

TeXsis 2.18  
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# TeXsis

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## TeX Macros for Physicists

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TEXsis is a collection of TEX macros for typesetting many kinds of physics documents, including research papers, preprints and “e-prints,” conference proceedings, theses, books, referee reports, letters, and memoranda. TEXsis macros provide automatic numbering of equations, automatic numbering and formatting of references, double column formatting, macros for making tables and figures, with or without captions, and including tables with horizontal and vertical rules. TEXsis supports a wide variety of type sizes and a number of specialized document formats, and it even includes macros for making form letters for job applications or letters of recommendation. This document describes version 2.18 of TEXsis, and also serves as an example of its use.

T<sub>E</sub>Xsis: T<sub>E</sub>X Macros for Physicists

For the latest information about T<sub>E</sub>Xsis consult the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis home page, at

<http://www.texsis.org>

Source code and documentation for T<sub>E</sub>Xsis are available via the Internet at

<ftp://ftp.texsis.org>.

[You can also use “anonymous ftp” instead of a Web browser. In that case, run ftp on your computer and connect to ftp.texsis.org, give the login name “anonymous” and your e-mail address as the password. Issue the command “cd texsis” to change to the texsis subdirectory. ]

The files for Unix machines are in a gzip compressed tar file with a name like `TeXsis-X.XX.tar.gz`, where `X.XX` is the version number. There are also subdirectories for T<sub>E</sub>Xsis packaged for Macintosh, PC’s (DOS or Windows), VMS (Vax computers), Linux, and Amiga. The code is the same in any case, it’s just packed differently for different machines. See the `README` file on the TeXsis ftp server for more details. If you have problems with this server, please send e-mail to [texsis@umich.edu](mailto:texsis@umich.edu).

The T<sub>E</sub>Xsis distribution on the TeXsis ftp server is also mirrored by CTAN (the Common TeX Archive Network). You may find it easier to get T<sub>E</sub>Xsis from a nearby CTAN site. To find the CTAN site nearest you finger [ctan@ftp.tex.ac.uk](mailto:ctan@ftp.tex.ac.uk). The files can be found in the directory `macros/texsis/`.

Small improvements and bug corrections for T<sub>E</sub>Xsis are distributed as patches in the patch file `TXS-patch.tex`. If there is such a file in the `/texsis` directory you should copy it as well.

We would be grateful to hear of any errors found in this documentation or in the software, and we also invite suggestions for improvements to both. We try to correct errors as quickly as possible, and we try to improve T<sub>E</sub>Xsis as our time allows. When reporting an error in the code it would help a great deal if you would send us a copy of the relevant sections of the manuscript file, the log file, and if possible a sample of any output generated. It would be even better if you could break your example down into a short file that demonstrates the error on a single page or two.

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## 1. Introduction

$\text{\TeX}$  is a computer typesetting system created by Donald Knuth of Stanford University. It is described succinctly in his book, *The  $\text{\TeX}book$* .<sup>1</sup>  $\text{\TeX}$  is especially well suited for typesetting technical material containing mathematical symbols and equations. As a result,  $\text{\TeX}$  in one form or another is now used by almost all mathematicians and most physicists for writing scientific papers and related documents. The journals of the American Mathematical Society are typeset with  $\text{\TeX}$ , and the journals of the American Physical Society now accept manuscripts written in  $\text{\TeX}$ . A large number of physicists also distribute preprint (pre-publication) versions of their papers, known as “e-prints,” via an archive server based at the Los Alamos National Laboratory.  $\text{\TeX}$  in some form is the *de facto* standard for such papers.

There are actually several different “flavors” of  $\text{\TeX}$ . One of the reasons that  $\text{\TeX}$  is so useful is that it has a powerful macro capability — to the point that  $\text{\TeX}$  can actually be considered to be a computer “language.” As a result, there now exist a number of macro packages, or “formats,” which either extend or replace the basic  $\text{\TeX}$  language of *The  $\text{\TeX}book$*  (which is commonly known as “plain”  $\text{\TeX}$ ) by adding more advanced features or commands appropriate to more specialized types of documents.  $\text{\TeX}sis$  is one such macro package, designed specifically (but not exclusively) for physicists.  $\text{\TeX}sis$  provides the author with many useful commands which are either not available or not easily implemented by the casual user of plain  $\text{\TeX}$ . Among these are the ability to automatically number equations, references, figures and tables, and to refer to these “numbered” objects easily by symbolic names which are independent of the values assigned to them when the document is processed.  $\text{\TeX}sis$  makes it easy to change the type style or size, and to control other aspects of the formatting.  $\text{\TeX}sis$  also includes special macros for printing in double columns and for constructing ruled tables. It is easy with  $\text{\TeX}sis$  to produce more specialized documents, such as letters, referee reports, and memoranda, or even a thesis or a book.

Many physicists are now familiar, at least by name, with another  $\text{\TeX}$ -based format, the  $\text{REVTeX}$  package from the American Physical Society.  $\text{REVTeX}$  is in turn based on a more general format, known as  $\text{\LaTeX}$ .<sup>2</sup> Unfortunately,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  differs from plain  $\text{\TeX}$  in several subtle but important ways, so that documents created using plain  $\text{\TeX}$  cannot be used with  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . In contrast,  $\text{\TeX}sis$  is functionally a superset of plain  $\text{\TeX}$ , so that everything described in *The  $\text{\TeX}book$*  will also work in  $\text{\TeX}sis$  (even though the internal workings of some of the plain  $\text{\TeX}$  macros have actually been modified). This means that  $\text{\TeX}sis$  documents can also make use of just about any of the many smaller macro packages designed for use with plain  $\text{\TeX}$ , or an author can make use of the methods and tricks described in *The  $\text{\TeX}book$* . Unfortunately, it also means that  $\text{REVTeX}$  and  $\text{\TeX}sis$  are mutually incompatible.

This manual explains how to use  $\text{\TeX}sis$ . Since it is a user’s guide, it makes no attempt to describe how the various macros work; for that one should consult the source code, which is extensively commented. However, we do assume that the reader is already familiar with plain  $\text{\TeX}$ . If you don’t already know plain  $\text{\TeX}$ , a good way to learn is to read and work through the exercises in *A Gentle Introduction to  $\text{\TeX}$*  by Michael Doob.<sup>3</sup> The source file for this (called `gentle.tex`) is available on the  $\text{\TeX}sis$  ftp server, or on CTAN. You

can also start by reading the *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*, paying special attention to chapters 1-10 and 16-19. The manual by Spivak<sup>4</sup> which accompanies PCT<sub>E</sub>X (which is an implementation of T<sub>E</sub>X for the IBM PC) is also recommended.

## 1.1. Overview of this Manual

The main topics covered in the several sections of this manual are:

- Section 1 – An introduction to T<sub>E</sub>Xsis and the philosophy behind the macros, and instructions on how to begin using T<sub>E</sub>Xsis.
- Section 2 – Selecting sizes and fonts of type, choosing single, double, or triple spacing, and automatically handling quotation marks.
- Section 3 – Automatic numbering of equations, automatic sizing of parentheses and brackets, and special symbols for physics equations.
- Section 4 – Defining new references, for which numbers are assigned automatically, citing references already so defined, and making a list of references.
- Section 5 – Labeling things like section numbers, figures, items in an outline, or page numbers, and referring to them in other parts of the document.
- Section 6 – Producing a complete paper, including the title page, chapters, sections, subsections, and appendices, a table of contents, running headlines, and an index. How to use the “master file” concept to split a long document into several files.
- Section 7 – Producing automatically numbered tables and figures and producing ruled tables.
- Section 8 – Displaying text in special ways using “environments,” including those for centered lines, lists of things, listings of computer programs, and T<sub>E</sub>X examples.
- Section 9 – Using specialized layouts for journals and conference proceedings, and creating new ones.
- Section 10 – Typing letters, form letters, memos and referee reports.
- Section 11 – Producing double column output.
- Section 12 – Miscellaneous macros for ignoring text and doing various other useful things, and a checkpoint/restart feature for printing very long documents.

Several appendices are also included to deal with more technical matters. Appendix A explains how to install T<sub>E</sub>Xsis on Unix computers, on a VAX/VMS system, and on an IBM PC. It also explains how to customize T<sub>E</sub>Xsis for your own installation. Appendix B lists changes that have been made to T<sub>E</sub>Xsis in recent revisions. Appendix C lists the fonts usually available with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis.

Two examples of T<sub>E</sub>Xsis documents are included in the standard distribution. The first, in the file `Example.tex`, is a short (3 pages) example of a physics paper typeset with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis. The second is this manual itself, which was also created with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis. If you would like to look at the files used to create the Manual, the master file is called `TXSdoc.doc`, and the various sections of the document are in files with names of the form `TXSxxxx.doc`. For those who are comfortable programming in T<sub>E</sub>X it is possible to extract specific macros from the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis source code or to modify or even rewrite these macros. The source code is contained in files with names of the form `TXSxxxx.tex`. We have tried wherever possible to include at least somewhat illuminating comments in the source code.

## 1.2. Getting Started

Assuming that T<sub>E</sub>Xsis has been properly installed on your computer, using T<sub>E</sub>Xsis is as simple as using T<sub>E</sub>X or L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. To run T<sub>E</sub>X with the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis format to process a manuscript file called `myfile.tex` you simply give the command:

```
texsis myfile
```

As with any version of T<sub>E</sub>X, the output from T<sub>E</sub>X is put in the file `myfile.dvi`, which you may view on your computer terminal or print on a laser printer or other output device.

Since T<sub>E</sub>Xsis is a superset of plain T<sub>E</sub>X, any file that you process with plain T<sub>E</sub>X can be processed with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis, and you will get the same results. In particular, plain T<sub>E</sub>X defaults to 10 pt. type and single spacing between lines, and so does T<sub>E</sub>Xsis unless you initialize its special features. But since you are probably using T<sub>E</sub>Xsis because of these special features, you should begin your manuscript file with the initialization command

```
\texsis
```

One of the things this command does is switch the output to 12 pt. type, double spaced, which generally looks better on a small laser printer. Commands that allow you to change the type size or line spacing yourself are described in Section 2. More specialized initialization commands may be used in place of (or in addition to) the `\texsis` command when you are using a pre-defined document layout. These are described in Section 9.

Note also that just as in plain T<sub>E</sub>X there is a difference between uppercase and lowercase letters in control word names. Thus if you say `\TeXsis` instead of `\texsis` you won't initialize any special features but you will print out "T<sub>E</sub>Xsis."

### 1.3. Some Philosophy

In designing the `TEXsis` macros we have tried to follow some basic guidelines which we feel make `TEXsis` a more useful tool. It may help you while learning about `TEXsis` to know what these guidelines are, especially if you are already familiar with other `TEX` macro packages. However, you can skip this section without missing anything important to a first time user.

The guidelines we have followed are:

- `TEXsis` is a superset of plain `TEX`, so that anything you can't do in `TEXsis` (and even those that you can) can be done with plain `TEX` instead. This also means that `TEXsis` is compatible with most plain `TEX` macro packages, such as `epsf.tex` and `index.tex`, or other specialized macro sets.<sup>†</sup> Even if some of the plain macros are actually redefined in `TEXsis`, they are required to still behave as described in *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*.
- When a `TEXsis` macro is similar to a plain `TEX` macro it should, when possible, have a similar name and syntax. Thus `\Footnote` in `TEXsis` is used exactly like `\footnote` in plain `TEX`, and in ruled tables “&” and “\cr” can be used exactly as they are in an `\halign`.
- Macro names will be short and simple, but descriptive. Almost all plain `TEX` macro names are in lower case for ease of typing, so macros with names containing uppercase letters can immediately be recognized as being a part of `TEXsis` (instead of plain `TEX`). As a general rule though we try to use lowercase for frequently used macro names for ease of typing.
- There are two different ways in which arguments may be passed to macros, depending on the length of the argument. Short arguments are simply enclosed in curly brackets, the way `TEX` usually handles macro arguments. For example, the title of a section is created by the `\section` command with,

```
\section{The nonlinear  $\sigma$ -model}
```

Longer amounts of text (many lines), and text which is considered to be in a special environment, is enclosed between commands of the form “`\thing`” and “`\endthing`.” An abstract, for example, is typed as,

```
\abstract
A mechanism for total confinement of quarks, similar to that
of Schwinger, is defined which requires the existence of
Abelian or non-Abelian gauge fields. It is shown how ...
\endabstract
```

This is similar to the `\begin{thing} ... \end{thing}` construction in `LATEX` but is slightly easier to type.\* The reason for preferring this way of delimiting text or arguments is that for very long pieces of material it is much easier to look for something like `\thing` and `\endthing` than it is to count curly brackets.

---

<sup>†</sup> We cannot completely guarantee this because other macro packages might define macros with the same names as used by `TEXsis`, although we have taken several steps to prevent this kind of conflict.

\* And, more importantly, is compatible with plain `TEX`—`\end` signals the end of a document in plain `TEX`, and shouldn't be used for anything else. However, if you really want to type `\begin{thing}` and `\end{thing}` you can do so, and `TEXsis` will understand it to mean `\thing` and `\endthing`.

- The fundamental purpose of `TeXsis` is to typeset printed words and equations on a physical piece of paper. In other “document mark-up” languages, including `SMGL`, `HTML`, and `LATEX`, the primary goal is to create in the computer an abstract representation of a document which is independent of the way the document is printed. It can be useful to treat a document this way, and so we sometimes use similar ideas in `TeXsis`, but this approach can also conflict with the goal of typesetting the document the way an author or editor would choose. Whenever there is such a conflict we will err on the side of “typesetting” rather than on the “abstract representation” of the document.
- The source code defining the macros should be available to the users, so that those who want to see how something is done can do so, and those who want to make their own modifications can do so. The macro definitions should include sufficient comments that (usually) someone with only a little bit of experience with `TeX` can understand what is going on. Also, macros which perform similar functions and work together should be kept in a single file, but separate parts of the whole package should be kept in separate files. When possible these individual files should be usable on their own with plain `TeX`. For example, it is possible to use just the double column macros of `TeXsis` by saying `\input TXSdcol.tex`, and the ruled table macros can be used in plain `TeX` by saying `\input TXSruled.tex`.

## 2. Type Sizes, Type Styles, and Line Spacing

This section describes the  $\TeX$  commands for changing font sizes, typetypes and the spacing between lines. It also describes how you can make footnotes, and a special feature for balancing quotation marks.

### 2.1. Type Sizes and Styles

Plain  $\TeX$  is set up to use 10 pt type, with smaller sizes for superscripts and subscripts.  $\TeX$  expands the available type sizes to include 11, 12, 14, and 16 pt type, and  $\TeX$  makes it easy to change from one size of type to another. Type sizes are selected with the following commands:

<code>\ninepoint</code>	Gives 9 pt type (not illustrated).
<code>\tenpoint</code>	Gives 10 pt type, like this.
<code>\elevenpoint</code>	Gives 11 pt type. (not illustrated).
<code>\twelvepoint</code>	Gives 12 pt type, like this.
<code>\fourteenpoint</code>	Gives 14 pt type, like this.
<code>\sixteenpoint</code>	Gives 16 pt type, like this.
<code>\twentypoint</code>	Gives 20 pt type (not illustrated).
<code>\twentyfourpoint</code>	Gives 24 pt type (not illustrated).

In some implementations of  $\TeX$  there is insufficient room to load all of these fonts, so fonts are loaded only when they are first used, and not all of them can be illustrated here.  $\TeX$  starts out with `\tenpoint`, just like Plain  $\TeX$ , but switches to `\twelvepoint` once you say `\texsis`.

In Plain  $\TeX$  you can switch between Roman, Bold, or Italic typetypes with the commands `\rm`, `\bf`, and `\it`. The same is true with  $\TeX$ . These commands change the style of the type, but not the size. The complete set of commands to change typetypes is:

<code>\rm</code>	Gives Roman type. Available in all sizes.
<code>\it</code>	Gives <i>italic type</i> for emphasis. Available in all sizes.
<code>\sl</code>	Gives <i>slanted type</i> for book titles, etc. Available in all sizes.
<code>\bf</code>	Gives <b>bold face type</b> for emphasis. Available in all sizes.
<code>\tt</code>	Gives <b>typewriter type</b> for listing computer programs, $\TeX$ examples, etc. Available in 10, 11, and 12 pt.
<code>\mib</code>	Gives math italic bold in math mode ( $\$. . \$$ ) for titles. Available in 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 20, and 24 pt base sizes, but the minimum size for subscripts and superscripts is 10 pt.

`\scr` Gives script capital letters (using Ralph Smith’s Formal Script fonts, the `rsfs` fonts, if they are available on your computer). Use `\scr` as you would use `\cal`.

$\TeX$ sis includes the mathematics fonts in all sizes; these are used automatically when you type equations between the math quotes, `$. . .$`. Limited sans-serif fonts are also available using the commands `\tenss` and `\twelvess`.

Two special symbols, `\Tbf` and `\tbf`, are used to produce “Title bold face” and “small title bold face.” The first is used to print the title of a paper and titles of the chapters of a paper, and the second is used to print the titles of sections of a paper. You are free to change the definitions of these control words, but if you do not they default to 14pt boldface for `\Tbf` and 12 pt boldface for `\tbf`.

Math italic bold (`\mib`) is listed with the other fonts but is actually slightly different: it substitutes boldfaced versions of the math italic and math symbol fonts for the normal ones *everywhere* in math mode (`$. . .$`). These fonts are available only with with Computer Modern fonts and only in 10pt and larger sizes; the standard math fonts are used for smaller superscripts. Since `\mib` effectively redefines `$. . .$`, it must be placed before the math material (i.e., outside the math quotes) and the whole formula will be bold. For example,

```
{\tbf\mib Observation of  $Z^0$  to  $\mu^+\mu^-$ }
```

will produce the indicated text in `\tbf` size with a bold formula, provided you have the right fonts. The easiest way to find out is to try it. Since the `\mib` fonts are not available everywhere, they are never loaded or used unless you explicitly ask for them.

Plain  $\TeX$  includes a calligraphic script font known as `\cal`, but the letters in this font are not quite what most physicists are accustomed to using for things like Lagrangian densities or functional measures. Ralph Smith of U.C. San Diego has created a new “formal script” font with much better letters for such purposes, and  $\TeX$ sis supports this font provided that it is available on your computer. To get this new font you simply use `\scr` in place of `\cal`. An example is:

```
$$
{\scr L} = - \del^{\mu} \phi^{\ast} \del_{\mu} \phi + m^2 \phi^2
$$
```

Unfortunately, we don’t know if your computer has the `rsfs` fonts so we won’t try to show you the output from this example. The quickest way to determine whether the fonts are available on your system is to try this example and verify that  $\TeX$  does not complain about the font. If your system does not have the font then you can obtain it from CTAN, or from the  $\TeX$ sis ftp server. (See the front cover of this manual for instructions.)

## 2.2. Interline Spacing

When you use the macros `\tenpoint`, `\twelvepoint`, etc., the style of the type is reset to Roman, as if you'd also typed `\rm`. The baseline skip (the distance between lines) is also set to be suitable for the type size. Several commands are provided that vary the interline spacing, both in the text and in auxiliary material such as tables. These are:

<code>\doublespaced</code>	Makes the baseline skip 1.5 times its normal value. True double spacing looks too wide with typesetting.
<code>\singlespaced</code>	Resets the baseline skip to its normal value.
<code>\TrueDoubleSpacing</code>	Makes the <code>baselineskip</code> twice its normal value. This usually looks too wide for a final document, but it is desirable in a manuscript being submitted to journals such as Physical Review.
<code>\triplespaced</code>	Makes the baseline skip 3 times its normal value. This should only be used for drafts of papers to leave room for notes or corrections.
<code>\widenspacing</code>	Increases the current spacing by a factor of 1.25. With single spacing this is the analog of $1\frac{1}{2}$ spacing on a typewriter. Repeating <code>\widenspacing</code> increases the spacing by 1.25 times whatever it already was; it does not reset the spacing to <code>\singlespaced</code> first.

When `TEXsis` is first started the default is `\singlespaced`, but once it is initialized with the `\texsis` command (or `\preprint` or `\paper`, etc...) the spacing is set to `\doublespaced`.

### 2.3. Footnotes

Even when a paper is double spaced, you may want to have the footnotes single spaced. Also, if the text is in 12 point type you may nevertheless want to have the footnotes in 10 point type. In  $\TeX$ sis you can do this easily using `\Footnote` in place of `\footnote`, as in this example:<sup>†</sup>

```
... as in this example:\Footnote\dag{This is an example of
the use of {\tt\bs Footnote} in \TeXsis.}
```

`\Footnote` also automatically puts the reference mark (in this case the dagger symbol `\dag`) in a superscript.\* The typestyle used for the text of the footnote is controlled by `\FootFont`, which defaults to:

```
\def\FootFont{\tenpoint}
```

If you want to change this you can do so somewhere near the beginning of your document. The spacing between multiple paragraphs in a `\Footnote` (if you are prone to being so verbose) is set to zero, regardless of the `\parskip` in the main part of the document, but you can also change this by adding `\parskip=<amount>` to your new definition of `\FootFont`. If you want a singlespaced footnote in the `\FootFont` typestyle but without putting a reference mark in the text you can use `\Vfootnote` just as you would use `\vfootnote` in Plain  $\TeX$ . And of course if `\Footnote` or `\Vfootnote` cannot do what you need even after changing `\FootFont` then you can always use `\footnote` or `\vfootnote` from Plain  $\TeX$ .<sup>‡</sup>

Sometimes it is desirable to have footnotes numbered consecutively. This is easily done with `\NFootnote`, which keeps a count of the footnotes it has created and uses the numbers for the reference marks. Just as with `\Footnote`, the text is single spaced and printed in the `\FootFont` typestyle.<sup>1</sup> The footnote counter is called `\footnum`, so if you want to start over numbering footnotes (at the beginning of a new chapter, for example), then simply set this back to zero, by saying

```
\footnum=0
```

---

<sup>†</sup> This is an example of the use of `\Footnote` in  $\TeX$ sis.

\* The footnote character is typeset in math mode, as if it were between two  $\$$ 's.

<sup>‡</sup> A technical footnote: With `\footnote` from plain  $\TeX$  the group is closed before the footnote is typeset, so any line spacing you set inside the footnote is lost. You can solve this by putting a `\par` or `\vskip 0pt` at the end of your footnote, but then the final strut is put on a separate line. Getting footnotes to work just right is tricky business, which is why we wrote `\Footnote`.

<sup>1</sup> This is an example of a numbered footnote, which was created by saying "...printed in the `{\tt\bs FootFont}` typestyle.\NFootnote{This is an example ... }"

## 2.4. Automatic Quote Balancing

One of the differences between typing and typesetting is the way in which quote marks are handled. On a typewriter you would simply use the non-oriented double-quote mark (") both to begin and end the quoted material. In typesetting, however, quoted text begins with a left-quote mark (“) and ends with a right-quote mark (”). To produce these in T<sub>E</sub>X you have to type two single-quote marks, either ‘ ‘ or ’ ’. This is not very difficult to do, but unless you have an editing program which does it for you, it is easy to forget and use the double-quote marks instead. With T<sub>E</sub>Xsis that’s okay. If you say

```
\quoteon
```

then the next time a double-quote mark comes along it will be translated into a left-quote mark. The double-quote mark after that will become a right-quote mark, and so on, so that material enclosed in double-quote marks will be typeset correctly. All you have to do is remember to use the double-quote marks in pairs.

In some special cases you may not want T<sub>E</sub>Xsis to be so smart about double-quotes. You can turn this feature off by saying

```
\quoteoff
```

The default though, once you have said `\texsis`, is `\quoteon`.

### 3. Equations

Plain  $\text{\TeX}$  was designed to make it easy to typeset equations and mathematical formulae.  $\text{\TeX}$ sis provides additional features that make the job even easier. Among these are the automatic numbering of equations (with the ability to refer to numbered equations by symbolic labels), automatic sizing of parentheses, and a collection of special symbols which are often used by physicists.

#### 3.1. Equation Numbering

In Plain  $\text{\TeX}$  equation numbers are added to displayed equations with the `\eqno` command, as described in Chapter 19 of *The  $\text{\TeX}$ book*. For example, typing

```
$$ E=mc^2. \eqno (47) $$
```

will produce

$$E = mc^2 \tag{47}$$

With  $\text{\TeX}$ sis the procedure for getting automatically numbered equations is similar, except that you use `\EQN` instead of `\eqno`, and what follows this (up to the “`$$`”) is not used as the number of the equation, but as an internal *label* for the equation. For example, if you had already used `\EQN` to create three numbered equations, then typing

```
$$ \vec F = -\{G_N Mm \over r^2\} \hat r
   \EQN Newton $$
```

would produce

$$\vec{F} = -\frac{G_N M m}{r^2} \hat{r} \tag{3.4}$$

$\text{\TeX}$ sis automatically assigns the next available equation number to the equation and prints this number on the right, in parentheses. The equations that follow the one above would be numbered 4.5, 4.6, and so on.

The purpose of the “label” after the `\EQN` is to let you refer to the equation in the text without knowing the equation number that has been assigned to it. For example, to refer to Eq. (3.4) above, which has the label “Newton”, you might type

```
The dependence of the force on the inverse square of the distance
can be seen in \Eq{Newton}.
```

This would be printed as:

```
The dependence of the force on the inverse square of the distance can be seen in
Eq. (3.4).
```

The control sequence `\Eq{<label>}` gives the same result as typing “Eq.  $\sim$  (*nn*)”, where *nn* is the appropriate equation number for the given label. Two similar control words allow you to refer to a range of equations, or to refer to an equation simply by number, without the preceding “Eq.  $\sim$ .” Typing `\Eqs{<label>}` produces “Eqs. (*nn*)”, while `\Ep{<label>}` gives just the equation number associated with the label, enclosed in parentheses. Thus typing

The class of metrics defined by \Eqs{cond-1} through \Ep{cond-5} can all be shown to satisfy inequality \Ep{triangle}, as well as the condition in \Eq{Killing}.

would produce output something like

The class of metrics defined by Eqs. (14) through (19) can all be shown to satisfy inequality (23), as well as the condition in Eq. (7).

Almost any sequence of characters can be used as a “label” for an equation. This includes letters, numbers, and punctuation marks, but it is best to avoid T<sub>E</sub>X’s special characters, such as \, &, }, {, \$, \_, and ^. Spaces may be included but will be ignored, and there is a difference between uppercase and lowercase letters. Also, the semicolon (;) is reserved for a special purpose, which is described below.

You may want to give equations “names,” as in the example called “Newton” above, or you can give the equations labels that are numbers. This is the best thing to do if the equations in the original manuscript already have numbers, but if you do this then you should be sure to remember that the internal label and the number which is printed (the “external” number) are not necessarily the same. If the equation *labeled* “15” is the fifteenth equation in the document then it will also be equation number 15, but if you move the equation around in the file so that it is the sixth equation in the document it will be printed as equation 6, even though it has the label “15”.

If you have a heavily edited document and the arrangement of the numbers and labels gets confusing there is a useful aid to help straighten things out. If you say

```
\eqnotracetrue
```

then the equation numbers will be printed as usual, but with the label appearing next to it in the right margin in square brackets. For example, the equation

```
$$
(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi(x) = 0
\EQN Dirac $$
```

when printed with \eqnotracetrue would appear as:

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi(x) = 0 \quad (3.5) \quad [\text{"Dirac"}]$$

Since the label appears in the margin the spacing of your document remains exactly the same. Obviously you would not print the final copy of the document this way, but it can be very useful for editing. You can turn off this equation tracing feature anytime by saying \eqnotracefalse. If you say \draft at the beginning of your document then the equation tracing will be turned on automatically (along with some other useful features).

Sometimes when several equations are closely related you will want to give the whole set the same equation number. To distinguish separate formulae in such a group you then generally add a letter to the number. You might, for example, have the equation

$$J^2|j, m\rangle = j(j+1)|j, m\rangle \quad (3.6a)$$

and then a short while later you might have the related equation

$$J_z|j, m\rangle = m|j, m\rangle \quad (3.6b)$$

These may be referred to together as Eqs. (3.6) or may be referred to separately as Eqs. (3.6a) and (3.6b). To get an equation number with a letter in it you still use `\EQN`, but you add the appropriate letter to the end of the label, separated from the label by a semicolon. The equations above were created by typing:

```
$$
J^2\ket{j,m} = j(j+1) \ket{j,m} \EQN eigen;a
$$
```

and

```
$$
J_z\ket{j,m} = m \ket{j,m} \EQN eigen;b
$$
```

The semicolon is not printed — it is just used to separate the letter from the label. If the letter is “a” then the next available equation number is used, as usual, but if the letter is anything else then the equation number is not incremented and instead the number from the previous equation is used. You can use any sequence of letters you like, although it is usually best to use “a,b,c...” for consecutive equations.

To refer to equations that have both numbers and letters you can either use the letter to pick out a specific equation, or simply leave out the letter and use the label to refer to the whole set together. You can use either `\Eq` or `\Eqs` to do this. For example, the sentence after Eq. (3.6b) above was created by typing

```
These may be referred to together as \Eqs{eigen}
or may be referred to separately as
\Eqs{eigen;a} and \Ep{eigen;b}.
```

You will eventually encounter an equation that is so long that it has to be broken up into several lines, or you will want to print several equations together, lined up by their “=” signs. In plain `TeX` you would use `\eqalign` to display these kinds of equations, or `\eqalignno` to display them with equation numbers. With `TeXsis` you should use `\EQNalign` in place of `\eqalign` or `\eqalignno` to get automatically assigned equation numbers in aligned equations. As in plain `TeX`, the alignment of the equations is controlled by `&` and `\cr`. An equation number is assigned to a particular line by putting `\EQN` followed by a label on that line, before the `\cr`. The label is everything from the `\EQN` up to the `\cr`. For example,

```
$$
\EQNalign{
{dp \over dt} &= - {\partial H \over \partial q}
\EQN Hamilton-1 \cr
{dq \over dt} &= {\partial H \over \partial p}
\EQN Hamilton-2 \cr}
$$
```

produces the two aligned and numbered equations

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} \quad (3.7)$$

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \quad (3.8)$$

`\EQNalign` can be used both for typing multi-part equations or for splitting an equation which is too long to fit on a single line. However, when splitting a single long equation into several lines it may actually be better to use `$$\eqalign{(formula)}` followed by `\EQN<label>$$`. For example, in

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{NC} = & \frac{-g}{2 \cos \theta_W} \sum_i \bar{\psi}_i [(t_{3,i} - 2Q_i \sin^2 \theta_W) \gamma_\mu - t_{3,i} \gamma_\mu \gamma_5] \psi_i Z^\mu \\ & - e \sum_i Q_i \bar{\psi}_i \gamma_\mu \psi_i A^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (3.9)$$

the equation number is centered between the two lines of the equation, which looks better. This equation was produced using `\eqalign` by typing:

```

$$
\eqalign{
{\cal L}_{NC} &= \frac{-g}{2 \cos \theta_W} \sum_i
\bar{\psi}_i [ (t_{3,i} - 2Q_i \sin^2 \theta_W) \gamma_\mu
- t_{3,i} \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 ] \psi_i Z^\mu \cr
&\quad - e \sum_i Q_i \bar{\psi}_i \gamma_\mu \psi_i A^\mu \cr
\EQN{NC}
}
$$

```

Closely related equations can be displayed together with the same equation number by following the label with a semicolon and a letter, as already described above. For example, the set of equations,

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{D} = 4\pi\rho \quad (3.10a)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad (3.10b)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (3.10c)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{J} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} \quad (3.10d)$$

is produced by typing:

```

$$
\EQNalign{
\nabla \cdot \vec{D} &= 4 \pi \rho \EQN EM;a \cr
\nabla \times \vec{E} &=
- \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}
\EQN EM;b \cr
\nabla \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \EQN EM;c \cr
\nabla \times \vec{H} &= \frac{4 \pi}{c} \vec{J}
+ \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}
\EQN EM;d \cr
}
$$

```

Note that the alignment of the equations is controlled by `&` and `\cr`, not by the arrangement used when the equation was typed into the manuscript file. Still, it is recommended that you arrange long sets of equations like these in some sort of clear pattern when you type them. This will both reduce errors when the equation is typed and make it easier for you to read the file when you are looking at it later. Remember,  $\TeX$  ignores all spaces and tabs when it reads material for equations or displayed equations.

`\EQNdoublealign` is similar to `\EQNalign` but makes equations with two alignment tabs. For example,

```


$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_i^2 &= 1 & \text{\EQN Pauli;a} \\ \sigma_i\sigma_j + \sigma_j\sigma_i &= 0 & \text{\EQN Pauli;b} \\ \sigma_i\sigma_j &= i\sigma_k & \text{\EQN Pauli;c} \end{aligned}$$


```

produces

$$\sigma_i^2 = 1 \tag{3.11a}$$

$$\sigma_i\sigma_j + \sigma_j\sigma_i = 0 \quad (i \neq j) \tag{3.11b}$$

$$\sigma_i\sigma_j = i\sigma_k \quad (i, j, k \text{ cyclic}) \tag{3.11c}$$

with both the equal signs and the parentheses aligned. The second `&` is required in the first line, because without it the `\EQN` would have aligned the equation number with the parentheses enclosing  $i \neq j$ .

Plain  $\TeX$  also lets you display formulae on several lines without any alignment by using `\displaylines`. With  $\TeX$ sis you can use the similar control sequence `\EQNdisplaylines` to get an automatically assigned equation number for any line in such a display. The pattern is the same as in `\displaylines`, but you simply insert `\EQN<label>` in front of the `\cr` on the line you want numbered. `\EQNdisplaylines` produces less space between the equations than would result from typing them separately, and generally looks better for closely related equations.

All of the equation alignment macros are special cases of the plain  $\TeX$  macro `\halign`. Therefore, if necessary, the vertical spacing can be adjusted by inserting

```
\noalign\vskip<dimen>
```

where `<dimen>` can be either a positive or a negative dimension.

In a long document there are several different ways to number the equations. You could just start at “1” and count up for each new equation, but sometimes it is better to number the equations consecutively within each chapter or section of a document. In  $\TeX$ sis the default form for an equation number is *cc.ss.nn* where *cc* stands for the chapter number, *ss* is the section number, and *nn* is the equation number within that section. Whenever you move to a new section or chapter (using `\section` or `\chapter`, as described in Section 6.3) the number *ss* or *cc* is incremented by one and the number *nn* is reset to one. If you are not



- `\subrightarrow{<text>}` puts the text under a right arrow of the appropriate length. Thus

```
$$ f(x) \subrightarrow{x \to 0} f(0) $$
```

gives

$$f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0} f(0)$$

- `\buildchar{<#1>}{<#2>}{<#3>}` gives character #1 with #2 above it and #3 below it, allowing the construction of a variety of special symbols. `\overcirc` is a special case of this which puts a small circle above a character, as in  $\overset{\circ}{R}$ . This is often used in general relativity and related fields.
- `\vbigl{<delim>}{<size>}` and `\vbigl{<delim>}{<size>}` produce very (or variably) big delimiters, generalizing the Plain TeX macros `\bigl`, `\Bigl`, etc. They produce, respectively, the left and right delimiters `<delim>` with height `<size>`, which can be given in pt., cm., in., or any other valid units. Any valid delimiter may be used, but you must be careful if you use parentheses and automatic parenthesis sizing is also in effect (Section 3.3), because these conflict. You must either turn off automatic parenthesis sizing (with `\offparens`) or use `\lparen` or `\rparen` in place of ‘(’ and ‘)’.
- `\Leftcases{<size>}` and `\Rightcases{<size>}` give left and right braces of size `<size>` smashed to zero height; these can be used in place of the `\cases` of Plain TeX when it is desired to put an equation number on each line. For example,

```
$$\EQNalign{
m_e    &=  .511~\MeV \EQN lep;a \cr
m_\mu  &=  105~\MeV
        \quad \Rightcases{50pt} \quad {\rm Leptons}
        \EQN lep;b \cr
m_\tau &= 1784~\MeV \EQN lep;c \cr}
$$
```

gives

$$\left. \begin{aligned} m_e &= .511 \text{ MeV} \\ m_\mu &= 105 \text{ MeV} \\ m_\tau &= 1784 \text{ MeV} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{Leptons}$$

Note that `\Leftcases` and `\Rightcases` do not provide automatic spacing, which must be adjusted by the user as in the previous example. There seems to be no simple way to obtain automatic spacing and to allow an equation number on each line.

- `\sterling` produces the British currency mark  $\mathcal{L}$ .
- The astronomical symbols for the sun and the earth are `\sun` and `\earth`. For example, `$M_\sun$` and `$M_\earth$` give  $M_\odot$  and  $M_\oplus$ . You can also use them outside of math mode.
- `\dimensions{<units>}{<power>}` is used for dimensional analysis. The units appear in square brackets, raised to the given power. For example to produce  $[\text{mass}]^{-3}$  you would type `\dimensions{mass}{-3}`.

- `\slashchar{⟨letter⟩}` puts a slash through a character, the notation for the contraction of a vector with Dirac  $\gamma$  matrices in Feynman graphs. For example

```


$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}[i\partial - eA - m]\psi$$


```

gives

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}[i\partial - eA - m]\psi.$$

The results produced by `\slashchar` are not as good as one would like. You can do somewhat better by adjusting the kerning of the / by hand for each character. For example,

```
\def\Aslash{A\kern -0.47em/}
```

produces “ $\mathcal{A}$ ”. But note that the angle of the slash is still not quite what one would like for a slashed “A.” To really get good looking slashed characters someone will have to create a new slashed character math font using MetaFont. Meanwhile you can get by with `\slashchar` or define your own using kerning.

Abbreviations for units are normally set in Roman type even when used in formulas. Special function (e.g., sine, cosine and logarithm) or operator names are also set in Roman type, and `\TeXsis` adds some new names to go with the old standards.

- `\Tr` and `\tr` give “Tr” and “tr” respectively for the trace of an operator or of a matrix. `\diag` is used to denote a diagonal matrix, as in  $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$ .
- `\real` and `\imag` give the symbols Re and Im for the real and imaginary parts of an expression; the spacing is like that for any other function or operator.
- `\eV`, `\keV`, `\MeV`, `\GeV`, and `\TeV` give the abbreviations for energy units eV, keV, MeV, GeV, and TeV respectively.
- `\mb`, `\mub`, `\nb`, `\pb`, and `\fb` give the abbreviations for cross section units mb,  $\mu\text{b}$ , nb, pb, and fb respectively, while `\cmsec` gives  $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ , the standard units for luminosity in colliding beam accelerators.
- `\units{⟨name⟩}` is a generic macro to print in Roman type the name of any units not covered by the macros above. For example, you can say `\units{furlongs}` and `\units{fortnights}` if you are using that particular system of units.

Note that all of the abbreviations for units above are defined without any spacing; to produce

$$\mathcal{L} = 10^{33} \text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}, \quad p_{\perp} = 8.3 \text{GeV}$$

you should type

```


$$\mathcal{L} = 10^{33}\,\,\text{cmsec}, \quad p_{\perp} = 8.3\,\,\text{GeV}$$


```

with a `\,` to make a thin space between the number and the units.

### 3.3. Automatic Parentheses Sizing

Plain  $\TeX$  provides automatic adjustment of the sizes of parentheses and other delimiters when you use `\left` and `\right`, as in

```
$$ \left( \langle \text{math material} \rangle \right) $$
```

$\TeX$ sis provides similar automatic sizing of parentheses and square brackets in displayed equations without the need of typing `\left` and `\right`. You must still use `\left` and `\right` for all other delimiters, and they can be used for parentheses and square brackets if desired. This feature is turned on and off with `\autoparens` and `\offparens` respectively; the default, once you say `\texsis`, is `\autoparens`. Thus, for example,

```
\autoparens
$$
( a \over b )
$$
```

produces

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

whereas

```
\offparens
$$
( a \over b )
$$
```

produces

$$\frac{(a}{b)}$$

which is not what one normally desires.

The automatic sizing of parentheses works by making `)`, `(`, `]`, and `[` active characters in displayed equations and defining them to be macros which use `\left` and `\right` to size the parentheses. While this normally works properly and simplifies the typing of equations, it will fail if the `\left` and `\right` operators are not properly balanced, such as when a long equation is split between two or more lines with `\eqalign` or `\EQNalign`. Almost all such problems can be solved by using the control sequences `\lparen`, `\rparen`, `\lbrack`, and `\rbrack`, which are taken from Plain  $\TeX$  and which give just the standard parenthesis and bracket characters. For example,

$$F = \left[ \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) + \left(\frac{c}{d}\right) + \left(\frac{e}{f}\right) + \left(\frac{g}{h}\right) \right]$$

can be produced with

```
$$
\EQNalign{
F &= \Biggl\lbrack ( a \over b ) + ( c \over d ) \cr
&\quad + ( e \over f ) + ( g \over h ) \Biggr\rbrack \cr}
$$
```

Note that in this example the parentheses are balanced on one line and so can be sized automatically, while the brackets span two lines and so must be sized “by hand.” The `\vbig` macro described in the next section provides additional flexibility for sizing.

If all else fails, you can use `\offparens` to turn off the automatic sizing of parentheses and put in `\left` and `\right` or explicit sizes yourself. In any case, you must put `\left` and `\right`, if needed, in in-line equations (math expressions which are not displayed equations), because. `\autoparens` only applies to displayed equations, not in-line math text.<sup>†</sup>

---

<sup>†</sup> Previous versions of T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is used the control sequence `\onparens` to provide automatic parentheses sizing in *all* math-mode expressions. While you can still use this, we do not encourage it since it may cause problems with other uses of these characters.

## 4. References and Citations

$\TeX$ sis includes instructions for making citations to the literature in the text of a document. References are processed in the standard format used by many American physics journals: they are automatically assigned consecutive numbers as they appear in the text and are listed in numerical order at the end of the document. In the text a citation appears as a superscript number corresponding to the reference cited, though other methods of citation are possible (see Section 4.4). When each reference is defined it is given a label, which is associated with the number assigned to the reference. Subsequent citations to the same reference are made using this label, so there is no need to know the particular number assigned to the reference. Indeed, the number may change as the document goes through editing and revision, but the references will still automatically be in the correct order.

### 4.1. Entering References

$\TeX$ sis is flexible enough that the text of the references may be entered in two different ways, either all references at once at the beginning of the document or each one individually at the point in the text where the work is first cited. In either case,  $\TeX$ sis stores the text of all of the references in numerical order until it is asked to print the list at the end of the document, by saying `\ListReferences`.

To make a citation to a new reference and to enter the text of the reference, use the command `\reference{<label>}`, where `<label>` is the label to be used to refer to this reference. This is followed by the text of the reference, which is terminated by `\endreference`. An example is:

```
To this end we will follow Feynman\reference{Feynman, 1949}
R.P.~Feynman, Phys.\ Rev.\ \vol{76}, 749 (1949)
\endreference
in developing the propagator approach.
```

This would appear in the text of the document as,

To this end we will follow Feynman<sup>5</sup> in developing the propagator approach.

and the text of the reference would be saved until the list of references is printed at the end of the document. If you look at the end of this manual you will see it.

There are several things to take note of in the example above. Most importantly, there is no space between the word in the text where the citation is made (“Feynman”) and the `\reference`. This is so the superscript reference number will appear in the text right after the word to which the citation is attached, with no intervening space. Note also in the reference text the tie (`~`) between the initials and the name, the control spaces (`\` ) after the abbreviations, and the use of the `\vol` macro for the volume number; `\vol{<number>}` prints the volume `<number>` with an underscore below it. (This is easier to read than boldfaced volume numbers on small laser printers, but if you prefer something else you can simply redefine the `\vol` macro). Similarly, `\booktitle{<title>}` will print the title of a book, in slanted type. Finally, note that there is no punctuation at the end of the reference text. This is because  $\TeX$ sis automatically supplies the appropriate punctuation

when it prints the list of references. Normally this will simply be a period (`.`), but it is possible to have multiple references assigned to the same reference number, in which case the references are separated by semi-colons, with the last reference terminated by a period. How to do this is described below.

Since typing the text of a journal citation is somewhat complicated, the `\journal` macro was created to make things a little easier. The format is

```
\journal <journal name>;<volume>,<page number>(<year>)
```

This constructs the journal citation for you, with periods automatically replaced by “`\_`” in abbreviations and the volume number underlined for you by `\vol`. It is important that the field separators (the semi-colon, the comma and the parentheses), all be present and in the right order or  $\TeX$  will look as far forward as it takes to find the next one it wants. There should be no extra spaces between the arguments.

Besides making it a little easier to type a citation to a journal article, using `\journal` lets you switch from the American form of citation to the European form very easily. In the American form the page number follows the volume, followed by the year in parentheses. In the European form the year follows the volume number and the the page number comes after that. Normally  $\TeX$ sis uses the American form, but you can change to the European form simply by saying

```
\Eurostyletrue
```

The arguments to `\journal` are always in the American order, no matter how they are eventually printed.

A number of abbreviations which are commonly used in references and which are usually set in italics are defined as simple control words. Thus saying `\cf` produces “*cf.*”, saying `\etal` produces “*et al.*”, saying `\ie` produces “*i.e.*”, and saying `\ibid` produces “*ibid.*”

Sometimes you want to print the title of a journal article, and sometimes you don’t. An easy way to control this is to enter the title using `\ArticleTitle`, as in

```
\reference{Schwinger, 1951}
J.~Schwinger,
\ArticleTitle{On Gauge Invariance and Vacuum Polarization}
\journal Phys. Rev.;82,664(1951)
\endreference
```

Then if you say `\ShowArticleTitletrue`, the title will be printed (in slanted type, with a trailing comma), but with `\ShowArticleTitlefalse` (the default) it will not.

To enter several references with the same reference number simply begin the next `\reference` immediately after the previous `\endreference`, and begin the labels of all but the first reference with an asterisk “`*`”, as in the following example:

```
The vacuum polarization term can be regularized
by introducing a cut-off at high
frequencies.\reference{Pauli and Villars, 1949}
W.~Pauli and F.~Villars, \journal Rev. Mod. Phys.;21,434(1949)
```

```

\endreference
\reference{*Schwinger, 1948}
J.~Schwinger, \journal Phys. Rev.;74,1439(1948)
\endreference

```

This produces the single citation

The vacuum polarization term can be regularized by introducing a cut-off at high frequencies.<sup>6</sup>

The “\*” at the beginning of the second label tells T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>S</sub>is not to assign a new reference number to this reference, but instead just to add it to the text of the previous one. Of course you could type the text of both references between one `\reference` and `\endreference`. An advantage to following the example above is that the second reference can be given a reference number of its own simply by deleting the “\*” at the beginning of the label. Similarly, two references with different reference numbers can be lumped together into one citation by inserting a “\*” in front of the label of the second reference. Another advantage to keeping the references separate is that it is easy to move references around, either within a document that is being revised or between documents. It is therefore recommended that each reference be entered separately, although this is obviously not required.

Instead of putting the `\reference ... \endreference` in the text it may be more convenient to type them all together, especially if they already appear that way in the manuscript. This can be done without producing any unwanted printed numbers by using

```

\referencelist
\reference{1} text 1... \endreference
\reference{2} text 2... \endreference
...
\reference{last} last text... \endreference
\endreferencelist

```

The `\referencelist` must appear at the beginning of the document, so that the reference labels are defined before they are used. This is best put into a separate file which is `\input` by the master file. Of course the list of references is not printed until the end of the document, when `\ListReferences` is called.

## 4.2. Citations to Defined References

All subsequent citations to a previously defined reference are made using its label. If a `\referencelist` is used, then all citations appearing in the text will be made in this way, since then the initial reference definitions print nothing. The construction `\cite{<label>}` prints the reference number corresponding to the label as a superscript. For example,

A good discussion of this is given by Doob<sup>\cite{Doob}</sup> in section~7.  
produces

A good discussion of this is given by Doob<sup>3</sup> in section 7.

since Michael Doob’s book *A Gentle Introduction to T<sub>E</sub>X* is in fact Ref. 3 of this document and has the label “Doob.” If several `\cite`’s are given in succession then the corresponding numbers are printed separated by commas. Unlike `\reference`, which defines the reference numbers, `\cite` does not know if references are sequential, so it cannot replace a sequence of numbers by a range. To avoid a long sequence of reference numbers use instead `\citerange{<first label>}{<last label>}` to print the numbers corresponding to the first and last labels as a range.

The construction `\Ref{<label>}` produces “Ref. *nn*” in the text, with *nn* the number of the reference corresponding to the label. For example, the “Ref. 3” in the previous paragraph was typed into the manuscript file as `\Ref{Doob}`. `\Ref` is simply shorthand for `Ref.` `\use{Ref.<label>}`, and you can change what is printed simply by changing the definition of `\Ref`. For example, if you said

```
\def\Ref#1{reference~\use{Ref.#1}}
```

then `\Ref{Doob}` would produce “reference 3” instead. See Section 5 for more on how to use `\use`.

## 4.3. Listing the References

After the text of the document is complete a printed list of the references can be obtained by saying

```
\ListReferences
```

This prints the numbers at the left hand edge of the page with the text indented by `\refindent`, which is chosen so that the equation numbers line up, and it puts a `\refskip` (initially equal to a `\smallskip`) between references. The reference format can be changed by redefining the command `\refFormat`, which is executed just before the references are printed and which initially is simply `\relax`. For example, to have the reference list printed with a ragged right margin, with no vertical skip in between references, one could say

```
\def\refFormat{% formatting for the list of references
  \raggedright           % ragged right margin
  \refindent=2cm         % instead of ‘‘natural’’ value
  \let\refskip=\bigskip  % more space between entries
}
\ListReferences          % now do it
```

No heading is printed for the reference list — you have to do this yourself in whatever format is appropriate. Often you will want to use `\nosehead` (or perhaps `\beginsection` from Plain  $\TeX$ ), but sometime you may want to use `\chapter` or `\section` instead. The choice is up to you.

When you have several references under the same number, the \*’d references described earlier, they will each normally be printed begining on a new line. You can supress the extra line ends and run the reference text together by saying `\refbreaksfalse`. To go back to breaking lines between multiple citations you should say `\refbreakstrue`.

Once the list of references has been printed, everything is reset so that you can start over collecting new references. This is useful if you want to print the references at the end of each chapter of a book, or at the end of each paper in a conference proceedings.

#### 4.4. Citation Styles

Superscript reference numbers are the simplest form of citation, and the default in  $\TeX$ sis, but there are also several other popular conventions for making citations. One common one is to display the reference number enclosed in squaqr brackets rather than as a subscript. Another is to display a “citation key,” such as the first author’s last name and the year, either in brackets or parentheses.  $\TeX$ sis is flexible and allows you to use any of these citation styles.

To cause the reference numbers to appear within brackets simply say `\CiteByNumber`. (To go back to superscript reference numbers say `\CiteBySuperscript`.) It would be nice if that is all you had to do to switch from one citation style to another, but there is one complication. When a citation appears at the end of a sentence it looks best if the punctuation comes before a superscript, but after a reference number in brackets. Getting this right is more than a mere macro can easily do, so if you switch from one style to the other you will have to make appropriate corrections to your document for citations that appear at the end of sentences.

Another citation style which was more popular in journals many years ago is to cite the work in the text using a superscript number, but to put the text of the reference at the bottom of the page as a footnote rather than at the end of the paper or chapter as an “endnote.” This is achieved by saying `\CiteByFootnote`. This can be useful for a draft of a paper even if you will eventually use a different citation style, because it makes it easier to check the reference text as you proofread the paper. By the same reasoning it’s actually a nice citation style for scientific books and papers in general, because the reference text is right there. If the author thinks it is important enough to his/her argument to cite another work then it is probably imporant for the reader to see the reference text at that point. We hope that this citation style gets used more than it has of late, though with the increased use hypertext it probably won’t. (Why bother to put the reference text on the same page as the citation when you can click on the reference number and jump right to the appropriate point in the list of references?)

As you might expect, if you use `\CiteByFootnote` then no list of references is produced should you also say `\ListReferences`. After all, the text of the references has already appeared so there are actually no references to list.

It is probably not a good idea to mix `\CiteByFootnote` and numbered footnotes using `\Nfootnote`, since they are completely separate and keep track of their footnote numbers independently.

Earlier versions of `TEXsis` had only two citation styles, and for backward compatibility they are still supported. Saying `\superrefsfalse` is the same as saying `\CiteByNumber`, while `\superrefstrue` is the same as `\CiteBySuperscript`. The older forms are supported so that you can print old documents that use them, but you should avoid including them in new documents since they might disappear some day.

#### 4.5. Using `BIBTEX`

`BIBTEX` is a system for managing and using bibliographic databases. If you find you are always citing the same sources again and again in your papers, or if you have access to a bibliographic database someone else has already compiled (or which you yourself have compiled), then `BIBTEX` can make it much easier for you to make your list of references. All you need to do is specify the name of the database files to be searched (there can be several), and use the `\cite` command to refer to a paper listed in the database. Papers in the databases are indexed by a “citation key,” and all you have to do is use that key as the label in the `\cite` command. The first time you run your document through `TEXsis` these references will be undefined, but if you then run the `BIBTEX` program it will extract the proper references from the databases, so that they will be properly defined (and formatted) the next time you process your document.

Some extra work is needed to get started using `BIBTEX`. First, since `BIBTEX` is a separate program, you need to get that program—it isn’t included with `TEXsis`. You can get the standard distribution of `BIBTEX` from CTAN, in the directory `bibliography/bibtex`. If you are not familiar with how to build and install `TEX` and related programs then you will need to get your system administrator or `TEX` guru to install it for you. You also need to have the “reference style” file for `TEXsis`. This file, called `texsis.bst`, tells `BIBTEX` how to write out references in the proper `TEXsis` format. This file now comes with the standard `TEXsis` distribution, but if you don’t have it you can easily get it from the `TEXsis` ftp site, or from CTAN, in the directory `texsis/bibtex`.

Once `BIBTEX` and `texsis.bst` are installed it is fairly easy to use them. First you have to add to your manuscript files a couple of instructions that tell `BIBTEX` which bibliography database files to use and how to format the references. To specify the database files, use `\ReferenceFiles`, as in

```
\ReferenceFiles{unix,internet,mylist}
```

In this case, `BIBTEX` will search for the references in the files `unix.bib`, `internet.bib`, and `mylist.bib`. (Examples of these files are also included in the `texsis/bibtex` directory on the ftp servers.) Next, you tell `BIBTEX` to use a “style” for creating references in a form that `TEXsis` can understand, with

```
\ReferenceStyle{texsis}
```

This tells `BIBTEX` to use the `texsis.bst` style file, but you must leave off the `.bst` extension.

Once you have invoked `\ReferenceFiles` and `\ReferenceStyle` you can cite your references using `\cite`, as usual. The “label” you use for `\cite` should be the “citation key” used in the bibliography database. You can also use `\nocite` to create a citation entry without putting a citation mark (superscript number or number in brackets) in the output. Finally, to print the list of references, simply say `\ListReferences`, as usual. This just lists the references—it’s up to you to provide any heading or extra space before the list.

Once you have set up your document this way, the only additional thing you have to do is run the `BIBTEX` program. Before you do, run your manuscript file through `TEXsis` once. It will complain about undefined references, but it will also produce a list of the papers you cited, in order, in the `.aux` file. Then run `BIBTEX`, like so:

```
bibtex myjob
```

This uses the information in the `.aux` file and extracts the references, in the proper order and with the proper `TEXsis` `\reference` commands, into the file `myjob.bbl` (the extension means “bibliography list”). Finally, run `TEXsis` again. This time, since the `.bbl` file exists, it is read in as a `\referencelist` when the `\ReferenceFiles` command is executed. Now all of your citations will be properly defined, with no complaints. Just remember to run the `BIBTEX` program again if you add or delete citations or change their order.

## 5. Labels and Tags

One of the most useful features of T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is is that it automatically numbers things like equations and references and lets you refer to these things by means of symbolic names or “labels.” This section explains how to get the most use out of this labeling mechanism.

### 5.1. Tagging

Here is a rough outline of how labeling or “tagging” works. T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is keeps track of numbers for equations, figures, tables, and other useful things in counters. Whenever you create a new equation, figure, table or reference the appropriate counter is incremented. At the same time, a new macro instruction is defined, with the label incorporated into the name, and the definition of this macro is simply the (new) value of the counter. Thus if you create a displayed equation and label it “Newton” then a macro called “\Eq.Newton” is created and it is automatically defined to be whatever the next number is for the equation.

The actual mechanism is somewhat more subtle. Normally you can only use letters in macro names, but T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is uses `\csname . . . \endcsname` to allow numbers and punctuation to be used in labels. Also, an extra @ is added at the beginning and end of each macro name. If this were not done then, for example, using “end” as a label (using `\tag`) could redefine `\end`, and you would not be able to get out of T<sub>E</sub>X! So the macro containing the equation number for the equation named “Newton” actually ends up being named “\@Eq.Newton@”.

Once a label macro is defined you can use it to refer to the thing it labels, and it will yield the proper number. In the case of the equation called “Newton,” saying `\Eq{Newton}` is really saying `Eq.~(\@Eq.Newton@)`. (Again, since punctuation is not allowed in names, T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is actually uses `\csname . . . \endcsname` in the definition.) References, equations, figures, tables, etc., all produce their numbers in this way.

Each of the T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is macros which uses labels attaches to the label a unique prefix identifying the kind of object labeled. These objects and the corresponding prefixes are shown in Table 5.1. Because of these prefixes the same label can be used for different kinds of objects. For example, the name “Witten” can be used as a label for an equation and as a reference, since their internal labels are `Eq.Witten` and `Ref.Witten`, respectively (and in reality the names are bracketed by @ characters). The prefixes are automatically inserted by T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>is macros like `\Eq` and `\cite`.

At the most primitive level you can always associate a label with some value by saying `\tag{<label>}{<value>}`. You can then reference the value, whatever it is, by its name using the command `\use{<label>}`. In this case if there is to be a prefix in the label you must put it in explicitly. Thus to say just the number of the equation labeled “Newton” without any parentheses or anything you would say `\use{Eq.Newton}`. To get the number of the reference labeled “Knuth” you would say `\use{Ref.Knuth}`, which produces “1” because “Knuth” is the label of the first document we referenced in this manual and “Ref” is the prefix used for references.

One particularly useful way to use `\tag` and `\use` is to refer to a topic which is discussed on some other page in the document. On the page you want to reference you could define

**Table 5.1:** Prefixes for labels and the corresponding counters for various objects.

Entity	Tag Prefix	Counter
Corollary	Cor.	<code>\corollarynum</code>
Definition	Df.	<code>\definitionnum</code>
Equation	Eq.	<code>\eqnum</code>
Figure	Fg.	<code>\fignum</code>
Lemma	Lem.	<code>\lemmanum</code>
Reference	Ref.	<code>\refnum</code>
Table	Tb.	<code>\tabnum</code>
Theorem	Thm.	<code>\theoremnum</code>

the tag “page.cool” to be the page number by saying `\tag{page.cool}{\folio}`. Then somewhere else in the document if you want to refer to the information on that page you could do so with `\use{page.cool}`, as in “This difficulty is discussed in more detail on page `\use{page.cool}`.” Then even if the document is rearranged so that the page numbers change, the page number you referred to will come out correct.

Here is another useful example. Suppose you want to state the number of questions at the beginning of an examination (or similarly, the number of chapters in a book). A count of the questions could be kept in `\Qcount`, but it won’t be set correctly until the end of the job. Even so, when the count is known we can tag it with a name like “NQ” and use it in the text with `\use{NQ}`. The first time this is encountered it will display as an undefined tag and an error message will appear in the log. But at the end of the document we say

```
\tag{NQ}{\Qcount}
```

to assign the final value of `\Qcount` to the tag “NQ”. The next time the job is run saying `\use{NQ}` will be defined as the value from the previous run. Unless you’ve recently changed things (by adding or removing a question) then this will be the correct count.

Knowing about `\use` and the prefixes in Table 5.1 also lets you change how the macros that refer to these objects work. For example, to refer to figure 7.1 in section 7.1 you would normally say `\Fig{Penguin}`. This produces “Fig. 7.1,” but suppose you want it to say the full word “figure” instead of just “Fig.” You can make this change throughout the document simply by changing the definition of `\Fig` to:

```
\def\Fig#1{figure~\use{Fg.#1}}
```

Then “`\Fig{Penguin}`” would produce “figure 7.1.”

Whenever you create any of the objects listed in Table 5.1 a label is automatically created. However, chapters, sections, and subsections are not automatically labeled because their values are not ordinarily changed. If you want to remember the number of a chapter or section of your document to be able to refer to it somewhere else, put `\label{<label>}` in the text of the title of the chapter or section. `\label{<label>}` is

the same as `\tag{<label>}{<counter>}`, where `<counter>` is the current section or chapter number, as appropriate. For example you might have:

```
\section{Supersymmetry and Supergravity \label{sect.SUSY}}
```

To refer to that section later on you would say `\use{sect.SUSY}`. Note that `\label` does not insert any prefix in front of the label, so you must include it explicitly if you want one. We suggest “sect” for sections, “chapt” for chapters, and so forth, but you are free to use whatever you want.

## 5.2. Forward References

If you label an equation or a figure or a section you can refer to the number of that object later in the text, but what if you want to refer to the thing before it has been tagged? Then the label won’t exist yet. This is called making a forward reference. To allow for this `TeX`sis also writes the definition of every label to an auxiliary file, which has a name ending in `.aux`. The label will still be undefined the first time you make the forward reference, but the next time you run the document through `TeX`sis it will automatically read in the auxiliary file at the beginning of the job and define the label. Thus on the second pass the label will already be defined when it is called for. Having to make a second pass may sound like extra work, but when you are editing a document and putting the finishing touches on it you will find you end up making the extra pass without thinking about it. Just don’t delete the `.aux` file between runs.

If you try to reference a label that does not exist you’ll be told so at the end of the run (when you say `\bye`) and another pass will be suggested. Undefined references are also noted in the log file when they occur, and the label itself is inserted into the output text in boldface to make it easier for you to track down the problem. In `\draft` mode the mark “UNDEF” is also put in the right margin to help you find the problem.

## 5.3. Hypertext

(Documentation for Hypertext linking will go here)

## 6. Typesetting Complete Papers

The commands described so far are useful for creating the body of a simple physics paper, but they are not enough to typeset a complete paper. A physics paper generally has a title, one or more authors and their addresses or professional affiliations, and perhaps an abstract. Longer documents may be divided into sections, or even chapters, and there might even be a table of contents or an index. This section describes the commands for creating the basic structural elements of a complete paper: the title material and divisions into chapters, sections, and subsections. It also includes a discussion of more advanced topics, such as how to create a table of contents or an index, and how to control the running headlines at the top of the page. Later, Section 9 discusses more specialized document layouts for conference proceedings or for papers submitted to specific journals, while Section 10 describes the commands for producing letters, memos, referee reports, and similar specialized documents.

It is often convenient to be able to typeset the same document in more than one format. Therefore, all complete papers in T<sub>E</sub>Xsis use the same general structure, and one can select the particular document format to be used by changing only one or two commands at the beginning of the manuscript file. The commands to typeset the title page and to break the paper up into sections are still the same, even if they behave slightly differently according to the particular format selected. For example, if you give the `\paper` command then the title page material will appear at the top of the first page, and the text of the paper will also begin on that page. If you simply change `\paper` to `\preprint` the title page material will appear on a page by itself, with a banner (defined by `\banner`) across the top of the page, and the text will begin on the next page. Using any of the other document formats described in Section 9 will cause the title page material to be formatted slightly differently.

At this point an example may be more instructive than more discussion. Here is how a famous paper<sup>7</sup> would have begun had it been typeset with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis:

```

\textsis
\preprint
\pubdate{July 8, 1957}
\pubcode{hep-cats/yymmnnn}
\titlepage
\title
Theory of Superconductivity
\endtitle
\author
J.~Bardeen
Department of Physics
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801
\endauthor
\and
\author
L.~N.~Cooper
Department of Physics and Astronomy
The Ohio State University
Columbus, OH 43210
\endauthor

```

```

\and
\author
J.~R.~Schrieffer
Department of Theoretical Physics
University of Birmingham
Birmingham, England B15 2TT
\endauthor
\abstract
A theory of superconductivity is presented, based on
the fact that...

\endabstract
\toappear{Physical Review}
\endtitlepage

\section{Introduction}
The main facts which a theory of superconductivity
must explain are...

```

A more complete example paper is given in the file `Example.tex`, which is included in the standard distribution of `TeXsis`. In the rest of this section each of the elements in these examples and several others related to the overall structure of a complete paper will be explained.

## 6.1. Types of Documents

A complete `TeXsis` paper should start with the `\texsis` macro described in Section 1.2. (While this is not required if you also use one of the macros listed below, it does serve to indicate unambiguously that the document is to be typeset with `TeXsis`.) The `\texsis` macro can be followed by a command to specify whether the document should be typeset as a simple paper or conference proceeding, a preprint, a book, etc. This macro will provide sensible defaults for the layout, although additional commands can be given to override them. The following basic document types are included in `TeXsis`:

<code>\paper</code>	Produces a paper with the title and abstract at the top of the first page, such as for submission to a conference proceeding. The text begins on the first page, below the title and abstract.
<code>\preprint</code>	Produces a paper in a preprint format, with the title material by itself on the first page. A <code>\banner</code> is put across the top of the title page, and the text begins on the page following.
<code>\eprint</code>	Produces a paper in a format suitable for submission to the Los Alamos preprint archives (the “e-print bulletin boards,” such as hep-ph, hep-th, hep-lat, or qc-gr).

<code>\Manuscript</code>	Similar to <code>\preprint</code> , but with true double spacing for manuscripts submitted for publication in journals such as the <i>Physical Review</i> , which require this.
<code>\book</code>	A book or other long document with a separate title page, running headlines, a table of contents, etc. Page numbers are printed in opposite corners on left and right handed pages.
<code>\thesis</code>	Similar to <code>\book</code> , this format is for typesetting a doctoral dissertation or similar document. It may be customized for your own university.

After the command defining the type of document you can add optional commands to modify the default layout. For example, you might want to use

```
\texsis
\paper
\hsize=<dimen>
\vsizer=<dimen>
\singlespaced
```

to produce a single-spaced conference proceeding of a specified size. Macros to create more specialized documents in some of the common formats used by physics journals and conferences are described in Section 9. Since T<sub>E</sub>Xsis obviously cannot include all the possible formats, that section also contains some hints about how to modify a format to fit your needs.

## 6.2. The Title “Page”

A complete paper almost always starts with a title. Most probably it will also include the names of the authors, and often it will include an abstract. Sometimes the title, author’s name(s) and abstract appear on a separate page, while sometimes they simply appear at the top of the first page of the paper. In any case we will refer to all this material together as the “title page” material.

T<sub>E</sub>Xsis has a standardized method for entering the title page material, whether it will actually appear on a page by itself or not. You begin the title page material with `\titlepage` and end it with `\endtitlepage`. Between these two control sequences you can use any of the commands listed below to enter the various parts of the title page material. (An example appears at the beginning of this section).

<code>\title</code>	Begins the title of the paper. All lines up to a following <code>\endtitle</code> are centered and printed in <code>\Tbf</code> type. Line endings in the input file <i>are</i> respected, just as with <code>\obeylines</code> .
<code>\author</code>	Begins an entry for an author’s name and address, which should appear on the lines that follow. Line endings in the input file <i>are</i> respected.

The first line to follow is the author’s name, which is printed centered in `\bf` type. All subsequent lines are centered in normal type. End with `\endauthor`.

`\and` Prints the word “and,” centered and with appropriate vertical separation. It can be used either between sets of `\author ... \endauthor` or between multiple addresses for the same author.

`\authors` An alternative to `\author` for papers with many authors. Here line endings are not respected; instead, the list of authors is divided into lines as evenly as possible, and each line is centered and printed in Roman type. End with `\endauthors`.

`\institution{<symbol>}{<address>}`  
Prints the symbol and the institution address centered on a line. A `\medskip` is placed before the first address to separate the names and addresses. `\institution` should be placed after the author list but before `\endauthors` to work correctly.

`\abstract` Begins the abstract. The word “ABSTRACT” is centered above the abstract. The left and right margins are brought in relative to the text of the paper. End with `\endabstract`.

`\pacs{<codes>}`  
Prints the PACS (Physics and Astronomy Classification Scheme) codes on the title page.

`\submitted{<Journal>}`  
Prints the phrase “Submitted to *Journal*” centered on the page, with the name of the journal printed in `\sl` type.

`\toappear{<Journal>}`  
Similar to `\submitted`, this prints the phrase “To appear in *Journal*” on the title page, with the name of the journal printed in `\sl` type.

`\disclaimer{<contract>}`  
Prints a standard DOE disclaimer for contract number `<contract>`, printed in 10 pt. type, as a footnote.

The advantage to entering the title page material this way is that if you change the overall document format, either from `\paper` to `\preprint` or to one of the more specialized formats described in Section 9, then the title page material will automatically be changed to match the document format selected.

The `\banner` macro is called in the `\preprint` document format to put the date, a preprint code number, and the name of your institution or organization at the top of the title page. The name of the institution can be changed by saying

```
\def\ORGANIZATION{<name>}
```

and this change can be made permanent by putting it into the file `TXSsite.tex` when `TEXsis` is being installed. When this manual was printed, the `\ORGANIZATION` macro was:

```
THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
```

The preprint date and document number can be specified by putting

```
\pubdate{<date>}
\pubcode{<code-number>}
```

before the `\titlepage`. If these are omitted, the date defaults to the current month and year and the document number defaults either to something set as the default when `TEXsis` was installed or to the current `TEXsis` version number. The default at this installation is “UM-TH-96-xx”. If you really want to customize the look of your paper you can create your own `\banner` macro.

If you are submitting your paper to one of the preprint archives at Los Alamos, such as `hep-lat`, `hep-ph`, or `hep-th`, you can have the archive server automatically insert the preprint number it assigns your document when it is submitted. To do this put

```
\pubcode{hep-lat/yymmnnn}
```

near the top of the document (change “hep-lat” as appropriate to the archive you are using). When you submit a paper to an archive with the “put” command the server will translate any occurrence in the input file of the sequence “`hep-lat/yymmnnn`” to “`hep-lat/`” followed by the 7 digit paper number. You must use the exact string of characters “`yymmnnn`” for this to work. When someone else gets your paper from the server and prints a copy it will have the assigned document code in the banner at the top of the title page.

The standard `\footnote` macro cannot be used to make footnotes to titles and authors’ names, because these special fields use internal vertical mode, where footnotes are not allowed. You should instead use the `\vfootnote` macro of plain `TEX` for such purposes. In this case you must put the reference mark in the title or author list yourself (for example, with `{~*}`), and then say `\vfootnote*{The footnote}` somewhere else on the page, outside of the internal vertical mode material (the author or title blocks).

“Footnotes” identifying institutions in a long list of authors are often centered on lines immediately below the author list. `\authors` and `\institution` can be used for this. For example, the author list of one well known paper<sup>8</sup> could be typed as follows:

```
\authors
E.D.~Bloom,$^a$ M.~Breidenback,$^b$ D.H.~Coward,$^a$
H.~DeStaebler,$^a$ J.~Drees,$^a$ J.I.~Friedman,$^b$
G.C.~Hartmann,$^{b,c}$ H.W.~Kendall,$^b$ G.~Miller,$^a$
L.W.~Mo,$^a$ R.E.~Taylor$^a$
```

```

\institution{a}{Stanford Linear Accelerator Center,
Stanford, CA 94305}
\institution{b}{Department of Physics and Laboratory for Nuclear
Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology,
Cambridge MA 02139}
\institution{c}{Xerox Corporation, Rochester, NY}
\endauthors

```

This produces

E.D. Bloom,<sup>a</sup> M. Breidenback,<sup>b</sup> D.H. Coward,<sup>a</sup> H. DeStaebler,<sup>a</sup> J. Drees,<sup>a</sup>  
 J.I. Friedman,<sup>b</sup> G.C. Hartmann,<sup>b,c</sup> H.W. Kendall,<sup>b</sup> G. Miller,<sup>a</sup> L.W. Mo,<sup>a</sup> R.E. Taylor<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Stanford Linear Accelerator Center, Stanford, CA 94305

<sup>b</sup> Department of Physics and Laboratory for Nuclear Science,  
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139

<sup>c</sup> Xerox Corporation, Rochester, NY

Note that `\institution` must come *before* the `\endauthors`.

### 6.3. Chapters and Sections

The following commands can be used to create and automatically number the divisions of a document, including chapters, sections, and appendices:

```

\chapter{<title>}
  Begins a chapter with <title> printed in \Tbf type on a new page.

\section{<title>}
  Begins a section with the <title> printed in \tbf type. This does
  not begin on a new page (although you certainly can start a section
  on a new page by saying \vfill\supereject first.)

\subsection{<title>}
  Begins a subsection with the <title> printed in \bf type.

\subsubsection{<title>}
  Begins a sub-subsection entitled <title>. This is a lower level than
  even a subsection and should only be used when truly appropriate.

\Appendix{<label>}{<title>}
  Begins a chapter-like appendix labeled by the letter <label> (gen-
  erally A, B, C, ... or I, II, III, ...). The <title> is printed in \Tbf
  type at the top of a new page.

```

`\appendix{<label>}{<title>}`

Begins a section-like appendix labeled by the letter `<label>` (generally A, B, C, ... or I, II, III, ...). The `<title>` is printed in `\tbf` type.

`\nosehead{<title>}`

The `<title>` is typeset like a subsection headline, but without a subsection number. This is suitable for acknowledgments, lists of references and such.

The title appears at the top of the section or subsection, left justified in the appropriate typestyle for the document type and with an appropriate amount of vertical spacing below. These and other details of the layout vary with the document format. In general `\chapter` is appropriate mainly for books or theses; the manual you are reading now uses only `\section` and `\subsection` divisions.

As you may have noticed from this manual, the first paragraph of a section or subsection is not indented. This is the usual practice for most well-designed books, though it may seem odd at first. It isn't that strange if you think of the indentation of a paragraph as a way to mark a *separation between* paragraphs, rather than as a way to mark the beginning of a paragraph. But if you really want to indent that first paragraph, just begin it with `\par`. On the other hand, if you put any kind of commands or macro definitions between the `\section` or `\subsection` and the first paragraph then this will interfere with the suppression of the indentation. You can easily fix this by either moving your macro definitions elsewhere or putting in a `\noindent` by hand.

By default chapter, section, and subsection numbers are printed with the titles, and the chapter and section numbers are also attached to equation, figure and table numbers in the form “*cc.ss.nn*”, where *cc* is the chapter number, *ss* the section number, and *nn* the equation number. The inclusion of the chapter and section numbers can be turned on or off with the commands

<code>\showchaptIDtrue</code>	Display chapter numbers.
<code>\showchaptIDfalse</code>	Do not display chapter numbers.
<code>\showsectIDtrue</code>	Display section numbers.
<code>\showsectIDfalse</code>	Do not display section numbers.

`\Appendix` and `\appendix` give chapter-like and section-like appendices, respectively. The chapter or section number is replaced by a letter, which is given as the first argument, and the title, which is the second argument, is printed in the same format as a chapter or section title. For example,

`\appendix{A}{Review of Functional Integration}`

The letter labeling the appendix is attached to the equation numbers if `\showchaptIDtrue` or `\showsectIDtrue` is used. You can omit the letter by using an empty first argument, as in

```
\appendix{}{Leading logarithm approximation}
```

in which case the result is the same as setting `\showchaptIDfalse` or `\showsectIDfalse`.

A skip called `\sectionskip` is used before the title of any section-like division (i.e., a `\section` or an `\appendix`); a skip called `\subsectionskip` is used for any lower-level division, that is, a `\subsection`, `\subsubsection`, or a `\nosehead`. Of course these are all removed by T<sub>E</sub>X if the section starts on a new page. Furthermore, any of these divisions will start on a new page if less than a minimum length given by `\sectionminspace` remains on the current page. The defaults for these parameters are

```
\sectionskip=2cm plus 8pt minus 8pt      % skip before \section
\subsectionskip=1cm plus 4pt minus 4pt    % skip before \subsection
\sectionminspace=0.25\vsizel             % new page if less left
```

but they can be changed to any legal T<sub>E</sub>X skip or dimension either throughout the document or in a local group. For example, you could use

```
\begingroup
\subsectionskip=\sectionskip
\fourteenpoint
\nosehead{Acknowledgments}
\endgroup
```

to make a `\nosehead` which looks like a `\section`.

Ordinarily the order of appearance of the sections of a document are not changed, so there is no automatic mechanism for labeling the sections. Any of the divisions described above can be labeled by inserting `\label{<label>}` into the title text. The `<label>` should have the form `<type.name>`, where `<type>` is `chap`, `sect`, etc., to avoid possible conflicts with other kinds of labels. The corresponding numbers can then be referred to with `\use{<type.name>}`, as described in Section 5.

If the title of a chapter or section is too long, a break in the line can be inserted with the `\n` command. This will also break the line in the title when it appears in the table of contents. If running headlines are being used (see Section 6.6) then only the first part of the title, up to the `\n`, will be used for the running headline. You can always reset the headline by hand with `\setHeadline` (see Section 6.6).

You can customize the behavior of the section-making macros by adding your own definitions for the macros

```
\everychapter, \everysection, \everysubsection, \everysubsubsection,
```

which are called immediately before making the corresponding division of the document, or for the macros

```
\afterchapter, \aftersection, \aftersubsection, \aftersubsubsection,
```

which are called immediately afterwards. By default all of these macros do nothing. As an example, if you wanted every section to begin on a new page, and you wanted numbered footnotes created by `\Footnote` to start over counting from one at the beginning of each section, you could define:

```
\def\everysection{\vfill\supereject \footnum=0}
```

The full text of the title of the current chapter, section, and subsection is saved in `\ChapterTitle`, `\SectionTitle`, and `\SubsectionTitle`, so that you may do whatever you want with these later in the chapter or section. An example of how these might be used with `\aftersubsection` to change the running headlines is given in Section 6.6.

Another way you can control the results produced by `\chapter` and `\section` is to change the way the chapter or section number is printed, by changing the definitions of the macros `\ChapterStyle`, `\SectionStyle`, or `\SubsectionStyle`. These macros take one argument, the chapter or section number, and by default they simply return that argument. By substituting your own definition you can do almost anything you like to the section number. For example, it is often desired that the section number printed as a Roman numeral rather than as an Arabic numeral. The following definition will convert the section number to an upper-case Roman numeral:

```
\def\SectionStyle#1{\uppercase\expandafter{\romannumeral #1}}
```

Even more customized behavior of the section-making macros is possible. For example, `\Tbf` and `\tbf` can also be defined as macros which take a single argument, which is arranged to be the title of the section or chapter. To see how this works it may be best to look at the definitions of `\chapter` and `\section` and the like in the source file `TXSsects.tex`. For very specialized applications you could even copy the definitions in this file to the `TXSmods.tex` file or your own personal style file and then alter them however you like.

#### 6.4. The Master File

An useful concept for typesetting a long document is that of the *Master File*. The idea is to create one small file which initializes `TeXsis` with `\texsis`, makes any special definitions or sets parameters, and then reads in the actual text of the document in sections using the `\input` command. As a simple example consider a manuscript called `MUONS`. The master file is called `MUONS.tex`, and contains the following:

```
\texsis           % initialize TeXsis
\input MyMacros   % special macros for this paper
\input MUONSr     % references for the paper
\input MUONS0     % title page for the paper
\input MUONS1     % first section of manuscript
\input MUONS2     % second section of manuscript
\ListReferences   % print the reference list
\end
```

The file `MyMacros.tex` contains any special macro definitions used in this paper. (If there are none, leave this line out.) The file `MUONSr.tex` contains the references used in this paper, beginning with `\referencelist` and ending with `\endreferencelist`, as described in Section 4. The file `MUONS0.tex` contains the commands for producing the title page of the paper, as described in Section 9. The actual text of the manuscript is divided into two parts, which are kept in the files `MUONS1.tex` and `MUONS2.tex`. To process the entire document one simply runs `TeXsis` on the master file with the command

**texsis MUONS**

If you are familiar with computer programming you may think of the master file as the main program and the other files as subroutines called by the main program.

One of the great advantages of using a master file, aside from keeping the manuscript organized, is that it lets you work on a single section of the paper at a time. For example, suppose you want to run off a draft of just the first section of the paper called MUONS above. You don't need to process the references, the title page, or the second section of the paper. Recall that the percent sign (%) is the comment character in  $\text{\TeX}$  — anything appearing on a line after a % is ignored by  $\text{\TeX}$ . Thus we simply edit the master file and put a % in front of certain lines, like this:

```

\textsis           % initialize TeXsis
\draft            % optional draft mode
\input MyMacros   % special macros for this paper
% \input MUONsr   % references for the paper
% \input MUONSO   % title page for the paper
\input MUONS1     % first section of manuscript
% \input MUONS2   % section section of manuscript
% \ListReferences % print the references
\end

```

Now when you run  $\text{\TeX}$ sis on this file only the first section of the paper will be processed, but it will use the macros defined in `MyMacros.tex`, as well as any other definitions that you might add to the master file. Once the first section is error free you can repeat the process on the second section of the paper, without rerunning the first section. After both sections are correct you can reinstate all lines in the master file and process the whole document.

## 6.5. Table of Contents

The section-making macros just described automatically make an entry in a table of contents for the document being prepared. The title of the chapter or section and the page number are stored in a table of contents file (which ends with the extension “.toc”) until needed, then the table of contents is created simply by saying `\Contents`. If your document is divided into chapters, like a book, the table of contents should appear on a page with a Roman numeral page number (which is obtained by setting `\pageno` to a negative value). For example:

```

\book             % document format for a book
\input Chapt1    % input chapters...
...
\vfill\supereject % eject last page, including figures
\pageno=-3       % print on pages iii, iv, ...
\nosehead{Contents} % label TOC without section #
\Contents        % generate table of contents

```

The table of contents is usually printed at the *end* of the document so that all the page numbers are correct. You then simply move these pages to the front of the document by

hand. Alternately, you can say `\Contents` at the beginning of your document to read in the table of contents file produced by a previous run of `TEXsis`, although then you must process the document twice to be sure that the page numbers are correct.

It is important to note that nothing is written to the table of contents file unless `\Contentstrue` is set. The default for most documents is `\Contentsfalse`, since one usually does not want a table of contents for a short paper or a memo or a letter. The exceptions are `\book` and `\thesis`, which automatically set `\Contentstrue`. In any case, if you want a table of contents you can explicitly state `\Contentstrue`.

While an entry in the table of contents is created by `\chapter` or `\section`, no entry is made for `\nosehead`. In this case, or in any case, you can insert an entry into the table of contents “by hand” by saying

```
\addTOC{<level>}{<title>}{<page>}
```

where `<level>` is the level of division for the entry being made, with 0 for chapters, 1 for sections and 2 for subsections. This controls how much vertical space is put around the table of contents entry and how much the entry is indented in the list. The `<title>` is the text of the title as it should appear in the table of contents. Text which is too long for one line will be split over several lines, but you can force a line break where you want one with `\n`. The `<page>` is the page number for the entry you are making. Generally you’ll use `\folio` here to just use the current page number, whatever that may be. Thus to make a section level entry in the table of contents having the title “Acknowledgments” you would simply say

```
\addTOC{1}{Acknowledgments}{\folio}
```

Entries made in the table of contents by `\chapter`, `\section`, etc. will optionally begin with the chapter or section number, depending upon whether `\showchaptIDtrue` and `\showsectIDtrue` are selected. The decision whether or not to show the chapter or section number is made when the table of contents is printed by `\Contents`, not when the `\chapter` or `\section` is begun. Thus it is possible to have the section numbers showing at the beginning of the section, but to then have no section numbers in the table of contents by saying `\showsectIDfalse` immediately before saying `\Contents`.

It is possible to write commands or other text to the table of contents file while it is being created, using the command `\TOCwrite{<stuff>}`. For example, the heading separating the appendices from the rest of the entries in the table of contents of this Manual was created by saying

```
\TOCwrite{\bigskip\noexpand\nosehead{Appendices:}}
```

before the appendices were created. The `\noexpand` prevents the `\nosehead` from being expanded until later, after the table of contents file is read back in by `\Contents`

What if you want the table of contents to appear in the table of contents itself!? Naturally it should appear first (even though it may be printed at the end of the document). You can use the tagging mechanism described in Section 5 to make a “forward reference” to the page number. At the beginning of the document you can create the table of contents entry by saying

```
\addTOC{0}{Table of Contents}{\noexpand\use{page.TOC}}
```

The `\noexpand` prevents the `\use` from being expanded until later, after the table of contents file is read back in. Later, when you actually print the table of contents you would first tag the page number, then invoke `\Contents`, like so:

```
\nosethead{Table of Contents}
\tag{page.TOC}{\folio}
\Contents
```

## 6.6. Running Headlines and Footlines

In Plain  $\text{\TeX}$ , whenever a page is output an optional headline and footline are added at the top and bottom of the page. In  $\text{\TeX}$ sis the footline is normally blank, while the headline contains the page number in the upper right corner. The `\book` and `\thesis` formats also display a running headline, centered in 10 pt. italic type, containing the chapter or section title. Running headlines and page numbers are **not** printed on any page containing a `\title` or a new `\chapter`. For an example of running headlines look at the top of any page in this Manual.

`\nopagenumbers` turns off the running headlines and footlines, just as it does in Plain  $\text{\TeX}$ . In  $\text{\TeX}$ sis saying `\pagenumbers` restores the standard headlines and footlines. Saying `\bookpagenumbers` puts odd page numbers in the upper right corner and even page numbers in the upper left corner, the normal convention for books. This is the default for `\book`.

`\RunningHeadstrue`, the default for `\book` (and `\thesis`), displays the running headline text `\HeadText`, as well as the page number. `\RunningHeadsfalse` turns off the running headlines but leaves the page numbers. `\HeadText` is defined by `\chapter` to be the chapter title in 10 pt. italic type; if no chapters are used, then it is defined by `\section` to be the section title. You can change the running headline yourself with the command `\setHeadline{<text>}`. For example, the headline at the top of this page could have been created by saying

```
\setHeadline{Typesetting Complete Papers}
```

The headline text appears in typestyle `\HeadFont`, which you can change to suit your tastes. The default is `\tenit`, but for this manual we used `\def\HeadFont{\tensl}`.

Running headlines are not normally affected by `\subsection`, but it is easy to have each subsection change the running headlines by defining `\aftersubsection` to include a `\setHeadline` command. As a useful example, suppose that each subsection is to have a running headline composed of both the title of the section and the title of the subsection. You could have this done automatically by defining something like:

```
\def\aftersubsection{\setHeadline{\SectionTitle: \SubsectionTitle}}
```

The rest of this section will have such running headlines as an example.

## 6.7. How to Make an Index

The traditional way to make an index for a book was to write key words on 3×5 “index” cards, and to then write on these card the numbers of the pages on which the key words occurred. The cards were then sorted by hand and then their contents also sorted and typed in order to make the index. This was a tedious and time consuming task. Fortunately this whole process has been modernized so that an index can be made almost automatically. Still, it takes a certain amount of care to create a useful, well constructed index. An important part of designing a good index is deciding which key words will be useful in the index and which key words will not. A computer cannot make these decisions for you.

Making an index with T<sub>E</sub>X still involves collecting the index entries, sorting them (and removing duplicate references), and then producing the final index. The first and last steps are accomplished with a set of plain T<sub>E</sub>X macros known as `index.tex`, while the sorting and collating of the index entries is done by a separate computer program called `makeindex`. This is how we made the index for this Manual, which starts on page 118.

To create an entry in the index you can say `\index{<key>}`, where `<key>` is the key word to be entered into the index, or more simply you can say `\idx{<word>}`, which both includes the word in the text and makes an index entry for it; saying “`\idx{Frisbee}`” is the same as saying “`Frisbee\index{Frisbee}`”. Either of these indexing commands writes the index entry to a file with the name extension “.idx”. Once your document has been processed by T<sub>E</sub>X this file will contain all of the “raw” index entries.

The entries in the raw index file are not sorted, and there may be many duplications. The `makeindex` program will sort the index entries and reformat them in a form appropriate for printing the index. The output from the `makeindex` program is a file with the extension “.ind”. So if your manuscript file is called `myfile.tex` and you have run it through T<sub>E</sub>Xsis you should find a file called `myfile.idx` containing the raw index entries. You would run the `makeindex` program like so,

```
makeindex myfile.idx
```

to produce the processed index file `myfile.ind`. (You can leave off the `.idx` extension for the raw file and `makeindex` will assume it.)

To print the index you can either include it in another pass of the full document, by saying

```
\input \jobname.ind
```

in the manuscript file, or you can print it separately by adding “`\input index`” to the beginning of the `myfile.ind` file and running it through T<sub>E</sub>X or T<sub>E</sub>Xsis.

If you set `\markindextrue` then indexed words selected with `\idx` will appear in the printed output inside a ruled box like so: Frisbee. The box does not interfere with or change the word or line spacing. These “proof marks” are useful for draft copies when you are putting together the index, but obviously you do not want them to appear in the final copy, so the default is `\markindexfalse`.

The `index.tex` macros are distributed with T<sub>E</sub>Xsis, but `makeindex` is not. If you do not have the `makeindex` program you can get the C source code for it from the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis anonymous ftp site, [ftp.texsis.org](http://ftp.texsis.org). It is a well-known program, and is also available

from CTAN in the directory `indexing/makeindex`. Note that the `index.tex` macros work with plain  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  as well as  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}_{\text{sis}}$ , and they work with `makeindex` in its default mode, even though that default mode was originally intended for  $\text{L}^{\text{A}}\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  code.

For more information about how to make full use of `makeindex` see the file `index.tex`, the Unix man page for `makeindex(1)`, and the original paper by Chen and Harrison<sup>9</sup> describing how they designed the `makeindex` program.

## 7. Figures and Tables

Technical papers often include tables and/or figures. Regardless of how the contents of the figures or tables are created, these have a lot in common in the way they are generally treated.  $\TeX$ sis makes use of  $\TeX$ 's floating insertion capabilities (see Chapter 15 of *The  $\TeX$ book*) to insert figures and tables on the current page or on a following page. It is also possible to have figures or tables saved and printed at the end of the document. Captions are easily added either above or below the figure or table. Both kinds of objects are automatically assigned numbers, which are associated with internal labels so that they may be referred to in the text without having to know their order. It is possible to create a list of the figures and tables which appear in a document, much like creating a table of contents. Figures themselves are generally created outside of  $\TeX$ , either by hand or by computer graphics programs, while tables can be created using  $\TeX$  commands. The most complicated tables have vertical and horizontal lines (called “rules”) to guide the reader’s eye and to make the table more readable.  $\TeX$ sis has some very easy to use commands for making ruled tables.

Before discussing  $\TeX$ sis’s figure and table making macros in detail we should mention that  $\TeX$ sis also adds a new insertion class to those of Plain  $\TeX$ . In Plain  $\TeX$  saying `\topinsert`, `\midinsert` or `\pageinsert` begins a floating insertion (ended by `\endinsert`) which will appear somewhere on the current page or a following page. Material entered with a `\topinsert` appears at the top of the current page, if there is room for it, or at the top of the next page where there is room. A `\midinsert` attempts to insert the text into the current page right where it is invoked, but if the insertion won’t fit it becomes a `\topinsert`. Saying `\pageinsert` creates an insertion which takes up a whole page by itself. In  $\TeX$ sis you can also say `\bottominsert` to make a floating insertion that will appear at the bottom of the current page, if it will fit, or at the bottom of the next page where it will fit. There is also `\heavyinsert`, which like `\midinsert` tries first to insert the material into the current page right where it is called, but in this case becomes a `\bottominsert` if the material won’t fit.

### 7.1. Figures

$\TeX$  is designed for technical typesetting, but does not include a graphics standard, so to include a figure or drawing in a document it is necessary to leave blank space and to either glue the drawing in later or to arrange for the figure material to be inserted by some mechanism outside of  $\TeX$  when the page is actually printed (e.g., using the `\special` command or the `\epsfbox` command described later).

Imagine that you wish to insert into the text a drawing of a “penguin diagram,” which is about 6 cm tall. You could create the space for this figure at the top of a page, along with a caption, with the following commands:

```
\figure{Penguin}
\hrule
\vskip 2cm
\line{\hss (glue your penguin here) \hfil}
\vskip 2cm
```

---

(glue your penguin here)

---

**Figure 7.1:** Sample figure showing how easy it is to insert numbered figures with captions in T<sub>E</sub>Xsis.

```
\hrule
\Caption
Sample figure showing how easy it is to insert
numbered figures with captions in \TeXsis.
\endCaption
\endfigure
```

This produces Fig. 7.1 (we put the `\hrule`'s in just to show off the empty space). “Penguin” is the label for the figure, so to refer to the figure in the text we typed `\Fig{Penguin}`, which produced “Fig. 7.1.” The caption can be placed either before or after the figure: if it is to be at the top then `\Caption` must be the first token after `\figure`. As shown, the caption text must be terminated with `\endCaption`. When the caption is printed it will automatically start with the figure number in bold type, followed by the caption text. The caption is indented on both sides if it is more than one line long and centered otherwise.

`\caption{<text>}` is equivalent to `\Caption<text> \endCaption` and may be more convenient for short captions. It should be avoided for very long captions to keep from overflowing T<sub>E</sub>X's internal memory.

There are commands to create figures for each of the insertion classes of Plain T<sub>E</sub>X (that is, `\midinsert`, `\topinsert` and `\pageinsert`) along with the new insertion class added by T<sub>E</sub>Xsis (`\bottominsert`). In addition, there are special commands for creating wide or full page figures while in double column mode (which is described later in Section 11):

`\figure{<label>}` Inserts a figure at the top of the current page, if there is enough room for it, or at the top of the next available page.

`\midfigure{<label>}` Inserts a figure at the current position, if there is enough room for it, or at the top of the next page if there is not.

`\fullfigure{<label>}`  
 Inserts a figure on a separate page. The body of the figure should normally contain a `\vfill` to allow the figure to stretch to fill the whole page.

`\bottomfigure{<label>}`

Inserts the figure at the bottom of the current page, if there is room for it, or on the bottom of the next page where there is room.

`\heavyfigure{<label>}`

Inserts a figure at the current position, if there is room for it on the page, or at the bottom of the page following if there is not. This is therefore like `\midfigure`, except that if the figure can't be fit on the page it ends up on the bottom of a following page, not the top.

`\widetopfigure{<label>}`

Inserts a figure at the top of a page across both columns in double column format. Equivalent to `\figure` in single column format. `\widefigure` is a synonym.

`\widefullfigure{<label>}`

Inserts a full page figure across both columns in double column format. Equivalent to `\fullfigure` in single column format.

`\endfigure`

Ends any of the figure insertions described above.

In all cases `<label>` is an internal label which is assigned to the figure number. The figure number will include the chapter and section numbers in the format “*cc.ss.nn*” if `\showchaptIDtrue` and `\showsectIDtrue` have been selected.

The body of the figure can include any vertical mode commands, as in the example above. When you are simply leaving space for a figure to be glued in later a convenient way to specify the amount of space to leave is to `\vskip` by some amount proportional to the width of the current column or page. The dimension `\colwidth` is the width of the page (the `\hsize`) in single column mode and the width of the current column in double column mode. So for example, if you have a figure which was half again as tall as it is wide you could say

```
\vskip 1.5\colwidth
```

Another way to standardize the space reserved for figures is to define your own dimension, such as `\myfigsize`, to use in the `\vskip` above. For example,

```
\newdim\myfigsize
\myfigsize= 1.5\colwidth
```

and then `\vskip\myfigsize`. This has the same effect as the previous example, but `\myfigsize` can be changed to any valid dimension.

## 7.2. Encapsulated PostScript Graphics

Instead of simply gluing figures into a paper by hand it is possible to have computer generated graphs and drawings automatically inserted into a document. Unfortunately, the method can vary from computer to computer and printer to printer. Recall that  $\text{\TeX}$  produces as output a DVI file, which contains device independent instructions for typesetting the document. To actually print the document the DVI file must be translated into instructions for the specific printer being used by a suitable device driver. It is at this stage, when the device driver is converting the DVI file to printer instructions, that graphs and drawings may be inserted. However, since different printers may require different kinds of instructions, there are many different device drivers, each having its own way of including drawings in the document.

In recent years some standardization has become possible, because many printer manufacturers have chosen PostScript as the “language” for giving instructions to their printers. PostScript contains commands both for drawing and for typesetting text. Still, there are some problems, because there are many different device drivers for converting DVI files to PostScript, and they all treat the inclusion of figures slightly differently. Also, while all of these filters require that the drawings to be included are themselves already in PostScript, there are several variations of PostScript, leading to further problems of incompatibility.

Until there is some standardization for inserting drawings into  $\text{\TeX}$  documents (and perhaps to encourage it) we recommend using the scheme which (a) seems to be the easiest to use and the most well thought out, and (b) is potentially available to the widest group of users. Our choice is, first, to use a specific variation of PostScript known as “Encapsulated” PostScript (EPS). Most newer computer programs which produce graphics output, including Mathematica, `xfig`, and `paw`, can produce EPS output files. To include these in the text we have chosen to rely on the program `dvips` by Tomas Rokicki,<sup>10</sup> along with his  $\text{\TeX}$  macros for including EPS graphics, called `epsf.tex`. Be warned that there are other programs called “dvips,” but as far as we know only Rokicki’s version will work with `epsf.tex`. We expect that when including drawings in  $\text{\TeX}$  is standardized, it will be based on Rokicki’s scheme or something close to it.

To include EPS graphics in a document using the `epsf.tex` macros you must first input the macros. Somewhere early in your manuscript file you should put:

```
\input epsf.tex
```

You can have the macros report the size of a figure when it is included by saying:

```
\epsfverbosetrue
```

At the point where you want a graph or drawing included you simply say:

```
\epsfbox{foo.ps}
```

This will include the drawing from the file called ‘foo.ps,’ which must already exist in the current directory.  $\text{\TeX}$  will leave enough room for the figure (by creating a box of the correct size) and will use a `\special` command to insert instructions into the DVI file telling the DVI to PS translator to read in the EPS file `foo.ps`.

Once the document has been processed by T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>S</sub>is and the DVI file has been produced you will convert it to a PS file with the “dvips” program. If your DVI file is called `myfile.dvi` then the command is simply:

```
dvips myfile
```

This will convert `myfile.dvi` to PostScript, and depending on how dvips is set up at your installation it will either put the output in the file `myfile.ps` or it will send it directly to the default printer (see the man pages for dvips on how to change this behavior, or try a short example to see how it is set up on your computer). Note that the EPS files to be included must be in the same directory as `myfile.dvi` when you run dvips, so that they can be merged into the final output file (or you can specify the full path filename in the `\epsfbox` command).

On Unix systems you may not be able to use the `lpr -d` command if you have included EPS files in the document. This command runs the DVI file through dvips (or some other DVI to PS filter) in a different directory, and the EPS files will therefore not be included unless you have used a full path name for the file.

If you use the latest version of the `xdvi` program to preview DVI files on your workstation you will find that it automatically includes EPS graphics in the display, but some other previewing programs (such as `texsun`, or older versions of `xdvi`) will not. Even if the previewer does not know how to deal with the `\special` commands in the DVI file, you will see that T<sub>E</sub>X has left room for the figure. Once you have converted your DVI and EPS files into a PS file you can preview that file if you have a PostScript previewer, such as GhostScript. Then your graphs and drawings will appear just as they would if you had printed the PS file.

Sometimes you will find that more room has been left for the figure than is really needed. The way `\epsfbox` decides how much room to leave is by reading the first part of the EPS file to find a line which looks like:

```
%%BoundingBox: 67 176 544 616
```

The two pairs of numbers are the coordinates of the lower left and upper right corners of the figure, respectively. They are measured in printer’s points (1/72nd of an inch). If you don’t like the positioning of the figure given by the original bounding box in the PostScript file you can override it by specifying a new bounding box like so:

```
\epsfbox[0 180 540 700]{file.ps}
```

You may have to experiment with positioning the BoundingBox for the best effect, and it may help to look at the PostScript file to see what the default BoundingBox is and adjust things using that coordinate system.

You can also control the size of the included graphic using `\epsfxsize` or `\epsfysize` before you call `\epsfbox`. The figure will be enlarged or reduced to fit the dimension you specify. Saying

```
\epsfxsize=<dimen> \epsfbox{figure.ps}
```



### 7.3. Simple Tables

Simple tables (without ruled lines) are constructed in T<sub>E</sub>X with alignment tabs or with `\halign`. The reader who is not familiar with these should look at Chapter 22 in *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*. In T<sub>E</sub>Xsis simple tables with table numbers and captions are treated much the same as figures. For example, saying

```
\midtable{table example}
\caption{Charged leptons.}
\centerline{\vbox{\halign{#\ \hfil & #\ \hfil & #\hfil \cr
Name      & Mass      & Lifetime \cr
$e^- $    & .511 MeV & $>2 \times 10^{22}$ yr. \cr
$\mu^- $  & 105 MeV  & $2.197 \times 10^{-6}$ sec. \cr
$\tau^- $ & 1784 MeV & $3.3 \times 10^{-13}$ sec. \cr}}}
\endtable
```

produces the following table, in the middle of the page:

**Table 7.1:** Charged leptons.

Name	Mass	Lifetime
$e^-$	.511 MeV	$> 2 \times 10^{22}$ yr.
$\mu^-$	105 MeV	$2.197 \times 10^{-6}$ sec.
$\tau^-$	1784 MeV	$3.3 \times 10^{-13}$ sec.

Note the use of `\centerline` and a `\vbox` to center the table. The reference to this table in the text was produced by typing “`\Tb1{table example}`.” Note also that we used `\caption` followed by the text in brackets as an alternative method of defining the caption; However `\caption` should only be used when the caption is short. Table captions are traditionally placed above the table, so `\Caption` or `\caption` should be the first token after `\table{<label>}` and its siblings.

There are a number of different kinds of table insertions, and they match closely the different kinds of insertions used for figures:

- `\table{<label>}` Inserts a table at the top of next available page.
- `\midtable{<label>}` Inserts a table at the current position if there is room or at the top of a page if necessary.
- `\fulltable{<label>}` Inserts a table on a separate page. The body of the table should normally contain a `\vfill`.
- `\bottomtable{<label>}` Inserts the table at the bottom of the current page, if there is room for it, or on the bottom of the next page where there is room.

`\heavytable{<label>}`

Inserts a table at the current position, if there is room for it on the page, or at the bottom of the page following if there is not. This is therefore like `\midtable`, except that if the table can't be fit on the page it ends up on the bottom of a following page, not the top.

`\widetoptable{<label>}`

Inserts a table at the top of a page across both columns in double column format. Equivalent to `\table` in single column format.

`\widefulltable{<label>}`

Inserts a full page table in double column format. Equivalent to `\fulltable` in single column format.

`\endtable`

Ends any of the tables above.

Again, in these macros `<label>` is an internal label which is assigned to the table number. The table number will include the chapter and section numbers in the format “*cc.ss.nn*” if `\showchaptIDtrue` and `\showsectIDtrue` have been selected. The table can then be referred to in the text by saying `\Tb1{<label>}`.

## 7.4. Ruled Tables

While `\halign` in Plain  $\TeX$  is convenient for making simple tables, it is still difficult to make tables with horizontal and vertical rules. Indeed, typesetting ruled tables in  $\TeX$  has often been likened to programming a computer in assembler language. Even *The  $\TeX$ book* acknowledges that “people who know how to make ruled tables are generally known as  $\TeX$  Masters.”<sup>12</sup> The macros described below take a great deal of the difficulty out of making ruled tables, so that anybody can become a  $\TeX$  Master, or at least a master of ruled tables.

The basic idea behind making a ruled table is similar to `\halign`, and the syntax is the same as the Princeton table macros known as `TABLES.TEX` by Ray Cowan<sup>13</sup> (although the `\TeXsis` macros are quite different internally and run about 5 times faster). You begin the table material with `\ruledtable` and end it with `\endruledtable`. The table material is a list of items to appear in the rows and columns of the tables. Just as with `\halign`, you can separate items in different columns with `&` and end a row with `\cr`. The `&` alignment character separates columns without putting a vertical rule between the columns, while `\cr` ends a line and puts a thin horizontal rule under it. To get a vertical rule between columns replace the `&` with a `'|'` (the vertical line), and to end a line without a horizontal rule under it replace the `\cr` with `\crnorule`. One important thing to remember is to end the last line in the table with `\endruledtable` instead of `\cr`.

As a first example, here is a simple ruled table,

Year	World Population
8000 B.C.	5000000
50 B.C.	200000000
1650 A.D.	500000000
1850 A.D.	1000000000
1945 A.D.	2300000000
1980 A.D.	4400000000

and here are the instructions that created it,

```

\ruledtable
Year      |      World Population \cr
8000 B.C. | ~~~5000000           \crnorule
~~50 B.C. | ~200000000          \crnorule
1650 A.D. | ~500000000          \crnorule
1850 A.D. | 1000000000          \crnorule
1945 A.D. | 2300000000          \crnorule
1980 A.D. | 4400000000
\endruledtable

```

This example also appears in *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*, on page 246, where it is typeset using `\halign`. Compare how the two are constructed and see which way you think is easier.

By default each item in the table is centered in its column. Inside a table the tie character “~” takes up the space of exactly one digit (it is the same as saying `\phantom{0}`), and this has been used to line up the digits of the entries in both columns. It is also possible to change the definition of the `\TableItem` macro so that each entry in each column is left or right justified. This is described a little bit later.

Something to note about this example table is that the outer rules are thicker than the others. You can also get a thick vertical rule between columns by using “\|” in place of “|”, and you can get a thick horizontal rule below a row by replacing the `\cr` with `\crthick`. The widths of thick and thin rules are controlled by the dimensions `\thicksize` and `\thinsize`. If you don’t want thick rules at all simply say `\thicksize=\thinsize`, which makes the thick rules as thin as the thin rules.

Some synonyms: `\CR` is the same as `\crthick`, `\nr` is the same as `\crnorule`, and `\crrule` is the same as `\cr` (actually it’s the other way around). `\tab` is the same as `&` — it separates columns without a vertical rule. `\vb` is the same as `|`, it separates columns with a thin vertical bar, while `\Vb` is the same as `\|` and separates the columns with a thick vertical bar. You can also use `\dbl` to separate columns with a double vertical rule.

As in Plain T<sub>E</sub>X you can use `\span` in place of `&` (or the other column separators) to join two columns together into one, and you can use `\omit` as the very first token in a column to tell it to omit the fancy column layout (the centering or other spacing). You can also use `\multispan` to `\span` and `\omit` several columns, just as in an `\halign`. The only difference is that the number of columns you tell it to `\multispan` is the number of columns of the table it spans — in a ruled table constructed with `\halign` you would count the columns *and* any vertical rules (because the rules are also columns of the `\halign`).

**Table 7.2:** Another example of a ruled table.

AT&T Common Stock		
Year	Price	Dividend
1971	41-54	\$2.60
2	41-54	\$2.70
3	46-55	\$2.87
4	40-53	\$3.24
5	45-52	\$3.40
6	51-59	.95

Table 7.2 is another sample table, again taken from *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*. Something important to notice is that the last ruled table example didn't have a table number or a caption, while this one does. That's because the last example was created using just `\ruledtable`, while this example is inside of `\table`. The point is that `\table` and `\ruledtable` do separate things and can be used either separately or together; `\table` creates the space for the table and gives it a caption and a number, while `\ruledtable` actually constructs the body of the ruled table. The instructions that created Table 7.2 are:

```

\table{example-II}
\caption{Another example of a ruled table.}
\single spaced
\ruledtable
\multispan3\hfil AT\&T Common Stock \hfil\CR
Year \dbl Price | Dividend \cr
1971 \dbl 41-54 | \$2.60 \cr
~~~2 \dbl 41-54 | \$2.70 \cr
~~~3 \dbl 46-55 | \$2.87 \cr
~~~4 \dbl 40-53 | \$3.24 \cr
~~~5 \dbl 45-52 | \$3.40 \cr
~~~6 \dbl 51-59 | ~.95
\endruledtable
\endtable

```

Sometimes it is desirable to have rules across only some of the columns of a table. In this case put `\crule` in the columns that are to have rules, `\cskip` in the columns where no rules are desired, and end the line with `\crpart`, which signals that the line contains a partial rule. The column headings in Table 7.3 are an example of partial rules in a table. That table was created with the commands,<sup>14</sup>

```

\table{SiHCl}
\caption{...}
\single spaced\tenpoint
\ruledtable
\ctr{Molecule} | \ctr{Region} | Radius |
\ctr{\$ \alpha _{\rm HF}} | \multispan{2} $1_{\rm max}$
\crnorule
\cskip | \cskip | \cskip | \cskip | \crule | \crule \crpart
| | (au) | | initial state | final state \CR

```

**Table 7.3:** Parameters used in the MS-X $\alpha$  calculations for the chlorosilane molecules, H<sub>x</sub>SiCl<sub>4-x</sub>; x=0-4.

Molecule	Region	Radius (au)	$\alpha_{\text{HF}}$	$l_{\text{max}}$	
				initial state	final state
SiCl <sub>4</sub>	outersphere	6.21	0.7238	4	7
	Si	2.20	0.7275	2	3
	Cl	2.40	0.7233	2	3
SiHCl <sub>3</sub>	outersphere	6.21	0.7260	4	7
	Si	2.16	0.7275	2	3
	Cl	2.40	0.7233	2	3
	H	1.20	0.7772	1	2
SiH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub>	outersphere	6.25	0.7295	4	7
	Si	2.20	0.7275	2	3
	Cl	2.40	0.7233	2	3
	H	1.20	0.7772	1	2
SiH <sub>3</sub> Cl	outersphere	6.30	0.7360	4	7
	Si	2.20	0.7275	2	3
	Cl	2.40	0.7233	2	3
SiH <sub>4</sub>	outersphere	4.10	0.7524	4	7
	Si	2.04	0.7275	2	3
	H	1.20	0.7772	1	2

```
SiCl$_4$ | outersphere | 6.21 | 0.7238 | 4 | 7 \crnorule
        | Si         | 2.20 | 0.7275 | 2 | 3 \crnorule
        | Cl         | 2.40 | 0.7233 | 2 | 3 ...
...
\endruledtable
\endtable
```

Ruled tables are normally centered on the page, but you can turn off the centering with `\noncenteredtables`. Then the table becomes just another piece to add to a horizontal list. One thing this lets you do is have two tables side by side on the page, like so:

Item ABC	Item DEF
Item GHI	Item JKL

Data 111	Data 222
Data 333	Data 444
Data 555	Data 666

This pair of tables was produced by saying:

```
\noncenteredtables
\medskip
\line{\ruledtable
Item ABC | Item DEF \cr
```

```

Item GHI | Item JKL \endruledtable
\hfil
\ruledtable
Data 111 | Data 222 \cr
Data 333 | Data 444 \cr
Data 555 | Data 666 \endruledtable}
\smallskip

```

Saying `\centeredtables` turns table centering back on. Tables are then centered across the page, and a table is then added to a *vertical* list.

Usually `\ruledtable` makes tables as wide as their natural width, but it is possible to make them wider by setting the dimension `\tablewidth` to the width desired before saying `\ruledtable`. We can make the same table in Table 7.2 but with the width set to 10cm:

AT&T Common Stock		
Year	Price	Dividend
1971	41-54	\$2.60
2	41-54	\$2.70
3	46-55	\$2.87
4	40-53	\$3.24
5	45-52	\$3.40
6	51-59	.95*

\* (first quarter only)

The careful reader will notice that the version of Table 7.2 in *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook* had a footnote to the last entry, and we have added that here. To do so we had to put the footnote in an `\hbox` and stack it under the table, so we had to turn off table centering. The table is therefore a bit more complicated to make, but not much:

```

\noncenteredtables
\tablewidth=10cm
\line{\tenpoint\hfil\vbox{\singl spaced
\ruledtable
\multispan3\hfill AT\&T Common Stock \hfill\CR
Year \dbl Price | Dividend \cr
1971 \dbl 41-54 | \$2.60 \cr
~~~2 \dbl 41-54 | \$2.70 \cr
~~~3 \dbl 46-55 | \$2.87 \cr
~~~4 \dbl 40-53 | \$3.24 \cr
~~~5 \dbl 45-52 | \$3.40 \cr
~~~6 \dbl 51-59 | ~.95\rlap*
\endruledtable
\hbox{* (first quarter only)}
\vss}\hfil}

```

If we had not wanted to add the footnote, then the table would have been typed the same way as Table 7.2 except for setting the `\tablewidth`.

Important note: `\tablewidth` is turned “off” after the table is made, so the next table will have its natural width unless you explicitly set `\tablewidth` again!

`\ruledtable` normally inserts a `\quad` of space around each item. If you have a very wide table, especially one with many columns, you may wish to reduce this. `\TightTables` make this spacing a single space, the minimum acceptable. `\LooseTables` restores the default spacing. You can define this space to be something else by re-defining `\tablespace`, for example as

```
\def\tablespace{\ \ }
```

If the table is still too wide with `\TightTables`, you will probably have to reformat it or print it in landscape mode (tilted 90° on the page).

The careful reader may also have noticed that in the examples in Table 7.2 and Table 7.3 we said `\singledspaced`. That’s because the spacing of the rows of a table can be controlled just like the spacing of the text with `\singledspaced`, `\doubledspaced`, etc. The space between the rows of a table is set by a strut called `\tstrut`, which holds the rows apart. Its default definition is

```
\def\tstrut{\vrule height 3.1ex depth 1.2ex width 0pt}
```

You can change the spacing between rows by changing the definition of this strut. One of the things `\singledspaced` does is define the `\tstrut` to be 0.5ex higher and deeper than a parenthesis. `\doubledspaced`, `\tripledspaced`, and `\widenspacing` all increase the height and depth of the strut in proportion to the increase in the baseline spacing.

If you put something in a table which is larger than the strut, then it will touch the rules above or below. You can fix this by inserting your own strut into that row. More simply, you can say `\bigitem{<stuff>}`, and the “stuff” will be positioned correctly with a nice amount of space above and below.

You can also decide whether or not you want diagnostic messages printed when a table is created. Saying `\tableinfotrue` causes a message to be printed on your terminal every time a ruled table is created. The message tells you how many rows and columns were in the table. This is useful information, because it can tell you immediately if you made a mistake in the table or left out a row or column. `\tableinfotrue` is the default, but you can turn off these messages by saying `\tableinfofalse`. In any case, you will be warned if a row has a different number of columns from the previous one.

The tables we have demonstrated so far all contain numbers, but sometimes it is desirable to have an entry in a table which is a paragraph of text. For that purpose, you can use `\para{<text>}`. The width of the paragraph is determined by the dimension `\parasize`, which defaults to 4 inches.

Tables 7.4a and 7.4b summarize the most important commands for making ruled tables.

Finally, we can discuss how you can change how each column of a table is constructed. The macros which build the table take each entry and pass it to a macro called `\TableItem`. The default definition of `\TableItem` is:

```
\def\TableItem#1%           % centers item in ruled table
  \hfil\tablespace          % left glue
  #1\killspace              % item, no space after
  \tablespace\hfil         % right glue
  }%
```

The `\hfil` glue on both sides of the argument causes the item to be centered in the column, while `\tablespace` (which defaults to `\quad`) insures that there will be at least some amount of space between the item and the vertical rules on each side. Because of the way that  $\TeX$  handles macro arguments, if you type a table with spaces between the text and the next column separator, an extra `\space` will be inserted into the table. If you first say `\NoTrailingSpaces`, then `\killspace` in the above macro is defined to remove any trailing glue items. `\hfill` is redefined by the table macros so that if it is the last token in an entry, then that entry is properly left justified, but to insert any other trailing glue, you must say

```
<text><glue>\null
```

The default is `\TrailingSpaces`, which does incorporate any trailing spaces into the table but which also treats any trailing glue items normally.

You can change the definition of `\TableItem` to suit your own purpose. The simplest modification is to omit the `\hfil` on the left or right so that each entry is right or left justified. This is so commonly used that saying `\RightJustifyTables` or `\LeftJustifyTables` makes the appropriate change for you. Saying `\NoJustifyTables` restores `\TableItem` to its original centering function.

Since `\TableItem` is used to create every column of the table, you cannot use it to modify a single column. To justify just one column you can simply put `\hfill` to the left or right of each item in the column, since `\hfill` is infinitely more stretchy than `\hfil`. (The behavior of glue items other than `\hfill` depends on whether `\NoTrailingSpaces`

**Table 7.4:** Basic table macros for use with `\ruledtable`.

<i>Macro name</i>	<i>Description</i>
<code>\ruledtable</code>	Starts a ruled table.
<code> </code> (vertical bar) or <code>\vb</code>	Separates one column from the next, with a thin vertical rule between them.
<code>&amp;</code> or <code>\tab</code>	Separates one column from the next, but with no rule between them.
<code>\cr</code>	Ends the current row, and starts the next one. The completed row will be separated from the next with a thin horizontal rule.
<code>\crthick</code> or <code>\CR</code>	Similar to <code>\cr</code> , but the rows will be separated with a thick horizontal rule.
<code>\crnorule</code> or <code>\nr</code>	Similar to <code>\cr</code> , but the rows will not be separated by a rule.
<code>\ </code>	Same as <code> </code> , but with a thick vertical rule.
<code>\dbl</code>	Same as <code> </code> , but with two thin vertical rules.
<code>\endruledtable</code>	Ends the ruled table.

*Continued...*

**Table 7.4:** Additional macros for use with `\ruledtable`.

Continued...

Macro name	Description
<code>\multispan{n}</code>	Makes the next entry span the next $n$ columns, where $n$ is an integer, $n > 0$ . See <code>\omit</code> below.
<code>\omit</code>	This T <sub>E</sub> X primitive causes the normal template for its entry to be omitted, allowing the user to do something else with this entry.
<code>\para{⟨text⟩}</code>	Formats <i>text</i> into a neat little paragraph like this one. The width of the paragraph produced is determined by the dimension <code>\parasize</code> . The default is 4 inches.
<code>\parasize=⟨dimen⟩</code>	Sets the width of paragraphs for the <code>\para</code> macro.
<code>\TableItem{⟨stuff⟩}</code>	Used in the standard template, this macro centers its argument in the column. The user can redefine it for special effects.
<code>\tablespace</code>	The spacing around each item for <code>\TableItem</code> .
<code>\LooseTables</code> <code>\TightTables</code>	Set <code>\tablespace</code> to <code>\quad</code> and <code>\ </code> respectively.
<code>\TrailingSpaces</code> <code>\NoTrailingSpaces</code>	Use trailing spaces and glue items in table entries (default) or ignore them. See text.
<code>\bigitem{⟨stuff⟩}</code>	Use this for something that would normally not fit in one line of a table to make the spacing between rows large enough for this item.
<code>\vctr{⟨stuff⟩}</code>	Centers the item <i>vertically</i> so that it can appear between two rows.
<code>\centeredtables</code>	Turns table centering on. Each table will be centered left-to-right on the page. This is the default.
<code>\noncenteredtables</code>	Turns table centering off. Each table is returned as an <code>\hbox</code> , and it is up to the user to place it as desired.
<code>\tableinfotrue</code> <code>\tableinfofalse</code>	Turns on or off the diagnostic message telling you how many rows and columns were found in the table.
<code>\thicksize=⟨dimen⟩</code>	This dimension specifies the thickness of the thick rules in the table. The default size is 1.5 points.
<code>\thinsize=⟨dimen⟩</code>	This dimension specifies the thickness of thin rules in the table. The default size is 0.8 points.
<code>\tablewidth=⟨dimen⟩</code>	Specifies how wide to make the next table. If not specified, the table is made to its natural width. This value is reset following the construction of each table.

has been set.) With a little more work it is possible to design special or unusual tables by redefining the “preamble” of the table. This is possible because `\ruledtable` uses `\halign` with a preamble called `\TablePreamble`. The default definition of `\TablePreamble` is:

```

\def\TablePreamble{%
  \TableItem{####}%
  \plaintab\plaintab
  \TableItem{####}%
  \plaincr}%
% \ruledtable preamble
% the first item
% && means repeat this
% the subsequent items
% end of preamble

```

The syntax for `\TablePreamble` is like an `\halign` preamble in Plain  $\text{\TeX}$  but with `&` replaced by `\plaintab`, `\cr` replaced by `\plaincr`, and `#` replaced by `####`. If you have read this far and want to try changing `\TablePreamble` then you should read the source code and the comments that go with it in the file `TXSruled.tex`.

As a final note we point out that it is also possible for you to create your own column separators with the macro `\nextcolumn`. This macro takes a single argument which is used to separate one column of the table from another. Thus for example, the `\dbl` macro for creating a double vertical rule between columns is defined as:

```

\def\dbl{%
  \nextcolumn{\vrule width\thinsize
  \hskip\thinsize\vrule width\thinsize}}

```

## 7.5. Lists of Figures and Tables

In large technical documents it is often desirable to have a list of the figures and/or tables which appear in the document, along with a brief caption and the number of the page on which the figure or table appears. This is similar to a table of contents, but is separate from it. In  $\text{\TeX}$ sis you can add a figure or table to a list of figures or tables by using `\infiglist` after `\figure` or `\intablelist` after `\table`, similar to the way you would use `\caption`. The syntax is `\infiglist{<text>}`. The text is the text of the (possibly abbreviated) caption which is to appear in the list of figures. Remember though, if a table has a caption it should appear above the table body, so the `\caption` must still be the first thing after `\table`; the `\infiglist` can come later.

As an example, consider the “penguin diagram” already discussed. To add an entry for this figure in the list of figures it would be entered as follows:

```

\figure{Penguin}
\centerline{\epsfbox{/home/fermi/qcd/penguin.eps}}
\caption{Example of including EPS graphics in a figure.}
\infiglist{Example of including a figure in the list of figures.}
\endfigure

```

The `\caption` text is what is put under the figure in the body of the paper, while the `\infiglist` text is what shows up in the list of figures, and these do not have to be the same.

To produce the list of figures at the end of the document you say `\ListFigures`, and similarly to produce the list of tables say `\ListTables`. Even if the list is to appear at the front of the document, along with the table of contents, you should print it at the end and move the list to the front afterwards. This is because until the document is actually processed `TEX` does not know on which page the figure or table appears.

One word of caution: figures and tables are produced by putting them in “floating inserts”, which `TEX` saves up and prints when there is room. The entry into the list of figures or tables is not made until the item actually makes its way into the output DVI file. If you ask for the list of figures or tables before one of these items is output it will not be in the list, and in fact that entry for the figure or table list will later end up spewing out on your terminal. To be sure that all floating insertions have been output you should say `\supereject` before you print the list of figures or tables.

## 7.6. Listing Figure and Table Captions

When a manuscript is submitted to some journals, like the Physical Review, one is supposed to include a separate list of the captions of all figures and tables. This is similar to the lists created by `\ListFigures` and `\ListTables`, but the page numbers are not supposed to be included. It is very easy to use the caption information stored by `\infiglist` and `\intablelist` to make just a list of captions, without including the page numbers. The command to make a list of all the figure captions is `\ListFigureCaptions`, and similarly all the table captions can be listed with `\ListTableCaptions`. Just as with `\ListFigures` and `\ListTables` these should appear at the end of the job, so that all of the caption information will have already been stored.

It should be said that this method of making a list of captions assumes that you have put the same captions under the figures, with `\Caption` or `\caption`, as the caption in the list of figures entered with `\infiglist`.

It may help to know a little bit more about how the macros `\ListFigures` and `\ListFigureCaptions` work. The `\infiglist` command writes the figure caption information you provide to a file which has the same name as your manuscript file but with the extension `.fgl`, meaning “figure list” (for tables the file name extension is `.tbl`). The page number on which the figure appears is also recorded in this file. When the whole document has been processed all of the figure captions will have been saved in this file, and `\ListFigures` and `\ListFigureCaptions` simply read this file back in. One of them uses the page numbers to construct a table of contents for the figures, while the other just prints out the figure captions by themselves. In either case, it is important that all the caption information be in the file when the list is to be made, which is why a `\supereject` may be necessary to flush all floating insertions to the output.

## 7.7. Printing Figures and Tables at the End of a Document

When working on a paper to be sent for publication it is sometimes necessary to print all of the figures at the end of the document. To cause this to be done you simply have to say

```
\FiguresLast
```

at some point before you call `\figure` and its relatives, and then put

```
\PrintFigures
```

at the end of the document. `\FiguresLast` causes `\figure` to save the definition of your figure in an auxiliary file instead of immediately creating the figure, and `\PrintFigures` reads the material back in from that file. If you say `\PrintFigures` without first saying `\FiguresLast` nothing will happen. You can return to having the figures printed where they are defined by saying `\FiguresNow`. In that case `\PrintFigures` does nothing; you have to have said `\FiguresLast` for `\PrintFigures` to read any stored figures back in.

Tables can also be saved until the end of the document by saying `\TablesLast` and then `\PrintTables`. `\TablesNow` is the opposite of `\TablesLast`.

One important note: Since the figure or table material is copied to the file in which it is held one line at a time it is important to use `\Caption` and `\endCaption` for long captions instead of `\caption`. If you use `\caption`  $\TeX$  will try to read the whole caption at once, which may result in the error message “`TeX capacity exceeded, sorry.`”

## 7.8. Nonstandard Figure and Table Placement

On rare occasions you may need to have a figure or table from one section of your document appear in another section of the document. For example, if the introductory section is very short but has a figure, that figure might end up at the top of the first page when you really want it to appear at the top of the second page. You can cause the figure to come out later by moving it farther back in the manuscript file, but if it is moved into the next section it will then have the wrong figure number.

The solution to this problem is to have a way to override or modify the way figure and table numbers are assigned. Since the first part of the figure or table number is the chapter or section number you need to change this by saying

```
\setSectionID{<something-else>}
```

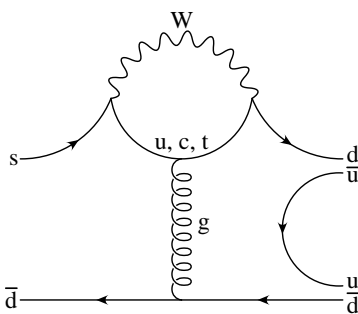
This changes the section number part of the figure and table numbers to whatever you put as `<something-else>`. It will also effect equation numbers, so it is best to have this inside of a group, so that the change goes away at the end of the group. Next you have to change the figure or table number.  $\TeX$  keeps count of tables and figures in global variables, and increments these counters globally when a new figure or table is created. Thus just changing the counter inside a group won't work, because the counter outside of the group would still be modified. To temporarily change the value of such a counter you use

```
\setcnt{<counter>}{<value>}
```

where  $\langle \text{value} \rangle$  is the temporary value to assign to the counter  $\langle \text{counter} \rangle$ . This should be done inside of a group, and when the group ends the counter will go back to its previous global value. You should only use `\setcnt` once within a given group!

An example will make this procedure clear. Suppose that Figure 1.17 is a part of Section 1, but we wanted to show it much later in this Manual (such as right about now). It can be created in this section by saying:

```
\begingroup          % changes are temporary
\setSectionID{1}    % changes the section ID
\setcnt\fignum{16}% figure counter is 1 less than we want
\midfigure{intro.17}
\centerline{\epsfysize=4cm\epsfbox{penguin.eps}}
\caption{A bizarrely placed figure for Section~\use{sect.intro}}
\infiglist{A bizarrely placed figure for Section~\use{sect.intro}}
\endfigure
\endgroup           % everything goes back the way it was
```



**Figure 1.17:** A bizarrely placed figure for Section 1

In this case the figure number in the counter `\fignum` is set to one less than the value we want, so that it comes out correctly when `\bottomfigure` increments the count. You can use `\setcnt` to modify any of T<sub>E</sub>X<sub>s</sub>'s global counters. The complete list is given in Section 5 (where the use of `\use` is also described).

By the way, you should never move a figure out of a *Chapter*, unless you move it to the end of the document, and the appropriate way to do that is with `\FiguresLast`.

## 8. Environments

$\TeX$  ordinarily provides a layout appropriate for straight text and equations. The  $\TeX$  macros described below create environments which bypass the normal layout to format text in special ways, to create different types of lists, to display theorems and proofs, to display computer code, and even to print  $\TeX$  examples. With the exception of some of the specialized  $\TeX$  example macros, the syntax for all of these is generally of the form “`\thing...`” to begin the environment and “`\endthing`” to end it.

### 8.1. Flush or Centered Text

There are three environments in  $\TeX$  which center lines, set them flush left, or set them flush right, respectively:

<code>\center</code>	Centers all lines which follow, up to <code>\endcenter</code> .
<code>\flushleft</code>	The lines which follow, up to <code>\endflushleft</code> , are made to line up flush to the left margin.
<code>\flushright</code>	The lines which follow, up to <code>\endflushright</code> , are made to line up flush to the right margin.

In all of these environments line endings in the input file are obeyed, as with `\obeylines`. For example,

```
\center
A Centered Line
and Another
\endcenter
```

produces

A Centered Line  
and Another

There is also a `\raggedcenter` environment which does not respect line breaks but instead produces centered lines each of which is made as long as possible:

<code>\raggedcenter</code>	Center lines without respecting line endings. Terminate with <code>\endraggedcenter</code> .
----------------------------	--

For example

```
\raggedcenter
In the ragged centering environment each line
is made as long as possible, and
the successive lines are centered.
\endraggedcenter
```

produces

In the ragged centering environment each line is made  
as long as possible, and the successive lines are centered.

Note that `\raggedcenter` does not hyphenate words.

## 8.2. Simple Examples and Quoted Text

The `\example` environment can be used to display an example of something in a way that sets it off from the main text. The indentation of an example is the same as in the list environments (see Section 8.5.4). The text in an example will be single spaced, even if the rest of the document is double spaced. End this environment with `\endexample`. An example of the use of `\example` is

```
\example
Physics is not a finished logical system. Rather, at any
moment it spans a great confusion of ideas, some that
survive like folk epics from the heroic periods of the past,
and other that arise like utopian novels from our dim
premonitions of a future grand synthesis.
\endexample
```

which produces<sup>15</sup>

Physics is not a finished logical system. Rather, at any moment it spans a great confusion of  
ideas, some that survive like folk epics from the heroic periods of the past, and other that arise  
like utopian novels from our dim premonitions of a future grand synthesis.

Another example of `\example` is given in the next subsection as an example of the `\theorem` environment.

Since one of the uses of `\example` is to display block quotes, as we've just done above, a synonym for `\example` is `\blockquote`, which should be ended with `\endblockquote`.

## 8.3. Theorems and Proofs

Theorems, lemmas, and corollaries are typeset in a quasi-SIAM format, with the number in boldface and the text in slanted type. They are automatically numbered, including the chapter and section numbers if `\showchaptIDtrue` and `\showsectIDtrue` are being used. The syntax for a theorem is

```
\theorem{<label>}
<text>
\endtheorem
\proof
<text>
\endproof
```

and similarly for `\lemma`, `\corollary` and `\definition`. Definitions are printed in Roman type, not slanted. The `\endproof` macro inserts a black box to mark the end of the proof. Subsequent references to theorems, lemmas, corollaries and definitions can be made in the text automatically using `\Theorem{<label>}`, `\Lemma{<label>}`, `\Corollary{<label>}`, and `\Definition{<label>}`, which give the appropriate name and number. An example of a Theorem is:

```

\example
\theorem{Cauchy}
If  $f(z)$  is a function of  $z$  which is analytic on and inside of
a contour  $C$ , then

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0$$

\endtheorem
\proof
Left as an exercise to the reader.
\endproof
\endexample

```

which produces

**Theorem 8.1.** *If  $f(z)$  is a function of  $z$  which is analytic on and inside of a contour  $C$ , then*

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0$$

*Proof.* Left as an exercise to the reader. ■

Note the use of `\example` to indent the theorem and proof and print them single spaced. Had the `\example` been omitted the theorem and proof would have had the same margins and spacing as the rest of the text. This theorem would be referred to in the text with `\Theorem{Cauchy}`, which gives “Theorem 8.1.” This should be sufficient in most cases, but if necessary one can refer to theorem or lemma numbers with the primitive `\use{<type>.<label>}`, where `<type>` is either `Thm`, `Lem`, respectively. See Section 5 for more on the use of `\use`.

## 8.4. Listing Computer Code

The `\Listing` environment can be used to display computer code or fragments of computer code. The text is printed in `\tt` type with line endings respected and every space counted. You can still use  $\TeX$  control sequences in this environment, but many of the special characters like `%`, `&`, and `#` are simply printable characters, since they are used in languages like C. (`$`, `_` and `^` also lose any special meaning in this environment.) Since the curly brackets used by  $\TeX$  are also used in C (and other languages) they are also simply characters in the `\Listing` environment. To perform grouping you should use `\bgroup` and `\egroup`. The backslash is also used in C as an escape character, so there has to be some way to print it — you simply use `\\`; thus `\n` should be typed as `\\n`. You end the listing environment with `\endListing`. As an example here is a very famous little program,<sup>16</sup>

```
#include <stdio.h>
main()
{
    printf("hello, world\n");
}
```

which was created by simply typing,

```
\Listing
#include <stdio.h>
main()
{
    printf("hello, world\\n");
}
\endListing
```

The indentation and spacing of the of the `\Listing` environment are controlled by the same parameters that control the indentation of the list environments, as described in Sect. 8.5.4. In addition, at the beginning of the `\Listing` environment the macro `\everyListing` is executed, if it exists. You can define `\everyListing` to change the typestyle, type size, or spacing in the `\Listing` environment.

An alternative way to list computer code is `\ListCodeFile{<filename>}`, which will list the contents of a source code file exactly as it appears in the file (with no need to make `\n` into `\\n` and such). The call to this macro should *not* be enclosed in a `\Listing` environment. If the example program above were contained in the source file `hello.c` it could be listed simply by typing

```
\ListCodeFile{hello.c}
```

Long lines can bump up against the right margin. Some extra glue has been added to help allow for this, but another way to make such lines fit is to make the type size smaller before you invoke `\ListCodeFile` (you can do this using `\everyListing`). Note also that tab characters in the code file may not be treated exactly correctly. In the present implementation of  $\TeX$ sis they will simply be replaced with eight spaces. We hope to be able to improve how this macro deals with tabs in in a future release of  $\TeX$ sis, but it is

difficult to do it exactly right in all cases, so for now it may be best to change tabs to spaces in the source file if proper tab stops are needed. Most good editors (like emacs) already do this for you, so this should not pose much of a problem.

## 8.5. List Environments

When you want to make a list of things there are several ways to do it. The items in the list can be marked by a simple marker (like a bullet: ●), by a number or numbers and letters (as in an outline), or by some sort of descriptive text in the margin. In Plain T<sub>E</sub>X you would make all of these kinds of lists using the `\item` macro. The “list environments” described below are generalizations of `\item` for making these various kinds of lists:

<code>\itemize</code>	List of paragraphs marked by a bullet (●) or other symbol.
<code>\enumerate</code>	List of paragraphs labeled by numbers or by combinations of numbers and letters, as for an outline.
<code>\description</code>	List of items and paragraphs describing them.

In each list environment `\itm` is used to introduce each individual item. The environments are terminated with `\enditemize`, `\endenumerate` and `\enddescription`, respectively. The three different kinds of environments can be nested to produce a list with several levels. The indentation of and spacing above and below the list environments can be easily controlled. This is described in Section 8.5.4.

### 8.5.1. Itemized lists

`\itemize` produces paragraphs marked by bullets (●) or some other appropriate symbol; this is usually used for a short list with only a single level of nesting where the order either does not matter or is already contained in the items of the list. For example, `\itemize` was used to produce the list of sections of this manual which begins on page 2. The first few items in this list were produced by saying:

```

\itemize
\itm Sect.~\use{sect.intro}:
An introduction to \TeXsis\ and the philosophy behind the macros, and
instructions on how to begin using \TeXsis.
\itm Sect.~\use{sect.fonts}:
Selecting sizes and fonts of type, choosing single,
double, or triple spacing, and automatically handling
quotation marks.
\itm Sect.~\use{sect.eqns}:
Automatic numbering of equations, automatic sizing of
parentheses and brackets, and special symbols for
physics equations....

```

A paragraph begun by `\itm` is not indented beyond the new left margin, but paragraphs that follow are indented unless `\noindent` is specified (or if they also begin with `\itm`).

You can change the symbol used to mark each item in the list to be anything you want by creating your own definition of `\itemmark`. For example, if you want the symbol to be a `\square` you would define `\itemmark` to be

```
\def\itemmark{${\square}}
```

before invoking `\itemize`, or at least before the first `\itm`. An example is the following important checklist:<sup>17</sup>

- Event timer started (display: SINED)
- Antenna Aligned (display: SEELED)
- Oscillation overthruster armed (display: DELIVERED)

This was produced by saying:

```
\itemize
\def\itemmark{${\square}}
\itm    Event timer started (display: SINED)
\itm    Antenna Aligned (display: SEELED)
\itm    Oscillation overthruster armed (display: DELIVERED)
\enditemize
```

`\itemize` starts a new group, which is ended by the `\enditemize`, so in this example `\itemmark` reverts back to its previous definition when the list is finished. You can get a “check-mark” symbol instead of a square by replacing `\square` with `\surd`, or you can use any other symbol that suits you. Note though that in this example the `\square` is enclosed in math quotes — you will have to remember this for any symbol which is defined in math mode.

### 8.5.2. Enumerated lists

`\enumerate` produces numbered paragraphs, either with a single level or nested several levels deep, like so:

```
\tenpoint\parskip=0pt    % this just makes our examples smaller
\enumerate
\itm Paragraph 1.
\enumerate
\itm sub-paragraph 1a.
\enumerate
\itm sub-sub-paragraph 1a(i).
\itm sub-sub-paragraph 1a(ii).
\endenumerate
\itm sub-paragraph 1b.
\itm and so on...
\endenumerate
```

```

\itm Paragraph 2.
\itm and so on...
\endenumerate

```

This produces the enumerated list:

1. Paragraph 1.
  - 1.1. sub-paragraph 1a.
    - 1.1.1. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(i).
    - 1.1.2. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(ii).
  - 1.2. sub-paragraph 1b.
  - 1.3. and so on...
2. Paragraph 2.
3. and so on...

The default form for the paragraph numbering is called `\enumPoints`, which produces numbers of the form *ii.jj.kk*. You can also have the list printed in a standard outline format with a mixture of Roman numerals, letters, and Arabic numerals by saying `\enumOutline`. Doing so to the example above produces:

- I. Paragraph 1.
  - A. sub-paragraph 1a.
    - i. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(i).
    - ii. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(ii).
  - B. sub-paragraph 1b.
  - C. and so on...
- II. Paragraph 2.
- III. and so on...

Unless enclosed within a group, the `\enumPoints` or `\enumOutline` style selected remains in effect until it is changed. The punctuation following the item number is `\enummark`, which by default is a period (.) but which can be redefined by the user [for example, you can change it to `\rparen` to obtain numbering of the form “2)”). `\enummark` can also be used to change the spacing between the numbers and the text that follows.

A third enumeration style, called `\enumNumOutline`, is also available. Top level items are labeled by arabic numbers, the level below by lower case roman letters, and the level below that by lower case roman numerals. With `\enumNumOutline` the example above becomes:

1. Paragraph 1.
  - a. sub-paragraph 1a.
    - i. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(i).
    - ii. sub-sub-paragraph 1a(ii).
  - b. sub-paragraph 1b.
  - c. and so on...
2. Paragraph 2.
3. and so on...

If you prefer a different style of enumeration you can create your own `\enumWhatever` to use in place of `\enumPoint` or `\enumNumOutline`. To do so, copy the definition of `\enumPoints` or one of its brothers, along with the comments that go with them, from the file `TXSenvmt.tex` into a file called `TXSmods.tex` (see Appendix A) and then make the appropriate changes as described in those comments.

### 8.5.3. Lists Labeled by Text

`\description` is used to create a list of words or other items labeled by some text. The syntax is

```
\description{<sample text>}
\itm{<label 1>} Paragraph 1...
\itm{<label 2>} Paragraph 2...
\itm{...}
\enddescription
```

The argument `<sample text>` is not printed, but its length is used to determine the indentation for the labels on the items, so it should be the longest item, followed by some extra space. For example, the descriptions of the flush and centered environments at the beginning of this section of the manual were typeset with

```
\description{~flushright~\qqquad}
\itm{\CS{center}}
Center each line.
\itm{\CS{flushleft}}
Set each line flush left.
\itm{\CS{flushright}}
Set each line flush right.
\enddescription
```

since `\flushright` is the longest of the three items. (`\CS` is a special macro defined for this manual for printing control sequence names.) Each item in the list is separated by a `\parskip`, just as in `itemized` or `enumerated` lists.

If the label text for an item comes out wider than the space allowed, the text will usually be broken into several lines so that it will fit in the indented margin (if this is possible!). Saying `\singlelinetrue` will instead put the label text on a line by itself, above the item. `\singlelinefalse` is the default, but this manual has been printed with `\singlelinetrue`.

### 8.5.4. Spacing of List Environments

Each of the list environments described above is surrounded by the following skips:

```

\EnvTopskip      = \medskipamount      % space above the list
\EnvBottomskip  = \medskipamount      % space below the list
\EnvLeftskip    = 2\parindent          % left indent for the list
\EnvRightskip   = \parindent           % right margin moves in too

```

You can change these as you please to any legal T<sub>E</sub>X dimension. The space between items which are begun by `\itm` is taken from the `\parskip`. Since the list environment begins a group you can change the `\parskip` inside this group to control the spacing between `\itm`'s. For example, if you wanted no extra space between the items in the list you could say set the `\parskip` to zero, as in,

```

\itemize
\parskip=0pt   \def\itemmark{${\triangleright}}
\itm   Event timer started (display: SINED)
\itm   Antenna Aligned (display: SEELED)
\itm   Oscillation overthrustrer armed (display: DELIVERED)
\enditemize

```

which would produce:

- ▷ Event timer started (display: SINED)
- ▷ Antenna Aligned (display: SEELED)
- ▷ Oscillation overthrustrer armed (display: DELIVERED)

### 8.6. T<sub>E</sub>X example macros

Typing T<sub>E</sub>X examples can't be done in either the `\example` environment nor the `\Listing` environment, because the backslash must be turned into a simple printing character. There are several ways T<sub>E</sub>Xis allows you to show examples of T<sub>E</sub>X code. First, to display T<sub>E</sub>X instructions separately, use

```

\TeXexample    Prints like an \example, but verbatim in \tt type, with “|”
                made the escape character. Note that you must therefore say
                |endTeXexample to end the example, since “\” is no longer the
                escape character!

```

To display T<sub>E</sub>X instructions in running text use

```

\TeXquoteon    Make “|” a “TEX quote” so that everything between |'s is
                printed verbatim in \tt type.

\TeXquoteoff   Turns off “TEX quotes.”

```

All of the displayed examples in this document have been typed using `\TeXexample`, and many of the inline examples have been typed by putting `\TeXquoteon` at the beginning of the document and then typing `|\whatever ... |`. For both `\TeXexample` and `\TeXquoteon` the only special character is the escape character “|”. In particular one must type

```
\TeXexample
<TeX stuff>
|endTeXexample
```

with `|endTeXexample` instead of `\endTeXexample`. All other characters are set in `\tt` type without any interpretation. The input line breaks and spacing are respected, including any leading spaces on the lines. `TEX` commands can be used within a `\TeXexample` environment by typing `|macro` in place of `\macro`, `|bgroup` and `|egroup` in place of `{` and `}`, etc. In particular, a `|` can be obtained by typing `|char124`. If you want to display the results of a complicated macro inside the `\TeXexample` environment you should probably define a different macro to display these results and then invoke that macro inside the environment. For example, in this manual we have sometimes inserted “meta” constructions showing where to insert a particular piece of text by using a `\meta` macro which encloses its argument in angle brackets (see the example immediately above). But in a `\TeXexample` you cannot say “`|meta{TeX stuff}`,” because the “`{`” and “`}`” are no longer grouping characters. Instead you could define the temporary macro `\tmp` as

```
\def\tmp{\meta{TeX stuff}}
```

and then inside the `\TeXexample` environment simply type `|tmp` to insert the phrase “`<TeX stuff>`”.

The indentation and spacing of the `\TeXexample` environment are controlled by the same parameters that control the indentation of the list environments, as described in Sect. 8.5.4. The general method used by all of these macros to turn off `TEX`’s usual mechanism for interpreting special characters is discussed in *The T<sub>E</sub>Xbook*, p. 421ff. The `\begintt` and `\beginlines` macros described there are included in `TEXsis` for completeness.

## 9. Style Files and Specialized Formats

Section 6 described the basic layout of a  $\TeX$ sis document and the `\paper`, `\preprint`, `\Manuscript` and `\book` macros for typesetting simple documents. It is often necessary to modify the details of the layouts for such documents, particularly when submitting camera ready manuscripts for conference proceedings. Since  $\TeX$ sis is built on plain  $\TeX$ , you can of course use the full power of  $\TeX$  to format a document as you please. However,  $\TeX$ sis contains macros to produce documents in several of the common formats used in the physics community. These and other specialized formats are described in this section.

It would be very inefficient for  $\TeX$ sis to load the definitions of all of the possible document styles listed below when at most only one of them will be used.  $\TeX$ sis therefore puts these specialized definitions in files known as “style” files (which generally have filename extensions of “.txs”) and only loads the particular style file when it is needed. Besides saving space this also allows for quite a bit of flexibility, because it is easy to modify style files or to create new ones. For example, if the proceedings of a conference must be typeset in a particular way (as is often the case) then the commands to set-up a document in exactly the right way can be put in a style file and e-mailed to all conference participants. Another use of specialized style files is to define a `\thesis` format which conforms to the rules and regulations of a particular university.

### 9.1. Specialized Document Styles

The following styles for various conference proceeding formats, journals, and thesis formats are distributed with  $\TeX$ sis 2.18. Use these in place of `\paper` or `\preprint`. The name of the style file from which the definitions are loaded is shown in brackets.

<code>\AIPproceedings</code>	Similar to <code>\paper</code> , but specialized to the American Institute of Physics (AIP) format. [AIP.txs]
<code>\IEEEproceedings</code>	An IEEE format using oversized double column paper. See Section 11. [IEEE.txs]
<code>\IEEEreduced</code>	An IEEE format reduced to 75% of full size and printed with 9 pt. type for $8\frac{1}{2}$ in $\times$ 11 in paper. [IEEE.txs]
<code>\NorthHolland</code>	Format for producing camera-ready copy for proceedings published by North-Holland/Elsevier. This is a single column format with titles and authors left justified and in eleven point type. [Elsevier.txs]
<code>\NorthHollandTwo</code>	The North-Holland double column format for oversized paper. [Elsevier.txs]
<code>\nuclproc</code>	The “NUCLPROC” style for Nuclear Physics Proceedings. [nuclproc.txs]

<code>\WorldScientific</code>	Similar to <code>\paper</code> , but specialized to the World Scientific proceedings format. [ <code>WorldSci.txs</code> ]
<code>\PhysRev</code>	Emulates the page layout and appearance of the <i>Physical Review</i> . [ <code>PhysRev.txs</code> ]
<code>\PhysRevManuscript</code>	Similar to <code>\Manuscript</code> but customized for papers submitted to the <i>Physical Review</i> . [ <code>PhysRev.txs</code> ]
<code>\thesis</code>	Similar to <code>\book</code> , but for printing a thesis. The default <code>\thesis</code> format conforms to the requirements of the Yale Graduate School, but it can (and probably should) be modified for your own installation. [ <code>thesis.txs</code> ]

Other even more specialized styles are available, and some of them can be found on the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis anonymous ftp server, in the directory `/pub/texsis/styles`.

The IEEE and North Holland double column formats in the list above use the double column macros described in Sect. 11. For example, `\NorthHollandTwo` sets up a document with an overall width of 21.3 cm, a page length of 27.1 cm and a column width of 10.0 cm. (Note that this is just about as wide or a little wider than most small laser printers can print, so provisions have been made for shifting the printed page horizontally to print one column at a time if necessary.) A document printed with this format might have the following basic structure:

```

\textsis
\NorthHollandTwo % set up double columns
\titlepage      % but still single column mode

<title page material>

\endtitlepage   % ends the title material
\doublecolumns  % now start double column mode

<text of paper>

\enddoublecolumns % balance the final columns
\bye

```

Saying `\NorthHollandTwo` only defines the double column layout; it does not turn on double column mode. The title material is printed in single column format across the full page width, then the main body is printed in double column format once `\doublecolumns` appears. It is important to say `\enddoublecolumns` at the end of the document to balance the columns on the last page. Formatting text in balanced double columns can be quite tricky, so you should read Section 11 carefully before trying to use any of the double column macros.







































































## B.4. Revisions for Version 2.15

An index has been added to the manual, using the index making macros of `index.tex` and the MakeIndex program. We have included `index.tex` in the standard distribution of T<sub>E</sub>Xsis, but the only documentation at present is that contained in the source file.

*Section 1:* Added a separate file called `Example.tex` which contains a short example physics paper which uses the T<sub>E</sub>Xsis macros.

*Section 2:* Support added for `\scr` using Ralph Smith's Formal Script fonts, assuming that they are available.

*Section 2:* Added `\Footnote` to act like `\footnote` but with the text of the footnote singespaced and in 10 pt type. (The font can be changed by changing `\FootFont`.)

*Section 4:* Modified `\reference`, `\cite`, etc., to insert extra space after a reference following the end of a sentence.

*Section 6.3:* Added `\pagecheck` to `\section` and `\subsection`, etc. These macros skip to to a new page if less than `\sectionminspace` space is left on the page. The initial setting for `\sectionminspace` is `0.25\vsiz`. Also made the skips before the titles of sections and subsections variables `\sectionskip` and `\subsectionskip` in place of the previous fixed values.

*Section 9:* The definition of `\thesis` has been moved to the style file `thesis.txs` so that it is easier to make local changes. The `\thesis` command automatically loads from this file.

*Section 9:* Added the style file `PhysRev.txs` containing a definition of `\PhysRev` for a Physical Review format. A page proof layout should be available in the future.

*Section 7:* Added `epsf.tex` to the standard T<sub>E</sub>Xsis distribution and included documentation for `\epsfbox` and related macros.

*Section 7:* The macros for making lists of figures and tables have been improved (along the lines of the new table of contents macros).

*Section 10:* Modified `\formletters` to have a complete `\letterhead` macro or even more complicated things as one of the arguments, rather than just the phone number. This allows you to create more complicated letterheads. Note also that the order of arguments is now reversed from what it was previously! The first argument is the `\letterhead` stuff (it gets done *before* the address) and the second argument is the name of the text file (it controls what is printed *after* the address).

*Section 11:* Introduced `\longequation` and `\endlongequation` for equations which span both columns. The definitions of these can vary from style to style, so they may or may not include a `\leftcolrule` and `\rightcolrule`.

*Section 12:* Added this section to the manual to explain miscellaneous useful macros which don't fit anywhere else.

*Section 12:* Added `\Ignore` and `\endIgnore` to ignore large blocks of text. This is slightly more clever than `\comment`, which remains available.

## B.5. Revisions for Version 2.14

*Section 2:* `\TrueDoubleSpacing` generates a document with 2 times the normal spacing, in contrast to `\doublespaced`, which gives 1.5 times the normal spacing.

*Section 3:* Fixed a bug in `\bordermatrix`.

*Section 4:* An error which occurred if `\endreference` was followed by additional text on the same line has been fixed.

*Section 4:* Extra space is now inserted after a reference number which follows a period.

*Section 4:* `\refrange` can now be used with `\reference` or `\cite`; the correct numbers and ranges separated by commas are printed.

*Section 8:* The internal spacing mechanism for environments has been modified to work with arbitrary `\baselineskip` and `\parskip` values. Some minor changes have been made to the center and flush environments.

*Section 8:* The `\Listing` environment has been modified so that the characters `{}` `%` `&` `()` `$` `#` and `|` are just ordinary printable characters and so that `\\` gives a printed `\`.

*Section 8:* `\@startenv` and `\@endenv` to begin and end environments have been replaced with `\begEnv` and `\endEnv`, which are accessible to the user because they do not have `@` in their names.

*Section 7.4:* The `\ruledtable` macros can now use `\tabskip` glue to produce a table of arbitrary width. Spacing of the tables has been improved and made more robust.

*Section 6.3:* `\addsectioncont` has been replaced with `\addTOC`, i.e., “add to Table Of Contents.” The new macro is simpler and produces better-looking output.

*Section 6.3:* Spacing such as `\singlespaced` placed after the `\texsis` initialization now sets the spacing for the entire document; the explicit spacing commands in `\abstract`, etc., have been removed.

*Section 6.3:* A macro `\setSectionID` has been added to allow one to place a figure or table for one section in a different section if necessary and still get the correct number.

*Section 9:* The `\NorthHolland` format now gives the more common single-column North-Holland/Elsevier format. `\NorthHollandTwo` produces the previous double-column oversized format. `\Manuscript` produces a preprint with true double spacing as requested by The Physical Review.

*Section 9:* `\endtitle`, `\endauthor`, etc., can now be omitted from the titlepage material, since `\title`, `\author`, etc., now close the previous mode automatically.

*Section 10:* Letters and memos can now be ended with `\bye`.

## B.6. Revisions for Version 2.13

*Section 2:* Italic fonts are now available in large sizes, e.g. for `\slides`. Math italic bold fonts have been added for titles.

*Section 3:* By default parentheses and brackets are now ordinary characters except in math mode and so can be used, e.g., in file names. As a result, automatic sizing of parentheses works only in *displayed* equations. You can restore the old behavior by saying `\onparens` at the beginning of the document.

*Section 4:* The text for references is now written with `\unexpandedwrite`. In practice this means that references can contain almost anything, including a `\Ref`.

*Section 4:* The `\journal` macro was added to make it easier to create standard citations to journal articles, and to be able to switch between the American and European styles.

*Section 4:* Superscript references are now in `\citestyle`, which is initially set to `\scriptstyle` but can be changed.

*Section 7.3:* A way was created to save all figure and table insertions until the end of the document with `\FiguresLast`, and then print them with `\PrintFigures`, and similarly for tables.

*Section 9:* The `\NorthHolland` document layout was added to produce camera-ready copy for Proceedings published by North-Holland/Elsevier. This is a double column format with titles left justified and eleven point type.

Saying `\singlespaced` immediately after `\texsis` or its equivalent will now make the whole document single spaced.

*Section 11:* The double column macros have been modified so that removing the `\setdoublecolumns` will produce a single column document.

## B.7. Revisions for Version 2.12

*Section 1.2:* A new command `\texsis` performs the initialization, and calling it more than once no longer causes an error. `\inittexsis` remains as a synonym.

*Section 2:* `\ninepoint`, `\twentypoint`, and `\twentyfourpoint` commands have been added to select these sizes. The 9 pt. size is really too small for a standard laser printer, but it is useful if you must print IEEE format on 8.5 in  $\times$  11 in paper. The large sizes are useful for slides and other special purposes.

*Section 7.3:* The table and figure insertion macros has been extensively modified, and the syntax has been changed. `\topTable`, etc., have been replaced by `\table`, etc., which make the insertion and define the number for the tag. `\Tbl` and `\Fig` use the number. References to tables defined later in the paper are satisfied using the `.aux` file, so `\TOPTABLE`, etc., are no longer needed. The old names remain as synonyms but their use is discouraged.

*Section 7.3:* `\ruledtable` and many associated macros have been added to make complex ruled tables, including those with entries spanning more than one column. `\Tablebody` is still available, but the new macros are much more flexible and should be used instead.

*Section 7.3:* New macros have been added to list figures and tables.

*Section 9:* New formats have been added. `\WorldScientific` and `\IEEEreduced` make conference proceedings in World Scientific format and in IEEE format at 75% of full size. `\referee` is based on the memo format and can be used for referee reports. `\slides` uses large type to make transparencies for overhead projectors and similar material.

*Section 9:* An `\authors` macro for papers with multiple authors and facilities for putting footnotes on titles have been added.

*Section 9:* `\bookpagenumbers` causes odd page numbers to be placed in the upper right corner and even ones in the upper left corner. Additional information on headlines is given.

*Section 10:* The form letter macros have been rewritten. The syntax is the same except that `\v` has been replaced by `\V` to avoid conflict with the Plain TeX accent. Also, `\V` now also works with `\formlabels`.

*Section 10:* The new `\referee` format is described.

*Section 11:* The double column format has been extended to handle floating insertions. `\topinsert` and `\pageinsert` produce insertions within a column, while `\widetopinsert` and `\widepageinsert` produce insertions across both columns.

*Section 5:* The tagging mechanism has been changed to add an `@` before and after the name. The practical effect is that using the name of a defined control sequence like `book` for a tag no longer produces an error.

## C. Font Tables

The Computer Modern fonts that are used either by Plain  $\text{\TeX}$  or by  $\text{\TeXsis}$  and the required sizes for each are listed in Table C.1. The `cmmb10` and `cmbsy10` fonts may not exist in all installations, but they will not be loaded unless `\mib` is used, so they are not required. The command `\printfont{<font>}` can be used to print a table of the characters in any `<font>`, e.g.,

```
\printfont{cmr10}
```

A separate file called `Fonts.tex` is included with the standard distribution of  $\text{\TeXsis}$ . Running `Fonts.tex` through  $\text{\TeXsis}$  will produce tables of all of the fonts used by your installation of  $\text{\TeXsis}$ .

Most versions of  $\text{\TeX}$  now use “CM” (Computer Modern) fonts, but some still use the older “AM” (Almost Modern) fonts. If you have problems with the fonts, try editing `TXSfonts.tex`, replacing all occurrences of `=cm` with `=am` and then recompiling  $\text{\TeXsis}$ . Mixing the two types of fonts will produce errors.

**Table C.1:** Fonts used in  $\text{\TeXsis}$ , with the design size names and the required sizes in points.

Base Name	Description	Sizes (pt)
<code>cmr10</code>	Roman	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmti10</code>	Text italic	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmsl10</code>	Slanted	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmbx10</code>	Roman bold	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmmi10</code>	Math italic	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmsy10</code>	Math symbol	5 7 9 10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmex10</code>	Math extended	10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmtt10</code>	Typewriter	10 11 12
<code>cmss10</code>	Sans serif	10 11 12 14
<code>cmmb10</code>	Math italic bold	10 11 12 14 16 20 24
<code>cmbsy10</code>	Bold symbol	10 11 12 14 16 20 24

## Acknowledgments

$\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ sis began as a collection of macros used by E. Myers<sup>20</sup> to typeset his Ph.D. thesis.<sup>21</sup> These were in turn developed from a collection of macros for creating technical reports known as TechRpt. We don't know for sure who wrote TechRpt, but the manual we used was written by W. Groppe<sup>22</sup> so he may be the author of the macros as well. The original  $\text{B}_{\text{I}}\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$  support, including `texsis.bst`, was written by Bernd Dammann.

We wish to thank Isabel Harrity for her patience in trying this code while it was originally being developed. Various other people have also given us suggestions, criticisms, and comments regarding the code and documentation for  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ sis; among them we would like to thank: Vladimir Alexiev, Betty Armstrong, Akif Baysal, Richard Brown, Bernd Dammann, Vickie Darnell, Leo Eskin, Mira Franke, Ralf Gaertner, Romano Giannetti, Don Groom, Donovan Hall, Scott Hannahs, Diab Jerius, Arik Kapulkin, Kate Logan, Bob Love, Michael Morrison, T.C. Pierce, Jeroen Rommers, Norbert Roth, Kurt Stump, David Suárez de Lis, Anil Trivedi, and Samir Varma. Additional suggestions are welcome and will be incorporated in future versions of  $\text{T}_{\text{E}}\text{X}$ sis when possible.

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