

Introduction to \LaTeX

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Abstract

This class will discuss the use of \LaTeX , the most common approach to writing papers in Science, particularly in the Mathematical and Physical Sciences.

What is T_EX?

T_EX represents the state-of-the-art in computer typesetting. It is particularly valuable where the document, article, or book to be produced contains a lot of mathematics, and where the user is concerned about typographic quality. T_EX software offers both writers and publishers the opportunity to produce technical text, in an attractive form, with the speed and efficiency of a computer system.

(from the back cover of The T_EXbook by Donald E. Knuth, the initial developer of T_EX)

Most of what is done today is not in plain T_EX, but with addon macro packages. Parts of T_EX tend to be cryptic, so these addons have been created to make things easier. The most popular of these addons is L^AT_EX. Others you might come across are AMS-T_EX and AMS-L^AT_EX.

What is L^AT_EX?

L^AT_EX is a document preparation system based on the T_EX formatter. It is a set of macros which simplifies much of plain T_EX. L^AT_EX is the most popular approach to writing papers in Science, particularly in Mathematics and Physical Sciences. Much publishing today is done in L^AT_EX. I believe everything published by Springer-Verlag, is prepared in L^AT_EX. Many journals have also gone the L^AT_EX route as well, with packages prepared to assist with matching the journal format.

The most current version commonly available is L^AT_EX 2_ε, though L^AT_EX 3 is currently in development. The previous version was L^AT_EX 2.09, which is quite a bit different. While files written in this version will run in L^AT_EX 2_ε (usually), you want to stick with L^AT_EX 2_ε for your writing.

L^AT_EX, and all T_EX derivatives are page markup languages, with formatting commands mixed in with the text, similar to HTML. It is not a WYSIWYG

approach, like Microsoft Word, though there are products that try to bring this to the \LaTeX world.

A \LaTeX file, is a plain text file which is then processed to give the desired output. The output is usually in a `.dvi` file, which then can be converted to other formats, such as postscript or pdf, if desired.

This approach to preparing documents allows for great flexibility and many things to be automated. These include

- Pagination
- Equation numbering
- Creation of tables of contents, list of figures, etc
- Bibliography creation and proper citation in the text
- Changing fonts and font sizes

How to Learn L^AT_EX?

While checking manuals, online searches, etc can be helpful, the way most people learn L^AT_EX is to see other L^AT_EX files. In addition to these overheads, I will make available the L^AT_EX file for this document, plus others, so you can see how things work.

Even if you think you know how to do something, many things can be done many ways, so it can be interesting to see how other people will approach a problem.

For example `\textit{italic}` and `{\it italic}` will both italicize the word *italic*.

Example L^AT_EXfile

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

Typical \LaTeX session

1. Edit/Create your \LaTeX input file. This file must be plain ASCII text. In addition, the file name must in in `.tex`
2. Run \LaTeX on your input file. It may be necessary to run \LaTeX more than once to get the table of contents, table numbers, citations, etc correct. If there is a bug in your input file, you will get an error message and processing will stop. If there are no errors you will get a `.dvi` file.

In Unix, you can process your document with a command such as `latex foo.tex`.

3. Viewing the `.dvi` file. There are a number of ways to do this. In Unix (under X windows), the file can be display on your screen with `xdvi foo.dvi &`. In Windows, you can use the program `yap`. You can convert the file to postscript with `dvips foo.dvi -o foo.ps` or print it with `dvips foo.dvi` in Unix. It can be converted to pdf with `dvipdf foo.dvi`.

These three steps will be required regardless of your computer setup, however how they are implemented can vary greatly. For example, many people in the Unix world will often run \LaTeX from within an emacs session, where the approach is a bit more unified. However others tend to work from the command line. Also, the emacs setup can also be used in a Windows or Macintosh setup, though I think these are less common.

Document Layout

1. Document Classes.

L^AT_EX needs to know what type of document is to be created. This is specified with the `documentclass` command.

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

class specifies the type of document to be created. Common choices are `article`, `report`, `book`, and `slides`. These slides were created with `foils`, a different set of macros for preparing slides. Note `foils` is not in the standard L^AT_EX installations, but can be downloaded via CTAN. I'll look into having Patrick install it on our Unix system.

The *options* parameter customizes the behaviour of the document class. The options need to be separated by commas. Popular options are `10pt`, `12pt`, `onecolumn`, and `landscape`.

2. Packages

When preparing your document, you may find that there are things you would like to do which aren't available in the default L^AT_EX setup. If you want to include graphics, add color, or include source code from a file into your document, you will need to enhance your setup. These enhancements are known as packages and can be activated with the

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

For example, to typeset the document using Times-Roman instead of the standard Computer Modern font, add the command

```
\usepackage{times}
```

Note how a package acts may depend on the document style being used. For example, the above would actually make this document be typeset in Helvetica, not Times (it a quirk of foils is designed). However for `article`, `report`, etc, you would get times.

3. Page Styles

L^AT_EX supports three different page styles (header/footer) combinations. The *style* parameter of the command

`\pagestyle{style}`

defines which to use. The choices are `plain` (page number at the bottom of the page in the middle of the footer), `heading` (prints current chapter heading and the page number in the header, while the footer remains empty), and `empty` (both header and footer are empty).

To change it only for the current page, use the command

`\thispagestyle{style}`

To do more complicated things, see either *The L^AT_EX Companion* or *The Not so Short Introduction to L^AT_EX2e* (available on the course web site).

Document Structure - Sectioning

For most document styles, documents are divided using the different sectioning commands. The standard ones are

<code>\part</code>	<code>\subsection</code>	<code>\paragraph</code>
<code>\chapter</code>	<code>\subsubsection</code>	<code>\subparagraph</code>
<code>\section</code>		

The `article` class doesn't contain the `\chapter` command. However this makes it easy to include an "article" as a chapter of a "report" or "book".

The form of these commands is similar to `\section{Example Section}`.

With this approach, it is easy to have your chapter, sections, subsections, etc, to be automatically numbered. For articles, number is of the form Section 2, Subsection 3.4, Subsubsection 3.1.5. For books and reports, the form is Chapter 3, Section 4.2, etc.

If you want to have an unnumbered subsection, for example, you need to add a `*` to the command, such as `\subsection*{Unnumbered subsection}`. Adding a `*` to the end of a command that deals with numbering, will often remove that numbering from the object.

You can keep track off section numbers you use elsewhere in the text with `\label{keystring}` command. To refer to a stored label, use the `\ref{keystring}` and its page number with `\pageref{keystring}` command. These commands are particularly useful with equations.

Preparing and Input File

As mentioned before, your input file should be a plain ASCII text files with a filename ending with `.tex`. Only the standard character set, numbers, and punctuation characters

`. : ; , ? ! ' ' () [] - / * @`

should be used.

There are 10 special characters

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

that are only used in \LaTeX commands. For example `%` initiates a comment, `$` is used to indicate mathematics, and `\` indicates a command.

The characters `+ = | < >` are mainly used in mathematical formulas, though `+` and `=` can be used in ordinary text. Most of the special characters can be included in text by preceding it with a `\`. For example `\$` will give a `$`.

When entering text, the ends of words and sentences are marked by spaces. It doesn't matter how many spaces you leave when you type; 100 spaces acts the same as 1.

To indicate a new paragraph, leave one or more blank lines before the next paragraph.

Fonts

Style	Approach 1	Approach 2
<i>italics</i>	<code>{\it italics}</code>	<code>\textit{italics}</code>
<i>slanted</i>	<code>{\sl slanted}</code>	<code>\textsl{slanted}</code>
boldface	<code>{\bf boldface}</code>	<code>\textbf{boldface}</code>
typewriter	<code>{\tt typewriter}</code>	<code>\texttt{typewriter}</code>
roman	<code>{\rm roman}</code>	<code>\textrm{roman}</code>
SMALL CAPS	<code>{\sc small caps}</code>	<code>\textsc{small caps}</code>

Table 1: Font styles

Size	Approach
tiny	<code>{\tiny tiny}</code>
scriptsize	<code>{\scriptsize scriptsize}</code>
footnotesize	<code>{\footnotesize footnotesize}</code>
small	<code>{\small small}</code>
normalsize	<code>{\normalsize normalsize}</code>
large	<code>{\large large}</code>
Large	<code>{\Large Large}</code>
huge	<code>{\huge huge}</code>
Huge	<code>{\Huge Huge}</code>

Table 2: Font sizes

Braces, Environments, and Delimiters

In \LaTeX , braces `{` and `}` are used to indicate pieces of text that are to be treated in a certain way. For example on the previous page, construction like `{\Large match your braces}` were used to indicate a piece of text is to be displayed in the Large font size. Missing the closing `}`, could lead to the rest of the document being created in the Large font, or more likely an error message when being processed. You have to make sure your braces match.

This also occurs with other \LaTeX constructs. For example, in-line math formulas are usually indicated with `$... $`. If the closing `$` is missing you will usually get an error message. The other common situation where you need to be careful is with \LaTeX environments, which are indicated with `\begin{...} ... \end{...}`. Environments are used in many situations, such as equations, lists, tables, figures, quotes, and so on.

Also when dealing with these sorts of constructs, you need to deal with them in a LIFO (Last In, First Out) type approach. For example `{ $ \alpha } $` probably will return an error message, where `{ $ \alpha $ }` will work fine, displaying the greek letter α .

These sorts of problems are probably the second most common errors in \LaTeX , following omitting a backslash for a command. For example, typing `$bar{x}$` instead of `\bar{x}`, which will lead to *barx*, instead of displaying \bar{x} .

Mathematical Formulas

All mathematical typesetting is done through one of the math modes, `math`, `displaymath`, and `equation`. These are used for *in-text* formulas, unnumbered display equations, and numbered display equations.

Math mode is usually indicated by `$... $`. For example the code

The equation `$\alpha + \beta = \gamma$`
is just for example.

gives the output “The equation $\alpha + \beta = \gamma$ is just for example”.

The other 2 environments deal with display equations. Examples of each are are

```
\begin{equation}
g(s, t; X_{t}) = \int \delta(r_{s,w})
f(w|s, X_t)dw; s \in D
\end{equation}
```

```
\begin{displaymath}
g(s, t; X_{t}) = \int \delta(r_{s,w})
f(w|s, X_t)dw; s \in D
\end{displaymath}
```

These give the following output

$$g(s, t; X_t) = \int \delta(r_{s,w}) f(w|s, X_t) dw; s \in D \quad (1)$$

$$g(s, t; X_t) = \int \delta(r_{s,w}) f(w|s, X_t) dw; s \in D$$

Note that the `displaymath` environment can also be indicated with `\begin{equation*}` ... `\end{equation*}` or with the even easier `$$` ... `$$`

The `displaymath` and `equation` environments are designed for one-line formulas. For multiline formulas, you need to use the `eqnarray` and `align` environments. For example

```
\begin{eqnarray*}
y & = & \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x))dx \\
& = & \int_a^b f(x)dx + C
\end{eqnarray*}
```

gives

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x))dx \\ &= \int_a^b f(x)dx + C \end{aligned}$$

Math Symbols

There is a wide arrange of symbols available in \LaTeX . I suggest checking any of the suggested reference on the web site. One useful is at <http://www.agu.org/symbols.html>.

Many of them are obvious, where a \backslash proceeds the name, e.g. $\backslash\theta$ or $\backslash\text{div}$. However some are a bit cryptic, e.g. $\backslash\text{pm}$ for \pm .

A common convention in mathematical typesetting, is for functions like log , sin , min to in roman text, not italicized. For these sorts of functions, adding a \backslash to the command stops the function name from begin italicized. For example $\backslash\text{exp}(x)$ gives $\text{exp}(x)$, whereas, $\text{exp}(x)$ gives $\textit{exp}(x)$.

Common Structures

Subscripts and Superscripts

Subscripts and superscripts are made with the `_` and `^` commands. These can be combined to make complicated structures

$$\begin{array}{cccc} x^{2y} & x^{\{2y\}} & x^{y^2} & x^{\{y^2\}} \\ x_{2y} & x_{\{2y\}} & x_2^y & x_{2^y} \end{array}$$

Fractions

Fractions can either be denoted with `/` with the `\frac` command. For example `a/b` gives a/b where as `\frac{a}{b}` gives

$$\frac{a}{b}.$$

The `\frac` command can be used inline, but it tends not to be.

Roots

Roots are indicated with the `\sqrt` command. A square root is indicated with `\sqrt{x*y}` ($\sqrt{x * y}$) and an n^{th} root with `\sqrt[n]{3}` ($\sqrt[n]{3}$).

Summation, Integrals, Products, ...

The commands for these functions have the property that they they adjust there size, depending on the formula. The basic structure is of the form

```
\begin{equation}
\frac{\pi^2}{8} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}
\frac{1}{(2k-1)^2}
\end{equation}
```

which gives

$$\frac{\pi^2}{8} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k-1)^2} \quad (2)$$

For integration use `int`, products use `prod`, unions (\cup) use `bigcup`, intersections (\cap), use `bigcap`, etc.

Defining commands

A useful feature in \LaTeX is the ability to define commands. These are often used to create custom shortcuts for your commonly used commands. To do this use the `\newcommand` command. Its first argument is the command name and the second argument is the command text. For example to create a command for \bar{x} , you could use

```
\newcommand{\xbar}{\ensuremath{\bar{x}}}
```

It is possible to create more complicated commands, such as ones that take arguments. An example, albeit silly is

```
\newcommand{\silly}[2]{\ensuremath{f(\#1 + 2, \#2 - 2)}}
```

for which `\silly{2x}{z}` gives $f(2x + 2, z - 2)$.

You need to be a bit careful in naming your new commands. You don't want them to start with the names of built in commands.

Adding Graphics

While there are many ways of adding graphics to a \LaTeX document, probably the most popular way currently is with the `graphicx` package, which I believe is now part of most standard \LaTeX installations. To use it, you just need to give the command `\usepackage{graphicx}`.

This is particularly useful with postscript graphics created by either S-Plus/R or MATLAB. I believe that the package will handle other graphics format such as tiff, but I've never used anything but encapsulated postscript.

The base command is

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

The important *keys* are width, height, angle, and scale.

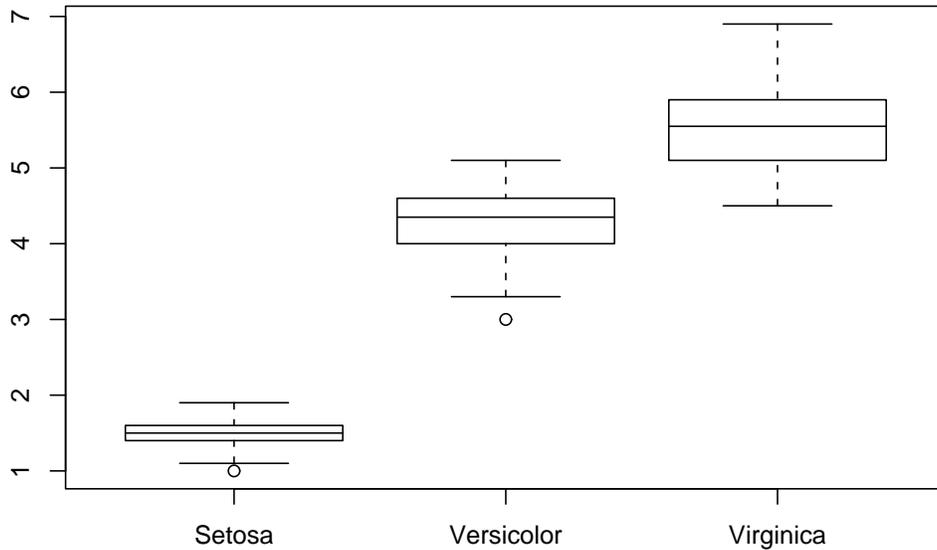


Figure 1: Boxplot of Petal Width generated by R

```

\begin{figure}[ht]
\begin{center}
\includegraphics*[scale=0.8]{rbox.ps}
\caption{\label{fig:rbox}
Boxplot of Petal Width generated by R}
\end{center}
\end{figure}

```