

Getting Started with Plain T_EX

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1 Introduction to Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$

1.1 What is Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$?

$\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ is a computer program for typesetting documents. It takes a computer file, prepared according to the rules of $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$, 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 $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ 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.

There are various ‘dialects’ of $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$, including $\text{L}^{\text{A}}\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$. Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ (created by D. E. Knuth) is the basic version of $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ on which these other ‘dialects’ are based. The reference manual for Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ is “The $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ book”, by D. E. Knuth.

1.2 A Typical Plain T_EX Input File

In order to produce a document using T_EX, we must first create a suitable *input file* on the computer. We apply the T_EX program to the input file and then use the printer to print out the so-called ‘DVI’ file produced by the T_EX program (after first using another program to translate the ‘DVI’ file into a form that the printer can understand). Here is an example of a typical Plain T_EX input file:

```
The foundations of the rigorous study of {\it 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
{\it limits} and {\it 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 {\it 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.
```

```
\bye
```

When we apply T_EX 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 Weier-

strass. 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 \TeX . Note that the line

```
\bye
```

is placed at the end of the input file. This is to tell \TeX when the end of the document has been reached. Note also that, although most characters occurring in this file have their usual meaning, yet there are special characters such as \backslash , $\$$, $\{$ and $\}$ which have special meanings within \TeX . Note in particular that there are sequences of characters which begin with a ‘backslash’ \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 \TeX 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 \TeX . 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 T_EX using *control sequences*. Most control sequences consist of a backslash `\` followed by a string of (upper or lower case) letters. For example, `\alpha`, `\it`, `\sum` and `\TeX` are control sequences.

In the example above we used the control sequences `\it` and `\bf` 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 `\{`, `\"` and `\$`.

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 T_EX 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 `\epsilon > 0` and for all `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 `$$` and `$$` 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

`^` `_` `%` `~` `#` `&`

have special purposes within T_EX that we shall discuss later.

2 Producing Simple Documents using Plain \TeX

2.1 Producing Ordinary Text using Plain \TeX

To produce a simple document using Plain \TeX one should create a \TeX input file. The input file should end with the `\bye` command, in order to tell \TeX when the end of the file has been reached.

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: \TeX 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 \TeX)

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 Plain \TeX we use the following input file:

```
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.

`\bye`

Having created the input file, one then has to run it through the `TEX` program and then print out the resulting output file (known as a ‘DVI’ file).

2.2 Blank Spaces and Carriage Returns in the Input File

`TEX` treats the carriage return at the end of a line as though it were a blank space. Similarly `TEX` treats tab characters as blank spaces. Moreover, `TEX` 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.

It follows immediately from this that one will obtain the same results whether one types one space or two spaces after a full stop: \TeX does not distinguish between the two cases.

Any spaces which follow a control sequence will be ignored by \TeX .

If you really need a blank space in the final document following whatever is produced by the control sequence, then you must precede this blank by a *backslash* \backslash . Thus in order to obtain the sentence

\TeX is a very powerful computer typesetting program.

we must type

$\backslash\text{\TeX}$ is a very powerful computer typesetting program.

(Here the control sequence $\backslash\text{\TeX}$ is used to produce the \TeX logo.)

In general, preceding a blank space by a backslash forces \TeX to include the blank space in the final document.

2.3 Quotation Marks

Single left and right quotation marks are produced by ‘ and ’ respectively. Double left and right quotation marks are produced by ‘‘ and ’’ respectively. Thus

“What did you do yesterday?” he asked.

is produced by typing

‘‘What did you do yesterday?’’ he asked.

You should never use the character " to produce quotation marks. This is because T_EX has no way of knowing whether you want a left quote or a right quote if you do this.

You can use the control sequences `\lq` and `\rq` in place of ‘ and ’. This is useful if your keyboard does not have a ‘ character.

Sometimes you need two quotation marks following one another, as in

“I regard computer typesetting as being reasonably ‘straight-forward’” he said.

The way to do this is to use the control sequence `\thinspace` between the quotation marks. Thus one would type

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

However this problem arises very rarely.

2.4 Section Headings in Plain T_EX

The control sequence `\beginsection` is used in Plain T_EX to produce a section heading, printed in a boldface typestyle. This control sequence should be followed by the title of the section, and this should then be followed by a blank line. Thus if we type

```
\beginsection  
Section Headings
```

In this section, we describe how to obtain section headings, printed in a boldface font.

then we obtain

Section Headings

In this section, we describe how to obtain section headings, printed in a boldface font.

2.5 Dashes

TeX allows you to produce dashes of various length. Typing `-` by itself produces a hyphen, as in ‘double-quote’. Typing `--` produces a dash suitable for denoting a range of numbers, as in the phrase ‘on pages 155–159’, produced by typing

on pages 155--159.

Finally, typing `---` produces a punctuation dash—this is a dash such as the one in this sentence.

2.6 Changing Fonts

Fonts are changed using the control sequences `\rm`, `\sl`, `\it`, `\tt` and `\bf`.

<code>\rm</code> changes to the normal “roman” font:	Roman
<code>\sl</code> changes to a slanted roman font:	<i>Slanted</i>
<code>\it</code> changes to an italic font:	<i>Italic</i>
<code>\tt</code> changes to an “typewriter” font:	Typewriter
<code>\bf</code> changes to a boldface font:	Boldface

It is best to use the special characters `{` and `}` when changing fonts. One encloses the text whose font is to be changed within these curly brackets and places the font-changing control sequence immediately after the opening bracket `{`. Thus the text

In this sentence we have *italicized* a few words, set others in *slanting type* or **boldface type**, and typeset others using a ‘**typewriter**’ font in which all the letters have a fixed width.

is produced by typing

In this sentence we have `{\it italicized\/}` a few words, set others in `{\sl slanting type\/}` or `{\bf boldface type}`, and typeset others using a `{\tt ‘typewriter’ font in which all the letters have a fixed width}`.

The control sequence `\/` produces the so-called *italic correction*. The use of this is recommended when changing back from an *italic* or *slanted* font into a roman or **boldface** font, in order to produce extra space to compensate for the way in which some *italic* and *slanted* letters lean into the following blank space. However this italic correction should not be used before a comma or a full stop.

2.7 Accents and other Symbols 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 $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ is given in Appendix A.

The control sequences `\i` and `\j` produce dotless *i* and *j*. These are required when placing an accent on the letter. Thus \bar{i} is produced by typing `\={\i}`. There are also control sequences for ligatures and other special symbols used within text. These are listed in Appendix A.

2.8 Special Characters

The characters

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

have special purposes within $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$. 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, somewhat more ingenuity is required to produce `\`, `^` and `~`.

3 Mathematical Formulae using Plain T_EX

3.1 Mathematics Mode

In order to obtain a mathematical formula using T_EX, one must enter *mathematics mode* before the formula and leave it afterwards. Mathematical formulae can occur either embedded in text or else displayed on a separate line. When a formula occurs within the text of a paragraph one should place a $\mathbb{$ 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 $\mathbb{$ signs. This is to ensure that they are set in italic type, as is customary in mathematical typesetting.

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

The product of two first degree polynomials is a quadratic polynomial. For example, if $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

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

The converse does not hold for polynomials over the field of real numbers. However if we consider polynomials over the complex field then every polynomial factorizes as a product of first degree polynomials, by the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

one would type

The product of two first degree polynomials is a quadratic polynomial. For example, if $f(x) = 3x + 7$ and $g(x) = x + 4$ then

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

The converse does not hold for polynomials over the field of real numbers. However if we consider polynomials over the complex field then every polynomial factorizes as a product of first degree polynomials, by the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

Numbered equations are produced using the control sequence `\eqno`. For example, if we type

`$$f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.\eqno(15)$$`

we obtain

$$f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28. \tag{15}$$

We obtain displayed equations with numbers on the left hand side by using `\leqno` in place of `\eqno`. Thus if we type

`$$f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.\leqno(15)$$`

we obtain

$$(15) \quad f(x)g(x) = 3x^2 + 19x + 28.$$

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 `$f' + g'$` produces $f' + g''$. When in mathematics mode the spaces you type between letters and other symbols do not affect the spacing of the final result, since \TeX determines the spacing of characters in formulae by its own internal rules. Thus `$x (y + z)$` and `$x(y+z)$` both produce $x(y + z)$. 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 \backslash in mathematics mode, one may type `\backslashslash`.

3.3 Subscripts and Superscripts

Subscripts and superscripts are obtained using the special characters `_` and `^` respectively. Thus the expression $t^3 + x_1^2 - x_2$ is obtained by typing `$t^3 + x_1^2 - x_2$`. When the subscript or superscript consists of more than one character then the characters involved should be enclosed in curly brackets. Thus to obtain the expression $u_{i,j}^{12}$ one would type `$u_{i,j}^{12}$`.

It is immaterial whether one specifies the subscript before the superscript or vice versa. Thus `u_1^2` and `u^2_1` both produce u_1^2 . However \TeX does not like it if you type `s_n_j` since this 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 superscripts. Incidentally, the second alternative illustrates the fact that one can obtain subscripts (or superscripts) on subscripts (or superscripts). However one should not go beyond this to try to obtain triple subscripts.

It is sometimes necessary to obtain expressions such as $R_i^j{}_{kl}$ in which the exact positioning of the subscripts and superscripts is important (e.g., in papers on general relativity and tensor analysis). The way this is done is to include the ‘empty group’ `{}` at the appropriate places to enable the superscripts and subscripts to be aligned correctly. Thus to obtain $R_i^j{}_{kl}$ one would type `$R_i{}^j{}_{kl}$`.

3.4 Greek Letters

Greek letters are produced in mathematics mode by preceding the name of the letter by a backslash `\`. Thus the Greek letters alpha (α), pi (π) and chi (χ) are obtained by typing `\alpha`, `\pi` and `\chi` respectively. Thus the sentence

The area A of a circle of radius r is given by the formula $A = \pi r^2$.

is obtained by typing

The area~ A of a circle of radius~ r is given by the formula $A = \pi r^2$.

Upper case Greek letters are obtained by making the first character of the name upper case. Thus Γ, Φ and Λ are obtained by typing `\Gamma, \Phi` and `\Lambda`.

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>

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. These are listed in Appendix B. For example `\neq, \leq` and `\geq` produce \neq, \leq and \geq respectively, `\infty` produces ∞ , `\times` and `\div` produce \times and \div , both `\to` and `\rightarrow` produce \rightarrow , `\in` produces \in , `\cup, \cap, \setminus` and `\subset` produce \cup, \cap, \setminus and \subset respectively. The list seems endless.

3.6 Changing Fonts in Mathematics Mode

One can change fonts in mathematics mode in exactly the same way as when typesetting ordinary text. For instance `\rm` changes to the roman font, `\bf` changes to the **boldface** font and `\mit` changes to the *math italic* font. The *math italic* font is automatically used in mathematics mode unless you

explicitly change the font. In addition there is a ‘calligraphic’ font which is obtained using the control sequence `\cal`. *This font can only be used for uppercase letters.* These calligraphic letters have the form

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

The following example shows how fonts are changed in an example involving mathematics. 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 would 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
 $V = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}.$

3.7 Standard Functions and Embedded Text

The names of certain standard functions and abbreviations are obtained by typing a backslash `\` before the name. The complete list in `TEX` is as follows:-

<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 $\text{Aut}(V)$ by typing `\rm Aut(V)`.

Note that if one were to type simply `Aut(V)` one would obtain $Aut(V)$, because `TEX` has treated `Aut` as the product of three quantities A, u and t and typeset the formula accordingly.

The recommended way to obtain ordinary text in displayed mathematical formulae is to use `\hbox`. Thus one obtains

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

by typing

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

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

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

we would have obtained

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

3.8 Fractions, Roots and Ellipsis

Fractions of the form

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

are obtained in Plain T_EX using the construction

```
{\textit{numerator} \over \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
 $f(x) = 2x + \{x - 7 \over x^2 + 4\}$ 
for all real numbers  $x$ .
```

To obtain square roots one uses the control sequence `\sqrt`. For example, $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ is produced by typing `$$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$`. To produce roots of higher order in Plain TeX one uses the construction

`\root n \of expression`

to produce $\sqrt[n]{expression}$. Thus typing `$$\root 3 \of {x + 3y}$$` produces $\sqrt[3]{x + 3y}$.

Ellipsis (three dots) is produced in mathematics mode using the control sequences `\cdots` and `\ldots`. A low ellipsis, such as (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) , is produced by typing

`(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)`.

A centred ellipsis, such as $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ is produced by typing

`$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n$`.

3.9 Accents in Mathematics Mode

The control sequences `\underline`, `\overline`, `\hat`, `\check`, `\tilde`, `\acute`, `\grave`, `\dot`, `\ddot`, `\breve`, `\bar` and `\vec` produce underlining, overlining, and various accents, *but only in mathematics mode*. For example, \tilde{c} is produced by `$$\tilde{c}$$`. The effect of these accents on the letter a is shown in the table below:

<code>\$\$\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}

You should bear 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.

3.10 Brackets and Norms

The frequently used left delimiters include `(`, `[` and `{`, which are obtained by typing `(`, `[` and `\{` respectively. The corresponding right delimiters are of course `)`, `]` and `}`, 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  $f \colon B \to \mathbf{R}$ 
be a bounded linear functional on  $X$ . The norm of
 $f$ , denoted by  $\|f\|$ , is defined by
 $\|f\| = \inf \{ K \in [0, +\infty) :
|f(x)| \leq K \|x\| \text{ for all } x \in X \}.$ 
```

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 T_EX 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 \TeX 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| 4 x^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

```
$$\left. \{du \over dx\} \right|_{x=0}.$
```

3.11 Multiline Formulae in Plain \TeX

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. The above example was obtained by typing typing the lines

```
$$\eqalign{\cos 2\theta &= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \cr
&= 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1.\cr}$$
```

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 the control sequence `\cr` is placed at the end of each line 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 $h \leq \{1 \over 2\} |\zeta - z|$ then
$$|\zeta - z - h| \geq \{1 \over 2\} |\zeta - z|$$
and hence
$$\eqalign{
\left| \{1 \over \zeta - z - h\} - \{1 \over \zeta - z\} \right|
&= \left|
\{(\zeta - z) - (\zeta - z - h) \over (\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)\}
\right| \cr
&=
\left| \{h \over (\zeta - z - h)(\zeta - z)\} \right| \cr
&\leq \{2 |h| \over |\zeta - z|^2\}.\cr}

```

Numbered multiline formulae are produced using the control sequence `\eqalignno`. This works exactly like `\eqalign`, but on each line for which you want an equation number you insert '`&equation number`' immediately before the `\cr`. Thus typing

```


$$\begin{aligned} \sin 2\theta &= 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta, & (6) \\ \cos 2\theta &= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \\ &= 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1. & (7) \end{aligned}$$


```

produces

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta, \tag{6}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2\theta &= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \\ &= 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

It is occasionally necessary to produce formulae such as

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

We use the control sequence `\cases`. The above formula is obtained by typing

```


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


```

Note the use of the alignment tab `&`. Also note that the expression to the left of the alignment tab `&` is a mathematical expression, processed in mathematics mode, whereas the expression to the right of the alignment tab `&` is treated as ordinary text. Thus one must place `$` before and after any mathematical expression occurring to the right of the alignment tab `&`. Note also the use of `\cr` at the end of each line on the right hand side of the equation.

3.12 Matrices and other arrays in Plain T_EX

Matrices and other arrays are produced in Plain T_EX using the control sequences `\matrix` and `\pmatrix`. 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 {\it characteristic polynomial}  $\chi(\lambda)$  of the
 $3 \times 3$  matrix
 $\left( \begin{matrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{matrix} \right)$ 
is given by the formula
 $\chi(\lambda) = \left| \begin{matrix} \lambda - a & -b & -c \\ -d & \lambda - e & -f \\ -g & -h & \lambda - i \end{matrix} \right|$ .
```

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

$$\left(\dots \right)$$

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 `\cr` at the end of each row of the matrix, exactly as in the construction of multiline formulae described above.

Since matrices delimited by parentheses are common, Plain T_EX provides the control sequence `\pmatrix` to construct them. Thus

$$\left(\begin{matrix} \lambda - a & -b & -c \\ -d & \lambda - e & -f \\ -g & -h & \lambda - i \end{matrix} \right).$$

may be obtained by typing

```
 $\pmatrix{\lambda - a & -b & -c \\ -d & \lambda - e & -f \\ -g & -h & \lambda - i}$ .
```

Note that `\pmatrix` behaves exactly like `\matrix`, except that there is no need to use `\left(` and `\right)` to produce the parentheses around the matrix, since these are automatically produced by `\pmatrix`.

More complicated arrays can be produced in Plain TeX with comparative ease using `\halign` (see Chapter 22 of the TeXbook).

3.13 Derivatives, Limits, Sums and Integrals

The expressions

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

are obtained by typing `{du \over dt}` and `{d^2 u \over dx^2}` respectively. The mathematical symbol ∂ is produced using `\partial`. Thus to obtain partial derivatives such as

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \text{ and } \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

one types `{\partial u \over \partial t}` and `{\partial^2 u \over \partial x^2}` respectively.

To obtain mathematical expressions such as

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

in displayed equations we type `\lim_{x \to +\infty}`, `\inf_{x > s}` and `\sup_K` respectively. Thus to obtain

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

we type

$$\text{\$\$}\lim_{x \to 0} \{3x^2 + 7x^3 \over x^2 + 5x^4\} = 3.\text{\$\$}$$

To obtain a summation sign such as

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

we type `\sum_{i=1}^{2n}`. Thus

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

is obtained by typing

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

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

$$\text{\$\$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx.\$\$}$$

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. It remains to describe the purpose of the `\,` occurring immediately before the `dx`. This is the means of telling \TeX to put extra space before the d . This is necessary to produce the correct appearance.

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 , dt , and $d\theta$. 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 \TeX 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 as

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

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 Plain T_EX by typing

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

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

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

It is customary to normalize the wave equation by demanding that

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

A simple calculation using the Schrödinger wave equation shows that

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

and hence

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

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 ,

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

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

4 Further Features of Plain TeX

4.1 Producing Blank Space in Plain TeX

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

pt	point	(1 in = 72.27 pt)
pc	pica	(1 pc = 12 pt)
in	inch	(1 in = 25.4 mm)
bp	big point	(1 in = 72 bp)
cm	centimetre	(1 cm = 10 mm)
mm	millimetre	
dd	didot point	(1157 dd = 1238 pt)
cc	cicero	(1 cc = 12 dd)
sp	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 `\hskip 20 mm`. (There is however a mild quirk of \TeX which arises very rarely: if the word following the horizontal skip happens to begin with the letters ‘plus’ then you will probably get an error message, probably

`! Missing number, treated as zero.`

For an explanation of why this occurs, see the \TeX book. This problem can be avoided by typing `\hskip 20 mm \relax`).

To produce (vertical) blank space between paragraphs, use `\vskip`, followed by the length of the vertical skip. 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.

`\vskip 10 mm`

This is the second paragraph.

4.2 Blank Spaces: Fine Tuning

We describe certain features of \TeX relating to blank spaces and paragraph indentation which will improve the appearance of the final document. Experienced users of \TeX 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 \TeX 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.

\TeX has its own rules for deciding the lengths of blank spaces. For instance, \TeX 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 \TeX 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 \TeX assumes that it is not a full stop but follows the initials of somebody's name.

This works very well in most cases. However \TeX 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.
```

\TeX 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 \TeX not to break at a particular blank space. The special character used for this purpose is \sim . It represents a blank space at which \TeX is not allowed to break between lines. It is often desirable to use \sim 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. This feature of T_EX may be safely ignored by beginners, though more experienced T_EXnical typists should gradually accustom themselves to using it occasionally where appropriate.

T_EX will automatically indent paragraphs (with the exception of the first paragraph of a new section). One can prevent T_EX 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 T_EX to indent the paragraph.

4.3 Defining your own Control Sequences in Plain T_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 `\def`. What we do is to place a line with the command

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

near the beginning of the input file. 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

```
\def\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 `#1` occurring after the `\intwrtx` in the line defining this control sequence indicates to \TeX that 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

```
\def\intwrt#1#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

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

A Control Sequences used in Text (Plain T_EX)

Control Sequences for Changing Fonts in Text

<code>\rm</code>	changes to the normal “roman” font:	Roman
<code>\sl</code>	changes to a slanted roman font:	<i>Slanted</i>
<code>\it</code>	changes to an italic font:	<i>Italic</i>
<code>\tt</code>	changes to an “typewriter” font:	Typewriter
<code>\bf</code>	changes to a boldface font:	Boldface

Control Sequences for obtaining Accents in Text

<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>	ó	
<code>\u {o}</code>	ů	
<code>\v {c}</code>	č	e.g., <code>\v {C}ech</code> yields ‘Čech’
<code>\H {o}</code>	ő	
<code>\t {oo}</code>	ôo	
<code>\c {c}</code>	ç	e.g., <code>gar\c {c}on</code> yields ‘garçon’
<code>\d {o}</code>	ð	
<code>\b {o}</code>	ö	

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.

Special Symbols used in Text

<code>\oe, \OE</code>	œ, Æ
<code>\ae, \AE</code>	æ, Æ
<code>\aa, \AA</code>	å, Å
<code>\o, \O</code>	ø, Ø
<code>\l, \L</code>	ł, Ł
<code>\ss</code>	ß
<code>?‘</code>	ı
<code>!‘</code>	ı
<code>\dag</code>	†
<code>\ddag</code>	‡
<code>\S</code>	§
<code>\P</code>	¶
<code>\copyright</code>	©
<code>{\it \\$}</code>	<i>\$</i>
<code>{\it &}</code>	<i>&</i>
<code>\i</code>	<i>i</i>
<code>\j</code>	<i>J</i>

B Control Sequences used in Mathematics (Plain T_EX)

B.1 Font Changes, Accents and Standard Functions

Changing Fonts in Mathematical Expressions

Fonts are changed using suitable control sequences.

<code>\mit</code> changes to the ‘math italic’ font:	<i>MathItalic</i>
<code>\rm</code> changes to the roman font:	Roman
<code>\sl</code> changes to a slanted roman font:	<i>Slanted</i>
<code>\it</code> changes to an italic font:	<i>Italic</i>
<code>\tt</code> changes to an “typewriter” font:	Typewriter
<code>\bf</code> changes to a boldface font:	Boldface
<code>\cal</code> changes to a calligraphic font:	<i>CALLIGRAPHIC</i>

The default font for mathematics is *MathItalic*. The *CALLIGRAPHIC* font is only available for uppercase letters. Any change of font made within

a group enclosed within curly brackets { and } will only apply to text within that group. On leaving the group, the current font is restored to what it was before entering the group.

Accents in Mathematics Mode

Accents in mathematics mode are produced using appropriate control sequences. The effect of these on the letter *a* is exhibited in the following table.

<code> \$\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}

These control sequences should only be used for mathematics, not for ordinary text.

You should bear 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.

Standard Functions

The names of certain standard functions and abbreviations are obtained by typing a backslash \ before the name. The complete list in T_EX is as follows:-

<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>

B.2 Control Sequences for Mathematical Symbols

Lowercase Greek Letters

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

Uppercase Greek 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>		

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>\perp</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

Σ	<code>\sum</code>	\bigcap	<code>\bigcap</code>	\odot	<code>\bigodot</code>
\prod	<code>\prod</code>	\bigcup	<code>\bigcup</code>	\otimes	<code>\bigotimes</code>
\coprod	<code>\coprod</code>	\bigsqcup	<code>\bigsqcup</code>	\oplus	<code>\bigoplus</code>
\int	<code>\int</code>	\bigvee	<code>\bigvee</code>	\uplus	<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>	\triangle	<code>\bigtriangleup</code>	\amalg	<code>\amalg</code>
\div	<code>\div</code>	∇	<code>\bigtriangledown</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>
\sqsubset	<code>\sqsubset</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

\nless	<code>\not<</code>	\ngtr	<code>\not></code>	\neq	<code>\not=</code>
\nleq	<code>\not\leq</code>	\ngeq	<code>\not\geq</code>	\nequiv	<code>\not\equiv</code>
\nprec	<code>\not\prec</code>	\nsucc	<code>\not\succ</code>	\nsim	<code>\not\sim</code>
\npreceq	<code>\not\preceq</code>	\nsucceq	<code>\not\succeq</code>	\nsimeq	<code>\not\simeq</code>
\nsubset	<code>\not\subset</code>	\nsupset	<code>\not\supset</code>	\napprox	<code>\not\approx</code>
\nsubseteq	<code>\not\subseteq</code>	\nsupseteq	<code>\not\supseteq</code>	\ncong	<code>\not\cong</code>
\nsubsetneq	<code>\not\subsetneq</code>	\nsupsetneq	<code>\not\supsetneq</code>	\nasymp	<code>\not\asymp</code>

Arrows

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

Openings

$[$	<code>\lbrack</code>	\lfloor	<code>\lfloor</code>	\lceil	<code>\lceil</code>
$\{$	<code>\lbrace</code>	\langle	<code>\langle</code>		

Closings

$]$	<code>\rbrack</code>	\rfloor	<code>\rfloor</code>	\rceil	<code>\rceil</code>
$\}$	<code>\rbrace</code>	\rangle	<code>\rangle</code>		

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>\Longleftarrow</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)

B.3 Some frequently used Control Sequences of Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$

We list some of the control sequences of Plain $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ that are frequently used when typesetting mathematical formulae. The list is by no means exhaustive. For information on how to apply these control sequences, consult the appropriate manual (e.g. ‘The $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ book’).

<code>\over</code>	produces fractions
<code>\sqrt</code>	produces square roots
<code>\root</code>	produces n th roots
<code>\left</code>	produces left delimiter of required size
<code>\right</code>	produces right delimiter of required size
<code>\quad</code>	produces a ‘quad’ of blank space
<code>\qquad</code>	produces two ‘quads’ of blank space
<code>\,</code>	produces a thin space
<code>\!</code>	removes a thin space
<code>\hbox</code>	creates a box of text within mathematics
<code>\eqalign</code>	creates a multiline formula
<code>\eqalignno</code>	creates a numbered multiline formula
<code>\leqalignno</code>	creates a multiline formula numbered on the left
<code>\cases</code>	creates an equation that splits into cases
<code>\matrix</code>	produces an array
<code>\pmatrix</code>	produces a matrix surrounded by parentheses