

# Essential L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X

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(extensively modified by Jon Beck)

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## 1 Introduction

This document<sup>1</sup> is an attempt to give you all the essential information that you will need in order to use the L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Document Preparation System. Only very basic features are covered, and a vast amount of detail has been omitted. In a document of this size it is not possible to include many esoteric details. If you intend to make extensive use of the system you should refer to a more complete reference. Attempting to produce highly complex documents using only the information found below will require much more work than it should, and will probably produce a less than satisfactory result. This information will, however, prove satisfactory for the majority of college writing.

The main reference for L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is *The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X User's Guide and Reference Manual* by Leslie Lamport. This contains much more information that you will to know about the system if you use L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X for serious work.

## 2 How Does L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Work?

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is a markup language, as is HTML. In order to use L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X you create a source file containing both the text that you wish to print and instructions that explain the logical structure of your text. You create this file using a text editor. You can give the file any name you like, but it should end “.tex” to identify the file's contents. You then submit the file to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X for processing, and it creates a new file which is a typeset document; this has the same name as your source file but the “.tex” extension is replaced by “.pdf”.

Rather than encourage you to dictate exactly how your document should be formatted, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X instructions allow you describe its *logical structure*. For example, you can think of a quotation embedded within your text as an element of this logical structure: you would normally expect a quotation to be displayed in a recognizable style to set it off from the rest of the text. A human typesetter would recognize the quotation and handle it accordingly, but since L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is only a computer program it requires your help. There are therefore L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands that allow you to identify quotations and as a result allow L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to typeset them correctly.

Fundamental to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X is the idea of a *document class* that determines the overall structure of a document. L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X provides standard document classes that describe how standard logical structures

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(such as quotations) should be formatted. You may have to supplement these classes by specifying the formatting of logical structures peculiar to your document, such as mathematical formulae. You can even create an entirely new class, though you should know the basic principles of typographical design, and be very familiar with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, before attempting this.

There are a number of good reasons for concentrating on the logical structure rather than on the appearance of a document. It prevents you from making elementary typographical errors in the mistaken idea that they improve the aesthetics of a document—you should remember that the primary function of document design is to make documents easier to read, not prettier. It is more flexible, since you only need to alter the definition of the quotation style to change the appearance of all the quotations in a document. Most important of all, logical design encourages better writing. A visual system makes it easier to create visual effects rather than a coherent structure; logical design encourages you to concentrate on your writing and makes it harder to use formatting as a substitute for good writing.

```

1 % small.tex
2 % USE THIS FILE AS A MODEL FOR MAKING YOUR OWN LaTeX INPUT FILE.
3 % EVERYTHING TO THE RIGHT OF A % IS A REMARK TO YOU AND IS IGNORED
4 % BY LaTeX.
5 %
6 % WARNING! DO NOT TYPE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING 10 CHARACTERS EXCEPT AS
7 % DIRECTED:      & $ # % _ { } ^ ~ \
8 \documentclass[11pt]{article} % YOUR INPUT FILE MUST CONTAIN THESE
9 \begin{document}              % TWO LINES PLUS THE \end COMMAND AT
10                               % THE END
11
12 \section{Simple Text}          % THIS COMMAND MAKES A SECTION TITLE.
13
14 Words are separated by one or more spaces. Paragraphs are
15 separated by one or more blank lines. The output is not affected
16 by adding extra spaces or extra blank lines to the input file.
17
18 Double quotes are typed like this: ``quoted text''.
19 Single quotes are typed like this: `single-quoted text'.
20
21 Long dashes are typed as three hyphen characters---like this.
22
23 Emphasized text is typed like this: \emph{this is emphasized text}.
24
25 \subsection{A Warning or Two}  % THIS MAKES A SUBSECTION TITLE.
26
27 If you get too much space after a mid-sentence period---abbreviations
28 like etc.\ and Mr.\ are the common culprits---then type a backslash followed by
29 a space after the period, as in this sentence.
30 Remember, don't type the 10 special characters (such as dollar sign and
31 backslash) except as directed! The following seven are printed by
32 typing a backslash in front of them: \$ \% \& \# \% \_ \{ and \}.
33 The manual tells how to make other symbols.
34 \end{document}                % THE INPUT FILE ENDS LIKE THIS

```

Figure 1: A Sample  $\text{\LaTeX}$  Source File

### 3 A Sample $\text{\LaTeX}$ File

Have a look at the example  $\text{\LaTeX}$  file in Figure 1. It is a modified copy of standard  $\text{\LaTeX}$  example file `small.tex`. The line numbers down the left-hand side are not part of the file, but have been added to make it easier to identify various portions. Also have a look at Figure 2 which shows the result of processing this file.

#### 3.1 Running Text

Most documents consist almost entirely of running text—words formed into sentences, which are in turn formed into paragraphs—and the example file is no exception. Describing running text poses no problems, you just type it in naturally. In the output that it produces,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  will fill lines and adjust the spacing between words to give tidy left and right margins. The spacing and distribution of the words in your input file will have no effect at all on the eventual output. Any number of spaces in your input file are treated as a single space by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ ; it also regards the end of each line as a space between words (see lines 15–17). A new paragraph is indicated by a blank line in your input file, so don't leave any blank lines unless you really wish to start a paragraph.

---

# 1 Simple Text

Words are separated by one or more spaces. Paragraphs are separated by one or more blank lines. The output is not affected by adding extra spaces or extra blank lines to the input file.

Double quotes are typed like this: “quoted text”. Single quotes are typed like this: ‘single-quoted text’.

Long dashes are typed as three hyphen characters—like this.

Emphasized text is typed like this: *this is emphasized text*.

## 1.1 A Warning or Two

If you get too much space after a mid-sentence period—abbreviations like etc. and Mr. are the common culprits—then type a backslash followed by a space after the period, as in this sentence. Remember, don’t type the 10 special characters (such as dollar sign and backslash) except as directed! The following seven are printed by typing a backslash in front of them: \$ & # % \_ { and }. The manual tells how to make other symbols.

---

Figure 2: The result of processing the sample file

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X reserves a number of the less common keyboard characters for its own use. The ten characters

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

should not appear as part of your text, because if they do L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will get confused.

## 3.2 L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X Commands

There are a number of words in the file that start ‘\’ (see lines 8, 9 and 12). These are L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X *commands* and they describe the structure of your document. There are a number of things that you should realise about these commands:

- All L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands consist of a ‘\’ followed by one or more characters.
- L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X commands are case sensitive. \BEGIN is *not* the same as \begin.
- Some commands are placed within your text. These are typically used to indicate logical structure. The \emph command is used like this to indicate text that is to be emphasized . The text to be emphasized, the argument of the command, is enclosed between ‘{’ and ‘}’.
- There are other commands that look like

\command{text}

In this case the text is called the “argument” of the command. The \section command is like this (see line 12). Sometimes you have to use curly braces ‘{ }’ to enclose the argument, sometimes square brackets ‘[ ]’, and sometimes both at once. There is method behind this apparent madness, but for the time being you should be sure to copy the commands exactly as given.

- When a command’s name is made up entirely of letters, you must make sure that the end of the command is marked by something that isn’t a letter. This is usually either the opening bracket around the command’s argument, or it’s a space. When it’s a space, that space is always ignored by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . We will see later that this can sometimes be a problem.

### 3.3 Overall Structure

There are some  $\text{\LaTeX}$  commands that must appear in every document. The actual text of the document always starts with a `\begin{document}` command and ends with an `\end{document}` command (see lines 9 and 34). Anything that comes after the `\end{document}` command is ignored. Everything that comes before the `\begin{document}` command is called the *preamble*. The preamble can only contain  $\text{\LaTeX}$  commands that help to set up the document’s environment and define its style.

One command that must appear in the preamble is the `\documentclass` command (see line 8). This command specifies the overall style for the document. Our example file is a simple technical document, and uses the `article` class, modified to print in eleven-point type. There are other styles that you can use, as you will find out later on.

### 3.4 Other Things to Look At

$\text{\LaTeX}$  can print both opening and closing quote characters, and can manage either of these either single or double. To do this it uses the two quote characters from your keyboard: ‘ and ’. You type these characters once for single quote (see line 19), and twice for double quotes (see line 18). The double quote character " itself is almost never used. If you are using emacs as your editor, you can use the double quote key on the keyboard, and emacs automatically knows to put in two single quote characters slanted in the proper direction.

$\text{\LaTeX}$  can produce three different kinds of dashes. A long dash, for use as a punctuation symbol, is typed as three hyphen characters in a row, like this ‘---’ (see line 21). A shorter dash, used to indicate a range as in ‘10–20’, is typed as two hyphen characters in a row, while a single hyphen character is simply a hyphen for compound words, as in “auto-correct”.

It’s very easy to make footnotes<sup>2</sup> in  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . This is very useful for college writers.

From time to time you will need to include one or more of the  $\text{\LaTeX}$  special symbols in your text. Seven of them can be printed by making them into commands by preceeding them by backslash (see line 32). The remaining three symbols can be produced by more advanced commands, as can symbols that do not appear on your keyboard such as †, ‡, §, £, ©, ¤ and ♣.

It is sometimes useful to include comments in a  $\text{\LaTeX}$  source file, to remind you of what you have done or why you did it, or to “comment out” a section of text. Everything to the right of a % sign is ignored by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ , and so it can be used to introduce a comment.

## 4 Document Styles and Style Options

There are a number of standard document classes available in  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . Four of them are:

`article` intended for short documents and articles for publication. Articles do not have chapters, and when `\maketitle` is used to generate a title (see Section 9) it appears at the top of the first page rather than on a page of its own. Most school papers use the article class.

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<sup>2</sup>This is a footnote, which is somewhat different than a parenthetical statement. You use footnotes a lot in college writing.

**report** intended for longer technical documents. It is similar to **article**, except that it contains chapters and the title appears on a page of its own. A major research paper, perhaps over 50 pages in length, might use this class.

**book** intended as a basis for book publication. Page layout is adjusted assuming that the output will eventually be used to print on both sides of the paper. If you write a textbook you would probably use this class.

**letter** intended for producing business letters. This style will allow you to produce all the elements of a well laid out letter: addresses, date, signature, etc.

These standard classes can be modified by a number of *style options*. They appear in square brackets after the `\documentclass` command. Only one class can ever be used but you can have more than one style option, in which case they are separated by commas. The standard style options are:

**11pt** prints the document using eleven-point type for the running text rather than the ten-point type normally used. Eleven-point type is about ten percent larger than ten-point.

**12pt** prints the document using twelve-point type for the running text rather than the ten-point type normally used. Twelve-point type is about twenty percent larger than ten-point.

**twoside** adjusts the margins so that documents in the **article** or **report** styles will be formatted for printing on both sides of the paper. This is the default for the **book** style.

**twocolumn** produces two columns on each page.

**titlepage** causes the `\maketitle` command to generate a title on a separate page for documents in the **article** class. A separate page is always used in both the **report** and **book** classes.

## 5 Environments

We mentioned earlier the idea of identifying a quotation to L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X so that it could arrange to typeset it correctly. To do this you enclose the quotation between the commands `\begin{quotation}` and `\end{quotation}`. This is an example of a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X construction called an *environment*. A number of special effects are obtained by putting text into particular environments.

### 5.1 Quotations

There are two environments for quotations: **quote** and **quotation**. **quote** is used either for a short quotation or for a sequence of short quotations separated by blank lines:

```
US presidents ... pithy remarks:
\begin{quote}
The buck stops here.

I am not a crook.
\end{quote}
```

```
US presidents have been known for their pithy
remarks:

The buck stops here.

I am not a crook.
```

Use the **quotation** environment for quotations that consist of more than one paragraph. Paragraphs in the input are separated by blank lines as usual:

Here is some advice to remember:

```
\begin{quotation}
Environments for making
...other things as well.
```

```
Many problems
...environments.
\end{quotation}
```

Here is some advice to remember:

Environments for making quotations can be used for other things as well.

Many problems can be solved by novel applications of existing environments.

## 5.2 Centering and Flushing

Text can be centered on the page by putting it within the `center` environment, and it will appear flush against the left or right margins if it is placed within the `flushleft` or `flushright` environments.

Text within these environments will be formatted in the normal way, in particular the ends of the lines that you type are just regarded as spaces. To indicate a “newline” you need to type the `\\` command. For example:

```
\begin{center}
one
two
three \\
four \\
five
\end{center}
```

one two three  
four  
five

## 5.3 Lists

There are three environments for constructing lists. In each one each new item is begun with an `\item` command. In the `itemize` environment the start of each item is given a marker; in the `enumerate` environment each item is marked by a number. These environments can be nested within each other in which case the amount of indentation used is adjusted accordingly:

```
\begin{itemize}
\item Itemized lists are handy.
\item However, don't forget
  \begin{enumerate}
    \item The 'item' command.
    \item The 'end' command.
  \end{enumerate}
\end{itemize}
```

- Itemized lists are handy.
- However, don't forget
  1. The 'item' command.
  2. The 'end' command.

The third list making environment is `description`. In a description you specify the item labels inside square brackets after the `\item` command. For example:

```
Three animals that you should
know about are:
\begin{description}
\item[gnat] A small animal...
\item[gnu] A large animal...
\item[armadillo] A different animal.
\end{description}
```

Three animals that you should know about are:

**gnat** A small animal that causes no end of trouble.

**gnu** A large animal that causes no end of trouble.

**armadillo** A different animal.

## 5.4 Tables

Because  $\text{\LaTeX}$  will almost always convert a sequence of spaces into a single space, there are special environments for laying out tables. See what happens in this example

|                                |                |                           |
|--------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| <code>\begin{flushleft}</code> |                | Income Expenditure Result |
| Income Expenditure Result \\\  | 20s 0d 19s 11d | happiness                 |
| 20s 0d 19s 11d happiness \\\   | 20s 0d 20s 1d  | misery                    |
| 20s 0d 20s 1d misery \\\       |                |                           |
| <code>\end{flushleft}</code>   |                |                           |

The `tabbing` environment can overcome this problem. Within it you set tabstops and tab to them much like was done on typewriters. Tabstops are set with the `\=` command, and the `\>` command moves to the next stop. The `\\` command is used to separate each line. A line that ends `\kill` produces no output, and can be used as a template to set tabstops:

|                                   |                           |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <code>\begin{tabbing}</code>      | Income Expenditure Result |
| Income \=Expenditure \= \kill     | 20s 0d 19s 11d Happiness  |
| Income \>Expenditure \>Result \\\ | 20s 0d 20s 1d Misery      |
| 20s 0d \>19s 11d \>Happiness \\\  |                           |
| 20s 0d \>20s 1d \>Misery \\\      |                           |
| <code>\end{tabbing}</code>        |                           |

Unlike a physical typewriter's tab key, the `\>` command always moves to the next tabstop in sequence, even if this means moving to the left. This can cause text to be overwritten if the gap between two tabstops is too small.

## 5.5 Verbatim Output

Sometimes you will want text to appear in a monospaced font with spaces and line breaks perserved. For example, you might want to include part of a computer program. Not only do you want L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to stop playing around with the layout of your text, you also want to be able to type all the characters on your keyboard without confusing L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. The `verbatim` environment has this effect:

|   |   |
|---|---|
| The section of program in question is:  | The section of program in question is:  |
| <code>\begin{verbatim}</code>           | <code>{ this finds %a &amp; %b }</code> |
| <code>{ this finds %a &amp; %b }</code> |   |
| for i in 1 .. 27 loop                   | for i in 1 .. 27 loop                   |
| table(i) := fn(i);                      | table(i) := fn(i);                      |
| process(i);                             | process(i);                             |
| end loop; <code>\end{verbatim}</code>   | end loop;                               |

## 6 Fonts and Sizes

### 6.1 Font Commands

L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X chooses the appropriate font and font size based on the logical structure of the document (sections, footnotes, etc.) In some cases, you may want to change the fonts and sizes “by hand”. To do this, you can use one of the commands listed below. The actual size of each font is a design decision and depends on the document class and its options.

We have already come across the `\emph` command for changing typeface. Here is a list of the most common typefaces:

|                                      |                                     |                                 |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <code>\textrm</code> Roman           | <code>\textit</code> <i>Italic</i>  | <code>\textsc</code> SMALL CAPS |
| <code>\emph</code> <i>Emphatic</i>   | <code>\textsl</code> <i>Slanted</i> | <code>\texttt</code> Typewriter |
| <code>\textbf</code> <b>Boldface</b> | <code>\textsf</code> Sans Serif     |                                 |



In addition to the typeface commands, there are a set of commands that alter the size of the type. These commands are:

|                            |                          |                     |                    |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| <code>\tiny</code>         | <code>\small</code>      | <code>\large</code> | <code>\huge</code> |
| <code>\scriptsize</code>   | <code>\normalsize</code> | <code>\Large</code> | <code>\Huge</code> |
| <code>\footnotesize</code> |                          | <code>\LARGE</code> |                    |

Remember, however, that the goal of  $\text{\LaTeX}$  is to free the author from being concerned about the *appearance* of the result and instead to concentrate on its *content*. Use the commands in this section sparingly!

## 7 Sectioning Commands and Tables of Contents

Technical documents, like this one, are often divided into sections. Each section has a heading containing a title and a number for easy reference.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  has a series of commands that will allow you to identify different sorts of sections. Once you have done this  $\text{\LaTeX}$  takes on the responsibility of laying out the title and of providing the numbers.

The commands that you can use are:

|                       |                             |                            |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| <code>\chapter</code> | <code>\subsection</code>    | <code>\paragraph</code>    |
| <code>\section</code> | <code>\subsubsection</code> | <code>\subparagraph</code> |

The naming of these last two is unfortunate, since they do not really have anything to do with ‘paragraphs’ in the normal sense of the word; they are just lower levels of section. In most document styles, headings made with `\paragraph` and `\subparagraph` are not numbered. `\chapter` is not available in document class `article`. The commands should be used in the order given, since sections are numbered within chapters, subsections within sections, etc.

Including the command `\tableofcontents` in your document will cause a contents list to be included, containing information collected from the various sectioning commands. You will notice that each time your document is run through  $\text{\LaTeX}$  the table of contents is always made up of the headings from the previous version of the document. This is because  $\text{\LaTeX}$  collects information for the table as it processes the document, and then includes it the next time it is run. This can sometimes mean that the document has to be processed through  $\text{\LaTeX}$  twice to get a correct table of contents.

## 8 Producing Special Symbols

You can include in your  $\text{\LaTeX}$  document a wide range of symbols that do not appear on your keyboard. For a start, you can add an accent to any letter:

|                     |                    |                    |                     |                     |
|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| <code>\`{o}</code>  | <code>\~{o}</code> | <code>\v{o}</code> | <code>\c{o}</code>  | <code>\' {o}</code> |
| <code>\={o}</code>  | <code>\H{o}</code> | <code>\d{o}</code> | <code>\^ {o}</code> | <code>\. {o}</code> |
| <code>\t{oo}</code> | <code>\b{o}</code> |                    |                     |                     |
| <code>\" {o}</code> | <code>\u{o}</code> |                    |                     |                     |

A number of other symbols are available, and can be used by including the following commands:

|   |                    |     |                     |                                 |                         |
|---|--------------------|-----|---------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| † | <code>\dag</code>  | §   | <code>\S</code>     | ©                               | <code>\copyright</code> |
| ‡ | <code>\ddag</code> | ¶   | <code>\P</code>     | £                               | <code>\pounds</code>    |
| œ | <code>\oe</code>   | Œ   | <code>\OE</code>    | æ                               | <code>\AE</code>        |
| Æ | <code>\AE</code>   | å   | <code>\aa</code>    | Å                               | <code>\AA</code>        |
| ø | <code>\o</code>    | Ø   | <code>\O</code>     | ı                               | <code>\l</code>         |
| Ł | <code>\E</code>    | ł   | <code>\ss</code>    | ˆ                               | <code>?^</code>         |
| ı | <code>!^</code>    | ... | <code>\ldots</code> | L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X | <code>\LaTeX</code>     |

There is also a `\today` command that prints the current date. When you use these commands remember that L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X will ignore any spaces that follow them, so that you can type ‘`\pounds 20`’ to get ‘£20’. However, if you type ‘`\LaTeX is wonderful`’ you will get ‘L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>Xis wonderful’—notice the lack of space after L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. To overcome this problem you can follow any of these commands by a pair of empty curly braces and then any spaces that you wish to include, and you will see that `\LaTeX{} really is wonderful!` (L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X really is wonderful!).

Finally, L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X ‘math’ mode, normally used to layout mathematical formulae, gives access to an even larger range of symbols, including the upper and lower case greek mathematical alphabet, calligraphic letters, mathematical operators and relations, arrows and a whole lot more. As an example, consider:

$$\int_b^a f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{e^x + 1}{2x^{e-1} - 1}$$

which was produced with: `[\int^a_b f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{e^x + 1}{2x^{e-1}-1}]`  
Try doing that in Word! In L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X, it is as easy as  $\pi$ .

## 9 Titles

Most documents have a title. To title a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X document, you include the following commands in your document, usually just after `begin{document}`.

```
\title{required title}
\author{required author}
\date{required date}
\maketitle
```

If there are several authors, then their names should be separated by `\and`; they can also be separated by `\\` if you want them to be centred on different lines. If the `\date` command is left out, then the current date will be printed.

|   |   |
|---|---|
| <code>\title{Essential \LaTeX}</code>       | Essential L <sup>A</sup> T <sub>E</sub> X |
| <code>\author{J Warbrick\and J Beck}</code> |   |
| <code>\date{\today}</code>                  | J Warbrick J Beck                         |
| <code>\maketitle</code>                     | August 6, 2020                            |

The exact appearance of the title varies depending on the document class. In **report** and **book** classes the title appears on a page of its own. In the **article** class it normally appears at the top of the first page, the style option `titlepage` will alter this (see Section 4).

## 10 Letters

Producing letters is simple with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. To do this you use the document class *letter*. You can make any number of letters with a single input file. Your name and address, which are likely to

be the same for all letters, are given once at the top of the file. Each letter is produced by a *letter* environment, having the name and address of the recipient as its argument. The letter itself begins with an `\opening` command to generate the salutation.

The letter ends with a `\closing` command, you can use the commands `\encl` and `\cc` to generate lists of enclosures and people to whom you are sending copies. Any text that follows the `\closing` must be preceded by a `\ps` command. This command produces no text—you’ll have to type “P.S.” yourself—but is needed to format the additional text correctly.

Perhaps an example will make this clearer:

```
\documentclass{letter}
\begin{document}
\address{1234 Avenue of the Armadillos \\
        Gnu York, G.Y. 56789}
\signature{R. (Ma) Dillo \\ Director of Cuisine}
\begin{letter}{G. Nathaniel Picking \\
        Acme Exterminators \\
        Illinois}
\opening{Dear Nat,}

I'm afraid that the armadillo problem is still with us.
I did everything ...

... and I hope that you can get rid of the nasty
beasts this time.

\closing{Best Regards,}
\cc{Jimmy Carter\\Richard M. Nixon}
\end{letter}

\end{document}
```

## 11 Errors

When you create a new source code file for  $\text{\LaTeX}$  you will probably make mistakes. Everybody does, and it’s nothing to be worried about. As with most computer programs, there are two sorts of mistakes that you can make: those that  $\text{\LaTeX}$  notices and those that it doesn’t. To take a rather silly example, since  $\text{\LaTeX}$  doesn’t understand what you are saying it isn’t going to be worried if you misspell some of the words in your text. You will just have to accurately proof-read your printed output. On the other hand, if you misspell one of the environment names in your file then  $\text{\LaTeX}$  won’t know what you want it to do.

When this sort of thing happens,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  prints an error message on your terminal screen and then stops and waits for you to take some action. Unfortunately, the error messages that it produces are rather user-unfriendly and not a little frightening. Nevertheless, if you know where to look they will probably tell you where the error is and went wrong.

Consider what would happen if you mistyped `\begin{itemize}` so that it became instead `\begin{itemie}`. When  $\text{\LaTeX}$  processes this instruction, it displays the following on your terminal:

```
... various other messages ...
! LaTeX Error: Environment itemie undefined.

See the LaTeX manual or LaTeX Companion for explanation.
Type H <return> for immediate help.
```

```
...
1.261 \begin{itemie}
?
```

After typing the ‘?’  $\text{\LaTeX}$  stops and waits for you to tell it what to do.

The first two lines of the message just tell you that the error was detected by  $\text{\LaTeX}$ . The third line, the one that starts ‘!’ is the *error indicator*. It tells you what the problem is, though until you have had some experience of  $\text{\LaTeX}$  this may not mean a lot to you. In this case it is just telling you that it doesn’t recognize an environment called `itemie`. The next two lines tell you what  $\text{\LaTeX}$  was doing when it found the error, they are irrelevant at the moment and can be ignored. The final line is called the *error locator*, and is a copy of the line from your file that caused the problem. It start with a line number to help you to find it in your file, and if the error was in the middle of a line it will be shown broken at the point where  $\text{\LaTeX}$  realized that there was an error.  $\text{\LaTeX}$  can sometimes pass the point where the real error is before discovering that something is wrong, but it doesn’t usually get very far.

At this point you could do several things. Usually the best thing to do, however, is just to press “q” and the return key. This will tell  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to quit, then you go and fix the error and try again.

If you look at the line that caused the error it’s normally obvious what the problem was. If you can’t work out what your problem is look at the hints below, and if they don’t help consult Chapter 6 of the manual. It contains a list of all of the error messages that you are likely to encounter together with some hints as to what may have caused them.

Some of the most common mistakes that cause errors are

- A misspelled command or environment name.
- Improperly matched ‘{’ and ‘}’—remember that they must always come in pairs.
- Trying to use one of the ten special characters # \$ % & \_ { } ~ ^ and \ as an ordinary printing symbol.
- A missing `\end` command.
- A missing command argument (that’s the bit enclosed in ‘{’ and ‘}’).

Sometimes  $\text{\LaTeX}$  may write a \* and stop without an error message. This is normally caused by a missing `\end{document}` command, but other errors can cause it. If this happens type `\stop` and press the return key.

Finally,  $\text{\LaTeX}$  will sometimes print *warning* messages. They report problems that were not bad enough to cause  $\text{\LaTeX}$  to stop processing, but nevertheless may require investigation. The most common problems are ‘overfull’ and ‘underfull’ lines of text. A message like:

```
Overfull \hbox (10.58649pt too wide) in paragraph at lines 172--175
[]\tenrm Mathematical for-mu-las may be dis-played
```

indicates that  $\text{\LaTeX}$  could not find a good place to break a line when laying out a paragraph. As a result, it was forced to let the line stick out into the right-hand margin, in this case by 10.6 points. Since a point is about  $\frac{1}{72}$  of an inch this may be rather hard to see, but it will be there none the less.

This particular problem happens because  $\text{\LaTeX}$  is rather fussy about line breaking, and it would rather generate a line that is too long than generate a paragraph that doesn’t meet its

high standards. The simplest way around the problem is to enclose the entire offending paragraph between `\begin{sloppypar}` and `\end{sloppypar}` commands. This tells L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X that you are happy for it to break its own rules while it is working on that particular bit of text.

Alternatively, messages about “Underfull `\hboxes`” may appear. These are lines that had to have more space inserted between words than L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X would have liked. In general there is not much that you can do about these. Your output will look fine, even if the line looks a bit stretched. About the only thing you could do is to re-word the offending paragraph!

## 12 A Final Reminder

You now know enough L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X to produce a wide range of documents. But we have only scratched the surface of the things that L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X can do. This entire document was itself produced with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X (with no sticking things in or clever use of a scanner) and even it hasn’t used nearly all the features that it could. From this you may get some feeling for the power that L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X puts at your disposal.

Please remember what was said in the introduction: if you *do* have a complex document to produce then *read the manual*. You will be wasting your time if you rely only on what you have read here.

One other warning: having once dabbled with L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X your documents will never be the same again . . . .