

Expanded Plain T_EX

January 2004
2.8.2

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This manual documents the Eplain macros for TeX (version 2.8.2, January 2004). Eplain provides functionality that is intended to be useful regardless of how your document is actually formatted.

Copyright (C) 1989, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 97, 2004 Karl Berry. Steven Smith wrote the documentation for the commutative diagram macros. (He also wrote the macros.) Some additions/corrections by Adam Lewenberg.

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1 Introduction

The *Eplain* macro package expands on and extends the definitions in plain \TeX . This manual describes the definitions that you, as either an author or a macro writer, might like to use. It doesn't discuss the implementation; see comments in the source code (`'xeplain.tex'`) for that.

Eplain is not intended to provide “generic” typesetting capabilities, as do \LaTeX (written by Leslie Lamport) or \TeXinfo (written by Richard Stallman and others). Instead, it provides definitions that are intended to be useful regardless of the high-level commands that you use when you actually prepare your manuscript.

For example, Eplain does not have a command `\section`, which would format section headings in an “appropriate” way, such as \LaTeX 's `\section`. The philosophy of Eplain is that some people will always need or want to go beyond the macro designer's idea of “appropriate”. Such canned macros are fine—as long as you are willing to accept the resulting output. If you don't like the results, or if you are trying to match a different format, you are out of luck.

On the other hand, almost everyone would like capabilities such as cross-referencing by labels, so that you don't have to put actual page numbers in the manuscript. The author of Eplain is not aware of any generally available macro packages that (1) do not force their typographic style on an author, and yet (2) provide such capabilities.

Besides such generic macros as cross-referencing, Eplain contains another set of definitions: ones that change the conventions of plain \TeX 's output. For example, math displays in \TeX are, by default, centered. If you want your displays to come out left-justified, you have to plow through *The \TeX book* to find some way to do it, and then adapt the code to your own needs. Eplain tries to take care of the messy details of such things, while still leaving the detailed appearance of the output up to you.

Finally, numerous definitions turned out to be useful as Eplain was developed. They are also documented in this manual, on the chance that people writing other macros will be able to use them.

You can send bug reports or suggestions to `tex-eplain@cs.umb.edu`. The current version number of Eplain is defined as the macro `\fmtversion` at the end of the source file `'eplain.tex'`. When corresponding, please refer to it.

To get on this mailing list yourself, email `'tex-eplain-request@cs.umb.edu'` with a message whose body contains a line

`subscribe you@your.preferred.address`

2 Installation

The simplest way to install Eplain is simply to install the file ‘`eplain.tex`’ in a directory where T_EX will find it. What that directory is obviously depends on your operating system and T_EX installation. I personally install ‘`eplain.tex`’ in a directory ‘`/usr/local/lib/texmf/tex/plain`’.

If you want, you can also create a format (‘`.fmt`’) file for Eplain, which will eliminate the time spent reading the macro source file with `\input`. You do this by issuing a sequence of Unix commands something like this:

```
prompt$ touch eplain.aux
prompt$ initex
This is TeX, ...
**&plain eplain
(eplain.tex)
*\dump
... messages ...
```

You must make sure that ‘`eplain.aux`’ exists *before* you run ‘`initex`’; otherwise, warning messages about undefined labels will never be issued.

You then have to install the resulting ‘`eplain.fmt`’ in some system directory or set an environment variable to tell T_EX how to find it. I install the format files in ‘`/usr/local/lib/texmf/ini`’; the environment variable for the Web2C port of T_EX to Unix is `TEXFORMATS`.

Some implementations of T_EX (including Web2C) use the name by which T_EX is invoked to determine what format to read. For them, you should make a link to the ‘`virtex`’ program named ‘`etex`’, and then install the format file with the name ‘`etex.fmt`’. This lets users invoke T_EX as ‘`etex`’ and get the format file read automatically, without having to say ‘`&eplain`’.

For convenience, the file ‘`etex.tex`’ in the distribution directory does `\input eplain` and then `\dump`, so that if you replace ‘`eplain`’ with ‘`etex`’ in the example above, the format file will end up with the right name.

The `install` target in the ‘`Makefile`’ does all this properly for Unix systems and Web2C. You may have to change the pathnames.

Under emtex, ‘`eaj@acpub.duke.edu`’ says that

```
tex386 -i ^&plain eplain \dump
```

produces a format file.

3 Invoking Eplain

The simplest way to use Eplain is simply to put:

```
\input eplain
```

at the beginning of your input file. The macro file is small enough that reading it does not take an unbearably long time—at least on contemporary machines.

In addition, if a format (‘.fmt’) file has been created for Eplain (see the previous section), you can eliminate the time spent reading the macro source file. You do this by responding `&eplain` or `&etex` to T_EX’s ‘**’ prompt. For example:

```
initex
This is TeX, ...
**&eplain myfile
```

Depending on the implementation of T_EX which you are using, you might also be able to invoke T_EX as ‘`etex`’ and have the format file automatically read.

If you write something which you will be distributing to others, you won’t know if the Eplain format will be loaded already. If it is, then doing `\input eplain` will waste time; if it isn’t, then you must load it. To solve this, Eplain defines the control sequence `\eplain` to be the letter `t` (a convention borrowed from Lisp; it doesn’t actually matter what the definition is, only that the definition exists). Therefore, you can do the following:

```
\ifx\eplain\undefined \input eplain \fi
```

where `\undefined` must never acquire a definition.

Eplain consists of several source files:

```
‘xplain.tex’
    most of the macros;

‘arrow.tex’
    commutative diagram macros, see Chapter 5 \[Arrow theoretic diagrams\],
    page 27 (written by Steven Smith);

‘btxmac.tex’
    bibliography-related macros, see Section 4.3 \[Citations\], page 5;

‘texnames.sty’
    abbreviations for various TEX-related names, see Section 4.19 \[Logos\], page 26
    (edited by Nelson Beebe).
```

The file ‘`xplain.tex`’ is all of these files merged together, with comments removed.

All of these files except ‘`xplain.tex`’ can be input individually, if all you want are the definitions in that file.

Also, since the bibliography macros are fairly extensive, you might not want to load them, to conserve T_EX’s memory. Therefore, if the control sequence `\nobibtex` is defined, then the bibliography definitions are skipped. You must set `\nobibtex` before ‘`xplain.tex`’ is read, naturally. For example, you could start your input file like this:

```
\let\nobibtex = t
\input eplain
```

By default, `\nobibtex` is undefined, and so the bibliography definitions *are* made.

Likewise, define `\noarrow` if you don't want to include the commutative diagram macros from `'arrow.tex'`, perhaps because you already have conflicting ones.

If you don't want to read or write an `'aux'` file at all, for any kind of cross-referencing, define `\noauxfile` before reading `'eplain.tex'`. This also turns off all warnings about undefined labels.

Eplain conflicts with AMST_EX (more precisely, with `'amspt.sty'`) The macros `\cite` and `\ref` are defined by both.

If you want to use AMST_EX's `\cite`, the solution is to define `\nobibtex` before reading Eplain, as described above.

If you have `'amspt.sty'` loaded and use `\ref`, Eplain writes a warning on your terminal. If you want to use the AMST_EX `\ref`, do `\let\ref = \amsref` after reading Eplain. To avoid the warning, do `\let\ref = \eplainref` after reading Eplain and before using `\ref`.

4 User definitions

This chapter describes definitions that are meant to be used directly in a document. When appropriate, ways to change the default formatting are described in subsections.

4.1 Diagnostics

Plain \TeX provides the `\tracingall` command, to turn on the maximum amount of tracing possible in \TeX . The (usually voluminous) output from `\tracingall` goes both on the terminal and into the transcript file. It is sometimes easier to have the output go only to the transcript file, so you can peruse it at your leisure and not obscure other output to the terminal. So, Eplain provides the command `\loggingall`. (For some reason, this command is available in Metafont, but not in \TeX .)

It is also sometimes useful to see the complete contents of boxes. `\tracingboxes` does this. (It doesn't affect whether or not the contents are shown on the terminal.)

You can turn off all tracing with `\tracingoff`.

You can also turn logging on and off globally, so you don't have to worry about whether or not you're inside a group at the time of command. These variants are named `\gloggingall` and `\gtracingall`.

Finally, if you write your own help messages (see `\newhelp` in *The \TeX book*), you want a convenient way to break lines in them. This is what \TeX 's `\newlinechar` parameter is for; however, plain \TeX doesn't set `\newlinechar`. Therefore, Eplain defines it to be the character `^^J`.

For example, one of Eplain's own error messages is defined as follows:

```
\newhelp\envhelp{Perhaps you forgot to end the previous^^J%
  environment? I'm finishing off the current group,^^J%
  hoping that will fix it.}%
```

4.2 Rules

The default dimensions of rules are defined in chapter 21 of the *The \TeX book*. To sum up what is given there, the “thickness” of rules is 0.4pt by default. Eplain defines three parameters that let you change this dimension: `\hruledefaultheight`, `\hruledefaultdepth`, and `\vruledefaultwidth`. By default, they are defined as *The \TeX book* describes.

But it would be wrong to redefine `\hrule` and `\vrule`. For one thing, some macros in plain \TeX depend on the default dimensions being used; for another, rules are used quite heavily, and the performance impact of making it a macro can be noticeable. Therefore, to take advantage of the default rule parameters, you must use `\ehrule` and `\evrule`.

4.3 Citations

Bibliographies are part of almost every technical document. To handle them easily, you need two things: a program to do the tedious formatting, and a way to cite references by labels, rather than by numbers. The `Bib \TeX` program, written by Oren Patashnik, takes care of the first item; the citation commands in `La \TeX` , written to be used with `Bib \TeX` , take care of the second. Therefore, Eplain adopts the use of `Bib \TeX` , and virtually the same interface as `La \TeX` .

The general idea is that you put citation commands in the text of your document, and commands saying where the bibliography data is. When you run T_EX, these commands produce output on the file with the same root name as your document (by default) and the extension ‘.aux’. BibT_EX reads this file. You should put the bibliography data in a file or files with the extension ‘.bib’. BibT_EX writes out a file with the same root name as your document and extension ‘.bbl’. Eplain reads this file the next time you run your document through T_EX. (It takes multiple passes to get everything straight, because usually after seeing your bibliography typeset, you want to make changes in the ‘.bib’ file, which means you have to run BibT_EX again, which means you have to run T_EX again. . .) An annotated example of the whole process is given below.

If your document has more than one bibliography—for example, if it is a collection of papers—you can tell Eplain to use a different root name for the ‘.bbl’ file by defining the control sequence `\bblfilebasename`. The default definition is simply `\jobname`.

See the document *BibT_EXing* (whose text is in the file ‘`btxdoc.tex`’, which should be in the Eplain distribution you got) for information on how to write your .bib files. Both the BibT_EX and the Eplain distributions contain several examples, also.

The `\cite` command produces a citation in the text of your document. The exact printed form the citation will take is under your control; see [Section 4.3.1 \[Formatting citations\], page 7](#). `\cite` takes one required argument, a comma-separated list of cross-reference labels (see [Section 4.9 \[Cross-references\], page 13](#), for exactly what characters are allowed in such labels). Warning: spaces in this list are taken as part of the following label name, which is probably not what you expect. The `\cite` command also produces a command in the .aux file that tells BibT_EX to retrieve the given reference(s) from the .bib file. `\cite` also takes one optional argument, which you specify within square brackets, as in L^AT_EX. This text is simply typeset after the citations. (See the example below.)

Another command, `\nocite`, puts the given reference(s) into the bibliography, but produces nothing in the text.

The `\bibliography` command is next. It serves two purposes: producing the typeset bibliography, and telling BibT_EX the root names of the .bib files. Therefore, the argument to `\bibliography` is a comma separated list of the .bib files (without the ‘.bib’). Again, spaces in this list are significant.

You tell BibT_EX the particular style in which you want your bibliography typeset with one more command: `\bibliographystyle`. The argument to this is a single filename *style*, which tells BibT_EX to look for a file *style.bst*. See the document *Designing BibT_EX styles* (whose text is in the ‘`btXHak.tex`’) for information on how to write your own styles.

Eplain automatically reads the citations from the .aux file when your job starts.

If you don’t want to see the messages about undefined citations, you can say `\xrefwarningfalse` before making any citations. Eplain automatically does this if the .aux file does not exist. You can restore the default by saying `\xrefwarningtrue`.

Here is a T_EX input file that illustrates the various commands.

```
\input eplain                % Reads the .aux file.
Two citations to Knuthian works:
  \cite[note]{surreal,concrete-math}.
\beginsection{References.}\par % Title for the bibliography.
\bibliography{knuth}          % Use knuth.bib for the labels.
```



```

\bibliographystyle{plain}      % Number the references.
\end                          % End of the document.

```

If we suppose that this file was named ‘citex.tex’ and that the bibliography data is in ‘knuth.bib’ (as the `\bibliography` command says), the following commands do what’s required. (‘\$’ represents the shell prompt.)

```

$ tex citex      (produces undefined citation messages)
$ bibtex citex   (read knuth.bib and citex.aux, write citex.bbl)
$ tex citex      (read citex.bbl, still have undefined citations)
$ tex citex      (one more time, to resolve the references)

```

The output looks something like (because we used the `plain` bibliography style):

Two citations to Knuthian works: [2,1 note].

References

- [1] Ronald L. Graham, Donald E. Knuth, and Oren Patashnik. *Concrete Mathematics*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts, 1989.
- [2] Donald E. Knuth. *Surreal Numbers*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts, 1974.

See the BibTeX documentation for information on how to write the bibliography databases, and the bibliography styles that are available. (If you want your references printed with names, as in [Knu74], instead of numbered, the bibliography style is `alpha`.)

4.3.1 Formatting citations

You may wish to change Eplain’s formatting of citations; i.e., the result of your `\cite` commands. By default, the citation labels are printed one after another, separated by commas and enclosed in brackets, using the main text font. Some formats require other styles, such as superscripted labels. You can accomodate such formats by redefining the following macros.

```

\printcitestart
\printcitefinish

```

Eplain expands these macros at the begining and end of the list of citations for each `\cite` command. By default, they produce a ‘[’ and ‘]’, respectively.

```

\printbetween citations

```

If a `\cite` command has multiple citations, as in `\cite{acp, texbook}`, Eplain expands this macro in between each pair of citations. By default, it produces a comma followed by a space.

```

\printcitenote

```

This macro takes one argument, which is the optional note to the `\cite` command. If the `\cite` command had no note, this macro isn’t used. Otherwise, it should print the note. By default, the note is preceded with a comma and a space.

Here is an example, showing you could produce citations as superscripted labels, with the optional notes in parentheses.

```

\def\printcitestart{\unskip $^{\bgroup}
\def\printbetween citations{,}

```

```
\def\printcitefinish{\egroup$}
\def\printcitenote#1{\hbox{\sevenrm\space (#1)}}
```

4.3.2 Formatting bibliographies

You may wish to change Eplain’s formatting of the bibliography, especially with respect to the fonts that are used. Therefore, Eplain provides the following control sequences:

\biblabelwidth

This control sequence represents a `\dimen` register, and its value is the width of the widest label in the bibliography. Although it is unlikely you will ever want to redefine it, you might want to use it if you redefine `\biblabelprint`, below.

\biblabelprint

This macro takes one argument, the label to print. By default, the label is put in a box of width `\biblabelwidth`, and is followed by an `enspace`. When you want to change the spacing around the labels, this is the right macro to redefine.

\biblabelcontents

This macro also takes one argument, the label to print. By default, the label is printed using the font `\bblrm` (below), and enclosed in brackets. When you want to change the appearance of the label, but not the spacing around it, this is the right macro to redefine.

\bblrm The default font used for printing the bibliography.

\bblem The font used for printing the titles and other “emphasized” material.

\bblsc In some styles, authors’ names are printed in a caps-and-small-caps font. In those cases, this font is used.

\bblnewblock

This is invoked between each of the parts of a bibliography entry. The default is to leave some extra space between the parts; you could redefine it to start each part on a new line (for example). A part is simply a main element of the entry; for example, the author is a part. (It was L^AT_EX that introduced the (misleading, as far as I am concerned) term ‘block’ for this.)

\biblabelextraspace

Bibliography entries are typeset with a hanging indentation of `\biblabelwidth` plus this. The default is `.5em`, where the `em` width is taken from the `\bblrm` font. If you want to change this, you should do it inside `\bblhook`.

\bblhook This is expanded before reading the `.bbl` file. By default, it does nothing. You could, for example, define it to set the bibliography fonts, or produce the heading for the references. Two spacing parameters must be changed inside `\bblhook`: `\parskip`, which produces extra space between the items; and `\biblabelextraspace`, which is described above. (By the way, `\hookappend` won’t work with `\bblhook`, despite the names. Just use `\def`.)

If you are really desperate, you can also hand-edit the `.bbl` file that BibT_EX produces to do anything you wish.

4.4 Displays

By default, \TeX centers displayed material. (Displayed material is just whatever you put between $\$$'s—it's not necessarily mathematics.) Many layouts would be better served if the displayed material was left-justified. Therefore, *Eplain* provides the command `\lefttdisplays`, which indents displayed material by `\parindent` plus `\leftskip`, plus `\lefttdisplayindent`.

You can go back to centering displays with `\centereddisplays`. (It is usually poor typography to have both centered and left-justified displays in a single publication, though.)

`\lefttdisplays` also changes the plain \TeX commands that deal with alignments inside math displays, `\displaylines`, `\eqalignno`, and `\leqalignno`, to produce left-justified text. You can still override this formatting by inserting `\hfill` glue, as explained in *The \TeX book*.

4.4.1 Formatting displays

If you want some other kind of formatting, you can write a definition of your own, analogous to `\lefttdisplays`. You need only make sure that `\lefttdisplaysetup` is called at the beginning of every display (presumably by invoking it in \TeX 's `\everydisplay` parameter), and to define `\generaldisplay`.

`\lefttdisplays` expands the old value of `\everydisplay` before calling `\lefttdisplaysetup`, so that any changes you have made to it won't be lost. That old token list is available as the value of the token register `\previouseverydisplay`.

4.5 Time of day

\TeX provides the day, month, and year as numeric quantities (unless your \TeX implementation is woefully deficient). *Eplain* provides some control sequences to make them a little more friendly to humans.

`\monthname` produces the name of the current month, abbreviated to three letters.

`\fullmonthname` produces the name of the current month, unabbreviated (in English).

`\timestring` produces the current time, as in '1:14 p.m.'

`\timestamp` produces the current date and time, as in '23 Apr 64 1:14 p.m.'. (Except the spacing is slightly different.)

`\today` produces the current date, as in '23 April 1964'.

4.6 Lists

Many documents require lists of items, either numbered or simply enumerated. Plain \TeX defines one macro to help with creating lists, `\item`, but that is insufficient in many cases. Therefore, *Eplain* provides two pairs of commands:

`\numberedlist ... \endnumberedlist`

`\orderedlist ... \endorderedlist`

These commands (they are synonyms) produce a list with the items numbered sequentially, starting from one. A nested `\numberedlist` labels the items with lowercase letters, starting with 'a'. Another nested `\numberedlist` labels the

items with roman numerals. Yet more deeply nested numbered lists label items with ‘*’.

`\unorderedlist ... \endunorderedlist`

This produces a list with the items labelled with small black boxes (“square bullets”). A nested `\unorderedlist` labels items with em-dashes. Doubly (and deeper) nested unordered lists label items with ‘*’s.

The two kinds of lists can be nested within each other, as well.

In both kinds of lists, you begin an item with `\li`. An item may continue for several paragraphs. Each item starts a paragraph.

You can give `\li` an optional argument, a cross-reference label. It’s defined to be the “marker” for the current item. This is useful if the list items are numbered. You can produce the value of the label with `\xrefn`. See [Section 4.9 \[Cross-references\]](#), page 13.

You can also say `\listcompact` right after `\numberedlist` or `\unorderedlist`. The items in the list will then not have any extra space between them (see [Section 4.6.1 \[Formatting lists\]](#), page 10). You might want to do this if the items in this particular list are short.

Here is an example:

```
\numberedlist\listcompact
\li The first item.
\li The second item.
```

```
The second paragraph of the second item.
\endnumberedlist
```

4.6.1 Formatting lists

Several registers define the spacing associated with lists. It is likely that their default values won’t suit your particular layout.

`\abovelistskipamount`, `\belowlistskipamount`

The vertical glue inserted before and after every list, respectively.

`\interitemskipamount`

The vertical glue inserted before each item except the first. `\listcompact` resets this to zero, as mentioned above.

`\listleftindent`, `\listrightindent`

`\listrightindent` is the amount of space by which the list is indented on the right; i.e., it is added to `\rightskip`. `\listleftindent` is the amount of space, *relative to* `\parindent`, by which the list is indented on the left. Why treat the two parameters differently? Because (a) it is more useful to make the list indentation depend on the paragraph indentation; (b) footnotes aren’t formatted right if `\parindent` is reset to zero.

The three vertical glues are inserted by macros, and preceded by penalties: `\abovelistskip` does `\vpenalty\abovelistskip` and then `\vskip\abovelistskip`. `\belowlistskip` and `\interitemskip` are analogous.

In addition, the macro `\listmarkerspace` is called to separate the item label from the item text. This is set to `\enspace` by default.

If you want to change the labels on the items, you can redefine these macros: `\numberedmarker` or `\unorderedmarker`. The following registers might be useful if you do:

`\numberedlistdepth`, `\unorderedlistdepth`

These keep track of the depth of nesting of the two kinds of lists.

`\itemnumber`, `\itemletter`

These keep track of the number of items that have been seen in the current numbered list. They are both integer registers. The difference is that `\itemnumber` starts at one, and `\itemletter` starts at 97, i.e., lowercase ‘a’.

You can also redefine the control sequences that are used internally, if you want to do something radically different: `\beginlist` is invoked to begin both kinds of lists; `\printitem` is invoked to print the label (and space following the label) for each item; and `\endlist` is invoked to end both kinds of lists.

4.7 Verbatim listing

It is sometimes useful to include a file verbatim in your document; for example, part of a computer program. The `\listing` command is given one argument, a filename, and produces the contents of that file in your document. `\listing` expands `\listingfont` to set the current font. The default value of `\listingfont` is `\tt`.

You can take arbitrary actions before reading the file by defining the macro `\setuplistinghook`. This is expanded just before the file is input.

If you want to have line numbers on the output, you can say `\let\setuplistinghook = \linenumberedlisting`. The line numbers are stored in the count register `\lineno` while the file is being read. You can redefine the macro `\printlistinglineno` to change how they are printed.

You can produce in-line verbatim text in your document with `\verbatim`. End the text with `\endverbatim`. If you need a ‘|’ in the text, double it. If the first character of the verbatim text is a space, use | . (| will work elsewhere in the argument, too, but isn’t necessary.)

For example:

```
\verbatim| ||\#%&!\endverbatim
```

produces | \#%& !.

Line breaks and spaces in the verbatim text are preserved.

You can change the verbatim escape character from the default ‘|’ with `\verbatimescapechar char`; for example, this changes it to ‘@’.

```
\verbatimescapechar \@
```

The backslash is not necessary in some cases, but is in others, depending on the catcode of the character. The argument to `\verbatimescapechar` is used as `\catcode ‘char`, so the exact rules follow that for `\catcode`.

Because `\verbatim` must change the category code of special characters, calling inside a macro definition of your own does not work properly. For example:

```
\def\mymacro{\verbatim &#%|endverbatim}% Doesn't work!
```

To accomplish this, you must change the category codes yourself before making the macro definition. Perhaps `\uncatcodespecials` will help you (see [Section 6.1 \[Category codes\]](#), page 34).

4.8 Contents

Producing a table of contents that is both useful and aesthetic is one of the most difficult design problems in any work. Naturally, Eplain does not pretend to solve the design problem. Collecting the raw data for a table of contents, however, is much the same across documents. Eplain uses an auxiliary file with extension ‘.toc’ (and the same root name as your document) to save the information.

To write an entry for the table of contents, you say `\writetocentry{part}{text}`, where *part* is the type of part this entry is, e.g., ‘chapter’, and *text* is the text of the title. `\writetocentry` puts an entry into the .toc file that looks like `\tocpartentry{text}{page number}`. The *text* is written unexpanded.

A related command, `\writenumberedtocentry`, takes one additional argument, the first token of which is expanded at the point of the `\writenumberedtocentry`, but the rest of the argument is not expanded. The usual application is when the parts of the document are numbered. On the other hand, the one-level expansion allows you to use the argument for other things as well (author’s names in a proceedings, say), and not have accents or other control sequences expanded. The downside is that if you *want* full expansion of the third argument, you don’t get it—you must expand it yourself, before you call `\writenumberedtocentry`.

For example:

```
\writenumberedtocentry{chapter}{A $\sin$ wave}{\the\chapno}
\writetocentry{section}{A section title}
```

Supposing `\the\chapno` expanded to ‘3’ and that the `\write`’s occurred on pages eight and nine, respectively, the above writes the following to the .toc file:

```
\tocchapterentry{A $\sin$ wave}{3}{8}
\tocsectionentry{A section title}{9}
```

You read the .toc file with the command `\readtocfile`. Naturally, whatever `\toc...entry` commands that were written to the file must be defined when `\readtocfile` is invoked. Eplain has minimal definitions for `\tocchapterentry`, `\tocsectionentry`, and `\tocsubsectionentry`, just to prevent undefined control sequence errors in common cases. They aren’t suitable for anything but preliminary proofs.

After reading the .toc file, `\readtocfile` opens the file for writing, thereby deleting the information from the previous run. You should therefore arrange that `\readtocfile` be called *before* the first call to a `\writetoc...` macro. On the other hand, if you don’t want to rewrite the .toc file, perhaps because you are only running T_EX on part of your manuscript, you can set `\rewritetocfilefalse`.

By default, the ‘.toc’ file has the root `\jobname`. If your document has more than one contents—for example, if it is a collection of papers, some of which have their own contents—you can tell Eplain to use a different root name by defining the control sequence `\tocfilebasename`.

In addition to the usual table of contents, you may want to have a list of figures, list of tables, or other such contents-like list. You can do this with `\definecontentsfile{abbrev}`. All of the above commands are actually a special case that Eplain predefines with

```
\definecontentsfile{toc}
```

The *abbrev* is used both for the file extension and in the control sequence names.

4.9 Cross-references

It is often useful to refer the reader to other parts of your document; but putting literal page, section, equation, or whatever numbers in the text is certainly a bad thing.

Eplain therefore provides commands for symbolic cross-references. It uses an auxiliary file with extension `.aux` (and the same root name as your document) to keep track of the information. Therefore, it takes two passes to get the cross-references right—one to write them out, and one to read them in. Eplain automatically reads the `.aux` file at the first reference; after reading it, Eplain reopens it for writing.

You can control whether or not Eplain warns you about undefined labels. See [Section 4.3 \[Citations\]](#), page 5.

Labels in Eplain’s cross-reference commands can use characters of category code eleven (letter), twelve (other), ten (space), three (math shift), four (alignment tab), seven (superscript), or eight (subscript). For example, ‘`a1 $&^_`’ is a valid label (assuming the category codes of plain `TEX`), but ‘`%#\{`’ has no valid characters.

You can also do symbolic cross-references for bibliographic citations and list items. See [Section 4.3 \[Citations\]](#), page 5, and [Section 4.6 \[Lists\]](#), page 9.

4.9.1 Defining generic references

Eplain provides the command `\definexref` for general cross-references. It takes three arguments: the name of the label (see section above for valid label names), the value of the label (which can be anything), and the “class” of the reference—whether it’s a section, or theorem, or what. For example:

```
\definexref{sec-intro}{3.1}{section}
```

Of course, the label value is usually generated by another macro using `TEX` count registers or some such.

`\definexref` doesn’t actually define *label*; instead, it writes out the definition to the `.aux` file, where Eplain will read it on the next `TEX` run.

The *class* argument is used by the `\ref` and `\refs` commands. See the next section.

4.9.2 Using generic references

To retrieve the value of the label defined via `\definexref` (see the previous section), Eplain provides the following macros:

```
\refn{label}
```

```
\xrefn{label}
```

`\refn` and `\xrefn` (they are synonyms) produce the bare definition of *label*. If *label* isn’t defined, issue a warning, and produce *label* itself instead, in typewriter. (The warning isn’t given if `\xrefwarningfalse`.)

`\ref{label}`

Given the class *c* for *label* (see the description of `\definexref` in the previous section), expand the control sequence `\c word` (if it's defined) followed by a tie. Then call `\refn` on *label*. (Example below.)

`\refs{label}`

Like `\ref`, but append the letter 's' to the `\...word`.

The purpose of the `\...word` macro is to produce the word 'Section' or 'Figure' or whatever that usually precedes the actual reference number.

Here is an example:

```
\def\sectionword{Section}
\definexref{sec-intro}{3.1}{section}
\definexref{sec-next}{3.2}{section}
See \refs{sec-intro} and \refn{sec-next} ...
```

This produces 'See Sections 3.1 and 3.2 ...'

4.10 Page references

Eplain provides two commands for handling references to page numbers, one for definition and one for use.

`\xrdef{label}`

Define *label* to be the current page number. This produces no printed output, and ignores following spaces.

`\xref{label}`

Produce the text 'p. *page-number*', which is the usual form for cross-references. The *page-number* is actually *label*'s definition; if *label* isn't defined, the text of the label itself is printed.

4.10.1 Equation references

Instead of referring to pages, it's most useful if equation labels refer to equation numbers. Therefore, Eplain reserves a `\count` register, `\eqnumber`, for the current equation number, and increments it at each numbered equation.

Here are the commands to define equation labels and then refer to them:

`\eqdef{label}`

This defines *label* to be the current value of `\eqnumber`, and, if the current context is not inner, then produces a `\eqno` command. (The condition makes it possible to use `\eqdef` in an `\eqalignno` construction, for example.) The text of the equation number is produced using `\eqprint`. See [Section 4.10.1.1 \[Formatting equation references\]](#), page 15.

If *label* is empty, you still get an equation number (although naturally you can't reliably refer to it). This is useful if you want to put numbers on all equations in your document, and you don't want to think up unique labels.

`\eqdefn{label}`

This is like `\eqdef`, except it always omits the `\eqno` command. It can therefore be used in places where `\eqdef` can't; for example, in a non-displayed equation.

The text of the equation number is not produced, so you can also use it in the (admittedly unusual) circumstance when you want to define an equation label but not print that label.

`\eqref{label}`

This produces a formatted reference to *label*. If *label* is undefined (perhaps because it is a forward reference), it just produces the text of the label itself. Otherwise, it calls `\eqprint`.

`\eqrefn{label}`

This produces the cross-reference text for *label*. That is, it is like `\eqref`, except it doesn't call `\eqprint`.

Equation labels can contain the same characters that are valid in general cross-references.

4.10.1.1 Formatting equation references

Both defining an equation label and referring to it should usually produce output. This output is produced with the `\eqprint` macro, which takes one argument, the equation number being defined or referred to. By default, this just produces ‘(*number*)’, where *number* is the equation number. To produce the equation number in a different font, or with different surrounding symbols, or whatever, you can redefine `\eqprint`. For example, the following definition would print all equation numbers in italics. (The extra braces define a group, to keep the font change from affecting surrounding text.)

```
\def\eqprint#1{\it (#1)}
```

In addition to changing the formatting of equation numbers, you might to add more structure to the equation number; for example, you might want to include the chapter number, to get equation numbers like ‘(1.2)’. To achieve this, you redefine `\eqconstruct`. For example:

```
\def\eqconstruct#1{\the\chapternumber.#1}
```

(If you are keeping the chapter number in a count register named `\chapternumber`, naturally.)

The reason for having both `\eqconstruct` and `\eqprint` may not be immediately apparent. The difference is that `\eqconstruct` affects the text that cross-reference label is defined to be, while `\eqprint` affects only what is typeset on the page. The example just below might help.

Usually, you want equation labels to refer to equation numbers. But sometimes you might want a more complicated text. For example, you might have an equation ‘(1)’, and then have a variation several pages later which you want to refer to as ‘(1*)’.

Therefore, Eplain allows you to give an optional argument (i.e., arbitrary text in square brackets) before the cross-reference label to `\eqdef`. Then, when you refer to the equation, that text is produced. Here's how to get the example just mentioned:

```
$$...\eqdef{a-eq}$$
```

```
...
```

```
$$...\eqdef[\eqrefn{a-eq}]{a-eq-var}$$
```

```
In \eqref{a-eq-var}, we expand on \eqref{a-eq}, ...
```

We use `\eqrefn` in the cross-reference text, not `\eqref`, so that `\eqprint` is called only once.

4.10.1.2 Subequation references

Eplain also provides for one level of substructure for equations. That is, you might want to define a related group of equations with numbers like ‘2.1’ and ‘2.2’, and then be able to refer to the group as a whole: “. . . in the system of equations (2). . .”.

The commands to do this are `\eqsubdef` and `\eqsubdefn`. They take one *label* argument like their counterparts above, and generally behave in the same way. The difference is in how they construct the equation number: instead of using just `\eqnumber`, they also use another counter, `\subeqnumber`. This counter is advanced by one at every `\eqsubdef` or `\eqsubdefn`, and reset to zero at every `\eqdef` or `\eqdefn`.

You use `\eqref` to refer to subequations as well as main equations.

To put the two together to construct the text that the label will produce, they use a macro `\eqsubreftext`. This macro takes two arguments, the “main” equation number (which, because the equation label can be defined as arbitrary text, as described in the previous section, might be anything at all) and the “sub” equation number (which is always just a number). Eplain’s default definition just puts a period between them:

```
\def\eqsubreftext#1#2{#1.#2}%
```

You can redefine `\eqsubreftext` to print however you like. For example, this definition makes the labels print as ‘2a’, ‘2b’, and so on.

```
\newcount\subref
\def\eqsubreftext#1#2{%
  \subref = #2          % The space stops a <number>.
  \advance\subref by 96 % ‘a’ is character code 97.
  #1\char\subref
}
```

Sadly, we must define a new count register, `\subref`, instead of using the scratch count register `\count255`, because ‘#1’ might include other macro calls which use `\count255`.

4.11 Indexing

Eplain provides support for generating raw material for an index, and for typesetting a sorted index. A separate program must do the actual collection and sorting of terms, because T_EX itself has no support for sorting.

Eplain’s indexing commands were designed to work with the program MakeIndex, available from ‘ftp.math.utah.edu’ in the directory ‘pub/tex/makeindex’, and from CTAN hosts in ‘tex-archive/indexing/makeindex’; MakeIndex is also commonly included in prepackaged T_EX distributions. It is beyond the scope of this manual to explain how to run MakeIndex, and all of its many options. See [section “MAKEINDEX” in MakeIndex](#).

The basic strategy for indexing works like this:

1. For a document ‘foo.tex’, Eplain’s indexing commands (e.g., `\idx`; see the section ‘Indexing terms’ below) write the raw index material to ‘foo.idx’.
2. MakeIndex reads ‘foo.idx’, collects and sorts the index, and writes the result to ‘foo.ind’.
3. Eplain reads and typesets ‘foo.ind’ on a subsequent run of T_EX. See the section ‘Typesetting an index’ below.

If your document needs more than one index, each must have its own file. Therefore, Eplain provides the command `\defineindex`, which takes an argument that is a single letter, which replaces ‘i’ in the filenames and in the indexing command names described below. For example,

```
\defineindex{m}
```

defines the command `\mdx` to write to the file ‘foo.mdx’. Eplain simply does `\defineindex{i}` to define the default commands.

4.11.1 Indexing terms

Indexing commands in Eplain come in pairs: one command that only writes the index entry to the ‘.idx’ file (see above section), and one that also typesets the term being indexed. The former always starts with ‘s’ (for “silent”). In either case, the name always includes ‘Idx’, where *I* is the index letter, also described above. Eplain defines the index ‘i’ itself, so that’s what we’ll use in the names below.

The silent form of the commands take a subterm as a trailing optional argument. For example, `\sidx{truth}[definition of]` on page 75 makes an index entry that will eventually be typeset (by default) as

```
truth
  definition of, 75
```

Also, the silent commands ignore trailing spaces. The non-silent ones do not.

4.11.1.1 Indexing commands

Here are the commands.

- `\sidx{term}[subterm]` makes an index entry for *term*, optionally with subterm *subterm*. `\idx{term}` also produces *term* as output. Example:

```
\sidx{truth}[beauty of]
The beauty of truth is \idx{death}.
```

Subterms at the second and further levels can also be specified in *subterm*, using the `\idxsubentryseparator` character to separate them. This character is by default ‘!’.

- `\sidxname{First M.}{von Last}[subterm]` makes an index entry for ‘*von Last, First M.*’. You can change the ‘,’ by redefining `\idxnameseparator`. `\idxname{First M.}{von Last}` also produces *First M. von Last* as output. (These commands are useful special cases of `\idx` and `\sidx`.) Example:

```
\sidxname{Richard}{Stark}
\idxname{Donald}{Westlake} has written many kinds of novels, under
almost as many names.
```

- `\sidxmarked\cs{term}[subterm]` makes an index entry for *term*[*subterm*], but *term* will be put in the index as `\cs{term}`, but still sorted as just *term*. `\idxmarked\cs{term}` also typesets `\cs{term}`. This provides for the usual ways of changing the typesetting of index entries. Example:

```
\def\article#1{‘‘#1’’}
\sidxmarked\article{Miss Elsa and Aunt Sophie}
Peter Drucker’s \idxmarked\article{The Polanyis} is a remarkable
essay about a remarkable family.
```

- `\sidxsubmarked{term}\cs{subterm}` makes an index entry for *term*, *subterm* as usual, but also puts *subterm* in the index as `\cs{term}`. `\sidxsubmarked{term}\cs{subterm}` also typesets *term* `\cs{subterm}`, in the unlikely event that your syntax is convoluted enough to make this useful. Example:

```
\def\titl#1{{\sl #1}}
\sidxsubmarked{Anderson, Laurie}\title{Strange Angels}
The \sidxsubmarked{Anderson}\title{Carmen} is a strange twist.
```

The commands above rely on MakeIndex’s feature for separating sorting of an index entry’s from its typesetting. You can use this directly by specifying an index entry as *sort@typeset*. For example:

```
\sidx{Ap-weight@$A_\pi$-weight}
```

will sort as *Ap-weight*, but print with the proper math. The `@` here is MakeIndex’s default character for this purpose. See [section “Style File-MakeIndex” in MakeIndex](#). To make an index entry with an `@` in it, you have to escape it with a backslash; Eplain provides no macros for doing this.

After any index command, Eplain runs `\hookaction{afterindexterm}`. Because the index commands always add a whatsit item to the current list, you may wish to preserve a penalty or space past the new item. For example, given a conditional `\if@aftersctnhead` set true when you’re at a section heading, you could do:

```
\hookaction{afterindexterm}{\if@aftersctnhead \nobreak \fi}
```

4.11.1.2 Modifying index entries

All the index commands described in the previous section take an initial optional argument before the index term, which modify the index entry’s meaning in various ways. You can specify only one of the following in any given command.

These work via MakeIndex’s “encapsulation” feature. See [Section 4.11.3 \[Customizing indexing\]](#), [page 20](#), if you’re not using the default characters for the MakeIndex operators. The other optional argument (specifying a subterm) is independent of these.

Here are the possibilities:

begin

end These mark an index entry as the beginning or end of a range. The index entries must match exactly for MakeIndex to recognize them. Example:

```
\sidx[begin]{future}[Cohen, Leonard]
...
\sidx[end]{future}[Cohen, Leonard]
```

will typeset as something like

```
future,
Cohen, Leonard, 65–94
```

see

This marks an index entry as pointing to another; the real index term is an additional (non-optional) argument to the command. Thus you can anticipate a term readers may wish to look up, yet which you have decided not to index. Example:

`\sidx[see]{analysis}[archetypal]{archetypal criticism}`
becomes

analysis,
archetypal, See archetypal criticism

seealso Similar to **see** (the previous item), but also allows for normal index entries of the referencing term. Example:

`\sidx[seealso]{archetypal criticism}[elements of]{dichotomies}`
becomes

archetypal criticism,
elements of, 75, 97, 114, See also dichotomies

(Aside for the academically curious: The archetypally critical book I took these dichotomous examples from is Laurence Berman's *The Musical Image*, which I happened to co-design and typeset.)

pagemarkup=cs

This puts `\cs` before the page number in the typeset index, thus allowing you to underline definitive entries, italicize examples, and the like. You do *not* precede the control sequence `cs` with a backslash. (That just leads to expansive difficulties.) Naturally it is up to you to define the control sequences you want to use. Example:

`\def\defn#1{{\sl #1}}`
`\sidx[pagemarkup=defn]{indexing}`

becomes something like

indexing, \defn{75}

4.11.1.3 Proofing index terms

As you are reading through a manuscript, it is helpful to see what terms have been indexed, so you can add others, catch miscellaneous errors, etc. (Speaking from bitter experience, I can say it is extremely error-prone to leave all indexing to the end of the writing, since it involves adding many `TEX` commands to the source files.)

So Eplain puts index terms in the margin of each page, if you set `\indexproofingtrue`. It is **false** by default. The terms are typeset by the macro `\indexproofterm`, which takes a single argument, the term to be typeset. Eplain's definition of `\indexproofterm` just puts it into an `\hbox`, first doing `\indexprooffont`, which Eplain defines to select the font `cmtt8`. With this definition long terms run off the page, but since this is just for proofreading anyway, it seems acceptable.

On the other hand, we certainly don't want the index term to run into the text of the page, so Eplain uses the right-hand side of the page rather than the left-hand page (assuming a language read left to right here). So `\ifodd\pageno`, Eplain kerns by `\outsidemargin`, otherwise by `\insidemargin`. If those macros are undefined, `\indexsetmargins` defines them to be one inch plus `\hoffset`.

To get the proofing index entries on the proper page, Eplain defines a new insertion class `\@indexproof`. To unbox any index proofing material, Eplain redefines `\makeheadline` to call `\indexproofunbox` before the original `\makeheadline`. Thus, if you have your

own output routine, that redefines or doesn't use `\makeheadline`, it's up to you to call `\indexproofunbox` at the appropriate time.

4.11.2 Typesetting an index

The command `\readindexfile{i}` reads and typesets the `‘.ind’` file that MakeIndex outputs (from the `‘.idx’` file which the indexing commands in the previous sections write). Eplain defines a number of commands that support the default MakeIndex output.

More precisely, `\readindexfile` reads `\indexfilebasename.index-letternd`, where the *index-letter* is the argument. `\indexfilebasename` is `\jobname` by default, but if you have different indexes in different parts of a book, you may wish to change it, just as with bibliographies (see [Section 4.3 \[Citations\]](#), page 5).

MakeIndex was designed to work with L^AT_EX; therefore, by default the `‘.ind’` file starts with `\begin{theindex}` and ends with `\end{theindex}`. If no `\begin` has been defined, Eplain defines one to ignore its argument and set up for typesetting the index (see below), and also defines a `\end` to ignore its argument. (In a group, naturally, since there is a primitive `\end`).

Eplain calls `\indexfonts`, sets `\parindent = 0pt`, and does `\doublecolumns` (see [Section 4.15 \[Multiple columns\]](#), page 24) at the `\begin{theindex}`. `\indexfonts` does nothing by default; it's just there for you to override. (Indexes are usually typeset in smaller type than the main text.)

It ends the setup with `\hookrun{beginindex}`, so you can override anything you like in that hook (see [Section 6.6.3 \[Hooks\]](#), page 37). For example:

```
\hookaction{beginindex}{\triplecolumns}
```

MakeIndex turns each main index entry into an `\item`, subentries into `\subitem`, and subsubentries into `\subsubitem`. By default, the first line of main entries are not indented, and subentries are indented 1em per level. Main entries are preceded by a `\vskip` of `\aboveitemskipamount`, 0pt plus 2pt by default. Page breaks are encouraged before main entries (`\penalty -100`), but prohibited afterwards—Eplain has no provision for “continued” index entries.

All levels do the following:

```
\hangindent = 1em
\raggedright
\hyphenpenalty = 10000
```

Each entry ends with `\hookrun{indexitem}`, so you can change any of this. For example, to increase the allowable rag:

```
\hookaction{indexitem}{\advance\rightskip by 2em}
```

Finally, MakeIndex outputs `\indexspace` between each group of entries in the `‘.ind’` file. Eplain makes this equivalent to `\bigbreak`.

4.11.3 Customizing indexing

By default, MakeIndex outputs `‘, ’` after each term in the index. To change this, you can add the following to your MakeIndex style (`‘.ist’`) file:

```
delim_0 "\\afterindexterm "
delim_1 "\\afterindexterm "
```

```
delim_2 "\\afterindexterm "
```

Eplain makes `\afterindexterm` equivalent to `\quad`.

You can also change the keywords Eplain recognizes (see [Section 4.11.1.2 \[Modifying index entries\]](#), page 18):

```
\idxrangebeginword
    'begin'
```

```
\idxrangeendword
    'end'
```

```
\idxseecmdword
    'see'
```

```
\idxseealsocmdword
    'seealso'
```

You can also change the magic characters Eplain puts into the `.idx` file, in case you’ve changed them in the `.ist` file:

```
\idxsubentryseparator
    '!'
```

```
\idxencapoperator
    '|'
```

```
\idxbeginrangemark
    '('
```

```
\idxendrangemark
    ')'
```

There is no macro for the **actual** (`@` by default) character, because it’s impossible to make it expand properly.

Finally, you can change the (imaginary) page number that “see also” entries sort as by redefining `\idxmaxpagenum`. This is 99999 by default, which is one digit too many for old versions of MakeIndex.

4.12 Justification

Eplain defines three commands to conveniently justify multiple lines of text: `\flushright`, `\flushleft`, and `\center`.

They all work in the same way; let’s take `\center` as the example. To start centering lines, you say `\center` inside a group; to stop, you end the group. Between the two commands, each end-of-line in the input file also starts a new line in the output file.

The entire block of text is broken into paragraphs at blank lines, so all the \TeX paragraph-shaping parameters apply in the usual way. This is convenient, but it implies something else that isn’t so convenient: changes to any linespacing parameters, such as `\baselineskip`, will have *no effect* on the paragraph in which they are changed. \TeX does not handle linespacing changes within a paragraph (because it doesn’t know where the line breaks are until the end of the paragraph).

The space between paragraphs is by default one blank line's worth. You can adjust this space by assigning to `\blanklineskipamount`; this (vertical) glue is inserted after each blank line.

Here is an example:

```
{\center First line.

      Second line, with a blank line before.
}
```

This produces:

First line.

Second line, with a blank line before.

You may wish to use the justification macros inside of your own macros. Just be sure to put them in a group. For example, here is how a title macro might be defined:

```
\def\title{\begingroup\titlefont\center}
\def\endtitle{\endgroup}
```

4.13 Tables

Eplain provides a single command, `\makecolumns`, to make generating one particular kind of table easier. More ambitious macro packages might be helpful to you for more difficult applications. The files `'ruled.tex'` and `'TXSruled.tex'`, available from `'lifshitz.ph.utexas.edu'` in `'texis/tables'`, is the only one I know of.

Many tables are homogenous, i.e., all the entries are semantically the same. The arrangement into columns is to save space on the page, not to encode different meanings. In this kind of the table, it is useful to have the column breaks chosen automatically, so that you can add or delete entries without worrying about the column breaks.

`\makecolumns` takes two arguments: the number of entries in the table, and the number of columns to break them into. As you can see from the example below, the first argument is delimited by a slash, and the second by a colon and a space (or end-of-line). The entries for the table then follow, one per line (not including the line with the `\makecolumns` command itself).

`\parindent` defines the space to the left of the table. `\hsize` defines the width of the table. So you can adjust the position of the table on the page by assignments to these parameters, probably inside a group.

You can also control the penalty at a page break before the `\makecolumns` by setting the parameter `\abovecolumnspenalty`. Usually, the table is preceded by some explanatory text. You wouldn't want a page break to occur after the text and before the table, so Eplain sets it to 10000. But if the table produced by `\makecolumns` is standing on its own, `\abovecolumnspenalty` should be decreased.

If you happen to give `\makecolumns` a smaller number of entries than you really have, some text beyond the (intended) end of the table will be incorporated into the table, probably producing an error message, or at least some strange looking entries. And if you give `\makecolumns` a larger number of entries than you really have, some of the entries will be typeset as straight text, probably also looking somewhat out of place.

Here is an example:

```
% Arrange 6 entries into 2 columns:
\makecolumns 6/2: % This line doesn't have an entry.
one
two
three
four
five
six
Text after the table.
```

This produces ‘one’, ‘two’, and ‘three’ in the first column, and ‘four’, ‘five’, and ‘six’ in the second.

4.14 Margins

T_EX’s primitives describe the type area in terms of an offset from the upper left corner, and the width and height of the type. Some people prefer to think in terms of the *margins* at the top, bottom, left, and right of the page, and most composition systems other than T_EX conceive of the page laid out in this way. Therefore, Eplain provides commands to directly assign and increment the margins.

```
\topmargin = dimen
\bottommargin = dimen
\leftmargin = dimen
\rightmargin = dimen
```

These commands set the specified margin to the *dimen* given. The = and the spaces around it are optional. The control sequences here are not T_EX registers, despite appearances; therefore, commands like `\showthe\topmargin` will not do what you expect.

```
\advancetopmargin by dimen
\advancebottommargin by dimen
\advanceleftmargin by dimen
\advancerrightmargin by dimen
```

These commands change the specified margin by the *dimen* given.

Regardless of whether you use the assignment or the advance commands, Eplain always changes the type area in response, not the other margins. For example, when T_EX starts, the left and right margins are both one inch. If you then say `\leftmargin = 2in`, the right margin will remain at one inch, and the width of the lines (i.e., `\hsize`) will decrease by one inch.

When you use any of these commands, Eplain computes the old value of the particular margin, by how much you want to change it, and then resets the values of T_EX’s primitive parameters to correspond. Unfortunately, Eplain cannot compute the right or bottom margin without help: you must tell it the full width and height of the final output page. It defines two new parameters for this:

```
\paperheight
```

The height of the output page; default is 11truein.

`\paperwidth`

The width of the output page; default is 8.5truein.

If your output page has different dimensions than this, you must reassign to these parameters, as in

```
\paperheight = 11truein
\paperwidth = 17truein
```

4.15 Multiple columns

Eplain provides for double, triple, and quadruple column output: say `\doublecolumns`, `\triplecolumns`, or `\quadcolumns`, and from that point on, the manuscript will be set in columns. To go back to one column, say `\singlecolumn`.

You may need to invoke `\singlecolumn` to balance the columns on the last page of output.

To do a “column eject”, i.e., move to the top of the next column, do `\columnfill`. This does not actually force an eject, however: it merely inserts a kern of size `\@normalvsize` minus `\pagetotal` (`\@normalvsize` being the usual height of the page; to implement multicolumns, Eplain multiplies `\vsize` itself by the number of columns). In most circumstances, a column break will be forced after this kern (during the column splitting operation when the whole page is output), as desired.

The columns are separated by the value of the dimen parameter `\gutter`. Default value is two picas. If you want to add vertical material between the columns, use `\gutterbox`. For example, to put a vertical line between columns, define `\gutterbox` as

```
\def\gutterbox{\vbox to \dimen0{\vfil\hbox{\vrule height\dimen0}\vfil}}%
```

The dimension counter `\dimen0` contains the height of the column.

All the `\...columns` macros insert the value of the glue parameter `\abovecolumnskip` before the multicolumn text, and the value of the glue parameter `\belowcolumnskip` after it. The default value for both of these parameters is `\bigskipamount`, i.e., one linespace in plain T_EX.

The macros take into account only the insertion classes defined by plain T_EX; namely, footnotes and `\topinserts`. If you have additional insertion classes, you will need to change the implementation.

Also, Eplain makes insertions the full page width. There is no provision for column-width insertions.

4.16 Footnotes

The most common reference mark for footnotes is a raised number, incremented on each footnote. The `\numberedfootnote` macro provides this. It takes one argument, the footnote text.

If your document uses only numbered footnotes, you could make typing `\numberedfootnote` more convenient with a command such as:

```
\let\footnote = \numberedfootnote
```

After doing this, you can type your footnotes as `\footnote{footnote text}`, instead of as `\numberedfootnote{footnote text}`.

Eplain keeps the current footnote number in the count register `\footnotenum`. So, to reset the footnote number to zero, as you might want to do at, for example, the beginning of a chapter, you could say `\footnotenum=0`.

Plain \TeX separates the footnote marker from the footnote text by an en space (it uses the `\textindent` macro). In Eplain, you can change this space by setting the dimension register `\footnotemarkseparation`. The default is still an en.

You can produce a space between footnotes by setting the glue register `\interfootnoteskip`. The default is zero.

`\parskip` is also set to zero by default before the beginning of each footnote (but not for the text of the footnote).

You can also control footnote formatting in a more general way: Eplain expands the token register `\everyfootnote` before a footnote is typeset, but after the default values for all the parameters have been established. For example, if you want your footnotes to be printed in seven-point type, indented by one inch, you could say:

```
\everyfootnote = {\sevenrm \leftskip = 1in}
```

By default, an `\hrule` is typeset above each group of footnotes on a page. You can control the dimensions of this rule by setting the dimension registers `\footnoterulewidth` and `\footnoteruleheight`. The space between the rule and the first footnote on the page is determined by the dimension register `\belowfootnoterulespace`. If you don't want any rule at all, set `\footnoteruleheight=0pt`, and, most likely, `\belowfootnoterulespace=0pt`. The defaults for these parameters typeset the rule in the same way as plain \TeX : the rule is 0.4 points high, 2 true inches wide, with 2.6 points below it.

The space above the rule and below the text on the page is controlled by the glue register `\skip\footins`. The default is a plain \TeX `\bigskip`.

4.17 Fractions

Exercise 11.6 of *The \TeX book* describes a macro `\frac` for setting fractions, but `\frac` never made it into plain \TeX . So Eplain includes it.

`\frac` typesets the numerator and denominator in `\scriptfont0`, slightly raised and lowered. The numerator and denominator are separated by a slash. The denominator must be enclosed in braces if it's more than one token long, but the numerator need not be. (This is a consequence of `\frac` taking delimited arguments; see page 203 of *The \TeX book* for an explanation of delimited macro arguments.)

For example, `\frac 23/{64}` turns '23/64' into $^{23}/_{64}$.

4.18 Paths

When you typeset long pathnames, electronic mail addresses, or other such "computer" names, you would like \TeX to break lines at punctuation characters within the name, rather than trying to find hyphenation points within the words. For example, it would be better to break the email address `letters@alpha.gnu.ai.mit.edu` at the '@' or a '.', rather than at the hyphenation points in 'letters' and 'alpha'.

If you use the `\path` macro to typeset the names, \TeX will find these good breakpoints. The argument to `\path` is delimited by any character other than '\', which does not appear in the name itself. '|' is often a good choice, as in:

```
\path|letters@alpha.gnu.ai.mit.edu|
```

You can control the exact set of characters at which breakpoints will be allowed by calling `\discretionaries`. This takes the same sort of delimited argument; any character in the argument will henceforth be a valid breakpoint within `\path`. The default set is essentially all the punctuation characters:

```
\discretionaries |~!@$%^&*()_+‘-#{ }[]:”;’<>,.?\/|
```

If for some reason you absolutely must use `\` as the delimiter character for `\path`, you can set `\specialpathdelimiterstrue`. (Other delimiter characters can still be used.) T_EX then processes the `\path` argument about four times more slowly.

4.19 Logos

Eplain redefines the `\TeX` macro of plain T_EX to end with `\null`, so that the proper spacing is produced when `\TeX` is used at the end of a sentence. The other `...TeX` macros listed here do this, also.

Eplain defines `\AMSTeX`, `\BibTeX`, `\AMSLaTeX`, `\LAMSTeX`, `\LaTeX`, `\MF`, and `\SLiTeX` to produce their respective logos. (Sorry, the logos are not shown here.) Some spelling variants of these are also supported.

4.20 Boxes

The solid rectangle that Eplain uses as a marker in unordered lists (see [Section 4.6 \[Lists\]](#), [page 9](#)) is available by itself: just say `\blackbox`.

You can create black boxes of arbitrary size with `\hrule` or `\vrule`.

You can also get unfilled rectangles with `\makeblankbox`. This takes two explicit arguments: the height and depth of the rules that define the top and bottom of the rectangle. (The two arguments are added to get the width of the left and right borders, so that the thickness of the border is the same on all four sides.) It also uses, as implicit arguments, the dimensions of `\box0` to define the dimensions of the rectangle it produces. (The contents of `\box0` are ignored.)

Here is an example. This small raised open box is suitable for putting next to numbers in, e.g., a table of contents.

```
\def\openbox{%
  \ht0 = 1.75pt \dp0 = 1.75pt \wd0 = 3.5pt
  \raise 2.75pt \makeblankbox{.2pt}{.2pt}
}
```

Finally, you can put a box around arbitrary text with `\boxit`. This takes one argument, which must itself be a (T_EX) box, and puts a printed box around it, separated by `\boxitspace` white space (3 points by default) on all four sides. For example:

```
\boxit{\hbox{This text is boxed.}}
```

The reason that the argument must be a box is that when the text is more than one line long, T_EX cannot figure out the line length for itself. Eplain does set `\parindent` to zero inside `\boxit`, since it is very unlikely you would want indentation there. (If you do, you can always reset it yourself.)

`\boxit` uses `\ehrule` and `\evrule` so that you can easily adjust the thicknesses of the box rules. See [Section 4.2 \[Rules\]](#), [page 5](#).

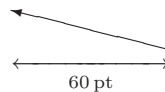
5 Arrow theoretic diagrams

This chapter describes definitions for producing commutative diagrams.

Steven Smith wrote this documentation (and the macros).

5.1 Slanted lines and vectors

The macros `\drawline` and `\drawvector` provide the capability found in LaTeX's `picture` mode to draw slanted lines and vectors of certain directions. Both of these macros take three arguments: two integer arguments to specify the direction of the line or vector, and one argument to specify its length. For example, `'\drawvector(-4,1){60pt}'` produces the vector



which lies in the 2d quadrant, has a slope of minus $1/4$, and a width of 60 pt.

Note that if an `\hbox` is placed around `\drawline` or `\drawvector`, then the width of the `\hbox` will be the positive dimension specified in the third argument, except when a vertical line or vector is specified, e.g., `\drawline(0,1){1in}`, which has zero width. If the specified direction lies in the 1st or 2d quadrant (e.g., $(1,1)$ or $(-2,3)$), then the `\hbox` will have positive height and zero depth. Conversely, if the specified direction lies in the 3d or 4th quadrant (e.g., $(-1,-1)$ or $(2,-3)$), then the `\hbox` will have positive depth and zero height.

There are a finite number of directions that can be specified. For `\drawline`, the absolute value of each integer defining the direction must be less than or equal to six, i.e., $(7,-1)$ is incorrect, but $(6,-1)$ is acceptable. For `\drawvector`, the absolute value of each integer must be less than or equal to four. Furthermore, the two integers cannot have common divisors; therefore, if a line with slope 2 is desired, say $(2,1)$ instead of $(4,2)$. Also, specify $(1,0)$ instead of, say, $(3,0)$ for horizontal lines and likewise for vertical lines.

Finally, these macros depend upon the LaTeX font `line10`. If your site doesn't have this font, ask your system administrator to get it. Future enhancements will include macros to draw dotted lines and dotted vectors of various directions.

5.2 Commutative diagrams

The primitive commands `\drawline` and `\drawvector` can be used to typeset arrow theoretic diagrams. This section describes (1) macros to facilitate typesetting arrows and morphisms, and (2) macros to facilitate the construction of commutative diagrams. All macros described in this section must be used in math mode.

5.2.1 Arrows and morphisms

The macros `\mapright` and `\mapleft` produce right and left pointing arrows, respectively. Use superscript (`^`) to place a morphism above the arrow, e.g., `'\mapright^{\alpha}'`; use subscript (`_`) to place a morphism below the arrow, e.g., `'\mapright_{\tilde{1}}'`. Superscripts and subscripts may be used simultaneously, e.g., `'\mapright^{\pi}_{\rm epimor.}'`.

Similarly, the macros `\mapup` and `\mapdown` produce up and down pointing arrows, respectively. Use `\rt` to place a morphism to the right of the arrow, e.g., `'\mapup\rt{\rm`

id}'; use `\lft` to place a morphism to the left of the arrow, e.g., '`\mapup\lft\omega`'. `\lft` and `\rt` may be used simultaneously, e.g., '`\mapdown\lft\pi\rt{\rm monomor.}`'.

Slanted arrows are produced by the macro `\arrow`, which takes a direction argument (e.g., '`\arrow(3,-4)`'). Use `\rt` and `\lft` to place morphisms to the right and left, respectively, of the arrow. A slanted line (no arrowhead) is produced with the macro `\sline`, whose syntax is identical to that of `\arrow`.

The length of these macros is predefined by the default T_EX dimensions `\harrowlength`, for horizontal arrows (or lines), `\varrowlength`, for vertical arrows (or lines), and `\sarrowlength`, for slanted arrows (or lines). To change any of these dimensions, say, e.g., '`\harrowlength=40pt`'. As with all other T_EX dimensions, the change may be as global or as local as you like. Furthermore, the placement of morphisms on the arrows is controlled by the dimensions `\hmorphposn`, `\vmorphposn`, and `\morphdist`. The first two dimensions control the horizontal and vertical position of the morphism from its default position; the latter dimension controls the distance of the morphism from the arrow. If you have more than one morphism per arrow (i.e., a `~/_` or `\lft/\rt` construction), use the parameters `\hmorphposnup`, `\hmorphposndn`, `\vmorphposnup`, `\vmorphposndn`, `\hmorphposnrt`, `\hmorphposnlft`, `\vmorphposnrt`, and `\vmorphposnlft`. The default values of all these dimensions are provided in the section on parameters that follows below.

There is a family of macros to produce horizontal lines, arrows, and adjoint arrows. The following macros produce horizontal maps and have the same syntax as `\mapright`:

```
\mapright      $X\mapright Y$ \equiv X \longrightarrow Y.
\mapleft       $X\mapleft Y$  \equiv X \longleftarrow Y.
\hline         $X\hline Y$    \equiv X \longrightarrow Y.
\bimapright    $X\bimapright Y$ \equiv X \Longrightarrow Y.
\bimapleft     $X\bimapleft Y$  \equiv X \Longleftarrow Y.
\adjmapright   $X\adjmapright Y$ \equiv X \rightleftarrows Y.
\adjmapleft    $X\adjmapleft Y$  \equiv X \leftleftarrows Y.
\bihline       $X\bihline Y$    \equiv X \Longrightarrow Y.
```

There is also a family of macros to produce vertical lines, arrows, and adjoint arrows. The following macros produce vertical maps and have the same syntax as `\mapdown`:

```
\mapdown      (a down arrow)
\mapup        (an up arrow)
\vline        (vertical line)
\bimapdown    (two down arrows)
```

`\bimapup` (two up arrows)
`\adjmapdown`
 (two adjoint arrows; down then up)
`\adjmapup`
 (two adjoint arrows; up then down)
`\bivline` (two vertical lines)

Finally, there is a family of macros to produce slanted lines, arrows, and adjoint arrows. The following macros produce slanted maps and have the same syntax as `\arrow`:

`\arrow` (a slanted arrow)
`\sline` (a slanted line)
`\biarrow` (two straight arrows)
`\adjarrow`
 (two adjoint arrows)
`\bisline` (two straight lines)

The width between double arrows is controlled by the parameter `\channelwidth`. The parameters `\hchannel` and `\vchannel`, if nonzero, override `\channelwidth` by controlling the horizontal and vertical shifting from the first arrow to the second.

There are no adornments on these arrows to distinguish inclusions from epimorphisms from monomorphisms. Many texts, such as Lang's book *Algebra*, use as a tasteful alternative the symbol 'inc' (in roman) next to an arrow to denote inclusion.

Future enhancements will include a mechanism to draw curved arrows found in, e.g., the Snake Lemma, by employing a version of the `\path` macros of Appendix D of *The T_EXbook*.

5.2.2 Construction of commutative diagrams

There are two approaches to the construction of commutative diagrams described here. The first approach, and the simplest, treats commutative diagrams like fancy matrices, as Knuth does in Exercise 18.46 of *The T_EXbook*. This case is covered by the macro `\commdiag`, which is an altered version of the Plain T_EX macro `\matrix`. An example suffices to demonstrate this macro. The following commutative diagram (illustrating the covering homotopy property; Bott and Tu, *Differential Forms in Algebraic Topology*)

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 Y & \xrightarrow{f} & E \\
 \downarrow & \nearrow f_t & \downarrow \\
 Y \times I & \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_t} & X
 \end{array}$$

is produced with the code

```

 $\commdiag{Y&\mapright^fE\cr \mapdown&\arrow(3,2)\lft{f_t}&\mapdown\cr
Y\times I&\mapright^{\bar f_t}X}$ 

```


Of course, the parameters may be changed to produce a different effect. The following commutative diagram (illustrating the universal mapping property; Warner, *Foundations of Differentiable Manifolds and Lie Groups*)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V \otimes W & & \\ \uparrow \phi & \searrow \tilde{l} & \\ V \times W & \xrightarrow{l} & U \end{array}$$

is produced with the code

```

 $\varrowlength=20pt$ 
 $\commdiag{V\otimes W\cr \mapup\lft\phi&\arrow(3,-1)\rt{\tilde l}\cr$ 
 $V\times W&\mapright^l&U\cr}$ 

```

A diagram containing isosceles triangles is achieved by placing the apex of the triangle in the center column, as shown in the example (illustrating all constant minimal realizations of a linear system; Brockett, *Finite Dimensional Linear Systems*)

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & R^m & & \\ & \swarrow \mathbf{B} & & \searrow \mathbf{G} & \\ R^n & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} & R^n & & \\ \downarrow e^{\mathbf{A}t} & & & & \downarrow e^{\mathbf{F}t} \\ R^n & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} & R^n & & \\ & \swarrow \mathbf{C} & & \searrow \mathbf{H} & \\ & & R^q & & \end{array}$$

which is produced with the code

```

 $\sarrowlength=.42\harrowlength$ 
 $\commdiag{\&R^m\cr \&\arrow(-1,-1)\lft{\bf B}\quad \arrow(1,-1)\rt{\bf G}\cr$ 
 $R^n&\mapright^{\bf P}&R^n\cr$ 
 $\mapdown\lft{e^{\bf A}t}&\&\mapdown\rt{e^{\bf F}t}\cr$ 
 $R^n&\mapright^{\bf P}&R^n\cr$ 
 $\&\arrow(1,-1)\lft{\bf C}\quad \arrow(-1,-1)\rt{\bf H}\cr$ 
 $\&R^q\cr}$ 

```

Other commutative diagram examples appear in the file `commdiags.tex`, which is distributed with this package.

In these examples the arrow lengths and line slopes were carefully chosen to blend with each other. In the first example, the default settings for the arrow lengths are used, but a direction for the arrow must be chosen. The ratio of the default horizontal and vertical arrow lengths is approximately the golden mean $\gamma = 1.618\dots$; the arrow direction closest to this mean is (3,2). In the second example, a slope of $-1/3$ is desired and the default horizontal arrow length is 60 pt; therefore, choose a vertical arrow length of 20 pt. You may affect the interline glue settings of `\commdiag` by redefining the macro `\commdiagbaselines`. (cf. Exercise 18.46 of *The T_EXbook* and the section on parameters below.)

The width, height, and depth of all morphisms are hidden so that the morphisms' size do not affect arrow positions. This can cause a large morphism at the top or bottom of a diagram to impinge upon the text surrounding the diagram. To overcome this problem, use `TeX`'s `\noalign` primitive to insert a `\vskip` immediately above or below the offending line, e.g., `'\commdiag{\noalign{\vskip6pt}X&\mapright^{\int&Y}\cr ...}'`.

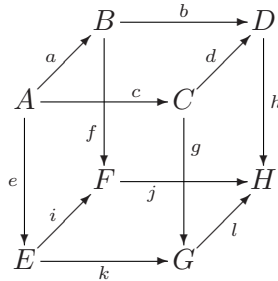
The macro `\commdiag` is too simple to be used for more complicated diagrams, which may have intersecting or overlapping arrows. A second approach, borrowed from Francis Borceux's *Diagram* macros for `LaTeX`, treats the commutative diagram like a grid of identically shaped boxes. To compose the commutative diagram, first draw an equally spaced grid, e.g.,

```

. . . . .
. . . . .
. . . . .
. . . . .

```

on a piece of scratch paper. Then draw each element (vertices and arrows) of the commutative diagram on this grid, centered at each grid point. Finally, use the macro `\gridcommdiag` to implement your design as a `TeX` alignment. For example, the cubic diagram



that appears in Francis Borceux's documentation can be implemented on a 7 by 7 grid, and is achieved with the code

```

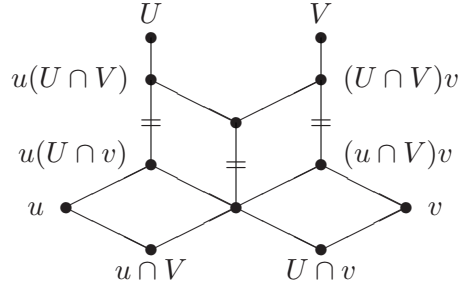
 $\harrowlength=48pt \varrowlength=48pt \sarrowlength=20pt$ 
\def\cross#1#2{\setbox0=\hbox{#1$}%
  \hbox to\wd0{\hss\hbox{#2$}\hss}\llap{\unhbox0}}
\gridcommdiag{&&B&&\mapright^b&&D\cr
&\arrow(1,1)\lft a&&&\arrow(1,1)\lft d\cr
A&&\cross{\hmorphposn=12pt\mapright^c}{\vmorphposn=-12pt\mapdown\lft f}\cr
&&C&&\mapdown\rt h\cr\cr
\mapdown\lft e&&F&&\cross{\hmorphposn=-12pt\mapright_j}\cr
{\vmorphposn=12pt\mapdown\rt g}&&H\cr
&\arrow(1,1)\lft i&&&\arrow(1,1)\rt l\cr
E&&\mapright_k&&G\cr}$$$

```

The dimensions `\hgrid` and `\vgrid` control the horizontal and vertical spacing of the grid used by `\gridcommdiag`. The default setting for both of these dimensions is 15 pt. Note that in the example of the cube the arrow lengths must be adjusted so that the arrows overlap into neighboring boxes by the desired amount. Hence, the `\gridcommdiag` method, albeit more powerful, is less automatic than the simpler `\commdiag` method. Furthermore, the ad hoc macro `\cross` is introduced to allow the effect of overlapping arrows. Finally,

note that the positions of four of the morphisms are adjusted by setting `\hmorphposn` and `\vmorphposn`.

One is not restricted to a square grid. For example, the proof of Zassenhaus's Butterfly Lemma can be illustrated by the diagram (appearing in Lang's book *Algebra*)



This diagram may be implemented on a 9 by 12 grid with an aspect ratio of 1/2, and is set with the code

```

 $\hgrid=16pt \vgrid=8pt \sarrowlength=32pt$ 
\def\cross#1#2{\setbox0=\hbox{#1$}%
  \hbox to\wd0{\hss\hbox{#2$}\hss}\llap{\unhbox0}}
\def\l#1{\llap{#1$\hskip.5em}}
\def\r#1{\rlap{\hskip.5em$#1}}
\gridcommdiag{&&U&&&V\cr &&\bullet&&&\bullet\cr
&&\sarrowlength=16pt\sline(0,1)&&&\sarrowlength=16pt\sline(0,1)\cr
&&\l{u(U\cap V)}\bullet&&&\bullet\r{(U\cap V)v}\cr
&&\sline(2,-1)&&\sline(2,1)\cr
&&\cross{=}{\sline(0,1)}&&\bullet&&\cross{=}{\sline(0,1)}\cr
&&\l{\textstyle u(U\cap v)}\bullet&&\cross{=}{\sline(0,1)}&&
  \bullet\r{\textstyle (u\cap V)v}\cr
&&\sline(2,1)&&\sline(2,-1)&&\sline(2,1)&&\sline(2,-1)\cr
&&\l{u}\bullet&&&\bullet&&&\bullet\r{v}\cr
&&\sline(2,-1)&&\sline(2,1)&&\sline(2,-1)&&\sline(2,1)\cr
&&\bullet&&&\bullet\cr &&u\cap V&&&U\cap v\cr}

```

Again, the construction of this diagram requires careful choices for the arrow lengths and is facilitated by the introduction of the ad hoc macros `\cross`, `\r`, and `\l`. Note also that superscripts were used to adjust the position of the vertices $u(U \cap v)$ and $(u \cap V)v$. Many diagrams may be typeset with the predefined macros that appear here; however, ingenuity is often required to handle special cases.

5.2.3 Commutative diagram parameters

The following is a list describing the parameters used in the commutative diagram macros. These dimensions may be changed globally or locally.

`\harrowlength`

(Default: 60 pt) The length of right or left arrows.

`\varrowlength`

(Default: 0.618 \harrowlength) The length of up or down arrows.

- `\sarrowlength`
(Default: 60 pt) The horizontal length of slanted arrows.
- `\hmorphposn`
(Default: 0 pt) The horizontal position of the morphism with respect to its default position. There are also the dimensions `\hmorphposnup`, `\hmorphposndn`, `\hmorphposnrt`, and `\hmorphposnlft` for `^/_` or `\lft/\rt` constructions.
- `\vmorphposn`
(Default: 0 pt) The vertical position of the morphism with respect to its default position. There are also the dimensions `\vmorphposnup`, `\vmorphposndn`, `\vmorphposnrt`, and `\vmorphposnlft` for `^/_` or `\lft/\rt` constructions.
- `\morphdist`
(Default: 4 pt) The distance of morphisms from slanted lines or arrows.
- `\channelwidth`
(Default: 3 pt) The distance between double lines or arrows.
- `\hchannel`, `\vchannel`
(Defaults: 0 pt) Overrides `\channelwidth`. The horizontal and vertical shifts between double lines or arrows.
- `\commdiagbaselines`
(Default: `\baselineskip=15pt \lineskip=3pt \lineskiplimit=3pt`) The parameters used by `\commdiag` for setting interline glue.
- `\hgrid` (Default: 15 pt) The horizontal spacing of the grid used by `\gridcommdiag`.
- `\vgrid` (Default: 15 pt) The vertical spacing of the grid used by `\gridcommdiag`.

6 Programming definitions

The definitions in this section are only likely to be useful when you are writing nontrivial macros, not when writing a document.

6.1 Category codes

Plain T_EX defines `\active` (as the number 13) for use in changing category codes. Although the author of *The T_EXbook* has “intentionally kept the category codes numeric”, two other categories are commonly used: letters (category code 11) and others (12). Therefore, Eplain defines `\letter` and `\other`.

Sometimes it is cleaner to make a character active without actually writing a `\catcode` command. The `\makeactive` command takes a character as an argument to make active (and ignores following spaces). For example, here are two commands which both make `\` active:

```
\makeactive'\ \ \makeactive92
```

Usually, when you give a definition to an active character, you have to do so inside a group where you temporarily make the character active, and then give it a global definition (cf. the definition of `\obeyspaces` in *The T_EXbook*). This is inconvenient if you are writing a long macro, or if the character already has a global definition you do not wish to transcend. Eplain provides `\letreturn`, which defines the usual end-of-line character to be the argument. For example:

```
\def\mymacro{... \letreturn\myreturn ... }
\mymacro hello
there
```

The end-of-line between ‘hello’ and ‘there’ causes `\myreturn` to be expanded.

The T_EXbook describes `\uncatcodespecials`, which makes all characters which are normally “special” into “other” characters, but the definition never made it into plain T_EX. Eplain therefore defines it.

Finally, `\percentchar` expands into a literal ‘%’ character. This is useful when you `\write TEX` output to a file, and want to avoid spurious spaces. For example, Eplain writes a `\percentchar` after the definition of cross-references. The macros `\lbracechar` and `\rbracechar` expand similarly.

6.2 Allocation macros

Plain T_EX provides macros that allocate registers of each primitive type in T_EX, to prevent different sets of macros from using the same register for two different things. The macros are all named starting with ‘new’, e.g., `\newcount` allocates a new “count” (integer) register. Such allocations are usually needed only at the top level of some macro definition file; therefore, plain T_EX makes the allocation registers `\outer`, to help find errors. (The error this helps to find is a missing right brace in some macro definition.)

Sometimes, however, it is useful to allocate a register as part of some macro. An outer control sequence cannot be used as part of a macro definition (or in a few other contexts: the parameter text of a definition, an argument to a definition, the preamble of an alignment, or in conditional text that is being skipped). Therefore, Eplain defines “inner”

versions of all the allocation macros, named with the prefix ‘inner’: `\innernewbox`, `\innernewcount`, `\innernewdimen`, `\innernewfam`, `\innernewhelp`, `\innernewif`, `\innernewinsert`, `\innernewlanguage`, `\innernewread`, `\innernewskip`, `\innernewtoks`, `\innernewwrite`.

You can also define non-outer versions of other macros in the same way that Eplain defines the above. The basic macro is called `\innerdef`:

```
\innerdef \innername {outername}
```

The first argument (`\innername`) to `\innerdef` is the control sequence that you want to define. Any previous definition of `\innername` is replaced. The second argument (`outername`) is the *characters* in the name of the outer control sequence. (You can’t use the actual control sequence name, since it’s outer!)

If the outer control sequence is named `\cs`, and you want to define `innercs` as the inner one, you can use `\innerinnerdef`, which is just an abbreviation for a call to `\innerdef`. For example, these two calls are equivalent:

```
\innerdef\innerproclaim{proclaim}
\innerinnerdef{proclaim}
```

6.3 Iteration

You can iterate through a comma-separated list of items with `\for`. Here is an example:

```
\for\name:=karl,kathy\do{%
  \message{\name}%
}%
```

This writes ‘karl’ and ‘kathy’ to the terminal. Spaces before or after the commas in the list, or after the `:=`, are *not* ignored.

`\for` expands the iterated values fully (with `\edef`), so this is equivalent to the above:

```
\def\namelist{karl,kathy}%
\for\name:=\namelist\do ...
```

6.4 Macro arguments

It is occasionally useful to redefine a macro that takes arguments to do nothing. Eplain defines `\gobble`, `\gobbletwo`, and `\gobblethree` to swallow one, two, and three arguments, respectively.

For example, if you want to produce a “short” table of contents—one that includes only chapters, say—the easiest thing to do is read the entire `.toc` file (see [Section 4.8 \[Contents\]](#), [page 12](#)), and just ignore the commands that produce section or subsection entries. To be specific:

```
\let\tocchapterentry = \shorttocchapter
\let\tocsectionentry = \gobbletwo
\let\tocsubsectionentry = \gobbletwo
\readtocfile
```

(Of course, this assumes you only have chapters, sections, and subsections in your document.)

In addition, Eplain defines `\eattoken` to swallow the single following token, using `\let`. Thus, `\gobble` followed by `{...}` ignores the entire brace-enclosed text. `\eattoken` followed by the same ignores only the opening left brace.

Eplain defines a macro `\identity` which takes one argument and expands to that argument. This may be useful if you want to provide a function for the user to redefine, but don't need to do anything by default. (For example, the default definition of `\eqconstruct` (see [Section 4.10.1.1 \[Formatting equation references\]](#), page 15) is `\identity`.)

You may also want to read an optional argument. The established convention is that optional arguments are put in square brackets, so that is the syntax Eplain recognizes. Eplain ignores space tokens before an optional argument, via `\futurenonspacilet`.

You test for an optional argument by using `\@getoptionalarg`. It takes one argument, a control sequence to expand after reading the argument, if present. If an optional argument is present, the control sequence `\@optionalarg` expands to it; otherwise, `\@optionalarg` is `\empty`. You must therefore have the category code of `@` set to 11 (letter). Here is an example:

```
\catcode'\@=\letter
\def\cmd{\@getoptionalarg\finishcmd}
\def\finishcmd{%
  \ifx\@optionalarg\empty
    % No optional argument present.
  \else
    % One was present.
  \fi
}
```

If an optional argument contains another optional argument, the inner one will need to be enclosed in braces, so T_EX does not mistake the end of the first for the end of the second.

6.5 Converting to characters

Eplain defines `\xrlabel` to produce control sequence names for cross-reference labels, et al. This macro expands to its argument with an `'_'` appended. (It does this because the usual use of `\xrlabel` is to generate a control sequence name, and we naturally want to avoid conflicts between control sequence names.)

Because `\xrlabel` is fully expandable, to make a control sequence name out of the result you need only do

```
\csname \xrlabel{label}\endcsname
```

The `\csname` primitive makes a control sequence name out of any sequence of character tokens, regardless of category code. Labels can therefore include any characters except for `'\'`, `'{'`, `'}'`, and `'#'`, all of which are used in macro definitions themselves.

`\sanitize` takes a control sequence as an argument and converts the expansion of the control sequence into a list of character tokens. This is the behavior you want when writing information like chapter titles to an output file. For example, here is part of the definition of `\writenumberedtocentry`; #2 is the title that the user has given.

```
...
\def\temp{#2}%
```

```

...
\write\tocfile{%
...
\sanitize\temp
...
}%

```

6.6 Expansion

This section describes some miscellaneous macros for expansion, etc.

6.6.1 `\csn` and `\ece`

`\csn{name}` simply abbreviates `\csname name \encsname`, thus saving some typing. The extra level of expansion does take some time, though, so I don't recommend it for an inner loop.

`\ece{token}{name}` abbreviates
`\expandafter token \csname name \endcsname`

For example,

```

\def\fontabbrevdef#1#2{\ece\def{@#1font}{#2}}
\fontabbrevdef{normal}{ptmr}

```

defines a control sequence `\@normalfont` to expand to `ptmr`.

6.6.2 `\edefappend`

`\edefappend` is a way of adding on to an existing definition. It takes two arguments: the first is the control sequence name, the second the new tokens to append to the definition. The second argument is fully expanded (in the `\edef` that redefines the control sequence).

For example:

```

\def\foo{abc}
\def\bar{xyz}
\edefappend\foo{\bar karl}

```

results in `\foo` being defined as `'abcxyzkarl'`.

6.6.3 Hooks

A *hook* is simply a name for a group of actions which is executed in certain places—presumably when it is most useful to allow customization or modification. `TEX` already provides many builtin hooks; for example, the `\every ...` token lists are all examples of hooks.

Eplain provides several macros for adding actions to hooks. They all take two arguments: the name of the hook and the new actions.

```

hookaction name actions
hookappend name actions
hookprepend name actions

```

Each of these adds *actions* to the hook *name*. (Any previously-defined actions are retained.) *name* is not a control sequence, but rather the characters of the name.

`hookactiononce name \cs`

`\hookactiononce` adds `cs` to `name`, like the macros above, but first it adds

`\global\let \cs \relax`

to the definition of `\cs`. (This implies `\cs` must be a true expandable macro, not a control sequence `\let` to a primitive or some other such thing.) Thus, `\cs` is expanded the next time the hook `name` is run, but it will disappear after that.

The `\global` is useful because `\hookactiononce` is most useful when the grouping structure of the T_EX code could be anything. Neither this nor the other hook macros do global assignments to the hook variable itself, so T_EX's usual grouping rules apply.

The companion macro to defining hook actions is `\hookrun`, for running them. This takes a single argument, the name of the hook. If no actions for the hook are defined, no error ensues.

Here is a skeleton of general `\begin` and `\end` macros that run hooks, and a couple of calls to define actions. The use of `\hookprepend` for the begin action and `\hookappend` for the end action ensures that the actions are executed in proper sequence with other actions (as long as the other actions use `\hookprepend` and `\hookappend` also).

```
\def\begin#1{ ... \hookrun{begin} ... }
\def\end#1{ ... \hookrun{end} ... }
\hookprepend{begin}\start_underline
\hookappend{end}\finish_underline
```

6.6.4 Properties

A *property* is a name/value pair associated with another symbol, traditionally called an *atom*. Both atom and property names are control sequence names.

Eplain provides two macros for dealing with property lists: `\setproperty` and `\getproperty`.

`\setproperty atom propname value`

`\setproperty` defines the property *property* on the atom *atom* to be *value*. *atom* and *propname* can be anything acceptable to `\csname`. *value* can be anything.

`\getproperty atom propname`

`\getproperty` expands to the value stored for *propname* on *atom*. If *propname* is undefined, it expands to nothing (i.e., `\empty`).

The idea of properties originated in Lisp (I believe). There, the implementation truly does associate properties with atoms. In T_EX, where we have no builtin support for properties, the association is only conceptual.

The following example typesets ‘xyz’.

```
\setproperty{a}{pr}{xyz}
\getproperty{a}{pr}
```


6.6.5 `\expandonce`

`\expandonce` is defined as `\expandafter\noexpand`. Thus, `\expandonce token` expands `token` once, instead of to \TeX primitives. This is most useful in an `\edef`.

For example, the following defines `\temp` to be `\foo`, not ‘`abc`’.

```
\def\foo{abc}
\def\bar{\foo}
\edef\temp{\expandonce\bar}
```

6.6.6 `\ifundefined`

`\ifundefined{cs} t \else f \fi` expands the `t` text if the control sequence `\cs` is undefined or has been `\let` to `\relax`, and the `f` text otherwise.

Since `\ifundefined` is not a primitive conditional, it cannot be used in places where \TeX might skip tokens “at high speed”, e.g., within another conditional— \TeX can’t match up the `\if`’s and `\fi`’s.

This macro was taken directly from *The \TeX book*, page 308.

6.6.7 `\futurenonspacel`

The `\futurelet` primitive allows you to look at the next token from the input. Sometimes, though, you want to look ahead ignoring any spaces. This is what `\futurenonspacel` does. It is otherwise the same as `\futurelet`: you give it two control sequences as arguments, and it assigns the next nonspace token to the first, and then expands the second. For example:

```
\futurenonspacel\temp\finishup
\def\finishup{\ifx\temp ...}
```

6.7 Obeying spaces

`\obeywhitespace` makes both end-of-lines and space characters in the input be respected in the output. Unlike plain \TeX ’s `\obeyspaces`, even spaces at the beginnings of lines turn into blank space.

By default, the size of the space that is produced by a space character is the natural space of the current font, i.e., what `\` produces.

Ordinarily, a blank line in the input produces as much blank vertical space as a line of text would occupy. You can adjust this by assigning to the parameter `\blanklineskipamount`: if you set this negative, the space produced by a blank line will be smaller; if positive, larger.

Tabs are not affected by this routine. In particular, if tabs occur at the beginning of a line, they will disappear. (If you are trying to make \TeX do the “right thing” with tabs, don’t. Use a utility program like *expand* instead.)

6.8 Writing out numbers

`\numbername` produces the written-out form of its argument, i.e., ‘zero’ through ‘ten’ for the numbers 0–10, and numerals for all others.

6.9 Mode-specific penalties

T_EX’s built-in `\penalty` command simply appends to the current list, no matter what kind of list it is. You might intend a particular penalty to always be a “vertical” penalty, however, i.e., appended to a vertical list. Therefore, Eplain provides `\vpenalty` and `\hpenalty` which first leave the other mode and then do `\penalty`.

More precisely, `\vpenalty` inserts `\par` if the current mode is horizontal, and `\hpenalty` inserts `\leavevmode` if the current mode is vertical. (Thus, `\vpenalty` cannot be used in math mode.)

6.10 Auxiliary files

It is common to write some information out to a file to be used on a subsequent run. But when it is time to read the file again, you only want to do so if the file actually exists. `\testfileexistence` is given an argument which is appended to `\jobname`, and sets the conditional `\iffileexists` appropriately.

For example:

```
\testfileexistence{toc}%
\iffileexists
  \input \jobname.toc
\fi
```

6.11 User-defined environments

Plain T_EX does not provide “named” block structures, only the anonymous `\begingroup` and `\endgroup` pair. The disadvantage of this is that when there are several such groups and one is mismatched, it can be difficult to find the error. Eplain provides a named block structure so that if you forget an `\environment` or an `\endenvironment`, you will (probably) get an error message about it.

For example:

```
\def\itpar{
  \environment{@italicpar}
  \it\par
}
\def\enditpar{
  \par
  \endenvironment{@italicpar}%
}
```

which could then be used to set italicized paragraphs:

```
\itpar
If I reprehend anything in this world, it is the use of my oracular
tongue, and a nice derangement of epitaphs!
\enditpar
```

The above sort of environment allows nesting. But environments shouldn’t always be allowed to nest. Put the control sequence `\checkenv` at the beginning of a macro that is going to define an environment that should not be nested.

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