

This document introduces you to the L^AT_EX environment and language and illustrates its use in simple and some very complicated examples.

If some are interested, then maybe we can set up a class (laboratory) where you might learn all of this stuff.

The setup on a Macintosh is very simple:

<https://www.tug.org/mactex>

Getting Started with LATEX

1 Introduction to LATEX

1.1 What is LATEX?

LATEX is a computer program for typesetting documents. It takes a computer file, prepared according to the rules of LATEX and converts it to a form that may be printed on a high-quality printer, such as a laser writer, to produce a printed document of a quality comparable with good quality books and journals. Simple documents, which do not contain mathematical formulae or tables may be produced very easily: effectively all one has to do is to type the text straight in (though observing certain rules relating to quotation marks and punctuation dashes). Typesetting mathematics is somewhat more complicated, but even here LATEX is comparatively straightforward to use when one considers the complexity of some of the formulae that it has to produce and the large number of mathematical symbols which it has to produce.

1.2 A Typical LATEX Input File

In order to produce a document using LATEX, we must first create a suitable input file on the computer. We create the input file — a text file with LATEX commands and with the name filename.tex. Then we double click the file which opens the file in TeXShop (part of MacTeX package) and then click Typeset. This produces a PDF version of the file using the LATEX commands. Corrections can be made directly in TeXShop.

Here is an example of a typical LATEX input file:

```
\documentclass[a4paper,12pt]{article}
\begin{document}
```

The foundations of the rigorous study of `\textit{analysis}` were laid in the nineteenth century, notably by the mathematicians Cauchy and Weierstrass. Central to the study of this subject are the formal definitions of `\textit{limits}` and `\textit{continuity}`.

Let D be a subset of \mathbf{R} and let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a real-valued function on D . The function f is said to be `\textit{continuous}` on D if, for all $\epsilon > 0$ and for all $x \in D$, there exists some $\delta > 0$ (which may depend on x) such that if $y \in D$ satisfies $|y-x| < \delta$ then $|f(y)-f(x)| < \epsilon$.

One may readily verify that if f and g are continuous functions on D then the functions $f+g$, $f-g$ and $f \cdot g$ are continuous. If in addition g is everywhere non-zero then f/g is continuous.

```
\end{document}
```

When we click Typeset in TeXShop to these paragraphs we produce the text

The foundations of the rigorous study of *analysis* were laid in the nineteenth century, notably by the mathematicians Cauchy and Weierstrass. Central to the study of this subject are the formal definitions of *limits* and *continuity*.

Let D be a subset of \mathbf{R} and let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a real-valued function on D . The function f is said to be *continuous* on D if, for all $\epsilon > 0$ and for all $x \in D$, there exists some $\delta > 0$ (which may depend on x) such that if $y \in D$ satisfies

$$|y - x| < \delta$$

then

$$|f(y) - f(x)| < \epsilon.$$

One may readily verify that if f and g are continuous functions on D then the functions $f + g$, $f - g$ and $f \cdot g$ are continuous. If in addition g is everywhere non-zero then f/g is continuous.

This example illustrates various features of LATEX. Note that the lines

```
\documentclass[a4paper,12pt]{article}
\begin{document}
```

are placed at the beginning of the input file. These are followed by the main body of the text, followed by the concluding line

```
\end{document}
```

LATEX

Note also that, although most characters occurring in this file have their usual meaning, yet there are special characters such as `\`, `$`, `{` and `}` which have special meanings within LATEX. Note in particular that there are sequences of characters which begin with a ‘backslash’ `\` which are used to produce mathematical symbols and Greek letters and to accomplish tasks such as changing fonts. These sequences of characters are known as control sequences.

1.3 Characters and Control Sequences

We now describe in more detail some of the features of LATEX illustrated in the above example.

Most characters on the keyboard, such as letters and numbers, have their usual meaning. However the characters

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

are used for special purposes within LATEX. Thus typing one of these characters will not produce the corresponding character in the final document. Of course these characters are very rarely used in ordinary text, and there are methods of producing them when they are required in the final document.

In order to typeset a mathematical document it is necessary to produce a considerable number of special mathematical symbols. One also needs to be able to change fonts. Also mathematical documents often contain arrays of numbers or symbols (matrices) and other complicated expressions. These are produced in LATEX using control sequences. Most control sequences consist of a backslash `\` followed by a string of (upper or lower case) letters. For example, `\alpha`, `\textit` and `\sum` are control sequences.

In the example above we used the control sequences `\textit` and `\textbf` to change the font to italic and boldface respectively. Also we used the control sequences `\to`, `\in`, `\delta` and `\epsilon` to produce the mathematical symbols \rightarrow and \in and the Greek letters δ and ϵ

There is another variety of control sequence which consists of a backslash followed by a single character that is not a letter. Examples of control sequences of this sort are $\backslash\{$, $\backslash"$ and $\backslash\$$.

The special characters $\{$ and $\}$ are used for grouping purposes. Everything enclosed within matching pair of such brackets is treated as a single unit. We have applied these brackets in the example above whenever we changed fonts. We shall see other instances where one needs to use $\{$ and $\}$ in LATEX to group words and symbols together (e.g., when we need to produce superscripts and subscripts which contain more than one symbol).

The special character $\$$ is used when one is changing from ordinary text to a mathematical expression and when one is changing back to ordinary text. Thus we used

for all $\backslash\epsilon > 0$ and for all $\backslash x \in D$,

to produce the phrase

for all $\epsilon > 0$ and for all $x \in D$,

in the example given above. Note also that we used $\backslash[$ and $\backslash]$ in the example above to mark the beginning and end respectively of a mathematical formula that is displayed on a separate line.

The remaining special characters

$\backslash\^$ $\backslash_$ $\backslash\%$ $\backslash\sim$ $\backslash\#$ $\backslash\&$

have special purposes within LATEX that we shall discuss later.

2 Producing Simple Documents using LATEX

2.1 Producing a LATEX Input File

We describe the structure of a typical LATEX input file.

The first line of the input file should consist of a `\documentclass` command. The recommended such `\documentclass` command for mathematical articles and similar documents has the form

```
\documentclass[a4paper,12pt]{article}
```

(You do not have to worry about what this command means when first learning to use LATEX: its effect is to ensure that the final document is correctly positioned on A4 size paper and that the text is of a size that is easy to read.) There are variants of this `\documentclass` command which are appropriate for letters or for books.

The `documentclass` command may be followed by certain other optional commands, such as the `\pagestyle` command. It is not necessary to find out about these commands when first learning to use LATEX.

After the `\documentclass` command and these other optional commands, we place the command

```
\begin{document}
```

This command is then followed by the main body of the text, in the format prescribed by the rules of LATEX.

Finally, we end the input file with a line containing the command

```
\end{document}
```

2.2 Producing Ordinary Text using LATEX

To produce a simple document using LATEX one should create a LATEX input file, beginning with a `\documentclass` command and the `\begin{document}` command, as described above. The input file should end with the `\end{document}` command, and the text of the document should be sandwiched between the `\begin{document}` and `\end{document}` commands in the manner described below.

If one merely wishes to type in ordinary text, without complicated mathematical formulae or special effects such as font changes, then one merely has to type it in as it is, leaving a completely blank line between successive paragraphs. You do not have to worry about paragraph indentation: LATEX will automatically indent all paragraphs with the exception of the first paragraph of a new section (unless you take special action to override the conventions adopted by LATEX)

For example, suppose that we wish to create a document containing the following paragraphs:

If one merely wishes to type in ordinary text, without complicated mathematical formulae or special effects such as font changes, then one merely has to type it in as it is, leaving a completely blank line between successive paragraphs.

You do not have to worry about paragraph indentation: all paragraphs will be indented with the exception of the first paragraph of a new section. One must take care to distinguish between the ‘left quote’ and the ‘right quote’ on the computer terminal. Also, one should use two ‘single quote’ characters in succession if one requires “double quotes”. One should never use the (undirected) ‘double quote’ character on the computer terminal, since the computer is unable to tell whether it is a ‘left quote’ or a ‘right quote’. One also has to take care with dashes: a single dash is used for hyphenation, whereas three dashes in succession are required to produce a dash of the sort used for punctuation—such as the one used in this sentence.

To create this document using LATEX we use the following input file:

```
\documentclass[a4paper,12pt]{article}
\begin{document}
```

If one merely wishes to type in ordinary text, without complicated mathematical formulae or special effects such as font changes, then one merely has to type it in as it is, leaving a completely blank line between successive paragraphs.

You do not have to worry about paragraph indentation: all paragraphs will be indented with the exception of the first paragraph of a new section.

One must take care to distinguish between the 'left quote' and the 'right quote' on the computer terminal. Also, one should use two 'single quote' characters in succession if one requires 'double quotes'. One should never use the (undirected) 'double quote' character on the computer terminal, since the computer is unable to tell whether it is a 'left quote' or a 'right quote'. One also has to take care with dashes: a single dash is used for hyphenation, whereas three dashes in succession are required to produce a dash of the sort used for punctuation---such as the one used in this sentence.

```
\end{document}
```

Having created the input file, one then has to run it through the TeXShop program and we end up with a PDF file.

2.3 Blank Spaces and Carriage Returns in the Input File

LATEX treats the carriage return at the end of a line as though it were a blank space. Similarly LATEX treats tab characters as blank spaces. Moreover, LATEX regards a sequence of blank spaces as though it were a single space, and similarly it will ignore blank spaces at the beginning or end of a line in the input file. Thus, for example, if we type

```
This is
  a
    silly
  example of a
file with many spaces.
```

```

                This is the beginning
of a new paragraph.
```

then we obtain

```
This is a silly example of a file with many spaces.
This is the beginning of a new paragraph.
```

2.4 Quotation Marks and Dashes

Single quotation marks are produced in LATEX using ‘ and ’. Double quotation marks are produced by typing “ and ”. (The ‘undirected double quote character’ produces double right quotation marks: it should never be used where left quotation marks are required.)

LATEX allows you to produce dashes of various length, known as ‘hyphens’, ‘en-dashes’ and ‘em-dashes’. Hyphens are obtained in LATEX by typing -, en-dashes by typing -- and em-dashes by typing —

One normally uses en-dashes when specifying a range of numbers. Thus for example, to specify a range of page numbers, one would type

on pages 155--219.

Dashes used for punctuating are often typeset as em-dashes, especially in older books. These are obtained by typing —

The dialogue

“You *were* a little grave,” said Alice.

“Well just then I was inventing a new way of getting over a gate—would you like to hear it?”

“Very much indeed,” Alice said politely.

“I’ll tell you how I came to think of it,” said the Knight. “You see, I said to myself ‘The only difficulty is with the feet: the *head* is high enough already.’ Now, first I put my head on the top of the gate—then the head’s high enough—then I stand on my head—then the feet are high enough, you see—then I’m over, you see.”

(taken from *Alice through the Looking Glass*, by Lewis Carroll) illustrates the use of quotation marks and dashes. It is obtained in LATEX from the following input:

```
‘‘You \emph{were} a little grave,’’ said Alice.
```

```
‘‘Well just then I was inventing a new way of  
getting over a gate---would you like to hear it?’’
```

```
‘‘Very much indeed,’’ Alice said politely.
```

```
‘‘I’ll tell you how I came to think of it,’’ said  
the Knight. ‘‘You see, I said to myself ‘The only  
difficulty is with the feet: the \emph{head} is  
high enough already.’ Now, first I put my head on  
the top of the gate---then the head’s high  
enough---then I stand on my head---then the feet  
are high enough, you see---then I’m over, you see.’’’
```

Sometimes you need single quotes immediately following double quotes, or vica versa, as in

```
“I regard computer typesetting as being reasonably ‘straightforward’”  
he said.
```

The way to typeset this correctly in LATEX is to use the control sequence `\`, between the quotation marks, so as to obtain the necessary amount of separation. The above example is thus produced with the input

```
‘‘I regard computer typesetting as being reasonably  
‘straightforward’\,’’ he said.
```

2.5 Section Headings in LATEX

Section headings of various sizes are produced (in the article document style) using the commands `\section`, `\subsection` and `\subsubsection`. LATEX will number the sections and subsections automatically. The title of the section should be surrounded by curly brackets and placed immediately after the relevant command. Thus if we type

```
\section{Section Headings}
```

```
We explain in this section how to obtain headings  
for the various sections and subsections of our  
document.
```

```
\subsection{Headings in the 'article' Document Style}
```

```
In the 'article' style, the document may be divided up  
into sections, subsections and subsubsections, and each  
can be given a title, printed in a boldface font,  
simply by issuing the appropriate command.
```

then the title of the section and that of the subsection will be printed in a large boldface font, and will be numbered accordingly.

Other document styles (such as the **book** and **letter** styles) have other ‘sectioning’ commands available (for example, the **book** style has a `\chapter` command for beginning a new chapter).

Sometimes one wishes to suppress the automatic numbering provided by LATEX. This can be done by placing an asterisk before the title of the section or subsection. Thus, for example, the section numbers in the above example could be suppressed by typing

```
\section*{Section Headings}
```

We explain in this section how to obtain headings for the various sections and subsections of our document.

```
\subsection*{Headings in the 'article' Document Style}
```

In the 'article' style, the document may be divided up into sections, subsections and subsubsections, and each can be given a title, printed in a boldface font, simply by issuing the appropriate command.

2.6 Changing Fonts in Text Mode

LATEX has numerous commands for changing the typestyle. The most useful of these is `\emph{text}` which emphasizes some piece of text, setting it usually in an italic font (unless the surrounding text is already italicized). Thus for example, the text

The basic results and techniques of *Calculus* were discovered and developed by *Newton* and *Leibniz*, though many of the basic ideas can be traced to earlier work of *Cavalieri*, *Fermat*, *Barrow* and others.

is obtained by typing

The basic results and techniques of `\emph{Calculus}` were discovered and developed by `\emph{Newton}` and `\emph{Leibniz}`, though many of the basic ideas can be traced to earlier work of `\emph{Cavalieri}`, `\emph{Fermat}`, `\emph{Barrow}` and others.

Another useful font-changing command is `\textbf{text}`, which typesets the specified portion of text in **boldface**. A font family or typeface in LATEX consists of a collection of related fonts characterized by size, shape and series. The font families available in LATEX include **roman**, **sans serif** and **typewriter**:

- Roman is normally the default family and includes upright, *italic*, *slanted*, SMALL CAPS and **boldface** fonts of various sizes.
- There is a sans serif family with upright, *slanted* and **boldface** fonts of various sizes.
- There is a typewriter family with upright, *italic*, *slanted* and SMALL CAPS fonts of various sizes.

The sizes of fonts used in LATEX are can be determined and changed by means of the control sequences `\tiny`, `\scriptsize`, `\footnotesize`, `\small`, `\normalsize`, `\large`, `\Large`, `\LARGE`, `\huge` and `\HUGE`:

This text is tiny.

This text is scriptsize.

This text is footnotesize.

This text is small.

This text is normalsize.

This text is large.

This text is Large.

This text is LARGE.

This text is huge.

This text is Huge.

The shape of a font can be upright, italic, slanted or SMALL CAPS:

- The LaTeX command `\textup{text}` typesets the specified text with an upright shape: this is normally the default shape.
- *The LaTeX command `\textit{text}` typesets the specified text with an italic shape.*
- *The LaTeX command `\textsl{text}` typesets the specified text with a slanted shape: slanted text is similar to italic.*
- THE LATEX COMMAND `\textsc{text}` TYPESETS THE SPECIFIED TEXT WITH A SMALL CAPS SHAPE IN WHICH ALL LETTERS ARE CAPITALS (WITH UPPER-CASE LETTERS TALLER THAN LOWERCASE LETTERS).

The *series* of a font can be medium (the default) or **boldface**:

- The LaTeX command `\textmd{text}` typesets the specified text with a medium series font.
- The LaTeX command `\textbf{text}` typesets the specified text with a boldface series font.

If the necessary fonts are available, one can combine changes to the size, shape and series of a font, for example producing *boldface slanted text* by typing

```
\textbf{\textsl{boldface slanted text}}.
```

There are in LATEX font declarations corresponding to the the font-changing commands described above. When included in the LATEX input such declarations determine the type-style of the subsequent text (till the next font declaration or the end of the current ‘group’ delimited by curly brackets or by appropriate `\begin` and `\end` commands). Here is a list of font-changing commands and declarations in text mode:

<i>Command</i>	<i>Declaration</i>	
<code>\textrm</code>	<code>\rmfamily</code>	Roman family
<code>\textsf</code>	<code>\sffamily</code>	Sans serif family
<code>\texttt</code>	<code>\ttfamily</code>	Typewriter family
<code>\textup</code>	<code>\upshape</code>	Upright shape
<code>\textit</code>	<code>\itshape</code>	<i>Italic shape</i>
<code>\textsl</code>	<code>\slshape</code>	<i>Slanted shape</i>
<code>\textsc</code>	<code>\scshape</code>	SMALL CAPS SHAPE
<code>\textmd</code>	<code>\mdseries</code>	Medium series
<code>\textbf</code>	<code>\bfseries</code>	Boldface series

2.7 Accents used in Text

There are a variety of control sequences for producing accents. For example, the control sequence `\'o` produces an acute accent on the letter o. Thus typing

```
Se\'{a}n \'{O} Cinn\'{e}ide.
```

produces

Seán Ó Cinnéide.

Similarly we use the control sequence `\'` to produce the grave accent in ‘algèbre’ and we use `\"` to produce the umlaut in ‘Universität’. A list of the accents provided by LATEX is given in the following table:

<code>\'e</code>	é	e.g., <code>math\'{e}matique</code> yields ‘mathématique’
<code>\'e</code>	è	e.g., <code>alg\'{e}bre</code> yields ‘algèbre’
<code>\^{e}</code>	ê	e.g., <code>h\^{o}te</code> yields ‘hôte’
<code>\"{o}</code>	ö	e.g., <code>H\"{o}lder</code> yields ‘Hölder’
<code>\~{n}</code>	ñ	e.g., <code>ma\~{n}ana</code> yields ‘mañana’
<code>\={o}</code>	ō	
<code>\.{o}</code>	ò	
<code>\u{o}</code>	ö	
<code>\v{c}</code>	č	e.g., <code>\v{C}ech</code> yields ‘Čech’
<code>\H{o}</code>	ö	
<code>\t{oo}</code>	ôo	
<code>\c{c}</code>	ç	e.g., <code>gar\c{c}on</code> yields ‘garçon’
<code>\d{o}</code>	ȯ	
<code>\b{o}</code>	o̲	

These accents are for use in ordinary text. They cannot be used within mathematical formulae, since different control sequences are used to produce accents within mathematics.

The control sequences `\i` and `\j` produce dotless ‘i’ and ‘j’. These are required when placing an accent on the letter. Thus \acute{i} is produced by typing `\' {\i}`.

2.8 Active Characters and Special Symbols in Text

The ‘active characters’

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

have special purposes within LATEX. Thus they cannot be produced in the final document simply by typing them directly. On the rare occasions when one needs to use the special characters

`# $ % & - { }`

in the final document, they can be produced by typing the control sequences

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

respectively. However the characters `\`, `^` and `~` cannot be produced simply by preceding them with a backslash. They can however be produced using `\char92` (in the `\texttt` font only), `\char94` and `\char126` respectively. (The decimal numbers 92, 94 and 126 are the ASCII codes of these characters.)

Other special symbols can be introduced into text using the appropriate control sequences:

<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Control Sequence</i>
œ, Œ	\oe, \OE
æ, Æ	\ae, \AE
å, Å	\aa, \AA
ø, Ø	\o, \O
ł, Ł	\l, \L
ß	\ss
¿	?‘
¡	!‘
†	\dag
‡	\ddag
§	\S
¶	\P
©	\copyright
£	\pounds
ı	\i
Ј	\j

3 Producing Mathematical Formulae using LATEX

3.1 Mathematics Mode

In order to obtain a mathematical formula using LATEX, one must enter mathematics mode before the formula and leave it afterwards. Mathematical formulae can occur either embedded in text or else displayed between lines of text. When a formula occurs within the text of a paragraph one should place a \$ sign before and after the formula, in order to enter and leave mathematics mode. Thus to obtain a sentence like

Let f be the function defined by $f(x) = 3x + 7$, and let a be a positive real number.

one should type

Let f be the function defined by $f(x) = 3x + 7$, and
let a be a positive real number.

In particular, note that even mathematical expressions consisting of a single character, like f and a in the example above, are placed within \$ signs. This is to ensure that they are set in italic type, as is customary in mathematical typesetting.

LATEX also allows you to use \ (and \) to mark the beginning and the end respectively of a mathematical formula embedded in text. Thus

Let f be the function defined by $f(x) = 3x + 7$.

may be produced by typing

Let f be the function defined by $f(x) = 3x + 7$.

However this use of (\dots) is only permitted in LATEX: other dialects of TeX such as Plain TeX and AmSTeX use $\$ \dots \$$.

In order to obtain an mathematical formula or equation which is displayed on a line by itself, one places $[$ before and $]$ after the formula. Thus to obtain

If $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

$$f(x) + g(x) = 4x + 11$$

and

$$f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.$$

one would type

If $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

$$[f(x) + g(x) = 4x + 11]$$

and

$$[f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.]$$

(Here the character \wedge is used to obtain a superscript.)

LATEX provides facilities for the automatic numbering of displayed equations. If you want an numbered equation then you use `\begin{equation}` and `\end{equation}` instead of using `\[` and `\]` . Thus

If $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

```
\begin{equation}
```

```
f(x) + g(x) = 4x + 11
```

```
\end{equation}
```

and

```
\begin{equation}
```

```
f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.
```

```
\end{equation}
```

produces

If $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

$$f(x) + g(x) = 4x + 11 \tag{1}$$

and

$$f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28. \tag{2}$$

3.2 Characters in Mathematics Mode

All the characters on the keyboard have their standard meaning in mathematics mode, with the exception of the characters

\$ % & ~ _ ^ \ { } ’

Letters are set in italic type. In mathematics mode the character ’ has a special meaning:

typing $\$u' + v'\$$ produces $u' + v''$. When in mathematics mode the spaces you type between letters and other symbols do not affect the spacing of the final result, since LATEX determines the spacing of characters in formulae by its own internal rules. Thus $\$u v + w = x\$$ and $\$uv+w=x\$$ both produce $uv + w = x$. You can also type carriage returns where necessary in your input file (e.g., if you are typing in a complicated formula with many Greek characters and funny symbols) and this will have no effect on the final result if you are in mathematics mode.

To obtain the characters

\$ % & _ { }

in mathematics mode, one should type

\# \\$ \% \& _ \{ \} .

To obtain \ in mathematics mode, one may type `\backslashash`.

3.3 Superscripts and Subscripts

Subscripts and superscripts are obtained using the special characters `_` and `^` respectively. Thus the identity

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 - c^2 dt^2$$

is obtained by typing

$$\backslash [ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 - c^2 dt^2 \backslash]$$

It can also be obtained by typing

$$\backslash [ds^2 = dx^2_1 + dx^2_2 + dx^2_3 - c^2 dt^2 \backslash]$$

since, when a superscript is to appear above a subscript, it is immaterial whether the superscript or subscript is the first to be specified.

Where more than one character occurs in a superscript or subscript, the characters involved should be enclosed in curly brackets. For example, the polynomial $x^{17}-1$ is obtained by typing `$x^{17} - 1$`.

One may not type expressions such as `s^n^j` since this is ambiguous and could be interpreted either as s^{nj} or as s^{n^j} . The first of these alternatives is obtained by typing `$s^{n j}$`, the second by typing `s^{n^j}`. A similar remark applies to subscripts. Note that one can obtain in this way double superscripts (where a superscript is placed on a superscript) and double subscripts.

It is sometimes necessary to obtain expressions in which the horizontal ordering of the subscripts is significant. One can use an ‘empty group’ $\{ \}$ to separate superscripts and subscripts that must follow one another. For example, the identity

$$R_i^j{}_{kl} = g^{jm} R_{imkl} = -g^{jm} R_{mikl} = -R^j{}_{ikl}$$

can be obtained by typing

$$\begin{aligned} \backslash [R_i\{\}^j\}_{kl} &= g^{\{jm\}} R_{\{imkl\}} \\ &= - g^{\{jm\}} R_{\{mikl\}} = - R^j\{\}_{ikl} \backslash] \end{aligned}$$

3.4 Greek Letters

Greek letters are produced in mathematics mode by preceding the name of the letter by a backslash \backslash . Thus to obtain the formula $A = \pi r^2$ one types $A = \backslash pi r^2$. Here are the control sequences for the standard forms of the lowercase Greek letters :

α	<code>\alpha</code>	ι	<code>\iota</code>	ρ	<code>\rho</code>
β	<code>\beta</code>	κ	<code>\kappa</code>	σ	<code>\sigma</code>
γ	<code>\gamma</code>	λ	<code>\lambda</code>	τ	<code>\tau</code>
δ	<code>\delta</code>	μ	<code>\mu</code>	υ	<code>\upsilon</code>
ϵ	<code>\epsilon</code>	ν	<code>\nu</code>	ϕ	<code>\phi</code>
ζ	<code>\zeta</code>	ξ	<code>\xi</code>	χ	<code>\chi</code>
η	<code>\eta</code>	\omicron	<code>o</code>	ψ	<code>\psi</code>
θ	<code>\theta</code>	π	<code>\pi</code>	ω	<code>\omega</code>

There is no special command for omicron: just use `o`.

Some Greek letters occur in variant forms. The variant forms are obtained by preceding the name of the Greek letter by ‘var’. The following table lists the usual form of these letters and the variant forms:-

ϵ	<code>\epsilon</code>	ε	<code>\varepsilon</code>
θ	<code>\theta</code>	ϑ	<code>\vartheta</code>
π	<code>\pi</code>	ϖ	<code>\varpi</code>
ρ	<code>\rho</code>	ϱ	<code>\varrho</code>
σ	<code>\sigma</code>	ς	<code>\varsigma</code>
ϕ	<code>\phi</code>	φ	<code>\varphi</code>

Upper case Greek letters are obtained by making the first character of the name upper case. Here are the control sequence for the uppercase letters:

Γ	<code>\Gamma</code>	Ξ	<code>\Xi</code>	Φ	<code>\Phi</code>
Δ	<code>\Delta</code>	Π	<code>\Pi</code>	Ψ	<code>\Psi</code>
Θ	<code>\Theta</code>	Σ	<code>\Sigma</code>	Ω	<code>\Omega</code>
Λ	<code>\Lambda</code>	Υ	<code>\Upsilon</code>		

3.5 Mathematical Symbols

There are numerous mathematical symbols that can be used in mathematics mode. These are obtained by typing an appropriate control sequence.

Miscellaneous Symbols:

\aleph	<code>\aleph</code>	\prime	<code>\prime</code>	\forall	<code>\forall</code>
\hbar	<code>\hbar</code>	\emptyset	<code>\emptyset</code>	\exists	<code>\exists</code>
\imath	<code>\imath</code>	∇	<code>\nabla</code>	\neg	<code>\neg</code>
\jmath	<code>\jmath</code>	\surd	<code>\surd</code>	\flat	<code>\flat</code>
ℓ	<code>\ell</code>	\top	<code>\top</code>	\natural	<code>\natural</code>
\wp	<code>\wp</code>	\perp	<code>\bot</code>	\sharp	<code>\sharp</code>
\Re	<code>\Re</code>	\parallel	<code>\parallel</code>	\clubsuit	<code>\clubsuit</code>
\Im	<code>\Im</code>	\angle	<code>\angle</code>	\diamondsuit	<code>\diamondsuit</code>
∂	<code>\partial</code>	\triangle	<code>\triangle</code>	\heartsuit	<code>\heartsuit</code>
∞	<code>\infty</code>	\backslash	<code>\backslash</code>	\spadesuit	<code>\spadesuit</code>

“Large” Operators:

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

Binary Operations:

\pm	<code>\pm</code>	\cap	<code>\cap</code>	\vee	<code>\vee</code>
\mp	<code>\mp</code>	\cup	<code>\cup</code>	\wedge	<code>\wedge</code>
\setminus	<code>\setminus</code>	\uplus	<code>\uplus</code>	\oplus	<code>\oplus</code>
\cdot	<code>\cdot</code>	\sqcap	<code>\sqcap</code>	\ominus	<code>\ominus</code>
\times	<code>\times</code>	\sqcup	<code>\sqcup</code>	\otimes	<code>\otimes</code>
\ast	<code>\ast</code>	\triangleleft	<code>\triangleleft</code>	\oslash	<code>\oslash</code>
\star	<code>\star</code>	\triangleright	<code>\triangleright</code>	\odot	<code>\odot</code>
\diamond	<code>\diamond</code>	\wr	<code>\wr</code>	\dagger	<code>\dagger</code>
\circ	<code>\circ</code>	\bigcirc	<code>\bigcirc</code>	\ddagger	<code>\ddagger</code>
\bullet	<code>\bullet</code>	\triangleup	<code>\triangleup</code>	\amalg	<code>\amalg</code>
\div	<code>\div</code>	\triangledown	<code>\triangledown</code>		

Relations:

\leq	<code>\leq</code>	\geq	<code>\geq</code>	\equiv	<code>\equiv</code>
\prec	<code>\prec</code>	\succ	<code>\succ</code>	\sim	<code>\sim</code>
\preceq	<code>\preceq</code>	\succeq	<code>\succeq</code>	\simeq	<code>\simeq</code>
\ll	<code>\ll</code>	\gg	<code>\gg</code>	\asymp	<code>\asymp</code>
\subset	<code>\subset</code>	\supset	<code>\supset</code>	\approx	<code>\approx</code>
\subseteq	<code>\subseteq</code>	\supseteq	<code>\supseteq</code>	\cong	<code>\cong</code>
\sqsubseteq	<code>\sqsubseteq</code>	\sqsupseteq	<code>\sqsupseteq</code>	\bowtie	<code>\bowtie</code>
\in	<code>\in</code>	\ni	<code>\ni</code>	\propto	<code>\propto</code>
\vdash	<code>\vdash</code>	\dashv	<code>\dashv</code>	\models	<code>\models</code>
\smile	<code>\smile</code>	\mid	<code>\mid</code>	\doteq	<code>\doteq</code>
\frown	<code>\frown</code>	\parallel	<code>\parallel</code>	\perp	<code>\perp</code>

Negated Relations:

$\not<$	<code>\not<</code>	$\not>$	<code>\not></code>	\neq	<code>\neq</code>
$\not\leq$	<code>\not\leq</code>	$\not\geq$	<code>\not\geq</code>	$\not\equiv$	<code>\not\equiv</code>
$\not\prec$	<code>\not\prec</code>	$\not\succ$	<code>\not\succ</code>	$\not\sim$	<code>\not\sim</code>
$\not\preceq$	<code>\not\preceq</code>	$\not\succeq$	<code>\not\succeq</code>	$\not\simeq$	<code>\not\simeq</code>
$\not\subset$	<code>\not\subset</code>	$\not\supset$	<code>\not\supset</code>	$\not\approx$	<code>\not\approx</code>
$\not\subseteq$	<code>\not\subseteq</code>	$\not\supseteq$	<code>\not\supseteq</code>	$\not\cong$	<code>\not\cong</code>
$\not\sqsubseteq$	<code>\not\sqsubseteq</code>	$\not\sqsupseteq$	<code>\not\sqsupseteq</code>	$\not\asymp$	<code>\not\asymp</code>

Arrows:

\leftarrow	<code>\leftarrow</code>	\rightarrow	<code>\rightarrow</code>
\longleftarrow	<code>\longleftarrow</code>	\longrightarrow	<code>\longrightarrow</code>
\Lleftarrow	<code>\Lleftarrow</code>	\Rrightarrow	<code>\Rrightarrow</code>
\Longleftarrow	<code>\Longleftarrow</code>	\Longrightarrow	<code>\Longrightarrow</code>
\leftrightarrow	<code>\leftrightarrow</code>	\Leftrightarrow	<code>\Leftrightarrow</code>
\longleftrightarrow	<code>\longleftrightarrow</code>	\Longleftrightarrow	<code>\Longleftrightarrow</code>
\hookleftarrow	<code>\hookleftarrow</code>	\hookrightarrow	<code>\hookrightarrow</code>
\leftharpoonup	<code>\leftharpoonup</code>	\rightharpoonup	<code>\rightharpoonup</code>
\leftharpoondown	<code>\leftharpoondown</code>	\rightharpoondown	<code>\rightharpoondown</code>
\uparrow	<code>\uparrow</code>	\downarrow	<code>\downarrow</code>
\Uparrow	<code>\Uparrow</code>	\Downarrow	<code>\Downarrow</code>
\updownarrow	<code>\updownarrow</code>	\Updownarrow	<code>\Updownarrow</code>
\nearrow	<code>\nearrow</code>	\nwarrow	<code>\nwarrow</code>
\searrow	<code>\searrow</code>	\swarrow	<code>\swarrow</code>
\mapsto	<code>\mapsto</code>	\longmapsto	<code>\longmapsto</code>
\rightrightarrows	<code>\rightrightarrows</code>		

Openings: $[$ `\lbrack` \lfloor `\lfloor` \lceil `\lceil`
 $\{$ `\lbrace` \langle `\langle`

Closings: $]$ `\rbrack` \rfloor `\rfloor` \rceil `\rceil`
 $\}$ `\rbrace` \rangle `\rangle`

Alternative Names:

\neq	<code>\ne</code> or <code>\neq</code>	(same as <code>\not=</code>)
\leq	<code>\le</code>	(same as <code>\leq</code>)
\geq	<code>\ge</code>	(same as <code>\geq</code>)
$\{$	<code>\{</code>	(same as <code>\lbrace</code>)
$\}$	<code>\}</code>	(same as <code>\rbrace</code>)
\rightarrow	<code>\to</code>	(same as <code>\rightarrow</code>)
\leftarrow	<code>\gets</code>	(same as <code>\leftarrow</code>)
\ni	<code>\owns</code>	(same as <code>\ni</code>)
\wedge	<code>\land</code>	(same as <code>\wedge</code>)
\vee	<code>\lor</code>	(same as <code>\vee</code>)
\neg	<code>\lnot</code>	(same as <code>\neg</code>)
$ $	<code>\vert</code>	(same as <code> </code>)
$\ $	<code>\Vert</code>	(same as <code>\ </code>)
\iff	<code>\iff</code>	(same as <code>\Longleftrightarrow</code> , but with extra space at each end)
$:$	<code>\colon</code>	(same as <code>:</code> , but with less space around it and less likelihood of a line break after it)

3.6 Changing Fonts in Mathematics Mode

The ‘math italic’ font is automatically used in mathematics mode unless you explicitly change the font. The rules for changing the font in mathematics mode are rather different to those applying when typesetting ordinary text. In mathematics mode any change only applies to the single character or symbol that follows (or to any text enclosed within curly brackets immediately following the control sequence). Also, to change a character to the roman or boldface font, the control sequences `\mathrm` and `\mathbf` must be used (rather than `\textrm` and `\textbf`).

The following example illustrates the use of boldface in mathematical formulae. To obtain

Let \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} be three vectors in \mathbf{R}^3 . The volume V of the parallelepiped with corners at the points $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ is given by the formula

$$V = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}.$$

one could type

Let `\mathbf{u}`, `\mathbf{v}` and `\mathbf{w}` be three vectors in `\mathbf{R}^3`. The volume `V` of the parallelepiped with corners at the points `\mathbf{0}`, `\mathbf{u}`, `\mathbf{v}`, `\mathbf{w}`, `\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}`, `\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}`, `\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}` and `\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}` is given by the formula

```
\[ V = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}.\]
```

There is also a ‘calligraphic’ font available in mathematics mode. This is obtained using the control sequence `\ca1`. This font can only be used for uppercase letters. These calligraphic letters have the form

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

3.7 Standard Functions (sin, cos etc.)

The names of certain standard functions and abbreviations are obtained by typing a backslash `\` before the name. For example, one obtains

$$\cos(\theta + \phi) = \cos \theta \cos \phi - \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

by typing

```
\[ \cos(\theta + \phi) = \cos \theta \cos \phi
  - \sin \theta \sin \phi \]
```

The following standard functions are represented by control sequences defined in LATEX:

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

Names of functions and other abbreviations not in this list can be obtained by converting to the roman font. Thus one obtains `\mathrm{cosec} A` by typing `$\mathrm{cosec} A$` . Note that if one were to type simply `$cosec A$` one would obtain *cosecA*, because LATEX has treated `cosec A` as the product of six quantities *c, o, s, e, c* and *A* and typeset the formula accordingly.

3.8 Text Embedded in Displayed Equations

Text can be embedded in displayed equations (in LATEX) by using `\mbox{embedded text}`. For example, one obtains

$$M^\perp = \{f \in V' : f(m) = 0 \text{ for all } m \in M\}.$$

by typing

```
\[ M^\perp = \{ f \in V' : f(m) = 0 \mbox{ for all } m \in M \}.\]
```

Note the blank spaces before and after the words ‘for all’ in the above example. Had we typed

```
\[ M^\perp = \{ f \in V' : f(m) = 0 \mbox{for all} m \in M \}.\]
```

we would have obtained

$$M^\perp = \{f \in V' : f(m) = 0\text{for all}m \in M\}.$$

3.9 Fractions and Roots

Fractions of the form

$$\frac{\textit{numerator}}{\textit{denominator}}$$

are obtained in LATEX using the construction

```
\frac{\textit{numerator}}{\textit{denominator}}.
```

For example, to obtain

The function f is given by

$$f(x) = 2x + \frac{x - 7}{x^2 + 4}$$

for all real numbers x .

one would type

The function f is given by

$$\left[f(x) = 2x + \frac{x - 7}{x^2 + 4} \right]$$

for all real numbers x .

To obtain square roots one uses the control sequence

$$\sqrt{\textit{expression}}.$$

For example, to obtain

The roots of a quadratic polynomial $ax^2 + bx + c$ with $a \neq 0$ are given by the formula

$$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

one would type

The roots of a quadratic polynomial $a x^2 + bx + c$ with $a \neq 0$ are given by the formula

$$\left[\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \right]$$

In LATEX, an n th root is produced using

`\sqrt[n]{expression}`.

For example, to obtain

The roots of a cubic polynomial of the form $x^3 - 3px - 2q$ are given by the formula

$$\sqrt[3]{q + \sqrt{q^2 - p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{q - \sqrt{q^2 - p^3}}$$

where the values of the two cube roots must be chosen so as to ensure that their product is equal to p .

in LATEX, one would type

The roots of a cubic polynomial of the form $x^3 - 3px - 2q$ are given by the formula

```
\[ \sqrt[3]{q + \sqrt{q^2 - p^3}}  
+ \sqrt[3]{q - \sqrt{q^2 - p^3}} \]
```

where the values of the two cube roots must be chosen so as to ensure that their product is equal to p .

3.10 Ellipsis (i.e., ‘three dots’)

Ellipsis (three dots) is produced in mathematics mode using the control sequences `\ldots` (for dots aligned with the baseline of text), and `\cdots` (for dots aligned with the centerline of mathematical formulae). Thus the formula

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2$$

is obtained by typing

```
\[ f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 \]
```

Similarly the formula

$$\frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n$$

is produced using `\cdots`, by typing

```
\[ \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n \]
```

3.11 Accents in Mathematics Mode

There are various control sequences for producing underlining, overlining and various accents in mathematics mode. The following table lists these control sequences, applying them to the letter *a*:

\underline{a}	<code>\underline{a}</code>
\overline{a}	<code>\overline{a}</code>
\hat{a}	<code>\hat{a}</code>
\check{a}	<code>\check{a}</code>
\tilde{a}	<code>\tilde{a}</code>
\acute{a}	<code>\acute{a}</code>
\grave{a}	<code>\grave{a}</code>
\dot{a}	<code>\dot{a}</code>
\ddot{a}	<code>\ddot{a}</code>
\breve{a}	<code>\breve{a}</code>
\bar{a}	<code>\bar{a}</code>
\vec{a}	<code>\vec{a}</code>

It should be borne in mind that when a character is underlined in a mathematical manuscript then it is normally typeset in bold face without any underlining. Underlining is used very rarely in print.

The control sequences such as `\'` and `\''`, used to produce accents in ordinary text, may not be used in mathematics mode

3.12 Brackets and Norms

The frequently used left delimiters include `(`, `[` and `{`, which are obtained by typing `(`, `[` and `\{` respectively. The corresponding right delimiters are of course obtained by typing `)`, `]` and `\}`. In addition `|` and `\|` are used as both left and right delimiters, and are obtained by typing `|` and `\|` respectively. For example, we obtain

Let X be a Banach space and let $f: B \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a bounded linear functional on X . The *norm* of f , denoted by $\|f\|$, is defined by

$$\|f\| = \inf\{K \in [0, +\infty) : |f(x)| \leq K\|x\| \text{ for all } x \in X\}.$$

by typing

```
Let $X$ be a Banach space and let $f \colon B \to \textbf{R}$
be a bounded linear functional on $X$. The \textit{norm} of
$f$, denoted by $\|f\|$, is defined by
\[ \|f\| = \inf \{ K \in [0,+\infty) :
|f(x)| \leq K \|x\| \mbox{ for all } x \in X \}.\]
```

Larger delimiters are sometimes required which have the appropriate height to match the size of the subformula which they enclose. Consider, for instance, the problem of typesetting the following formula:

$$f(x, y, z) = 3y^2z \left(3 + \frac{7x + 5}{1 + y^2} \right).$$

The way to type the large parentheses is to type `\left(` for the left parenthesis and `\right)` for the right parenthesis, and let LATEX do the rest of the work for you. Thus the above formula was obtained by typing

```
\[ f(x,y,z) = 3y^2 z \left( 3 + \frac{7x+5}{1 + y^2} \right).\]
```

If you type a delimiter which is preceded by `\left` then LATEX will search for a corresponding delimiter preceded by `\right` and calculate the size of the delimiters required to enclose the intervening subformula. One is allowed to balance a `\left(` with a `\right]` (say) if one desires: there is no reason why the enclosing delimiters have to have the same shape. One may also nest pairs of delimiters within one another: by typing

```
\[ \left| 4x^3 + \left( x + \frac{42}{1+x^4} \right) \right|.\]
```

we obtain

$$\left| 4x^3 + \left(x + \frac{42}{1 + x^4} \right) \right|.$$

By typing `\left.` and `\right.` one obtains *null delimiters* which are completely invisible. Consider, for example, the problem of typesetting

$$\frac{du}{dx} \Big|_{x=0} .$$

We wish to make the vertical bar big enough to match the derivative preceding it. To do this, we suppose that the derivative is enclosed by delimiters, where the left delimiter is invisible and the right delimiter is the vertical line. The invisible delimiter is produced using `\left.` and thus the whole formula is produced by typing

```
\frac{du}{dx} \right|_{x=0}
```

3.13 Multiline Formulae in LATEX

Consider the problem of typesetting the formula

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2\theta &= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \\ &= 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1. \end{aligned}$$

It is necessary to ensure that the = signs are aligned with one another. In LATEX, such a formula is typeset using the `eqnarray*` environment. The above example was obtained by typing the lines

```
\begin{eqnarray*}
\cos 2\theta &= & \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \\
&= & 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1.
\end{eqnarray*}
```

Note the use of the special character $\&$ as an *alignment tab*. When the formula is typeset, the part of the second line of the formula beginning with an occurrence of $\&$ will be placed immediately beneath that part of the first line of the formula which begins with the corresponding occurrence of $\&$. Also \backslash is used to separate the lines of the formula.

Although we have placed corresponding occurrences of $\&$ beneath one another in the above example, it is not necessary to do this in the input file. It was done in the above example merely to improve the appearance (and readability) of the input file. The more complicated example

If $h \leq \frac{1}{2}|\zeta - z|$ then

$$|\zeta - z - h| \geq \frac{1}{2}|\zeta - z|$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{\zeta - z - h} - \frac{1}{\zeta - z} \right| &= \left| \frac{(\zeta - z) - (\zeta - z - h)}{(\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{h}{(\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{2|h|}{|\zeta - z|^2}. \end{aligned}$$

was obtained by typing

```

If  $h \leq \frac{1}{2} |\zeta - z|$  then
 $|\zeta - z - h| \geq \frac{1}{2} |\zeta - z|$ 
and hence
\begin{eqnarray*}
\left| \frac{1}{\zeta - z - h} - \frac{1}{\zeta - z} \right|
& = & \left| \frac{(\zeta - z) - (\zeta - z - h)}{(\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)} \right| \\
& = & \left| \frac{h}{(\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)} \right| \\
& \leq & \frac{2|h|}{|\zeta - z|^2}.
\end{eqnarray*}

```

The asterisk in `eqnarray*` is put there to suppress the automatic equation numbering produced by LATEX. If you wish for an automatically numbered multiline formula, you should use `\begin{eqnarray}` and `\end{eqnarray}`.

3.14 Matrices and other arrays in LATEX

Matrices and other arrays are produced in LATEX using the `array` environment. For example, suppose that we wish to typeset the following passage:

The *characteristic polynomial* $\chi(\lambda)$ of the 3×3 matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}$$

is given by the formula

$$\chi(\lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - a & -b & -c \\ -d & \lambda - e & -f \\ -g & -h & \lambda - i \end{vmatrix}.$$

This passage is produced by the following input:

```
The \emph{characteristic polynomial}  $\chi(\lambda)$  of the
 $3 \times 3$ ~matrix
\left( \begin{array}{ccc}
a & b & c \\
d & e & f \\
g & h & i \end{array} \right)
is given by the formula
\left[ \chi(\lambda) = \left| \begin{array}{ccc}
\lambda - a & -b & -c \\
-d & \lambda - e & -f \\
-g & -h & \lambda - i \end{array} \right|. \right]
```

First of all, note the use of `\left` and `\right` to produce the large delimiters around the arrays. As we have already seen, if we use

```
\left) ... \right)
```

then the size of the parentheses is chosen to match the subformula that they enclose. Next note the use of the alignment tab character `&` to separate the entries of the matrix and the use of `\\` to separate the rows of the matrix, exactly as in the construction of multiline formulae described above. We begin the array with `\begin{array}` and end it with `\end{array}`. The only thing left to explain, therefore, is the mysterious `{ccc}` which occurs immediately after `\begin{array}`. Now each of the `c`'s in `{ccc}` represents a column of the matrix and indicates that the entries of the column should be centered. If the `c` were replaced by `l` then the corresponding column would be typeset with all the entries flush left, and `r` would produce a column with all entries flush right. Thus

```
\[ \begin{array}{lcr}
\mbox{First number} & x & 8 \\
\mbox{Second number} & y & 15 \\
\mbox{Sum} & x + y & 23 \\
\mbox{Difference} & x - y & -7 \\
\mbox{Product} & xy & 120 \end{array} \]
```

produces

First number	x	8
Second number	y	15
Sum	$x + y$	23
Difference	$x - y$	-7
Product	xy	120

We can use the array environment to produce formulae such as

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0; \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that both columns of this array are set flush left. Thus we use `{11}` immediately after `\begin{array}`. The large curly bracket is produced using `\left\{`. However this requires a corresponding `\right` delimiter to match it. We therefore use the *null delimiter* `\right.` discussed earlier. This delimiter is invisible. We can therefore obtain the above formula by typing

```
\[ |x| = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x & \mbox{if } \$x \geq 0\$; \\ -x & \mbox{if } \$x < 0\$ \end{array} \right. \]
```

3.15 Derivatives, Limits, Sums and Integrals

The expressions

$$\frac{du}{dt} \text{ and } \frac{d^2u}{dx^2}$$

are obtained in LATEX by typing `\frac{du}{dt}` and `\frac{d^2 u}{dx^2}` respectively. The mathematical symbol ∂ is produced using `\partial`. Thus the Heat Equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}$$

is obtained in LATEX by typing

$$\begin{aligned} & \backslash[\backslashfrac{\backslashpartial u}{\backslashpartial t} \\ & = \backslashfrac{\backslashpartial^2 u}{\backslashpartial x^2} \\ & \quad + \backslashfrac{\backslashpartial^2 u}{\backslashpartial y^2} \\ & \quad + \backslashfrac{\backslashpartial^2 u}{\backslashpartial z^2} \backslash] \end{aligned}$$

To obtain mathematical expressions such as

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty}, \inf_{x > s} \text{ and } \sup_K$$

in displayed equations we type $\backslashlim_{x \to +\infty}$, $\backslashinf_{x > s}$ and \backslashsup_K respectively. Thus to obtain

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2 + 7}{x^2 + 1} = 3.$$

(in LATEX) we type

$$\backslash[\backslashlim_{x \to 0} \backslashfrac{3x^2 + 7x^3}{x^2 + 5x^4} = 3. \backslash]$$

To obtain a summation sign such as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2n}$$

we type $\backslashsum_{i=1}^{2n}$. Thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1).$$

is obtained by typing

```
\[ \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{1}{2} n (n+1). \]
```

We now discuss how to obtain *integrals* in mathematical documents. A typical integral is the following

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

This is typeset using

```
\[ \int_a^b f(x) \, dx. \]
```

The integral sign \int is typeset using the control sequence `\int`, and the limits of integration (in this case a and b are treated as a subscript and a superscript on the integral sign.

Most integrals occurring in mathematical documents begin with an integral sign and contain one or more instances of d followed by another (Latin or Greek) letter, as in dx , dy and dt . To obtain the correct appearance one should put extra space before the d , using `\,.` Thus

$$\int_0^{+\infty} x^n e^{-x} dx = n!.$$

$$\int \cos \theta \, d\theta = \sin \theta.$$

$$\int_{x^2+y^2 \leq R^2} f(x, y) dx dy = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^R f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta.$$

and

$$\int_0^R \frac{2x dx}{1+x^2} = \log(1+R^2).$$

are obtained by typing

```
\[ \int_0^{+\infty} x^n e^{-x} \, dx = n!. \]
```

```
\[ \int \cos \theta \, d\theta = \sin \theta. \]
```

```
\[ \int_{x^2 + y^2 \leq R^2} f(x,y) \, dx \, dy  
= \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^R  
f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) r \, dr \, d\theta. \]
```

and

```
\[ \int_0^R \frac{2x \, dx}{1+x^2} = \log(1+R^2). \]
```

respectively.

In some multiple integrals (i.e., integrals containing more than one integral sign) one finds that LATEX puts too much space between the integral signs. The way to improve the appearance of the integral is to use the control sequence `\!` to remove a thin strip of unwanted space. Thus, for example, the multiple integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dx \, dy.$$

is obtained by typing

```
\[ \int_0^1 \! \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dx \, dy. \]
```

Had we typed

```
\[ \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dx \, dy. \]
```

we would have obtained

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dx \, dy.$$

A particularly noteworthy example comes when we are typesetting a multiple integral such a

$$\iint_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy.$$

Here we use `\!` three times to obtain suitable spacing between the integral signs. We typeset this integral using

```
\[ \int \! \! \! \int_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy. \]
```

Had we typed

```
\[ \int \int_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy. \]
```

we would have obtained

$$\int \int_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy.$$

The following (reasonably complicated) passage exhibits a number of the features which we have been discussing:

In non-relativistic wave mechanics, the wave function $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ of a particle satisfies the *Schrödinger Wave Equation*

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \psi + V\psi.$$

It is customary to normalize the wave equation by demanding that

$$\iiint_{\mathbf{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, 0)|^2 dx dy dz = 1.$$

A simple calculation using the Schrödinger wave equation shows that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \iiint_{\mathbf{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 0,$$

and hence

$$\iiint_{\mathbf{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

for all times t . If we normalize the wave function in this way then, for any (measurable) subset V of \mathbf{R}^3 and time t ,

$$\iiint_V |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz$$

represents the probability that the particle is to be found within the region V at time t .

One would typeset this in LATEX by typing

In non-relativistic wave mechanics, the wave function

$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ of a particle satisfies the

Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

$$= \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left($$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$$

$$+ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$$

$$+ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

$$\right) \psi + V \psi.$$

It is customary to normalize the wave equation by

demanding that

$$\int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, 0)|^2 dx dy dz = 1.$$

$$\int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, 0)|^2 dx dy dz = 1.$$

A simple calculation using the Schrödinger wave

equation shows that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 0,$$

$$\int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 0,$$

and hence

$$\int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

$$\int \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

for all times t . If we normalize the wave function in this

way then, for any (measurable) subset V of \mathbb{R}^3

and time t ,

$$\int_V |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz$$

$$\int_V |\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 dx dy dz$$

represents the probability that the particle is to be found

within the region V at time t .

4 Further Features of LATEX

4.1 Producing White Space in LATEX

To produce (horizontal) blank space within a paragraph, use `\hspace`, followed by the length of the blank space enclosed within curly brackets. The length of the skip should be expressed in a unit recognized by LATEX. These recognized units are given in the following table:

<code>pt</code>	point	(1 in = 72.27 pt)
<code>pc</code>	pica	(1 pc = 12 pt)
<code>in</code>	inch	(1 in = 25.4 mm)
<code>bp</code>	big point	(1 in = 72 bp)
<code>cm</code>	centimetre	(1 cm = 10 mm)
<code>mm</code>	millimetre	
<code>dd</code>	didot point	(1157 dd = 1238 pt)
<code>cc</code>	cicero	(1 cc = 12 dd)
<code>sp</code>	scaled point	(65536 sp = 1 pt)

Thus to produce a horizontal blank space of 20 mm in the middle of a paragraph one would type `\hspace{20 mm}`.

If LATEX decides to break between lines at a point in the document where an `\hspace` is specified, then no white space is produced. To ensure that white space is produced even at points in the document where line breaking takes place, one should replace `\hspace` by `\hspace*`. To produce (vertical) blank space between paragraphs, use `\vspace`, followed by the length of the blank space enclosed within curly brackets. Thus to obtain

This is the first paragraph of some text. It is separated from the second paragraph by a vertical skip of 10 millimetres.

This is the second paragraph.

one should type

```
This is the first paragraph of some text. It is
separated from the second paragraph by a vertical skip of
10 millimetres.
```

```
\vspace{10 mm}
```

```
This is the second paragraph.
```

If LATEX decides to introduce at a point in the document where a `\vspace` is specified, then no white space is produced. To ensure that white space is produced even at points in the document where page breaking takes place, one should replace `\vspace` by `\vspace*`

We now describe certain features of LATEX relating to blank spaces and paragraph indentation which will improve the appearance of the final document. Experienced users of LATEX will improve the appearance of their documents if they bear these remarks in mind.

First note that, as a general rule, you should never put a blank space after a left parenthesis or before a right parenthesis. If you were to put a blank space in these places, then you run the risk that LATEX might start a new line immediately after the left parenthesis or before the right parenthesis, leaving the parenthesis marooned at the beginning or end of a line.

LATEX has its own rules for deciding the lengths of blank spaces. For instance, LATEX will put an extra amount of space after a full stop if it considers that the full stop marks the end of a sentence.

The rule adopted by LATEX is to regard a period (full stop) as the end of a sentence if it is preceded by a lowercase letter. If the period is preceded by an uppercase letter then LATEX assumes that it is not a full stop but follows the initials of somebody's name.

This works very well in most cases. However LATEX occasionally gets things wrong. This happens with a number of common abbreviations (as in 'Mr. Smith' or in 'etc. '), and, in particular, in the names of journals given in abbreviated form (e.g., 'Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. '). The way to overcome this problem is to put a backslash before the blank space in question. Thus we should type

```
Mr.\ Smith  
etc.\ and  
Proc.\ Amer.\ Math.\ Soc.
```

LATEX determines itself how to break up a paragraph into lines, and will occasionally hyphenate long words where this is desirable. However it is sometimes necessary to tell LATEX not to break at a particular blank space. The special character used for this purpose is `~`. It represents a blank space at which LATEX is not allowed to break between lines. It is often desirable to use `~` in names where the forenames are represented by initials. Thus to obtain 'W. R. Hamilton' it is best to type `W. ~R. ~Hamilton`. It is also desirable in phrases like 'Example 7' and 'the length l of the rod', obtained by typing `Example ~7` and `the length ~l of the rod`.

LATEX will automatically indent paragraphs (with the exception of the first paragraph of a new section). One can prevent LATEX from indenting a paragraph though by beginning the paragraph with the control sequence `\noindent`. Thus one obtains

This is the beginning of a paragraph which is not indented in the usual way. This has been achieved by placing an appropriate control sequence at the beginning of the paragraph.

by typing

```
\noindent
```

```
This is the beginning of a paragraph which is not  
indented in the usual way. This has been achieved  
by placing an appropriate control sequence at the  
beginning of the paragraph.
```

Conversely, the control sequence `\indent` forces LATEX to indent the paragraph.

4.2 Lists

LATEX provides the following list environments:

- `enumerate` for numbered lists,
- `itemize` for un-numbered lists,
- `description` for description lists

Numbered lists are produced using

```
\begin{enumerate} ... \end{enumerate}
```

The items in the list should be enclosed between

```
\begin{enumerate} and \end{enumerate}
```

and should each be preceded by the control sequence `\item` (which will automatically generate the number labelling the item). For example, the text

A metric space (X, d) consists of a set X on which is defined a *distance function* which assigns to each pair of points of X a distance between them, and which satisfies the following four axioms:

1. $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for all points x and y of X ;
2. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all points x and y of X ;
3. $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ for all points x, y and z of X ;
4. $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if the points x and y coincide.

is generated by LATEX from the following input:

A `\emph{metric space}` (X,d) consists of a set X on which is defined a `\emph{distance function}` which assigns to each pair of points of X a distance between them, and which satisfies the following four axioms:

```
\begin{enumerate}
```

```
\item
```

```
 $d(x,y) \geq 0$  for all points  $x$  and  $y$  of  $X$ ;
```

```
\item
```

```
 $d(x,y) = d(y,x)$  for all points  $x$  and  $y$  of  $X$ ;
```

```
\item
```

```
 $d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$  for all points  $x$ ,  $y$ ,  
and  $z$  of  $X$ ;
```

```
\item
```

```
 $d(x,y) = 0$  if and only if the points  $x$  and  $y$   
coincide.
```

```
\end{enumerate}
```

Un-numbered lists are produced using

```
\begin{itemize} ... \end{itemize}
```

If we replace

```
\begin{enumerate} and \end{enumerate}
```

in the above input by

```
\begin{itemize} and \end{itemize}
```

respectively, LATEX generates an itemized list in which each item is preceded by a ‘bullet’:

A *metric space* (X, d) consists of a set X on which is defined a *distance function* which assigns to each pair of points of X a distance between them, and which satisfies the following four axioms:

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for all points x and y of X ;
- $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all points x and y of X ;
- $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ for all points x, y and z of X ;
- $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if the points x and y coincide.

Description lists (for glossaries etc.) are produced using

```
\begin{description} ... \end{description}
```

The items in the list should be enclosed between

```
\begin{description} and \end{description}
```

and should each be preceded by `\item[label]`, where *label* is the label to be assigned to each item. For example, the text

We now list the definitions of *open ball*, *open set* and *closed set* in a metric space.

open ball The *open ball* of radius r about any point x is the set of all points of the metric space whose distance from x is strictly less than r ;

open set A subset of a metric space is an *open set* if, given any point of the set, some open ball of sufficiently small radius about that point is contained wholly within the set;

closed set A subset of a metric space is a *closed set* if its complement is an open set.

is generated by LATEX from the following input:

```
We now list the definitions of \emph{open ball},
\emph{open set} and \emph{closed set} in a metric space.
\begin{description}
\item[open ball]
The \emph{open ball} of radius~$r$ about any point~$x$
is the set of all points of the metric space whose
distance from $x$ is strictly less than $r$;
\item[open set]
A subset of a metric space is an \emph{open set} if,
given any point of the set, some open ball of
sufficiently small radius about that point is contained
wholly within the set;
\item[closed set]
A subset of a metric space is a \emph{closed set} if its
complement is an open set.
\end{description}
```

4.3 Displayed Quotations

Displayed quotations can be embedded in text using the **quote** and **quotation** environments

```
\begin{quote} ... \end{quote}
```

and

```
\begin{quotation} ... \end{quotation}.
```

The **quote** environment is recommended for short quotations: the whole quotation is indented in the **quote** environment, but the first lines of individual paragraphs are not further indented. The input file

```
Isaac Newton discovered the basic techniques of  
the differential and integral calculus, and  
applied them in the study of many problems  
in mathematical physics. His main mathematical  
works are the \emph{Principia} and the \emph{Optics}.  
He summed up his own estimate of his work as follows:
```

```
\begin{quote}
```

```
I do not know what I may appear to the world; but to  
myself I seem to have been only like a boy, playing  
on the sea-shore, and diverting myself, in now and  
then finding a smoother pebble, or a prettier shell  
than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay  
all undiscovered before me.
```

```
\end{quote}
```

```
In later years Newton became embroiled in a bitter  
priority dispute with Leibniz over the discovery  
of the basic techniques of calculus.
```

is typeset by LATEX as follows:

Isaac Newton discovered the basic techniques of the differential and integral calculus, and applied them in the study of many problems in mathematical physics. His main mathematical works are the *Principia* and the *Optics*. He summed up his own estimate of his work as follows:

I do not know what I may appear to the world; but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy, playing on the sea-shore, and diverting myself, in now and then finding a smoother pebble, or a prettier shell than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me.

In later years Newton became embroiled in a bitter priority dispute with Leibniz over the discovery of the basic techniques of calculus.

For longer quotations one may use the **quotation** environment: the whole quotation is indented, and the openings of paragraphs are then further indented in the normal fashion.

4.4 Tables

Tables can be produced in LATEX using the **tabular** environment. For example, the text

The first five International Congresses of Mathematicians were held in the following cities:

Chicago	U.S.A.	1893
Zürich	Switzerland	1897
Paris	France	1900
Heidelberg	Germany	1904
Rome	Italy	1908

is produced in LATEX using the following input file:

```
The first five International Congresses of Mathematicians
were held in the following cities:
```

```
\begin{quote}
\begin{tabular}{lll}
Chicago&U.S.A.&1893\\
Z\"{u}rich&Switzerland&1897\\
Paris&France&1900\\
Heidelberg&Germany&1904\\
Rome&Italy&1908
\end{tabular}
\end{quote}
```

The `\begin{tabular}` command must be followed by a string of characters enclosed within braces which specifies the format of the table. In the above example, the string `{lll}` is a format specification for a table with three columns of left-justified text. Within the body of the table the ampersand character `&` is used to separate columns of text within each row, and the double backslash `\\` is used to separate the rows of the table.

The next example shows how to obtain a table with vertical and horizontal lines. The text

The group of permutations of a set of n elements has order $n!$, where $n!$, the factorial of n , is the product of all integers between 1 and n . The following table lists the values of the factorial of each integer n between 1 and 10:

n	$n!$
1	1
2	2
3	6
4	24
5	120
6	720
7	5040
8	40320
9	362880
10	3628800

Note how rapidly the value of $n!$ increases with n .

is produced in LATEX using the following input file:

```
The group of permutations of a set of  $n$  elements has
order  $n!$ , where  $n!$ , the factorial of  $n$ , is the
product of all integers between 1 and  $n$ . The
following table lists the values of the factorial of each
integer  $n$  between 1 and 10:
```

```
\begin{quote}
\begin{tabular}{|r|r|}
\hline
 $n$ & $n!$ \\
\hline
1&1\\
```

```

2&2\\
3&6\\
4&24\\
5&120\\
6&720\\
7&5040\\
8&40320\\
9&362880\\
10&3628800\\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{quote}

```

Note how rapidly the value of $n!$ increases with n .

In this example the format specification `{|r|}` after `\begin{tabular}` specifies that the table should consist of two columns of right-justified text, with vertical lines to the left and to the right of the table, and between columns.

Within the body of the table, the command `\hline` produces a horizontal line; this command can only be placed between the format specification and the body of the table (to produce a line along the top of the table) or immediately after a row separator (to produce a horizontal line between rows or at the bottom of the table).

In a tabular environment, the format specification after `\begin{tabular}` should consist of one or more of the following, enclosed within braces `{` and `}`:

<code>l</code>	specifies a column of left-justified text
<code>c</code>	specifies a column of centred text
<code>r</code>	specifies a column of right-justified text
<code>p{width}</code>	specifies a left-justified column of the given width
<code> </code>	inserts a vertical line between columns
<code>@{text}</code>	inserts the given <i>text</i> between columns

A string *str* of characters in the format specification can be repeated *num* times using the construction `*{num}{str}`. For example, a table with 15 columns of right-justified text enclosed within vertical lines can be produced using the format specification `{ | *{15}{r | } }`.

If additional vertical space is required between rows of the table, then this can be produced by specifying the amount of space within square brackets after `\`. For example, one would use `\[6pt]` to separate two rows of the table by 6 points of blank space.

A horizontal line in a table from column *i* to column *j* inclusive can be produced using `\cline{i-j}`. For example `\cline{3-5}` produces a horizontal line spanning columns 3, 4 and 5 of some table.

A command of the form `\multicolumn{num}{fmt}{text}` can be used within the body of a table to produce an entry spanning several columns. Here *num* specifies the number of columns to be spanned, *fmt* specifies the format for the entry (e.g., `l` if the entry is to be left-justified entry, or `c` if the entry is to be centered), and *text* is the text of the entry. For example, to span three columns of a table with the words ‘Year of Entry’ (centered with respect to the three columns), one would use

```
\multicolumn{3}{c}{Year of entry}
```

4.5 The Preamble of the LATEX Input file

We describe the options available in LATEX for specifying the overall style of a document.

A LATEX document should begin with a `\documentclass` command and any text to be printed must be included between

```
\begin{document} and \end{document}
```

commands. The `\begin{document}` command is sometimes preceded by commands that set the page-style and set up user-defined control sequences. Here is a typical LATEX input file:

```
\documentclass[a4paper,12pt]{article}  
\begin{document}
```

This is the first paragraph of a typical document. It is produced in a '12~point' size. A `\textit{point}` is a unit of length used by printers. One point is approximately $\$1/72\$$ ~inch. In a '12~point' font the height of the parentheses is 12~points (i.e. about $\$1/6\$$ ~inch) and the letter~'m' is about 12 points long.

This is the second paragraph of the document. There are also '10 point' and '11 point' styles available in `\LaTeX`. The required size is specified in the 'documentclass' command. If no such size is specified then the 10~point size is assumed.

```
\end{document}
```

The syntax of the `\documentclass` command is as follows. The command begins with `\documentclass` and ends with the names of one of the available styles, enclosed in curly brackets. The available styles are `article`, **report**, **book** and **letter**. Between the “`\documentclass`” and the name of the document style, one may place a list of options. These options are separated by commas and the list of options is enclosed in square brackets (as in the above example). The options available (which are usually the names of certain ‘style files’) include the following:

11pt Specifies a size of type known as *eleven-point*, which is ten percent larger than the ten-point type normally used.

12pt Specifies a twelve-point type size, which is twenty percent larger than ten-point.

twocolumn Produces two-column output.

a4paper This ensures that the page is appropriately positioned on A4 size paper.

Typing simply `\documentclass{article}` will produce a document in ten-point type size. However the printed output will not be nicely positioned on A4 paper, since the default size is intended for a different (American) paper size.

Pages will be automatically numbered at the bottom of the page, unless you specify otherwise. This can be done using the `\pagestyle` command. This command should come after the `\documentclass` command and before the `\begin{document}` command. This command has the syntax `\pagestyle{option}`, where the option is one of the following:

plain The page number is at the foot of the page. This is the default page style for the `article` and `report` document styles.

empty No page number is printed.

headings The page number (and any other information determined by the document style) is put at the top of the page.

myheadings Similar to the **headings** pagestyle, except that the material to go at the top of the page is determined by `\markboth` and `\markright` commands (see the L^AT_EX manual).

For example, the input file

```
\documentclass[a4paper]{article}
\pagestyle{empty}
\begin{document}
The main body of the document is placed here.
\end{document}
```

produces a document without page numbers, using the standard ten-point type size.

4.6 Defining your own Control Sequences in L^AT_EX

Suppose that we are producing a paper that makes frequent use of some mathematical expression. For example, suppose that integrals like

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx.$$

occur frequently throughout the text. This formula is obtained by typing

```
\[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)\,dx.\]
```

It would be nice if we could type `\inftyint` (say) to obtain the integral sign at the beginning. This can be done using `\newcommand`. What we do is to place a line with the command

```
\newcommand{\inftyint}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty}}
```

near the beginning of the input file (e.g., after the `\documentclass` command but before the `\begin{document}` command). Then we only have to type

```
\[ \inftyint f(x)\,dx.\]
```

to obtain the above formula.

We can modify this procedure slightly. Suppose that we we defined a new control sequence `\intwrtx` by putting the line

```
\newcommand{\intwrtx}[1]{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} #1 \,dx}
```

at the beginning of the input file. If we then type the line

```
\[ \intwrtx{f(x)}.\]
```

then we obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx.$$

What has happened is that the expression in curly brackets after `\intwrtx` has been substituted in the expression defining `\intwrtx`, replacing the `#1` in that expression.

The number 1 inside square brackets in the `\newcommand` line defining `\intwrtx` indicates to LATEX that it is to expect one expression (in curly brackets) after `\intwrtx` to substitute for `#1` in the definition of `\intwrtx`. If we defined a control sequence `\intwrt` by

```
\newcommand{\intwrt}[2]{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} #2 \,d #1}
```

then it would expect two expressions to substitute in for `#1` and `#2` in the definition of `\intwrt`. Thus if we then type

```
\[ \intwrt{y}{f(y)}. \]
```

we obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(y) dy.$$

I will now present a wide variety of examples of inserting figure from my Quantum Mechanics textbook.

The LATEX code below

Suppose we have the experiment described in Figure 5.2 below:

```
\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=4in]{bayer1.pdf}
\caption{Experimental Setup}
\end{figure}\[12pt]
```

where S is a thermal source of light, P is a polarizer, H is pinhole, C is a calcite crystal, and D is a detector with separate counters for the two different polarized beams emerging from the calcite crystal. The detector D also makes a permanent record of the measured events. We assume that the light intensity is so weak and the detectors are so fast that individual photons can be registered. The arrivals of photons are recorded by printing $+$ or $-$ on a paper tape, according to whether the upper or lower detector was triggered, respectively. The sequence of $+$ and $-$ marks appears random. As the total number marks, N_{+} and N_{-} , become large, we find that the corresponding probabilities(count ratios), tend to limits

```
\begin{equation}
\frac{N_{+}}{N_{+}+N_{-}} \to \cos^2{\alpha} \quad , \quad
\frac{N_{-}}{N_{+}+N_{-}} \to \sin^2{\alpha}
\end{equation}
```

where α is the angle between the polarization axis of the polaroid and the optic axis of the calcite crystal.\[12pt]

produces the output on the next page.

Suppose we have the experiment described in Figure 5.2 below:

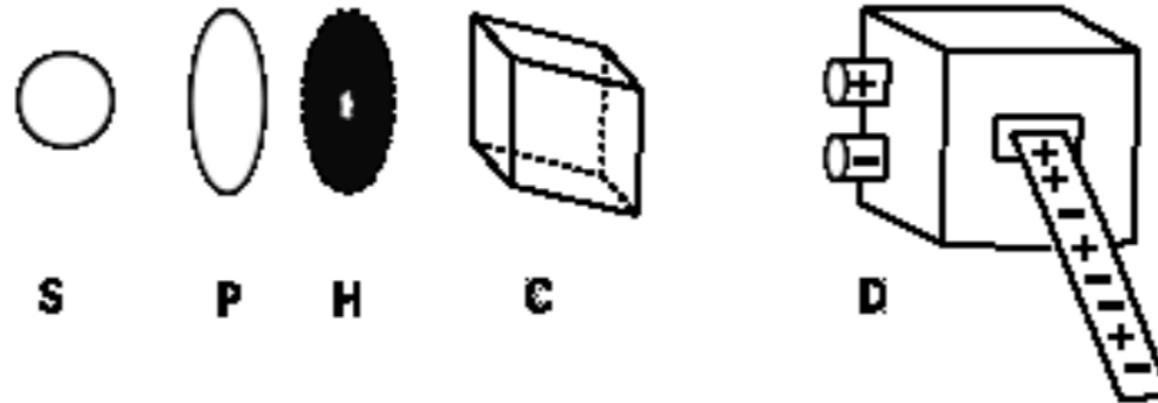


Figure 5.2: Experimental Setup

where S is a thermal source of light, P is a polarizer, H is pinhole, C is a calcite crystal, and D is a detector with separate counters for the two different polarized beams emerging from the calcite crystal. The detector D also makes a permanent record of the measured events. We assume that the light intensity is so weak and the detectors are so fast that individual photons can be registered. The arrivals of photons are recorded by printing + or - on a paper tape, according to whether the upper or lower detector was triggered, respectively. The sequence of + and - marks appears random. As the total number marks, N_+ and N_- , become large, we find that the corresponding probabilities(count ratios), tend to limits

$$\frac{N_+}{N_+ + N_-} \rightarrow \cos^2 \alpha \quad , \quad \frac{N_-}{N_+ + N_-} \rightarrow \sin^2 \alpha \quad (5.132)$$

where α is the angle between the polarization axis of the polaroid and the optic axis of the calcite crystal.

This LATEX code

A plot of $T(E)$ versus E is shown below for the case

```
\begin{equation}
\frac{2mV_0 a^2}{\hbar^2} = \frac{25\pi^2}{4}
\end{equation}
\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=3in]{wp9.pdf}
\caption{Transmission over a Square Well}
\end{figure}\[12pt]
```

produces the output

A plot of $T(E)$ versus E is shown below for the case

$$\frac{2mV_0 a^2}{\hbar^2} = \frac{25\pi^2}{4} \quad (6.241)$$

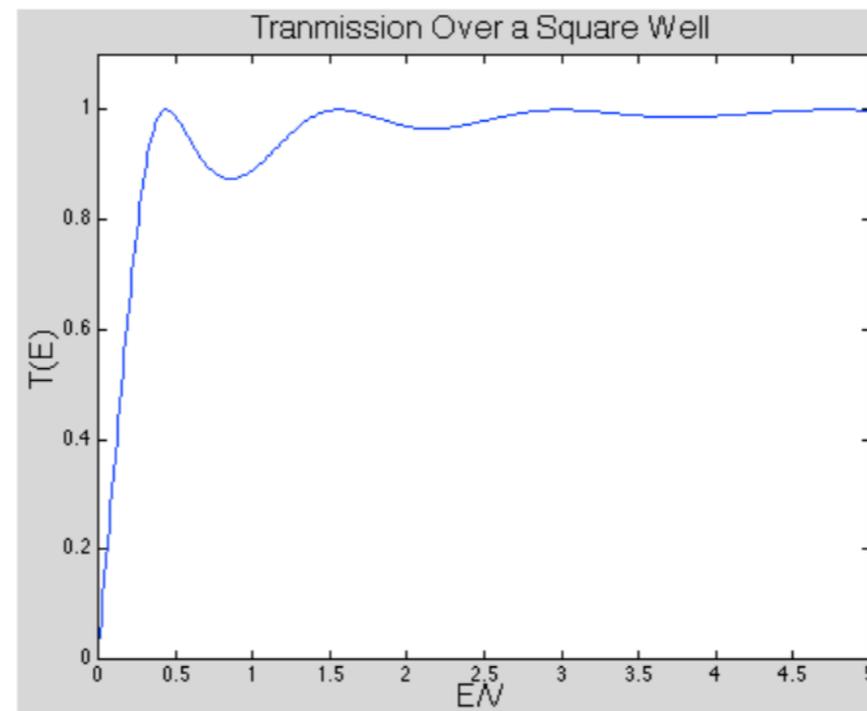


Figure 6.9: Transmission over a Square Well

This LATEX code

In Figure 6.11 below, we plot the exponential function for several values of ϵ . As can be seen, the properties of the solutions are:

```
\begin{enumerate}
```

```
\item Even solutions always exist
```

```
\item Odd solutions do not always exist (see the  $\epsilon=0.25$  line, which only intersects the even curve)
```

```
\item As  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  which corresponds to  $\ell \rightarrow \infty$  we get  $E_{\text{odd}}=E_{\text{even}}$ . Physically, the wells are separating so that they no longer influence each other and the system behaves like two separate wells.
```

```
\end{enumerate}
```

We will look at this property again later when we consider a translationally invariant infinite line of delta functions. The interaction between the wells coupled to the translations invariance will lead to energy bands as in real solids.

```
\begin{figure}[h]
```

```
\centering
```

```
\includegraphics[width=4in]{wp10.pdf}
```

```
\caption{Double delta Function Bound States}
```

```
\end{figure}
```

```
\newpage
```

produces the output

In Figure 6.11 below, we plot the exponential function for several values of ϵ . As can be seen, the properties of the solutions are:

1. Even solutions always exist
2. Odd solutions do not always exist (see the $\epsilon = 0.25$ line, which only intersects the even curve)
3. As $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ which corresponds to $\ell \rightarrow \infty$ we get $E_{\text{odd}} = E_{\text{even}}$. Physically, the wells are separating so that they no longer influence each other and the system behaves like two separate wells.

We will look at this property again later when we consider a translationally invariant infinite line of delta functions. The interaction between the wells coupled to the translations invariance will lead to energy bands as in real solids.

and

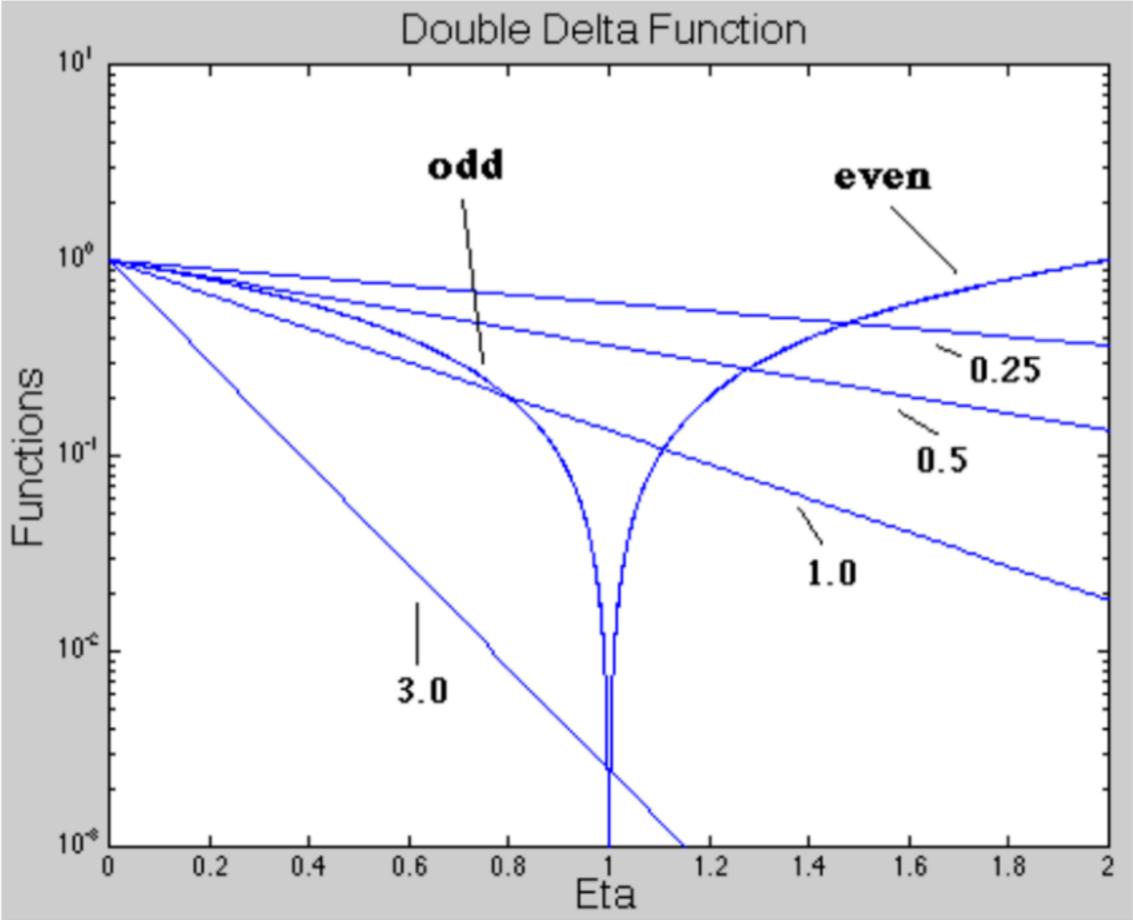


Figure 6.11: Double delta Function Bound States
□

Some further details about setting up the main file.

On the next few pages I show the LATEX file used to produce my textbook with added explanations.

```
\documentclass[letterpaper,twoside]{book}
\usepackage{amssymb,latexsym}
\usepackage{amsmath}
\usepackage{braket}
\usepackage{graphicx}
\usepackage{subfigure}
\usepackage{slashed}
\usepackage{xfrac}
\usepackage{ifthen}
\usepackage{empheq}
\usepackage{MnSymbol}
\usepackage{pifont}
\usepackage{bbm}
\usepackage{mathrsfs}
\usepackage{tensor}
\usepackage{url}
\usepackage{wasysym}
\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}
\usepackage{titlesec}
\usepackage{leftidx}
\usepackage{color}
\usepackage{soul}
\usepackage[stable]{footmisc}
\usepackage{caption}
\usepackage{wasysym}
\usepackage{textcomp}
\usepackage{mathtools}
\title{Huge States and Measurements}
\author{John R. Boccio\\Professor of Physics\\Swarthmore College}
\date{\today}
\begin{document}
\thispagestyle{empty}
\maketitle
\thispagestyle{empty}
\cleardoublepage
\pagenumbering{roman} \tableofcontents \clearpage \thispagestyle{empty} \cleardoublepage \pagenumbering{arabic}
\pagestyle{plain}
\input{Chapter11 a.tex}
\end{document}
```

Beginning `\documentclass` with instructions about what is being produced.

I then choose to load the FONTS i might be using.

That is followed by TITLE, AUTHOR, DATE and then `\begin(document)`

Before added text material, I make a title page, skip a couple of pages, set page numbering, add a table of contents, etc

Finally I add the TEXT input (in this case I shift to a complete document named Chapter11a.tex).

Chapter11a.tex looks like

`\setcounter{chapter}{10}`

`\chapter{\Large States and Measurement}`

`\section{State Preparation/Determination \ Density Matrix Revisited}\index{Measurement!State Preparation}\index{Measurement!Density Matrix}`

In Chapter 6 we introduced the two basic concepts needed to discuss the formal structure of quantum mechanics. $\llbracket 12pt$

`\textbf{Postulate 1}` defined observables as Hermitian operators and identified their eigenvalues with the possible results of any measurement of the corresponding dynamical variable. $\llbracket 12pt$

`\textbf{Postulate 2}` stated that every physical system has a state (or density) operator associated with it, or, alternatively, we might say that every physical system has an associated state vector. $\llbracket 12pt$

This means that we must have some reproducible preparation procedure, which we identify with the term state, that determines a probability distribution for each dynamical variable. $\llbracket 12pt$

This presents us with two kinds of problems:

`\begin{enumerate}`

`\item \textbf{State Preparation}` - How do we actually prepare a state that is represented by a particular state operator or state vector?

`\item \textbf{State Determination}` - For a given system, how do we determine the state operator or state vector?

`\end{enumerate}`

`\subsection{State Preparation}`

lots more text.....

`\begin{itemize}`

`\item[(a)]` What is the reduced density operator on $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ if we take a partial trace over \mathcal{H}_C ?

`\item[(b)]` Suppose Charlie performs a measurement specified by the partial projectors $1^A \otimes 1^B \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|_C$ and $1^A \otimes 1^B \otimes |1\rangle\langle 1|_C$. Compute the probabilities of the possible outcomes, as well as the corresponding post-measurement states. Show that this ensemble is consistent with your answer to part (a)

`\item[(c)]` Suppose Charlie performs a measurement specified by the partial projectors $1^A \otimes 1^B \otimes |x\rangle\langle x|_C$ and $1^A \otimes 1^B \otimes |y\rangle\langle y|_C$, where

`\begin{equation}`

$$|x\rangle_C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_C + |1\rangle_C) \quad , \quad |y\rangle_C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_C - |1\rangle_C)$$

`\end{equation}`

Again, compute the probabilities of the possible outcomes and the corresponding post-measurement states and show that this ensemble is consistent with your answer from part (a).

`\item[(d)]` Suppose Alice and Bob know that Charlie has performed one of the two measurements from parts (b) and (c), but they do not know which (assume equal probabilities) measurement he performed nor do they know the outcome. Write down the quantum ensemble that you think Alice and Bob should use to describe the post-measurement state on

$\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$. Is this consistent with the reduced density operator from part (a)? How should Alice and Bob change their description of the post-measurement state if Charlie subsequently tells them which measurement he performed and what the outcome was?

`\end{itemize}`

Finally, let me mention a specialized library for GRAPHICS - it is called “tikz”. It is added using these commands.

At the beginning:

```
\documentclass[11pt]{article}  
\usepackage{tikz}  
\usetikzlibrary{arrows,calc}
```

In the document:

```
\begin{document}  
\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=1.0,
```

At the end:

```
\end{tikzpicture}  
\end{document}
```

Some examples (very sophisticated to show the power) follow now.

% Energy level diagrams - illustrating Hund's rule

% Author: Henri Menke

\documentclass[tikz, border=10pt]{standalone}

\usetikzlibrary{shapes.callouts}

\tikzset{

level/.style = { ultra thick, blue },

connect/.style = { dashed, red },

notice/.style = { draw, rectangle callout, callout relative pointer={#1} },

label/.style = { text width=2cm }

}

\begin{document}

\begin{tikzpicture}

 % Draw all levels

 \draw[level] (0,0) -- node[above] {4p4d} (2,0);

 \draw[connect] (2,0) -- (3,-2) (2,0) -- (3,3);

 \draw[level] (3,3) -- node[above] {\$S=0\$} node[below] {(Singlets)} (5,3);

 \draw[level] (3,-2) -- node[above] {\$S=1\$} node[below] {(Triplets)} (5,-2);

 \draw[connect] (5,3) -- (6,4.5) (5,3) -- (6,3.5) (5,3) -- (6,1.5);

 \draw[connect] (5,-2) -- (6,-0.5) (5,-2) -- (6,-1.5) (5,-2) -- (6,-3.5);

 \draw[level] (6,4.5) -- node[above] {\$^1P\$} (8,4.5);

 \draw[level] (6,3.5) -- node[above] {\$^1D\$} (8,3.5);

 \draw[level] (6,1.5) -- node[above] {\$^1F\$} (8,1.5);

 \draw[level] (6,-0.5) -- node[above] {\$^3P\$} (8,-0.5);

 \draw[level] (6,-1.5) -- node[above] {\$^3D\$} (8,-1.5);

 \draw[level] (6,-3.5) -- node[above] {\$^3F\$} (8,-3.5);

 \draw[connect] (8,4.5) -- (9,4.5) (8,3.5) -- (9,3.5) (8,1.5) -- (9,1.5);

 \draw[level] (9,4.5) -- (11,4.5) node[right] {\$^1P_1\$};

 \draw[level] (9,3.5) -- (11,3.5) node[right] {\$^1D_2\$};

 \draw[level] (9,1.5) -- (11,1.5) node[right] {\$^1F_3\$};

 \draw[connect] (8,-0.5) -- (9,-0.5) (8,-0.5) -- (9,-0.8) (8,-0.5) -- (9,-1) (8,-1.5) -- (9,-1.6) (8,-1.5) -- (9,-1.8) (8,-1.5) -- (9,-1.3) (8,-3.5) -- (9,-3.8) (8,-3.5) -- (9,-3.6) (8,-3.5) -- (9,-3.1);

 \foreach \i/\j in {2/-0.5, 1/-0.8, 0/-1} {

 \draw[level] (9,\j) -- (11,\j) node[right] {\scriptsize \$\i\$};

 }

 \node[level, right] at (11.5,-0.8) {\$^3P_{0,1,2}\$};

 \foreach \i/\j in {3/-1.3, 2/-1.6, 1/-1.8} {

 \draw[level] (9,\j) -- (11,\j) node[right] {\scriptsize \$\i\$};

 }

 \node[level, right] at (11.5,-1.6) {\$^3D_{1,2,3}\$};

 \foreach \i/\j in {4/-3.1, 3/-3.6, 2/-3.8} {

 \draw[level] (9,\j) -- (11,\j) node[right] {\scriptsize \$\i\$};

 }

 \node[level, right] at (11.5,-3.6) {\$^3F_{2,3,4}\$};

 % Draw labels

 \node[label] at (4,5.5) {Spin-spin interaction};

 \node[label] at (7,5.5) {Orbit-orbit interaction};

 \node[label] at (10,5.5) {Spin-orbit interaction};

 % Draw annotations

 \node[notice={(0.5,0.5)}, text width=1.5cm] at (2,-3) {Hunds rule \# 1};

 \node[notice={(0,1)}] at (4,-4) {Why is triplet lower};

 \node[notice={(0.7,0.7)}, text width=3cm] at (6,-5)

 {Why is higher angular momentum state lower energy?};

 \node[notice={(-0.9,0.9)}, text width=1.5cm] at (9,-5) {Hunds rule \# 2};

 \node[notice={(-0.2,1.6)}, text width=3cm] at (11,-6.5)

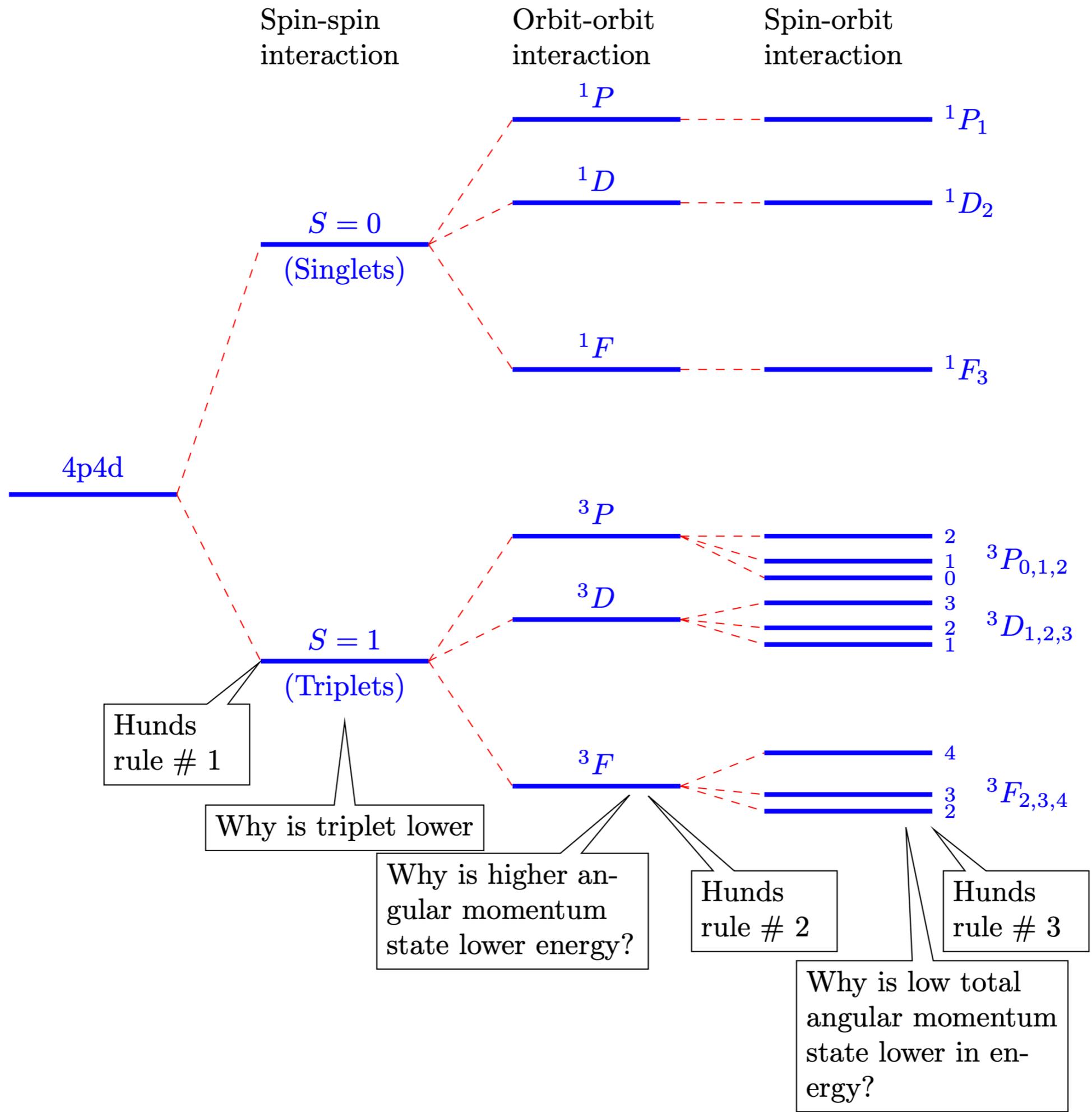
 {Why is low total angular momentum state lower in energy?};

 \node[notice={(-0.5,0.5)}, text width=1.5cm] at (12,-5) {Hunds rule \# 3};

\end{tikzpicture}

\end{document}

giving the output



```

% Dipolar magnetic field
% Author: Cyril Langlois
%
% A 3D plot of a dipolar magnetic field similar to the Earth's one.
% The field lines are drawn in each longitude plane using the dipolar field
% equation. Like Earth's field, the north magnetic pole lies close to the south
% geographic pole and vice-versa.
%
% The code is based on the Tomasz M. Trzeciak code for stereographic drawing and
\documentclass[11pt]{article}
\usepackage{tikz}
\usetikzlibrary{arrows,calc}
%% Macro's for 3D figures %%
\newcommand\pgfmathsinandcos[3]{%
  \pgfmathsetmacro#1{sin(#3)}%
  \pgfmathsetmacro#2{cos(#3)}%
}
\newcommand\LongitudePlane[3][current plane]{%
  \pgfmathsinandcos\sinEI\cosEI{#2} % elevation
  \pgfmathsinandcos\sint\cost{#3} % azimuth
  \tikzset{#1/.estyle={cm={\cost,\sint*\sinEI,0,\cosEI,(0,0)}}}
}
\newcommand\LatitudePlane[3][current plane]{%
  \pgfmathsinandcos\sinEI\cosEI{#2} % elevation
  \pgfmathsinandcos\sint\cost{#3} % latitude
  \pgfmathsetmacro\yshift{\cosEI*\sint}
  \tikzset{#1/.estyle={cm={\cost,0,0,\cost*\sinEI,(0,\yshift)}}} %
}
\newcommand\DrawLongitudeCircle[2][1]{
  \LongitudePlane{\angEI}{#2}
  \tikzset{current plane/.prefix style={scale=#1}}
  % angle of "visibility"
  \pgfmathsetmacro\angVis{atan(sin(#2)*cos(\angEI)/sin(\angEI))} %
  \draw[current plane] (\angVis:1) arc (\angVis:\angVis+180:1);
  \draw[current plane,dashed] (\angVis-180:1) arc (\angVis-180:\angVis:1);
}
\newcommand\DrawLatitudeCircle[2][1]{
  \LatitudePlane{\angEI}{#2}
  \tikzset{current plane/.prefix style={scale=#1}}
  \pgfmathsetmacro\sinVis{sin(#2)/cos(#2)*sin(\angEI)/cos(\angEI)}
  % angle of "visibility"
  \pgfmathsetmacro\angVis{asin(min(1,max(\sinVis,-1)))}
  \draw[current plane] (\angVis:1) arc (\angVis:-\angVis-180:1);
  \draw[current plane,dashed] (180-\angVis:1) arc (180-\angVis:\angVis:1);
}

```

```

\begin{document}
\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=1.0,
  %Option for nice arrows%
  >=latex,%
  inner sep=0pt,%
  outer sep=2pt,%
  mark coordinate/.style={outer sep=0pt,
    minimum size=3pt, fill=black,circle}%
]
%% some definitions
\defR{0.5} % sphere radius
\defangEI{30} % elevation angle
\defangAz{-140} % azimuth angle
\defangPhi{-105} % longitude of point
\defangBeta{55} % latitude of point
\defangGam{-190} % longitude of point
%% working planes
\pgfmathsetmacro\H{R*cos(\angEI)} % Distance to north pole
\LongitudePlane{xzplane}{\angEI}{\angAz} % x-axis plane
%
\coordinate (O) at (0,0);
%
\begin{scope}[rotate around={-11.1:(0,0)},
  field line/.style={color=red, smooth,
    variable=\t, samples at={0,-5,-10,...,-360}}]
]
\clip[rotate around={11.1:(0,0)}] (-7,5) rectangle (7,-5);

% Computes a point on a field line given r and t
\newcommand\fieldlinecurve[2]{%
  {(pow(#1,2))*(3*cos(#2)+cos(3*#2))}, {(pow(#1,2))*(sin(#2)+sin(3*#2))}%
}

% Longitudinal planes
\foreach \u in {0,-40,...,-160}{
  \LongitudePlane[{\u}zplane]{\angEI}{\u}
  \foreach \r in {0.25,0.5,...,2.25}{
    \draw[{\u}zplane], field line]
    plot (\fieldlinecurve{\r}{\t});
  }
}
\foreach \u in {-200,-240,...,-320}{
  \LongitudePlane[{\u}zplane]{\angEI}{\u}
  \foreach \r in {0.25,0.5,...,2.25}{
    \draw[{\u}zplane], dashed, field line]
    plot (\fieldlinecurve{\r}{\t});
  }
}

```

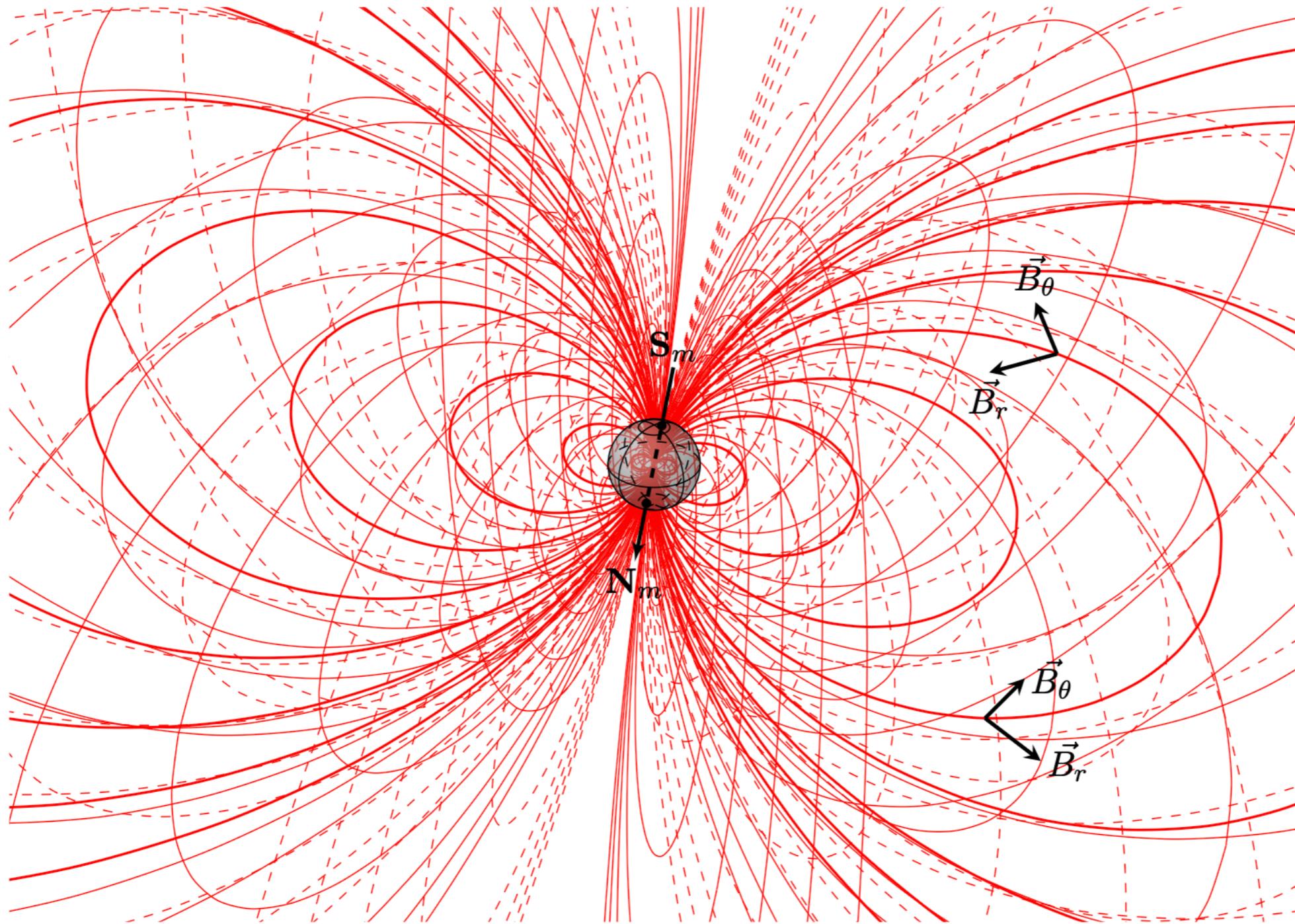
```

% Drawing plane for the B-vectors
\LongitudePlane[bzplane]{\angEl}{0}
  \foreach \r in {0.25,0.5,...,2.25}{
    \draw[bzplane, thick, field line]
      plot (\fieldlinecurve{\r}{\t});
  }

\begin{scope}[bzplane, very thick, ->, >=stealth]
  \draw (\fieldlinecurve{1.25}{-30}) -- +(-30:0.79cm) node[right] {\vec{B}_{r}};
  \draw (\fieldlinecurve{1.25}{-30}) -- +(60:0.68cm) node[right] {\vec{B}_{\theta}};
  \draw (\fieldlinecurve{1.25}{30}) -- +(-150:0.79cm) node[below] {\vec{B}_{r}};
  \draw (\fieldlinecurve{1.25}{30}) -- +(120:0.68cm) node[above] {\vec{B}_{\theta}}
\end{scope}
%
\begin{scope}[rotate around={11.1:(0,0)}]
  \fill[ball color=white,opacity=0.3] (O) circle (\R); %3D lighting effect
  \draw (O) circle (\R);
  \DrawLongitudeCircle[\R]{\angAz} % xzplane
  \DrawLongitudeCircle[\R]{\angAz + 90} % vzplane
  \DrawLatitudeCircle[\R]{0} % equator
  \DrawLatitudeCircle[\R]{70} % Latitude 70
  \DrawLatitudeCircle[\R]{-70} % Latitude -70
\end{scope}
%
\coordinate[mark coordinate] (Sm) at (0, \H);
\coordinate[mark coordinate] (Nm) at (0, -\H);
\path[xzplane] (Nm) -- +(0,-0.75) coordinate (Nm1) node[below] {\mathbf{N}_m}
  (Sm) -- +(0,0.75) coordinate (Sm1) node[above] {\mathbf{S}_m};
\draw[very thick, dashed] (Sm) -- (Nm);
\draw[very thick] (Sm1) -- (Sm);
\draw[very thick,->,>=latex'](Nm) -- (Nm1);
\end{scope}
\node[align=justify, text width=14cm, anchor=north west] at (-7,-5.2)
{Schematic Earth dipolar magnetic field. The field lines placed in the
page plane are drawn as thick lines, those back with dashed lines and
the field lines in front of the page with thin lines.};
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{document}

```

giving the output



Schematic Earth dipolar magnetic field. The field lines placed in the page plane are drawn as thick lines, those back with dashed lines and the field lines in front of the page with thin lines.

```

% Feynman diagram
% Requires PGF >= 2.0
\documentclass{article}

\usepackage[latin1]{inputenc}
\usepackage{tikz}
\usetikzlibrary{trees}
\usetikzlibrary{decorations.pathmorphing}
\usetikzlibrary{decorations.markings}
\begin{document}

% Define styles for the different kind of edges in a Feynman diagram
\tikzset{
  photon/.style={decorate, decoration={snake}, draw=red},
  electron/.style={draw=blue, postaction={decorate},
    decoration={markings,mark=at position .55 with {\arrow[draw=blue]{>}}},
  gluon/.style={decorate, draw=magenta,
    decoration={coil,amplitude=4pt, segment length=5pt}}
}

\begin{tikzpicture}[
  thick,
  % Set the overall layout of the tree
  level/.style={level distance=1.5cm},
  level 2/.style={sibling distance=2.6cm},
  level 3/.style={sibling distance=2cm}
]
\coordinate
  child[grow=left]{
    child {
      node {$g$}
      % The 'edge from parent' is actually not needed because it is
      % implicitly added.
      edge from parent [gluon]
    }
    child {
      node {$g$}
      edge from parent [gluon]
    }
    edge from parent [gluon] node [above=3pt] {$g$}
  }
}
% I have to insert a dummy child to get the tree to grow
% correctly to the right.

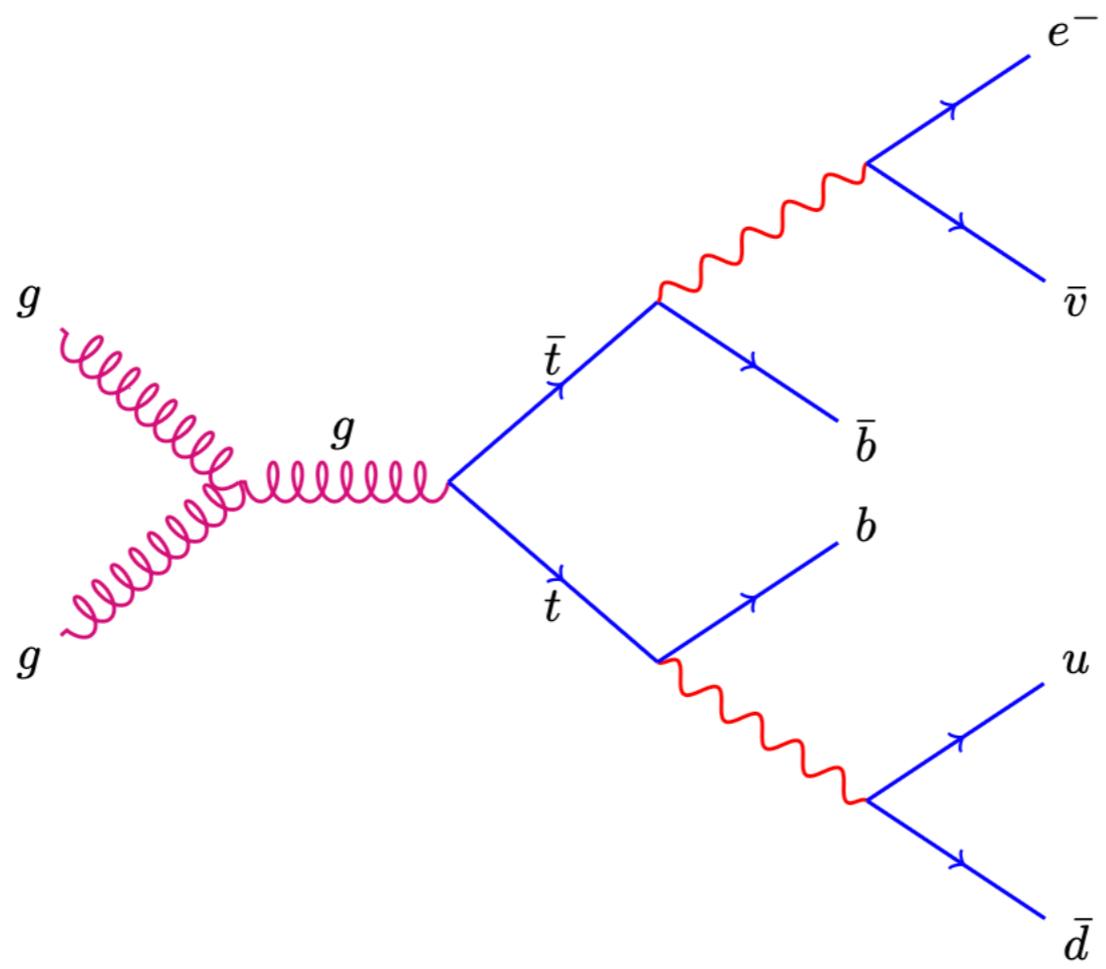
```

```

child[grow=right, level distance=0pt] {
  child {
    child {
      child {
        node {$\bar{d}$}
        edge from parent [electron]
      }
      child {
        node {$u$}
        edge from parent [electron]
      }
      edge from parent [photon]
    }
    child {
      node {$b$}
      edge from parent [electron]
    }
    edge from parent [electron]
    node [below] {$t$}
  }
  child {
    child {
      child {
        node {$\bar{v}$}
        edge from parent [electron]
      }
      child {
        node {$e^{-}$}
        edge from parent [electron]
      }
      edge from parent [photon]
    }
    edge from parent [electron]
    node [above] {$\bar{t}$}
  }
};
\end{tikzpicture}

```

giving the output



```

\documentclass{minimal}
% Line plot example using external data files.
%
% Author: Claudio Favi
\usepackage{tikz}
\usetikzlibrary{plotmarks}
% The data files, written on the first run.
\begin{filecontents}{div_soft.data}
#MOPS Power [mW]
1.33E-02 10.403432
1.33E-01 12.53108
2.66E-01 14.90265
3.99E-01 17.22483
5.31E-01 19.58292
6.64E-01 21.89876
7.97E-01 24.44624
9.30E-01 26.6708
\end{filecontents}

\begin{filecontents}{div_ciu.data}
# MOPS Power [mW]
4.35E-02 9.562436
4.35E-01 10.845494
8.69E-01 12.24356
1.30E+00 13.66974
1.74E+00 15.13008
2.17E+00 16.57845
2.61E+00 17.97894
3.04E+00 19.41534
\end{filecontents}

\begin{filecontents}{div_ciu_oscar.data}
#MOPS Power [mW]
8.57E-01 11.255013
9.99E-01 11.4804
1.14E+00 11.718
1.29E+00 11.9916
1.64E+00 12.65854
2.00E+00 13.308
2.64E+00 14.484
3.85E+00 16.8
\end{filecontents}

\begin{filecontents}{div_ciu_oscar_extrapolated.data}
# MOPS Power [mW]
4.28E+00 17.56312023
5.71E+00 20.21127914
7.14E+00 22.85943805
8.57E+00 25.50759696
9.99E+00 28.15575587
\end{filecontents}

```

```

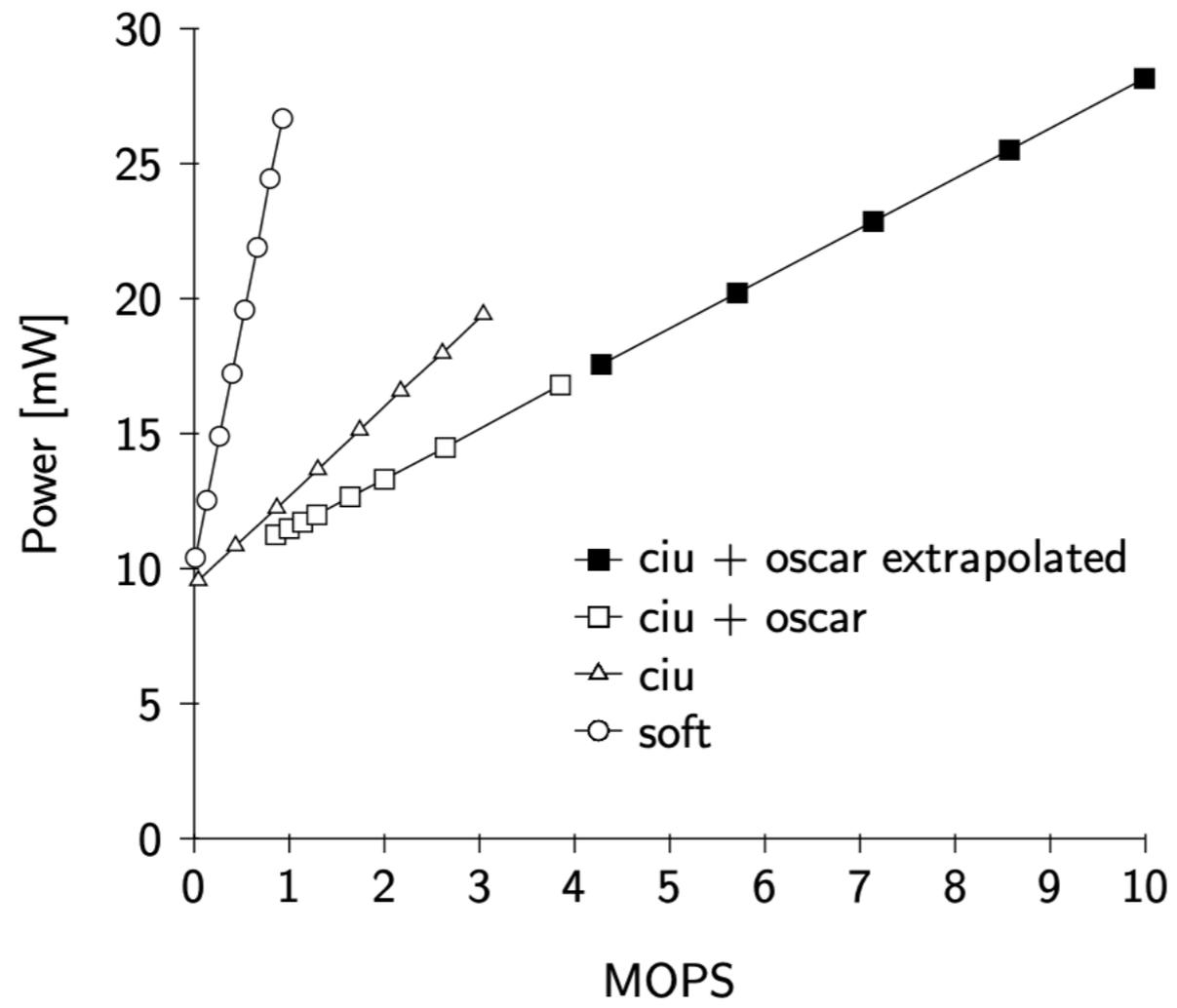
\begin{document}
\begin{tikzpicture}[y=.2cm, x=.7cm,font=\sffamily]
%axis
\draw (0,0) -- coordinate (x axis mid) (10,0);
\draw (0,0) -- coordinate (y axis mid) (0,30);
%ticks
\foreach \x in {0,...,10}
\draw (\x,1pt) -- (\x,-3pt)
node[anchor=north] {\x};
\foreach \y in {0,5,...,30}
\draw (1pt,\y) -- (-3pt,\y)
node[anchor=west] {\y};
%labels
\node[below=0.8cm] at (x axis mid) {MOPS};
\node[rotate=90, above=0.8cm] at (y axis mid) {Power [mW]};

%plots
\draw plot[mark=*, mark options={fill=white}]
file {div_soft.data};
\draw plot[mark=triangle*, mark options={fill=white} ]
file {div_ciu.data};
\draw plot[mark=square*, mark options={fill=white}]
file {div_ciu_oscar.data};
\draw plot[mark=square*]
file {div_ciu_oscar_extrapolated.data};

%legend
\begin{scope}[shift={(4,4)}]
\draw (0,0) --
plot[mark=*, mark options={fill=white}] (0.25,0) -- (0.5,0)
node[right]{soft};
\draw[yshift=\baselineskip] (0,0) --
plot[mark=triangle*, mark options={fill=white}] (0.25,0) -- (0.5,0)
node[right]{ciu};
\draw[yshift=2\baselineskip] (0,0) --
plot[mark=square*, mark options={fill=white}] (0.25,0) -- (0.5,0)
node[right]{ciu + oscar};
\draw[yshift=3\baselineskip] (0,0) --
plot[mark=square*, mark options={fill=black}] (0.25,0) -- (0.5,0)
node[right]{ciu + oscar extrapolated};
\end{scope}
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{document}

```

giving the output




```

\defR{4} % sphere radius

\defangEl{25} % elevation angle
\defangAz{-100} % azimuth angle
\defangPhiOne{-50} % longitude of point P
\defangPhiTwo{-35} % longitude of point Q
\defangBeta{30} % latitude of point P and Q

%% working planes

\pgfmathsetmacro\H{\R*cos(\angEl)} % distance to north pole
\LongitudePlane[xzplane]{\angEl}\angAz}
\LongitudePlane[pzplane]{\angEl}\angPhiOne}
\LongitudePlane[qzplane]{\angEl}\angPhiTwo}
\LatitudePlane[equator]{\angEl}{0}
\fill[ball color=white!10] (0,0) circle (\R); % 3D lighting effect
\coordinate (O) at (0,0);
\coordinate[mark coordinate] (N) at (0,\H);
\coordinate[mark coordinate] (S) at (0,-\H);
\path[xzplane] (\R,0) coordinate (XE);

%defining points outsided the area bounded by the sphere
\path[qzplane] (\angBeta:\R+5.2376) coordinate (XEd);
\path[pzplane] (\angBeta:\R) coordinate (P);%fino alla sfera
\path[pzplane] (\angBeta:\R+5.2376) coordinate (Pd);%sfora di una quantit  pari a 10 c
\path[pzplane] (\angBeta:\R+5.2376) coordinate (Td);%sfora di una quantit  pari a 10 c
\path[pzplane] (\R,0) coordinate (PE);
\path[pzplane] (\R+4,0) coordinate (PEd);
\path[qzplane] (\angBeta:\R) coordinate (Q);
\path[qzplane] (\angBeta:\R) coordinate (Qd);%sfora di una quantit  pari a 10 dopo la s
\path[qzplane] (\R,0) coordinate (QE);
\path[qzplane] (\R+4,0) coordinate (QEd);%sfora di una quantit  10 dalla sfera sul piano  

\DrawLongitudeCircle[\R]{\angPhiOne} % pzplane
\DrawLongitudeCircle[\R]{\angPhiTwo} % qzplane
\DrawLatitudeCircle[\R]{\angBeta}
\DrawLatitudeCircle[\R]{0} % equator
%labelling north and south
\node[above=8pt] at (N) {\mathbf{N}};
\node[below=8pt] at (S) {\mathbf{S}};

\draw[-,dashed,thick] (N) -- (S);
\draw[->] (O) -- (P);
\draw[dashed] (XE) -- (O) -- (PE);
\draw[dashed] (O) -- (QE);
%connecting Points outside the sphere
\draw[-,dashed,black,very thick] (O) -- (Pd);
\draw[-,dashed,black,very thick] (O) -- (PEd);
\draw[-,dashed,black,very thick] (O) -- (QEd);
\draw[-,dashed,black,very thick] (O) -- (XEd);

```

```

\draw[dashed] (XE) -- (O) -- (PE);
%draw black thick flat grid
\draw[-,ultra thick,black] (Pd) -- (PEd) node[below, left] {$P_1$};%verticale sinistro
\draw[-,ultra thick,black] (PEd) -- (QEd) node[below, right] {$P_3$};%orizzontale inferiore
\draw[-,ultra thick,black] (Pd)-- (XEd) node[above, right] {$P_2$};%orizzontale superiore
\draw[-,ultra thick,black] (XEd) -- (QEd);

\draw[pzplane,->,thin] (0:0.5*\R) to[bend right=15]
node[midway,right] {$\lambda$} (\angBeta:0.5*\R);
\path[pzplane] (0.5*\angBeta:\R) node[right] {$$};
\path[qzplane] (0.5*\angBeta:\R) node[right] {$$};
\draw[equator,->,thin] (\angAz:0.5*\R) to[bend right=30]
node[pos=0.4,above] {$\phi_1$} (\angPhiOne:0.5*\R);
\draw[equator,->,thin] (\angAz:0.6*\R) to[bend right=35]
node[midway,below] {$\phi_2$} (\angPhiTwo:0.6*\R);
\path[xzplane] (0:\R) node[below] {$$};
\path[xzplane] (\angBeta:\R) node[below left] {$$};
\foreach \t in {0,2,...,30} { \DrawLatitudeCirclered[\R]{\t} }
\foreach \t in {130,133,...,145} { \DrawLongitudeCirclered[\R]{\t} }

%drawing grids on the spere invoking DLongredd and DrawLongitudeCirclered

\foreach \t in {130,145,...,145} { \DLongredd[\R+3]{\t} }
\foreach \t in {130,133,...,145} { \DrawLongitudeCirclered[\R+3]{\t} }

\foreach \t in {0,30,...,30} { \DLatred[\R+3]{\t} }
\foreach \t in {0,2,...,30} { \DrawLatitudeCirclered[\R+3]{\t} }

%labelling
\draw[-latex,thick](4,-5.5) node[left]{\mathsf{Grid(s)\ in\ Fig.\ (\ref{fig:Grid})}}$}
to[out=0,in=270] (5.8,-2.3);
\draw[thick](3.6,-6) node[left]{\mathsf{Rectilinear}}$};

\end{tikzpicture}
\caption[Representation of spherical and regular computational grids used by SWAN]
{Representation of spherical (red) and cartesian (black) co-ordinate systems. Latter
gives an example of unstructured grids. Both unstructured. Conversion from former
to latter involves a deformation factor which is acceptable within a given spatial limit.
For my case, only unstructured flat meshes are employed (\textit{Lisboa} Geodetic
datum: black grid on the right). Confront above represented points ($P_1,P_2,P_3$) with
Fig.(ref{fig:Grid}). \Mathematically frames change accordingly: see Eq.(ref{eq:actbal2sph}).}
\label{fig:frames}
\end{figure}

```

giving the output

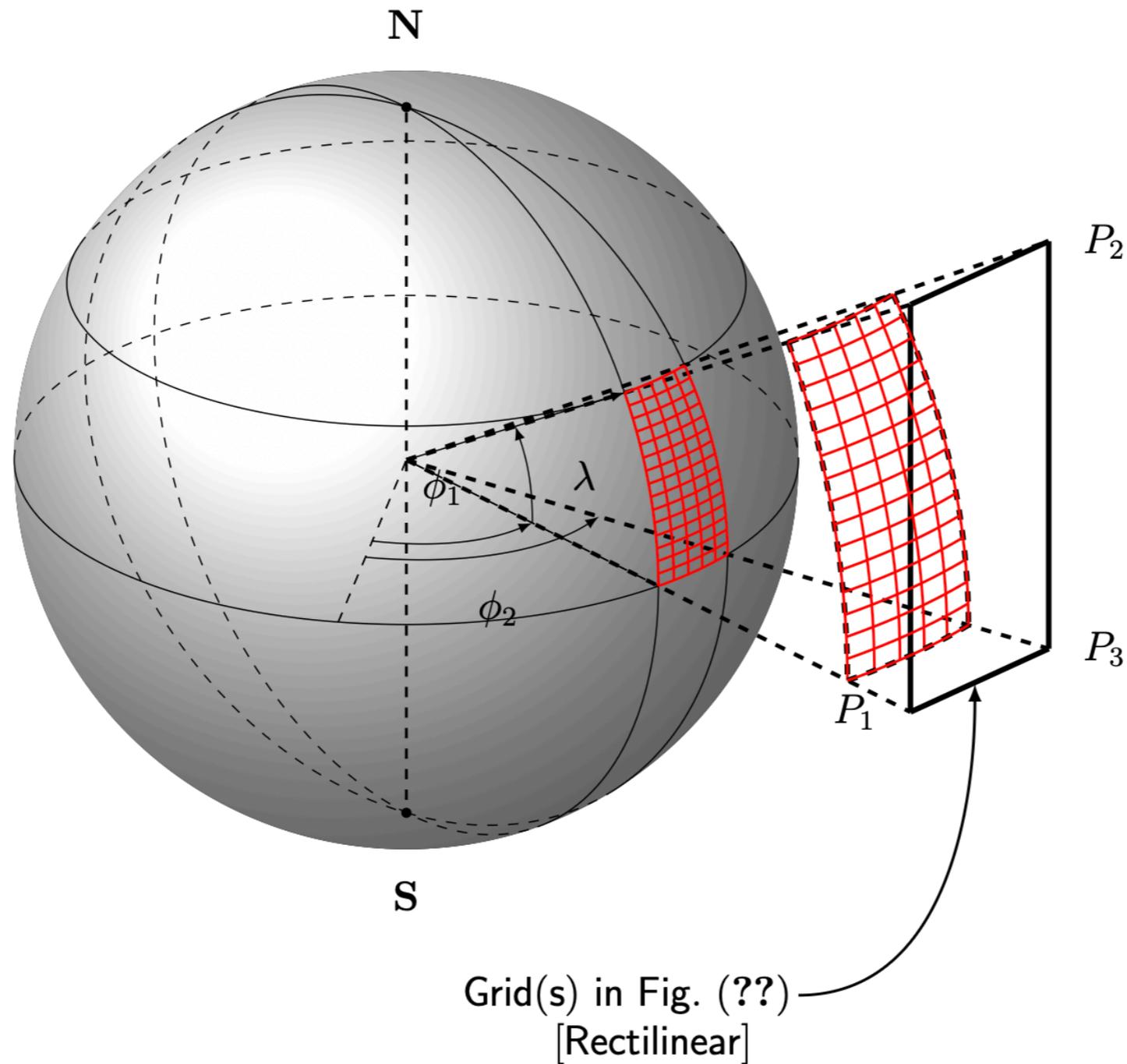


Figure 1: Representation of spherical (red) and cartesian (black) co-ordinate systems. Latter gives an example of unstructured grids. Both unstructured. Conversion from former to latter involves a deformation factor which is acceptable within a given spatial limit. For my case, only unstructured flat meshes are employed (*Lisboa* Geodetic datum: black grid on the right). Confront above represented points (P_1, P_2, P_3) with Fig.(??). Mathematically frames change accordingly: see Eq.(??).

```
% Horizon penetrating coordinates (vs. Schwarzschild coordinates)
```

```
% for a black hole spacetime, with excision
```

```
% Author: Jonah Miller
```

```
\documentclass[tikz,border=10pt]{standalone}
```

```
\usetikzlibrary{decorations.pathmorphing}
```

```
\tikzset{zigzag/.style={decorate,decoration=zigzag}}
```

```
\def \L {2.}
```

```
% fix for bug in color.sty
```

```
% see: http://tex.stackexchange.com/questions/274524/definecolorset-of-xcolor-problem-with-color-values-starting-with-f
```

```
\makeatletter
```

```
\def\@hex@\@Hex#1%
```

```
{\if a#1A\else \if b#1B\else \if c#1C\else \if d#1D\else
```

```
 \if e#1E\else \if f#1F\else #1\fi\fi\fi\fi\fi \@hex@\Hex}
```

```
\makeatother
```

```
% Define a prettier green
```

```
\definecolor{darkgreen}{HTML}{006622}
```

```
\begin{document}
```

```
\begin{tikzpicture}
```

```
  % causal diamond
```

```
  \draw[thick,red,zigzag] (-\L,\L) coordinate(stl) -- (\L,\L) coordinate (str);
```

```
  \draw[thick,black] (\L,-\L) coordinate (sbr)
```

```
    -- (0,0) coordinate (bif) -- (stl);
```

```
  \draw[thick,black,fill=blue,fill opacity=0.2,text opacity=1]
```

```
    (bif) -- (str) -- (2*\L,0) node[right] (io) {\mathcal{I}^0} -- (sbr);
```

```
  % null labels
```

```
  \draw[black] (1.4*\L,0.7*\L) node[right] (scrip) {\mathcal{I}^+}
```

```
    (1.5*\L,-0.6*\L) node[right] (scrip) {\mathcal{I}^-}
```

```
    (0.2*\L,-0.6*\L) node[right] (scrip) {\mathcal{H}^-}
```

```
    (0.5*\L,0.85*\L) node[right] (scrip) {\mathcal{H}^+};
```

```
  % singularity label
```

```
  \draw[thick,red,<-] (0,1.05*\L)
```

```
    -- (0,1.2*\L) node[above] {\color{red} singularity};
```

```
  % Schwarzschild surface
```

```
  \draw[thick,blue] (bif) .. controls (1.*\L,-0.35*\L) .. (2*\L,0);
```

```
  \draw[thick,blue,<-] (1.75*\L,-0.1*\L) -- (1.9*\L,-0.5*\L)
```

```
    -- (2*\L,-0.5*\L) node[right,align=left]
```

```
      {\$t=\$ constant\in Schwarzschild\coordinates};
```

```
  % excision surface
```

```
  \draw[thick,dashed,red] (-0.3*\L,0.3*\L) -- (0.4*\L,\L);
```

```
  \draw[thick,red,<-] (-0.33*\L,0.3*\L)
```

```
    -- (-0.5*\L,0.26*\L) node[left,align=right] {excision\surface};
```

```
  % Kerr-Schild surface
```

```
  \draw[darkgreen,thick] (0.325*\L,0.325*\L) .. controls (\L,0) .. (2*\L,0);
```

```
  \draw[darkgreen,dashed,thick] (0.325*\L,0.325*\L) -- (-0.051*\L,0.5*\L);
```

```
  % Kerr-Schild label
```

```
  \draw[darkgreen,thick,<-] (0.95*\L,0.15*\L) -- (1.2*\L,0.5*\L)
```

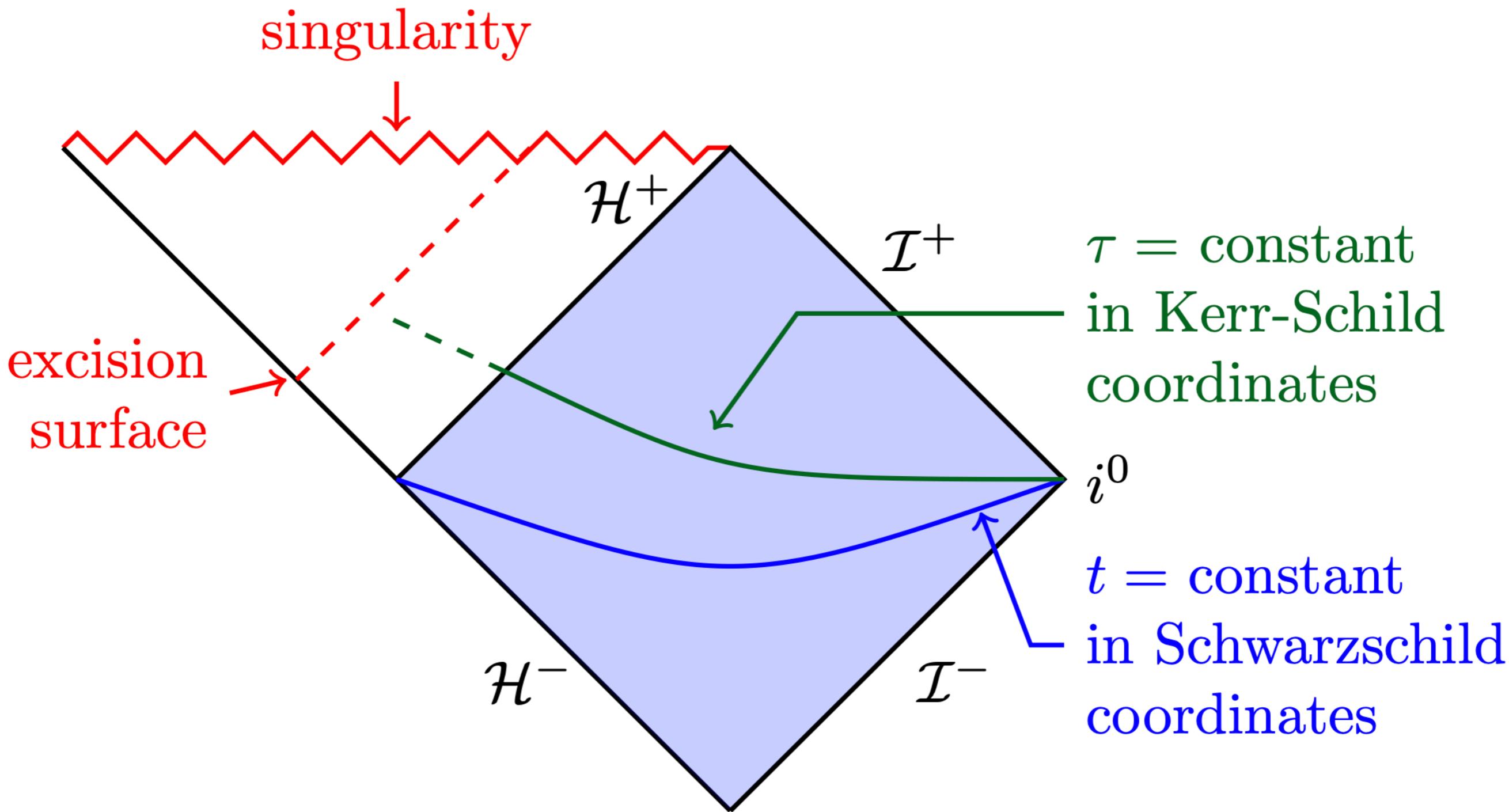
```
    -- (2*\L,0.5*\L) node[right,align=left]
```

```
      {\$tau=\$ constant\in Kerr-Schild\coordinates};
```

```
\end{tikzpicture}
```

```
\end{document}
```

giving the output



singularity

excision surface

\mathcal{H}^+

\mathcal{I}^+

$\tau = \text{constant}$
in Kerr-Schild
coordinates

i^0

$t = \text{constant}$
in Schwarzschild
coordinates

\mathcal{H}^-

\mathcal{I}^-

Just lots of examples.....

You should experiment - try variations of the examples - you can only learn by “doing” not jus “reading.

Extremely Simple Formulas

```
$-a+2b=3c-4d(5e+6f)$\\
$(x+y)/(x-y)$\\
$\{a,b,c,d,e\}$
```

$$-a + 2b = 3c - 4d(5e + 6f)$$
$$(x + y)/(x - y)$$
$$\{a, b, c, d, e\}$$

```
$(x + y)/(x - z)$
```

$$(x + y)/(x - z)$$

```
\begin{equation}
\delta\times\varepsilon=\theta
\end{equation}
\begin{equation*}
\varphi-\rho\neq\kappa
\end{equation*}
```

$$\delta \times \varepsilon = \theta \quad (2.1)$$
$$\varphi - \rho \neq \kappa$$

Superscripts

```
$z^2$, $b_n$, \\
$x^2y^2$, $x ^2y ^2$\\
$x_{12}$, $x^{12}$
```

$$z^2, b_n,$$
$$x^2y^2, x^2y^2$$
$$x_{12}, x^{12}$$

```
$x^{2y}$, $y_{3z}$\\
$x^{x^2}$, $y_{y_2}$, $y_{x^2}$
```

$$x^{2y}, y_{3z}$$
$$x^{x^2}, y_{y_2}, y_{x^2}$$

superscripts and subscripts *simultaneously*,

```
$x^{31415}_{92}+\pi$,  
$x_{92}^{31415}+\pi$\\  
$F_2^2$, $F{}_2^2$
```

$$x_{92}^{31415} + \pi, x_{92}^{31415} + \pi$$
$$F_2^2, F_2^2$$

primes

```
$y_1'+y''_2$
```

$$y_1' + y_2''$$

√Roots

```
$$\sqrt{2}$, $$\sqrt{2y}$, $$\sqrt{2y}$\<\  
$$\sqrt[3]{2}$, $$\sqrt[n+1]{x+y}$
```

$$\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2y}, \sqrt{2y}$$
$$\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[n+1]{x+y}$$

```
$$\sqrt[\leftroot{2}\uproot{4}\beta]{k}$,  
$$\sqrt[\leftroot{1}\uproot{3}\beta]{k}$
```

$$\sqrt[\beta]{k}, \sqrt[\beta]{k}$$

```
$$\sqrt{x}+\sqrt{y}+\sqrt{z}$\<\  
$$\sqrt{x}+\sqrt{\mathstrut y}+\sqrt{z}$\<\  
$$\sqrt{x}+\sqrt{\smash[b]{y}}+\sqrt{z}$
```

$$\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z}$$
$$\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z}$$
$$\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z}$$

(Fractions)—A Big Challenge! (Binomials)

```
\frac{numerator}{denominator}
```

```
 $\frac{1}{2}$,  
 \begin{equation*}  
 \frac{1}{2}  
 \end{equation*}
```

 $\frac{1}{2},$ $\frac{1}{2}$

This is an inline formula: $\dfrac{1}{2}$.
But avoid it! Replace it with
 $\frac{1}{2}$ or $1/2$.

This is an inline formula: $\frac{1}{2}$. But avoid
it! Replace it with $\frac{1}{2}$ or $1/2$.

```
 Instead of \begin{equation*}  
 \dfrac{1}{2}(a+b),  
 \end{equation*}  
 you can try \begin{equation*}  
 \tfrac{1}{2}(a+b).  
 \end{equation*}
```

Instead of

 $\frac{1}{2}(a+b),$

you can try

 $\frac{1}{2}(a+b).$

Always include the amsmath package

```
 \begin{equation*}  
 a_0+\cfrac{b_1}{  
 a_1+\cfrac{1}{b_2}{  
 a_2+\cfrac{r}{b_3}{  
 a_3+\cdots}}}  
 \end{equation*}
```

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \cdots}}}$$

```
 \[a_0+\frac{b_1}{a_1+  
 \frac{b_2}{a_2+  
 \frac{b_3}{a_3+}\cdots\]
```

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \cdots}}}$$

In inline mode: `\binom{k}{2}`.
 In display mode:
`\begin{equation*} \binom{k}{2}`
`\end{equation*}`

In inline mode: $\binom{k}{2}$.
 In display mode:

$$\binom{k}{2}$$

In inline mode: `\dbinom{k}{2}`,
 which is horrible.
 In display mode:
`\begin{equation*} \tbinom{k}{2}`.
`\end{equation*}`

In inline mode: $\binom{k}{2}$, which is horrible.
 In display mode:

$$\binom{k}{2}$$

Compare the small superscript in `ax` with the large one in `a\textstyle x`.

Compare the small superscript in a^x with the large one in a^x .

Instead of using `\verb"\dfrac"`, you can do it this way: `\displaystyle\frac{1}{2}`.

Instead of using `\dfrac`, you can do it this way: $\frac{1}{2}$.

And instead of using `\verb"\tfrac"`, you can try this:
`\begin{equation*}`
`\textstyle\frac{1}{2}`.
`\end{equation*}`

And instead of using `\tfrac`, you can try this:

$$\frac{1}{2}$$

Sum and Integration

Inline: `\sum_{n=1}^k`, `\prod_{n=1}^k`,
`\int_a^b`
 Display: `\begin{equation*}`
`\sum_{n=1}^k, \quad \prod_{n=1}^k,`
`\quad \int_a^b`.
`\end{equation*}`

Inline: $\sum_{n=1}^k, \prod_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b$
 Display:

$$\sum_{n=1}^k, \quad \prod_{n=1}^k, \quad \int_a^b.$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\iint_A, \iint\limits_A
\end{equation*}
```

$$\iint_A, \iint\limits_A$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\iiint\limits_V,
\idotsint\limits_V, \oint_V
\end{equation*}
```

$$\iiint\limits_V, \int_V \cdots \int_V, \oint_V$$

```
\def\Xint#1{\mathchoice
{\XXint\displaystyle\textstyle{#1}}%
{\XXint\textstyle\scriptstyle{#1}}%
{\XXint\scriptstyle
\scriptscriptstyle{#1}}%
{\XXint\scriptscriptstyle
\scriptscriptstyle{#1}}%
\!\int}
\def\XXint#1#2#3{{
\setbox0=\hbox{#1{#2#3}{\int}$}
\vcenter{\hbox{#2#3}}\kern-.5\wd0}}
\def\dashint{\Xint-}
\[\dashint_a^b f(x)\, \rd x\]
```

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

```
\[\sum_{\substack{0 \leq i \leq m \\ 0 < j < n}} P(i, j)\]
```

$$\sum_{\substack{0 \leq i \leq m \\ 0 < j < n}} P(i, j)$$

Inline: $\sum_{n=1}^k$,
 \int_a^b .
 Don't do these!\\
 Display: $\begin{equation*}$
 $\textstyle\sum_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b.$
 $\end{equation*}$

Inline: $\sum_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b$. Don't do these!
 Display:
 $\sum_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b.$

Inline: $\sum\limits_{n=1}^k$,
 $\int\limits_a^b$ \\
 Display: $\begin{equation*}$
 $\sum\nolimits_{n=1}^k, \int\limits_a^b$
 $\end{equation*}$

Inline: $\sum_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b$
 Display:
 $\sum_{n=1}^k, \int_a^b$

Functions

$5\sin(a+b)$, $8\cos 2A$

$5 \sin(a + b), 8 \cos 2A$

Inline: $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} ((\sin^2 x)/x^2) = 1$ \\
 Display: $\begin{equation*}$
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} = 1$
 $\end{equation*}$

Inline: $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} ((\sin^2 x)/x^2) = 1$
 Display:
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} = 1$

Inline: $\lim\limits_{n \rightarrow 0}$
 $((\sin^2 2x)/x^2) = 1$ \\
 Display: $\begin{equation*}$
 $\lim\nolimits_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 2x}{x^2} = 1$
 $\end{equation*}$

Inline: $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} ((\sin^2 2x)/x^2) = 1$
 Display:
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 2x}{x^2} = 1$

All the predefined functions

Table 2.1: Predefined operators and functions

arccos	<code>\arccos</code>	arcsin	<code>\arcsin</code>	arctan	<code>\arctan</code>
arg	<code>\arg</code>	cos	<code>\cos</code>	cosh	<code>\cosh</code>
cot	<code>\cot</code>	coth	<code>\coth</code>	csc	<code>\csc</code>
deg	<code>\deg</code>	det	<code>\det</code>	dim	<code>\dim</code>
exp	<code>\exp</code>	gcd	<code>\gcd</code>	hom	<code>\hom</code>
inf	<code>\inf</code>	inj lim	<code>\injlim</code>	ker	<code>\ker</code>
lg	<code>\lg</code>	lim	<code>\lim</code>	lim inf	<code>\liminf</code>
lim sup	<code>\limsup</code>	ln	<code>\ln</code>	log	<code>\log</code>
max	<code>\max</code>	min	<code>\min</code>	Pr	<code>\Pr</code>
proj lim	<code>\projlim</code>	sec	<code>\sec</code>	sin	<code>\sin</code>
sinh	<code>\sinh</code>	sup	<code>\sup</code>	tan	<code>\tan</code>
tanh	<code>\tanh</code>	\lim_{\rightarrow}	<code>\varinjlim</code>	\lim	<code>\varliminf</code>
$\overline{\lim}$	<code>\varlimsup</code>	\lim_{\leftarrow}	<code>\varprojlim</code>		

Delimiters

```
\begin{equation*}
\left[\int+\int\right]_{x=0}^{x=1}
\end{equation*}
```

$$\left[\int + \int\right]_{x=0}^{x=1}$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right[
\end{equation*}
```

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right[$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right.
\end{equation*}
```

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right.$$

```
\left|-x\right|=\left|+x\right|.
```

$$|-x| = |x|.$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left(a+(a+b)\right)
\end{equation*}
```

$$(a + (a + b))$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\bigl(a+(a+b)\bigr)
\end{equation*}
```

$$(a + (a + b))$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\,x\in\mathbb{R}\mid
0<\left|x\right|<\frac{5}{3}\,\right\},
\quad\frac{a+1}{b}\bigg/\frac{c+1}{d}
\end{equation*}
```

$$\left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < |x| < \frac{5}{3} \right\}, \quad \frac{a+1}{b} \bigg/ \frac{c+1}{d}$$

```
\begin{equation}
\frac{a+1}{b}\biggm/\frac{c+1}{d}
\end{equation}
```

$$\frac{a+1}{b} \bigg/ \frac{c+1}{d} \quad (2.4)$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\right)\quad
\biggl(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\biggr)
\end{equation*}
```

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\right) \quad \biggl(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\biggr)$$

all the delimiters

Table 2.2: Delimiters

Input	Delimiter	Input	Delimiter
(())
[or \lbrack	[]]
\{ or \lbrace	{	\} or \rbrace	}
\lfloor	⌊	\rfloor	⌋
\lceil	⌈	\rceil	⌉
\langle	⟨	\rangle	⟩
/	/	\backslash	\
or \vert		\ or \Vert	
\uparrow	↑	\Uparrow	⇑
\downarrow	↓	\Downarrow	⇓
\updownarrow	↕	\Updownarrow	⇕

Changing fonts

```
\mathrm{i}^2=-1
```

$i^2 = -1$

```
\mathbf{a}, \bm{a}.
```

a, *a*.

```
Load the \pcg{amsfonts} package!\\  
\mathbb{R}: the set of real numbers.\\  
\mathbb{N}: the set of natural  
numbers.
```

Load the `amsfonts` package!
 \mathbb{R} : the set of real numbers.
 \mathbb{N} : the set of natural numbers.

different font switching commands

Table 2.3: Math fonts

Command	Example
default	<i>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ</i> <i>abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz</i>
<code>\mathit</code>	<i>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ</i> <i>abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz</i>
<code>\mathrm</code>	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
<code>\mathbf</code>	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
<code>\mathsf</code>	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
<code>\mathtt</code>	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
<code>\bm^a</code>	<i>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ</i> <i>abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz</i>
<code>\mathfrak^b</code>	𝔸𝔹𝔼𝔽𝔾𝔡𝔥𝔦𝔧𝔨𝔩𝔪𝔫𝔬𝔭𝔮𝔹𝔸𝔾𝔽𝔸𝔸𝔸𝔸𝔸𝔸 abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
<code>\mathcal</code>	<i>ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ</i>
<code>\mathbb^c</code>	ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

^aNeeds package bm.

^bNeeds package amsfonts.

^cNeeds package amsfonts.

`$different \neq \mathit{different}$.`

different \neq *different*.

`\[P_{r-j}=0 \mathrm{if} r-j
 \mathrm{is odd}.\]`

$P_{r-j} = 0$ if $r - j$ is odd.

```
\[P_{r-j}=0\ \mathrm{if}\ r-j\
\mathrm{is\ odd}.\]
```

$$P_{r-j} = 0 \text{ if } r - j \text{ is odd.}$$

```
\[P_{r-j}=0\text{if}\
\$r-j\$ is odd.\]
```

$$P_{r-j} = 0 \text{ if } r - j \text{ is odd.}$$

Spacing

```
123\,456
```

$$123\,456$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\phantom{12}_6\text{C}
\quad \text{versus} \quad
\phantom{12}_6\text{C}
\end{equation*}
```

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

commands for producing horizontal spaces

Table 2.4: Spaces in math mode

Positive Space	Example	Negative Space	Example
<code>\$ab\$</code>	ab		
<code>\$a b\$</code>	ab		
<code>\$a\ b\$</code>	$a b$		
<code>\$a\,b\$</code> (<code>a\thinspace b</code>)	$a b$	<code>a\!b</code>	$a b$
<code>\$a\:b\$</code> (<code>a\medspace b</code>)	$a b$	<code>a\negmedspace b</code>	$a b$
<code>\$a\;b\$</code> (<code>a\thickspace b</code>)	$a b$	<code>a\negthickspace b</code>	$a b$
<code>\$a\quad b\$</code>	$a \quad b$		
<code>\$a\text{---}b\$</code>	$a\text{---}b$		
<code>\$a\qquad b\$</code>	$a \qquad b$		
<code>\$a\hspace{0.5cm}b\$</code>	$a \hspace{0.5cm} b$	<code>\$a\hspace{-0.5cm}b\$</code>	$b a$
<code>\$ab\$</code>	$a b$		
<code>\$axxb\$</code>	$axxb$		

$\sqrt{2}x$
 $\sqrt{\lg x}$
 $O(1/\sqrt{n})$
 $[0, 1)$
 $\lg n (\lg \lg n)^2$
 $x^2/2$
 $n/\lg n$
 $\Gamma_2 + \Delta^2$
 $R_i^j{}_{kl}$
 $\int_0^x \int_0^y dF(u, v)$
 $(2n)! / (n!(n+1)!)$

$\sqrt{2}x$
 $\sqrt{\lg x}$
 $O(1/\sqrt{n})$
 $[0, 1)$
 $\lg n (\lg \lg n)^2$
 $x^2/2$
 $n/\lg n$
 $\Gamma_2 + \Delta^2$
 $R_i^j{}_{kl}$
 $\int_0^x \int_0^y dF(u, v)$
 $(2n)! / (n!(n+1)!)$

Punctuation

$f(x, y; z)$

$f(x, y; z)$

$f: A \rightarrow B$

$f: A \rightarrow B$

If $x < 0$, we have shown that

$$y = f(x).$$

If $x < 0$, we have shown that

$$y = f(x).$$

for $x = a, b$, or c .

for $x = a, b$, or c .

for $x = a$, b , or c .

for $x = a, b$, or c .

The spirit of our American radicalism is destructive and aimless\dots. On the other side, the conservative party \$\dots\$ is timid, and merely defensive\dots. It does not build, nor write, nor cherish the arts, nor foster religion, nor establish schools.

The spirit of our American radicalism is destructive and aimless... On the other side, the conservative party ... is timid, and merely defensive.... It does not build, nor write, nor cherish the arts, nor foster religion, nor establish schools.

a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots . \\ a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots .

a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots
 a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots

$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots,$.

a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) ,

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) ,

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

$x_1 + \dots + x_n$ and (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

A series $H_1, H_2, \dots,$, a sum $H_1 + H_2 + \dots$, an orthogonal product $H_1 \times H_2 \times \dots$, and an infinite integral: $\int H_1 \int H_2 \dots -\Gamma d\Theta$.

A series H_1, H_2, \dots , a sum $H_1 + H_2 + \dots$, an orthogonal product $H_1 \times H_2 \times \dots$, and an infinite integral:

$$\int_{H_1} \int_{H_2} \dots -\Gamma d\Theta.$$

```

$x_1+\dots+x_n$\\
$x_1=\dots=x_n$\\
$A_1\times\dots\times A_n$\\
$f(x_1,\dots,x_n)$\\
$x_1x_2\dots x_n$\\
$(1-x)(1-x^2)\dots(1-x^n)$\\
$n(n-1)\dots(1)$\\
$x_1\cdot x_2\cdot\dots\cdot x_n$

```

```

x_1 + \dots + x_n
x_1 = \dots = x_n
A_1 \times \dots \times A_n
f(x_1, \dots, x_n)
x_1 x_2 \dots x_n
(1 - x)(1 - x^2) \dots (1 - x^n)
n(n - 1) \dots (1)
x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot \dots \cdot x_n

```

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1$$

```

\begin{equation*}
(a+b)^2=a^2+2ab+b^2
\end{equation*}
\begin{equation*}
\sin^2\eta+\cos^2\eta=1
\end{equation*}

```

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1$$

```

\begin{gather}
(a+b)^2=a^2+2ab+b^2\\
\sin^2\eta+\cos^2\eta=1
\end{gather}

```

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \quad (2.7)$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1 \quad (2.8)$$

```

\begin{gather}
(a+b)^2=a^2+2ab+b^2\\
\sin^2\eta+\cos^2\eta=1\notag
\end{gather}

```

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \quad (2.9)$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1$$

```
\begin{align}
x^2+y^2 &= z^2\\
x^3+y^3 &< z^3+\cdots
\end{align}
```

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \quad (2.10)$$

$$x^3 + y^3 < z^3 + \dots \quad (2.11)$$

```
\begin{equation}
\begin{gathered}
(a+b)^2=a^2+2ab+b^2\\
\sin^2\eta+\cos^2\eta=1
\end{gathered}
\end{equation}
```

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \quad (2.12)$$

$$\sin^2 \eta + \cos^2 \eta = 1$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\begin{aligned}
x^2+y^2 &= z^2\\
x^3+y^3 &< z^3+\cdots
\end{aligned}
\end{equation*}
```

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2$$

$$x^3 + y^3 < z^3 + \dots$$

```
\begin{equation}
\begin{split}
x^2+y^2 &= z^2\\
x^3+y^3 &< z^3+\cdots
\end{split}
\end{equation}
```

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \quad (2.13)$$

$$x^3 + y^3 < z^3 + \dots$$

```

\begin{equation*}
\left.
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{B}' &= -c \nabla \times \mathbf{E} \\
\mathbf{E}' &= c \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - 4\pi \mathbf{J}
\end{aligned}
\right\} \text{Maxwell's}
\end{equation*}

```

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}' &= -c \nabla \times \mathbf{E} \\ \mathbf{E}' &= c \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - 4\pi \mathbf{J} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{Maxwell's}$$

```

\begin{align}
A_1 &= N_0(\lambda; \Omega') - \\
&\quad \phi(\lambda; \Omega') \\
A_2 &= \phi(\lambda; \Omega') \\
&\quad \phi(\lambda; \Omega) \\
\intertext{and finally} A_3 &= \\
&\mathcal{N}(\lambda; \omega) \\
\end{align}

```

$$A_1 = N_0(\lambda; \Omega') - \phi(\lambda; \Omega') \quad (2.14)$$

$$A_2 = \phi(\lambda; \Omega') \phi(\lambda; \Omega) \quad (2.15)$$

and finally

$$A_3 = \mathcal{N}(\lambda; \omega) \quad (2.16)$$

Breaking a Displayed Equation

```

\begin{multline}
\text{First line of a multiline} \\
\text{Centered Middle line} \\
\shoveright{\text{A right Middle}} \\
\text{Another centered Middle} \\
\text{Yet another centered Middle} \\
\shoveleft{\text{A left Middle}} \\
\text{Last line of the multiline}
\end{multline}

```

First line of a multiline

Centered Middle line

A right Middle

Another centered Middle

Yet another centered Middle

A left Middle

Last line of the multiline (2.17)

```

\begin{multline}
A=\lim_{n\to\infty}\Delta x\Bigl(a^2+
\bigl(a^2+2a\Delta x
+(\Delta x)^2\bigr)\Bigl\|
+\bigl(a^2+2\times 2a\Delta x+
2^2(\Delta x)^2\bigr)\Bigl\|
+\bigl(a^2+2\times 3a\Delta x+
3^2(\Delta x)^2\bigr)\Bigl\|
+\cdots\Bigl\|
+\bigl(a^2+2\cdot(n-1)a\Delta x+
(n-1)^2(\Delta x)^2\bigr)\Bigl\|
=\tfrac{1}{3}(b^3-a^3).
\end{multline}

```

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Delta x \left(a^2 + (a^2 + 2a\Delta x + (\Delta x)^2) \right. \\
&\quad + (a^2 + 2 \times 2a\Delta x + 2^2(\Delta x)^2) \\
&\quad + (a^2 + 2 \times 3a\Delta x + 3^2(\Delta x)^2) \\
&\quad \quad \quad + \cdots \\
&\quad \left. + (a^2 + 2 \cdot (n-1)a\Delta x + (n-1)^2(\Delta x)^2) \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{3}(b^3 - a^3). \quad (2.18)
\end{aligned}$$

```

\begin{align*}
(a+b)^3&=(a+b)(a+b)^2\Bigl\|
&=(a+b)(a^2+2ab+b^2)\Bigl\|
&=a^3+3a^2b+3ab^2+b^3
\end{align*}

```

$$\begin{aligned}
(a+b)^3 &= (a+b)(a+b)^2 \\
&= (a+b)(a^2 + 2ab + b^2) \\
&= a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3
\end{aligned}$$

```

\begin{equation*}
\begin{split}
(a+b)^3&=(a+b)(a+b)^2\Bigl\|
&=(a+b)(a^2+2ab+b^2)\Bigl\|
&=a^3+3a^2b+3ab^2+b^3
\end{split}
\end{equation*}

```

$$\begin{aligned}
(a+b)^3 &= (a+b)(a+b)^2 \\
&= (a+b)(a^2 + 2ab + b^2) \\
&= a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3
\end{aligned}$$

```

\begin{verbatim}
\newcommand\ve{\varepsilon}    \newcommand\tve{t_{\varepsilon}}
\newcommand\vf{\varphi}       \newcommand\yvf{y_{\varphi}}
\newcommand\bfE{\mathbf{E}}
\newcommand\relphantom[1]{\mathrel{\phantom{#1}}}
\begin{equation}
\begin{split}
f_{\{h,\ve\}}(x,y)&=\ve\bfE_{\{x,y\}}\int_0^{\tve} L_{\{x,\yvf(\ve u)\}}\vf(x)\,du \\
&=h\int L_{\{x,z\}}\vf(x)+\rho_x(dz) \\
&\relphantom{=}+h\Biggl(\frac{1}{\tve}\Biggl(
\bfE_y \int_0^{\tve} L_{\{x,y^x(s)\}}\vf(x)\,ds \\
&\quad -\tve \int L_{\{x,z\}}\vf(x)\rho_x(dz)\Biggr) \\
&\relphantom{=}\phantom{\{}}+h\Biggl(\frac{1}{\tve} \\
&\quad \Biggl(\bfE_y \int_0^{\tve} L_{\{x,y^x(s)\}}\vf(x)\,ds \\
&\quad -\bfE_{\{x,y\}} \int_0^{\tve} L_{\{x,\yvf(\ve s)\}}\vf(x)\,ds\Biggr)\Biggr)
\end{split}
\end{equation}
\end{verbatim}

```

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{h,\varepsilon}(x,y) &= \varepsilon \mathbf{E}_{x,y} \int_0^{t_\varepsilon} L_{x,y_\varphi(\varepsilon u)} \varphi(x) \, du \\
&= h \int L_{x,z} \varphi(x) + \rho_x(dz) \\
&\quad + h \left(\frac{1}{t_\varepsilon} \left(\mathbf{E}_y \int_0^{t_\varepsilon} L_{x,y^x(s)} \varphi(x) \, ds - t_\varepsilon \int L_{x,z} \varphi(x) \rho_x(dz) \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{t_\varepsilon} \left(\mathbf{E}_y \int_0^{t_\varepsilon} L_{x,y^x(s)} \varphi(x) \, ds - \mathbf{E}_{x,y} \int_0^{t_\varepsilon} L_{x,y_\varphi(\varepsilon s)} \varphi(x) \, ds \right) \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.19}$$

```

\setlength\arraycolsep{2pt}
\begin{eqnarray}
y & = & a+b+c+d\nonumber\\
& & +e+f+g\nonumber\\
& & +h+i+j\nonumber\\
& \geq & -k-l-m
\end{eqnarray}

```

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= a + b + c + d \\
 &\quad + e + f + g \\
 &\quad + h + i + j \\
 &\geq -k - l - m \qquad (2.20)
 \end{aligned}$$

Array

```

\[
\begin{array}{clcr}
a+b+c & uv & x-y & 27\\
a+b & u+v & z & 134\\
a & 3u+uw & xyz & 2\,,978
\end{array}
\]

```

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 a + b + c & uv & x - y & 27 \\
 a + b & u + v & z & 134 \\
 a & 3u + uw & xyz & 2978
 \end{array}$$

```

\begin{equation*}
P_{r-j}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
0 \text{ if } r-j \text{ is odd,} \\
r!(-1)^{(r-j)/2} \text{ if } r-j \text{ is even.}
\end{array}\right.
\end{equation*}

```

$$P_{r-j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r - j \text{ is odd,} \\ r!(-1)^{(r-j)/2} & \text{if } r - j \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

```

\begin{equation*}
P_{r-j}=
\begin{cases}
0 \text{ if } r-j \text{ is odd,} \\
r!(-1)^{(r-j)/2} \text{ if } r-j \text{ is even.}
\end{cases}
\end{equation*}

```

$$P_{r-j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r - j \text{ is odd,} \\ r!(-1)^{(r-j)/2} & \text{if } r - j \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

```
\begin{equation*}
\left(\!\!\!\begin{array}{cc} 0& -1\\
1 & 0\end{array}\!\!\!\right)
\end{equation*}
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
\begin{gather*}
\begin{matrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{matrix}\quad
\begin{pmatrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{pmatrix}\quad
\begin{bmatrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{bmatrix}\quad
\begin{Bmatrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{Bmatrix}\quad
\begin{vmatrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{vmatrix}\quad
\begin{Vmatrix}0&1\\ 1&0\end{Vmatrix}
\end{gather*}
```

$$\begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ 1 & 0 & \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{Bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad \begin{Vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{Vmatrix}$$

To show the effect of the matrix on surrounding lines in side a paragraph, we put it here:

```
\left(\begin{smallmatrix}
1&0\\ 0&-1\end{smallmatrix}\right)
```

and follow it with enough text to ensure that there is at least one full line below the matrix.

To show the effect of the matrix on surrounding lines in side a paragraph, we put it here: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and follow it with enough text to ensure that there is at least one full line below the matrix.

```
\[f(x)= \left\{\%
\vphantom{\begin{array}{c} a \\ \end{array}}\right. \kern-7pt
\begin{array}{ll}
4, & \text{if} \quad \text{\quad} x \in (4, \infty), \\
3, & \text{if} \quad \text{\quad} x \in (3,4], \\
2, & \text{if} \quad \text{\quad} x \in (2,3], \\
1, & \text{if} \quad \text{\quad} x \in (1,2], \\
0, & \text{if} \quad \text{\quad} x \in (-\infty,1].
\end{array}\]
```

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 4, & \text{if } x \in (4, \infty), \\ 3, & \text{if } x \in (3, 4], \\ 2, & \text{if } x \in (2, 3], \\ 1, & \text{if } x \in (1, 2], \\ 0, & \text{if } x \in (-\infty, 1]. \end{cases}$$

Dress Your Letters!

related commands

Table 2.5: Accents in math mode

<code>\acute</code>	\acute{a}	<code>\bar</code>	\bar{a}	<code>\breve</code>	\breve{a}
<code>\check</code>	\check{a}	<code>\dot</code>	\dot{a}	<code>\ddot</code>	\ddot{a}
<code>\dddot</code>	\dddot{a}	<code>\grave</code>	\grave{a}	<code>\hat</code>	\hat{a}
<code>\mathring</code>	\mathring{a}	<code>\tilde</code>	\tilde{a}	<code>\vec</code>	\vec{a}
<code>\underbar</code>	\underline{a}				
<code>\overline</code>	\overline{AB}	<code>\underline</code>	\underline{AB}	<code>\overrightarrow</code>	\overrightarrow{AB}
<code>\overleftarrow</code>	\overleftarrow{AB}	<code>\overleftrightarrow</code>	\overleftrightarrow{AB}	<code>\underleftarrow</code>	\underleftarrow{AB}
<code>\underrightarrow</code>	\underrightarrow{AB}	<code>\underleftrightarrow</code>	\underleftrightarrow{AB}	<code>\widetilde</code>	\widetilde{AB}
<code>\widehat</code>	\widehat{AB}				

```
$(xyz)\spdddot$\quad$(xyz)\spddot$\backslash$
$(xyz)\spdot$ \quad$(xyz)\spbreve$\backslash$
$(xyz)\spcheck$\quad$(xyz)\sphat$\backslash$
$(xyz)\sptilde$
```

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 (xyz)^{\cdots} & (xyz)^{\ddot{\cdot}} \\
 (xyz)^{\cdot} & (xyz)^{\breve{\cdot}} \\
 (xyz)^{\vee} & (xyz)^{\hat{\cdot}} \\
 (xyz)^{\sim} &
 \end{array}$$

```
\begin{align*}
y&=x^2+bx+c\backslash\backslash
&=x^2+2\cdot\frac{b}{2}x+c\backslash\backslash
&=\underbrace{x^2+2\cdot\frac{b}{2}x+
\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2}_{\left(x+\frac{b}{2}\right)^2}
-\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2+c
\end{align*}
```

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= x^2 + bx + c \\
 &= x^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2}x + c \\
 &= \underbrace{x^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2}x + \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2}_{\left(x + \frac{b}{2}\right)^2} - \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 + c
 \end{aligned}$$

Aligning Your Equations

```
\begin{flalign}
x&=y & X&=Y & a&=b+c\\
x'&=y' & X'&=Y' & a'&=b
\end{flalign}
```

$$\begin{array}{lll} x = y & X = Y & a = b + c \quad (3.7) \\ x' = y' & X' = Y' & a' = b \quad (3.8) \end{array}$$

```
\renewcommand\minalignsep{25pt}
\begin{flalign}
x&=y & X&=Y & a&=b+c\\
x'&=y' & X'&=Y' & a'&=b
\end{flalign}
```

$$\begin{array}{lll} x = y & X = Y & a = b + c \\ & & (3.9) \\ x' = y' & X' = Y' & a' = b \quad (3.10) \end{array}$$

```
\begin{flalign}
x&=y && \text{by hypothesis}\tag{1}\\
x'&=y' && \text{by definition}\tag{*}\\
x+x'&=y+y' && \text{by Axiom 1}\tag{**}
\end{flalign}
```

$$\begin{array}{ll} x = y & \text{by hypothesis (1)} \\ x' = y' & \text{by definition (*)} \\ x + x' = y + y' & \text{by Axiom 1 (*)} \end{array}$$

Footnotes in Math Mode

```
\begin{verbatim}
\begin{displaymath}
a+b=c+d\footnotemark
\end{displaymath}
\footnotetext{Here comes the footnote
in math mode. Hooray!!!}
\end{verbatim}
```

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

Equation Numbers

In standard LATEX, equation numbers take the form “chapter number + equation number within the chapter.”

If you want to make the equation numbers to go like “chapter number + equation number within section,” the amsmath package provides a useful command:

`\numberwithin{equation}{section}.`

```
\begin{subequations}
\begin{align}
y&=d\\
y&=cx+d\\
y&=bx^2+cx+d\\
y&=ax^3+bx^2+cx+d
\end{align}
\end{subequations}
```

$$y = d \quad (3.12a)$$

$$y = cx + d \quad (3.12b)$$

$$y = bx^2 + cx + d \quad (3.12c)$$

$$y = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d \quad (3.12d)$$

Extensible arrows

```
\[
0\xleftarrow[\zeta]{} F\times
\Delta(n-1)
\xrightarrow{\partial_0\alpha(b)}
E^{\partial_0 b}\]
```

$$0 \xleftarrow[\zeta]{} F \times \Delta(n-1) \xrightarrow{\partial_0\alpha(b)} E^{\partial_0 b}$$

Framed Math

```
Let's frame \fbox{$f(x)=\sqrt{x}$}!
```

Let's frame $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$!

```
\fboxsep=1mm \fboxrule=1mm  
Let's frame \fbox{$f(x)=\sqrt{x}$}!
```

Let's frame $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$!

```
\colorbox{yellow}{ $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$}!
```

$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$!

```
\fbox{\parbox{0.9\linewidth}{%  
\begin{equation}  
f(x)=\sqrt{x}\end{equation}}}
```

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x} \quad (3.1)$$

```
\colorbox{yellow}{\parbox{0.9\linewidth}{%  
\begin{equation}  
f(x)=\sqrt{x}\end{equation}}}
```

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x} \quad (3.2)$$

```
\begin{equation}  
\boxed{W_t - F \subseteq V(P_i) \subseteq W_t}  
\end{equation}
```

$$W_t - F \subseteq V(P_i) \subseteq W_t \quad (3.3)$$

```

\begin{empheq}[box=\fbox]{align}
f(x)=\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2}\,,\rd t=1
\end{empheq}
\begin{empheq}[box={\fboxsep=10pt
\colorbox{yellow}}]{align}
f(x)=\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2}\,,\rd t=1
\end{empheq}
\begin{subequations}
\begin{empheq}[box={
\fboxsep=1pt\colorbox{cyan}}]{align}
f(x)&=\int_1^{\infty}
\frac{1}{x^2}\,,\rd
t=1\\
f(x)&=\int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2}\,,\rd
t=0.25
\end{empheq}
\end{subequations}

```

$$f(x) = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dt = 1 \quad (3.4)$$

$$f(x) = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dt = 1 \quad (3.5)$$

$$f(x) = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dt = 1 \quad (3.6a)$$

$$f(x) = \int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dt = 0.25 \quad (3.6b)$$

The extarrows Package

The amsmath package provides a few simple extendable arrows. The extarrows package is pretty much a supplement. It follows the same syntax of amsmath:

```
\arrowname[subscript]{superscript}
```

Examples are listed in table.

<code>\xlongequal:</code>	$A \xlongequal[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xLongleftarrow:</code>	$A \xLongleftarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xLongrightarrow:</code>	$A \xLongrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xLongleftrightarrow:</code>	$A \xLongleftrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xLeftrightarrow:</code>	$A \xLeftrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xlongleftarrow:</code>	$A \xlongleftarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xlongrightarrow:</code>	$A \xlongrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xleftrightarrow:</code>	$A \xleftrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>(amsmath) \xleftarrow:</code>	$A \xleftarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>(amsmath) \xrightarrow:</code>	$A \xrightarrow[\textit{sub}]{\textit{we love to love}} Z$
<code>\xlongleftarrow:</code>	$A \longleftarrow Z$
<code>\xlongrightarrow:</code>	$A \longrightarrow Z$
<code>(amsmath) \xleftarrow:</code>	$A \leftarrow Z$
<code>(amsmath) \xrightarrow:</code>	$A \rightarrow Z$

If you are using a Macintosh then LATEX environment is available at

<https://www.tug.org/mactex>

This environment use the app TeXShop as its text editor and also contain another super useful app named LaTeXiT. Here are some examples of LaTeXiT output.

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 - c^2 dt^2$$

$$ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 - c^2 dt^2$$

$$R_i{}^j{}_{kl} = g^{jm} R_{imkl} \\ = -g^{jm} R_{mikl} = -R^j{}_{ikl}$$

$$R_i{}^j{}_{kl} = g^{jm} R_{imkl} = -g^{jm} R_{mikl} = -R^j{}_{ikl}$$

```

\leftarrow[\zeta]{} F \times \Delta(n-1)
\rightarrow{\partial_0 \alpha(b)} E^{\partial_0 b}

```

$$0 \xleftarrow[\zeta]{} F \times \Delta(n-1) \xrightarrow{\partial_0 \alpha(b)} E^{\partial_0 b}$$

```
\boxed{$f(x)=\sqrt{x}$}!
```

$$\boxed{f(x) = \sqrt{x}}!$$

```
\left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k \right) \quad \left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k \right)
```

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\right) \quad \left(\sum_{k=1}^n A_k\right)$$

```
\left[\int + \int\right]_{x=0}^{x=1}
```

$$\left[\int + \int\right]_{x=0}^{x=1}$$

```

a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}}

```

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}}$$

Hopefully you have been intrigued and excited by this document!