A System for Typesetting Mathematics

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes the design and implementation of a system for typesetting mathematics. The language has been designed to be easy to learn and to use by people (for example, secretaries and mathematical typists) who know neither mathematics nor typesetting. Experience indicates that the language can be learned in an hour or so, for it has few rules and fewer exceptions. For typical expressions, the size and font changes, positioning, line drawing, and the like necessary to print according to mathematical conventions are all done automatically. For example, the input

sum from i=0 to infinity x sub i = pi over 2

produces

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

The syntax of the language is specified by a small context-free grammar; a compiler-compiler is used to make a compiler that translates this language into typesetting commands. Output may be produced on either a phototypesetter or on a terminal with forward and reverse half-line motions. The system interfaces directly with text formatting programs, so mixtures of text and mathematics may be handled simply.

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1. Introduction

‘‘Mathematics is known in the trade as *difficult,* or *penalty, copy* because it is slower, more difficult, and more expensive to set in type than any other kind of copy normally occurring in books and journals.’’ [1]

One difficulty with mathematical text is the multiplicity of characters, sizes, and fonts. An expression such as

$$\lim_{x \to \pi/2} (\tan x)^{\sin 2x} = 1$$

requires an intimate mixture of roman, italic and greek letters, in three sizes, and a special character or two. (‘‘Requires’’ is perhaps the wrong word, but mathematics has its own typographical conventions which are quite different from those of ordinary text.) Typesetting such an expression by traditional methods is still an essentially manual operation.

A second difficulty is the two dimensional character of mathematics, which the superscript and limits in the preceding example showed in its simplest form. This is carried further by

$$a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \cdots}}}$$

and still further by

$$\int \frac{dx}{ae^{mx} - be^{-mx}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{2m\sqrt{ab}} \log \frac{\sqrt{a}\, e^{mx} - \sqrt{b}}{\sqrt{a}\, e^{mx} + \sqrt{b}} \\ \frac{1}{m\sqrt{ab}} \tanh^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{b}} e^{mx}\right) \\ \frac{-1}{m\sqrt{ab}} \coth^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{b}} e^{mx}\right) \end{array} \right.$$

These examples also show line-drawing, built-up characters like braces and radicals, and a spectrum of positioning problems. (Section 6 shows what a user has to type to produce these on our system.)

2. Photocomposition

Photocomposition techniques can be used to solve some of the problems of typesetting mathematics. A phototypesetter is a device which exposes a piece of photographic paper or film, placing characters wherever they are wanted. The Graphic Systems phototypesetter[2] on the UNIX operating system[3] works by shining light through a character stencil. The character is made the right size by lenses, and the light beam directed by fiber optics to the desired place on a piece of photographic paper. The exposed paper is developed and typically used in some form of photooffset reproduction.

On UNIX, the phototypesetter is driven by a formatting program called TROFF [4]. TROFF was designed for setting running text. It also provides all of the facilities that one needs for doing mathematics, such as arbitrary horizontal and vertical motions, line-drawing, size changing, but the syntax for describing these special operations is difficult to learn, and difficult even for experienced users to type correctly.

For this reason we decided to use TROFF as an ''assembly language,'' by designing a language for describing mathematical expressions, and compiling it into TROFF.

3. Language Design

The fundamental principle upon which we based our language design is that the language should be easy to use by people (for example, secretaries) who know neither mathematics nor typesetting.

This principle implies several things. First, ''normal'' mathematical conventions about operator precedence, parentheses, and the like cannot be used, for to give special meaning to such characters means that the user has to understand what he or she is typing. Thus the language should not assume, for instance, that parentheses are always balanced, for they are not in the half-open interval $(a, b]$. Nor should it assume that that $\sqrt{a+b}$ can be replaced by $(a+b)^{1/2}$, or that $1/(1-x)$ is better written as $\frac{1}{1-x}$ (or vice versa).

Second, there should be relatively few rules, keywords, special symbols and operators, and the like. This keeps the language easy to learn and remember. Furthermore, there should be few exceptions to the rules that do exist: if something works in one situation, it should work everywhere. If a variable can have a subscript, then a subscript can have a subscript, and so on without limit.

Third, ''standard'' things should happen automatically. Someone who types ''x=y+z+1'' should get ''$x=y+z+1$''. Subscripts and superscripts should automatically be printed in an appropriately smaller size, with no special intervention. Fraction bars have to be made the right length and positioned at the right height. And so on. Indeed a mechanism for overriding default actions has to exist, but its application is the exception, not the rule.

We assume that the typist has a reasonable picture (a two-dimensional representation) of the desired final form, as might be handwritten by the author of a paper. We also assume that the input is typed on a computer terminal much like an ordinary typewriter. This implies an input alphabet of perhaps 100 characters, none of them special.

A secondary, but still important, goal in our design was that the system should be easy to implement, since neither of the authors had any desire to make a long-term project of it. Since our design was not firm, it was also necessary that the program be easy to change at any time.

To make the program easy to build and to change, and to guarantee regularity (''it should work everywhere''), the language is defined by a context-free grammar, described in Section 5. The compiler for the language was built using a compiler-compiler.

A priori, the grammar/compiler-compiler approach seemed the right thing to do. Our subsequent experience leads us to believe that any other course would have been folly. The original language was designed in a few days. Construction of a working system sufficient to try significant examples required perhaps a person-month. Since then, we have spent a modest amount of additional time over several years tuning, adding facilities, and occasionally changing the language as users make criticisms and suggestions.

We also decided quite early that we would let TROFF do our work for us whenever possible. TROFF is quite a powerful program, with a macro facility, text and arithmetic variables, numerical computation and testing, and conditional branching. Thus we have been able to avoid writing a lot of mundane but tricky software. For example, we store no text strings, but simply pass them on to TROFF. Thus we avoid having to write a storage management package. Furthermore, we have been able to isolate ourselves from most details of the particular device and character set currently in use. For example, we let TROFF compute the widths of all strings of characters; we need know nothing about them.

A third design goal is special to our environment. Since our program is only useful for typesetting mathematics, it is necessary that it interface cleanly with the underlying typesetting language for the benefit of users who want to set intermingled mathematics and text (the usual case). The standard mode of operation is that when a document is typed, mathematical expressions are input as part of the text, but marked by user settable delimiters. The program reads this input and treats as comments those things which are not mathematics, simply passing them through untouched. At the same time it converts the mathematical input into the necessary TROFF commands. The resulting ioutput is passed directly to TROFF where the comments and the mathematical parts both become text and/or TROFF commands.

4. The Language

We will not try to describe the language precisely here; interested readers may refer to the appendix for more details. Throughout this section, we will write expressions exactly as they are handed to the typesetting program (hereinafter called ''EQN''), except that we won't show the delimiters that the user types to mark the beginning and end of the expression. The interface between EQN and TROFF is described at the end of this section.

As we said, typing x=y+z+1 should produce $x=y+z+1$, and indeed it does. Variables are made italic, operators and digits become roman, and normal spacings between letters and operators are altered slightly to give a more pleasing appearance.

Input is free-form. Spaces and new lines in the input are used by EQN to separate pieces of the input; they are not used to create space in the output. Thus

```
x    =    y
  + z + 1
```

also gives $x=y+z+1$. Free-form input is easier to type initially; subsequent editing is also easier, for an expression may be typed as many short lines.

Extra white space can be forced into the output by several characters of various sizes. A tilde ‘‘˜’’ gives a space equal to the normal word spacing in text; a circumflex gives half this much, and a tab charcter spaces to the next tab stop.

Spaces (or tildes, etc.) also serve to delimit pieces of the input. For example, to get

$$f(t)=2\pi\int\sin(\omega t)dt$$

we write

```
f(t) = 2 pi int sin ( omega t )dt
```

Here spaces are *necessary* in the input to indicate that *sin*, *pi*, *int*, and *omega* are special, and potentially worth special treatment. EQN looks up each such string of characters in a table, and if appropriate gives it a translation. In this case, *pi* and *omega* become their greek equivalents, *int* becomes the integral sign (which must be moved down and enlarged so it looks ‘‘right’’), and *sin* is made roman, following conventional mathematical practice. Parentheses, digits and operators are automatically made roman wherever found.

Fractions are specified with the keyword *over:*

```
a+b over c+d+e = 1
```

produces

$$\frac{a+b}{c+d+e}=1$$

Similarly, subscripts and superscripts are introduced by the keywords *sub* and *sup:*

$$x^2+y^2=z^2$$

is produced by

```
x sup 2 + y sup 2 = z sup 2
```

The spaces after the 2’s are necessary to mark the end of the superscripts; similarly the keyword *sup* has to be marked off by spaces or some equivalent delimiter. The return to the proper baseline is automatic. Multiple levels of subscripts or superscripts are of course allowed: ‘‘x sup y sup z’’ is x^{y^z}. The construct ‘‘something *sub* something *sup* something’’ is recognized as a special case, so ‘‘x sub i sup 2’’ is x_i^2 instead of ${x_i}^2$.

More complicated expressions can now be formed with these primitives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}=\frac{x^2}{a^2}+\frac{y^2}{b^2}$$

is produced by

```
{partial sup 2 f} over {partial x sup 2} =
x sup 2 over a sup 2 + y sup 2 over b sup 2
```

Braces {} are used to group objects together; in this case they indicate unambiguously what goes over what on the left-hand side of the expression. The language defines the precedence of *sup* to be higher than that of *over*, so no braces are needed to get the correct association on the right side. Braces can always be used when in doubt about precedence.

The braces convention is an example of the power of using a recursive grammar to define the language. It is part of the language that if a construct can appear in some context, then *any expression* in braces can also occur in that context.

There is a *sqrt* operator for making square roots of the appropriate size: ‘‘sqrt a+b’’ produces $\sqrt{a+b}$, and

```
x = {–b +– sqrt{b sup 2 –4ac}} over 2a
```

is

$$x=\frac{-b\pm\sqrt{b^2-4ac}}{2a}$$

Since large radicals look poor on our typesetter, *sqrt* is not useful for tall expressions.

Limits on summations, integrals and similar constructions are specified with the keywords *from* and *to.* To get

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}x_i\rightarrow 0$$

we need only type

```
sum from i=0 to inf x sub i –> 0
```

Centering and making the Σ big enough and the limits smaller are all automatic. The *from* and *to* parts are both optional, and the central part (e.g., the Σ) can in fact be anything:

```
lim from {x –> pi /2} ( tan˜x) = inf
```

is

$$\lim_{x\rightarrow\pi/2}(\tan x)=\infty$$

Again, the braces indicate just what goes into the *from* part.

There is a facility for making braces, brackets, parentheses, and vertical bars of the right height, using the keywords *left* and *right:*

left [x+y over 2a right]~=~1

makes

$$\left[\frac{x+y}{2a} \right] = 1$$

A *left* need not have a corresponding *right,* as we shall see in the next example. Any characters may follow *left* and *right,* but generally only various parentheses and bars are meaningful.

Big brackets, etc., are often used with another facility, called *piles,* which make vertical piles of objects. For example, to get

$$sign(x) \equiv \left\{ \begin{array}{rl} 1 & \text{if } x>0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x=0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x<0 \end{array} \right.$$

we can type

```
sign (x) ~==~ left {
  rpile {1 above 0 above −1}
  ~~lpile {if above if above if}
  ~~lpile {x>0 above x=0 above x<0}
```

The construction ‘‘left {’’ makes a left brace big enough to enclose the ‘‘rpile {...}’’, which is a right-justified pile of ‘‘above ... above ...’’. ‘‘lpile’’ makes a left-justified pile. There are also centered piles. Because of the recursive language definition, a pile can contain any number of elements; any element of a pile can of course contain piles.

Although EQN makes a valiant attempt to use the right sizes and fonts, there are times when the default assumptions are simply not what is wanted. For instance the italic *sign* in the previous example would conventionally be in roman. Slides and transparencies often require larger characters than normal text. Thus we also provide size and font changing commands: ‘‘size 12 bold {A~x~=~y}’’ will produce $\mathbf{A\ x = y}$. *Size* is followed by a number representing a character size in points. (One point is 1/72 inch; this paper is set in 9 point type.)

If necessary, an input string can be quoted in "...", which turns off grammatical significance, and any font or spacing changes that might otherwise be done on it. Thus we can say

lim~ roman "sup" ~x sub n = 0

to ensure that the supremum doesn’t become a superscript:

$$\lim \mathrm{sup}\ x_n = 0$$

Diacritical marks, long a problem in traditional typesetting, are straightforward:

$$\underline{\dot{x}} + \hat{x} + \tilde{y} + \hat{X} + \ddot{Y} = \overline{z+Z}$$

is made by typing

```
x dot under + x hat + y tilde
+ X hat + Y dotdot = z+Z bar
```

There are also facilities for globally changing default sizes and fonts, for example for making view-graphs or for setting chemical equations. The language allows for matrices, and for lining up equations at the same horizontal position.

Finally, there is a definition facility, so a user can say

define name "..."

at any time in the document; henceforth, any occurrence of the token ‘‘name’’ in an expression will be expanded into whatever was inside the double quotes in its definition. This lets users tailor the language to their own specifications, for it is quite possible to redefine keywords like *sup* or *over.* Section 6 shows an example of definitions.

The EQN preprocessor reads intermixed text and equations, and passes its output to TROFF. Since TROFF uses lines beginning with a period as control words (e.g., ‘‘.ce’’ means ‘‘center the next output line’’), EQN uses the sequence ‘‘.EQ’’ to mark the beginning of an equation and ‘‘.EN’’ to mark the end. The ‘‘.EQ’’ and ‘‘.EN’’ are passed through to TROFF untouched, so they can also be used by a knowledgeable user to center equations, number them automatically, etc. By default, however, ‘‘.EQ’’ and ‘‘.EN’’ are simply ignored by TROFF, so by default equations are printed in-line.

‘‘.EQ’’ and ‘‘.EN’’ can be supplemented by TROFF commands as desired; for example, a centered display equation can be produced with the input:

```
.ce
.EQ
x sub i = y sub i ...
.EN
```

Since it is tedious to type ‘‘.EQ’’ and ‘‘.EN’’ around very short expressions (single letters, for instance), the user can also define two characters to serve as the left and right delimiters of expressions. These characters are recognized anywhere in subsequent text. For example if the left and right delimiters have both been set to ‘‘#’’, the input:

Let #x sub i#, #y# and #alpha# be positive

produces:

Let x_i, y and α be positive

Running a preprocessor is strikingly easy on UNIX. To typeset text stored in file ‘‘f ’’, one issues the command:

eqn f | troff

The vertical bar connects the output of one process (EQN) to the input of another (TROFF).

5. Language Theory

The basic structure of the language is not a particularly original one. Equations are pictured as a set of ''boxes,'' pieced together in various ways. For example, something with a subscript is just a box followed by another box moved downward and shrunk by an appropriate amount. A fraction is just a box centered above another box, at the right altitude, with a line of correct length drawn between them.

The grammar for the language is shown below. For purposes of exposition, we have collapsed some productions. In the original grammar, there are about 70 productions, but many of these are simple ones used only to guarantee that some keyword is recognized early enough in the parsing process. Symbols in capital letters are terminal symbols; lower case symbols are non-terminals, i.e., syntactic categories. The vertical bar | indicates an alternative; the brackets [ ] indicate optional material. A TEXT is a string of non-blank characters or any string inside double quotes; the other terminal symbols represent literal occurrences of the corresponding keyword.

```
eqn   : box | eqn box

box   : text
      | { eqn }
      | box OVER box
      | SQRT box
      | box SUB box | box SUP box
      | [ L | C | R ]PILE { list }
      | LEFT text eqn [ RIGHT text ]
      | box [ FROM box ] [ TO box ]
      | SIZE text box
      | [ROMAN | BOLD | ITALIC] box
      | box [HAT | BAR | DOT | DOTDOT | TILDE]
      | DEFINE text text

list  : eqn | list ABOVE eqn

text  : TEXT
```

The grammar makes it obvious why there are few exceptions. For example, the observation that something can be replaced by a more complicated something in braces is implicit in the productions:

```
eqn   : box | eqn box
box   : text | { eqn }
```

Anywhere a single character could be used, *any* legal construction can be used.

Clearly, our grammar is highly ambiguous. What, for instance, do we do with the input

```
a over b over c  ?
```

Is it

```
{a over b} over c
```

or is it

```
a over {b over c}  ?
```

To answer questions like this, the grammar is supplemented with a small set of rules that describe the precedence and associativity of operators. In particular, we specify (more or less arbitrarily) that *over* associates to the left, so the first alternative above is the one chosen. On the other hand, *sub* and *sup* bind to the right, because this is closer to standard mathematical practice. That is, we assume x^{a^b} is $x^{(a^b)}$, not $(x^a)^b$.

The precedence rules resolve the ambiguity in a construction like

```
a sup 2 over b
```

We define *sup* to have a higher precedence than *over*, so this construction is parsed as $\frac{a^2}{b}$ instead of $a^{\frac{2}{b}}$.

Naturally, a user can always force a particular parsing by placing braces around expressions.

The ambiguous grammar approach seems to be quite useful. The grammar we use is small enough to be easily understood, for it contains none of the productions that would be normally used for resolving ambiguity. Instead the supplemental information about precedence and associativity (also small enough to be understood) provides the compiler-compiler with the information it needs to make a fast, deterministic parser for the specific language we want. When the language is supplemented by the disambiguating rules, it is in fact LR(1) and thus easy to parse[5].

The output code is generated as the input is scanned. Any time a production of the grammar is recognized, (potentially) some TROFF commands are output. For example, when the lexical analyzer reports that it has found a TEXT (i.e., a string of contiguous characters), we have recognized the production:

```
text  : TEXT
```

The translation of this is simple. We generate a local name for the string, then hand the name and the string to TROFF, and let TROFF perform the storage management. All we save is the name of the string, its height, and its baseline.

As another example, the translation associated with the production

```
box   : box OVER box
```

is:

Width of output box =
  slightly more than largest input width
Height of output box =
  slightly more than sum of input heights
Base of output box =
  slightly more than height of bottom input box
String describing output box =
  move down;
  move right enough to center bottom box;
  draw bottom box (i.e., copy string for bottom box);
  move up; move left enough to center top box;
  draw top box (i.e., copy string for top box);
  move down and left; draw line full width;
  return to proper base line.

Most of the other productions have equally simple semantic actions. Picturing the output as a set of properly placed boxes makes the right sequence of positioning commands quite obvious. The main difficulty is in finding the right numbers to use for esthetically pleasing positioning.

With a grammar, it is usually clear how to extend the language. For instance, one of our users suggested a TENSOR operator, to make constructions like

$$ {}^{l}_{m}\mathbf{T}^{k\,j}_{n\,i} $$

Grammatically, this is easy: it is sufficient to add a production like

```
box    : TENSOR { list }
```

Semantically, we need only juggle the boxes to the right places.

6. Experience

There are really three aspects of interest—how well EQN sets mathematics, how well it satisfies its goal of being ‘‘easy to use,’’ and how easy it was to build.

The first question is easily addressed. This entire paper has been set by the program. Readers can judge for themselves whether it is good enough for their purposes. One of our users commented that although the output is not as good as the best hand-set material, it is still better than average, and much better than the worst. In any case, who cares? Printed books cannot compete with the birds and flowers of illuminated manuscripts on esthetic grounds, either, but they have some clear economic advantages.

Some of the deficiencies in the output could be cleaned up with more work on our part. For example, we sometimes leave too much space between a roman letter and an italic one. If we were willing to keep track of the fonts involved, we could do this better more of the time.

Some other weaknesses are inherent in our output device. It is hard, for instance, to draw a line of an arbitrary length without getting a perceptible overstrike at one end.

As to ease of use, at the time of writing, the system has been used by two distinct groups. One user population consists of mathematicians, chemists, physicists, and computer scientists. Their typical reaction has been something like:

(1) It’s easy to write, although I make the following mistakes...

(2) How do I do...?

(3) It botches the following things.... Why don’t you fix them?

(4) You really need the following features...

The learning time is short. A few minutes gives the general flavor, and typing a page or two of a paper generally uncovers most of the misconceptions about how it works.

The second user group is much larger, the secretaries and mathematical typists who were the original target of the system. They tend to be enthusiastic converts. They find the language easy to learn (most are largely self-taught), and have little trouble producing the output they want. They are of course less critical of the esthetics of their output than users trained in mathematics. After a transition period, most find using a computer more interesting than a regular typewriter.

The main difficulty that users have seems to be remembering that a blank is a delimiter; even experienced users use blanks where they shouldn’t and omit them when they are needed. A common instance is typing

```
f(x sub i)
```

which produces

$$ f\,(x_{i\,)} $$

instead of

$$ f\,(x_i) $$

Since the EQN language knows no mathematics, it cannot deduce that the right parenthesis is not part of the subscript.

The language is somewhat prolix, but this doesn’t seem excessive considering how much is being done, and it is certainly more compact than the corresponding TROFF commands. For example, here is the source for the continued fraction expression in Section 1 of this paper:

```
a sub 0 + b sub 1 over
  {a sub 1 + b sub 2 over
    {a sub 2 + b sub 3 over
      {a sub 3 + ... }}}
```

This is the input for the large integral of Section 1; notice the use of definitions:

```
define emx "{e sup mx}"
define mab "{m sqrt ab}"
define sa "{sqrt a}"
define sb "{sqrt b}"
int dx over {a emx − be sup −mx} ˜=˜
left { lpile {
    1 over {2 mab} ˜log˜
        {sa emx − sb} over {sa emx + sb}
  above
    1 over mab ˜ tanh sup −1 ( sa over sb emx )
  above
    −1 over mab ˜ coth sup −1 ( sa over sb emx )
}
```

As to ease of construction, we have already mentioned that there are really only a few person-months invested. Much of this time has gone into two things—fine-tuning (what is the most esthetically pleasing space to use between the numerator and denominator of a fraction?), and changing things found deficient by our users (shouldn't a tilde be a delimiter?).

The program consists of a number of small, essentially unconnected modules for code generation, a simple lexical analyzer, a canned parser which we did not have to write, and some miscellany associated with input files and the macro facility. The program is now about 1600 lines of C [6], a high-level language reminiscent of BCPL. About 20 percent of these lines are ''print'' statements, generating the output code.

The semantic routines that generate the actual TROFF commands can be changed to accommodate other formatting languages and devices. For example, in less than 24 hours, one of us changed the entire semantic package to drive NROFF, a variant of TROFF, for typesetting mathematics on teletypewriter devices capable of reverse line motions. Since many potential users do not have access to a typesetter, but still have to type mathematics, this provides a way to get a typed version of the final output which is close enough for debugging purposes, and sometimes even for ultimate use.

7. Conclusions

We think we have shown that it is possible to do acceptably good typesetting of mathematics on a phototypesetter, with an input language that is easy to learn and use and that satisfies many users' demands. Such a package can be implemented in short order, given a compiler-compiler and a decent typesetting program underneath.

Defining a language, and building a compiler for it with a compiler-compiler seems like the only sensible way to do business. Our experience with the use of a grammar and a compiler-compiler has been uniformly favorable. If we had written everything into code directly, we would have been locked into our original design. Furthermore, we would have never been sure where the exceptions and special cases were. But because we have a grammar, we can change our minds readily and still be reasonably sure that if a construction works in one place it will work everywhere.

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