0.1 General

LaTeX has a special mode for typesetting mathematics. Mathematical text within a paragraph is entered between `\(` and `\)`, between `$` and `$` or between `\begin{math}` and `\end{math}`.

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

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

```
\TeX{} is pronounced as
$\tau\epsilon\chi$.\\[6pt]
100~m$^{3}$ of water\\[6pt]
This comes from my $\heartsuit$
```

TeX is pronounced as $\tau\epsilon\chi$.

100 m^3 of water

This comes from my $\heartsuit$

0.2 Displayed Equations

It is preferable to *display* larger mathematical equations or formulae, rather than to typeset them on separate lines. This means you enclose them in `\[` and `\]` or between `\begin{displaymath}` and `\end{displaymath}`. This produces formulae which are not numbered. If you want LaTeX to number them, you can use the `equation` environment.

```
Add $a$ squared and $b$ squared
to get $c$ squared. Or, using
a more mathematical approach:
\begin{displaymath}
c^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}
\end{displaymath}
And just one more line.
```

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

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

And just one more line.

0.3 Labels

You can reference an equation with `\label` and `\ref`

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

$$\epsilon > 0 \tag{1}$$

From (1), we gather …

0.4 Inline vs Displayed

Note that expressions will be typeset in a different style if displayed:

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

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

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

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

0.5 Math Mode vs Text Mode

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

1. Most spaces and linebreaks do not have any significance, as all spaces either are derived logically from the mathematical expressions or have to be specified using special commands such as `\,`, `\quad` or `\qquad`.

2. Empty lines are not allowed. Only one paragraph per formula.

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

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

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{R}: \qquad x^{2} \geq 0 \tag{2}$$

```
\begin{equation}
x^{2} \geq 0\qquad
\textrm{for all }x\in\mathbf{R}
\end{equation}
```

$$x^{2} \geq 0 \qquad \textrm{for all } x \in \mathbf{R} \tag{3}$$

0.6 Symbols

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

```
\begin{displaymath}
x^{2} \geq 0\qquad
\textrm{for all }x\in\mathbb{R}
\end{displaymath}
```

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

0.7 Grouping in Math Mode

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

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

$$a^x + y \neq a^{x+y} \tag{4}$$

0.8 Greek Letters

Lowercase Greek letters are entered as `\alpha`, `\beta`, `\gamma`, … , uppercase letters are entered as `\Gamma`, `\Delta`, … [1]

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

[1] There is no uppercase Alpha defined in LaTeX 2_ε because it looks the same as a normal roman A. Once the new math coding is done, things will change.

0.9 Exponents and Subscripts

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

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

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

0.10 Square Roots

The **square root** is entered as `\sqrt`, the n^{th} root is generated with `\sqrt[`n`]`. The size of the root sign is determined automatically by LaTeX. If just the sign is needed, use `\surd`.

```
$\sqrt{x}$ \qquad
$\sqrt{ x^{2}+\sqrt{y} }$
\qquad $\sqrt[3]{2}$\\[3pt]
$\surd[x^2 + y^2]$
```

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

$\surd[x^2 + y^2]$

0.11 Long Horizontal Things

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

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

$\overline{m+n}$

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

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

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

0.12 Accents

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

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

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

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

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

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

0.13 Names

Names of log-like functions are often typeset in an upright font and not in italic like variables. Therefore LaTeX supplies the following commands to typeset the most important function names:

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

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

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

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

0.14 Fractions

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

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

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

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

0.15 Binomials

To typeset binomial coefficients or similar structures, you can use either the command `{... \choose ...}` or `{... \atop ...}`. The second command produces the same output as the first one, but without braces. (Note that the usage of these old-style commands is expressly forbidden by the amsmath package. They are replaced by `\binom` and `\genfrac`. The latter is a superset of all related constructs. e.g. you may get a similar construct to `\atop` by `\newcommand{\newatop}[2]{\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{1}{#1}{#2}}`)

```
\begin{displaymath}
{n \choose k}\qquad {x \atop y+2}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\binom{n}{k} \qquad \genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{x}{y+2}$$

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

0.16 Some Large Symbols

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

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

The **integral operator** is generated with `\int`, the **sum operator** with `\sum` and the **product operator** with `\prod`. The upper and lower limits are specified with `^` and `_` like subscripts and superscripts. [2]

```
\begin{displaymath}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \qquad
\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \qquad
\prod_\epsilon
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \qquad \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \qquad \prod_\epsilon$$

[2] AMS-LaTeXin addition has multiline super-/subscripts

0.17 Large Brackets

For **braces** and other delimiters, there exist all types of symbols in TEX (e.g. $[\ \langle \ \| \ \Updownarrow$). Round and square braces can be entered with the corresponding keys, curly braces with `\{`, all other delimiters are generated with special commands (e.g. `\updownarrow`). For a list of all delimiters available, check table **??** on page **??**.

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

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

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

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

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

In some cases it is necessary to specify the correct size of a mathematical delimiter by hand, which can be done using the commands `\big`, `\Big`, `\bigg` and `\Bigg` as prefixes to most delimiter commands.[3]

```
$\Big( (x+1) (x-1) \Big) ^{2}$\\
$\big(\Big(\bigg(\Bigg($\quad
$\big\}\Big\}\bigg\}\Bigg\}$\quad
$\big\|\Big\|\bigg\|\Bigg\|$
```

$\Big((x+1)(x-1) \Big)^{2}$
$\big(\Big(\bigg(\Bigg($ $\quad$ $\big\}\Big\}\bigg\}\Bigg\}$ $\quad$ $\big\|\Big\|\bigg\|\Bigg\|$

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

0.18 Dots

To enter **three dots** into a formula, you can use several commands. `\ldots` typesets the dots on the baseline, `\cdots` sets them centred. Besides that, there are the commands `\vdots` for vertical and `\ddots` for diagonal dots. You can find another example in section 0.20.

```
\begin{displaymath}
x_{1},\ldots,x_{n} \qquad
x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$x_{1},\ldots,x_{n} \qquad x_{1}+\cdots+x_{n}$$

0.19 Math Spacing

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

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

$$\int\!\!\!\int_{D} g(x,y)\,\mathrm{d}x\,\mathrm{d}y$$

instead of

$$\int\int_{D} g(x,y)\mathrm{d}x\mathrm{d}y$$

Note that 'd' in the differential is conventionally set in roman.

$\mathcal{AMS}$-LaTeX provides another way for finetuning the spacing between multiple integral signs, namely the `\iint`, `\iiint`, `\iiiint`, and `\idotsint` commands. With the `amsmath` package loaded, the above example can be typeset this way:

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

$$\iint_{D} \,\mathrm{d}x\,\mathrm{d}y$$

See the electronic document testmath.tex (distributed with $\mathcal{AMS}$-LaTeX) or Chapter 8 of "The LaTeX Companion" for further details.

0.20 Array Env

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

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

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

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

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

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

As within the `tabular` environment you can also draw lines in the `array` environent, e.g. separating the entries of a matrix:

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

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

0.21 Equation Array Env

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

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

```
\begin{eqnarray}
f(x) & = & \cos x     \\
f'(x) & = & -\sin x   \\
\int_{0}^{x} f(y)dy &
 = & \sin x
\end{eqnarray}
```

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= \cos x && (5)\\
f'(x) &= -\sin x && (6)\\
\int_{0}^{x} f(y)dy &= \sin x && (7)
\end{aligned}
$$

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

0.22 Long Equations

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - {} & \\ - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots & \qquad (8) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + {} & \\ + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots & \qquad (9) \end{aligned}$$

The `\nonumber` command causes LaTeX to not generate a number for this equation.

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

0.23 Phantom

We can't see phantoms, but they still occupy some space in the minds of a lot of people. LaTeX is no different. We can use this for some interesting spacing tricks.

When vertically aligning text using ^ and _ LaTeX sometimes is just a little bit too helpful. Using the `\phantom` command you can reserve space for characters which do not show up in the final output. Best is to look at the following examples.

```
\begin{displaymath}
{}^{12}_{\phantom{1}6}\textrm{C}
\qquad \textrm{as opposed to} \qquad
{}^{12}_{6}\textrm{C}
\end{displaymath}
```

$${}^{12}_{6}\textrm{C} \qquad \textrm{as opposed to} \qquad {}^{12}_{6}\textrm{C}$$

```
\begin{displaymath}
\Gamma_{ij}^{\phantom{ij}k}
\qquad \textrm{as opposed to} \qquad
\Gamma_{ij}^{k}
\end{displaymath}
```

$$\Gamma_{ij}^{k} \qquad \textrm{as opposed to} \qquad \Gamma_{ij}^{k}$$

0.24 Math Font Size

In math mode, TEX selects the font size according to the context. Superscripts, for example, get typeset in a smaller font. If you want to typeset part of an equation in roman, don't use the `\textrm` command, because the font size switching mechanism will not work, as `\textrm` temporarily escapes to text mode. Use `\mathrm` instead to keep the size switching mechanism active. But pay attention, `\mathrm` will only work well on short items. Spaces are still not active and accented characters do not work.[4]

```
\begin{equation}
2^{\textrm{nd}} \quad
2^{\mathrm{nd}}
\end{equation}
```

$$2^{\text{nd}} \quad 2^{\mathrm{nd}} \tag{10}$$

Nevertheless, sometimes you need to tell LATEX the correct font size. In math mode, the fontsize is set with the four commands:

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

[4]The AMS-LATEX package makes the `\textrm` command work with size changing.

0.25 Limits and Styles

Changing styles also affects the way limits are displayed.

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

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

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

0.26 Theorems, Laws, ...

When writing mathematical documents, you probably need a way to typeset "Lemmas", "Definitions", "Axioms" and similar structures. LaTeX supports this with the command

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

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

The arguments in square brackets are optional. They are both used to specify the numbering used on the "theorem". With the *counter* argument you can specify the *name* of a previously declared "theorem". The new "theorem" will then be numbered in the same sequence. The *section* argument allows you to specify the sectional unit within which you want your "theorem" to be numbered.

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

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

0.27 Theorems etc Example

This should be enough theory. The following examples will hopefully remove the final remains of doubt and make it clear that the `\newtheorem` environment is way too complex to understand.

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

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

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

Law 3 *No, No, No*

The "Jury" theorem uses the same counter as the "Law" theorem. Therefore it gets a number which is in sequence with the other "Laws". The argument in square brackets is used to specify a title or something similar for the theorem.

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

Murphy 0.27.1 *If there are two or more ways to do something, and one of those ways can result in a catastrophe, then someone will do it.*

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

0.28 Bold symbols

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

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

$$\mu, M \qquad \mathbf{M} \qquad \boldsymbol{\mu, M}$$

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

The package amsbsy (included by amsmath) makes this much easier as it includes a `\boldsymbol` command.

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

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