

1 Miscellaneous

1.1 Semi-colon and spacing

Same spacing around the semi-colon in $A(x;y)$. So cute !

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2 Sets

2.1 Different kind of sets

2.1.1 Sets for geometry

Example of use

You can semantically write \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{d} but you can't write things like \mathcal{ABC} .

You can semantically write \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{d} but you can't write things like \mathcal{ABC} .

Technical IDs

`\geoset` (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: one single ASCII letter indicating a geometrical set.

2.1.2 Sets for probability

Example of use

You can semantically write \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{G} but you can't write things like \mathcal{ABC} .

You can semantically write \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{G} but you can't write things like \mathcal{ABC} .

Technical IDs

`\probaset` (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: one single ASCII upper letter indicating a probabilistic set.

2.1.3 Sets for rings and fields theory

Example of use

You can semantically write \mathbb{A} , \mathbb{K} , \mathbb{h} and \mathbb{k} but you can't write things like \mathbb{ABC} .

You can semantically write \mathbb{A} , \mathbb{K} , \mathbb{h} and \mathbb{k} but you can't write things like \mathbb{ABC} .

Technical IDs

$\backslash\text{fieldset}$ (1 Argument)

— **Argument #1:** either one of the letters \mathbb{h} and \mathbb{k} , or one single ASCII upper letter indicating a field or ring like set.

2.1.4 Classical sets

You can directly use \emptyset , \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{D} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , \mathbb{H} and \mathbb{O} .

You can directly use \emptyset , \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{D} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , \mathbb{H} and \mathbb{O} .

2.1.5 Classical sets with suffixes

It is easy to type \mathbb{R}_n , \mathbb{R}_p , \mathbb{R}_s , \mathbb{R}_{sn} and \mathbb{R}_{sp} .

It is easy to type \mathbb{R}_- , \mathbb{R}_+ , \mathbb{R}^* , \mathbb{R}_-^* and \mathbb{R}_+^* .

We have used suffixes \mathbf{n} for **N**egative, \mathbf{p} for **P**ositive, and \mathbf{s} for **S**tar with the additional composite suffixes \mathbf{sn} et \mathbf{sp} .

Note that you can't use \mathbb{C}_n for \mathbb{C}_- because the set \mathbb{C} doesn't have any standard powerful ordered structure. Take a look at the next section to see how to write \mathbb{C}_- if you need it.

The following table shows when you can add one of the suffixes \mathbf{n} , \mathbf{p} , \mathbf{s} , \mathbf{sn} and \mathbf{sp} .

TABLE 1 – Suffixes

	\mathbf{n}	\mathbf{p}	\mathbf{s}	\mathbf{sn}	\mathbf{sp}
\mathbb{N}			\times		
\mathbb{Z}	\times	\times	\times	\times	\times
\mathbb{D}	\times	\times	\times	\times	\times
\mathbb{Q}	\times	\times	\times	\times	\times
\mathbb{R}	\times	\times	\times	\times	\times
\mathbb{C}			\times		
\mathbb{H}			\times		
\mathbb{O}			\times		

2.1.6 Suffixes on demand

Example of use

You can indeed write things like \mathbb{C}_n or \mathbb{H}_{sp} .
 There is also \mathcal{P}_n with another formatting.

You can indeed write things like \mathbb{C}_- or \mathbb{H}_+^* . There is also $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 0}$ with another formatting.

Technical IDs

`\specialset` (2 Arguments)

`\specialset*` (2 Arguments)

— Argument #1: the set to be "suffixed".

— Argument #2: one of the suffixes n, p, s, sn and sp.

2.2 Intervals

2.2.1 Real intervals - French (?) notation

Example of use

In $\mathbb{I}^O_C[a]{b} =]a ; b[= \mathbb{I}^O_C[a]{b}$, you can see that the macro used solves a spacing problem, and that the delimiters are a little bigger.

% The syntax refers to O-pened and C-losed but CC and OO are reduced to C and O.

`\medskip`

You can use the star version of a macro if you want the delimiters to stretch vertically.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{I}^O_C\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\}\left\{1^{2^3}\right\} &= \left[\frac{1}{2} ; 1^{2^3}\right] \\ &= \mathbb{I}^O_C*\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\}\left\{1^{2^3}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

In $]a ; b[=]a ; b[=]a ; b[$, you can see that the macro used solves a spacing problem, and that the delimiters are a little bigger.

You can use the star version of a macro if you want the delimiters to stretch vertically.

$$\left[\frac{1}{2} ; 1^{2^3}\right] = \left[\frac{1}{2} ; 1^{2^3}\right] = \left[\frac{1}{2} ; 1^{2^3}\right]$$

Technical IDs

For all the macros above, the star version produces intervals with delimiters that fit vertically with the bounds of the interval.

`\intervalCO` (2 Arguments)

`\intervalCO*` (2 Arguments)

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $[a; b[$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $[a; b[$.

`\intervalC (2 Arguments)`
`\intervalC* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $[a; b]$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $[a; b]$.

`\interval0 (2 Arguments)`
`\interval0* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $]a; b[$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $]a; b[$.

`\interval0C (2 Arguments)`
`\interval0C* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $]a; b]$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $]a; b]$.

2.2.2 Real intervals - American notation

Example of use

A semi-closed interval $\text{\textbackslash intervalPC\{a\}\{b\}} = (a ; b]$ and an opened one $\text{\textbackslash intervalP\{a\}\{b\}} = (a ; b)$.

% The syntax refers to P-arenthesis.

A semi-closed interval $(a ; b] = (a ; b]$ and an opened one $(a ; b) = (a ; b)$.

Technical IDs

For all the macros above, the star version produces intervals with delimiters that fit vertically with the bounds of the interval.

`\intervalCP (2 Arguments)`
`\intervalCP* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $[a; b)$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $[a; b)$.

`\intervalP (2 Arguments)`
`\intervalP* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $(a; b)$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $(a; b)$.

`\intervalPC (2 Arguments)`
`\intervalPC* (2 Arguments)`

- Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $(a; b]$.
- Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $(a; b]$.

2.2.3 Discrete intervals of integers

Example of use

By definition, $\text{\ZintervalC{-1}{4}} = \{-1 ; 0 ; 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 \}$. So we also have $\text{\ZintervalC{-1}{4}} = \text{\Zinterval0{-2}{5}}$.

% The syntax refers to Z the set of integers.

By definition, $\llbracket -1 ; 4 \rrbracket = \{-1 ; 0 ; 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4\}$. So we also have $\llbracket -1 ; 4 \rrbracket = \llbracket -2 ; 5 \rrbracket$.

Technical IDs

\ZintervalC0 (2 Arguments)

\ZintervalC0* (2 Arguments)

— Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

— Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

\ZintervalC (2 Arguments)

\ZintervalC* (2 Arguments)

— Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

— Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

\Zinterval0 (2 Arguments)

\Zinterval0* (2 Arguments)

— Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

— Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

\Zinterval0C (2 Arguments)

\Zinterval0C* (2 Arguments)

— Argument #1: lower bound a of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

— Argument #2: upper bound b of the interval $\llbracket a ; b \rrbracket$.

3 Analysis

3.1 Constants

3.1.1 Classical constants

Complete list

List of all classical constants where $\text{\tttau} = \frac{\text{\ppi}}{2}$ is the youngest one: \ggamma , \ppi , \tttau , \ee , \ii , \jj and \kk .

List of all classical constants where $\tau = \frac{\pi}{2}$ is the youngest one : γ , π , τ , e , i , j and k .

Remark

Take care that `{\Large $\ppi \neq \pi$}` produces $\pi \neq \pi$. As you can see, the symbols are not the same. Indeed, this is true for all the greek constants.

3.1.2 User's latine constants

Example of use

It is easy to write `$\ct{a} x^2 + \ct{b} x + \ct{c}$` instead of `$a x^2 + b x + c$` such as to stress the fact that `\ct{a}`, `\ct{b}` and `\ct{c}` are constants.

It is easy to write $\mathbf{a}x^2 + \mathbf{b}x + \mathbf{c}$ instead of $ax^2 + bx + c$ such as to stress the fact that **a**, **b** and **c** are constants.

Technical IDs

`\ct` (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: a latine text, and not a formula, indicated one constant.

3.2 Special functions

3.2.1 Some examples of use

Some additional special functions :

`$\ch x \neq ch x$`, `$\ppcm(x;y)$`, `$\lg x = \logb{2} x$` and `$\expb{6} y$`.

Some additional special functions : $ch\,x \neq chx$, $ppcm(x;y)$, $\lg x = \log_2 x$ and $\exp_6 y$.

3.2.2 Functions without parameter

All the following macros don't have any parameter.

<code>\pgcd</code>	<code>\ppcm</code>	<code>\ch</code>	<code>\sh</code>
<code>\th</code>	<code>\ach</code>	<code>\ash</code>	<code>\ath</code>
<code>\arccosh</code>	<code>\arcsinh</code>	<code>\arctanh</code>	<code>\acos</code>
<code>\asin</code>	<code>\atan</code>		

3.2.3 Functions with parameters

The complete list

All the following macros have at least one parameter.

`\expb` (1 parameter) `\logb` (1 parameter)

Technical IDs

`\expb` (1 Argument)

`\logb` (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: the base of the exponential or the logarithm

3.3 Extended notations for special sequences

Example of use

Sometimes we need to write $\text{\seqplus{F}{1}{2}}$ or $\text{\hypergeo{F}{1}{2}}$ and crazy men really (?) love $\text{\suprgeo{F}{1}{2}{3}{4}}$.

Sometimes we need to write F_1^2 or ${}_1F_2$ and crazy men really (?) love ${}_1F_2^3$.

Technical IDs

\seqplus (2 Arguments)

- Argument #1: the right exponent like expression.
- Argument #2: the right indice.

\hypergeo (2 Arguments)

- Argument #1: the left indice.
- Argument #2: the right indice.

\suprgeo (4 Arguments)

- Argument #1: the left indice.
- Argument #2: the right indice.
- Argument #3: the right exponent.
- Argument #4: the left exponent.

3.4 Differential calculus

3.4.1 The ∂ and d operators

Example of use

You can write $\text{\dd{x}}$ and $\text{\pp{t}}$, but also $\text{\dd[5]{x}}$ et $\text{\pp[n]{x}}$.

You can write dx and ∂t , but also d^5x et $\partial^n x$.

Technical IDs

\dd [1 Option] (1 Argument)

\pp [1 Option] (1 Argument)

- Option #1: if used, this argument will be the exponent of the symbol ∂ or d .
- Argument #1: the variable of differentiation at the right of the symbol ∂ or d .

3.4.2 Total derivation

Example of use

```
\displaystyle cos' a = \derpow{\cos} (a) = \derfrac{\cos}{x} (a)$
and
\displaystyle cos''' a = \derpow[3]{\cos} (a) = \derfrac[3]{\cos}{x} (a)$
```

$$\cos' a = \cos^{(1)}(a) = \frac{d \cos}{dx}(a) \text{ and } \cos''' a = \cos^{(3)}(a) = \frac{d^3 \cos}{dx^3}(a)$$

Technical IDs

`\derpow` [1 Option] (1 Argument)

- Option #1: if used, this argument will be the exponent of derivation put inside braces.
- Argument #1: the function to be differentiated.

`\derfrac` [1 Option] (2 Arguments)

- Option #1: if used, the exponent of derivation.
- Argument #1: the function to be differentiated.
- Argument #2: the variable used for the derivation.

3.4.3 Partial derivation

Example of use

```
\displaystyle \partialfrac{f}{x} (a;b)
= \partialsub{f}{x} (a;b)
= \partialprime{f}{x} (a;b)$
```

`\medskip`

```
\displaystyle \partialfrac[3]{G}{f^2 // v} (a;b)
= \partialfrac{G}{f^2 // v} (a;b)
= \partialsub{G}{f^2 // v} (a;b)
= \partialprime{G}{f^2 // v} (a;b)$
```

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a;b) = \partial_x f(a;b) = f'_x(a;b)$$

$$\frac{\partial^3 G}{\partial f^2 \partial v}(a;b) = \frac{\partial G}{\partial f^2 \partial v}(a;b) = \partial_{f(2) v} G(a;b) = G'_{f(2) v}(a;b)$$

Technical IDs

`\partialfrac` [1 Option] (2 Arguments)

- Option #1: if used, the exponent of ∂ associated to the function differentiated.
- Argument #1: the function to be partially differentiated.

— **Argument #2:** the variables used for the partial derivation. The syntax is particular : for example, `x // y^3 // ...` indicates regarding to the variables x one time, y three times... and so on.

`\partialsub (2 Arguments)`
`\partialprime (2 Arguments)`

— **Argument #1:** the function to be partially differentiated.

— **Argument #2:** the variables used for the partial derivation. The syntax is particular : for example, `x // y^3 // ...` indicates regarding to the variables x one time, y three times... and so on.

3.5 Integral calculus

3.5.1 The hook operator

Example of use

By definition, $\displaystyle \int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \hook{F(x)}{a}{b}$ where $\hook{F(x)}{a}{b} = \hook*{F(x)}{a}{b} = F(b) - F(a)$.

By definition, $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = [F(x)]_a^b$ where $[F(x)]_a^b = F(x)|_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$.

Technical IDs

`\hook (3 Arguments)`

— **Argument #1:** the content inside the hooks.

— **Argument #2:** the lower bound displayed as an index.

— **Argument #3:** the upper bound displayed as an exponent.

`\hook* (3 Arguments)`

— **Argument #1:** the content before the vertical line | .

— **Argument #2:** the lower bound displayed as an index.

— **Argument #3:** the upper bound displayed as an exponent.

3.5.2 Several integrals

The package minimizes spacings between consecutive symbols of integration. Here is an example.

$$\displaystyle \int \int \int F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$$

$$= \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_e^f F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$$

$$\iiint F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_e^f F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$$

The default behavior is the following one : $\int \int \int F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_e^f F(x;y;z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$.

3.6 Asymptotic comparisons of sequences and functions

3.6.1 The \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{o} notations

Example of use

Let's see how to use the symbols \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{o} created by Landau.

You can write $\mathcal{O}(x) \neq \mathcal{o}(x)$ and $e^{t + \mathcal{o}(t)} = e^{\mathcal{O}(t)}$.

Let's see how to use the symbols \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{o} created by Landau.

You can write $\mathcal{O}(x) \neq \mathcal{o}(x)$ and $e^{t+\mathcal{o}(t)} = e^{\mathcal{O}(t)}$.

Technical IDs

$\backslash\mathrm{bigO}$ (1 Argument)

$\backslash\mathrm{smallO}$ (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: the content inside the braces after the symbol \mathcal{O} or \mathcal{o} .

3.6.2 The Ω notation

Example of use

Let's see how to use the symbol Ω created by Hardy and Littlewood.

$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ means: $\exists(m, n_0)$ such that
 $n \geq n_0$ implies $f(n) \geq m g(n)$.

Let's see how to use the symbol Ω created by Hardy and Littlewood.

$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ means : $\exists(m, n_0)$ such that $n \geq n_0$ implies $f(n) \geq mg(n)$.

Technical IDs

$\backslash\mathrm{bigOmega}$ (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: the content inside the braces after the symbol Ω .

3.6.3 The Θ notation

Example of use

Let's see how to use the symbol Θ .

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ means: $\exists(m, M, n_0)$ such that
 $n \geq n_0$ implies $mg(n) \leq f(n) \leq Mg(n)$.

Let's see how to use the symbol Θ .

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ means : $\exists(m, M, n_0)$ such that $n \geq n_0$ implies $mg(n) \leq f(n) \leq Mg(n)$.

Technical IDs

`\bigtheta` (1 Argument)

— Argument #1: the content inside the braces after the symbol Θ .