# Texnical Programming

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- TeX engines and formats: TeX vs IATeX
- Typesetting in plain T<sub>E</sub>X
- Macros and primitives
- Repeated macros
- Lists

## TeX Engines and Formats

TEX refers mainly to three things:

- The TeX language, a typesetting language made up of *primitives* like \def and \hskip.
- The TeX engine (tex), a program for compiling files written in the TeX language.
- The plain T<sub>E</sub>X format, a bare-bones T<sub>E</sub>X format.

TeX formats are self-contained macro packages whose intention it is to define macros for the user's use in creating documents.

Some well-known formats are plain TeX, LATeX, and ConTeXt.

Macro packages are not considered formats since they are not self-contained and their intention is to provide further abstraction on top of an existing format.

The format can be specified during the invocation of the tex command on the command line.

TeX engines are programs which compile TeX code into output. Historically this output was originally a dvi file, but nowadays most output is a pdf file.

Some well-known formats are  $\varepsilon$ -T<sub>E</sub>X, pdfT<sub>E</sub>X, LuaT<sub>E</sub>X, and X<sub>E</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X.

Engines tend to add primitives to the base  $T_EX$  language: for example,  $\varepsilon$ - $T_EX$  adds the \numexpr and related primitives, pdf $T_EX$  adds the \pdfliteral primitive among others.

Note that invoking the program engine in the command line by itself also specifies the format: pdftex runs the pdfTEXengine with the plain TEX format, while pdflatex runs the pdfTEXengine with the LATEX format.

## QUESTIONS?

## Typesetting in Plain TEX

TeX creates its pages by creating a vertical list and filling it with boxes, glue, leaders, penalties, kerns, etc. There are two types of boxes, horizontal boxes and vertical boxes.

Boxes have width, height, and depth. The height of a box is visually its positive vertical displacement relative to the baseline, and its depth is its negative vertical displacement relative to the baseline. For example:

#### \hbox

\hbox to/spread  $\langle dimension \rangle \{\langle horizontal \ material \rangle\}$ : Creates a horizontal box, if to dimension is specified then the width of the box is dimension.

If *spread dimension* is specified then the width of the box is *dimension* more than its natural dimension.

The height and depth of the box is equal to the height and depth of its contents.

#### \vbox

\vbox to/spread  $\langle dimension \rangle \{\langle horizontal\ material \rangle\}$ : Creates a vertical box, if to dimension is specified then the height of the box is dimension.

If *spread dimension* is specified then the height of the box is *dimension* more than its natural dimension.

The width of the box is the width of its contents, and the depth of the box is the depth of the final box in it.

The box's baseline is the same as that of the final box inside, to align to the top box, use \vtop.

Between two boxes there is something called *glue*, which connects the boxes. Glue is one type of blank space (the other being a kern).

Glue has three attributes: its natural length, its maximum stretchiness, and its maximum shrinkage. Glue stretches and shrinks only when it needs to, and TeX uses these attributes in order to fit material into widths the material couldn't properly fit into in its natural width.

For example:

#### hbox to 5cm{hello\hskip 3cm plus 2cm}there

Creates

hello there

Without the plus2cm we'd get the same output but with an overfull hbox warning.

The amount of stretchiness and shrinkage can be infinite.

All the dimensions may be negative as well.

\hskip \(\natural \length\) plus \(\stretch\) minus \(\scretch\): Adds horizontal glue with the specified natural length, maximal stretch and shrinkage.

The stretch and shrink are optional.

\vskip \natural length \rangle plus \langle stretch \rangle minus \langle shrink \rangle: Adds vertical glue with the specified natural length, maximal stretch and shrinkage.

The stretch and shrink are optional.

\kern  $\langle dimension \rangle$ : Adds a kern whose dimension is dimension. Kerns, unlike glue are nonbreaking, nonstretching, and nonshrinking. The orientation of the kern (horizontal or vertical) is inferred by the context.

T<sub>E</sub>X has 3 orders of infinities for glue stretching:

- First order fil: \hskip Opt plus 1fil\relax creates glue which has no natural length but has infinite stretchiness. A primitive version, \hfil, exists as well in place of the code above.
- Second order fill: \hskip Opt plus 1fill\relax creates glue which also has no natural length and infinite stretchiness. It takes precedent over first order infinities. A primitive version, \hfill, exists as well.
- Third order fill1: Same as the other two, but takes precedent over both of them. No primitive version exists.

Vertical versions of \hfill and \hfill exist, \vfil and \vfill.

Another important primitive is \hss which can both shrink and stretch infinitely. It is analogous to \hskip Opt plus 1fil minus 1fil.

It too has a vertical version \vss.

```
def\line{\hbox to \hsize}
def\centerline#1{\line{\hfil#1\hfil}
def\rightline #1{\line{\hfil#1}}
def\leftline #1{\line{#1\hfil}
def\rlap#1{\hbox to Opt{#1\hss}}
def\rlap#1{\hbox to Opt{\hss#1}}
line creates a box which spans the entire line.
\centerline centers input relative to the line.
```

\rlap typesets input and then seems to move back as if it hadn't been typeset.

\rightline and \leftline right and left-justify input respectively.

\lap moves back the width of its material and then typesets it.

```
1  \centerline{Centered Text}
2  \rightline{Right-Justified}
3  \leftline{Left-Justified}
4  
5  \quitvmode\llap{outside}\hfill1\llap{0} and \rlap{1}0
6  \hfill\rlap{outside}
```

```
Centered Text Right-Justified outside \mathbb Q and \mathbb Q outside
```

\hrule

\hrule width  $\langle dimen \rangle$  height  $\langle dimen \rangle$  depth  $\langle dimen \rangle$ 

Creates a horizontal rule (a horizontal line). All of the dimensions are optional. If the width is not specified, then the width spans the width of the smallest box enclosing the rule. If the height is not specified, it is by default 0.4pt. If the depth is not specified, it is by default 0pt.

This must be used in vertical mode (not horizontal mode, it is a horizontal rule because it is generally used to make horizontal lines in vertical mode).

\vrule

\vrule width  $\langle dimen 
angle$  height  $\langle dimen 
angle$  depth  $\langle dimen 
angle$ 

Creates a vertical rule (a vertical line). All of the dimensions are optional. If the width is not specified, it is by default 0.4pt. If the height or the depth are not specified, they span the height or depth of the smallest box enclosing the rule.

This must be used in vertical mode.

```
\hrule
1
   Hello \vrule
2
3
    There \vrule \vbox to 20pt{}
5
    \vbox{\line{}\hrule height 3pt}
7
    \vskip.5cm
8
    \hrule height 1pt
9
    \vskip.5cm
10
    \hrule height 2pt
11
    \hrule height 2pt
12
```

Hello		
There		

```
1 \def\boxed#1{\vbox{\hrule \hbox{\vrule #1\vrule}\hrule}}
2 \def\badbox#1{\hbox{\vrule \vbox{\hrule #1\hrule}\vrule}}
3
4 \boxed{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
5
6 \vskip.5cm
7 \badbox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
```

### Typesetting in plain T<sub>E</sub>X

Typesetting in plain T<sub>E</sub>X

```
\def\spas{3pt}
1
    \def\spacebox#1{%
2
       \hbox{%
3
          \vrule%
4
          \vbox{%
5
             \hrule \vskip\spas%
6
             \hbox{\hskip\spas #1\hskip\spas}%
7
             \vskip\spas \hrule%
8
         }%
9
          \vrule%
10
      }%
11
   }
12
13
    \spacebox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
14
```

Typesetting in plain T<sub>E</sub>X

TEX has box registers which you can use to store boxes. The number of box registers depends on which engine you use (the original TEX engine had 256 from \box0 to \box255).

- \newbox \newbox $\langle control\ sequence \rangle$ : Allocates a box and sets  $control\ sequence$  to reference this box.
- \setbox \setbox  $\langle box \ number \rangle = \langle box \rangle$ : Sets the box number-th box register to be equal to box.
- \box \box  $\langle box \ number \rangle$ : uses the  $box \ number$  box register. After using this, the box register is emptied.
- \copy \copy  $\langle box \ number \rangle$ : like \box but the register is not emptied after its use.
- \unhbox \unhbox\langle box number\rangle: uses the box number box register and removes a level of boxing.
  - 1 \setbox0=\hbox{A} \setbox1=\hbox{\unhbox0 B}

Makes \box1 equal to \hbox{AB}.

The box register must be a horizontal box (\hbox). For vertical boxes, use \unvbox. There also exist \unhcopy and \unvcopy.

In order to print a TEX variable (like the dimensions of a box), you must prepend it with the primitive \the.

```
1 \setbox0=\hbox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
```

Width: \the\wd0, Height: \the\ht0, Depth: \the\dp0

Width: 165.91646pt, Height: 10.41666pt, Depth: 3.22916pt

Also, notice that something like

1 \hbox{A}B

Gives

A B

This is because when TEX boxes \hbox{A} it is in vertical mode, and so the box is placed into the vertical list. Then when it reads B, it enters horizontal mode, then boxes the horizontal material (which is just the B here) and places that into the vertical list.

So the vertical list looks like

```
\vbox{
    \hbox{A}
    \hbox{B}
}
```

So what we'd want to do is exit vertical mode before the \hbox, so its added to the horizontal list instead of the vertical one. Ie. we want the vertical list to look like:

```
\vbox{
    \hbox{\hbox{A}B}
}
```

In order to enter horizontal mode, we need to add horizontal material.

We can do this by unhboxing a void register, since \unhbox adds horizontal material.

TeX provides a box register which is meant to be always void, \voidb@x, so you can do

```
\unhbox\voidb@x\hbox{A}B
```

AB

 $T_{\hbox{\footnotesize E}}X$  also provides the macro  $\ensuremath{\text{\mbox{leavevmode}}}$  which is short for this.

 $pdfT_EX$  provides the primitive \quitvmode which achieves the same thing.

```
\def\presentbox#1{{%
1
       \setbox0=\hbox{#1}%
2
       \hbox{%
3
          \vbox{\tt%
             \hbox{Width: \the\wd0}%
5
             \hbox{Height: \the\ht0}%
6
             \hbox{Depth: \the\dp0}%
7
         }%
8
          \quad\boxed{%
9
             \rlap{#1}%
10
             \vrule width\wd0 height .5pt depth 0pt%
11
         }%
12
      }%
13
   }}
14
15
    \presentbox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
16
```

```
Width: 165.91646pt
Height: 10.41666pt
Depth: 3.22916pt

Typesetting in plain TEX
```

```
1 \def\centersym#1#2{\quitvmode{%}
2 \setbox0=\hbox{#1}%
3 \rlap{#1}\hbox to \wd0{\hss#2\hss}%
4 }}
5
6 \centersym{$\bigcup$}{$\cdot$}
```

Leaders are a generalization of TEX's concept of glue. The purpose of leaders are to *lead* your eyes across the page.

This . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . is an example of leaders.

The general use of leaders is

For example the above leaders was created by

```
1 \leaders\hbox to 1em{\hss.\hss}\hfill
```

Note that if a line ends with leaders or glue, it is removed (it doesn't really make sense to end a line with a blank space). So the following code:

- quitymode\leaders\hbox to 1em{\hss.\hss}\hfill
- 2
- 3 Next line

yields:

#### Next line

There is no leaders here because the paragraph ends with leaders. In order to get around this you can simply place an empty box, or an empty kern after the leaders.

Notice the \quitvmode before the \leaders, this is necessary because \leaders works in vertical mode as well, but its glue must be vertical glue (ie \vskip, \vfill, etc).

#### \leaders

\leaders places leaders aligned with (what seems like) an infinite grid of boxes (either aligned with a row or column of the grid, depending on the horizontal/vertical context).

This grid of boxes has the width/height of the box/rule in the leaders, and starts left aligned with the smallest enclosing box of the material.

\leaders starts placing the leaders at the first box fully enclosed in the available space, and continues to the last available box (which is placed according to the input glue)

So for example doing something like

Hello\leaders\hbox to.5cm{\hss.\hss}\hfill there
!

Hello there!

So the first box is placed in the 4th box (the first box which isn't occupied), and the last in the 4th to last (the last box which isn't occupied).

\cleaders	The process here is simpler, the boxes or rules are all packed tightly next to each other and an equal amount of glue is placed on either ends of the leaders:  leaders: end cleaders: end
\xleaders	The boxes or rules here are all spaced equally apart. If there are $q$ boxes/rules, then an equal amount of glue is placed in the $q+1$ spots between/around them.  leaders: end xleaders:

Notice that while the placement of the boxes with \leaders is independent of				
the surrounding material, so multiple \leaders will have aligned boxes:				
Typesetting in plain $T_EX$				
Typesetting in plain				
Typesetting in				
Typesetting $\ldots$ in plain $\overrightarrow{TEX}$				
$\overset{\circ}{\text{L}}$ $\overset{\circ}{\text{L}}$				
While \cleaders and \xleaders both are:				
Typesetting in plain $T_EX$				
Typesetting in plain				
Typesetting in $\tilde{L}$				
Typesetting				
$\overset{\circ}{\text{L}}$				

An important part of T<sub>E</sub>X is the concept of alignment.

In LATEX this takes the form of environments like tabular and array, but alignment is even more powerful.

The main TeX primitive which allows for alignment is \halign.

The input of \halign comes in two parts: the preamble and the actual alignment material. The preamble of an alignment dictates how to align the material, it is simply a list of what material to place around the alignment material.

```
1 \tabskip=1cm
2 \halign{#\hfil&\hfil&\hfil#\cr
3 Left Aligned&Center Aligned&Right Aligned\cr
4 Typesetting&in plain&\TeX\cr
5 }
```

Left Aligned Center Aligned Right Aligned
Typesetting in plain T<sub>F</sub>X

Notice here that as opposed to LATEX where \\ delimits the rows in an alignment, \halign uses \cr (carriage return).

Here the preamble is #\hfil%\hfil#\hfil%\hfil#

This means for the first entry of each row, the template is #\hfil, this right aligns it. What's significant about this is that the width of each entry is the maximum width of the all the entries in the column.

Similarly the second and third templates center and left-align their entries respectively.

**\tabskip** is the glue added between every column (as well as before the first and after the last column).

#### Typesetting in plain T<sub>F</sub>X

\tabskip can also be altered within the preamble of an alignment.

The glue inserted before the first column is equal to the value of \tabskip when \halign is called, and subsequent changes of \tabskip within the preamble of the alignment alter the glue inserted after the current and subsequent columns.

```
1 \tabskip=0pt
2 \halign{#\hfil\tabskip=1cm&\hfil#\hfil&\hfil#\tabskip=0pt\cr
3 Left Aligned&Center Aligned&Right Aligned\cr
4 Typesetting&in plain&\TeX\cr
5 }
```

```
Left Aligned Center Aligned Right Aligned
Typesetting in plain TEX
```

```
Left Aligned Center Aligned Right Aligned
Typesetting in plain TEX
```

For comparison, above is the output of the previous alignment.

plain TEX provides the macro \ialign which sets \tabskip to 0 and calls \halign.

We can also set the width of \halign similar to an \hbox via \halign to  $\langle width \rangle \{...\}$ 

Instead of \cr, we can use \crcr which does the same thing, but if \crcr comes after another \cr, it does nothing.

Thus we can create a macro which is similar to LATEX's align environment

```
\def\align#1{%
1
       \tabskip=0pt plus 1fil\relax%
2
       \halign to \hsize{\%
3
         \hfil$\displaystyle##{}$\tabskip=0pt&%
4
         $\displaystyle{}##$\hfil\tabskip=0pt plus 1fil\cr%
5
         #1\crcr%
6
      }%
7
9
    \align{
10
       \sum_{n=1}^{infty} a_n &= 1 \\
11
      n! &= \prod_{i=1}^n i\cr
12
    }
13
```

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 1$$

$$n! = \prod_{i=1}^{n} i$$

We can use the **\openup** macro to change the amount of glue added between lines (to "open up" the lines). This is used mostly in the context of alignment.

```
First paragraph

{\openup2\jot\halign{#\cr Hello\cr There\cr}}

Second paragraph

halign{#\cr Hello\cr There\cr}

Third paragraph
```

```
First paragraph
Hello
There
Second paragraph
Hello
There
There
Third paragraph
```

\jot is simply a dimension (set equal to 3pt by plain TEX), it is customary to use \openup in terms of \jots.

\openup is cumulative: \openup1\jot\openup-1\jot, has the same effect as if nothing had been done.

\openup changes the amount of glue added between lines, so it is necessary to keep its changes local by placing it inside a group  $(\{...\})$ .

Tokens inside the preamble of an alignment are not expanded, unless they are preceded by the \span primitive, which expands (ex-span-ds) the next token.

\span has an entirely different meaning within the alignment material, it takes the place of & and merges the two entries into one box whose width matches with the width (including the inter-column glue) of the columns.

Within an alignment entry \omit omits the current template, and instead the entry uses the trivial template #.

Thus \span and \omit can be used in conjunction for cells which span multiple columns.

Another useful primitive is  $\noalign{\langle vertical \ material \rangle}$  which can come after  $\c$  and adds  $vertical \ material$  in place of interline glue.

```
{\tabskip=0pt
vopenup1\jot
halign{#\hfil\tabskip=5pt&\hfil#\tabskip=0pt\cr
hoalign{\hrule\vskip3pt}

moalign{\hrule\vskip3pt}

moalign{\vskip3pt\hrule\vskip\lineskip}

Typesetting&in\cr

plain&\TeX\cr}}
```

```
Alignment Example
Typesetting in plain TEX
```

If you add a & before a template in an alignment's preamble, it is as if that template and all subsequent templates are repeated infinitely.

So for example the preamble

\hfil#&&\hfil#&#\hfil

Creates an alignment where the first template right-aligns, so does the next, the one after left-aligns, then right-aligns, then left-aligns, and so on (RRLRLRL...)

Finally, there is another alignment primitive \valign which does its alignment vertically; instead of aligning by rows, it aligns by columns.

The entries in \valign are in vertical mode. It is much less common than \halign.

Finally (just kidding, we have a lot more to go), let's bring together some of the concepts we've just covered and revisit our \spacebox macro.

We can simplify it using alignment:

```
\def\spas{3pt}
   \def\alignedbox#1{%
      \vbox{\offinterlineskip%
3
         \tabskip=0pt%
4
         \halign{##\tabskip=\spas&##&##\tabskip=Opt\cr
5
            \noalign{\hrule}
6
            \vrule&%
7
            \tabskip=\spas\valign{##\cr\hbox{#1}\cr}&%
8
            \vrule\cr
9
            \noalign{\hrule}
10
         }%
11
      }%
12
13
14
    \alignedbox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
15
```

Typesetting in plain T<sub>E</sub>X

Just kidding, that wasn't simpler.

But alignment is more versatile. Instead of boring rules, we will use leaders to create patterned lines, for example:

```
\def\hdotsline{\xleaders\hbox to 3pt{\hss.\hss}\hfil}
1
    \def\vdotsline{\xleaders\vbox to 3pt{\vss\hbox{.}\vss}\vfil}
2
    \def\dotbox#1{%
3
       \vbox{\offinterlineskip%
4
          \tabskip=0pt%
5
          \halign{##\cr
6
             \noalign{\hdotsline}
7
             \valign{##\cr
8
                \vdotsline\cr
9
                \textstyle \hbox{#1}\cr
10
                \vdotsline\cr
11
             }\cr
12
             \noalign{\hdotsline}
13
          }%
14
       }%
15
    }
16
17
    \dotbox{Typesetting in plain \TeX}
18
```

## Typesetting in plain TeX:

The primary use of \valign here is that it puts its entries in vertical mode whose height is the maximum height in the row.

\dotbox doesn't add space around the text, doing so isn't terribly hard though.

TeX utilizes many many registers to control the look of its output. Among them are some registers containing glue and dimensions which controls the space around paragraphs and lines.

\parindent	The width of indentation before the first line of a paragraph. Plain TEX sets this to 20pt. \parindent is a dimension.
\parskip	The inter-paragraph glue. Plain TFX sets this to Opt plus

\leftskip	The glue added to the left of every line. Plain TEX sets this to Opt.
-----------	---

1pt.

\rightskip	The glue added to the right of every line. Plain TeX sets this
. 0	to Opt.

For example, if we'd like to center a paragraph we could set the left and right glue to have infinite stretchability.

### Typesetting in plain T<sub>F</sub>X

```
{\parindent=0pt
1
   \leftskip=0pt plus 1fill \rightskip=0pt plus 1fill\relax
2
   It is not the plan of this essay to discuss the
3
   millennium-old problem of faith and reason. Theory is not
4
   my concern at the moment. I want to instead focus attention
5
   on a human-life situation in which the man of faith as an
   individual concrete being, with his cares and hopes,
7
   concerns and needs, joys and sad moments, is entangled.
8
   \par
9
10
```

It is not the plan of this essay to discuss the millennium-old problem of faith and reason. Theory is not my concern at the moment. I want to instead focus attention on a human-life situation in which the man of faith as an individual concrete being, with his cares and hopes, concerns and needs, joys and sad moments, is entangled.

Notice that \par (which ends the current paragraph) must be in the same group as the paragraph. Otherwise the paragraph would be ended outside the group once \leftskip and \rightskip have already reverted back to their original values.

TEX also provides registers for further altering the shape of a paragraph with hangindent and hangafter.

\hangindent is a dimension which specifies the dimension of the "hanging indentation".

\hangafter is a number which specifies which lines will be indented.

Suppose \hangafter is n, if  $n \ge 0$  then the indented lines are n + 1, n + 2, and so on until the end of the paragraph.

If n < 0 then the indented lines are 1, 2, ..., |n|.

- 1 {\hangindent=1cm \hangafter=-2
- Therefore, whatever I am going to say here has been derived
- not from philosophical dialectics, abstract speculation, or
- detached impersonal reflections, but from actual situations
- and experiences with which I have been confronted. Indeed,
- the term ''lecture'' also is, in this context, a misnomer.
- 7 \par}

Therefore, whatever I am going to say here has been derived not from philosophical dialectics, abstract speculation, or detached impersonal reflections, but from actual situations and experiences with which I have been confronted. Indeed, the term "lecture" also is, in this context, a misnomer.

# QUESTIONS?

## Macros and Primitives

While many modern languages provide some form of functions (or procedures, or subroutines), T<sub>E</sub>X does not. Instead T<sub>E</sub>X is a macro-based language.

This makes sense since TeX's purpose is to typeset, not program. A macro is simply something which takes input and swaps it with some output.

Some other languages, like C, also have macros. For example

- #define MACRO(a) (Input is a)
- 2 MACRO(hello)

Will create a file containing the line Input is hello if the C preprocessor is run on it.

T<sub>E</sub>X macros are similar: they take input and swap it with some output within the document. For example

- 1 \def\macro#1{Input is #1}
- 2 \macro{hello}

Will create output with the line Input is hello once it is compiled.

But this is a simple example; T<sub>E</sub>X macros are far more powerful than C's. In fact, T<sub>E</sub>X is Turing Complete, meaning any algorithm can be written using T<sub>E</sub>X.

TEX macros are marked by the use of a *escape character*, which is usually the backslash \.

Calling these *macros* is actually incorrect, what follows an escape character is a *control sequence*. There are two types of control sequences: a *control word* which is a sequence of *letters* followed by a non-letter, for example \sqrt. And a *control letter* is a control sequence consisting of a single non-letter, for example \".

A critical difference between control words and letters is that TEX will always ignore a space after a control word (can you think of why?) while it will not ignore a space after a control letter.

Some of TEX's control sequences are *primitives*, these are control sequences which are not decomposable into simpler functions. TEX's primitives form the backbone on which the rest of TEX is defined. Some examples of primitives are \input and \hbox.

You can define your own control sequences, called *macros* using primitives like \def. This section will focus on this.

The general usage of the \def primitive is:

```
\def(control\ sequence) \langle parameter\ text \rangle \{ \langle replacement\ text \rangle \}
```

Which defines a control sequence which matches text to parameter text and replaces it with the replacement text. A simple example is as follows:

```
def\silly ABC{abc}

silly ABCDEFG
```

abcDEFG

Within the parameter text of a macro we can define parameters using the special character #. A parameter is denoted by #N where N is a number between 1 and 9, and the parameters must be ordered sequentially.

The parameter text of a macro is matched lazily, ie. the first instance of a pattern will be matched. For example:

```
def\sillier A#1C{a(#1)c}

sillier ABCABC
```

```
a(B)cABC
```

When pattern-matching for a macro, T<sub>E</sub>X will consider groups of tokens contained within braces ({...}) to be a single atomic unit, and will not match it or the tokens contained within it to a non-parameter.

If no delimiter follows a parameter in the parameter text, the parameter is whatever the next group of tokens is. That is, if the next tokens are contained within braces: {...}, then the whole group is taken as the parameter (without the braces), and if it's a single token then that token is taken.

#### For example:

```
1 \def\silliness#1{(#1)}
2 \def\sillier A#1C{a(#1)c}
3
4 \silliness{abc}def % #1 = abc
5
6 \silliness abcdef % #1 = a
7
8 \sillier AB{BC}C % #1 = B{BC}
```

```
(abc)def
(a)bcdef
a(BBC)c
```

```
A small note to remember is that while:
\def\macro#1#2\{\ldots\}
\def\macro #1#2\{\ldots\}
\are equivalent,
\def\macro#1#2\{\ldots\}
\def\macro #1 #2 \{\ldots\}
```

are not. The second \macro's parameters must be delimited with spaces, while the first's are not.

Before we get to writing some funky macros, let's first discuss a handful of very useful T<sub>F</sub>X primitives.

### \expandafter

\expandafter $\langle token1 \rangle \langle token2 \rangle$ : TEX ignores token1 at first, expands token2 (once) and then places token1 before the expansion.

## \csname \endcsname

\csname...\endcsname: TEX reads the tokens between \csname and \endcsname and totally expands them. After this expansion, only ASCII must remain and TEX replaces this with a control sequence token whose name is this expansion. If this control sequence is undefined currently, this control sequence token is defined to be \relax.

#### \string

 $\langle token \rangle$ : TEX reads token without expanding it, and if it is a control sequence, it converts it to a token list of characters (of category other other than spaces) which corresponds to its name, following the escape character token. If token is a character, it is preserved.

```
\def\gobble#1{}
   \def\strip{\expandafter\gobble\string}
2
3
   \def\initstring#1#2{%
      \expandafter\edef\csname s@#1 \endcsname{#2}} % Why is \ex
        pandafter necessary?
   \def\printstring#1{\csname s@#1 \endcsname}
6
   \def\appendstring#1#2{%
7
      \expandafter\edef\csname s@#1 \endcsname{\printstring{#1}
8
        \printstring{#2}}}
9
   \initstring{first string}{Hello}
10
   \initstring{second string}{ World!}
11
   \appendstring{first string}{second string}
12
   \printstring{first string}
13
```

Hello World!

As you may be aware, certain characters in TEX are assigned special purposes: curly braces ({...}) begin and end groups, dollar signs start and end math mode, tildes (~) create non-breaking spaces, etc.

While it may seem like this is the case, it is not. No character is assigned a special purpose, as this implementation would not be robust: there are many times when you may want a character to have a different purpose (eg. verbatim environments). Instead each character is assigned a *category code* (catcode) and each category code has a special purpose.

Thus while certain characters may have special attributes, they are not inherent to the character: they are inherent the catcode assigned to the character.

The following is a list of all category codes, their purpose, and "canonical" examples of characters with those category codes.

- Escape character (eg. \)
  An escape character denotes the beginning of a control sequence, which is an escape character (catcode 0) followed by a string of letters (catcode 11) or a single non-letter.
- Begin (catcode 1) and end (catcode 2) group (eg. { and })

  These characters begin and end nested groups, which are used for locality and parameters.
- Math shift (eg. \$)

  This begins or ends math (or display math) mode.
- Alignment tab (eg. &)

  This is the character used in alignment primitives to begin new tabs.
- End of line (eg. the carriage return/newline character)
  When TEX encounters an end-of-line character, depending on its current state it may add a space or end the paragraph or nothing.

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- Parameter (eg. #)
  This is the character used to denote parameters within macros.
- Superscript (catcode 7) and subscript (catcode 8) (eg. ^ and \_)
  These are the characters used to create superscripts and subscripts in math mode.
- Ignored (eg. NUL byte)
  These characters are ignored by T<sub>E</sub>X.
- Space (eg. the space character)
  Space characters make T<sub>E</sub>X insert a space if it is not currently skipping spaces.
- Letter (eg. a...z, A...Z)

  These are the characters which can be used in control words.
- Other (eg. @)

  An Other character is a character with no other category code. Its special purpose is that it has no special purpose. It is therefore useful for example when creating verbatim environments.

- Active (eg. ~)

  These are characters which act like macros, they can be defined with \def and \let.
- Comment (eg. %)

  Everything after this character until the end of the line (inclusive) are ignored.
- Invalid (eg. DELETE)

  These characters are ignored but make T<sub>E</sub>X print an error message.

Category codes can be accessed and altered using the \catcode primitive. \catcode should be followed by an integer corresponding to the character code of the character whose category code you'd like to access. TEX uses ASCII codes for its character codes, but some unicode-supporting engines use unicode.

For example since the ASCII value of 'a' is 97, doing \catcode97=13 changes 'a' to be an active character.

But remembering ASCII by heart is a pain, and fortunately not necessary. When TEX is looking for a number and encounters a backtick (`) followed by a character or a control sequence of one character, it uses the character code of that character.

So for example we could have done \catcode'a=13 or \catcode'\a=13.

The reason for allowing control sequences as well is because a construct like \catcode'\=12 will not set \'s category 12, rather it will set ='s category code. But \catcode'\\=12 will work.

The most common use of catcode manipulation is changing the catcode of @ (and to a lesser extent, \_). This is commonly done by package authors to create internal macros which they want to hide from the user. This is done by changing the catcode of @ to 11 (letter) and creating macros which have @ in their name. At the end of the package the catcode of @ is reverted to 12 (other), its original value, and so users cannot use these macros without themselves changing the catcode of @.

This is done in LATEX with the macros \makeatletter and \makeatother. These essentially expand to \catcode'@=11 and \catcode'@=12 respectively.

Suppose you have a macro like

```
\def\makeatletter{\catcode'\@=11}
```

While this seems like a fine macro, it is actually problematic. For example suppose we have a macro called \version@name which contains a number, say 3. Take a look at the following code:

\makeatletter

\version@name

This will actually fail with the error message

- ! Undefined control sequence
- 1.X \makeatletter\version

@num

This is because TeX continues reading for numbers after the 11 in \makeatletter, and so it comes across \version@num. Since the category code of @ is still 12, it reads this as the control sequence \version followed by @num. So it attempts to expand \version to see if it contains a number, but since \version doesn't exist, it errors.

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Now suppose it was called \versionname instead. This still errors, but for a different reason:

! Invalid code (113), should be in the range 0..15.

If we follow the process above, notice that TEX continues reading after the 11, encounters \versionnumber which it expands and finds a 3. Thus it appends this 3 to the current number it is reading to get 113. So it attempts to set the category code of @ to 113, which is an invalid category code.

We can avoid all of these issues with a slight redefinition to our \makeatletter. These issues stem from the fact that TEX continues to scan even after the 11, so all we need to do is stop it from scanning past the 11. This can be done by inserting a \relax after the 11. \relax is a TEX primitive which is unexpandable but does nothing, so it stops TEX's scan without inserting anything into the stream.

#### \def\makeatletter{\catcode'@=11\relax}

In general with constructs where TEX is scanning ahead to look for parameters, it is a good idea to place a \relax after the parameter to minimize the risk of issues like this.

Another common issue with catcodes is the issue of *frozen catcodes*. This issue stems from the fact that T<sub>E</sub>X will freeze catcodes in certain situations, namely when parameterizing tokens and in the definition of a macro (the parameter and replacement text).

Let's look at the following situation: suppose we have some macro called \m@cro and the following code:

```
1 \def\identity#1{#1}
2 \identity{{\catcode'@=11\relax \m@cro}}
3
4 \def\macro{{\catcode'@=11\relax \m@cro}}
5 \macro
```

The double braces here are in order to keep catcode alterations local.

Both of these calls will fail due to catcode freezing. The first one fails because the catcode of @ in \m@cro is 12 (other) when the parameter is scanned, and so @'s catcode is frozen at 12 and so TeX sees \m@cro as the control sequence \m followed by @cro. Since \m is not defined, it will error.

Similarly, \macro fails because when the definition of \macro is read, @ has catcode 12 (other) and so when TeX tokenizes the replacement text of \macro, the catcode of @ is frozen at 12.

TEX also allows you to use ^^ to insert ASCII characters by following the ^^ with two lowercase hexadecimal digits. So for example ^^61 inserts the character whose ASCII value is 61 in hex (or 97 in decimal: a)

There is another convention where you follow  $^{\sim}$  with a single character and if that characters internal code is between 64 and 127 then 64 is subtracted from the code. Otherwise 64 is added to the code. So for example  $^{\sim}$ M gives ASCII character 77 - 64 = 13 which is the carriage return character.

```
1  {
2    \catcode'^^0d=12 % Why are comments necessary?
3    \catcode'@=11 %
4    \gdef\@getline#1#2^^0d{\egroup#1{#2}}% ^^0d = \n
5    \gdef\getline#1{\bgroup\catcode'^^0d=12\relax\@getline {#1}}%
6  }
7
8   \def\parenthesize#1{(#1)}
9   \getline\parenthesize Hello there!
```

(Hello there!)

T<sub>E</sub>X, like any programming language, provides support for conditionals. T<sub>E</sub>X conditionals have the form

where \ifX is any one of the TEX conditional primitives. TEX also has support for \elses.

\if

 $\langle if \langle token1 \rangle \langle token2 \rangle$ :  $\langle if expands whatever comes after it until it finds two unexpandable checks if both tokens have the same character code, that is they represent the same character.$ 

If one of the tokens is a control sequence, if it has been \let equal to some non-active character then it is considered to have the same category code and character code as that character (at the time that it was \let). Otherwise it is considered to have category code and character code incompatible with normal characters, but comparing two macros will be true.

\ifcat

In order to supress the expansion of active characters, you must prepend them with \noexpand.

\ifx

 $\int ifx \langle token1 \rangle \langle token2 \rangle$ : the tokens are *not* expanded.  $\int ifx$  checks that both the category code and the character code of the tokens match if they are characters (or  $\int ifx$  checks that they have the same expansion (if they are primitives then it checks that they are the same primitive).

\ifnum

\ifnum $\langle num1 \rangle \langle relation \rangle \langle num2 \rangle$ : compares two integers num1 and num2. relation must be either =, <, or > with category code 12.

The following powerful primitives give us tools to change the flow of expansion.

\expanded

\expanded{ $\langle tokens \rangle$ }: This will totally expand tokens, similar to \edef but \expanded is itself expandable. This is a pdfTFX primitive.

\unexpanded

\expanded{ $\langle tokens \rangle$ }: The expansion is tokens, this means that when placed inside an expansion-only environment like \expanded, tokens are not expanded. This is a  $\varepsilon$ -T<sub>F</sub>X primitive.

\futurelet

This is very useful when you want to look ahead at the next token in the stream without removing it from the stream.

\aftergroup

\aftergroup $\langle token \rangle$ : token is inserted after the current group.

\afterassignment

\afterassignment $\langle token \rangle$ : token is inserted after the next assignment (\def, \let, a register assignment like \setbox, etc).

### Macros and primitives

Let us now show some uses of \futurelet and \afterassignment. A good example of these primitives are the handy LATEX macros \@ifnextchar and \@ifstar.

The general uses are as follows:

#### \@ifnextchar

 $\ensuremath{\mbox{\sc Cifnextchar}} \langle token1 \rangle \{ \langle true \rangle \} \{ \langle false \rangle \} \langle token2 \rangle$ : if token1 and token2 are equal then true is inserted into the sream (it is run), otherwise false is. This is done without removing token2 from the stream.

#### \@ifstar

 $\cline{Cifstar}{\langle true \rangle}{\langle false \rangle}{\langle token \rangle}$ : if token is an asterisk (\*), true is inserted into the sream (it is run), otherwise false is.

As opposed to just running \@ifnextchar\*, the asterisk is removed in the case that *token* is an asterisk.

## T<sub>E</sub>Xnical Programming

A naive implementation of