consistency:

You may find that you want to format an object a certain way. For example, your document may have a lot of keywords in it, and you may want to format these keywords in a different font, say sans-serif, so that they stand out. You could just do:
however, it is better to define a new command called, say, \keyword that will typeset its argument in a sans-serif font. That way it becomes a lot easier to change the format at some later date. For example, you may decide to splash out and have your keywords typed in a particular colour. In which case, all you need to do is simply change the definition of the command \keyword, otherwise you'll have to go through your entire document looking for keywords and changing each one which could be very time consuming if you have a large document. You might also decide at some later date to make an index for your document. Indexing all the keywords then becomes very simple, as again all you'll need to do is modify the \(\backslash\) keyword command.

New commands are defined using the command:
\[
\backslash \text { newcommand }\{<c m d>\}[<n \text {-args }>][<\text { default }>]\{<\text { text }>\}
\]

The first mandatory argument \(\langle c m d\rangle\) is the name of your new command, which must start with a backslash. The optional argument \(<n\)-args \(\rangle\) specifies how many arguments your new command must take. The next

\section*{8. DEFINING COMMANDS}
optional argument <default> will be discussed later. The final mandatory argument <text> specifies what \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) should do every time it encounters this command.

Let's begin with a trivial example. Suppose I wanted to write a document about a particular course, say "Programming - Languages and Software Construction", and I had to keep writing the course title, then I might decide to define a command that prints the course title rather than having to laboriously type it out every time. Let's call our new command \coursetitle. We want the following code:

The course \emph\{\coursetitle\} is an undergraduate course.

Input
\(\uparrow\) Output
\(\downarrow\) Output

Clearly this command doesn't need any arguments, so we don't need to worry about the optional argument \(<n\)-args \(>\) to \newcommand, and the only thing our new command needs to do is print:
8. DEFINING COMMANDS

Programming --- Languages and Software Construction so we would define our new command as follows:
\begin{tabular}{l} 
\newcommand\{\coursetitle\}\{Programming --- Languages \\
and Software Construction\}
\end{tabular}

Commands must always be defined before they are used. The best place to define commands is in the preamble:
```

\documentclass[a4paper]{article}
\newcommand{\coursetitle}{Programming --- Languages
and Software Construction}
\begin{document}

## 1. \coursetitle

```
The course \emph\{\coursetitle\} is an undergraduate course.
```

\end{document}

```
\(\qquad\)

Now let's try defining a command that takes an argument (or parameter). Let's go back to our \keyword example. This command needs to take one argument that is the keyword. Let's suppose we want keywords to come out in sans-serif, then we could do:
\newcommand\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf\{\#1\}\}
In this case we have used the optional argument \(<n\)-args \(>\) to \(\backslash\) newcommand. We want our command \keyword to have one argument, so we have [1]. In \textsf\{\#1\} the \#1 represents the first argument. (If we had more than one argument, \#2 would represent the second argument, \#3 would represent the third argument etc. up to a maximum of 9.) So
\keyword\{commands\}
will be equivalent to
\textsf\{commands\}
8. DEFINING COMMANDS
and
\keyword\{environment\}
will be equivalent to
\textsf\{environment\}
and so on.
Again, the line
\newcommand\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf\{\#1\}\}
should go in the preamble. That way you can ensure the command won't be used before it's defined:
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
\newcommand\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf\{\#1\}\}
\begin\{document\} }
A \keyword\{command\} usually begins with a backslash.
\end\{document\} }
\(\qquad\)
Now if we want to change the way the keywords are formatted, we can simply change the definition of \keyword. Let's modify our code so that the keyword is now in a slanted sans-serif font:
```

\documentclass[a4paper]{article}
\newcommand{\keyword}[1]{\textsf{\slshape \#1}}
$$
\begin{document}
A \keyword{command} usually begins with a backslash.
\end{document}
$$

```
\(\qquad\)
8. DEFINING COMMANDS

Let's go one stage further. The color package enables the use of colour, so let's make our keywords blue:
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline \documentclass[a4paper]\{article\} \\
\hline \usepackage\{color\} \\
\hline \newcommand\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf \(\{\backslash\) slshape \(\backslash\) color \(\{\) blue \(\} \# 1\}\}\) \\
\hline \begin\{document\} } \\
\hline A \keyword\{command\} usually begins with a backslash. \\
\hline \end\{document\} } \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(\square\)

Or we could index the keywords. To do this we need the makeidx package and the commands \makeindex, \index\{<text \(>\}\) and \(\backslash p r i n t i n d e x:\)
8. DEFINING COMMANDS
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
\usepackage\{makeidx\}
\(\backslash\) makeindex
\newcommand\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf\{\slshape \#1\}\index\{\#1\}\}
\begin\{document\} }
A \keyword\{command\} usually begins with a backslash.
\printindex
\end\{document\} }
\(\qquad\)
For further information about how to create an index, see \(A\) Guide to \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) [4] or The \(L^{A} T_{E} X\) Companion [5]. Alternatively, if you want a brief overview on-line, try Using LATEX to Write a PhD Thesis.

Since it is unlikely that the keyword will contain a paragraph break, we should indicate that this is a short command using the starred form:
```

\newcommand*{\keyword}[1]{\textsf{\slshape \#1}\index{\#1}}

```

Now if you forget to add the closing brace, for example, \keyword\{command, then \(\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{EX}}\) 's error checking mechanism will pick up the error sooner. This will give an error message that looks like:
! Paragraph ended before \keyword was complete.
<to be read again>

\section*{\par}
1.604

This at least gives you the line number (604 in this example) of the end of the paragraph where the error has occurred.

If you don't used the starred form of \newcommand, then you will get the somewhat less than helpful error:
! File ended while scanning use of \keyword.
If you have a very large document, it may take a while to track down where exactly you have missed a brace.

Note 4: When you define a command using \newcommand you can't use a command name that already exists, and you can't use a name obtained by placing a backslash in front of an existing environment name. For example, since the itemize environment exists, you can't define a command called \itemize. In addition, you can't define a command that starts with \end. For example, you can't define a command called, say, \endkeyword. For further details, see note 7 in chapter 10.

\section*{Exercise 19 (Defining a New Command)}

Try typing up the following code:
\(\uparrow\) Code
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
\newcommand*\{\keyword\}[1]\{\textsf\{\#1\}\}
\begin\{document\} }
A \keyword\{command\} usually begins with a backslash.

Segments of code may be \keyword\{grouped\}.
Some \keyword\{commands\} take one or more \keyword\{arguments\}.
\end\{document\} }
\(\qquad\)

Then modify your code so that the keywords are in a slanted sans-serif font, and then modify your code so that the keywords come out in blue. (You may need to convert your DVI file to PostScript in order to see the colour, either using dvips in a terminal, in WinEdt or in TeXnicCenter as described in chapter 3, or use PDFLATEX instead of \(\mathrm{EAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\).) Again you can download or view the result.

For the more adventurous: If you want to create an index as in the previous example, you will need to use the application makeindex. Suppose your source code is saved as exercise19.tex, then if you are using a terminal you will need to do:
latex exercise19.tex
makeindex exercise19.idx
latex exercise19.tex
If you are using WinEdt click the \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) button, then select Makeindex from the menu, then click on the \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) button again. If you are using TeXnicCenter, if you select the checkbox labelled "uses MakeIndex" when you create your project, TeXnicCenter will automatically call makeindex when you click on the build icon. If you have already created the project, you can modify its settings using the Project menu.

\subsection*{8.1 Defining Commands with an Optional Argument}

As mentioned earlier, the \newcommand command has a second optional argument <default>. This allows you to define a command with an optional argument. For example, suppose we want a command called, say, \(\backslash\) price. Suppose we want the following code:
[More than one optional
argument]

Input
\price\{100\}
to produce the following output:

\section*{8. DEFINING COMMANDS}

\section*{\(£ 100\) excl VAT @ \(17.5 \%\)}
and let's suppose we want an optional argument so that we can change the VAT. That is, we would want the following code:
\price[0] \{30\}
to produce the following output:
£30 excl VAT @ \(0 \%\)
Therefore we want to define a command such that if the optional argument is absent we will have 17.5, and if it is present the optional argument will be substituted instead. This command can be defined as follows:
\newcommand\{\price\}[2][17.5]\{\pounds \#2 excl VAT © \#1 \(1 \%\) \}
Here, \#1 represents the optional argument (by default 17.5) and \#2 represents the mandatory argument (the second argument if the optional argument is present, or the only argument if the optional argument is absent).

\section*{8. DEFINING COMMANDS}

As before, since the argument is unlikely to contain a paragraph break, we should indicate that it is a short command using the starred form:
```

\newcommand*{\price}[2][17.5]{£ \#2 excl VAT @ \#1\%}

```

\section*{Exercise 20 (Defining Commands with an Optional Argument)}

In this exercise, you will need to define a slightly modified version of the above example. Try defining a command called, say, \cost. It should take one optional argument and one mandatory argument. Without the optional argument, it behaves in the same way as the \price example above, so that, say,
\(\backslash \operatorname{cost}\{50\}\)
will produce

\section*{8. DEFINING COMMANDS}
but with the optional argument, you can change the excl VAT @ \(17.5 \backslash \%\) bit. So that, say,
```

\cost[inc VAT]{50}

```
will produce
\(£ 50\) inc VAT

You can download or view the solution.
For the more adventurous: If you did exercise 19 and you modified \keyword so that it indexed the keyword, you may have noticed that \keyword\{command\} and \keyword\{commands\} produced separate entries in the index. It would be better to have an optional argument to override the indexing mechanism. For example, \keyword\{command\} should print and index the word "command", whereas \keyword[command] \{commands\} should print "commands" and index "command". In other words, we need an optional argument that defaults to the mandatory argument if it is not present. This is how to achieve that type of effect:

\footnotetext{
[Optional arguments like \section]
}

TInput
```

\newcommand*{\keyword}[2][\keywordentry] {%
\def\keywordentry{\#2}%
\textsf{\#2}%
\index{\#1}}

```

In this example, the default value for the optional argument is the command \keywordentry. At the start of \(\backslash\) keyword this is defined to be the mandatory argument (as specified by \#2) using TEX's \def command:
\def\keywordentry\{\#2\}\%
(The percent symbol discards the space resulting from the end of line character.) Then typeset the keyword (given in the mandatory argument \#2) in a sans-serif font:
\textsf\{\#2\}\%
Now index the term using the optional argument (\#1):

\section*{\index\{\#1\}}

If an optional argument is specified, \#1 will be the given argument, but if the optional argument is missing, \#1 will be \keywordentry, which has earlier been set to the mandatory argument \#2.

\subsection*{8.2 Redefining Commands}

Commands can be redefined using the command:
\(\backslash\) renewcommand \(\{<c m d>\}[<n\)-args \(\rangle][<\) default \(>]\{<\) text \(\rangle\}\)
Definition

This has exactly the same format as \newcommand but is used for redefining existing commands. Caveat: never redefine a command whose existing function is unknown to you. Again there is a starred version to indicate that the command is a short command.

Recall the itemize environment discussed in section 4.3.1. You may have up to four nested itemize environments, the labels for the outer environment are specified by the command \labelitemi, the labels for the second level are specified by \labelitemii, the third by \labelitemiii and the fourth by \labelitemiv. By default, \labelitemi is a bullet point, \labelitemii is an en dash, \labelitemiii is an asterisk and \(\backslash\) labelitemiv is a dot \((\bullet-* \cdot)\). These can be changed by redefining \labelitemi etc.

Example: Recall from table 4.1 that the command \dag produces a dagger symbol, we can use this symbol instead of a bullet point:
8. DEFINING COMMANDS
\renewcommand*\{\labelitemi\}\{\dag\}
\begin\{itemize\} }
\item Animal
\item Mineral
\item Vegetable
\end\{itemize\} }
\(\qquad\)
Output:
\(\dagger\) Animal
\(\dagger\) Mineral
\(\dagger\) Vegetable
8. DEFINING COMMANDS
\(\qquad\)

Here's another example, it uses the PostScript font ZapfDingbats via the pifont package:
```

- Animal
- Mineral
- Vegetable
```

Output:

8. DEFINING COMMANDS

Animal
Mineral
Vegetable

In the above example, it would actually be better to use the dinglist environment defined in the pifont package. See The \({ }^{A} T_{E} X\) Companion [5] for more details.

You may have noticed that \(\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) automatically generates pieces of text such as "Chapter", "Figure", "Bibliography". These are generated by the commands shown in table 8.1.

You can change the defaults using \renewcommand. For example, suppose you want the table of contents to be labelled "Table of Contents", instead of the default "Contents", you would need to do:
\renewcommand*\{\contentsname\}\{Table of Contents\}

Table 8.1: Predefined Names ( \({ }^{\dagger}\) report class file, \({ }^{\ddagger}\) article class file, remainder both report and article)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Command \\
\contentsname
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Default Text \\
Contents
\end{tabular} \\
\listfigurename & List of Figures \\
\listtablename & List of Tables \\
\bibname
\end{tabular}
8. DEFINING COMMANDS

\section*{Exercise 21 (Renewing Commands)}

If you did exercises 16 and 18 , go back to that document and changed the figures and tables so that they are labelled "Fig" and "Tab" instead of "Figure" and "Table".

You can download or view the solution.

\section*{Chapter 9}

\section*{Mathematics}

As mentioned in the introduction, \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) is particularly good at typesetting mathematics. In order to use any of the maths commands we need to be in one of the mathematics environments. There are two basic types of mathematics: in-line maths and displayed maths. In-line maths is mathematics that occurs within a line of text, for example:

The variable \(x\) is transformed by the function \(f(x)\).
Displayed maths is mathematics that occurs on a line of its own. For example:

A polynomial is a function of the form
\[
f(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}
\]

This document only describes the basic mathematical commands and environments available to \(\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}\) users. For a more detailed discussion, try [13].

\subsection*{9.1 In-Line Mathematics}

In-line mathematics is created using the math environment. (Note U.S. spelling - "math" not "maths"). Example:

The variable \begin\{math\}x\end\{math\} is transformed } by the function \(\backslash\) begin\{math \(f(x)\) (end\{math .

It's somewhat cumbersome having to type \begin\{math\} and \end\{math\} } and it also makes the source code a little difficult to read so there are shorthand notations that can be used instead: \(\backslash\) ( is equivalent to \(\backslash\) begin\{math\} and \(\backslash\) ) is equivalent to \end\{math\}. So the example above can be rewrit- } ten:

The variable \(\backslash(x \backslash)\) is transformed by the function \(\backslash(f(x) \backslash)\).
There is an even shorter notation: The special character \(\$\) is equivalent to both \begin\{math\} and \end\{math\}: }

The variable \(\$ \mathrm{x} \$\) is transformed by the function \(\$ \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x}) \$\).
This is considerably easier to type and to read, but you need to make sure that all your \$ symbols have matching pairs. The above code will look like:

The variable \(x\) is transformed by the function \(f(x)\).
The other advantage in using \(\$\) over \(\backslash(\) and \(\backslash)\) is that \(\$\) is a robust command, whereas \(\backslash\) ( and \(\backslash\) ) are fragile commands and will need to be protected if they occur in a moving argument.

Note: you should always make sure you are in maths mode to typeset any variables (such as \(x, y, z\) ), as this will ensure that the correct maths fonts are used, as well as the appropriate spacing. For example, the following:

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Notice the difference between \(\$(x, y, z) \$\) and
\textit\{(x, y, z)\}.
produces:
Notice the difference between \((x, y, z)\) and \((x, y, z)\).

\subsection*{9.2 Displayed Mathematics}

Displayed mathematics can be created using either the displaymath or the equation environments. Example:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\hline A linear function is a function of the form \\
\begin\{displaymath\} } \(\\
{y=m x+c}\end{array}]\) Input
\end{tabular}

Output:
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A linear function is a function of the form
\[
y=m x+c
\]

The equation environment is the same as the displaymath environment, except that the equation is numbered. Substituting equation for displaymath in the above example:
```

A linear function is a function of the form

$$
\begin{equation}
y = mx + c
\end{equation}
$$

```
\(\qquad\)
results in the following output:
```



A linear function is a function of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=m x+c \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall from section 5.5 that we can cross-reference most things that LATEX automatically numbers using \ref and \label. Equations can be cross-referenced in the same way:

Equation ${ }^{\sim}$ \ref\{eqn:linear\} is a linear function.
\begin\{equation\} }
$\backslash$ label\{eqn:linear\}
$f(x)=m x+c$
\end\{equation\} }
$\qquad$

Equation 9.2 is a linear function.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=m x+c \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Note 5: Both the equation and the displaymath environments are only designed for one line of maths. Therefore you must not have any line breaks or paragraph breaks within them. If you want several aligned equations, you need to use another environment, such as align. This document does not cover these environments, but if you are interested see The $L^{4} T_{E} X$ Companion [5] or A Guide to $L^{A} T_{E} X$ [4].

### 9.3 Mathematical Commands

Most of the commands described in this section may only be used in one of the mathematics environments. If you try to use a mathematics command outside a maths environment you will get a "Missing \$ inserted" error message.

### 9.3.1 Maths Fonts

Just as we are able to change text fonts using the commands \textrm, \textbf etc, we can also use commands to change the maths font. Basic maths font changing commands are shown in table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Maths Font Changing Commands



Example Input \$ $\backslash$ mathrm\{xyz\}\$ \$\mathsf\{xyz\}\$
\$ $\backslash$ mathtt $\{x y z\}$ \$ \$ $\backslash$ mathit $\{x y z\}$ \$
\$ $\backslash$ mathbf $\{x y z\}$ \$
\$\mathcal\{XYZ\}\$

Corresponding Output
xyz
$x y z$
xyz
$x y z$
xyz
$\mathcal{X Y Z}$

The calligraphic fonts are only available for upper-case characters. Note that if you want actual text to appear in a maths environment you need to either use $\backslash \operatorname{mbox}\{<$ text $>\}$ :
[Better script fonts for maths]
[Text inside maths]

```
\begin{displaymath}
x > y \mbox{ and } y < z
\end{displaymath}
```

which produces

$$
x>y \text { and } y<z
$$

or the command $\backslash$ text $\{<t e x t>\}$ which is defined in the amsmath package:

```
\begin{displaymath}
x > y \text{ and } y < z
\end{displaymath}
```

which again produces

$$
x>y \text { and } y<z
$$

The advantage of using \text rather than $\backslash$ mbox is that $\backslash$ text adjusts the font size if it occurs in a subscript or superscript. For example, the following code

```
\begin{displaymath}
x^{\mbox{new}} = x^{\text{old}} + b
\end{displaymath}
```

produces:

$$
x^{\text {new }}=x^{\text {old }}+b
$$

The word "new" (typeset using \mbox) is in the normal sized font, whereas the word "old" (typeset using \text) is in the appropriate superscript sized font.

Table 9.2 lists additional font commands supplied with the amsmath and amsfonts packages. Note that there are several types of bold commands in the table:

- \mathbb (blackboard bold) is typically used to denote the set of naturals, integers, real or complex numbers. For example \mathbb\{N\}.
- \boldsymbol produces italic bold for letters (unlike \mathbf which produces upright bold) and produces upright bold for symbols (including Greek letters).
- \pmb (poor man's bold) produces a bold effect by overlaying multiple copies of the symbol each slightly offset from the previous.

See the amsmath and amsfonts user manuals for further details regarding these commands, as well as other commands not covered here.

Table 9.2: The amsfonts ${ }^{\ddagger}$ and amsmath ${ }^{\dagger}$ Font Commands

| Command | Example Input | Example Output |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\ddagger \backslash$ mathbb $\{<$ math $s>\}$ | \$\mathbb\{A\}\$ | $\mathbb{A}$ |
| $\ddagger \backslash \operatorname{mathfrak}\{<$ math $s>\}$ | $\$ \backslash \operatorname{mathfrak\{ A\} \$ }$ | $\mathfrak{A}$ |
| $\dagger \backslash$ boldsymbol $\{<$ math $s>\}$ | $\$ \backslash$ boldsymbol $\{\backslash$ geq $\} \$$ | $\geq$ |
| $\dagger \backslash$ pmb $\{<$ symbol $>\}$ | $\$ \backslash$ pmb $\{>\} \$$ | $>$ |

### 9.3.2 Greek Letters

Greek letters that differ from the corresponding Roman letter are obtained by placing a backslash in front of the name. ${ }^{1}$ Lower case Greek letters are

[^19]shown in table 9.3 and upper case Greek letters are shown in table 9.4.

Table 9.3: Lower Case Greek Letters

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

There are also some variants of certain symbols, such as \vartheta as opposed to \theta.

### 9.3.3 Subscripts and Superscripts

Subscripts are obtained either by the command

Table 9.4: Upper Case Greek Letters

| $\backslash$ Gamma | $\Gamma$ | $\backslash$ Delta | $\Delta$ | $\backslash$ Theta | $\Theta$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| \Lambda | $\Lambda$ | $\backslash$ Xi | $\Xi$ | $\backslash$ Pi | $\Pi$ |
| \Sigma | $\Sigma$ | $\backslash$ Upsilon | $\Upsilon$ | $\backslash$ Phi | $\Phi$ |
| $\backslash$ Psi | $\Psi$ | $\backslash$ Dmega | $\Omega$ |  |  |

$\backslash \mathrm{sb}\{<$ maths $>\}$
or by the special character:
_\{<maths>\}
Superscripts are obtained either by the command
$\backslash \mathrm{sp}\{<$ math $\gg\}$
or by the special character:

- \{<maths $>\}$

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Examples:

1. This example uses $\backslash \mathrm{sb}$ and $\backslash \mathrm{sp}$ :

```
\begin{displaymath}
y = x\sb{1}\sp{2} + x\sb{2}\sp{2}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$
2. This example uses _ and ^
$$
\begin{displaymath}
\begin{displaymath}
y = x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2}
y = x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2}
\end{displaymath}
\end{displaymath}
$$
$\qquad$
3. Recall from page 21 that mandatory arguments only consisting of one character don't need to be grouped, so the above code can also be written as:

\begin\{displaymath\} }
$\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{x} \_1^{\wedge} 2+\mathrm{x} \mathrm{R}^{\wedge} 2$
\end\{displaymath\} }


This is simpler than the first two examples. All three of the above examples produce the same output:

$$
y=x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}
$$

4. Subscripts and superscripts can also be nested (note that it is now necessary to group the argument to the superscript command):
```
\begin{displaymath}
f(x) = e^{x_1}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$
which produces

$$
f(x)=e^{x_{1}}
$$

This example is slightly incorrect as e isn't actually a variable and shouldn't be typeset in italic. The correct way to do this is:


```
\begin{displaymath}
f(x) = \mathrm{e}^{x_1}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$
which results in:

$$
f(x)=\mathrm{e}^{x_{1}}
$$

If you are going to use e a lot, it will be simpler to define a new command to do this. The definition should go in the preamble:

\newcommand $\{\backslash e\}\{\backslash$ mathrm $\{e\}\}$
$\square$

Then it can be used in the document:


```
\begin{displaymath}
f(x_1, x_2) = \e^{x_1^2} + \e^{x_2^2}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\mathrm{e}^{x_{1}^{2}}+\mathrm{e}^{x_{2}^{2}}
$$

### 9.3.4 Functional Names

Functions such as log and tan can't simply be typed in as log or tan otherwise they will come out looking like the variables $l$ times o times $g$ (log) or times a times $n$ (tan). Instead you should use one of the commands listed in table 9.5.

Table 9.5: Function Names

| \arccos | \arcsin | \arctan | \arg | \cos | \cosh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| \cot | \coth | \csc | \deg | \det | \dim |
| \exp | \gcd | \hom | \inf | \ker | \lg |
| \lim | \liminf | \limsup | \ln | \log | $\backslash \operatorname{liax}$ |
| \min | $\backslash \operatorname{Pr}$ | $\backslash s e c$ | \sin | \sinh | \sup |
| \tan | \tanh |  |  |  |  |

Of these functions, the following functions can have limits by using the subscript command _ or the superscript command ${ }^{\wedge}$ :
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$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\backslash \operatorname{det} & \backslash \text { gcd } & \backslash i n f & \backslash \lim & \backslash l i m i n f \\
\backslash \text { limsup } & \backslash \max & \backslash \min & \backslash \operatorname{Pr} & \backslash \text { sup }
\end{array}
$$

Examples:

1. This example uses the cos and sin functions and also the Greek letter theta.

```
\begin{displaymath}
z = r(\cos0 + i\sin0)
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$
2. This example has a limit. The command \infty is the infinity symbol $\infty$, and the command \to displays an arrow pointing to the right. Note the use of - since the limit is a subscript.

```
\begin{displaymath}
\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x)
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)
$$

The operators with limits behave differently depending on whether they are in displayed or in-line maths. Notice the difference when the same code appears in-line:

In a line of text $\$ \backslash l_{\text {l }}\{x \backslash t o \backslash i n f t y\} ~ f(x) \$$
which now displays as:

In a line of text $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$
3. This is another example of a functional name using a subscript:
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\min_x f(x)
\end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$

$$
\min _{x} f(x)
$$

Again, notice the difference when it is used in-line:

In a line of text $\$ \backslash \min _{\mathrm{z}} \mathrm{x} f(\mathrm{x}) \$$

In a line of text $\min _{x} f(x)$

In addition, the following commands are also available:

| Command | Example Input | Example Output |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\backslash$ bmod | $\$ \mathrm{~m} \backslash \operatorname{bmod} \mathrm{n} \$$ | $m \bmod n$ |
| $\backslash \operatorname{pmod}\{<$ maths $>\}$ | $\$ \mathrm{~m} \backslash \operatorname{pmod}\{\mathrm{n}\} \$$ | $m(\bmod n)$ |

If you want a function that isn't specified in table 9.5 , you can define a new function using the command
\DeclareMathOperator $\{<c m d\rangle\}\{<$ operator name $\rangle\}$
which is defined in the amsopn package. There is also a starred version of this command which will define a new function that can take limits (like $\backslash$ lim and $\backslash \min$ described above)
$\backslash$ DeclareMathOperator*\{<cmd>\}\{<operator name>\}
Note that both forms of \DeclareMathOperator can only be used in the preamble. The first argument $\langle c m d\rangle$ is the name of the new command to produce this function (so it must start with a backslash), and the second

Definition
[Defining a new
log-like function in $\mathrm{LaTeX}]$ argument is the name of the function.

Examples

1. Suppose we want a function called card, which represents the cardinality of a set $\mathcal{S}$, we first define the new function (which I'm going to call \card):
```
\DeclareMathOperator{\card}{card}
```

(Remember the above must be done in the preamble.) Now I can use this new function:

\begin\{displaymath\} }
$\mathrm{n}=\backslash \operatorname{card}(\backslash$ mathcal $\{\mathrm{S}\})$ \end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

$$
n=\operatorname{card}(\mathcal{S})
$$

In this example \mathcal is used as sets are usually represented in a calligraphic font.
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2. Let's have an example of an operator that takes a limit. Firstly, the following line needs to go in the preamble:

```
\DeclareMathOperator*{\mode}{mode}
```

Then the following can go in the document:

\begin\{displaymath\} }
x_m = \mode_\{x \in \mathcal\{S\}\}(x)
\end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$
which results in:

$$
x_{m}=\underset{x \in \mathcal{S}}{\operatorname{mode}}(x)
$$

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### 9.3.5 Fractions

Fractions are created using the command
$\backslash$ frac $\{<$ numerator $>\}\{<$ denominator $>\}$

Examples:

1. A simple fraction:
$\overline{\text { Input }}$
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\frac\{1\}\{1+x\}
\end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$
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3. A nested fraction:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\frac{1+\frac{1}{x}}{1+x+x^2}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
\frac{1+\frac{1}{x}}{1+x+x^{2}}
$$

3. A derivative:
\begin\{displaymath\} }
f'(x) = \frac\{df\}\{dx\}
\end\{displaymath\} }

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{d f}{d x}
$$

Again, as with e, the differential operator ' $d$ ' should be in an upright font as it is not a variable:


```
\begin{displaymath}
f'(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}x}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d} f}{\mathrm{~d} x}
$$

4. The above example is rather cumbersome, particularly if you have a lot of derivatives, so it might be easier to define a new command. In the preamble define:
```
\newcommand{\deriv}[2]{\frac{\mathrm{d}#1}{\mathrm{d}#2}}
```

Then in the document:


```
\begin{displaymath}
f'(x) = \deriv{f}{x}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$ ｣

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d} f}{\mathrm{~d} x}
$$

5. Partial derivatives can be obtained similarly using the command \partial to display the partial derivative symbol. As in the previous example, first define a new command to format a partial derivative in the preamble:
\newcommand\{\pderiv\}[2]\{\frac\{\partial \#1\}\{\partial \#2\}\}

Then in the document:


```
\begin{displaymath}
f_x = \pderiv{f}{x}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
f_{x}=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}
$$

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10. A double partial derivative:
```
\begin{displaymath}
f_{xy} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
f_{x y}=\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x \partial y}
$$

### 9.3.6 Roots

Roots are obtained using the command
\sqrt $[<$ order $>]\{<$ maths $>\}$

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without the optional argument <order> it will produce a simple square root. Cubic roots etc can be obtained using the optional argument.

Examples:

1. A square root:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\sqrt{a+b}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
\sqrt{a+b}
$$

2. A cubic root:
3. MATHEMATICS
```
\begin{displaymath}
\sqrt[3]{a+b}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
\sqrt[3]{a+b}
$$

3. An $n$th root:
$\square$
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\sqrt[n] \{a+b\}
\end\{displaymath\} }

$$
\sqrt[n]{a+b}
$$

### 9.3.7 Mathematical Symbols

Relational symbols are shown in table 9.6. If you want a negation that is not shown, you can obtain it by preceding the symbol with the command $\backslash$ not. For example: $\backslash$ not $\backslash$ subset produces the symbol $\not \subset$.
[Where can I find the symbol for ...]

Table 9.6: Relational Symbols

| \approx | $\approx$ | \asymp | $\asymp$ | \bowtie |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \cong | $\cong$ | $\backslash$ dashv | $\dashv$ | $\backslash$ doteq |
| \equiv | 三 | \frown | $\bigcirc$ | $\backslash \mathrm{ge} \mathrm{or} \mathrm{\ geq}$ |
| $\backslash \mathrm{gg}$ | > | \in | $\epsilon$ | $\backslash \mathrm{le}$ or \leq |
| $\backslash 11$ | $\ll$ | $\backslash$ mid or \| | 1 | $\backslash$ \models |
| $\backslash$ neq | $\neq$ | $\backslash \mathrm{ni}$ | $\ni$ | $\backslash$ notin |
| \parallel | \|| | $\backslash \mathrm{prec}$ | $\prec$ | $\backslash$ preceq |
| $\backslash$ perp | $\perp$ | $\backslash$ propto | $\propto$ | \sim |
| \simeq | $\simeq$ | \smile | $\smile$ | \sqsubseteq |
| \sqsupseteq | $\sqsupseteq$ | $\backslash$ subset | $\subset$ | \subseteq |
| \succ | $\succ$ | $\backslash$ succeq | $\succeq$ | $\backslash$ supset |
| $\backslash$ supseteq | $\supseteq$ | \vdash | $\vdash$ |  |

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Binary operator signals are shown in table 9.7, and arrow symbols are shown in table 9.8.

Table 9.7: Binary Operator Symbols

| \amalg | Ш | \ast | * | $\backslash$ bullet |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\backslash \mathrm{bigcirc}$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\backslash$ bigtriangledown | $\nabla$ | $\backslash$ bigtriangleup |
| \cap | $\cap$ | \cdot |  | \circ |
| \cup | $\cup$ | \dagger | $\dagger$ | \ddagger |
| \diamond | $\diamond$ | $\backslash$ div | $\div$ | $\backslash \mathrm{mp}$ |
| \odot | $\odot$ | $\backslash$ \ominus | $\ominus$ | \oplus |
| \oslash | $\bigcirc$ | \otimes | $\otimes$ | \pm |
| $\backslash$ \etminus | 1 | \sqcap | $\square$ | \sqcup |
| \star | * | $\backslash$ times | $\times$ | \triangleleft |
| \triangleright | $\stackrel{ }{ }$ | \uplus | $\uplus$ | \vee |
| \wedge | $\wedge$ | \wr | 2 |  |

Symbols that can have limits are shown in table 9.9. The size of these symbols depends on whether they are in displayed maths or in-line maths. Examples:

Table 9.8: Arrow Symbols

| \downarrow | $\downarrow$ | \Downarrow | $\Downarrow$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \hookleftarrow | $\leftarrow$ | \hookrightarrow | $\hookrightarrow$ |
| \leftarrow or \gets | $\leftarrow$ | \Leftarrow | $\Leftarrow$ |
| $\backslash \mathrm{leftharpoondown}$ | $\leftharpoondown$ | $\backslash$ leftharpoonup | ᄃ |
| \leftrightarrow | $\leftrightarrow$ | \Leftrightarrow | $\Leftrightarrow$ |
| \longleftarrow | $\longleftarrow$ | \Longleftarrow | $\Longleftarrow$ |
| \longleftrightarrow | $\longleftrightarrow$ | \Longleftrightarrow | $\Longleftrightarrow$ |
| \longmapsto | $\longmapsto$ | \longrightarrow |  |
| \Longrightarrow | $\Longrightarrow$ | $\backslash$ mapsto | $\mapsto$ |
| $\backslash$ nearrow | $\nearrow$ | \nwarrow | $\checkmark$ |
| $\backslash$ rightarrow or \to | $\rightarrow$ | $\backslash$ Rightarrow | $\Rightarrow$ |
| $\backslash$ rightharpoondown | $\checkmark$ | $\backslash$ rightharpoonup | $\square$ |
| $\backslash$ rightleftharpoons | $\rightleftharpoons$ | \searrow | $\searrow$ |
| \swarrow | $\checkmark$ | \uparrow | $\uparrow$ |
| \Uparrow | 介 | \updownarrow | $\downarrow$ |
| \Updownarrow | I |  |  |

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Table 9.9: Symbols with Limits

| \sum | $\sum$ | \int | $\int$ | loint | $\oint$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| \prod | $\Pi$ | \coprod | $\amalg$ | \bigcap | $\cap$ |
| \bigcup | $\cup$ | \bigsqcup | $\sqcup$ | \bigvee | $\vee$ |
| \bigwedge | $\wedge$ | \bigodot | $\bigodot$ | \bigotimes | $\otimes$ |
| \bigoplus | $\oplus$ | \biguplus | $\biguplus$ |  |  |

1. Displayed Maths
```
\begin{displaymath}
f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$
9. MATHEMATICS

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}+\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}
$$

2. In-line Maths
$$
\begin{math}
\begin{math}
f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i
f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i
\end{math}
\end{math}
$$
$\downarrow$ 」

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}+\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}
$$

It is possible to stack subscripts or superscripts using
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For example:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\sum_{i\in\mathcal{I} \atop i \neq 0} x_i
\end{displaymath}
```

which produces:


Ellipsis commands (omission marks) are shown in table 9.10. Examples:

1. Low ellipsis: This example uses the command $\backslash$ forall to produce the "for all" symbol $\forall$, and it also uses $\_{\bullet}$ (backslash space) to make a space before the for all symbol:

Table 9.10: Ellipses

```
\ldots ... \cdots ...
\vdots \vdots \ddots }\ddots
```

\begin\{displaymath\} }
a_ix_i = b_i \ \forall i = 1, ···, n \end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$

$$
a_{i} x_{i}=b_{i} \forall i=1, \ldots, n
$$

2. Centred ellipsis:
\begin\{displaymath\} } y = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n \end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$

$$
y=a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}
$$

For other common symbol commands, see $A$ Guide to $L^{A} T_{E} X$ [4] or The LATEX Companion [5]. For a comprehensive list of symbols see The Comprehensive $L^{A} T_{E} X$ Symbol List by Scott Pakin et al. which is available from CTAN [8].

## Exercise 22 (Maths: Fractions and Symbols)

This exercise uses a fraction, a square root, subscripts, superscripts and symbols. Try reproducing the following output:
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The quadratic equation

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{2} a_{i} x^{i}=0
$$

has solutions given by

$$
x=\frac{-a_{1} \pm \sqrt{a_{1}^{2}-4 a_{2} a_{0}}}{2 a_{2}}
$$

Again you can download or view the solution.

### 9.3.8 Delimiters

Placing brackets around a tall object in maths mode, such as fractions, does not look right if you use normal sized brackets. For example:
\begin\{displaymath\} }
( $\backslash$ frac $\{1\}\{1+x\}$ )
\end\{displaymath\} }
results in:

$$
\left(\frac{1}{1+x}\right)
$$

Under such circumstances, it is better to use the commands:
\left<delimiter>
and
\right<delimiter>
Note that you must always have matching \left and $\backslash$ right commands, although the delimiters used may be different. If you want one of the delimiters to be invisible, use a . (full stop) as the delimiter. Available delimiters are shown in table 9.11.
Examples:

Table 9.11: Delimiters


1. Round bracket delimiters:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\left(
\frac{1}{1+x}
\right)
\end{displaymath}
```

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$$
\left(\frac{1}{1+x}\right)
$$

2. Vertical bar delimiters:
```
\begin\{displaymath\} } \left|
\frac{1}{1+x}
\right|
\end{displaymath}
```


$\qquad$

$$
\left|\frac{1}{1+x}\right|
$$

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10. Delimiters don't have to match:
```
\begin{displaymath}
\left[\frac{1}{1+x}\right\rangle
\end{displaymath}
```

|  | $\left\lfloor\frac{1}{1+x}\right\rangle$ nnput |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | Output |

4. An invisible delimiter:

```
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\left.
\frac\{\partial f\}\{\partial x\}

〒Input
9. MATHEMATICS
```

\right \_{x=0}
\end{displaymath}

```
\(\qquad\)
\[
\left.\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right|_{x=0}
\]

We have now learnt enough to reproduce the equation shown in chapter 1:
\newcommand\{\pderiv\}[2]\{\frac\{\partial \#1\}\{\partial \#2\}\} \newcommand\{\e\}\{\mathrm\{e\}\}
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\pderiv\{^2\mathcal\{L\}\}\{\{z_i^\rho\}^2\} =
- \(\backslash\) pderiv\{\rho_i\}\{z_i^\rho\}
\left(
9. MATHEMATICS
```

\pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i} \frac{\e^{v_i}}{1-\e^{v_i}}

+ v_i \frac{\e^{v_i}\pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i}(1-\e^{v_i})
+\e^{2v_i}\pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i}}{(1-\e^{v_i})^2}
\right)
\end{displaymath}

```
\[
\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial z_{i}^{\rho^{2}}}=-\frac{\partial \rho_{i}}{\partial z_{i}^{\rho}}\left(\frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}}{1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}}+v_{i} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}\right)+\mathrm{e}^{2 v_{i}} \frac{\partial v_{i}}{\partial \rho_{i}}}{\left(1-\mathrm{e}^{v_{i}}\right)^{2}}\right)
\]

Note 6: The above code looks a bit complicated, and there are so many braces that it can be easy to lose track, so here are some ways of making it a little easier to type:
1. Whenever you start a new environment type in the \(\backslash\) begin and \end bits first, and then insert whatever goes inside the environment. This ensures that you always have a matching \begin and \end.
2. Whenever you type any braces, always type the opening and closing braces first, and then insert whatever goes in between. This will ensure that your braces always match up.

So keeping these notes in mind, let's try typing in the code in a methodical manner:
1. Start the displaymath environment:
\begin\{displaymath\} } \end\{displaymath\} }
\(\qquad\)
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2. We now need a partial derivative (remember to define \pderiv in the preamble as we did earlier):
```

\pderiv{}{}
\end{displaymath}

```
3. Let's do the first argument. This partial derivative is actually a double derivative, which means we need a squared bit on the top along with a calligraphic L :
```

\ FInput
$$
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{}
\end{displaymath}
$$

```
\(\qquad\)
4. The second argument is the \(z_{i}^{\rho}\) squared bit. This is a nested superscript \(\left\{z_{-} i^{\wedge} \backslash \text { rho }\right\}^{\wedge} 2\) :
```

\Input
$$
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2}
\end{displaymath}
$$

```
\(\qquad\)
5. We can do the next partial derivative in the same way. This one is slightly easier to do:
```

$$
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
\end{displaymath}
$$
6. Delimiters also need to occur in pairs, like curly braces and \begin } and \end, so let's do them next:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
    \left(
    \right)
\end{displaymath}
L \
7. Now we need to do the bits inside the brackets. First of all we have yet another partial derivative:
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
    \left(
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```

            \pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i}
    \right)
    \end{displaymath}

```
\(\qquad\)
8. Now we have a fraction:
```

\
$$
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
    \left(
        \pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i} \frac{\e^{v_i}}{1-\e^{v_i}}
    \right)
\end{displaymath}
$$
9. This is followed by $v_{i}$ times another fraction:

```
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
    \left(
        \pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i} \frac{\e^{v_i}}{1-\e^{v_i}}
        + v_i \frac{}{}
    \right)
\end{displaymath}
L 」
10. This fraction is quite complicated. The bottom part of the fraction is easier than the top, so let's do that first:
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2 \mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
    \left(
9. MATHEMATICS
```

    \pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i} \frac{\e^{v_i}}{1-\e^{v_i}}
    + v_i \frac{}{(1-\e^{v_i})^2}
    \right)
    \end{displaymath}

```
\(\qquad\)
11. Now it's time for the top part of the fraction. It's a bit complicated, so let's break it down:
(a) The first term is:
\e^\{v_i\}
(b) The next term is another partial derivative:
\pderiv\{v_i\}\{\rho_i\}
(c) Then we have:
(1-\e^\{v_i\})
(d) Next we have to add on:
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\[
+\backslash e^{\wedge}\left\{2 v_{-} i\right\}
\]
(e) And finally we have the last term:
\pderiv\{v_i\}\{\rho_i\}
12. Putting it all together, we have:
```

                                    TInput
    $$
\begin{displaymath}
\pderiv{^2\mathcal{L}}{{z_i^\rho}^2} =
-\pderiv{\rho_i}{z_i^\rho}
\left(
    \pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i} \frac{\e^{v_i}}{1-\e^{v_i}}
    + v_i \frac{\e^{v_i}\pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i}(1-\e^{v_i})
        +\e^{2v_i}\pderiv{v_i}{\rho_i}}{(1-\e^{v_i})^2}
\right)
\end{displaymath}
$$
13. And remember that if you haven't already defined \pderiv and $\backslash e$, you will need to do that in the preamble

```
\
```

$\qquad$ $\downarrow$ Input
(Note that if we hadn't defined these two commands, the code would have had to have been far more complicated.)

### 9.3.9 Arrays

Mathematical structures such as matrices and vectors require elements to be arranged in rows and columns. Just as we can align material in rows and columns in text mode using the tabular environment, we can do the same in maths mode using the array environment. The array environment has the same format as the tabular environment, however it must be in maths mode. Examples:

1. A simple array, all three columns are right justified:
2. MATHEMATICS
```
\begin{displaymath}
\begin{array}{rrr}
0 & 1 & 19\\
-6 & 10 & 200
\end{array}
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$ 1

| 0 | 1 | 19 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| -6 | 10 | 200 |

2. Let's add some delimiters:

\begin\{displaymath\} }
3. MATHEMATICS
```
\left(
\begin{array}{rrr}
0 & 1 & 19\\
-6 & 10 & 200
\end{array}
\right)
\end{displaymath}
```

$\qquad$

$$
\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
0 & 1 & 19 \\
-6 & 10 & 200
\end{array}\right)
$$

3. This example uses an invisible delimiter:
```
\begin\{displaymath\} }
\(f(x)=\)
\left\\{ }
```

$\square$
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```
\begin\{array\}\{rl\} }
\(-1 \& x\) < \(0 \backslash \backslash\)
0 \& \(x=0 \backslash \backslash\)
+1 \& x > 0
\end\{array\} }
\right.
\end\{displaymath\} }
```

$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{rl}
-1 & x<0 \\
0 & x=0 \\
+1 & x>0
\end{array}\right.
$$

### 9.3.10 Vectors

Vectors can be produced using the command:
\vec\{<variable>\}
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Example:
\begin\{displaymath\} }
$\backslash$ vec $\{x\}$
\end\{displaymath\} }
$\qquad$

These days it is customary to typeset vectors in bold. This can be done by redefining the \vec command. You could use \mathbf, for example:
[1]\{\mathbf\{\#1\}\}
\begin\{displaymath\} }
$\backslash$ vec $\{x\} \backslash c d o t \backslash v e c\{\backslash x i\}=z$
\end\{displaymath\} }

$$
\mathbf{x} \cdot \xi=z
$$

however, as you may have noticed, the Greek letter $\xi$ has not come out in bold. Here's an alternative (using \boldsymbol defined in the amsfonts package):


```
\renewcommand{\vec} [1]{\boldsymbol{#1}}
\begin{displaymath}
\vec{x}\cdot\vec{\xi} = z
\end{displaymath}
```

$$
\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\xi}=z
$$

## Exercise 23 (Maths: Vectors and Arrays)

Try to produce the following:

$$
\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
2 & 3
\end{array}\right)\binom{1}{2}=\binom{2}{8}=\boldsymbol{y}
$$

As before, you can download or view the solution.

### 9.3.11 Mathematical Spacing

LATEX deals with mathematical spacing fairly well, but sometimes you may find you want to adjust the spacing yourself. Available spacing commands are listed in table 9.12.

## Exercise 24 (More Mathematics)

This exercise uses the spacing command \qquad. It also has a func-
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Table 9.12: Mathematical Spacing Commands

| Command | Example Input | Example Output |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\$ \mathrm{AB} \$$ | $A B$ |
| thinspace or $\backslash$, | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash, \mathrm{~B} \$$ | $A B$ |
| \medspace or $\backslash:$ | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash \mathrm{~B} \$$ | $A B$ |
| \thickspace or $\backslash ;$ | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash \mathrm{~B} \$$ | $A B$ |
| \quad | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash$ quad $\mathrm{B} \$$ | $A \quad B$ |
| \qquad | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash$ qquad $\mathrm{B} \$$ | $A \quad B$ |
| \negthinspace or $\backslash!$ | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash!\mathrm{B} \$$ | $A B$ |
| \negmedspace | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash$ negmedspace $\mathrm{B} \$$ | $A B$ |
| \negthickspace | $\$ \mathrm{~A} \backslash$ negthickspace $\mathrm{B} \$$ | $A B$ |

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tion name, diag, and it uses the \forall and ellipses symbols. It also redefines the \vec command, as was done in the previous section, and it uses delimiters and the array environment, as well as using subscripts and superscripts.

Try to reproduce the following output:

The set of linear equations:

$$
a_{i} x_{i}=b_{i} \quad \forall i=1, \ldots, n
$$

can be written as a matrix equation:

$$
\operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{a}) \boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{b}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T}, \boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)^{T}$ and

$$
\operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{a})=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

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Again, you can download or view the solution.

## Chapter 10

## Defining Environments

Just as you can define new commands, you can also define new environments. The command
\newenvironment $\{<e n v$-name $>\}[<n$-args $>][<$ default $>]\{<$ begincode $>\}\{<e n d$-code $>\}$
is used to define a new environment. As with new commands, you can use the optional argument $<n$-args $>$ to define an environment with arguments, and <default $>$ to define an environment with an optional argument.

The first argument <env-name> is the name of your new environment. Remember that the environment name must not have a backslash. The mandatory arguments <begin-code $>$ and $<$ end-code $>$ indicate what ${ }^{\mathrm{LA}} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ should do at the beginning and end of the environment. Let's first consider an example of an environment without any arguments. Let's make an environment called, say, exercise that prints Exercise in bold and typesets the contents of the environment in italic. In other words, we
want the following code:

|  |
| :--- |
| \begin\{exercise\} } $\\ {\text { This is a sample. }} \\ {\text { \end\{exercise\} } }\end{array}$ |

to produce the following output:

## Exercise

This is a sample.
$\qquad$
Let's first consider what we want this environment to do: we can get the word "Exercise" in bold by simply doing \textbf\{Exercise\}, and the italic font can be obtained by using the itshape environment. So, at the start of our new environment we need to do \textbf\{Exercise\} and we need to begin the itshape environment, and at the end of our new environment we need to end the itshape environment:

```
\newenvironment{exercise}% environment name
{\textbf{Exercise}\begin{itshape}}% begin code
{\end{itshape}}% end code
```

Let's try it out:
$\square$
\begin\{exercise\} }
This is a sample.
\end\{exercise\} }

Exercise This is a sample.
Not quite right. Let's put a paragraph break after Exercise, and put one before it as well. The command \par can be used to make a paragraph break:

```
\newenvironment{exercise}% environment name
{\par\textbf{Exercise}\begin{itshape}\par}% begin code
{\end{itshape}}%
    end code
```

Let's have a look at the output now:


One more thing, we need to remove the paragraph indentation. This can be done using the command \noindent:


The exercise environment now appears as:

| Exercise | 〒Output |
| :--- | :--- |
| This is a sample. | $\downarrow$ Output |

Now let's modify our code so that the environment takes an argument. The argument should indicate the exercise topic. For example, the following code:
\begin\{exercise\}\{An Example\} } $\\{\text { This is a sample. }} \\{\text { \end\{exercise\} } } \\{ }\end{array}$
should produce the following result:

## Exercise (An Example)

This is a sample.
$\qquad$
As with \newcommand, \#1 is used to indicate the first argument. We can now modify the code as follows (modifications are indicated like this):

\newenvironment\{exercise\} [1] \%
$\{\backslash$ par $\backslash$ noindent $\backslash$ textbf $\{$ Exercise (\#1) $\} \backslash$ begin\{itshape $\} \backslash$ par $\backslash$ noindent $\} \%$ \{\end\{itshape\}\} }

Note 7: When you define a new environment called <name>, $\backslash$ newenvironment creates the commands $\backslash<n a m e>$ and $\backslash e n d<n a m e>$, so when you define a new environment, make sure that you don't give it the same name as an existing command. Likewise, when you define a new command, you need to make sure that there is no environment of the same name. When $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ encounters \begin\{<name>\} it implements } \backslash < n a m e > (as well as some other stuff, such as starting a group) and when $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ encounters \end\{<name>\}, it implements the } command \end<name> if it exists (and also does some other stuff, such as ending the group). This is why declarations such as \bfseries can also be used as an environment of the same name without the backslash. You can't however use a text-block command, such as \textbf, as an environment. ${ }^{1}$

[^20] \backslash end\{textbf\}, but only the $S$ would appear in bold, since it is approximately the same as \{\textbf Some text\}. Whilst you can do \begin\{textbf\}\{Some text\} \end\{textbf\}, it is much more efficient } to type \textbf\{Some text\}.
}

So the above example, creates two commands: \exercise (which takes an argument) and \endexercise (which doesn't take an argument). However, don't be tempted to use \exercise and \endexercise explicitly as you will miss out on $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ 's \begin/\end checking mechanism, and you will not be able to benefit from the implicit grouping resulting from using an environment. If you are not sure if something is supposed to be used as a command or as an environment then check your reference manuals, or package documentation if it is defined in a package.

## Exercise 25 (Defining a New Environment)

If you did any of the exercises from exercise 9 to exercise 18, go back to the document you created and define the exercise environment as in the example above. Then try creating some exercises using this environment. You could, maybe, put an exercise in the first chapter, and then another one in the second chapter.

Then try modifying the environment so that it puts a bit of vertical space before and after the environment using \vspace\{<length>\}. Again you can download or view an example.

## 10. DEFINING ENVIRONMENTS

## Chapter 11

## Counters

As we have seen, $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ automatically generates numbers for chapters, sections, equations etc. These numbers are stored in counters. The names of these counters are usually the same as the name of the object with which it is associated but without any backslash. For example, the \chapter command has an associated counter called chapter, the \footnote command has an associated counter called footnote, the equation environment has an associated counter called equation, the figure environment has an associated counter called figure and the table environment has an associated counter called table. There is also a counter called page that keeps track of the current page number.

The value of a counter can be displayed using the command
\the<counter $>$
Definition
where <counter> is the name of the associated counter. Note that <counter> does not go in curly braces and adjoins \the (e.g. \thepage, \thesection, [Page number \thechapter). Example:
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This page is Page ${ }^{\sim}$ thepage. The current chapter is Chapter ${ }^{\sim} \backslash$ thechapter.
produces:
This page is Page 317. The current chapter is Chapter 11.
New counters can be created using the command:
\newcounter\{<counter-name $>\}$ [<outer-counter $>]$
The mandatory argument <counter-name> is the name of your new counter (no backslash in the name). For example, let's define a counter called exercise to keep track of each exercise.
\newcounter\{exercise\}
We can now display the value of the counter using the command $\backslash$ theexercise. At the moment the counter has the value zero, the value can be changed using one of the following commands:

## 11. COUNTERS

\stepcounter $\{<$ counter $>\} \quad$ Increments <counter $>$ by 1
$\backslash$ refstepcounter $\{<$ counter $>\}$
As above, but allows you to crossreference the counter using $\backslash$ label and \ref
\setcounter $\{<$ counter $>\}\{<$ num $>\}$ Sets the counter to $<$ num $>$
\addtocounter\{<counter $>$ \}\{<num $>\}$ Adds $<$ num $>$ to $<$ counter $>$
A couple of the commands above take a number $\langle n u m>$ as one of the arguments. If you want to use another counter for this argument, you need to use
\value $\{<$ counter $>\}$
For example, if you want to set our new exercise counter to the same value as the page counter, you would do
\setcounter\{exercise\}\{\value\{page\}\}
Let's go back to the exercise environment you created in exercise 25 . The exercises really ought to have an associated number, and this number

## 11. COUNTERS

should be incremented each time we use the exercise environment. So let's modify our code to do this. Modifications are illustrated like this:
\newcounter\{exercise\}
\newenvironment\{exercise\}[1]\%
$\{\backslash$ refstepcounter\{exercise\}\vspace\{10pt\}\par\noindent
$\backslash$ textbf\{Exercise \theexercise\ (\#1)\}
\begin\{itshape\} } \backslash par \backslash noindent \backslash vspace\{10pt \} \}\%
\{\end\{itshape\}\vspace\{10pt\}\par\} }

Note that the counter needs to be incremented before it is used. Since we've used $\backslash$ refstepcounter instead of $\backslash$ stepcounter we can cross-reference our exercise environment:

Exercise~\ref\{ex:simple\} is a simple exercise.
\begin\{exercise\}\{Simple Exercise\}\% }
\label\{ex:simple\}\%
11. COUNTERS

This is a simple exercise.
\end\{exercise\} }
$\qquad$
(Why are there percent symbols at the end of some of the lines? What would happen without them?) This produces the following output:

Exercise 1 is a simple exercise.
[There's a
space added
after my
environment]
〒output

Exercise 1 (Simple Exercise)
This is a simple exercise.
$\qquad$

The counter representation can be changed by redefining \theexercise using the command  \quad\) Arabic number (1, 2, 3, ...)
$\backslash$ Roman $\{<$ counter $>\} \quad$ Uppercase Roman numeral (I, II, III, ...)

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```
\roman{<counter>} Lowercase Roman numeral (i, ii, iii,...)
\alph{<counter>} Lowercase letter (a, b, c, ..., z)
\Alph{<counter>} Uppercase letter (A, B, C, ..., Z)
\fnsymbol{<counter>} A footnote symbol (*†\ddagger§ \| | ** \dagger\dagger \ddagger\ddagger)
```

For example, to make the chapter numbers appear as uppercase Roman numerals you would do:
\{\Roman\{chapter\}\}

Input
[Master and slave counters] numbers in the report class are dependent on the chapter numbers. Each time a new chapter is started, the section numbers are reset. Suppose we want our exercise counter to be dependent on the chapter counter, we would do
11. COUNTERS

We now need to modify \theexercise so that it includes the chapter number:
\{\thechapter.\arabic\{exercise\}\}
Notice the use of \thechapter instead of, say, \arabic\{chapter\}. By using \thechapter we don't need to keep track of the chapter counter format.

## Exercise 26 (Using Counters)

Modify the document from exercise 25 so that the exercise environment has a counter. Make the counter dependent on the chapter. You can download or view an example.

## Chapter 12

## Lengths

Lengths are commands that store dimensions (such as $1 \mathrm{in}, 5 \mathrm{~cm}, 8.25 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). These are used to determine page layouts etc. For example, the page width is given by the length \pagewidth, and the height of the main body of text is given by \textheight. The paragraph indentation is given by \parindent and the gap between paragraphs is given by \parskip. Acceptable units of measurement are shown in table 12.1.

Example: The default paragraph indentation \parindent is usually around 15 pt, but we can change this if we like. To change a length you need to use the command:
\setlength $\{<c m d>\}\{<$ length $>\}$
where $\langle c m d>$ is the particular length command (e.g. \parindent) and $<$ length $>$ is the new length. To display the value of a length do:
$\backslash$ the $<c m d>$

## Table 12.1: Units of Measurement

```
pt point: \(72.27 \mathrm{pt}=1 \mathrm{in}\)
in inch: \(1 \mathrm{in}=25.4 \mathrm{~mm}\)
mm millimetre: \(1 \mathrm{~mm}=2.845 \mathrm{pt}\)
cm centimetre: \(1 \mathrm{~cm}=10 \mathrm{~mm}\)
ex height of the letter x in the current font
em width of the letter M in the current font
sp scaled point: \(1 \mathrm{sp}=65536 \mathrm{pt}\)
\(\mathrm{bp} \quad\) big point (or PostScript point): \(72 \mathrm{bp}=1 \mathrm{in}\)
dd didôt point: \(1 \mathrm{dd}=0.376 \mathrm{~mm}\)
pc pica: \(1 \mathrm{pc}=12 \mathrm{pt}\)
cc cicero: \(1 \mathrm{cc}=12 \mathrm{dd}\)
mu math unit: \(18 \mathrm{mu}=1 \mathrm{em}\)
```

For example, the following code:
\setlength\{\parindent\}\{0pt\}
This is the first paragraph.
This is the second paragraph.
The paragraph indentation is \the $\backslash$ parindent.
will produce the following output:

This is the first paragraph.
This is the second paragraph. The paragraph indentation is 0.0 pt.

A rubber length is a length that has a certain amount of elasticity. This enables you to specify your desired length with a certain amount of flexibility that will allow $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ to stretch or contract the space to get the body of text as flushed with the margins as possible.

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For example, the paragraph gap \parskip is usually set to Opt plus 1 pt . This means that the preferred gap is 0pt but $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ can stretch it up to 1 pt to help prevent the page from having a ragged bottom. Let's further modify the above example:

| \setlength\{\parindent\}\{0pt\} |
| :--- |
| \setlength\{\parskip\}\{10pt plus 1pt minus 1pt\} |
| This is the first paragraph. |
| This is the second paragraph. |
| The paragraph indentation is \the\parindent. |
| The paragraph skip is \the\parskip. | l

This now produces:

This is the first paragraph.

This is the second paragraph. The paragraph indentation is 0.0 pt . The paragraph skip is 10.0 pt plus 1.0 pt minus 1.0 pt .

In this example, the preferred paragraph gap is 10 pt but it will allow for a deviation of up to plus or minus 1 pt.

If you want to change any of the page layout lengths (such as heeasiestwaytodoitistousethegeometrypackage.Thispackageshouldhavebeeninstalledwhenyouinstalledyour$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}}\mathrm{X}$distribution.Usinganexamplefromthegeometrydocumentation:supposeyouwantthetotaltextareatobe6.5inwideand8.75inhigh,withaleftmargin0.4infromtheleftedge,noheader,andthefirstlineofthepagetobe1.2infromthetopofthepaper,thenyouwoulddo:\usepackage[body$=\{6.5\mathrm{in},8.75\mathrm{in}\}$,top=1.2in,left=0.4in,nohead]\{geometry\}undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

## Chapter 13

## Common Errors

    - If the only message that gets printed to the terminal is:
latex: Command not found.

Or

Bad command or file name
then you have either mistyped the command name, or you don't have IATEX installed on your computer, or your path hasn't been set up correctly. First check that you have typed the command correctly, then check to see if you have $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ installed. Failing that, contact your system administrator for help.
    - If you get the message (or something similar):

This is TeX, Version 3.14159 (Web2C 7.3.1)

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! I can't find file 'sample'.
<*> sample

## Please type another input file name:

then you have either misspelt the filename or you are in the wrong directory. If you have misspelt the filename, simply type in the correct name at the prompt. If you are in the wrong directory or you want to quit, type $X$ followed by the return character $\longleftarrow$. This is an error that you may encounter if you are using a terminal, as typing errors may occur, or you may forget to change to the correct directory. To check you are in the right directory, you can type:

1s
if you are using a Unix-type system. This will list the contents of the directory. If you are certain that you have spelt the filename correctly and that you are in the right directory, there may be something wrong with your path, in which case contact your system administrator. You are unlikely to get this error with WinEdt or TeXnicCenter as they set the directory, and you only need to click a button, so you won't get any typing errors.

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COMMON ERRORS
    - Error messages will usually look something like:

```
! Undefined control sequence.
1.1 \docmentclass
    [a4paper,11pt]{article}
?
```

The first line is the error message. In this example I have misspelt the command \documentclass. The next line begins with 1 . followed by a number. This is the line number in the source code where the error occurred. In this case the error occurred on line 1. Following the line number is the input line $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ has processed so far, and staggered on the next line is the remainder of the input line.
Here's another example. Suppose line 8 of my source code looks like:
[The structure of TeX error messages]

The date today is: \toady, which is nice to know.
The error in this case is the misspelling of the command \today. The error message will appear as follows:


At the $\mathrm{IA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ prompt, you can either type h for a help message, or type x to exit $\mathrm{IATEX}_{\mathrm{E}}$ and go back to your source code and fix the problem.

There follows below a list of common error messages. If your problem isn't listed there, try the UK TUG FAQ [2].
[How to approach errors]

## 13.1 * (No message, just an asterisk prompt)

You've gone into $T_{E} X!$ This is probably because you've forgotten the \end\{document\}. The asterisk is the } \mathrm { T } _ { \mathrm { E } } \mathrm { X } prompt. At this point the best thing to do is type \end\{document\} at the prompt (followed by the return } character $\longleftarrow$ ) and hope for the best.
["Please type a command or say \end"]

### 13.2 Argument of $\backslash$ cline has an extra \}

If this error occurred on the first line in your tabular environment, you may have forgotten the argument to the tabular environment.

### 13.3 Argument of $\backslash$ multicolumn has an extra \}

If this error occurred on the first line in your tabular environment, you may have forgotten the argument to the tabular environment.

## 13.4 \begin\{...\} ended by \end\{...\} 

}The beginning of your environment doesn't have a matching end.
    - Check to make sure you have spelt the name of the environment correctly.
You will get this error message if you do, say,
\end\{docment\} (incorrect) }
instead of


## 13.

COMMON ERRORS
\end\{document\} (correct) }
    - Check that for every \begin you have a corresponding \end with the same name.


### 13.5 Bad math environment delimiter

Only a certain type of character may be used as a delimiter (e.g. ( ) [ ] <br>{ <br>} | \| . ), check which one you have specified. This error may also occur if you have forgotten a \right (Remember to use a . if you want an invisible delimiter) or you may have forgotten to end your array environment with \end\{array\}. }

### 13.6 Can only be used in preamble.

Some commands, such as packagemayonlyappearinthepreamble.Checktoseewhereyouhaveputit.Forexample,thiserrorwillbecausedbydoing:\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}\begin\{document\}}(incorrect)\usepackage\{graphicx\}insteadof\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}\usepackage\{graphicx\}\begin\{document\}}undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined

### 13.7 Command ... already defined

You have tried to define a command which already exists. Try giving it a different name. Remember never to redefine a command if you don't know what the command originally does.

Alternatively, you have tried to define an environment which already exists. Give the new environment a different name. Again, never redefine an environment where you don't know what the original environment does.

### 13.8 Display math should end with $\$ \$$

You may have a dollar sign (\$) in a displaymath or equation environment. Remember that \$ is short hand for \begin\{math\} or \end\{math\}, so you } can't end one of the other environments with a $\$$. (This error message is in fact a bit confusing, as it seems to be suggesting that you end a displayed maths environment with $\$ \$$ which you also shouldn't do.)
[Why use
$\backslash[\ldots \backslash]$ in place of $\$ \$ \ldots \$$ ]

### 13.9 Environment . . . undefined.

LATEX doesn't recognise the environment you have specified.
    - Check you have spelt the environment name correctly.

You will get this error if you do, say,
\begin\{docment\} (incorrect) }
instead of
\begin\{document\} (correct) }
    - If it's your own environment, check you have defined the environment before using it.
    - If the environment is defined in a package, check you have included the package using the nd.undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined


### 13.10 Extra alignment tab has been changed to $\backslash \mathrm{cr}$

You have too many ampersands (\&) in one row. The most probable cause is that you have forgotten the end of row command $\backslash \backslash$ on the previous
 more than one column, you should have fewer \&s in that row.
[Alignment tab changed to \cr]

### 13.11 Extra \right 

}There are a number of possible causes. The most probable is that you have a \right that doesn't have a matching \left. (Remember left comes before right.) Another possible cause is that you have missed out \end\{array\}. (Remember that environments provide implicit grouping, } and \left and its matching \right must appear within the same group level.)

### 13.12 File ended while scanning use of ...

The most usual cause of this error is a missing closing brace.
You will get this error if you do, say,
\end\{document (incorrect) }
instead of
\end\{document\} (correct) }

### 13.13 File not found.

LATEX can't find the file you have specified. You will be given the opportunity to type in the correct filename at the prompt. If you want to quit, simply type X followed by the return character

    - Make sure that you have spelt the filename correctly.

This error will be caused by, say,
\documentclass[a4paper] \{artcle\} (incorrect)
instead of
\documentclass [a4paper] \{article\} (incorrect)
If this is the case, simply type in the correct name at the prompt (followed by the return character $\longleftarrow$ )
    - Make sure that the file is in the same directory as your document or in the $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ path. If the file is in another directory (not in the $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ path), you will need to specify the pathname, but remember that when using $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ under Windows, you need to use a forward slash (/) as the directory divider, as a backslash would be interpreted as a command. For example, if you have a file called shapes.ps in the subdirectory pictures then you would get a "file not found" error message if you did
 (incorrect)
instead of  (correct)
    - If the file is a package or class file, it's possible that you don't have that file installed on your computer. If this is the case you will need to download and install it as described in section 6.2. Remember
that you need to refresh the database after installing a new package or class file.


### 13.14 Illegal character in array arg

You have used a character in the argument of a tabular or array environment that is not allowed. The standard available characters are: r (right justified), 1 (left justified) and c (centred). This error will also occur if you have forgotten the argument to the tabular or array environment.

### 13.15 Illegal parameter number in definition

You have referred to a parameter (argument) number that is greater than the number of paramters you have specified. For example, suppose you defined the command to have only one parameter, then you can't use \#2 which refers to the second, non-existent, parameter. Remember that you need to specify how many parameters you want in the optional argument to \newcommand, otherwise it will be assumed that the command has no arguments.

See also the FAQ entry: Illegal parameter number in definition.

### 13.16 Illegal unit of measure (pt inserted).

You have either not specified a unit when giving a length (even zero lengths must have a unit) or you have specified an invalid unit or you have misspelt the unit. Available units are listed in table 12.1.

### 13.17 Lonely - 


The command - may only appear in one of the list making environments (such as itemize). Make sure you haven't forgotton your environment.


### 13.18 Misplaced alignment tab character \&

You have used the special character \& where you shouldn't have. Recall from section 4.2 that if you want an \& sign to appear you need to do <br>\& not just \&.

You would have got this error message if you had done, say,
\& our equipment (wrong)
instead of
<br>\& our equipment (correct)

### 13.19 Missing \} inserted

You have missed a closing curly brace, or you may have missed out an argument.

Example: if the following line occurs in a tabular environment:
\& \multicolumn\{2\}\{c\}<br>\}
this will produce the error. (The third argument to \multicolumn has been omitted.)

### 13.20 Missing \$ inserted

This message can be caused by a number of errors:
    - You may have typed $\$$ instead of $\backslash \$$ (you actually want a dollar symbol to appear). Recall from section 4.2 that if you want a $\$$ sign to appear you need to do $\backslash \$$ not just $\$$.
You would have got this error message if you had done, say,
expenditure came to $\$ 2000.00$ (wrong)
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instead of
expenditure came to $\$ \$ 2000.00$ (correct)
    - You might have missed the beginning of one of the mathematics environments (that is, you've used a command that must only appear in maths mode).
    - You may have missed the end of a mathematics environment, or you may have a paragraph break within a math, displaymath or equation environment, which is not permitted. Make sure you don't have any blank lines within the environment. If you want a blank line in your code to make it easier to edit, try having a percent sign at the start of an empty line to ensure that the line is ignored by $\mathrm{LAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$. For example:

```
\begin{equation}
%
E = mc^2
%
\end{equation}
```

See also the FAQ entry "Missing $\$$ inserted".

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### 13.21 Missing \begin\{document\} 

}You have put some text outside of the document environment. Check the following:
    - You have remembered \begin\{document\} }

This error would be caused by, say,
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
This is a simple document
instead of
\documentclass[a4paper] \{article\}
\begin\{document\} }
(correct)
This is a simple document
    - You haven't placed any text before \begin\{document\}. For example: }
\documentclass[a4paper]\{article\}
This is a simple document
\begin\{document\} }
instead of

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```
\documentclass[a4paper]{article}
\begin{document}
This is a simple document
```

    - You haven't missed out a backslash from either \documentclass or \begin\{document\} }
This error would be caused by, say,
documentclass[a4paper] \{article\} (incorrect)
instead of
\documentclass [a4paper] \{article\} (incorrect)


### 13.22 Missing delimiter

You have forgotten to specify the type of delimiter you want (e.g. ( ) [ ] $\backslash\{\backslash\}|\backslash|$. ) (Remember to use a . if you want an invisible delimiter, and remember that if you want a curly brace, you must have a backslash followed by the curly brace.)

Example:
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```
f(x) = \left{
\begin{array}{ll}
0 & x \leq 0\\
1 & x > 1
\end{array}
\right.
```

instead of

```
```

f(x) = \left\{

```
```

f(x) = \left\{
$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\begin{array}{ll}
0 & x \leq 0\\
0 & x \leq 0\\
1& x > 1
1& x > 1
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$
\right.

```
```

\right.

```
```


### 13.23 Missing \endcsname inserted

This is a $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ error rather than a $\mathrm{AA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ error which makes it harder to determine the cause, however it can be caused by placing a backslash in front of the name of an environment. (Remember that environment names do not contain a backslash.)

This error will be caused by, say,
\begin\{\sffamily\} (incorrect) }
instead of
\begin\{sffamily\} (correct) }

### 13.24 Missing \endgroup inserted

A number of things could have caused this. You may have missed out the end of an environment, or you may have an environment inside of another environment it's not allowed to be in. For example, this error can be caused by placing an eqnarray environment inside a displaymath environment, which is not allowed.

### 13.25 Missing number, treated as zero

LATEX is expecting a number. If your command takes more than one argument, check to make sure the arguments are in the correct order. For example, if you are using a minipage environment, you might have omitted the mandatory argument which specifies the width of the minipage, or you may have the optional arguments the wrong way round. The placement

## 13. COMMON ERRORS

specifier should come first, followed by the height.
If you are using \addtocounter or \setcounter remember that the second argument must be a number, so if you want the value of a counter as the argument you must use \value. This error can be caused by, say,
\setcounter\{exercise\}\{chapter\} (incorrect)
instead of
\setcounter\{exercise\}\{\value\{chapter\}\} (correct)
See also the FAQ entry "Missing number, treated as zero".

### 13.26 Paragraph ended before \begin was complete

You've probably missed a closing brace at the end of the argument to \begin. This error will be caused by, say,
$\backslash$ begin\{document (incorrect)
instead of
13. COMMON ERRORS
\begin\{document\} (correct) }

### 13.27 Runaway argument

There are a number of possible causes of this error:
    - Paragraph breaks are not permitted in the arguments of short commands. If there is a corresponding environment then you should use that instead. For example, this error message will be generated by doing, say,

```
\textbf{This is a simple document.
Here is the first paragraph.
```

Here is the second paragraph.\}
instead of
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```
\begin{bfseries}
This is a simple document.
Here is the first paragraph.
Here is the second paragraph.
\end{bfseries}
```

    - The closing brace of a mandatory argument is missing: This error will be caused by, say,

\title\{A Simple Document (incorrect)

instead of

\title\{A Simple Document\} (correct)
    - This error can also be caused by omitting the mandatory argument of an environment. For example:

```
\begin{thebibliography}
\bibitem{kopka95} A Guide to \LaTeX2e: document
```

instead of

```
\begin{thebibliography}{1}
\bibitem{kopka95} A Guide to \LaTeX2e: document
```


### 13.28 Something's wrong-perhaps a missing - .


You may have missed an - command. The first object in a list environment must either be an
- command, or another list environment.


This error will be caused by, say,
[Perhaps a
missing - ?]
\begin\{itemize\} }
Animal
- Vegetable
- Mineral
\end\{itemize\} }
instead of
\begin\{itemize\} }
- Animal
- Vegetable
(correct)
- Mineral
\end\{itemize\} }


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This error can also be caused by a missing \bibitem in the bibliography. For example:

```
\begin{thebibliography}{1}
A Guide to \LaTeX2e: document
```

instead of
\begin\{thebibliography\}\{1\} }
\bibitem\{kopka95\} A Guide to \LaTeX2e: document
See also the FAQ entry Perhaps a missing - ?.


### 13.29 There's no line here to end.

You have placed a line breaking command (<br>, \newline or \linebreak) where it doesn't make sense to have one.

### 13.30 Undefined control sequence

LATEX doesn't understand the command you have used.
    - Check to see if you have misspelt the command name. (Remember that all $L_{A} T_{E X}$ command names are case-sensitive.)


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You will get this error if you do, say,
This is a simple \Latex \document (incorrect)
instead of

This is a simple \LaTeX $\backslash$ document (correct)
    - Check that you have remembered the space when typing \. For example:

This is a simple \LaTeX\document (incorrect)
instead of
This is a simple $\backslash$ LaTeX $\backslash$ document (correct)
    - If you are using a command that is defined in a package make sure you have included the package using undefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefinedundefined
    - Check that your command name hasn't run into the next piece of text. For example, you can do
$\operatorname{man}\{\backslash o e\} u v r e$
or
man\oe uvre
or
man\oe\{\}uvre
but not
man \oeuvre
    - You have used a backslash instead of a forward slash as a directory divider. (Remember that when using $\mathrm{LA}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ under Windows, you need to use a forward slash (/) as the directory divider, as a backslash would be interpreted as a command. )
For example, suppose you have a file called shapes.ps in a subdirectory called pictures, then you would get an error if you did
 (Incorrect)


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instead of
 (Correct)

### 13.31 You can't use 'macro parameter character \#' in horizontal mode

You have used the special character \# where you shouldn't have. Recall from section 4.2 that if you want a \# sign to appear you need to do <br>\# not just \#.

This error message will be caused by doing, say,

```
Item #1 (Incorrect)
```

instead of
Item <br>\#1 (Correct)

## Chapter 14

## Need More Help?

Try some of the following:
    - http://www.tex.ac.uk/faq
    - comp.text.tex newsgroup (check the previous link before posting a query).
    - texhax archives
    - http://www.ctan.org/
    - http://www.tug.org/
    - If you live in the U.K., considering joining the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ User Group, and take advantage of the circulating library and book discount scheme. See http://uk.tug.org/ for more details.


## Bibliography

[1] The $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E} X}$ catalogue topic index. http://www.tex.ac.uk/ tex-archive/help/Catalogue/bytopic.html.
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[12] Donald E. Knuth. The $T_{E} X b o o k . ~ A d d i s o n-W e s l e y, ~ 1986 . ~$
[13] Herbert Voß. Math mode. ftp://cam.ctan.org/tex-archive/info/ math/voss/mathmode/Mathmode.pdf.

I strongly recommend that you have a look at the UK $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ Archive [9], particularly UK TUG FAQ [2] and the On-Line Catalogue. It's also a good idea to look at the documentation that was installed with your $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} / \mathrm{EA} \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ distribution. If you are using MiKTeX you can access the on-line help via the Start Menu:

$$
\text { Start } \rightarrow \text { Programs } \rightarrow \text { MiKTeX } \rightarrow \text { Help }
$$

## History

15 Jan 2008 Version 1.3 released. The main reason behind this change was to increase accessibility and conform to W3C guidelines. If you are experiencing problems relating to accessibility, please let me know (clearly stating the problem).
    - Corrected error in the university's post code on the title page
    - Added alternative text tags to more of the images, and made some of the images hyperlinks to a more detailed description of the image.
    - Added information on how to break ligatures.
    - Moved information on TeX to the introduction, and removed section on TeX that was in the "Some Definitions" chapter.
    - Document nodes now have permanent names instead of the generic node $<n>$.html which $\mathrm{IAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X} 2 \mathrm{HTML}$ generates by default.
    - Went back to using straight double quotes in the HTML document as the fancy typographic double quotes are nonstandard.

8 May 2007 Version 1.2 released.

## HISTORY

    - Links to UK TUG FAQ [2] added.
    - Overview made into a separate section, and tidied up a bit.
    - Added some extra definitions: moving arguments and fragile commands, robust commands, short and long commands.
    - Changed "Text editor and Terminal approach" to deal with Unix-type systems rather than MS-DOS.
    - Moved section on tabular environment.
    - Added section on boxes and mini-pages.
    - Segmented section on font changing commands.
    - Segmented section describing graphicx.
    - Added section on the babel package.
    - Updated and segmented section on downloading and installing new packages.
    - Added section on side-by-side figures.
    - Updated section on sub-figures to use the new subfloat package instead of the obsolete subfigure package.
    - Added "Need More Help?" chapter.

6 September 2004 Version 1.1 released.

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## W

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \wedge } \\
& \text { WinEdt }
\end{aligned} \quad 67,69,74,185,231,232
$$

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## X

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$$
35,49
$$


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ I was unable to find a calligraphic font for the $\mathcal{L}$. The font looks a little ragged because I had to convert it to bitmap to include it in this document.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ For those of you unfamiliar with typesetting terms, a widow is where the last line of a paragraph occurs on the top of a page and an orphan is where the first line of a paragraph occurs on the bottom of a page. This is generally considered sloppy typography. $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ provides some parameters that can be modified to reduce such occurrences.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ The source code is available at http://theoval.cmp.uea.ac.uk/ $n$ nlct/latex/, but it really is not the place to start if you are a beginner, as it contains IATEX and Perl code beyond the scope of this tutorial.
    ${ }^{4}$ http: / /www.latex 2 html.org/

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ LATEX treats the end-of-line character as a space.

[^4]:    ${ }^{2}$ The numbers for chapters, sections etc are automatically inserted by LATEX, so this example would produce a numbered chapter without a title.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a complete set of available commands, see the vim manual at http://vimdoc. sourceforge.net/.

[^6]:    ${ }^{2}$ if you are using PDFLATEX, it will have sample1.pdf instead of sample1.dvi

[^7]:    ${ }^{3}$ I used to use TeXnicCenter and MiKTeX when I was teaching LATEX, but that was my limit of using $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ under Windows

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ TeXnicCenter is non-interactive, it will carry on going until it gets to the end. Once it has finished you can locate each error as described on page 67.

[^9]:    ${ }^{2}$ depending on the font.

[^10]:    ${ }^{3}$ Note that in some font encodings na\"\{i\}ve works.

[^11]:    ${ }^{4}$ The fl-ligature is a single character, and so is a single box, not two.

[^12]:    a and this is how a footnote appears

[^13]:    a and this is how a footnote appears

[^14]:    ${ }^{2}$ Note that if you are using the babel package, you will need to load babel before datetime. Read the datetime documentation for further details.

[^15]:    $3^{3}$ or $<L O C A L-T E X M F>$ tex $\backslash$ latex on Windows

[^16]:    ${ }^{4}$ or $<L O C A L-T E X M F>\backslash$ doc $\backslash$ latex on Windows

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ The blank line indicates a paragraph break, so each minipage is in a separate paragraph, so it's not possible for them to be on the same line.

[^18]:    ${ }^{2}$ Note that the older subfigure package is obsolete.
    3 or tables or whatever type of float you are using.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ so, for example, there is no omicron since it looks the same as a Roman o.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Actually, it is possible to do, say, \begin\{textbf\}Some text

